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Proactivity in Concert

An interactive perspective on employee proactivity



Renske Erin van Geffen

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Proactivity in Concert: An interactive perspective on employee proactivity
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PROACTIVITY IN CONCERT: AN INTERACTIVE PERSPECTIVE ON EMPLOYEE PROACTIVITY

ACADEMISCH PROEFSCHRIFT

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor

aan de Universiteit van Amsterdam

op gezag van de Rector Magnificus

prof. dr. ir. K.I.J. Maex

ten overstaan van een door het College voor Promoties ingestelde commissie,

in het openbaar te verdedigen in de Agnietenkapel

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Preface

I believe that the two things that makes people interesting, are our ability to learn and our ability to work together. It is therefore no wonder that the epitome of my learning thus far – this book – revolves around how people work together. The way we interact at work and the demands that we place on ourselves and each other is increasingly complex and even paradoxical. Many employees now work in teams, meaning that performance has become more and more about being able to make use of what your coworkers have to offer. Next to that, employees are expected to go beyond what is asked from them and contribute to the improvement of work processes with a future focus. In other words, they are expected to be proactive. These two developments have on the one hand made better use of the ability of people to work together, but on the other hand complicated the way people work together.

This dissertation explores how people can make the most of themselves and each other, by including the social environment in proactivity research. In doing so, I used one of my own strengths: By using different – albeit all quantitative – measures and analysis techniques, each study presents a different way of looking at how people interact at work. But I certainly did not rely on just my own ideas. I had many proactive people around who were very willing to bring their perspective to the table. The result is this dissertation which I hope you will enjoy.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction



"Even the smallest person can change the course of the future."

Galadriel, Lady of Lórien (Tolkien, 1954)

The role of employees has substantially changed over the last decades. Given the fast-paced developments and increasing complexity in business environments (e.g. markets have become more global, technological advancements seem to have no limits), organizations have to adapt to increasingly volatile environments to succeed. In order to succeed, organizations rely on their employees' proactivity to spot opportunities to keep up (Grant & Ashford, 2008a; Parker & Bindl, 2016a). Employee proactivity is defined as "Taking control to make things happen, rather than watching things happen. It involves aspiring and striving to bring about change in the environment and/or oneself in order to achieve a different future." (Parker & Bindl, 2016b, p. 1). Organizations depend on employees to proactively shape the work they are doing (Grant & Parker, 2009; Morrison, 2011; Parker, 2014).

Due to the increasing complexity of a lot of work tasks, work situations are also becoming increasingly interdependent with employees needing to work with and rely on others in order to be able to perform (Ashkanasy, Ayoko, & Jehn, 2014; Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009). In line with this development work is organized in teams and employees work together and combine their experience and expertise based on the premise that the team together will perform better than the sum of its parts (individual employees) (Jian & Shu, 2017; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008; van Dijk, van Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012). Yet, as employees work together more, the social aspects of the work environment become more important (Edmondson, 2002; Edmondson & Lei, 2014).

Combined, this increased push for employee proactivity and simultaneously for interdependence present a conundrum: When employees are proactive and consciously attempt to impact their environment and change it, they are likely affecting those interdependently working around

them as well (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Bolino, Valcea, & Harvey, 2010; Grant & Parker, 2009). For example, an employee who proactively changes work (e.g. by starting a new project) can increase the workload of coworkers (e.g. their workload increases as the first employee focuses on the new project). Thus, employee proactivity may lead to negative reactions from their peers (coworkers, team mates etc.), for example if these peers feel their freedom to decide how to do their work is jeopardized by the proactivity of their coworker (Bolino, Turnley, & Anderson, 2016).

However, the social context at work could also present employees with the additional resources needed to be proactive on top of performing well at their jobs. For example, when one employee proactively signals a problem, pooling knowledge skills and abilities by including coworkers could result in a better solution (Cronin, Weingart, & Todorova, 2011). Because there is relatively little research on the social context in relation to employee proactivity to date, we do not know whether a relational work design helps employees to be proactive by inspiring them to go beyond the task and/or whether proactivity may also work less well in a more interdependent work setting because its challenging nature results in unintended negative (social) effects. This raises the question how employees work together to be proactive and work together proactively?

Over the last three decades, the topic of proactivity in organizations has emerged as a field of study. In the 1990's, a number of domain specific proactive behaviors and constructs (such as work role innovation, i-deals, feedback seeking) were formulated and studied, as recognition of employees' agentic and active behaviors in specific situations (Parker & Bindl, 2016b). Although not yet specifically labeled as proactive at that time, these actions did reflect some of the characteristics later described as proactivity or proactive behaviors. For example, feedback seeking considers the employee's own initiative (self-starting behavior) in getting feedback to improve their performance (change oriented, with positive intent). The seminal paper of Crant (2000) subsequently describes four specific proactive constructs: proactive personality, personal initiative, taking charge, and role-breadth self-efficacy.

The development of proactivity as a research field lead to a new categorization of proactive behaviors as being focused on achieving different goals, proactive PE-fit behaviors (aimed at improving fit between employee and environment), proactive work behaviors (aimed at improving the work situation) and proactive strategic behaviors (aimed at improving the organization) (Parker & Collins, 2010). Subsequent work looks into the motivational processes behind different types of motivation (e.g. Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010, who distinguish between a 'can do', 'reason to', and 'energized to' component of proactive motivation) , as well as the consequences of different types of proactivity at work (Bolino et al., 2010). In this vein, two meta-analyses investigated the nomological network of proactivity constructs recently (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010; Tornau & Frese, 2013). These two studies showed the differences between different types of proactive behaviors, their distinction from personality traits, as well as their relation to organizational performance.

As noted, one of the important next steps in proactivity research is to more explicitly address the relational nature of contemporary work design in relation to proactive behavior. This can take different forms. One way to incorporate the role of the work group is to look at team level proactivity. Although team proactivity is defined and researched to some extent as the ability of a group of employees to be proactive together, or be proactive in the group (e.g. (Harris & Kirkman, 2016; Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010) the (empirical) research on the topic is limited to date. In addition, new forms of proactivity that explicitly contain interaction with others in the organization have gained attention. One such behavior is voice behavior, that is, the extent to which employees speak up to others with proactive ideas and suggestions to improve the work situation (Morrison, 2011). However, the consequences of proactive behaviors for others in the organization have not been researched extensively. Here, we aim to contribute to the understanding about proactivity in a relational setting. Specifically, in this dissertation I aim to investigate how proactivity unfolds in teams, and I focus specifically on 4 questions in the four main chapters: (1) How do team members interact to be proactive? (chapter 2) (2) What are the interpersonal

consequences of employees being proactive in a team? (chapter 3) (3) What are the affective reactions of employees to coworker voice over longer periods of time? (chapter 4) and (4) How do manager and employee efficacy together contribute to employee voice behavior? (chapter 5).

Chapter 2: Team Proactivity

As noted, contemporary work is often organized in teams because a group of people brings together a pool of knowledge, skills and abilities that they can then jointly use to get the work done (Grant & Parker, 2009; Harris & Kirkman, 2016). Especially in the Netherlands, which is the setting of the current research, a culture of cooperation and democratic agreement exists, which may have contributed to the prevalence of teams (and meetings) in organizations (Van Vree, 2008). A team should be able to come to better decisions, develop better strategies to deal with problems, and create more innovation, than individual employees working independently because of the different views and ideas that can exist and be built on in a team (Hollenbeck et al., 1995). The idea of information elaboration (e.g., Homan, Knippenberg, Kleef, & Dreu, 2007; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008; van Dijk, van Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012; van Ginkel & van Knippenberg, 2008) suggests that bringing together all information available to team members can benefit team performance.

Extending this line of reasoning, teams should be able to reach proactive outcomes on top of task performance by pooling individual insights and expertise. Different team members are likely to have different backgrounds and experiences and with their diverse views on the task, should come diverse ideas of how to improve the work situation. However, research into team proactivity is limited to date (Harris & Kirkman, 2016). Although we know that empowered teams tend to be more proactive (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) and other situational characteristics of the team such as work design and leadership play a role (Williams et al., 2010), we do not yet know how team member interaction shapes team proactivity. Knowing more about how team members coordinate their differing views

may help understand why some teams are able to make use of their differences, while others are not.

In chapter 2, I explore the different ways in which team members clash in teams, based on their differing professional insights (task conflict) or personality differences (relationship conflict), in relation to both team performance and team proactivity. I propose that task conflict can relate to better team performance through reflection upon their work methods. Team reflection allows team members to constructively make use of these differences by continuously and collectively scrutinizing work methods in order to find opportunities for improvement (Edmondson, 2002). The purpose of Chapter 2 is to explore the benefits of working in teams for proactivity in organizations and to start to answer the question: How do team members interact to be proactive?

Chapter 3: Proactivity in Meetings

While chapter 2 addresses the antecedents of team proactivity, chapter 3 investigates more closely its consequences. Although employee proactivity is usually positively intended, past research notes that employees are sometimes proactive with a goal or objective different from serving the collective (e.g., more selfish goals like making one's own work easier or more interesting; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2016; Parker & Collins, 2010). When individuals are proactive in an interdependent - team - context, they may endeavor to shape the work environment 'for the better'. Better, however, is usually defined from their own perspective, while their proactive behavior might have also consequences for all other team members. Even when employees are proactive with the intention to improve the situation of the collective team, the consequences for others may imply that such proactivity is still not appreciated by everyone (Bolino et al., 2010).

In order to investigate the consequences of proactivity in teams further, I focus on the effects of employee voice behavior in team meetings. Voice is defined as "intentionally expressing rather than withholding relevant ideas, information, and opinions about possible work-related improvements" (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003, p. 1360). Voicing is an

inherently social act that involves the individual who voices (the voicer), but also those who are the focus of (targets) or directly affected by the voiced ideas, suggestions, and opinions (Bolino et al., 2010; Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012). In chapter 3, I study the social consequences of voice behavior in team meetings by observing voice behavior as it happens in team meetings and assessing how team members felt before and after the meetings. By doing so, I aim to answer the question: What are the affective consequences of proactivity events in a team?

