

DOMAIN-SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM VARIABLES AS ANTECEDENTS OF PROMOTIVE
AND PROHIBITIVE VOICE BEHAVIOR

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This is dedicated to my wife, my family, friends, and mentors
for all of their support and guidance.

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ABSTRACT

DOMAIN-SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM VARIABLES AS ANTECEDENTS OF PROMOTIVE AND PROHIBITIVE VOICE BEHAVIOR

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The current study examined the role of domain-specific self-esteem variables as antecedents of two different types of voice behavior: promotive and prohibitive. Past research has found global self-esteem to be a marginal predictor of voice that is more promotive in nature, but has not closely examined the role of self-esteem variables with respect to both promotive and prohibitive voice. Gender differences in both domain-specific self-esteem and the two types of voice behavior were examined, as well as the possibility of gender as a moderator of the relationships between domain-specific self-esteem variables and the two types of voice. Lastly, the current study sought to answer questions regarding whether a reciprocal relationship exists between any of the self-esteem variables included in the study and the two types of voice behavior. Data were collected online via Amazon Mechanical Turk at two time points, approximately six weeks between measurements. The total sample used in the analyses included 148 participants who were employed adults living in the United States. Data were analyzed using regression analyses and between samples t-tests. Of the domain-specific self-esteem variables included in this study, Giftedness self-esteem was found to uniquely predict promotive voice behavior, and Power self-esteem was found to uniquely predict prohibitive voice behavior. No clear gender differences emerged with respect to promotive and prohibitive voice. Women did exhibit higher Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem relative to men, however. Gender was not shown to moderate relationships between any of the domain-specific self-esteem variables and promotive and prohibitive voice. No evidence was found to support previous research that

showed global self-esteem exhibited unique relationships with either type of voice behavior, and neither promotive nor prohibitive voice had a reciprocal relationship with global self-esteem. The domain-specific self-esteem variables exhibited reciprocal relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice, with the exception of Vulnerability self-esteem. In organizations that value proactive work behaviors, particularly with respect to promotive and prohibitive voice, a person's evaluation of how naturally gifted they are (Giftedness self-esteem) and how influential they are (Power self-esteem) appear to influence whether or not they will express their suggestions on how to improve the workplace.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The movement of organizations toward decentralization and globalization has made it necessary for employees to be proactive in their work habits (Crant, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010). One form of proactive behavior that has garnered the attention of researchers is voice behavior, also referred to as employee voice. Research regarding voice has spanned over four decades since Hirschman in 1970 first wrote about employees expressing issues challenging the organizational status quo. A seminal publication in the field of voice behavior research was written by Van Dyne and LePine in 1998, in which they define voice behavior as a, “promotive behavior that emphasizes the expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize” (pg. 109). The key contribution of Van Dyne and LePine was a validated measure of voice behavior, which led to more interest in voice research, but also narrowed the focus of voice behavior as a construct that focuses solely on the expression of opinions intended to improve work practices and policies, ignoring voice focusing on expressing the concern about existing practices that are a detriment to an organization (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Liang et al. in 2012 examined the psychological antecedents of promotive voice, a construct aligned with Van Dyne and LePine’s conceptualization of voice behavior, and prohibitive voice, or voice that is expressing concern over work practices that might be harmful to the organization, and found clear differences.

A major area of voice behavior research is concerned with the psychological antecedents and individual-level factors that might predict who is more likely to speak up in a work context. One such individual factor that has been found to influence voice behavior is gender (Morrison, 2011). LePine and Van Dyne (1998) and then Detert and Burris (2007) found that men, on

average, expressed more voice than women, although the studies only focused on voice that is prosocial in nature. Although there is some evidence for gender differences in regards to voice behavior, the reasons for the differences are not well understood (Morrison, 2011). One possible reason for this difference might lie in another individual difference that has been found to influence voice behavior. Self-esteem has been found to positively relate to prosocial voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003), and when self-esteem is examined at a domain-specific level clear gender differences emerge (Gentile, Grabe, Dolan-Pascoe, Twenge, Wells, & Maitino, 2009). The main purpose of this study was to examine how gender differences in domain-specific self-esteem was expected to influence promotive and prohibitive voice outcomes differently. As there is increasing need within organizations to have employees who are able to be proactive in expressing their opinions, it is the intention of this study to show that through identifying the unique psychological antecedents that differentiate promotive and prohibitive voice, organizations will have more information to identify ways to improve promotive and prohibitive voice in the workplace.

This study examined the relationship between areas of domain-specific self-esteem and the expression of voice behavior in order to expand the understanding of psychological antecedents beyond the relationship of general self-esteem and voice behavior as examined in LePine and Van Dyne (1998) and Premeaux and Bedeian (2003). Self-esteem was been split into several different categories: Likability, defined as, “the capacity to form pleasant, positive social relationships” (Stake, 1994, pg. 59), Morality, defined as an individual’s rating of how well they, “reflected universal moral values” (Stake, 1994, pg. 59), Task Accomplishment, defined as “the ability to complete tasks efficiently and capably” (Stake, 1994, pg. 60), Giftedness defined as, “natural aptitude and talent” (Stake, 1994, pg. 60), Power, defined as “the ability to influence

others effectively” (Stake, 1994, pg. 60), and Vulnerability, defined as “self-criticalness and inability to perform under pressure” (Stake, 1994, pg. 60). Specifically, it was expected that the relationship between domain-specific self-esteem variables and promotive and prohibitive voice will be moderated by gender, such that the relationships between Power and Giftedness self-esteem and promotive voice will be stronger for males than for females, and the relationships between Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem and prohibitive voice will be stronger for females than males (Figure 1).

Promotive and Prohibitive Voice

Much of the research on voice behavior as an Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) has spent a great deal of time debating the definition of the voice construct and its dimensionality. Van Dyne, Cummings, and Parks (1995) differentiated between extra-role behaviors on two dimensions, prohibitive vs. promotive and affiliative vs. challenging. Prohibitive behaviors seek to decrease the occurrence of something in a work setting whereas promotive behaviors intend to increase the occurrence of something in a work setting. Affiliative behaviors are an effort to strengthen work relationships through cooperation whereas challenging behaviors intend to test the *status quo* attempting to change ideas and issues. Using the definition of voice behavior proposed by LePine and Van Dyne (1998), which states that voice is a, “nonrequired behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge with an intent to improve rather than merely criticize,” voice is a promotive-challenging form of extra-role behavior (p. 854).

Research concerning voice has since expanded and re-examined the conceptualization of prosocial voice. Consider the definition of voice behavior from Premeaux and Bedeian in 2003

that voice is, “openly stating one’s views of opinions about workplace matters, including the actions or ideas of others, suggested or needed changes, and alternative approaches or different lines of reasoning for addressing job-related issues” (p. 1538). This definition does not delineate between the prohibitive-promotive types of voice and implies that suggested changes to an organization could include those that seek to prohibit a certain activity. Additionally, in 2003, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero, amended the conceptualization of voice behavior as a construct that is, “proactive, positive, and other-oriented” (pg. 1370), while also introducing the idea that voice is multi-dimensional. Among the constructs that Van Dyne et al. considered to be under the umbrella of prosocial voice was Reformed Dissent (Parker, 1993) described as the, “proactive expression of disagreement that occurs within the parameters of organizational rules and norms” (Van Dyne et al., 2003, pg. 1369). Reformed Dissent, while seemingly contradicting Van Dyne et al.’s (2003) conceptualization of voice as a behavior that is “positive,” is strikingly similar to the construct of prohibitive voice, defined as “employees’ expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization” (Liang et al., 2012, pg. 75). The movement within the field of voice research to expand the conceptualization of prosocial voice to include the expression of prohibitive voice has led to more studies regarding the differences between promotive and prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Wei, Zhang, & Chen, 2015).

Promotive and prohibitive voice have been differentiated on the basis of the behavioral content of the voice, the function of the voice, and the implications others face as a result of the voice (Liang et al., 2012). With regards to how promotive and prohibitive voice differ in terms of behavioral content, promotive voice is thought to express novel solutions to improve the status quo and thus is thought to be future-oriented in nature, whereas prohibitive voice draws attention

to some existing factor that is harmful to the organization and can be past or future-oriented, as it points out aspects of an organization that have already or have the potential to be harmful to the organization in the future. Implicitly this means that promotive voice functions to point out ways an organization can improve, while prohibitive voice calls attention to factors that are harmful to the organization. Lastly, promotive voice provides suggestions that may change the status quo and be disruptive to others in the short run, but the good intention behind the voice is more easily seen and is more likely to be interpreted as positive (Liang et al., 2012). Because prohibitive voice directs attention to harmful practices, by nature it implicates people who are responsible; the good intention behind the voice is not as easily seen by others and has more potential to elicit defensive responses.

Noticing the need in the literature to establish the difference, Liang et al. (2012) used four different samples to establish clear differences between promotive and prohibitive voice. The measures of promotive and prohibitive voice each contained six items that were developed in previous studies of organizational citizenship behaviors (Fahr, Zhong, & Organ, 2002 & 2004). In the first sample, the direct supervisors of 291 employees rated the promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors of their employees, and then an exploratory factor analysis was performed which found a two-factor solution, providing evidence for promotive and prohibitive voice being unique constructs. Two more samples were used to provide evidence of convergent and divergent validity from previous measures of voice when conceptualized as a behavior focused on constructive improvement. As expected, in the two samples the measure of promotive voice correlated more strongly than the measure of prohibitive voice with the previous measures of voice defined as constructive improvement directed voice. The second sample compared the promotive and prohibitive scales with LePine and Van Dyne's measure of voice. The promotive

scale had a correlation of $r = .83$ with the LePine and Van Dyne measure, while the prohibitive scale correlated $r = .73$ with the measure. The third sample compared the scales to a voice scale used by Farh, Hackett, and Liang (2007), which conceptualized voice as improvement-oriented. As expected, this measure had a correlation of $r = .69$ with the promotive scale, and $r = .52$ with the prohibitive scale. While the measures of promotive and prohibitive voice were correlated, they never correlated above $r = .70$ (Liang et al., 2012). In the final sample, they used the scales to compare their relationships to supervisor rated sportsmanship, expecting that the promotive scale would have a weaker negative relationship with sportsmanship, which was defined as an employee's ability to tolerate organizational issues as well as withholding action that could lead to undesirable tension at work, as it would be interpreted less negatively by the supervisor than prohibitive voice. Indeed, this is what they found, providing further evidence that promotive and prohibitive voice are conceptually distinct constructs.

The goal of this study will be to investigate how promotive and prohibitive voice differ in their psychological antecedents as well as to further study prohibitive voice, which has often been ignored. By establishing that promotive and prohibitive voice differ in their psychological antecedents, some much needed clarity can be added to the construct of voice behavior, a construct in which there has been considerable disagreement in how to define.

Psychological Antecedents of Voice Behavior

Research on voice behavior has studied the behavior in a variety of ways, with a large body of research devoted to the antecedents of voice. Demographic variables studied in relation to voice behavior include gender, race, ethnicity, organizational tenure, and amount of college education, and have been shown to be related to voice behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998;

Detert & Burris, 2007; Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012). However, demographic variables do not account for deep level differences among individuals. Personality is one of the most commonly studied aspects individual differences with respect to voice behavior. LePine and Van Dyne (2001) examined the relationship between the Big Five Factors of personality and voice behavior and found that conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and agreeableness all exhibited relationships with voice behavior; specifically, conscientiousness and extraversion exhibited moderate positive relationships with voice behavior, while agreeableness and neuroticism exhibited somewhat weaker negative relationships with voice behavior.