Chapter 4: Coworker Proactivity

An interdependent work context is of course broader than what is said in a team meeting (chapter 3). Meetings present crucial moments for teams, but the largest part of the work is done outside (before or after) of those meetings. Interdependent work designs imply that employees are confronted with peers also during the execution of tasks (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Grant & Parker, 2009; Parker, 2014). Thus, also beyond meetings, there is a need to investigate employees' day to day experiences of (proactive) ideas, opinions and suggestions from others.

In chapter 4, I therefore investigate the affective reactions of coworkers who are targeted by fellow employees' voice behavior over a timespan of one work week. These affective reactions reflect an individual's reaction to specific events and may vary from event to event. Such a more dynamic and event based perspective on proactivity is important as research has shown that employee proactivity and (affective) experiences in organizations vary over time (Fay & Sonnentag, 2012). However, next to within person differences in affective reactions, not all employees will react the same to events, thus between person differences in reacting to voice events are also likely to occur. Employees with certain personality traits may respond more positively and more strongly to the positive intent behind voice behavior. Specifically, I investigate extraversion and neuroticism. In order to gain more insights into how employees respond to their coworkers' voicing, chapter 4 presents two studies (a vignette study pilot and an experience sampling field study) to show that employees have affective

reactions to coworker voice, and those reactions differ for employees with certain personality traits. This chapter aims to answer the question: What are the affective reactions of employees to coworker voice over time?

Chapter 5: Manager-Employee Interaction

Employees do not only interact with their coworkers. While chapters 2 through 4 have focused on the role of coworkers in the voice process, Chapter 5 investigates the role of the leader. As employees require more autonomy and responsibility to do their work than they had in the past (Bolino et al., 2010; Parker, 2014; Parker & Collins, 2010), successful leadership has become more about empowering employees rather than only directing them (Dong, Bartol, & Zhang, 2015). Being able to let employees take initiative and shape their own work environment to make the best use of their individual capabilities requires leaders that are comfortable and confident enough in the leader role to allow employees to do so. Without such confidence, managers can feel threatened in their role as leader when confronted with agentic behavior from and change proposed by employees (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014; Waldron, Hunt, & Dsilva, 1993). In other words, leaders need to be efficacious in their leadership role in order for employees to be able to be proactive (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Fast et al., 2014; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008).

Past research has also shown that employee efficacy is crucial for proactive behavior to occur. Role-breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) (i.e., a person's confidence of being able to successfully engage in different types of proactive behaviors, Parker, 1998) is shown to be positively linked to different types of proactive behavior (see for example Grant & Ashford, 2008; Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009). When employees are confident in their ability to be proactive, they expect a good chance of success when showing a proactive behavior such as voice (Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006).

While the effect of employee efficacy in the generation of proactive employee behavior has been established by past research, less work to date has focused on the role of efficacy of leaders and on whether (and if so how)

these two combine or jointly affect proactivity. Therefore, chapter five investigates the combination of manager's leader efficacy and employee role-breadth self-efficacy as an antecedent of employee voice behavior. By conducting response surface analyses, I aim to find out how manager and employee efficacy jointly contribute to employee voice behavior.

Scientific Contributions

By exploring these four topics focused on employees' interaction with their social work environment, this dissertation answers the call to include the interdependent nature of contemporary work design in proactivity research (Grant & Parker, 2009; Morrison, 2011; Parker & Bindl, 2016a). Furthermore, by better understanding the interactive nature of antecedents of proactive behavior, we may learn more about the stimuli that facilitate proactive behavior in organizations, both at the team level (Chapter 2) and at the individual level (Chapter 5). By exploring the affective consequences of proactivity, I aim to show the consequences of employee proactivity beyond traditional organizational outcome measures such as performance (Chapters 3 and 4). Finally, this dissertation also contributes to the proactivity literature by exploring possible negative consequences of employee proactivity, especially for other individuals in the work context of proactive employees (Chapter 3).

Methodological Contributions

In the different chapters of this dissertation, I made use of different methodologies to investigate proactivity. For Chapter 2, I collected survey data in 129 organizational teams, modelling individual, team level and manager perceptions of team processes, behavior and outcomes using a multi-level modeling approach. In chapter 3, I extend the use of survey data by incorporating data that was not reported by employees, but rather observed by researchers in a multilevel team design. Such observation-

based data is scarce in proactivity research which is still dominated by survey designs (Wolsink, 2017). Also, the data was collected in actual team meetings in organizations rather than laboratory experimental settings or classroom projects following students.

Chapter 4 uses two additional research designs: a vignette study (scenario experiment) in which an employee sample reflects on a hypothetical work situation and an experience sampling study in which employees report their work experiences multiple times. The experience sampling study includes a multilevel perspective by incorporating cross-level effects of personality on the perception of proactivity from coworkers (that is, both within and between person differences are modeled).

Finally, Chapter 5 uses a cross-sectional survey design, analyzed with response surface analyses from polynomial regression coefficients to extend our knowledge on how proactive behavior occurs at work. Response surface analysis allows us to gain a nuanced understanding of the interplay between antecedents of voice behavior and helps determine the degree and direction of the effects of different combinations of antecedents (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggestad, 2010).

Contributions to Practice

An abundance of literature reports the relevance of interacting with others in the organization for employee's well-being and performance (Chiaburu, Lorinkova, & Van Dyne, 2013; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). By investigating how employees are proactive based on these interactions (Chapters 2 and 5) organizations encourage ways of working that help them be more proactive and in consequence adaptable. For example: when we know which interactions are related to team proactivity, managers can support teams to interact more in that way. Furthermore, by being more aware of the affective consequences of proactive behavior for coworkers (Chapters 3 and 4), employees can learn how to package their proactivity to increase the chances of a positive

reaction when they are proactive. For example, they can do so by learning how to voice in a meeting in such a way that is likely to be related to positive reactions from team members. Finally, investigating the affective consequences of proactivity in the team (Chapter 3) can help managers support their team members while proactivity occurs in the team, for example by recognizing when proactive behavior may yield negative reactions and intervene.

CHAPTER 2

See what happened was… Team Reflection as Mediator between Task Conflict and Team Outcomes



This chapter is based on a paper written by R.E. van Geffen, D.N. den Hartog & F.D. Belschak, presented at INGRoup conference, Helsinki, July 2016

Abstract

Conflict can arise in teams due to differing views on the task at hand (task conflict) or because of interpersonal problems (relationship conflict). When team members have task conflict, the different views in the team may help them to reflect on different options as they perform their tasks. Team reflection in turn helps teams spotting opportunities for improvement and thus performing better, and it offers the chance to come up with long term changes to the way teams work (team proactivity). However, we propose that relationship conflict may disrupt this dynamic, by directing attention away from the task to interpersonal difficulties. In this study 129 teams and their managers reported on their levels of task and relationship conflict, team reflection, team performance and team proactivity. The results show that teams with task conflict tended to reflect more and more reflective teams showed higher levels of performance and proactivity. Relationship conflict did have a negative effect, but was not as detrimental as expected, as only teams low on reflection seemed to suffer from relationship conflict.

In spite of several decades of research, we still do not fully understand how task conflict in teams can contribute to higher quality team output (De Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). On the one hand, teams seem to do better when team members openly discuss their views on the task at hand (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). By discussing different viewpoints, the team members should reach better decisions, develop better strategies to deal with problems, and create more innovation. This information elaboration perspective (e.g., Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008; van Dijk, van Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012; van Ginkel & van Knippenberg, 2008) is at the core of the oft-used argument that a team achieves more as a whole than the sum of its parts would, as bringing together all information available to the team members should benefit team performance. On the other hand, empirical evidence has been contradictory, as some studies have found support for the proposed positive effects of task conflict (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Chatman, 2000), others report negative effects (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003), and some studies find positive effects under specific conditions (mostly in the work context of the team, e.g. the complexity of the task) (De Wit et al., 2012; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003).

Here, we propose that arguing for a simple direct link between task conflict and team outcomes might be insufficient. From an organizational learning perspective, disagreement on the task at hand between team members might be a good start, but not sufficient to improve team functioning without further action. For example, the work of Amy Edmondson (2002) suggests that being able to *reflect* on the differences between team members, past team actions and their effects as well as translating those reflections ultimately helps teams to learn and improve team outcomes. Task conflict may provide teams with the input (information and motivation) to look at past processes, to reflect on the decisions made and the resulting outcomes, and, possibly, to improve. In addition, team reflection (defined as "the team's reflection on past activities and the adaptation or action for future work behaviors" Wiedow & Konradt, 2011a, p. 33) allows teams to identify areas for improvement (Edmondson, 2002;

Healey, Vuori, & Hodgkinson, 2015; West, 2000; Wiedow & Konradt, 2011a) and may thus act as a mediator between task conflict and team outcomes.

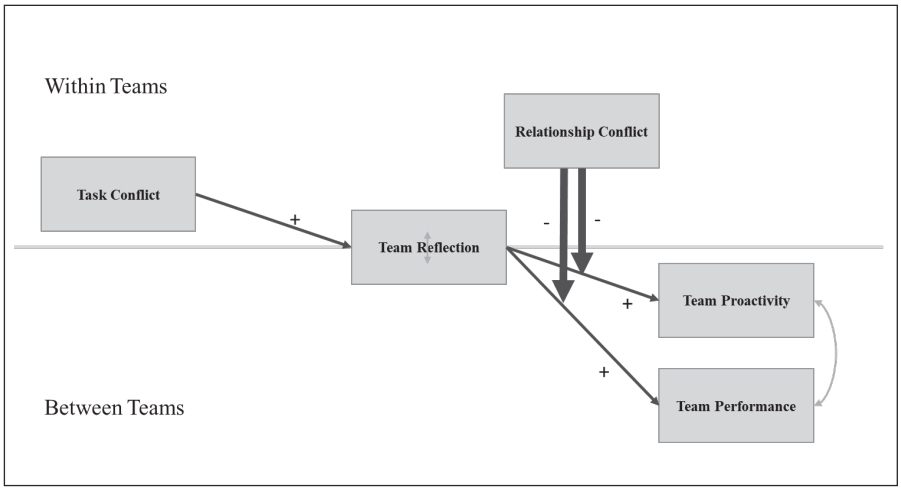
One such key team outcome is performance. Team reflection allows the team to better understand which actions facilitate or hinder team performance (Mulec & Roth, 2005). Griffin and colleagues (2007) further noted that, next to task performance, proactivity is also an important dimension of job performance. Where team performance relates to the extent to which teams are currently meeting their objectives, team proactivity refers to the extent to which the team is aiming at long-term improvements and future performance. In line with this, Williams, Parker, and Turner (2010) emphasized the importance of team proactivity. We therefore not only investigate team (task) performance but also team proactivity. Team proactivity refers to the extent to which teams seek continuous improvement, develop innovative solutions, and revise work processes for future benefits (Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Team proactivity, down the line, allows organizations to adapt to their ever changing environment (Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Williams et al., 2010). Team reflection may help teams to look towards the future and take action to change the ways in which work is approached, thus facilitating team proactivity.

The proposed mechanism of task conflict yielding positive team outcomes such as performance and proactivity through stimulating team reflection may however not always take place and may be contingent on other factors that influence the extent to which teams are able to translate their reflection into action (Edmondson, 2002; Schippers, West, & Dawson, 2015; Wiedow & Konradt, 2011a). Reflection needs to take place in a receptive context, for example: the positive effects of reflection on outcomes are reduced when teams suffer from strained relationships in the team (Edmondson, 2002; Wiedow & Konradt, 2011b). When teams are prone to relationship conflict, team members struggle with personality clashes in their day to day work (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995). The indication of the need to change inherent in reflection will then more likely be seen as criticism or taken personally, leading to resistance to any new idea or

proposed change and stifling the learning from past issues or different views (Edmondson, 2002). Therefore, we propose that relationship conflict moderates the link between reflection and team outcomes in such a way that teams with high levels of relationship conflict report a weaker relationship between team reflection and positive team outcomes, because relationship conflict creates a negative atmosphere that is likely to hinder the translation of reflection into action.

Furthermore, we expect that the moderating effect of relationship conflict is particularly important in the relationship between team reflection and team proactivity given that team proactivity is more discretionary than team performance. While teams need to perform to some extent despite of interpersonal differences as low performance will likely lead to negative consequences (e.g., not meeting targets and getting bad performance appraisals), this is less the case for discretionary work outcomes such as team proactivity. Proactivity implies making (radical) changes to the work itself, for example by revising the work process and/or seeking innovative solutions (challenging the status quo), for which high levels of trust and a willingness to exchange information are needed (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006). Indeed, favorable interpersonal norms have in general been found to be positively related to team proactivity (Harris & Kirkman, 2016). When teams deal with a high level of relationship conflict, team members report a reduced tendency to communicate and a lack of cooperativeness (Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011). Therefore, we propose that relationship conflict affects the relationship between team reflection and team proactivity more severely than the relationship between team reflection and team performance. The theoretical model for our study is depicted in Figure 1 on the next page.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



This study contributes to the team literature in several respects. We contribute to the literature on conflict and on team reflection by arguing that team reflection may act as a mediator in the relationship between team task conflict and team outcomes. Furthermore, we contribute to the literature on reflection in teams by looking at task conflict as input for team reflection and at relationship conflict as a barrier to implement what is learned from reflection. Our study contributes to our knowledge on proactivity in organizations by providing new insights into team-level proactivity, which is currently still an under-researched area in the field of proactivity at work (see Grant & Parker, 2009; Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010). The study also answers a call for research into proactivity that takes into account the interrelated nature of contemporary work design (Grant & Parker, 2009).

Teams: Conflict, Team Reflection and Team Outcomes

Nowadays, work in organizations is increasingly organized in teams (Mathieu et al., 2008; Tjosvold, Hui, & Yu, 2003; Williams et al., 2010). The proliferation of teamwork in organizations also brings a new level of theorizing to existing ideas on how employees and organizations develop (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Parker, 2014). Traditionally, organizational learning

theory has distinguished between the individual level where employees acquire new knowledge, skills, and abilities and the organizational perspective where organizations as a whole are able to adapt to their environments (Argyris & Schön, 1999). In addition to those two levels, a team learning perspective has emerged within the organizational learning literature (Edmondson, 2002). The team is the direct social environment that provides employees the opportunity to gain and implement knowledge to benefit team outcomes (Edmondson, 2002; Senge, 1990). Teams that are able to use that social environment by making the most of interactions between team members, are therefore likely to perform well.

One type of team member interaction is task conflict. Task conflict occurs when team members express different opinions, ideas, and views of the task (De Wit et al., 2012; Jehn, 1995). When working alone, employees rely on their own best judgements to find and employ methods to achieve their goals at work. In teams, task conflict allows team members to explore different possible strategies explicitly, facilitating the search for an optimal problem solution in the team (De Wit et al., 2012; Jehn, 1995). As team members' perspectives are often based on different experiences and education of team members, task conflict generally allows teams to explore a wider variety of work ideas than an individual employee might come up with. When team members disagree and express differing views, this allows for reflecting on these differences which should enhance understanding of the task and can thus lead to more successful work strategies (De Wit et al., 2012). For example, task conflict has been shown to positively affect the team outcomes of innovation and group decision-making by stimulating critical thinking (De Wit et al., 2012).

Such critical thinking relates to reflection, and having differing views expressed in the team can form input for team reflection. Reflection is defined as "a mental activity aimed at investigating one's own action in a certain situation and involving a review of the experience, an analysis of causes and effects, and the drawing of conclusions concerning future action" (Woerkom, 2003, p. 40). More specifically, team reflection can be defined as the "collective examination of tasks, methods, resources, and team-related

efforts, which collectively entail questioning, planning, analysis, diverse exploration, explicit use of knowledge, and reviewing past events with self-awareness" (Wiedow & Konradt, 2011a, p. 36). We propose here that teams that have task conflict will see more expression and discussion of different views on how to do a task, which helps them to subsequently reflect on their, work methods, actions and, decisions.

Hypothesis 1: Task conflict is positively related to team reflection.

Reflection can potentially give teams the opportunity for better performance (Schippers, Den Hartog, Koopman, & Wienk, 2003; Tjosvold et al., 2003; Tjosvold & Yu, 2004). Teams that are accustomed to reflecting on earlier decisions and work methods assess the way they work in order to correct the course of action (Nederveen Pieterse, van Knippenberg, & van Ginkel, 2011). These reflections include, for example, sharing information on past processes, discussing whether work methods are still effective, seeking feedback and discussing errors that occurred (Edmondson, 2002). Having a routine of reflecting allows teams to understand mistakes and avoid them in the future, strengthening their performance. For example, teams that are used to reflect tend to report higher levels of coordination success (i.e., the ability to successfully work together) (Wiedow & Konradt, 2011b).

Furthermore, reflection may help teams identify areas in which set methods and routines can be improved. In order to gain insight into the broader effects of task conflict and team reflection, we include both team performance and proactivity as outcomes. Team proactivity has been identified as a team outcome that impacts organizational performance and innovation beyond team task performance (Harris & Kirkman, 2016). Team proactivity is defined as "the extent to which a team engages in self-starting future-focused action that aims to change the external situation or the team itself" (Williams et al., 2010, p. 302). Rather than the sum of *individual* proactive behaviors where employees aim to shape their work environment to serve a number of proactive motives (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010), team proactivity refers to taking proactive action *together* in the interdependent

context of the team (Grant & Ashford, 2008a; Harris & Kirkman, 2016; Williams et al., 2010).

Different from team task performance, team proactivity relates to a more discretionary, longer term and radical outcome of team member interaction (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Williams et al., 2010). As Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007) describe, we can distinguish between work behaviors that are aimed at proficiency (such as task performance) and proactivity (such as team proactivity). Where proficiency is focused at successfully fulfilling the task at hand, proactivity is aimed at improving the way the task is fulfilled. Both are positive behaviors that benefit the individual, the team, and the organization, but in different ways (Griffin et al., 2007) As outlined by Edmonson (2002) in a qualitative review of variegated reflection in teams, teams that move from reflection to trying new methods (team proactivity) consistently benefit from team reflection. Therefore, here we investigate both team task performance and team proactivity and we argue that team reflection is related to team performance and proactivity, as routinely reflecting on past work processes will help teams identify possible areas for proactive improvement and ways to enhance performance. We therefore hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 2: Team reflection is positively related to (a) team performance and (b) team proactivity.*

In order to gain insights in the possible benefits of task conflict in teams, we specifically hypothesize that the effect of task conflict on team outcomes is positive, but that this relationship is mediated by team reflection. Our arguments are in line with theorizing that task conflict leads to team outcomes by allowing for a better understanding of the task through more thorough information gathering and critical analysis (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; De Wit et al., 2012; Jehn, 1995; Korsgaard, Soyoung Jeong, Mahony, & Pitariu, 2008; Yang & Mossholder, 2004). We therefore propose that it is actually team reflection, based on the different views expressed through task conflict, that benefits team task performance and proactivity.

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between task conflict and (a) team task performance and (b) team proactivity is mediated by team reflection.

While we have argued for generally positive effects of team reflection on team outcomes above, reflection is not sufficient for teams to excel as reflection also needs to result in corresponding actions (Edmondson, 2002). Thus, not all reflection is effective, as its critical nature requires a psychologically safe environment for team members to safely translate the insights learned from reflection into action. Research has shown that a high-quality interpersonal environment is a prerequisite for teams to be able to move from reflection to action (Carmeli, Brueller, & Dutton, 2009). In contrast, when reflection is likely to be met with defensive reactions due to strained interpersonal relations in the team, it is unlikely that teams will be able to translate reflective insights into new actions, in terms of better task performance or proactivity (Edmondson, 1999, 2002; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Here, we therefore propose a disruptive role of (high levels of) relationship conflict in teams in the relationship between reflection and team outcomes.