Outside of how personality may influence voice behavior other factors such as duty orientation, emotion regulation, group satisfaction, and self-esteem have been examined for their possible influence on voice behavior. Tangirala, Kamdar, Vankataramani, and Parke (2013) examined individuals' duty orientation and achievement orientations, hypothesizing that individuals higher in duty orientation, who are focused on making moral decisions in the workplace, will perceive that voice is more integral in their role responsibility at work, while individuals higher in achievement orientation, who are more ambitious, have a higher aspiration level and are motivated by personal career success, will perceive voice to be less important in their work role. These hypotheses were supported and further support the notion that individual differences exhibit relationships not only with the presence of voice behaviors but also the perceptions that voice behaviors are an important aspect of their role at work. Grant (2013) explored the relationship between an individual's ability to regulate emotion and voice behavior, finding that emotion regulation is positively related to voice and that relationship was partially mediated by an individual's ability to modify their emotions, internally and externally. This implies a more complex relationship in which individuals who are better in managing their

emotions as well as monitoring the outward expression of those emotions also tend to exhibit more voice in the workplace. This is of particular importance when examining how individuals behave in a group setting. Other research has demonstrated a positive relationship between job satisfaction and expressing voice to supervisors and a negative relationship between psychological detachment from the work environment and voice behavior (Burriss et al., 2008; Detert & Burriss, 2007). LePine and Van Dyne (1998) found that an individual's satisfaction with their work group as well as an individual's self-esteem exhibited positive relationships with voice behavior. The previous studies conceptualized voice as more promotive in nature, or voice that is aimed at improving the organization or group they are working within, and does not address voice that is prohibitive, or voice that is concerned with addressing harmful practices within an organization.

More recent studies have examined the antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice in order to distinguish the two conceptually. Lin and Johnson (2015) found in two studies that a self-regulatory orientation that is promotion focused, that revolves around ideal goals and using eager and novel strategies for achieving goals, exhibits a positive relationship with promotive voice behavior. They also examined and found a positive relationship between a prevention focused self-regulation strategy that focuses on setting goals to avoid undesirable situations and maintaining vigilant strategies to avoid such situations, and prohibitive voice, or voice that seeks to end a morally questionable activity to protect the organization (Lin & Johnson, 2015). This study shows the importance of including voice behavior that is intended to decrease an activity within the workplace within the general definition of voice behavior. Without this conceptualization, a significant amount of extra-role behaviors would be left unexamined. Liang et al. (2012) hypothesized that perceived safety, felt obligation for constructive change, and

organization-based self-esteem, would exhibit different relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice behavior. They found that perceived safety had a stronger relationship with prohibitive voice than promotive voice, and felt obligation for constructive change had a stronger relationship with promotive voice than prohibitive voice. When all three antecedents were included in the prediction of promotive and prohibitive voice, perceived safety was the only significant predictor of prohibitive voice and felt obligation was the only significant predictor of promotive voice. Organization-based self-esteem had a relationship of equal magnitude with both promotive and prohibitive voice. The contributions of Lin and Johnson (2015) and Liang et al. (2012) point to promotive and prohibitive voice being distinguishable constructs that have different antecedents.

Voice Behavior Outcomes

Although a great deal of research on voice behavior has focused on antecedents, the outcomes of voice are equally important. In regards to outcomes surrounding voice it is commonly held that voice benefits the organization in terms of decision making, organizational improvement, and error detection (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Detert & Burris, 2007). In an actual study of the influence of voice, Edmondson in 2003 found voice behavior aided in establishing new work practices within work teams (Edmondson, 2003). In terms of voice outcomes, a bulk of the research has focused on what positive effects voice has on the individual. Voice has been found to positively influence employee's feelings of control, which often increases job satisfaction and motivation (Parker, 1993). Expressing voice can also lead to employees having more positive attitudes after expressing their views and concerns (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Burris, Detert, and Romney (2010) found that both manager and employee

perceptions of an employee's voice were positively related to ratings of job performance and the manager perception of employee voice was negatively related to involuntary employee turnover. When employees and managers agreed on an employee exhibiting voice at higher levels the performance ratings increased as well (Burris et al., 2010). While many organizational researchers hypothesized that voice could put an employee at risk of harsh performance ratings and involuntary turnover, the contribution of Burris et al. showed that the level of agreement between a manager and employee on the level of voice impacted performance ratings and involuntary turnover as well. Specifically, employees who overestimated their level of voice relative to their managers were more likely to receive worse ratings and more likely to be terminated.

Theory of Planned Behavior

What is largely agreed upon in the voice behavior literature is the expression of voice by an employee challenges the status quo and is potentially risky for employees, as it could result in negative consequences for them (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Due to the potential benefits and risks of expressing a challenging opinion at work, employees often consider the costs and benefits of doing so (Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Because of this cost-benefit analysis on the part of the employee, voice is considered an intentional behavior and has previously been sought to be explained by the theory of planned behavior (Liang, Fahr, & Fahr, 2012).

The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1987) was proposed as an extension of the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Both theories seek to explain human behavior through an individual's intention to perform a specific behavior, with

the theory of planned behavior adding an individual's perceived behavioral control in combination with their intention to predict their behavior in a specific context (Ajzen, 1991). In a refinement of his theory in 1991, Ajzen makes clear that the perceived behavioral control aspect of the theory is distinct from perceived locus of control, specifically, while perceived locus of control refers to a trait-like general belief about the level of control one has over events in their life across situations, perceived behavioral control is more state-like and usually does vary across situations and actions (Ajzen, 1991). This description of perceived behavioral control fits with the description of domain-specific self-esteem, in that domain-specific self-esteem refers to a person's evaluation of their various traits, abilities, and attributes (Brown and Marshall, 2006).

Indeed, in their application of the theory of planned behavior, Liang, Fahr, and Fahr (2012) used organization-based self-esteem to predict both promotive and prohibitive voice behavior. Liang et al. (2012) hypothesized that organization-based self-esteem, or a person's belief about their capabilities and worth in their workplace, would influence their perceptions of behavioral control and thus influence voice. Their study found that organization-based self-esteem temporally influenced both prohibitive and promotive voice behavior, with those individuals reporting greater organization-based self-esteem expressing more promotive and prohibitive voice. Although organization-based self-esteem turned out to be the weakest predictor of voice in this particular study, the authors noted that because the sample consisted of Chinese employees, for which the cultural value of collectivism is strongly encouraged, the role of organization-based self-esteem might be more influential in a Western context in which individualism is the norm (Liang et al., 2012).

Global Self-Esteem and Domain-Specific Self-Esteem

Global self-esteem refers to a general appraisal a person makes about themselves, and the construct of global self-esteem is thought to be trait-like in that it remains fairly stable throughout adulthood (Brown & Marshall, 2006). While findings in regards to global self-esteem have been fairly consistent in that in general it tends to exhibit a positive relationship with voice behavior, LePine and Van Dyne (1998) focused on global self-esteem as an antecedent of the promotive aspect of voice, and most research has fallen short in exploring the antecedents of other forms of voice such as prohibitive voice.

Two aspects of previous research involving voice behavior and self-esteem as an antecedent to voice point to a need to re-examine the role of self-esteem in voice behavior: the first being that prohibitive voice has not received as much research attention as the classical definition of voice and the second being the opinion of Van Dyne et al. (2003) that voice is multi-dimensional and widens the construct definition to include constructs similar to prohibitive voice. While previous research has found that global self-esteem has been a key construct in the prediction of voice behavior, it has been noted that it has not been the most robust predictor relative to other variables (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). It is the goal of this study to examine the impact of different conceptualizations of self-esteem, both global and domain-specific self-esteem, and their impact on both promotive and prohibitive voice behavior. The contribution this study will seek to make will be to compare global self-esteem and areas of domain-specific self-esteem on promotive and prohibitive voice behavior. Previous research has focused predominately on promotive self-esteem and less attention has been given to prohibitive voice. Consequently, a clearer picture of the psychological antecedents of prohibitive voice is needed. Additionally, global self-esteem and domain-specific self-esteem have not been compared in

their prediction of voice behavior. A comparison of the magnitudes in their prediction could provide new information into the psychological antecedents of voice behavior.

In proposing a framework from which to study voice behavior, Van Dyne, Cummings, and Parks (1995) identified global self-esteem as an important individual trait that would be likely to influence voice, the thought being that those higher in self-esteem would be more immune to conformity norms within a work group and more likely to voice an opinion that could put them at risk of repercussions (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). In 1998, LePine and Van Dyne tested what was hypothesized in Van Dyne et al., 1995, and found that those higher in global self-esteem were more likely to express voice, however, the effect only reached marginal significance with a six-month time period between measuring global self-esteem and voice (LePine and Van Dyne, 1998). Perhaps the small predictive strength of global self-esteem in regards to voice is due to global self-esteem being a measure of an individual's general feeling about themselves as opposed to domain-specific self-esteem, which is concerned with a person's self-evaluation of an attribute, ability, or characteristic. The organization and context employees work in is only a small part of their identity, so using a measure of global self-esteem might be falling short in a situation, whereas measuring how individuals view themselves in a more specific domain would be more applicable to how they might behave in a work context.

Domain-specific self-esteem (also referred to as self-evaluations or self-concept) differs from global self-esteem in that it refers to the way an individual evaluates their different abilities or attributes (Brown & Marshall, 2006). Researchers in the area view domain-specific self-esteem as, "the way people evaluate or appraise their physical attributes, abilities, and personality characteristics" (Brown & Marshall, 2006, pg. 5). From the domain-specific perspective, it is possible for a person to be low in one form of self-esteem, such as social self-

esteem and high in another form of self-esteem such as moral self-esteem. The key distinction between global self-esteem and domain-specific self-esteem is that while global self-esteem refers to an individual's general feeling about themselves, domain-specific self-esteem asks individuals to evaluate themselves in specific areas such as how moral they view themselves or how powerful they view themselves.

The argument for the use of domain-specific self-esteem variables as a predictor of voice behavior in the workplace is that domain-specific self-esteem occupies a more cognitive aspect of human psychology relative to global self-esteem. Dutton and Brown (1997, Study 2) found that when given a cognitive task, specific self-evaluations predicted participant's cognitive reactions to their task performance, whereas global self-esteem predicted their emotional reactions to their task performance. Specifically, they found that participant's emotional reactions to cognitive task performance were influenced by their global self-esteem and that relationship was not influenced by their beliefs about their cognitive ability (Dutton & Brown, 1997, Study 1). They did find that specific self-attributions predicted participants' cognitive reaction to their task performance, providing evidence to the idea that a person's self-concept is more cognitive in nature relative to their global self-esteem, which was shown to be more emotional in nature (Dutton & Brown, 1997, Study 2). Bernichon, Cook, and Brown (2003) confirmed the findings in Dutton and Brown (1997) in regards to a person's self-concept driving their cognitive reactions to feedback, and global self-esteem being influential in their emotional reaction to feedback. Furthermore, Bernichon et al. (2003) found that global self-esteem and a person's domain-specific self-esteem, defined as "the way people appraise their particular abilities, talents, and attributes (Brown, 1998; Brown et al., 2001)" (Bernichon et al, 2003, pg. 195), interacted to influence people's responses to evaluative feedback. Specifically, among

those with high global self-esteem who positively evaluated themselves in social self-esteem were more interested in seeking positive feedback, while those high in global self-esteem and who negatively evaluated themselves in social self-esteem were more interested in seeking negative feedback. Those who were low in global self-esteem preferred positive feedback regardless of whether they evaluated themselves positively or negatively in the social domain. If voice behavior is conceptualized as a planned behavior it should follow that a better way to predict that behavior would be from an individual's domain-specific self-esteem, which has been shown to be more cognitive in nature relative to global self-esteem.

Six domains of self-esteem were examined in this study (Stake, 1994): Likability, Morality, Task Accomplishment, Giftedness, Power, and Vulnerability. Likability is defined as a, "measure of the capacity to form pleasant, positive social relationships" (Stake, 1994, pg. 59), Morality is defined as an individual's rating of how well they "reflected universal moral values" (Stake, 1994, pg. 59), Task Accomplishment is defined as "the ability to complete tasks efficiently and capably" (Stake, 1994, pg. 60), Giftedness is defined as, "natural aptitude and talent" (Stake, 1994, pg. 60), Power is defined as, "the ability to influence others effectively" (Stake, 1994, pg. 60), and Vulnerability is defined as, "self-criticalness and inability to perform under pressure" (Stake, 1994, pg. 60).