Relationship conflict is defined as the disagreement between team members based on the personal relationships alone (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Research suggests that relationship conflict is likely to be harmful in teams, as it drains energy from productive team processes (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Teams with high relationship conflict tend to spend lots of time, energy and resources on resolving interpersonal differences that otherwise could have been spent on performance (Yang & Mossholder, 2004). Consistently, studies have found evidence that relationship conflict interferes with productivity-related efforts in the team (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Furthermore, relationship conflict reflects a hostile atmosphere (e.g., the presence of fear and anger in the team) that hampers team functioning (Chen et al., 2011). Such a hostile environment in teams with high relationship conflict motivates team members to reduce their efforts directed at primary work processes, as described by rigidity theory (Chen et al., 2011; Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). While a team that is used to reflecting

on past actions and performance may not abandon its reflective routines when relationship conflict occurs, team members may become less likely to implement insights from this reflection.

We therefore propose that relationship conflict acts as a disruptor of the relationship between team reflection and team task performance. We also expect that this will result in an unwillingness to try new ideas (team proactivity), making team reflection less consequential (as it is not likely to be followed up on). While high levels of relationship conflict reflect a general lack of trust within the team, the challenging nature of proactivity requires high levels of trust and a willingness to exchange information (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006). Therefore, relationship conflict is likely to present a barrier for teams to be proactive; proactivity is discretionary and requires a receptive social environment due to its challenging nature (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006). We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: Relationship conflict reduces the positive relationship between team reflection and team task performance and proactivity.

a) *Relationship conflict negatively moderates the relationship between team reflection and team task performance. More specifically, the link between these variables is more positive when relationship conflict is low than when it is high.*
b) *Relationship conflict negatively moderates the relationship between team reflection and team proactivity. More specifically, the link between these variables is more positive when relationship conflict is low than when it is high.*

Method

Design, Procedure, and Sample

Teams were asked to participate in the study through the network of one of the researchers. As an incentive for participating, a gift certificate was raffled off. This led to 39 teams participating in the study. To increase sample size, part-time business studies students were contacted and asked

to voluntarily participate with their work team at their organization. Again, a gift certificate was raffled off to encourage participation. This led to a final sample of 453 participants from 129 teams from various Dutch organizations. From the teams that participated, 129 returned useful data including both team-member and manager responses (team-level response rate: 95%). The sample included a variety of sectors, such as banking, health, and education.

The managers of 129 teams, answered the question how many members their team consisted of. Of these 129 teams, the largest team consisted of 40 team members. The smallest team consisted of the manager and two team members. On average, the teams consisted of 12 team members, with a standard deviation of 8. All team members were invited to participate, and on average 40% did so. The percentage of missing respondents per team was significantly and positively related to the number of team members working in the team ($r=.60$; $p<.001$; $n=99$). In other words, the larger the team, the higher the non-response.

We collected data in a multi-source cross-sectional online survey study using two types of online surveys that were matched. One survey was filled out by team members, measuring their assessment of (task and relationship) team conflict and team reflection, the other was filled out by the manager of the team providing information about team reflection and team outcomes. Thus the data is nested, with the perception of employees at the lower level and team average scores of those constructs and the ratings of the manager at the higher level.

Measures

Task conflict. Task conflict was measured from team members. We used the three-item scale developed by Behfar et al. (2011), based on the original scale of Jehn (1995). An example item is: "How often do your team members discuss evidence for alternative viewpoints?" The participants answered the questions on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1='not at all' to 7='very much'. The scale showed adequate internal consistency with a

Cronbach's Alpha of .79. Also, task conflict showed an intraclass correlation of .15 indicating that the scores of team members from the same team are more similar than the scores of team members from different teams.

Relationship conflict. Relationship conflict was measured from team members with a four-item scale developed by Behfar et al. (2011) based on Jehn (1995). An example item is "How much are personality conflicts evident in your team?". The participants answered the questions on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1='not at all' to 7='very much'. The scale showed adequate internal consistency with a Cronbach's Alpha of .89. Relationship conflict showed greater agreement among team members from the same team than task conflict, with an intraclass correlation of .26.

Team reflection. In order to take into account the multilevel nature of our model, we needed to address the role of individual perceptions. Team reflection as reported by the individual team member may present something different than team reflection measured at the team level. Subsequently, the role of team reflection as central mediator may be more pronounced at one level than at the other. Therefore, we measured the individual perception of team reflection from team members as well as a the team-level conceptualization of team reflection from the manager.

Team reflection is a routine that allows teams to assess past performance and improve their performance as well as their methods; the individual perception of team reflection is likely to include reflection that happens in interaction as well as personal reflection. In that sense, the individual perception of team reflection is likely to be somewhat biased by the individual team member's tendency to reflect. In that sense, individual perceptions of team reflection may relate to some extent to the shared cognition that reflection regularly occurs in the team. However, it is not directly clear whether this is explicitly team reflection or individual reflection. Previous research on the topic has addressed team reflection as a team-level construct (Schippers, Homan, & van Knippenberg, 2013; Schippers, West, & Dawson, 2015). However, a team with highly reflective individuals is not the same as a team that has built a routine to interactively reflect on past work,

even though in both such types of teams, the team members would report high levels of team reflection. Furthermore, for team reflection to be consequential, leaders need to listen to and be involved in reflection happening in the team (Edmondson, 2002). Reflection requires the authority to make changes related to team outcomes. Thus, manager-rated team reflection should (1) more closely correspond to the definition of team reflection as a formalized routine of assessing past performance, and (2) reflect the manager's awareness and endorsement of team reflection taking place, therefore making it more consequential to the team.

We used four items from a scale developed by Schippers, Den Hartog, and Koopman (2007) to measure team reflection. We selected the items that most clearly focused on the team-level evaluation of the effectiveness of the team's ways of working and their reflection of past events. We asked both team members and team managers to rate to what extent the team showed reflection. Managers and team members were asked to what extent they agreed with the statements on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1="completely disagree" to 7="completely agree". The four used items are: "This team regularly discusses whether the team is working effectively together to benefit team actions", "The methods used by the team to get the job done are often discussed", "How well the team communicates information is often discussed, to take more effective action", and "This team often reviews its approach to getting the job done to do a better job next time". The scale showed good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's Alpha of .78 for the managers and .84 for team members.

Team proactivity. Managers of the teams were asked to rate team proactivity using three items derived from the work by Hyatt and Ruddy (1997). The scale showed good internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$). Managers were asked to what extent they agreed with the statements on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1="I completely disagree" to 7="I completely agree". The items used were: "The team continuously revises work processes", "The teams seeks alternative solutions to problems", and "The team addresses issues before they become major problems".

Team task performance. Team performance was measured using 6 items developed by Ashford and Black (1996). Managers were asked to rate the team on a scale ranging from 1 (very poor performance) to 10 (excellent performance) on aspects of team performance. An example item reads: "The achievement of team goals". The scale showed good internal consistency (α = .74).

Analyses

To start with, means, standard deviations, and correlations were calculated. Before the analysis of our model, the predictor variables were centered around the grand mean to facilitate interpretation of the interaction effects. The data were analyzed using the MPlus 7.4 statistical software package to conduct multilevel structural equation modelling. The multilevel nature of the analysis fits with the nested structure of the data (employees within teams). To test the robustness of our model, specifically for the role of our moderator, we compared three different models. We assessed our hypothesized model, first in terms of direct effects, second including the moderating effect of relationship conflict. In both models we assessed the indirect effect of task conflict through team reflection on our outcome variables. In the second model we also assessed the moderated indirect effect: the effect of task conflict through team reflection on our outcome variables for different values of relationship conflict.

Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the variables in the model, with the team-level statistics presented in italics. We found that of the team member-rated variables, relationship conflict showed the highest intraclass correlation, though all team member-rated variables shared variance at the team level to some extent.

Relationship conflict was significantly negatively correlated with team reflection as rated by team members (individual level: r=-.18, p<.01; team level: r=-.31, p<.01) and non-significantly with manager-rated team reflection (individual level[1]: r=-.07, N.S.; team level: r=.07, N.S.). This implies that relationship conflict may only play a role for the individual perceptions of team reflection, which we discuss further in the discussion section. However, as our hypothesized model revolved around the role of relationship conflict as a moderator at the team level, we did test for this. Furthermore, we found a significant team-level correlation between team member-rated team reflection and team performance (r=.19, p<.05). Finally, with the exception of the aforementioned correlations, we found similar correlation patterns for team-level and individual-level correlations.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations*

					Correlations					
		Mean	SD	ICC	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Task conflict	4.21	1.26	.15	(.79)	*.02*	*.46***	*.20**	*.09*	*.18**
2	Relationship conflict	2.87	1.20	.26	-.05	(.89)	*-.31***	*.07*	*-.01*	*-.10*
3	Team Reflection	4.48	1.15	.20	.42**	-.18**	(.84)	*.18**	*.16*	*.19**
4	Team Reflection (Manager rated)	*4.90*	*1.04*	-	.10*	-.07	.09*	(.79)	*.63***	*.43***
5	Team Proactivity	*5.25*	*0.86*	-	.04	.00	.08	.61**	(.85)	*.46***
6	Team Performance	*7.51*	*0.82*	-	.06	-.05	.10*	.35**	.43**	(.73)

*=p<.05; **p<.01; means, standard deviations and correlations at the individual level (n=453);

[1] Although the manager rating is measured at the team-level, Pearson correlations between these variables can be estimated at both levels as relationship conflict is measured at the individual-level.