Because promotive voice is conceptualized as a behavior that challenges the status quo, yet is accompanied with solutions and suggestions for improvement, it was expected that higher self-ratings in the Likability, Task Accomplishment, Giftedness, and Power areas of self-esteem will positively relate to promotive voice behavior. Prohibitive voice, on the other hand, not only challenges the status quo, but also expresses concern for employee behavior or work practices that might be harmful to the organization. Therefore, it was expected that higher self-ratings in

the Morality and Power areas of self-esteem will positively relate to prohibitive voice behavior. For those higher in Morality self-esteem, they would be motivated by moral obligations to express prohibitive voice in order to influence the cessation of a harmful behavior or practice. For those higher in Power self-esteem, it was expected that through viewing themselves as having the ability to influence others they can influence organizational change through speaking up and not feel as threatened by challenging the status quo. For individuals who rate themselves highly on the Vulnerability self-esteem scale it would be expected that they exhibit less promotive and prohibitive voice, as both behaviors conceptually challenge the organizational status quo and those who view themselves as more vulnerable will be less likely to take a risk of voicing in a promotive or prohibitive fashion.

H1a. Higher levels of Likability, Task Accomplishment, Power, and Giftedness self-esteem will be associated with higher levels of promotive voice behavior. The self-esteem domains of Likability, Task Accomplishment, Power, and Giftedness will predict promotive voice over and above global self-esteem.

H1b. Higher levels of Morality and Power self-esteem will be associated with higher levels of prohibitive voice. Morality and Power self-esteem will predict prohibitive voice over and above global self-esteem.

H1c. Higher levels of Vulnerability self-esteem will be associated with lower levels of promotive and prohibitive voice. Vulnerability self-esteem will predict promotive and prohibitive voice over and above global self-esteem.

Gender and Self-Esteem

Previous research into gender differences in different areas of domain-specific self-esteem has found that the effect sizes of the differences are considerably larger and in some cases, double the magnitude of the effect on global self-esteem (Gentile, Grabe, Dolan-Pascoe, Twenge, Wells, & Maitino, 2009). Specifically, Gentile et al. (2009) found that males were higher than females in the areas of personal self and self-satisfaction self-esteem ($d = 0.28$ and $.33$, respectively), and females were higher than males in the areas of behavioral conduct and moral-ethical self-esteem ($d = -.17$ and $-.38$, respectively). These effect sizes were roughly equal to or larger than the effect size found by previous meta-analyses on the gender differences found in global self-esteem (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999; Major, Barr, Zubek, & Babey, 1999; Twenge & Campbell, 2001). The larger gender differences in domain-specific self-esteem might be key in explaining the gender differences in voice behavior.

In the development of the domain-specific self-esteem scale used in the present study, men rated themselves higher in Power and Giftedness self-esteem, while women rated themselves as higher in Morality, Likability, and Vulnerability self-esteem, but no gender differences were found between men and women in Task Accomplishment self-esteem (Stake, 1994). Additionally, Franke, Crown, and Spake (1997) performed a meta-analysis and found that in 66 samples with more than twenty-thousand participants, women were more likely than men to perceive hypothetical business practices as unethical, and while the magnitude of these differences declined with work experience, the differences remained.

Consistent with previous research, males were expected to be more likely than females to engage in promotive voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). As stated previously, females, on average, exhibit higher levels of morality self-esteem and are more likely to perceive certain

business practices as unethical, leading to the expectation that this will lead to females being more likely than males to engage in prohibitive voice.

H2: Males will be more likely than females to engage in promotive voice. Females will be more likely than males to engage in prohibitive voice.

H3: Males will exhibit higher levels of Power and Giftedness self-esteem relative to females, while females will exhibit higher levels of Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem relative to males.

H4a (see Figure 1): Gender will moderate the positive relationships between Power and Giftedness self-esteem and promotive voice, such that the relationship will be stronger for men than for women.

H4b (see Figure 1): Gender will moderate the relationships between Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem and prohibitive voice, such that the relationships will be stronger for women than for men. Specifically, the positive relationship between Morality self-esteem and prohibitive voice will be of greater magnitude for women than for men, and the negative relationship between Vulnerability self-esteem and prohibitive voice will be of greater magnitude for women than for men.

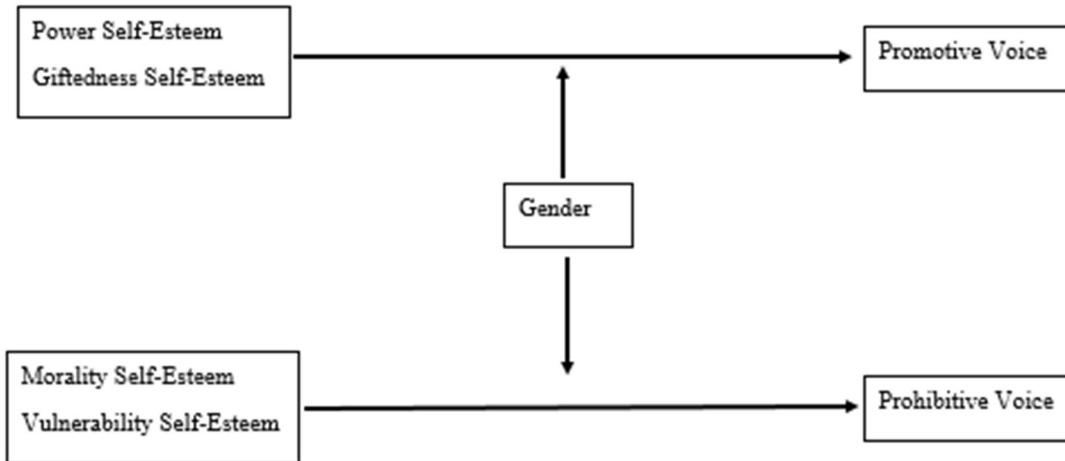


Figure 1. Gender as a Moderator of Domain Specific Self-Esteem-Voice Behavior Relationships

Reciprocal Nature of Self-Esteem and Voice Behavior

Lastly, the relationship between both global self-esteem and domain-specific self-esteem and promotive and prohibitive voice behavior was examined for a possible reciprocal relationship in which promotive and prohibitive voice measured at time one exhibit a positive relationship with global self-esteem and domain-specific self-esteem at time two. Liang et al. (2012) examined organization-based self-esteem as an antecedent to both promotive and prohibitive voice. The construct of organization-based self-esteem differs from global self-esteem in that it refers to a person's evaluation of their abilities or standing within a certain context, in this case it referred to a person's belief of their capabilities and social worth in the workplace (Pierce et al., 1989). This contextual based self-esteem is similar to aspects of self-esteem research referred to as domain-specific self-esteem, or a person's evaluation of the abilities and attributes in specific domains (e.g. academic self-esteem or social self-esteem) (Brown & Marshall, 2006). Liang et al. (2012) found that organization-based self-esteem temporally predicted both promotive and prohibitive voice behavior. Additionally, they found a reciprocal effect of promotive and prohibitive voice on organization-based self-esteem. Although

the study of the antecedents of voice behavior, when conceptualized as promotive voice, have been well explored, the relationship of different types of self-esteem and prohibitive voice behavior has not, pointing to a need to explore these relationships and make clear the psychological differences between the two types of voice.

LePine and Van Dyne (1998) examined the relationship between global self-esteem and promotive voice and temporally separated the measurements of global self-esteem and promotive voice, however they did not measure promotive voice at time one, and so it was not possible to examine if promotive voice had any reciprocal influence on global self-esteem. A further examination of this relation can add to the understanding of the relationship between global self-esteem and the voice behavior constructs.

Research Question 1: What is the reciprocal nature, if any, of the relationship between global self-esteem and both promotive and prohibitive voice?

Research Question 2: What is the reciprocal nature, if any, of the relationships between the six areas of domain-specific self-esteem and both promotive and prohibitive voice?

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Participants and Procedures

The sample was collected online using Amazon Mechanical Turk, a crowdsourcing method of collecting data. The use of crowd-sourced samples such as ones collected via Amazon Mechanical Turk has become more common in behavioral science research as it allows researchers access to populations that are not students and are often underrepresented. Although the use of these samples is not a cure-all for the sampling concerns of using student samples or samples of working adults in organizations, they are regarded as a viable way to collect data even as it pertains to organizational science research (Woo, Keith, & Thornton, 2015; Keith & Harms, 2016). Participants were told in order to be eligible for the survey they had to be current full- or part-time employees of an organization and were also screened out using questions on the survey regarding their employment status.

Participants completed the measures in a two-wave panel design, in which the same group of participants completed all the measures at both time points. The reasoning behind this methodology was to establish temporal precedence to strengthen any causal claims between domain-specific self-esteem and voice as well as to examine any reciprocal influences of global self-esteem or domain-specific self-esteem on the two types of voice behavior. Three-hundred thirty-seven participants completed the survey at time one. One-hundred forty-eight participants completed the survey at time two (56% attrition rate). The final sample of 148 employees was used for the analyses. The time lapse between measurement was set at six weeks. This length of time was used by Liang et al. (2012) in order to guard against turnover and to limit any attrition

in the response rate of the sample (Liang et al., 2012). All measures were completed as self-reports. When studying work behaviors, it is often a concern that self-versus-other reports of behavior will not converge. Lin and Johnson (2015) did a convergence study using Liang et al.'s (2012) measure of voice behavior in a sample of organizational behavior undergraduates that completed an interactive group exercise and found that the self-other agreement for promotive voice was $r = .45$ and prohibitive voice was $r = .54$.

Although a frequent critique of using self-reports to measure work behaviors and their antecedents is that the relationships can be inflated, it is also true that measurement of work behavior using others as a source can underinflate the true frequency of a work behavior due to a lack of opportunity to observe the entirety of an employee's work behavior or that an employee may direct OCBs towards certain coworkers and not others (Chan, 2009; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Another concern of using self-reports is that work behaviors can be inflated in that respondents answer in a socially desirable manner. In considering the construct of voice behavior, conceptualized as a work behavior that often challenges the status quo, it is not at all clear that expressing voice is socially desirable. However, Wei et al. (2015) found that social desirability underlies the influence that perceived efficacy and perceived risk of expressing voice. Specifically, power distance and supervisory delegation interacted to affect perceived efficacy of promotive voice behavior, and superficial harmony and group voice climate interacted to affect perceived risk of prohibitive voice (Wei et al., 2015). In order to address the concern of using self-report measures of promotive and prohibitive voice as well as the concern that social desirability can underlie voice behavior, social desirability was used as a control variable.

To address the concerns of using self-reports of work behaviors specifically, Carpenter, Berry, and Houston (2014) performed a meta-analysis that showed although employees report higher average levels of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) relative to the ratings of others, the actual magnitude of the difference is small. Additionally, it was found that self-rated OCBs were more strongly related to supervisor ratings than co-worker ratings of both OCBs directed towards the organization and directed towards individuals (Carpenter et al., 2014). Specifically, in comparing self and supervisor ratings of OCBs directed towards the organization (OCB-O), it was found that the mean difference in ratings was $\delta = .15$, indicating that although self-ratings of OCB-O were generally higher than supervisor ratings, the difference between the ratings was quite small and did not have a large effect (Carpenter et al., 2014). The mean sample-size weighted correlation of self-supervisor ratings of OCB-O was $r_m = .35$, and when corrected for unreliability of raters using interrater reliability the relationship was $\rho_{irr} = .53$ (Carpenter et al., 2014).

Measures

All variables except the control variable will be measured at both time points.

Domain-Specific Self-Esteem

The *Six-Factor Self-Concept Scale* (Stake, 1994) was used to gauge how individuals assess themselves in six different facets: Likeability, Morality, Task Accomplishment, Giftedness, Power, and Vulnerability. The scale consists of 36 items, with six items per subscale. The reason for using this scale over others was that it was developed specifically for use with adult samples. Other more widely-used measures of self-concept were frequently developed to use with samples of children and adolescents. The initial six-factor structure was developed from

a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA). This structure was then tested and confirmed through both principal components EFA and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The same sample was used for both the EFA and the CFA. The scale exhibited acceptable test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .75-.88.

Global Self-Esteem

The most commonly used measure of global self-esteem is Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale. The scale consists of 10 items and is a well-validated measure of global self-esteem (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989; Rosenberg, 1979). The measure asks participants to rate how they generally feel about themselves on a 4-point scale, 1-Strongly Agree and 4-Strongly Disagree.

Promotive and Prohibitive Voice

Promotive and Prohibitive voice was measured using Liang et al.'s (2012) 10-item measure of voice that contains two subscales. The promotive subscale was heavily influenced by Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) measure of voice, and contains 5 items rated on a 1 to 5 scale in which 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Example items include "proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit" and "raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure." The prohibitive subscale consists of items such as "proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management" and "advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance." Both scales were adapted in order to be self-reports of voice behavior.