Table 2. *Results of the Analyses for Model 1 (Mediation)*

	Dependent variable	Team Reflection		Team Reflection (manager rated)		Team proactivity		Team Performance	
Model Effects	*Individual level variables*	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
	Task conflict	0.40**	0.04	0.86*	0.38	-0.18	0.38	0.32	0.36
	Relationship conflict					-0.03	0.18	-0.20	0.18
	Team reflection					0.10	0.26	0.28	0.27
	Team level variables								
	Team Reflection (manager rated)					0.56**	0.08	0.27**	0.09
	Indirect effects					Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
	Task conflict through Team reflection (manager rated)					0.48*	0.23	0.23*	0.11
Model Characteristics	*Correlations*	Coefficient	S.E.						
	Team reflection with Team reflection (manager rated)	.14†	0.07						
	Team proactivity with Team Performance	.14**	0.05						
	Fit indices	Value							
	RMSEA	.09							
	CFI	.92							
	SRMRw	.04							
	SRMRb	.14							
		Value	S.E.	Value	S.E.	Value	S.E.	Value	S.E.
	R^2	0.21**	0.07	0.11	0.10	0.40**	0.07	0.24**	0.09

*=p<.05; **p<.01; †p=.05; n=453; k=129

Table 3. *Results of the Analyses for Model 2 (Moderated Mediation)*

	Dependent variable	Team Reflection		Team Reflection (manager rated)		Team Proactivity		Team Performance	
Model Effects	*Individual level variables*	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
	Task conflict	0.40**	0.04	1.00**	0.38	-0.44	0.44	0.25	0.43
	Relationship conflict					-0.09	0.17	0.30	0.29
	Team reflection					0.08	0.28	0.30	0.30
	Team level variables								
	Team Reflection (manager rated)					0.55**	0.09	0.25**	0.09
	Team Reflection (manager rated)*Relationship conflict					0.44*	0.18	0.22	0.18
	Indirect effects					Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
	Task conflict through Team reflection (manager rated)					0.55*	0.24	0.25*	0.12
	Mediated moderation high Relationship conflict					1.08**	0.33	0.51	0.30
	Mediated moderation low Relationship conflict					0.03	0.24	-0.01	0.21
Model Characteristics	*Correlations*	Coefficient	S.E.						
	Team reflection with Team reflection (manager rated)	.13*	0.07						
	Team proactivity with Team Performance	.11*	0.05						
	Fit indices	Value							
	RMSEA	.05							
	CFI	.95							
	SRMRw	.03							
	SRMRb	.11							
		Value	S.E.	Value	S.E.	Value	S.E.	Value	S.E.
	R^2	0.21**	0.04	0.14	0.10	0.47**	0.09	0.26**	0.09

*=p<.05; **p<.01; n=453; k=129

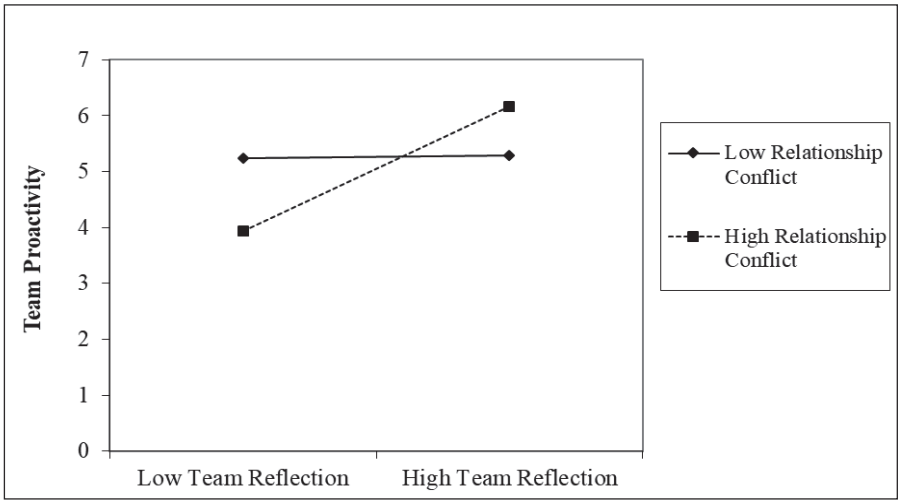
Tables 2 and 3 present the results of the analyses, Table 2 presents these for the mediation model (Model 1) and Table 3 for the moderated mediation model (Model 2). The results of Model 1 showed significant effects for task conflict on team reflection, both at the individual and at the team level (individual level *B*=0.40, SE=0.04, *p*<.01; team level *B*=0.86, SE=0.38 *p*<.05). This result is in line with Hypothesis 1. Furthermore, we found a significant positive effect of manager-rated team reflection, on both team proactivity (*B*=0.56, SE=0.09, *p*<.01) and team task performance (*B*=0.27, SE=0.09, *p*<.01). This supports Hypothesis 2. In line with Hypothesis 3, which stated that team reflection mediates the relationship between task conflict and team outcomes, we found no significant direct effect of task conflict on team proactivity (*B*=-0.18, SE=0.44, N.S.) or team task performance (*B*=0.32, SE=0.43, N.S.), but the indirect effect through team reflection was significant for both (team proactivity *B*=0.48, SE=0.24, *p*<0.05 and team task performance *B*=0.23, SE=0.12, *p*<0.05). Finally, the direct effect of relationship conflict on team outcomes was non-significant for both team proactivity (*B*=-0.03, SE=0.17, N.S.) and team task performance (*B*=-0.20, SE=0.29, N.S.).

Model 1 showed a near acceptable fit (RMSEA: 0.09; CFI: 0.92), but showed a lack of fit at the between-team level (SRMRw: 0.04 versus SRMRb: 0.14). Moreover, Model 1 explained a significant amount of variance for team reflection (as rated by team members), team proactivity, and team task performance, but not for team reflection rated by the manager. Finally, the correlation between team proactivity and team task performance was highly significant and positive (r=0.46 *p*<0.01), implying that teams that perform better also tend to be rated as more proactive.

The results of Model 2 included our hypothesized moderation effect of relationship conflict and are depicted in Table 3. These results showed comparable effects for all hypothesized effects of Model 1. Furthermore, we found a significant moderation effect of our interaction variable, representing the interaction effect of manager-rated team reflection and relationship conflict for team proactivity (*B*=0.44, SE=0.18, *p*<.05) but not for team task performance (*B*=0.22, SE=0.18 N.S.). In order to facilitate

interpretation of the interaction effect, we tested the indirect moderated mediation effects on team proactivity for high and low levels of relationship conflict. Here, we found that the indirect effect was only significant for teams with high levels of relationship conflict (*B*=1.08, SE=0.33, *p*<.01), but not for teams with low levels of relationship conflict (*B*=0.03, SE=0.24, N.S.). A plot of the moderation effect is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Plot of the Interaction Effect



Plotted with worksheet derived from: www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm

The plot showed a different effect from what was hypothesized. Hypothesis 4 stated that relationship conflict should reduce the positive effect of team reflection. However, the test of the indirect effects (Table 3) shows that team reflection only has a significant effect on team proactivity for high levels of relationship conflict. We found a non-significant moderation effect for low levels of relationship conflict. Additionally, Figure 2 indicates that teams low on team reflection combined with high levels of relationship conflict showed the lowest scores on team proactivity, whereas teams high on team reflection and high on relationship conflict showed the highest level of team proactivity. As such, Hypothesis 4 is not supported by the findings.

Model 2 showed a better fit than model 1 (RMSEA=0.05; CFI=0.95), but still showed a lack of fit at the between teams level (SRMRw=0.03 versus SRMRb=0.11). In this model, the positive correlation between team reflection rated by team members and team reflection rated by the manager is significant (r=0.13, p<0.05). Although this implies that there may be a relationship between team reflection rated by the manager and team reflection rated by team members, our two models show that only manager-rated team reflection was related to team proactivity and team task performance. Neither model showed a significant effect of team member-rated team reflection on our outcomes variables.

Discussion

This study aimed to show that task conflict through team reflection can contribute to both team task performance and team proactivity. Our results support the idea that task conflict does not directly lead to positive team outcomes as has been suggested in the extant literature (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; De Wit et al., 2012; Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Rather, task conflict affected team outcomes indirectly through its relationship with team reflection.

Our results confirm findings in the conflict literature showing that the role of task conflict in teams is ambiguous and often seems to affect team outcomes indirectly through other, mediating variables (De Dreu, 2002; De Wit et al., 2012). We measured the extent to which managers perceive that their team actively reflects on processes and methods used as a productive outcome of task conflict in the team and assessed whether this formed a mediator between task conflict and team outcomes (team task performance and proactivity). Our findings suggest that positive effects of task conflict occur if the disagreement inherent in task conflict can be actively and constructively used by the team to reflect on the past and on how to improve team functioning.

Team reflection thus seems to be an important condition for achieving high team performance. Here, we included team reflection as reported by the manager, as a measure of the reflective routine of the team. Our results show that routinized team reflection is associated with higher levels of both team proactivity and team task performance. This finding is in line with much of the literature on team learning. Team learning theory posits that teams are only able to learn when they reflect and are able to translate the outcome of the reflections into action (e.g., Edmondson, 1999; Jon Ohlsson, 2013; Wiedow & Konradt, 2011b).

Next, we investigated the role of relationship conflict in teams and found that the indirect effect of task conflict via team reflection was moderated by relationship conflict. This contingency was only found for team proactivity though, not for team task performance. However, the findings regarding the moderating effect of relationship conflict for proactivity were not in line with our hypothesis but rather showed the opposite pattern. We found that teams suffering from high levels of relationship conflict benefited from team reflection in terms of reporting higher levels of team proactivity than teams that experienced only low relationship conflict. Teams with low relationship conflict did not show a significant link between team reflection and team proactivity. An explanation of this unexpected finding could be that low scores on relationship conflict might not reflect an agreeable work setting, but rather a team with independent roles and limited interaction between team members. Reversely, task interdependence has been found to be negatively related to relationship conflict (Lee, Lin, Huang, Huang, & Teng, 2015). Teams with highly independent team members tend to show less intra-team coordination (Swaab, Schaerer, Anicich, Ronay, & Galinsky, 2014), such as team reflection routines. This may explain why the results of our moderation analysis showed a 'disconnect' between team reflection and team proactivity for low levels of relationship conflict.

Finally, we found the moderating effect of relationship conflict only for team proactivity but not for team task performance. Schmitt and colleagues (2016) found in an individual level study that when pressed for

resources, employees tend to focus on non-discretionary core tasks and reduce discretionary behaviors such as proactivity. Our findings seem to support this mechanism at the team level as well, as the relation between team reflection and task performance was not moderated by relationship conflict (a stressful and hence energy-draining circumstance) while the relation between team reflection and team proactivity indeed was moderated by relationship conflict. This is also in line with other research that shows that employees tend to give priority to non-discretionary tasks when they are under pressure for resources (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Hobfoll, 1989), especially when discretionary behaviors are risky in nature (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014), such as proactivity.