The current study found that promotive and prohibitive voice were highly correlated, $r = .72$ (see Table 1). A recent meta-analysis found that promotive and prohibitive voice exhibit a

moderate relationship, $\rho = .57$, although not as strong as in the current study even though it is “corrected” for artifacts like unreliability (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2017). In order to justify the use of the two subscales as measurements of two distinct forms of voice behavior, as opposed to a measure of a singular form of voice behavior, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done to establish discriminant validity. The CFA was done using participants who completed the survey at time one ($N = 337$) in order to take advantage of the largest sample size available in the study. Two competing models were tested against each other, a one-factor voice model and a two-factor voice model (see Table 20). The two-factor model exhibited acceptable fit, $\chi^2(34) = 87.32, p < .001, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .97, AGFI = .92, SRMR = .04$, and the one-factor model did not, $\chi^2(35) = 214.66, p < .001, RMSEA = .12, CFI = .91, AGFI = .77, SRMR = .07$. The difference in chi-square between the two models was significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 127.34, p < .001$.

Controls

Information such as job satisfaction, organizational tenure, age, job status, ethnicity, and education were used as controls as they have been commonly shown to influence an employee’s willingness to engage in voice behavior (Morrison, 2011).

Overall job satisfaction was measured with three items from Camman, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979). It was used as a control because employees who report higher satisfaction are more likely to express voice when attempting to help their organizations (Detert & Burris, 2007). Organizational tenure was used as a control because employees who have more tenure within an organization tend to be more comfortable speaking up within the organization (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Organizational tenure was measured as the number of months an employee worked

in the company. Similar to organizational tenure, age was controlled because older employees might feel more comfortable voicing opinions in an employment setting.

Participants were asked about their organizational or job status as well in order to control for their position with the organization and the impact on voice. Employees holding higher positions within an organization are likely to feel more empowered to and more obligated to engage in voice (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006). Position within the organization was defined as either being an employee or manager.

Participants were asked to provide information with regards to their race/ethnicity. Caucasians have been found to engage in more voice relative to members of racial/ethnic minorities (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), and so race/ethnicity was used as a control, scored dichotomously as Caucasian or Racial/Ethnic minority. Participants were asked about their level of education in order to control for their education level. Employees with higher education levels are likely to have more ideas to voice in an employment setting (Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999).

The Socially Desirable Response Set Five-Item Survey (SDRS-5, Hays et al., 1989) was used to measure participants' social desirability. The *SDRS-5* is a 5-item measure intended to assess whether participants are intentionally misrepresenting themselves to be more socially desirable; in addition, because it is a self-report variable like the other variables in the study, it helped to control for common method bias, similar to a marker variable recommended by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003). It was administered at Time 1.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Relationships between Variables

Prior to running the regression analyses, the relationships between the variables included in the study were examined (see Table 1). Among the control variables, job satisfaction exhibited the largest correlations with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = .44$ and $.45$, respectively, $p < .01$). Job status (manager vs. nonmanager) exhibited the next highest relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = .32$ and $.29$, respectively, $p < .01$) followed by social desirability ($r = .26$ and $.30$, respectively, $p < .01$). Education did not have strong relationships with either promotive or prohibitive voice ($r = .13$ and $.05$, respectively, *n.s.*). Age had a similar pattern of relationship with promotive and prohibitive voice as education ($r = .14$ and $.05$, respectively, *n.s.*). Ethnicity had the opposite pattern of relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice compared to education and age ($r = .00$ and $.12$, respectively, *n.s.*). Organizational tenure exhibited miniscule relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = .01$ and $.04$, *n.s.*).

Global self-esteem had small to moderate relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = .22$ and $.27$, respectively, $p < .01$). It should be noted that global self-esteem had a stronger relationship with prohibitive voice than with promotive voice, in terms of magnitude. Among the domain-specific self-esteem variables, Giftedness self-esteem had the largest relationship with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = .50$ and $.57$, respectively, $p < .01$). The domain-specific self-esteem variables Likeability, Morality, and Task Accomplishment had relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice of similar magnitude ($r = .38$ and $.37$,

respectively for Likeability; $r = .32$ and $.32$, respectively for Morality; $r = .35$ and $.39$, respectively for Task Accomplishment; all were $p < .01$). The magnitude of these relationships provide promise in regards to the hypotheses, as all the relationships were of considerable magnitude, however some of the domain-specific self-esteem variables exhibited relationships with either promotive or prohibitive voice that was not hypothesized (i.e. Giftedness and prohibitive voice, Likeability and prohibitive voice, Morality and promotive voice, and Task Accomplishment and prohibitive voice).

Among the domain-specific self-esteem variables, Power and Vulnerability had the most unique relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice, relative to the other variables. Power self-esteem had a considerably weaker relationship with promotive voice relative to prohibitive voice ($r = .27$ and $.42$, respectively, $p < .01$). Vulnerability was the only domain-specific self-esteem variable to exhibit negative relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = -.16$, *n.s.* and $-.24$, $p < .01$, respectively), which was expected, because seeing oneself as more vulnerable should not be positively associated with engaging in a challenge-OCB.

Table 1. Relationships Amongst Promotive Voice, Prohibitive Voice, Global Self-Esteem, Domain-Specific Self-Esteem, and Control Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Promotive Voice (T2)	3.78	.90	.92	-							
2. Prohibitive Voice (T2)	3.54	.83	.84	.72**	-						
3. Gender	.42	.50	-	.01	-.07	-					
4. Global SE	3.96	.83	.93	.22**	.27**	.02	-				
5. Likeability SE	5.34	1.16	.89	.38**	.37**	.12	.50**	-			
6. Morality SE	5.84	1.06	.89	.32**	.32**	.18*	.39**	.70**	-		
7. Task Accomplishment SE	5.81	1.03	.92	.35**	.39**	.11	.45**	.64**	.83	-	
8. Giftedness SE	4.93	1.28	.90	.50**	.57**	-.08	.46**	.63**	.47	.54**	-
9. Power SE	3.92	1.22	.83	.27**	.42**	-.24**	.32**	.38**	.19	.34**	.62**
10. Vulnerability SE	3.34	1.47	.89	-.16	-.24**	.20*	-.69**	-.24**	-.17	-.26**	-.33**
11. Education	.53	.50	-	.13	.05	.05	.08	.01	.01	.08	.02
12. Ethnicity	.22	.42	-	.00	.12	.04	-.08	-.05	-.12	-.10	.06
13. Job Satisfaction	5.11	1.64	.91	.44**	.45**	.11	.39**	.33**	.24*	.29**	.30**
14. Age	37.36	12.41	-	.14	.05	.07	.18*	.13**	.29**	.28**	.05
15. Social Desirability	.24	.31	.78	.26**	.30**	.12	.29**	.40**	.43**	.35**	.31**
16. Organizational Tenure	68.22	68.76	-	.01	.04	-.06	.23**	.14	.23**	.22**	.00
17. Job Status	.33	.47	-	.32**	.29**	-.02	.03	.11	.04	.20*	.19*

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; SE = Self-Esteem. SD = Standard Deviation. T2 = variable measured at time two. All other variables measured at time one. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree. Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager.

Table 1. Relationships Amongst Promotive Voice, Prohibitive Voice, Global Self-Esteem, Domain-Specific Self-Esteem, and Control Variables (continued)

Variables	Mean	SD	α	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
9. Power SE	3.92	1.22	.83	-								
10. Vulnerability SE	3.34	1.47	.89	-.32**	-							
11. Education	.53	.50	-	-.02	-.01	-						
12. Ethnicity	.22	.42	-	.15	-.01	.05	-					
13. Job Satisfaction	5.11	1.64	.91	.29**	-.27**	.07	.03	-				
14. Age	37.36	12.41	-	-.09	-.29**	.11	-.16*	-.01	-			
15. Social Desirability	.24	.31	.78	.00	-.20*	.08	-.02	.16	.15	-		
16. Organizational Tenure	68.22	68.76	-	.01	-.19*	.10	-.08	.11	.54**	.17*	-	
17. Job Status	.33	.47	-	.21*	-.09	.20*	-.03	.21*	.11	-.05	.23*	-

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; SE = Self-Esteem. SD = Standard Deviation. T2 = variable measured at time two. All other variables measured at time one. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree. Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1a, which predicted that Likeability, Task Accomplishment, Power and Giftedness self-esteem would be positively related to promotive voice and predict promotive voice over and above global self-esteem, was tested using hierarchical regression. Hypothesis 1a was partially supported, as Likeability, Task Accomplishment, Power, and Giftedness self-esteem all had positive relationships with promotive voice ($r = .38, .35, .27, \text{ and } .50$, respectively, $p < .01$; see Table 2). However, when analyzed with hierarchical regression, only Giftedness self-esteem significantly predicted promotive voice ($\beta = .37, p < .01$) over and above the control variables and global self-esteem (see Table 2).

Table 2. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Promotive Voice at Time Two

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	.05	.13	.03	.05	.13	.03	.08	.12	.05
Job Satisfaction	.20	.04	* .37*	.20	.04	.36**	-	.04	.33**
Race/Ethnicity	.04	.15	.02	.04	.15	.02	.01	.15	.00
Age (yrs)	.02	.01	.22*	.02	.01	.22*	.02	.01	.21*
Social Desirability	.65	.21	* .22*	.63	.21	.22**	.36	.22	.12
Organizational Tenure	-.06	.02	* .25*	-.06	.02	-.26**	-	.02	-.19
Job Status	.55	.14	* .29*	.55	.14	.30**	.41	.14	.21**
Global SE				.03	.09	.03	.08	.12	-.08
Likeability SE							.04	.08	.05
Task Acc. SE							.02	.07	-.02
Power SE							.03	.07	-.04
Giftedness SE							.26	.07	.37**
Vulnerability SE							.04	.06	.07
R^2		.34			.34			.43	
F for change in R^2		10.34**			.10			4.37**	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148

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

Hypothesis 1b, which predicted that Morality and Power self-esteem would be positively related to prohibitive voice and predict prohibitive voice over and above global self-esteem, was also tested using hierarchical regression. Hypothesis 1b was partially supported, as Morality and Power each had positive relationships with prohibitive voice ($r = .32$ and $.42$, respectively, $p < .01$; see Table 1). However, when analyzed using hierarchical regression, only Power self-esteem

significantly predicted prohibitive voice ($\beta = .27, p < .01$) over and above the control variables and global self-esteem (see Table 3).

Hypothesis 1c, which predicted that Vulnerability self-esteem would be negatively related to both promotive and prohibitive voice, and would predict promotive and prohibitive voice over and above global self-esteem, was again tested using hierarchical regression.

Hypothesis 1c was not supported. Although Vulnerability self-esteem had negative relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice ($r = -.16, n.s.$, and $-.24, p < .01$, respectively; see Tables 2 & 3), when analyzed using hierarchical regression, vulnerability did not significantly predict either promotive or prohibitive voice over and above the control variables and global self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2, which predicted that males would be more likely than females to engage in promotive voice and females would be more likely than males to engage in prohibitive voice, was analyzed using independent samples t-tests of the means of promotive and prohibitive voice as reported by males and females (see Table 4). Males and females were compared on their expression of promotive and prohibitive voice at both time one and time two. Hypothesis 2 was not supported. With regards to promotive voice at time one, males and females were fairly similar in their expression of promotive voice ($M = 3.80, SD = .98$, for males; $M = 3.77, SD = .76$, for females). Contrary to H2, males actually reported more prohibitive voice at time one than females ($M = 3.63, SD = .98$, for males; $M = 3.33, SD = .79$, for females). This difference was significant ($t = 2.03, p < .05$), however it was in the opposite direction from the hypothesis. When measured at time two, males and females were again not significantly different in their expression of promotive voice ($M = 3.77, SD = .97$, for males; $M = 3.79, SD = .81$, for females)

nor in their expression of prohibitive voice ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .87$, for males; $M = 3.47$, $SD = .78$, for females).