Limitations and Future Research

As most studies, this study has several limitations. First, we used a cross-sectional study design which does not allow us to determine the direction of causality between our variables. While we argued theoretically that task conflict leads to more team reflection and, in turn, to better team outcomes, and our results (mostly) support the expected relationships between the variables, experimental research is needed to empirically test our assumed causal model. In line with studies on team learning, future research should look into the reiterative processes of reflection and action as team learning processes (Edmondson, 2002; Wiedow & Konradt, 2011b). In this respect, longitudinal research could shed further light on how task conflict translates into team reflection and ultimately team outcomes.

One of the strengths of this study lies in the fact that all managers of the included teams contributed to the study, allowing us to use multisource data and diminishing the chance of common method variance biasing our results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, despite of the high number of teams in our study, not all team members of all teams contributed to the study, and we did not gain access to information about non-participating team members.

Also, a total of 129 teams from a broad range of different Dutch (for-profit as well as non-profit) organizations contributed to the data used in this study. This suggests that our results might be generalizable for different types of organizations. Yet, participating teams were all white-collar teams and most of their work tasks were executed in teams. The generalizability of our findings for blue-collar and more occasional work teams (such as project teams) should therefore be examined in future research.

Furthermore, by including both manager and employee ratings of team reflection, we have aimed to gain insights into the differences between these ratings. We found that only for manager ratings, there is a significant effect of team reflection on team outcomes, which may be due to rating source effects. In addition, we proposed in the method's section that the manager ratings of team reflection might be a rating of the more standardized routines of team reflection and that the rating of team members, may differ from the rating of managers as it also may include individual reflection of the rater which shapes his/her perception of the team. More research is needed into the different ratings of team reflection and their relationship to actual team reflection and team outcomes.

Finally, future research should also investigate the influence of team member interdependence: the findings for teams low on relationship conflict may actually reflect a team context in which team members are highly independent. Team members that are less connected with each other by the design of their work tasks, have the opportunity to avoid those team members with whom they have personal difficulties. But those independent workers could also lack the structural adherence to team reflection, which is crucial for the translation of reflection into team proactivity (Griffin et al., 2007). Future research should also add team member interdependence to the model and investigate its role empirically.

Practical Implications

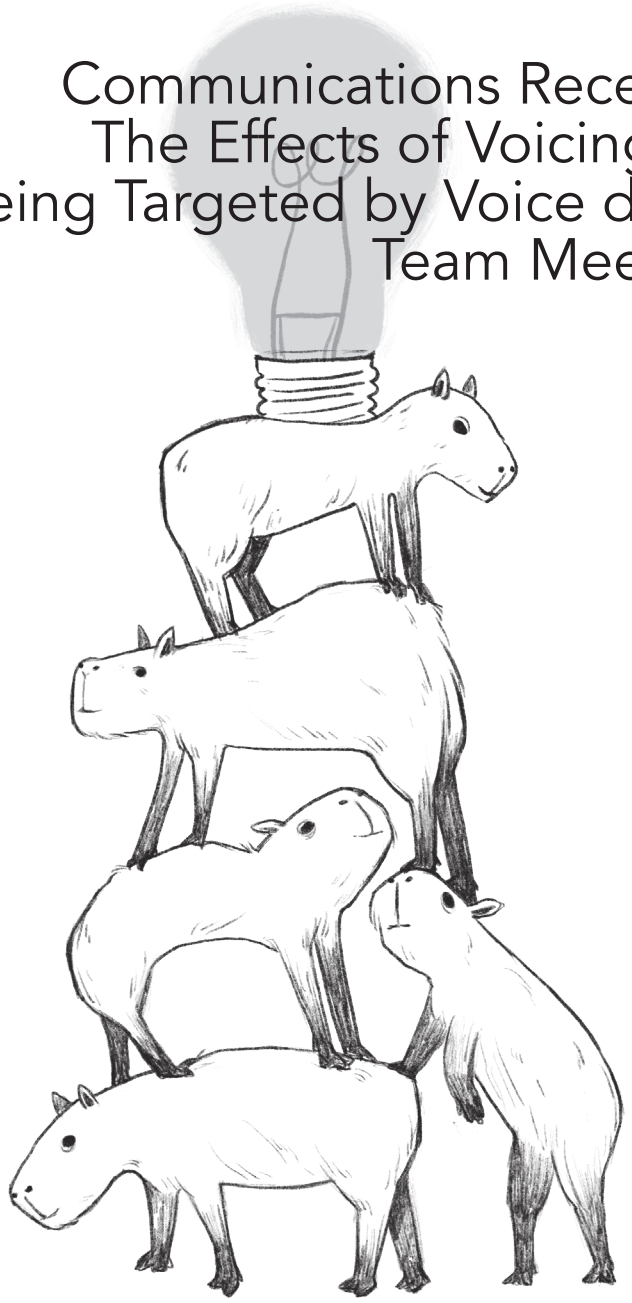
Our results offer a number of implications for practice. First, team reflection seems to play an important role in achieving team outcomes as it makes use of differences between team members that stimulate discussions in the team thus facilitating finding optimal procedures and problem solutions. One way for companies to stimulate such discussion is to focus on diversity in team members (e.g., in terms of professional background, gender, ethnicity, etc.) when composing teams. This points again at the importance of diversity management for companies.

As our results show that teams high on team reflection perform well on both team task performance and proactivity, building reflection moments into the team process may help teams to improve team outcomes. Developing interventions (e.g., team trainings) to help teams reflect and learn from their past behavior and work methods is likely to pay off in increased future performance and proactivity. However, reflective team routines might not be suitable for all teams (e.g. cross-functional teams where team members each carry sole responsibility on their part of the work). In these cases, individual reflection might be more appropriate.

To conclude, this study contributes to the literature on conflict in teams by investigating reflection as a mediator between task conflict and team outcomes, as well as proposing a new role for relationship conflict as a moderator in this process. We found evidence that task conflict is positively related to an improvement of team processes (team reflection) which, in turn, is related to both team task performance and proactivity. The role of relationship conflict within this process is still less clear and requires more research.

CHAPTER 3

Communications Received: The Effects of Voicing and Being Targeted by Voice during Team Meetings



This chapter is based on a paper written by R.E. van Geffen, D.N. den Hartog & F.D. Belschak, presented at INGRoup conference, Helsinki, July 2016

Abstract

Employees speak up with ideas, concerns and suggestions to change the status quo in order to improve the work situation (employee voice behavior). However, by doing so they might also change the work situation of those who work with them. The affective consequences of such voice employee behavior in a team setting when employees work closely together with others, is unclear. We therefore investigate the affective reactions to voice behavior in 36 teams by observing and coding voice behavior as it happens. The results show that indeed the affective consequences of employee voice behavior in meetings are largely positive, with a few exceptions. When an employee targets a specific other employee with his/her voice behavior, the targeted employee experiences a negative affective reaction, when voice efficacy in the team is high. Also, at the team level voice disparity in teams comes with negative team affect.

Because employees in contemporary organizations increasingly work in teams towards achieving complex team goals, coworkers (fellow team members) assume a more important role at work (Harris & Kirkman, 2016; Mathieu et al., 2008; Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Parker, 2014). Another prominent change in today's workplaces is the increasingly higher demand for employee proactivity (see Parker & Bindl, 2016). As work situations become increasingly complex, employers rely on employees to provide input on work processes and how to improve them (Ashkanasy et al., 2014). Yet, these two trends have the potential for creating tensions: Employees are increasingly encouraged to change their work proactively, while, due to their interdependence, this may also imply changes in the work of other team members.

One important form of proactive behavior is employee voice. Voice is defined as "intentionally expressing rather than withholding relevant ideas, information, and opinions about possible work-related improvements" (Van Dyne et al., 2003, p. 1360). Voice is discretionary work behavior, shown with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning (e.g., Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011). An employee's decision to speak up can bring new ideas to the forefront and thus improve organizational functioning (Morrison et al., 2011). However, voicing is an inherently social act that involves the individual who voices (the voicer), but also those who are the focus (targets) of or directly affected by the voiced ideas, suggestions, and opinions (Bolino et al., 2010; Liang et al., 2012).

Most past research on voice has relied on self or supervisor reports to measure employee voice behavior (Morrison et al., 2011), rather than observing voice events as they occur. Also, most voice research has looked at consequences of voice for the voicer him or herself (e.g., career progress; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001, self-regulation; Lin & Johnson, 2015) or for the organization (e.g., better decision- making and error detection; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). The social consequences of voice in organizations or in other words the impact of employee voice on others in the team are in need of research, and here we focus specifically on the *affective* consequences of

voice for the proactive individual, other team members, and the team as a whole. Research into affective reactions to voicing and especially how employees experience being targeted by voice is limited to date. Here, we propose voice can form an affective event and relate to experienced affect at work, which in turn is known to influence attitudes and behaviors (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015). In the current study, we directly observed and recorded voice behavior as it naturally occurred in team meetings and related it to affective reactions in the team.

Voicing can result in positive affective states for the voicer, such as feeling proud or happy (e.g., Lin & Johnson, 2015). For example, speaking up offers the chance to contribute positively and improve the work situation or to connect with others by showing them that the voicer cares about them or the organization. Also, changing the way work is done can give voicers the feeling of being in control of their environment. Thus, voicing can act as a form of upward affective self-regulation (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015). However, despite the constructive intent of voice, voice targets' reactions may not always be equally positive as voice challenges the status quo and implies a potential change that others may not always appreciate (Bolino et al., 2010; Campbell, 2000).

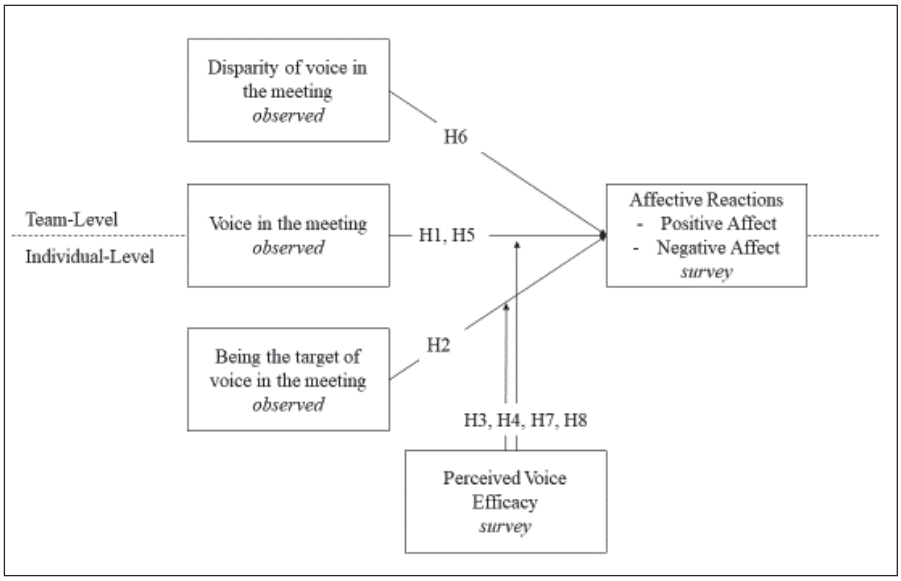
For instance, to a specifically targeted employee (those who are directly addressed in the team setting by other's voice) voiced ideas or suggestions may involve decreases in control over their own work processes or undesired changes in work habits (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). Targets' affective reactions to voice may thus not be as positive as those of the voicer. We propose these reactions may depend on perceptions of voice efficacy (the "shared belief about whether group members are able to voice effectively", Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011, p. 184). When team members believe that voicing is effective, (e.g., they believe voice will be heard, will make a difference, and will be followed up on), voice is more likely to be seen as relevant and lead to stronger reactions than when voice is not seen as relevant or effective. Thus, when

perceived voice efficacy is high, voice is felt to be more consequential, which may strengthen the relationship between voice and affective reactions.

In addition to affective reactions at the individual level (voicing employee and targeted coworker), we also examine team-level affective consequences of voice. As team members within one team tend to make different contributions, the consequences of proactivity at the team level tend to differ from those at the individual level (Harris & Kirkman, 2016). Furthermore, as proactivity can also be aimed to make changes at the team level rather than the individual level, we need to assess the effects at the team level as well (Parker & Bindl, 2016b). At the team level, voicing opinions and ideas on work-related issues is constructively intended and can be beneficial for team performance and team goal attainment (Erez, Lepine, & Elms, 2002; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Affective reactions to voice will therefore likely be positive in general, for example, shared enthusiasm about a suggestions on how to deal with a recurring problem. However, a disparity of voice in the team (i.e., only few team members voice) may create conflict and negatively impact team affect (e.g., shared frustration where 'the usual suspects are complaining again').

In short, this paper contributes to our understanding of the consequences of proactivity specifically for the team context. We do so by investigating the potential positive and negative affective consequences of team member voice from three different perspectives: the voicer, the other team members who are present and affected when employees voice, and the team as a whole. We observed voice behavior in 36 teams during a regular team meeting and related this to changes in experienced affect before and after the meeting. Figure 1 (on the next page) depicts the research model.

Figure 1: Hypothesized Model



Voice in Teams

As noted, work is increasingly designed as the responsibility of a team. In teams, employees are interdependent and need one another to complete team tasks and achieve team goals, and fellow team members thus have an important role in each other's work (e.g., Parker, 2014). For the individual team member, such interdependence implies that are more people who have influence over their work process, which may have negative (affective) consequences. For example, task interdependence may make it more difficult for individuals to plan and execute tasks in line with their personal preferences.

Affective events theory suggests that stimuli from the work environment can elicit positive or negative affective responses, which, in turn, impact work attitudes and behaviors (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Voicing can form such an affective event for the voicing individual as well as for the target of voice. On the one hand, voice behavior can result in positive affective states for the voicer such as feeling proud as

voice can make people feel efficacious, connected to others, and/or in control at work (e.g., Lin & Johnson, 2015). Also, voice is often focused on what the team has in common: their tasks. In this case, team members as well as the team as a whole may be positively affected by voice as a team member is constructively trying to improve team functioning by speaking up with ideas and suggestions.

On the other hand, team members being specifically targeted by employee voice (for example, when a voicing employee suggests that a specific team member should change his/her work procedures), may experience such ideas, suggestions, and opinions as negative, intrusive, or unhelpful, even if intended to bring about positive change. They may not agree that the suggested changes will lead to the expected positive results, may not want to change personal work habits, or may think that the proposed changes will mean more work for them (Liang et al., 2012). In short, they may not feel good about being specifically targeted.

Here, we study voice in a team setting by observing voice behavior in meetings and relating it to affective changes (before and after the meeting). As team members need to align their actions (Kauffeld & Lehmann-Willenbrock, 2012), they usually have team meetings to discuss their past work and the work lying ahead. Most of the existing research on voice has investigated the general role of voice in general levels of affect. Here, we focus on a more specific period of time and assess how levels of voice over the period of one meeting relate to affect of team members after the meeting, controlling for how they felt before the meeting. We address both individual level and team level effects.

Individual-level Effects: Voicing and Being the Direct Target of Voice

Voice is a discretionary behavior, and individuals weigh the costs and benefits of voice before engaging in it (Morrison, 2011). Individuals try to anticipate if speaking up will have the desired outcome, or if it might be better to remain silent. Engaging in voice behavior thus suggests that the voicing person perceived the related cost-benefit balance to be positive.

Given this perceived positive cost-benefit balance, voicing is likely usually a positive event, yielding positive affect for the voicer (e.g., being happy to have made a suggestion on how to improve a faulty procedure). Voice has been related to envisioning and acting towards desired future goals (Lin & Johnson, 2015) and, as mentioned, voicing can enhance control perceptions as well as belongingness and mastery experiences, which are likely to contribute to enhancing positive affect.

We similarly expect employee voice to be related to a reduction in negative affect. The positive experience related to bringing a work problem on the table and hopefully solving it is likely to reduce employees' negative feelings such as frustration and anger ('venting one's emotions') or anxiety (aiding with problem-focused coping, 'now the problem will be solved') (Larsen, 2000; Larsen, Billings, & Cutler, 1996; Larsen, Diener, & Cropanzano, 1987). We expect that voicing in a meeting generally forms a positive affective event for the voicing employee. Therefore, we hypothesize that the number of times a team member voices in the meeting relates positively to their positive affect change and negatively to their negative affect change when comparing affect before and after the meeting.

> *Hypothesis 1a: Team member voice is positively related to team member change in positive affect (i.e., an increase in positive affect after compared to before the meeting).*

> *Hypothesis 1b: Team member voice is negatively related to team member change in negative affect (i.e., a decrease in negative affect after compared to before the meeting).*

However, from the perspective of a specific coworker who is targeted by a voicing employee, this same voice behavior may often feel less positive. We consider a coworker to be a target if voice is directed at him/her and his/her personal work is impacted by what is voiced, for instance, getting the suggestion to carry out new tasks or to do things in a different way or in a different order. Being specifically targeted by voice in a meeting may instill the feeling that one's work methods are scrutinized as someone else is

formulating an idea on how one's work methods could or even should be changed. Being the target of voice can yield negative affective responses because it can threaten a set routine (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006) or imply an increase in workload (Liang et al., 2012). Voice specifically aimed at one target could also be experienced as negative feedback or criticism, and research shows that negative feedback is related to negative affect (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009).

Thus, while targets can of course at times experience a suggestion from a coworker as useful and positive, overall we expect that being the specific target of another's unsolicited voice in a meeting is associated with experiencing less positive and more negative affect due to the challenging nature of voice, which implies a change to the status quo of the target. The pressure to change can upset work routines, lead to a (potential) loss of identity, threaten feelings of security and belonging, and reduce the target's expected or perceived autonomy, resulting in negative affective reactions such as increased feelings of pressure, frustration, and anxiety and reduced feelings of competence and enthusiasm (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). We do not propose that each instance of voice will have a direct target, but that when it does the affective consequences for the target will generally be negative. We thus hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 2a: Being specifically targeted by voice from a coworker is positively related to changes in negative affect (i.e., an increase in negative affect after compared to before the meeting).*

> *Hypothesis 2b: Being specifically targeted by voice from a coworker is negatively related to changes in positive affect (i.e., a decrease in positive affect after compared to before the meeting).*

However, voice in teams often does not happen as an isolated, singular event, and team members have experienced earlier events of voice in the team. The history the team has with voice behavior is reflected in general beliefs and expectancies of team members about the chances of success associated with voice (voice efficacy). This is why we take into

account the perceived voice efficacy in the team as a situational moderator that influences the reactions of employee to having voiced as well as being directly targeted by voice in a team meeting.

Voiced suggestions are not always listened to by others, some suggestions might simply be ignored and are never implemented. We therefore propose that the affective reactions of voice for both the voicer and - when applicable- the direct target of voice are likely to be stronger when individuals perceive high voice efficacy: their suggestions are usually listened to and implemented. Voice efficacy describes the individual's belief about the team's capability to engage in and benefit from voice (Morrison et al., 2011). When employees trust that voicing in the team is likely to lead to the implementation of the suggestions made and hence effective change (i.e., voice efficacy is high), the positive effects of being able to voice in the meeting should be stronger. In this case employees do not only have the chance to voice their ideas and concerns, but they can also be confident that the proposed changes will be implemented, reinforcing positive feelings of mastery, control, achievement and the related increase in positive affect and decrease in negative affect. Therefore, we expect:

> *Hypothesis 3: The positive relation between voicing and changes in positive affect (H3a), and the negative relation between voicing and changes in negative affect (H3b) will be higher when voice efficacy is high than when it is low.*

For the target, the expectation that voice is consequential implies that the suggestions, ideas, and concerns that others in the team voice are to be taken seriously and cannot be dismissed easily. Targets of voice thus likely feel more obliged to adhere to the voiced ideas when they perceive voice efficacy to be high and experience even stronger losses of autonomy and related increased negative affect and reduced positive affect. We thus expect that voice efficacy acts as a moderator in the sense of strengthening the link between being targeted by voice and target's affective reactions. Voice targets who perceive high voice efficacy will likely experience stronger

decreases in positive and increases in negative affect than those who perceive low voice efficacy.