Table 3. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Prohibitive Voice at Time Two

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.09	.12	-.06	-.09	.12	-.06	-.05	.11	-.03
Job									
Satisfaction	.19	.04	.37**	.17	.04	.34**	.15	.04	.29**
Race/Ethnicity	.25	.14	.12	.26	.14	.13	.19	.14	.10
Age (yrs)	.01	.01	.08	.01	.01	.07	.01	.01	.08
Social Desirability	.73	.19	.27**	.69	.20	.26**	.65	.20	.24**
Organizational Tenure	-.03	.02	-.14	-.04	.02	-.15	-.03	.02	-.14
Job Status	.47	.13	.27**	.48	.13	.27**	.38	.13	.22**
Global SE				.09	.08	.10	-.02	.08	-.02
Morality SE							.09	.07	.11
Power SE							.19	.05	.27**
Vulnerability SE							.00	.06	.00
R^2		.34			.35			.42	
F for change in R^2		10.26*			1.43			5.64*	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree. Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager. N = 148
 * $p < .05$,
 ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 3, which predicted that males would exhibit more power and giftedness self-esteem than females, and females would exhibit more morality and vulnerability self-esteem than males, was also tested using independent samples t-tests, at both time one and time two (see Table 5). Hypothesis 3 was partially supported. With regards to power self-esteem at time one, males had a significantly higher mean ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 1.11$, for males; $M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.24$,

for females; $t = 2.93, p < .01$), however when measured at time two, males and females did not have significantly different means in power self-esteem ($M = 4.05, SD = 1.20$, for males; $M = 3.75, SD = 1.23$, for females; $t = 1.48, n.s.$). Males and females were not significantly different in terms of giftedness self-esteem when measured at time one or time two ($M = 4.98, SD = 1.28$, for males at T1; $M = 4.76, SD = 1.31$, for females at T1; $M = 5.09, SD = 1.30$, for males at T2; $M = 4.71, SD = 1.24$, for females at T2). Females were significantly higher than males in morality self-esteem at both time one ($M = 6.01, SD = .95$, for females, $M = 5.64, SD = 1.05$, for males, $t = -2.21, p < .05$) and time two ($M = 6.08, SD = .83$, for females, $M = 5.66, SD = 1.17$, for males, $t = -2.41, p < .05$). Females also were significantly higher than males with regards to Vulnerability self-esteem at both time one ($M = 3.65, SD = 1.55$, for females, $M = 3.06, SD = 1.37$, for males, $t = -2.46, p < .05$) and time two ($M = 3.74, SD = 1.49$, for females, $M = 3.05, SD = 1.40$, for males, $t = -2.85, p < .01$). Not all hypothesized differences were significant, but the differences that were significant found differences in the hypothesized directions.

Table 4. Independent Samples T-test between Voice Constructs and Gender

	Males		Females		t-test
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Promotive Voice T1	3.80	.98	3.77	.76	.22
Prohibitive Voice T1	3.63	.98	3.33	.79	2.03*
Promotive Voice T2	3.77	.97	3.79	.81	-.13
Prohibitive Voice T2	3.59	.87	3.47	.78	.82

Note: * $p < .05$; *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. *N* = 148

Table 5. Independent Samples T-test between Domain Specific Self-Esteem and Gender

	Males		Females		t-test
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Power (T1)	4.13	1.11	3.56	1.24	2.93**
Giftedness (T1)	4.98	1.28	4.76	1.31	1.01
Morality (T1)	5.64	1.05	6.01	.95	-2.21*
Vulnerability (T1)	3.06	1.37	3.65	1.55	-2.46*
Power (T2)	4.05	1.20	3.75	1.23	1.48
Giftedness (T2)	5.09	1.30	4.71	1.24	1.78
Morality (T2)	5.66	1.17	6.08	.83	-2.41*
Vulnerability (T2)	3.05	1.40	3.74	1.49	-2.85**

Note: For Morality at time one, the *F*-test for equivalence of variances was significant, but *t*-test was significant when equal variances were assumed and when equal variances were not assumed. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. Male = 1; Female = 2. *N* = 148

* *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01

Hypothesis 4a (see Tables 6 & 7), which predicted that the relationships of power and giftedness self-esteem with promotive voice would be moderated by gender such that the relationships would be stronger for males than for females, was tested using hierarchical regression with gender, power self-esteem, and giftedness self-esteem centered at their means. Gender was not found to moderate the relationship between power self-esteem and promotive voice or the relationship between giftedness self-esteem and promotive voice, failing to support Hypothesis 4a.

Table 6. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Moderator Analysis of Power and Gender Predicting Promotive Voice

Variable	Model 1		Model 2			Model 3			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	.05	.13	.03	.07	.13	.03	.09	.13	.05
Job Satisfaction	.20	.04	.37**	.19	.04	.34**	.19	.04	.35**
Race/Ethnicity	.04	.15	.02	.01	.15	.00	.02	.15	.01
Age (yrs)	.02	.01	.22*	.02	.01	.24**	.02	.01	.23**
Social Desirability	.65	.21	.22**	.67	.21	.23**	.68	.21	.23**
Organizational									
Tenure	-.06	.02	-.25**	-.07	.02	-.26**	-.06	.02	-.25**
Job Status	.55	.14	.29**	.50	.14	.26**	.47	.14	.25**
Power				.10	.06	.13	.11	.06	.14
Gender				-.10	.13	-.05	-.11	.13	-.06
Power*Gender							-.18	.11	-.11
R^2		.34			.36			.37	
F for change in R^2		10.34*			2.26			2.64	

Note: Power and Gender were Mean-Centered. N = 148

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

Table 7. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Moderator Analysis of Giftedness and Gender Predicting Promotive Voice

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	.05	.13	.03	.08	.12	.05	.13	.12	.07
Job Satisfaction	.20	.04	.37**	.17	.04	.30**	.17	.04	.30**
Race/Ethnicity	.04	.15	.02	.00	.14	.00	.04	.14	.02
Age (yrs)	.02	.01	.22*	.01	.01	.20*	.01	.01	.18*
Social									
Desirability	.65	.21	.22**	.39	.21	.14	.36	.21	.12
Organizational									
Tenure	-.06	.02	-.25**	-.05	.02	-.21*	-.05	.02	-.18*
Job Status	.55	.14	.29**	.43	.14	.22**	.40	.14	.21**
Giftedness				.21	.05	.31**	.22	.05	.31**
Gender				-.07	.12	-.04	-.07	.12	-.04
Giftedness*Gen							-.18	.10	-.13
der									
R^2		.34			.42			.44	
F for change in R^2		10.34*			9.51**			3.47	

Note: Giftedness and Gender were Mean-Centered. N = 148

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

Hypothesis 4b (see Tables 8 & 9), which predicted that the relationships of morality and vulnerability self-esteem with prohibitive voice would be moderated by gender such that the relationships would be stronger for females than for males, was tested using hierarchical regression with gender, morality self-esteem, and vulnerability self-esteem centered at their means. As in Hypothesis 4a, gender was not found to moderate the relationship between morality self-esteem and prohibitive voice or the relationship between giftedness self-esteem and prohibitive voice, failing to support Hypothesis 4b.

Table 8. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Moderator Analysis of Morality and Gender Predicting Prohibitive Voice

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.09	.12	-.06	-.06	.12	-.04	-.03	.12	-.02
Job									
Satisfaction	.19	.04	.37**	.18	.04	.36**	.17	.04	.34**
Race/Ethnicity	.25	.14	.12	.30	.14	.15*	.29	.14	.15*
Age (yrs)	.01	.01	.08	.01	.01	.07	.00	.01	.05
Social									
Desirability	0.73	.19	.27**	.59	.20	.22**	.60	.20	.22**
Organizational									
Tenure	-.03	.02	-.14	-.04	.02	-.18*	-.04	.02	-.17*
Job Status	.47	.13	.27**	.46	.13	.26**	.44	.13	.25**
Morality				.16	.06	.20*	.15	.06	.19*
Gender				-.30	.12	-.18**	-.29	.12	-.17*
Morality*Gen									
der							-.21	.12	-.12
<i>R</i> ²		.34			.39			.40	
F for change									
in <i>R</i> ²		10.26**			5.81**			3.21	

Note: Giftedness and Gender were Mean-Centered. *N* = 148

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

Research Questions

The research questions were proposed to further expand on past research regarding the relationship of self-esteem variables with voice constructs. Although previous studies have

looked at global self-esteem as a predictor of voice, any reciprocal relationship between the two has not been examined. Additionally, the relationship between global self-esteem and prohibitive voice has not been explored. Regarding specific forms of self-esteem, there has been a previous study, however, as Liang et al. (2012) examined the possibility of a reciprocal relationship between organization-based self-esteem and promotive and prohibitive voice. Liang et al. (2012) found that organization-based self-esteem, measured at time one, predicted promotive and prohibitive voice at time two. Additionally, they found that promotive and prohibitive voice, measured at time one, predicted organization-based self-esteem at time two.

Table 9. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Moderator Analysis of Vulnerability and Gender Predicting Prohibitive Voice

Variable	Model 1		Model 2			Model 3			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.09	.12	-.06	-.08	.12	-.05	-.08	.12	-.05
Job Satisfaction	.19	.04	.37**	.20	.04	.38**	.20	.04	.38**
Race/Ethnicity	.25	.14	.12	.26	.14	.13	.26	.14	.13
Age (yrs)	.01	.01	.08	.01	.01	.10	.01	.01	.10
Social Desirability	.73	.19	.27**	.77	.19	.29**	.77	.19	.29**
Organizational									
Tenure	-.03	.02	-.14	-.04	.02	-.17*	-.04	.02	-.17*
Job Status	.47	.13	.27**	.46	.13	.26**	.47	.13	.26**
Vulnerability				-.01	.04	-.02	-.01	.05	-.02
Gender				-.26	.12	-.16*	-.26	.12	-.15*
Vulnerability*Gen der							-.03	.08	-.02
R^2		.34			.36			.36	
F for change in R^2		10.26**			2.69			.11	

Note: Vulnerability and Gender were Mean-Centered. $N = 148$

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

The first research question was in regards to whether or not a reciprocal relationship exists between global self-esteem and both promotive and prohibitive voice, in which the voice constructs measured at time one would temporally predict global self-esteem measured at time

two, as well as self-esteem measures at time one predicting voice at time two. The correlations between global self-esteem, measured at time one, and promotive and prohibitive voice, measured at time two, were $r = .22$ and $.27$, respectively (both $p < .01$). The reciprocal correlations between global self-esteem, measured at time two, and promotive and prohibitive voice, measured at time one, were $r = .21, p < .01$ and $.14, n.s.$, respectively (see Table 21). In the regression analyses with regards to hypothesis 1 (see Tables 2 and 3), global self-esteem measured at time one was not a significant predictor of promotive or prohibitive voice measured at time two ($\beta = -.08$ and $-.02$, respectively, $n.s.$). These results are inconsistent with other findings regarding the relationship between global self-esteem and voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). When promotive and prohibitive voice measured at time one were used in the prediction of global self-esteem measured at time two (see Tables 10 and 11), neither promotive nor prohibitive voice was a notable predictor of global self-esteem ($\beta = .04$ and $.01$, respectively, $n.s.$). The present study suggests there may be no unique relationship between global self-esteem and the voice constructs.

Table 10. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) Predicting Global Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.05	.13	-.04	-.06	.13	-.04
Job Satisfaction	.17	.04	.33**	.16	.05	.31**
Race/Ethnicity	-.13	.15	-.07	-.14	.16	-.07
Age (yrs)	.00	.01	.03	.00	.01	.02
Social Desirability	.53	.21	.20*	.51	.22	.19*
Organizational Tenure	.00	.02	.00	.00	.02	.01
Job Status	-.03	.15	-.02	-.05	.15	-.03
Promotive Voice (T1)				.04	.09	.04
R^2		.17			.00	
F for change in R^2		4.10**			.17	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148

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

Table 11. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Global Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.05	.13	-.04	-.06	.13	-.03
Job Satisfaction	.17	.04	.33**	.16	.04	.33**
Race/Ethnicity	-.13	.15	-.07	-.13	.16	-.07
Age (yrs)	.00	.01	.03	.00	.01	.03
Social Desirability	.53	.21	.20*	.53	.22	.20*
Organizational Tenure	.00	.02	.00	.00	.02	.00
Job Status	-.03	.15	-.02	-.03	.15	-.02
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				.01	.08	.01
R^2		.17			.00	
F for change in R^2		4.10**			.01	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148

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

The second research question was in regards to a possible reciprocal relationship between the domain-specific self-esteem variables and promotive and prohibitive voice, in which the

voice constructs measured at time one would predict levels of domain-specific self-esteem measured at time two (see Tables 12-17). The correlations between Likeability self-esteem (T1) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T2) were $r = .38$ and $.37$, respectively (both $p < .001$). The reciprocal correlations between Likeability (T2) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T1) were $r = .38$ and $.28$, respectively (both $p < .001$). With respect to promotive and prohibitive voice measured at time one predicting Likeability self-esteem measured at time two, promotive voice was a significant predictor of Likeability ($\beta = .30, p < .05$) whereas prohibitive voice did not predict Likeability ($\beta = -.02, n.s.$). When Likeability (T1) was used to predict promotive voice (T2) in its own regression (over the controls and global self-esteem; see Table 18), it had a regression coefficient of $\beta = .22, p < .01$. These results point to the possibility of a reciprocal relationship between promotive voice and Likeability self-esteem.

Table 12. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) and Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Likeability Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.25	.18	-.11	-.28	.18	-.12
Job Satisfaction	.17	.06	.24**	.09	.06	.12
Race/Ethnicity	-.05	.22	-.02	-.11	.21	-.04
Age (yrs)	.01	.01	.07	.00	.01	.00
Social Desirability	1.05	.30	.28**	.89	.29	.24**
Organizational Tenure	.00	.03	.00	.02	.03	.06
Job Status	.23	.20	.09	.06	.20	.02
Promotive Voice (T1)				.39	.16	.30*
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				-.03	.14	-.02
R^2		.18			.24	
F for change in R^2		4.45**			4.90**	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree.

Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager. N = 148
 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 13. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) and Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Morality Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.27	.16	-.13	-.35	.16	-.16*
Job Satisfaction	.12	.05	.19*	.05	.05	.08
Race/Ethnicity	-.17	.19	-.07	-.21	.18	-.08
Age (yrs)	.02	.01	.24**	.01	.01	.16
Social Desirability	1.15	.26	.34**	.98	.25	.29**
Organizational Tenure	-.02	.03	-.06	.00	.03	.01
Job Status	.15	.18	.06	.00	.18	.00
Promotive Voice (T1)				.52	.14	.43**
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				-.24	.12	-.21*
<i>R</i> ²		.25			.32	
F for change in <i>R</i> ²		6.54**			7.04**	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148
p* < .05. *p* < .01

Table 14. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) and Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Power Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.31	.20	-.13	-.31	.19	-.13
Job Satisfaction	.19	.06	.25**	.07	.07	.10
Race/Ethnicity	.45	.23	.15	.35	.22	.12
Age (yrs)	.00	.01	-.02	-.01	.01	-.10
Social Desirability	-.12	.32	-.03	-.31	.31	-.08
Organizational Tenure	.02	.03	.05	.04	.03	.11
Job Status	.35	.22	.13	.12	.22	.05
Promotive Voice (T1)				.36	.17	.26*
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				.19	.15	.14
<i>R</i> ²		.13			.23	
F for change in <i>R</i> ²		2.93*			8.69**	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148
p* < .05. *p* < .01

Table 15. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) and Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Task Accomplishment Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.06	.16	-.03	-.12	.16	-.06
Job Satisfaction	.12	.05	.19*	.05	.05	.08
Race/Ethnicity	-.14	.19	-.06	-.18	.19	-.07
Age (yrs)	.02	.01	.26**	.02	.01	.18
Social Desirability	.63	.26	.19*	.48	.26	.14
Organizational Tenure	-.01	.03	-.04	.01	.03	.02
Job Status	.26	.18	.12	.12	.18	.05
Promotive Voice (T1)				.46	.14	.40**
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				-.16	.12	-.14
<i>R</i> ²		.18			.25	
F for change in <i>R</i> ²		4.44**			5.88**	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148

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

Table 16. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) and Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Giftedness Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	-.20	.20	-.08	-.24	.19	-.10
Job Satisfaction	.17	.06	.22**	.00	.06	.01
Race/Ethnicity	.36	.24	.12	.22	.22	.07
Age (yrs)	.00	.01	.04	-.01	.01	-.08
Social Desirability	.80	.33	.19*	.50	.30	.12
Organizational Tenure	-.01	.03	-.04	.02	.03	.06
Job Status	.62	.23	.23	.29	.21	.11
Promotive Voice (T1)				.66	.17	.46**
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				.10	.14	.07
<i>R</i> ²		.17			.34	
F for change in <i>R</i> ²		4.03**			18.22**	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = *no bachelor's degree*, 1 = *bachelor's degree*.

Ethnicity: 0 = *Caucasian*, 1 = *racial/ethnic minority*. Job Status: 0 = *employee*, 1 = *manager*. N = 148

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

Table 17. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Promotive Voice (T1) and Prohibitive Voice (T1) Predicting Vulnerability Self-Esteem (T2)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Education	.43	.24	.15	.40	.24	.13
Job Satisfaction	-.18	.07	-.20*	-.20	.08	-.22*
Race/Ethnicity	-.17	.28	-.05	-.18	.28	-.05
Age (yrs)	-.03	.01	-.22*	-.03	.01	-.23*
Social Desirability	-.95	.38	-.20*	-.99	.39	-.21*
Organizational Tenure	.04	.04	.09	.04	.04	.10
Job Status	-.34	.26	-.11	-.37	.27	-.12
Promotive Voice (T1)				.16	.22	.10
Prohibitive Voice (T1)				-.13	.19	-.08
<i>R</i> ²		.15			.00	
F for change in <i>R</i> ²		3.56**			.32	

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. Task Acc. = Task Accomplishment. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree.

Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager. N = 148

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

Table 18. Regression Coefficients of Domain Specific Self-Esteem Variables (T1) Entered Individually Predicting Promotive Voice (T2)

Variable	Entered Individually Over Controls and Global Self-Esteem			Entered Individually Only Over Global Self-Esteem		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Likeability SE	.17	.07	.22**	.28	.07	.37**
Task Accomplishment SE	.12	.07	.15	.25	.07	.32**
Power SE	.12	.06	.15*	.17	.06	.23**
Giftedness SE	.25	.06	.36**	.35	.06	.50**
Vulnerability SE	.06	.06	.09	-.01	.07	-.01

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. N = 148

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

Table 19. Regression Coefficients of Domain Specific Self-Esteem Variables (T1) Entered Individually Predicting Prohibitive Voice (T2)

Variable	Entered Individually Over Controls and Global Self-Esteem			Entered Individually Only Over Global Self-Esteem		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Morality SE	.12	.07	.15	.20	.07	.25**
Power SE	.20	.05	.29**	.26	.06	.37**
Vulnerability SE	-.01	.06	-.02	-.05	.06	-.09

Note: SE= Self-Esteem. N = 148

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

Table 20. CFA of Promotive and Prohibitive Voice

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	RMSEA (90%CI)	CFI	AGFI	SRMR	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ <i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
1 Two Factor Model	87.32	34	.00	.07 (.05 - .09)	.97	.92	.04			
2 One Factor Model	214.66	35	.00	.12 (.11 - .14)	.91	.77	.07			
Model 1 vs. Model 2								127.34	1	.00

Note: N = 337.

Table 21. Relationships Amongst Promotive Voice, Prohibitive Voice, Global Self-Esteem, and Domain-Specific Self-Esteem at Times One and Two

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Promotive Voice (T1)	3.79	.89	-							
2. Prohibitive Voice (T1)	3.50	.92	.73**	-						
3. Promotive Voice (T2)	3.78	.90	.73**	.58**	-					
4. Prohibitive Voice (T2)	3.54	.83	.70**	.71**	.72**	-				
5. Global SE (T1)	3.91	.85	.25**	.17*	.22**	.27**	-			
6. Likability SE (T1)	5.30	1.17	.38**	.28**	.38**	.37**	.50**	-		
7. Morality SE (T1)	5.80	1.02	.32**	.18*	.32**	.32**	.39**	.70**	-	
8. Task Accomplishment SE (T1)	5.65	1.14	.41**	.28**	.35**	.39**	.45**	.64**	.83**	-
9. Giftedness SE (T1)	4.89	1.29	.56**	.44**	.50**	.57**	.46**	.63**	.47**	.54**
10. Power SE (T1)	3.89	1.19	.37**	.40**	.27**	.42**	.32**	.38**	.19*	.34**
11. Vulnerability SE (T1)	3.31	1.47	-.21**	-.19*	-.16	-.23**	-.69**	-.24**	-.17*	-.26**
12. Global SE (T2)	3.96	.83	.21*	.14	.20*	.28**	.89**	.51**	.42**	.42**
13. Likability SE (T2)	5.34	1.16	.38**	.28**	.42**	.41**	.42**	.83**	.56**	.49**
14. Morality SE (T2)	5.84	1.06	.38**	.18*	.40**	.34**	.34**	.61**	.79**	.70**
15. Task Accomplishment SE (T2)	5.81	1.03	.39**	.21**	.33**	.35**	.38**	.57**	.74**	.82**
16. Giftedness SE (T2)	4.93	1.28	.55**	.45**	.49**	.53**	.41**	.55**	.36**	.49**
17. Power SE (T2)	3.92	1.22	.38**	.38**	.32**	.43**	.35**	.36**	.17*	.30**
18. Vulnerability SE (T2)	3.34	1.47	-.16	-.15	-.15	-.24**	-.60**	-.29**	-.25**	-.31**

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; SE = Self-Esteem. SD = Standard Deviation. T2 = variable measured at time two. All other variables measured at time one. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree. Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager.

Table 21. Relationships Amongst Promotive Voice, Prohibitive Voice, Global Self-Esteem, and Domain-Specific Self-Esteem at Times One and Two (continued)

Variables	Mean	SD	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
9. Giftedness SE (T1)	4.89	1.29	-									
10. Power SE (T1)	3.89	1.19	.62**	-								
11. Vulnerability SE (T1)	3.31	1.47	-.33**	-.32**	-							
12. Global SE (T2)	3.96	.83	.50**	.33**	-.62**	-						
13. Likability SE (T2)	5.34	1.16	.54**	.32**	-.23**	.50**	-					
14. Morality SE (T2)	5.84	1.06	.39**	.10	-.16*	.40**	.67**	-				
15. Task Accomplishment SE (T2)	5.81	1.03	.47**	.27**	-.24**	.44**	.60**	.77**	-			
16. Giftedness SE (T2)	4.93	1.28	.81**	.52**	-.31**	.46**	.56**	.43**	.53**	-		
17. Power SE (T2)	3.92	1.22	.55**	.78**	-.33**	.39**	.47**	.23**	.31**	.56**	-	
18. Vulnerability SE (T2)	3.34	1.47	-.40**	-.32**	.80**	-.63**	-.26**	-.20*	-.33**	-.33**	-.28**	-

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; SE = Self-Esteem. SD = Standard Deviation. T2 = variable measured at time two. All other variables measured at time one. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Education: 0 = no bachelor's degree, 1 = bachelor's degree. Ethnicity: 0 = Caucasian, 1 = racial/ethnic minority. Job Status: 0 = employee, 1 = manager.

The correlations between Morality self-esteem (T1) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T2) were $r = .32$ and $.32$, respectively (both $p < .001$). The reciprocal correlations between Morality (T2) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T1) were $r = .38$ and $.18$, respectively (both $p < .001$). With respect to promotive and prohibitive voice measured at time one predicting Morality measured at time two, both voice constructs were significant predictors of Morality self-esteem ($\beta = .43, p < .01$, and $-.21, p < .05$, respectively). Interestingly, in the hypothesized positive relationship between Morality self-esteem and prohibitive voice, Morality self-esteem was not a significant predictor of prohibitive voice when entered in a regression with other domain-specific self-esteem variables or when it was entered individually after controls, $\beta = .11$ and $.15$, respectively, *n.s.* (see Tables 3 & 19). However, prohibitive voice measured at time one had a negative regression coefficient predicting Morality at time two, indicating that prohibitive voice at time one might have led to a decrease in Morality self-esteem at time two. Additionally, promotive voice measured at time one had a larger regression coefficient in the prediction of Morality self-esteem relative to prohibitive voice, although this difference was not hypothesized.

The correlations between Power self-esteem (T1) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T2) were $r = .27$ and $.42$, respectively (both $p < .001$). The reciprocal correlations between Power (T2) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T1) were $r = .38$ and $.38$, respectively (both $p < .001$). When promotive and prohibitive voice measured at time one to predicted Power self-esteem measured at time two (see Table 14), only promotive voice was a significant predictor of Power self-esteem ($\beta = .26, p < .01$, and $.14, n.s.$, respectively). Power measured at time one was not a significant predictor of promotive voice at time two when entered into a regression with other domain-specific self-esteem variables, $\beta = -.04, n.s.$ (see Table 2), however when entered individually to predict promotive voice it was, $\beta = .15, p < .05$ (see Table 18). Power measured

at time one was also hypothesized to predict prohibitive voice at time two, and it was a significant predictor both in a regression with other hypothesized domain-specific self-esteem variables, $\beta = .27$ (see Table 3), and when entered individually into a regression over global self-esteem and the control variables, $\beta = .29$ (see Table 19). While Power self-esteem was a marginal predictor of promotive voice, the reciprocal relationship was considerably larger, indicating that promotive voice measured at time one may have had a stronger influence on Power self-esteem at time two than vice-versa. Contrary to this result, it appears that Power self-esteem was a better predictor of subsequent prohibitive voice than vice versa.

The correlations between Task Accomplishment self-esteem (T1) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T2) were $r = .35$ and $.39$, respectively (both $p < .001$). The reciprocal correlations between Task Accomplishment (T2) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T1) were $r = .39$ and $.21$, respectively (both $p < .001$). With regards to promotive and prohibitive voice measured at time one predicting Task Accomplishment self-esteem measured at time two (see Table 15), promotive voice was a significant predictor while prohibitive was not ($\beta = .40$, $p < .01$ and $-.14$, *n.s.*). Task Accomplishment was not a significant predictor of promotive voice measured at time two either when entered in a regression with other domain-specific self-esteem variables, $\beta = -.02$, *n.s.* (see Table 2), or when entered individually after global self-esteem and the control variables, $\beta = .15$, *n.s.* (see Table 18). Task Accomplishment as a predictor of prohibitive voice was not hypothesized. Most interesting is that promotive voice measured at time one did predict Task Accomplishment self-esteem measured at time two, indicating that expressing voice might have led to increased Task Accomplishment self-esteem.

The correlations between Giftedness self-esteem (T1) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T2) were $r = .50$ and $.57$, respectively (both $p < .001$). The reciprocal correlations

between Giftedness (T2) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T1) were $r = .55$ and $.45$, respectively (both $p < .001$). When promotive and prohibitive voice, measured at time one, were used in the prediction of Giftedness self-esteem measured at time two (see Table 16), promotive voice was a significant predictor but prohibitive voice was not, $\beta = .46$, $p < .01$, and $.07$, *n.s.*, respectively. Giftedness self-esteem was hypothesized to be a predictor of promotive voice and was a significant predictor when entered in a regression with other domain-specific self-esteem variables, $\beta = .37$, $p < .01$ (see Table 2), and when entered alone over global self-esteem and control variables, $\beta = .36$, $p < .01$ (see Table 18). The results of these regressions indicate that Giftedness self-esteem and promotive voice might have a reciprocal relationship in which each causes the other.

Lastly, the correlations between Vulnerability self-esteem (T1) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T2) were $r = -.16$, *n.s.*, and $-.23$, $p < .001$, respectively. The reciprocal correlations between Vulnerability (T2) and promotive and prohibitive voice (T1) were $r = -.16$ and $-.15$, respectively (both *n.s.*). When promotive and prohibitive voice, measured at time one, were used in the prediction of Vulnerability self-esteem measured at time two, neither promotive nor prohibitive voice were significant predictors, $\beta = .10$ and $-.08$, *n.s.* (see Table 17). Vulnerability self-esteem measured at time one was not a significant predictor of either voice construct in any regression, regardless of whether it was entered along with other domain-specific self-esteem variables or if it was entered individually with global self-esteem and control variables.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The current study sought to examine the predictive power of domain-specific self-esteem variables over and above global self-esteem and relevant control variables, as well as to explore the possibility that gender would moderate some of these relationships. Additionally, the current study explored the possibility of reciprocal relationships between global self-esteem and promotive and prohibitive voice as well as between the domain-specific self-esteem variables and the two voice constructs.

With regards to the domain-specific self-esteem relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice, two unique relationships stood out: Giftedness self-esteem temporally predicting promotive voice and Power self-esteem temporally predicting prohibitive voice. The moderator hypotheses were not supported in the current study, although gender as a moderator of the Giftedness self-esteem and promotive voice relationship was close to statistical significance. Lastly, with regards to the research questions exploring the possible reciprocity between self-esteem variables and the voice constructs, no reciprocal relationships were found for global self-esteem and the voice constructs, however the pattern of reciprocal relationships between the domain-specific self-esteem variables and the voice constructs were notable, as will be discussed later in this section.

Control Variables and Voice Constructs

Interestingly, promotive and prohibitive voice showed slight differences in the ways control variables predicted the two constructs when measured at time two. In the final step of the regression of promotive voice onto the variables of interest in hypothesis 1a, job satisfaction,

age, and job status were the only control variables that were significant predictors of promotive voice (see Table 2). While job satisfaction and job status were also significant predictors of prohibitive voice measured at time two, age was not a significant predictor of prohibitive voice (see Table 3).

Additionally, unlike the regression of promotive voice, social desirability was a significant predictor of prohibitive voice. While social desirability was included in this study as a control in order to satisfy the concerns of both the construct of social desirability and common method bias in using self-report data, its positive relationship with both promotive and prohibitive voice in particular is curious ($r = .26$ and $.30$, respectively; see Table 1). Voice behavior as an extra-role behavior has been conceptualized as a challenging behavior in the literature as these behaviors seek to test the *status quo* in an attempt to change ideas (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Challenges to the status quo might be socially undesirable, and yet the correlations of social desirability with voice were positive. While this study used self-report data for both predictors and criteria, a study that looked specifically at self-reported social desirability and co-worker or supervisor reported voice could further illuminate whether people who are high in social desirability exhibit more of either promotive or prohibitive voice.

Self-Esteem and Promotive Voice

The first thing that differs in this study relative to past studies was that global self-esteem was not a significant unique predictor of promotive voice ($\beta = -.08$). While global self-esteem did have significant positive relationship with promotive voice ($r = .22$), it was not a relevant unique predictor when included in the regression analyses. LePine and Van Dyne (1998) found that global self-esteem was a significant predictor at the $\alpha = .10$ level, however their measure of

global self-esteem was different from the one used in the present study. Perhaps this difference could have led to the different results, although global self-esteem in their study was only a marginal predictor of voice. Overall, the weak results of LePine and Van Dyne, combined with the results of the present study, suggest that global self-esteem may not be an important determinant of voice.

In the direct test of Hypothesis 1a, in which Likeability, Task Accomplishment, Power, and Giftedness self-esteem were entered together in a regression predicting promotive voice (see Table 2), Giftedness self-esteem was the only significant unique predictor, $\beta = .37$. However, when each predictor was entered individually into a regression over the controls and global self-esteem, Task Accomplishment self-esteem was the only predictor that was not significant, and when each domain-specific self-esteem variable was entered only over global self-esteem each one was a significant predictor (see Table 18). While Hypothesis 1a was only partially supported, it does appear that the domain-specific self-esteem variables were more robust predictors of promotive voice relative to global self-esteem.

It is clear from the test of Hypothesis 1a that people who reported higher Giftedness self-esteem at time one reported more promotive voice at time two, indicating that people who viewed themselves as having naturally high aptitude and talent were more likely to express promotive voice. Most surprising was that Giftedness self-esteem actually had a relationship with prohibitive voice ($r = .57$) that was slightly stronger than the relationship between Giftedness and promotive voice ($r = .50$).

Another surprising finding was the minimal relationship between Vulnerability self-esteem and promotive voice. The two variables were not significantly correlated, $r = -.16$ (see Table 1), and Vulnerability self-esteem was not a significant unique predictor of promotive

voice, $\beta = .07$ (see Table 2). Although the literature regarding voice behavior tends to view voice behavior as a potential risk an employee is taking, those who viewed themselves to be more vulnerable were not less likely to express promotive voice at time two, as was originally hypothesized.

Self-Esteem and Prohibitive Voice

Similar to the relationship between global self-esteem and promotive voice, global self-esteem was not a significant predictor of prohibitive voice. While global self-esteem had a small positive relationship with prohibitive voice, $r = .27$, it was not a significant unique predictor of prohibitive voice in regression analyses. None of the articles cited in this study examined the role of global self-esteem in the expression of prohibitive voice, and so there is no study to compare these results to.

With regards to the domain-specific self-esteem variables that were hypothesized to predict prohibitive voice, Morality, Power, and Vulnerability self-esteem, only Power self-esteem was a significant unique predictor when all the variables were included in the regression. When each variable was entered individually controlling for global self-esteem, Morality and Power were significant predictors, but Vulnerability self-esteem had no unique effect (see Table 19). Most interesting in these results were the relationships Power self-esteem had with promotive and prohibitive voice. Power self-esteem had a stronger relationship with prohibitive voice, $r = .42$, than it did with promotive voice, $r = .27$, and indeed the respective regression coefficients showed a similar pattern when Power self-esteem was entered individually over global self-esteem and the control variables, $\beta = .29$ for prohibitive voice and $\beta = .15$ for promotive voice. This pattern of relationships is consistent with the proposition that promotive

and prohibitive voice are related to each other but have empirical differences. People who had higher Power self-esteem, viewing themselves as having an ability to influence others, exhibited more prohibitive voice at time two. Perhaps the reason for this difference is that in viewing oneself as being powerful, that person has more confidence in their ability to advise their colleagues or organization to cease some undesired behavior or practice. Contrast this with promotive voice, in which an employee voices a constructive suggestion that includes some solution or improvement on the *status quo*, which requires someone to believe they are more innately talented or have higher Giftedness self-esteem.

Similar to the relationship between Vulnerability self-esteem and promotive voice, there was not much evidence that viewing oneself as vulnerable made them less likely to express prohibitive voice. While the two variables did show a small negative relationship, $r = -.24$, Vulnerability self-esteem was not a significant unique predictor of prohibitive voice, even when entered individually over only global self-esteem and the control variables in a regression (see Table 19). This result is perhaps more surprising than the lack of effect on promotive voice, as it has been posited that prohibitive voice could carry more risks, as it challenges the *status quo* and also calls for some behavior to be ceased with the potential to imply wrongdoing or incompetence in the organization, as opposed to providing a constructive suggestion to improve some work function. Consistent with the Vulnerability-promotive voice relationship, rating oneself as more vulnerable did not lead one to express less prohibitive voice at time two.

Bandwidth-Fidelity

The results of the current study inevitably enter the discussion of bandwidth-fidelity or whether in the prediction of a criterion of interest it is more advantageous to use 'narrow' or

‘broad’ psychological constructs (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996; Schneider, Hough, & Dunnette, 1996). The current study found that when the criterion of interest is a specific form of proactive work behavior, such as promotive or prohibitive voice, the more predictive antecedents, when examining self-esteem variables, are the narrower domain-specific self-esteem variables compared to the broader global self-esteem. With the exception of Vulnerability self-esteem, all of the domain-specific self-esteem variables had correlations that were stronger, in terms of magnitude, with promotive and prohibitive voice compared to the correlations of global self-esteem with the voice constructs.

Additionally, when included in regressions predicting promotive and prohibitive voice, global self-esteem failed to predict over and above the controls included in the study, whereas most of the domain-specific self-esteem variables were able to predict promotive and prohibitive voice over and above global self-esteem and the control variables (see Tables 18 & 19). The results of the current study do not support the argument for a deference for using broad psychological constructs in the prediction of work behavior (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996), but rather to find an optimal match of predictor and criterion in terms of specificity to maximize criterion-related validity (Schneider et al., 1996).

Gender and Voice

Contrary to what was hypothesized, men and women did not exhibit any consistent differences in the expression of promotive or prohibitive voice. Additionally, the mean difference that was found between men and women in the expression of prohibitive voice at time one was in the opposite direction than hypothesized, as men rated themselves as expressing more prohibitive voice than women at time one. Some previous research has found that men are more

likely to express promotive voice relative to women (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Detert & Burris, 2007), although other research has not supported these findings, and any reason for the gender differences in voice are not understood (Morrison, 2011). The lack of consistency with regards to research involving gender differences in voice suggests that perhaps there is no consistent relationship between gender and voice or perhaps more moderators should be examined with respect to gender differences in voice.

Gender Differences in Domain-Specific Self-Esteem

The gender differences in domain-specific self-esteem were somewhat clearer than for promotive and prohibitive voice. While men reported higher Power self-esteem than women at time one these mean differences were not significant at time two. Additionally, men were not statistically higher than women in Giftedness self-esteem at time one or time two. However, women were consistently higher than men in Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem at both time points. While in this sample men were not significantly higher than women in Power and Giftedness self-esteem the mean difference was in the same direction as the mean differences reported in the development of the scale (Stake, 1994), and women were higher than men in Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem, consistent with the what was reported in scale development.

Gender as a Moderator

Gender was proposed as a potential moderator of the relationships of Power self-esteem with promotive voice and Giftedness self-esteem with promotive voice, such that for men those relationships would be stronger than for women. Additionally, it was proposed that gender would moderate the relationships of Morality self-esteem with prohibitive voice and Vulnerability self-

esteem with prohibitive voice, such that for women those relationships would be stronger than for men. While none of these hypothesized moderator effects were significant, the moderator effect of gender on the Giftedness self-esteem and promotive voice approached significance, $p = .065$ (see Table 7).

Interestingly, when gender was added as a predictor in the moderator analyses of promotive and prohibitive voice, gender was not a significant predictor of promotive voice, but it was a significant predictor of prohibitive voice (see Tables 8 & 9). The direction of the relationship was contrary, however, to the mean difference hypothesis between men and women in the expression of prohibitive voice, that women would exhibit more prohibitive voice relative to men.

Applied Implications

The current study has a couple implications for organizations to consider. For organizations that value proactive behavior from their employees, particularly with respect to promotive and prohibitive voice, organizations should pay attention to more specific self-esteem or self-evaluative psychological constructs and their impact on voice as opposed to more general or broad psychological constructs such as global self-esteem. Specifically, within the current study, an employee's evaluation of how innate their abilities are (Giftedness self-esteem) and how influential they view themselves (Power self-esteem) uniquely predict promotive and prohibitive voice. Global self-esteem, however, was not a unique predictor of either promotive or prohibitive voice when entered into a regression. In order to advance the findings in the current study regarding the two forms of domain-specific self-esteem, further research should be done into ways to prime or increase levels of domain-specific self-esteem.

Additionally, organizations should be aware of the possibility of reciprocal relationships of the domain-specific self-esteem variables included in the current study with promotive and prohibitive voice. Although the current study only explored the possibility of these relationships and did not make any specific predictions regarding reciprocity, organizations should be open-minded to the idea that employees who are high in areas of domain-specific self-esteem could be more likely to exhibit voice behavior, as well as the possibility that exhibiting voice behavior could in turn increase an employee's self-esteem within a specific area. The relationship between the constructs should be further studied before any truly actionable implications can be made regarding a possible reciprocal relationship, but organizations should be aware of that possibility.

Limitations

The present study has two obvious methodological limitations, the first being that despite the time-lagged design, strong inferences about causality cannot be made between the predictors and the criteria. The time-lagged design does, however, does provide a stronger test of causality relative to cross-sectional designs, as it establishes temporal precedence. In this case, domain-specific self-esteem was measured at time one and the voice constructs were measured at time two, and thus any relationship between variables measured at time one and time two provides stronger evidence of a possible causal relationship than if both variables were measured at time one. Although it is difficult to manipulate either domain-specific self-esteem, future studies could attempt to prime feelings of Giftedness or Power self-esteem in order to view the potential effect on subsequent promotive and prohibitive voice. If primed feelings of self-esteem lead to higher levels of promotive or prohibitive voice, a clearer picture of causality could be seen.

The second limitation involves potential common method bias. All variables in the current study were measured using self-report measures, meaning that the relationships between the variables could be altered due to both variables being measured using the same method. However, one concern in doing research involving one's work behavior is that using another observer as opposed to a self-report of work behavior, might not be an accurate representation of work behavior, as observers might not have access to a participant's entire range of work behaviors (Chan, 2009). Additionally, in order to temper the concerns of common method bias, social desirability was also measured with self-reports and used as a statistical control in the regression analyses. In order to address concerns of common method bias future studies could examine promotive and prohibitive voice as a supervisor-rated when examining their relationship with antecedents.

Aside from the methodological limitations of the current study, the strong correlation between promotive and prohibitive voice is a cause for concern in establishing the two constructs as related yet distinct. Their correlation of $r = .72$ at time one and $r = .73$ at time two (see Table 21), would lead some to question if they are actually just a singular voice construct. A recent meta-analysis showed that promotive and prohibitive voice exhibit a moderate relationship, $\rho = .57$ (Chamberlin et al., 2017). The correlation between promotive and prohibitive voice in the current study should be a cause for concern given how the current study sees them as conceptually related yet distinct constructs. The present study conducted a CFA to establish discriminant validity between the two constructs, however, and found that a two-factor solution fit better than a one-factor voice solution. Therefore, there was evidence even in the present study that the two constructs may be separable.

Future Directions

The findings and limitations of the current study point to some areas of future research related to voice. The first future research direction could examine the relationship between self-reported antecedent variables included in this study and supervisor-rated voice behavior of the employee, to examine if the variables show any relationship when the criteria are not self-reported. Although the current study controlled for social desirability to attenuate common method bias concerns, and it is not clear that observer-rated work behaviors are inherently better for measuring work behaviors, it would still be helpful to evaluate the relationship between the psychological antecedents included in this study and other-rated voice behavior.

Another area for future research would be to examine if a person's Giftedness self-esteem, or their evaluation of how naturally talented they are, would predict other forms of proactive behavior in work settings. Additionally, although Giftedness self-esteem is conceptualized as a self-esteem variable, it should be compared to variables such as self-efficacy, locus-of-control, and self-confidence to see if it predicts proactive behaviors uniquely above those variables. Giftedness self-esteem had the some of the strongest bivariate relationships with promotive and prohibitive voice relative to the other antecedents included in this study ($r = .50$ and $.57$, respectively). Notably, the non-hypothesized relationship between Giftedness self-esteem and prohibitive voice should be more thoroughly explored.

The current study also found evidence of reciprocal relationships between the domain-specific self-esteem variables and the voice constructs. The results of the regression analyses done with respect to the research questions point to the need for more research regarding how an individual's specific self-evaluation temporally predicts their subsequent work behavior and vice

versa. In addition, further research should explore the possibility that reciprocal relationships might exist between domain-specific self-esteem and work behaviors besides voice.

Conclusions

Contrary to some previous findings regarding global self-esteem and voice behavior, the data in the current study did not find that global self-esteem was a meaningful predictor of either promotive or prohibitive voice. Domain-specific self-esteem variables were proposed as potentially more robust predictors of promotive and prohibitive voice, however, and these hypotheses were partially supported. In particular, Giftedness self-esteem was shown to be an important predictor of promotive voice, and Power self-esteem was a meaningful predictor of prohibitive voice, even when controlling for global self-esteem.

No consistent mean differences were found between men and women with regards to promotive and prohibitive voice, however men and women were found to be consistently different with regards to their reported Morality and Vulnerability self-esteem. Gender was not found to moderate any of the domain-specific self-esteem relationships with either promotive or prohibitive voice. Additionally, the possibility of reciprocal relationships for the self-esteem variables with promotive and prohibitive voice was not found for global self-esteem, but there was an interesting pattern of relationships for the domain-specific self-esteem variables. In work contexts where autonomy and proactivity are valued with respect to promotive and prohibitive voice, how a person views themselves from a Giftedness self-esteem perspective as well as how they view themselves from a Power self-esteem perspective appear to influence whether or not they will express their opinions.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PROMOTIVE AND PROHIBITIVE VOICE

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

Note: Items 1-5 are part of the promotive subscale and items 6-10 are part of the prohibitive subscale.

Instructions: The following statements describe behaviors concerned with expressing opinions at work. Please indicate your level of agreement with how they describe your work behavior.

Scale:

1 – Strongly Disagree	2 – Mostly Disagree	3 – Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 – Mostly Agree	5 – Strongly Agree
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1. Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
2. Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.
3. Raise suggestions to improve the unit’s working procedure.
4. Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
5. Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit’s operation.
6. Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
7. Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
8. Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.
9. Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.
10. Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.

APPENDIX B

GLOBAL SELF-ESTEEM

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Instructions: Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.

Scale:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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Note: The scale will appear under each item.

Scoring: Give “Strongly Disagree” 1 point, “Disagree” 2 points, “Agree” 3 points, and “Strongly Agree” 4 points. Sum scores for all ten items. Keep on a continuous scale. Items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9 are reverse scored. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem.

Items:

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
2. At times I think I am no good at all.
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I certainly feel useless at times.
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

APPENDIX C

DOMAIN SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM

Stake, J. E. (1994). Development and validation of the six-factor self-concept scale for adults. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 54(1), 56-72.

Instructions: Below is a list of adjectives and descriptive phrases. Please indicate the extent to which each item is true of you.

Scale:

1 – Never or almost never true of me	2 – Usually not true of me	3 – Sometimes but infrequently true of me	4 – Occasionally true of me	5 – Often true of me	6 – Usually true of me	7 – Always or almost always true of me
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Scoring: Scales scores are sums of item ratings. The Power and Giftedness scales are weighted by .857 and 1.12, respectively to make them equivalent to the other six-item scales. Sub-scale scores may also be expressed as a mean item rating. If the mean item rating approach is taken, the Vulnerability scale should be reversed and re-labeled as Invulnerability.

Items:

Likeability

1. Fun to be with
2. Friendly
3. Sociable
4. Pleasant
5. Warm
6. Easy to talk to

Morality

1. Loyal
2. Truthful
3. Law-abiding
4. Faithful
5. Trustworthy
6. Honest

Task Accomplishment

1. Hard worker
2. Productive
3. Plans ahead

4. Can concentrate well on a task
5. Works efficiently
6. Good at meeting deadlines

Giftedness

1. A natural talent
2. Creative
3. Has special talents
4. Bright and ingenious
5. Has innate ability

Power

1. Dominant
2. Strong
3. Acts as a leader
4. Powerful
5. Aggressive
6. Forceful
7. Tough

Vulnerability

1. Easily embarrassed
2. Lacks confidence
3. Self-conscious
4. Easily rattled when people are watching
5. Makes mistakes when flustered
6. Easily hurt

APPENDIX D

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY

Hays, R. D., Hayashi, T., & Stewart, A. L. (1989). A five-item measure of socially desirable response set. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 49*, 629-636.

Socially Desirable Response Set (SDRS).

1. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.
3. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
4. I am always courteous even to people who are disagreeable.
5. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.

APPENDIX E

JOB SATISFACTION

Camman, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, G. D. Jr., & Klesh, J. R. (1979). Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organizational members. In S. E. Seashore, E. E. Lawler III, P. H. Mirvis, & C. Camman (Eds.), *Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures, and practices* (pp. 71–138) New York: Wiley.

Instructions: The follow items ask you to rate aspects of your job. Please indicate the level to which you agree with the items.

Scale:

1 – Strongly Disagree	2 – Mostly Disagree	3 – Somewhat Disagree	4 – Neither Agree nor Disagree	5 – Somewhat agree	6 – Mostly Agree	7 – Strongly Agree
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Items: Note: Item 3 is reverse scored.

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I like working here.
3. In general, I don't like my job.

Controls

Organizational tenure. How many months have you worked at your current place of employment?

Job status. Please indicate your position within the organization.

Employee, first-line manager/supervisor, middle manager, senior manager

Education level. What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? *If currently enrolled, highest degree received.*

No schooling completed, Some high school, no diploma, High school graduate or equivalent high school degree, Some college credit, Trade/technical/vocational training, Associate degree, Bachelor's degree, Graduate degree.

Ethnicity. Please specify your ethnicity.

White, Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Native American or American Indian, Asian/Pacific Islander, or Other.

Gender. I identify my gender as...

Man, Woman, Other (please specify).

Age. What is your age, in years?

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