> *Hypothesis 4: The negative relation between being the target of voice in a meeting and changes in positive affect (H4a), and the positive relation between being the target of voice and changes in negative affect (H4b) will be higher when voice efficacy is high than when it is low.*

Team-level Effects: Voicing Together or Voicing Alone

On the team level, we expect affective consequences of voice in meetings to be generally positive. Affect at this level reflects the shared variance of team members in their experience of negative and positive affect (Walter & Bruch, 2008). Team meetings focus on the collaborative nature of team work and are aimed at aligning the individual efforts of team members. Therefore, constructively intended contributions made by team members in a team meeting should help towards the improvement of team work and achievement of team goals and thus should generally be received well by the team. Consequently, the collective affective responses are expected to be positive as team member behavior stemming from a positive intent is likely to have positive effects for the affective states of the team (Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Teams will thus likely experience increases in positive team affect – as the achievement of team goals is facilitated through voice – and decreases in negative team affect – as uncertainties and anxieties about potential problems in achieving team goals are reduced. We hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 5a: Voice is positively related to changes in positive team affect (i.e., an increase in positive affect after compared to before the meeting).*

> *Hypothesis 5b: Voice is negatively related to changes in negative team affect (i.e., a decrease in negative affect after compared to before the meeting).*

However, team research shows that it is not only the total amount of a particular behavior in a team, but that also the disparity within a team (that is, whether some team members show considerably more of that behavior than others) affects team outcomes (e.g. Cox, Zagelmeyer, & Marchington, 2006; Harrison & Klein, 2007; Karau & Williams, 1993; Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003). Disparity in teams refers to a small minority holding a position in the team that is different in power or dominance than the majority in the team (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Here we look at what happens when a minority is either extremely vocal or extremely silent in terms of voice behavior. Only few people speaking up repeatedly implies that a small subset of people dominates the meeting with their suggestions and ideas, rather than there being a broader interaction and exchange between team members. Research on uneven distributions of voice across team members shows that this is problematic as it leads to conflict in teams and related satisfaction disparity (i.e., inequality between team members in terms of satisfaction) (Srivastava, Sinha, & Ekkirala, 2014). This suggests that, at the team level, disparity in terms of voice behavior can lead to negative outcomes such as deterioration of commitment and potency in the team (Cox et al., 2006; Duffy & Shaw, 2000).

Also, when voice disparity occurs, the few voicing team members are acting against a majority who likely is – given that they are not voicing to suggest change – satisfied with the status quo. As employees tend to respond negatively when their routines are altered (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Gagné, 2003; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006), this might yield negative affect for the team as a whole. Also, the team may feel less positive after the meeting when there is inequality in voice across team members, because disparity in terms of the team members' influence on the ongoing work makes the team less positive about future team endeavors. Thus, we expect a negative impact of voice disparity on team affect changes. We hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 6a: Voice disparity is positively related to changes in negative team affect (i.e., an increase in negative affect after compared to before the meeting).*

Hypothesis 6b: Voice disparity in teams is negatively related to changes in positive team affect (i.e., a decrease in positive affect after compared to before the meeting).

Finally, we argue that voice efficacy has similar effects at the team level, as on the individual level. Next to individual perceptions of voice efficacy, a voice efficacy climate in teams has also been shown to affect (team level) outcomes (Morrison et al., 2011). More specifically, we expect high levels of voice efficacy climate to reinforce the positive affective consequences of voice at the team level in terms of leading to increased positive affect and reduced negative affect at the team level, compared to low voice efficacy climates. Voice efficacy climate is proposed to reflect the team's confidence in voice being heard and being successfully implemented, meaning that the positive effects of voice (improving team functioning and facilitating team performance) at the related affective changes at the team level should be amplified. However, we propose that voice efficacy climate together with voice disparity in the team could have negative effects. Voice being consequential in the team where voice disparity is high would imply that a subgroup successfully impacts the work methods of the team disproportionally, which could amplify the negative affective effects of voice disparity in the team mentioned above.

Hypothesis 7: The positive relation between team voice in a meeting and changes in positive affect (H7a), and the negative relation between being the target of voice and changes in negative affect (H7b) will be higher when voice efficacy climate is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 8: The negative relation between voice disparity in a meeting and changes in positive affect (H8a), and the positive relation between being the target of voice and changes in negative affect (H8b) will be higher when voice efficacy climate is high than when it is low.

Method

Design and Procedure

The design of this study revolved around the observation of voice in team meetings. We investigated the natural occurrence of voice behavior in these meetings – one meeting per team - and assessed the effects of such voice behavior on the change in affective states of all employees participating in the meeting. Affective states were measured directly before and after the meeting using paper surveys. We thus conducted a field study using a mix of survey and observational data, where the role of the researcher included observing the behavior of employees in naturally occurring team meetings. Four observers received training before attending meetings. Specifically, observers coded extensive video material of meetings. At first collectively, discussing every instance of voice as it occurred and then individually, discussing the differences in coding and resolving these afterwards. Finally, observers individually coded another video one week later, to make sure that they coded the same number of voice instances, which they did.

We approached organizations through our personal network with the request to observe one of their regular team meetings. The observed meetings were recurrent work meetings that took place every week with the same team of employees. To encourage teams to participate, a gift certificate was raffled off among all participants. At the start of the meeting, the researcher introduced herself, explained the procedures, and informed participants that their answers to the survey were confidential. Next, the researcher handed the manager a dated and signed document stating that the observing researcher would not reveal anything that was said in the meeting, would take no notes of the content of anything that was said, and that all notes of the researcher would be available for reviewing after the meeting. Finally, the researcher indicated that a debriefing would take place after the meeting.

After this introduction and before the meeting itself started, the participants filled out a survey measuring their current levels of positive and negative affect. After that, the meeting commenced as usual for that team. The observing researcher did not speak or interact with the team during the meeting and observed interactions among team members, coding each act of voice. The researcher also noted the voicing employee and the target of the voice, for which purpose the participants were numbered.

To code voice in meetings, it is important to distinguish exactly what is considered voice behavior. Not everything said in meetings constitutes voice behavior. When a team member shared an idea for improvement of the work being done, had a suggestion for change, or indicated an opportunity to prevent damage being done to the team's work, that was considered voice. An example would be "I think we/you should try a different approach, namely…" or "If we/you continue this way, we may run into trouble because…" We considered all unsolicited change-oriented suggestions, ideas, and opinions to be voice behavior. After the meeting, participants once again reported their current positive and negative affect in a survey. Finally the researcher gave a debriefing explaining the purpose of the study and which behaviors were observed. All participants were offered the option to receive a report of the results of the study. Due to the debriefing, teams were only allowed to participate once.

While observing meetings, it became clear that after the team members had filled out the pre-meeting survey and started their meeting, they did not take further notice of the researcher present. Voice behavior was relatively easy to follow and code as it occurred: there were no instances where voice actions came up too fast to code, although many meetings did have periods of time when an above average amount of voice happened and periods when little or no voice occurred. Finally, although the amount of voice varied substantially between meetings, there were no meetings in which no voice behavior occurred.

Research Context

As mentioned above, we approached organizational teams with the question whether they would be willing to let a researcher sit in on one of their meetings. We made sure that teams only participated once, therefore the 36 meetings reflect 36 teams. The whole team participated and answered the questionnaires before and after the meetings. We further ensured with the teams that the meeting we observed was part of their usual (weekly) way of working. There were no meetings included that were held for a special occasion. The study took place in the Netherlands, where having meetings is very common in organizations and the culture typically permits the open and honest sharing of opinions and ideas in those meetings due to low power distance and emphasis on open communication (Van Vree, 1994).

Sample

A total of 36 team meetings were observed, with 252 participants and a total of 855 acts of voice. 211 participants completed both surveys and were included in the final analysis resulting in a total of 629 related voice actions. The 36 teams came from various Dutch organizations, both private and governmental. The meetings lasted between 30 minutes and two hours, and we controlled the analyses presented below for the length of the meetings. The observers agreed beforehand to make a note when something extraordinary or disruptive would happen during the meeting (e.g., a fire drill, an extremely emotional discussion, or an unusual problem); no such events occurred in the observed meetings.

Measures

Voice. All voice acts were recorded, and for every participant the number of times he or she had voiced in the meeting was tallied. We also coded who the target of the voice behavior was if that was a specific other and made a count variable for each participant, accounting for the number of times this person was directly targeted by the voice behavior of a coworker. Noteworthy is that voice is usually more generally focused and the

direct, individual targeting of a fellow team member was not very common, as is shown in Table 1. At the team level, the total number of voice acts for all team members is used as a count variable. Also the mean number of voice acts per team member was calculated by dividing the number of voice acts in the meeting with the number of team members present.

Voice disparity. We calculated the within-team standard deviation (SD) of the individual voice variable, to account for voice disparity in the team. A higher SD indicated that team members varied greatly in their contribution to the voice in the meeting. Theoretically, a high SD for voice within the team might result from only a small subgroup that voices more than the other team members, but also from most team members voicing more than a few others, who remain silent. However, the latter implies a high level of voice for this majority. We therefore inspected the levels of voice for the five teams that showed an extreme value on dispersion of the voice variable (higher than the mean + 1 standard deviation). These teams all reflected the expected pattern (see Appendix A), namely a small subgroup voicing a lot and the majority voicing substantially less.

Positive and Negative Affect. To investigate the positive and negative states of team members, we used the PANAS, a 20-item measure developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Team members were asked about the extent to which they felt the 10 positive and 10 negative affective states before and after the meeting ("To what extent do the words below relate to how you feel right now?"). An example of a negative state was "exhausted", and an example of a positive state was "enthusiastic". The two scales (positive affect, PA, and negative affect, NA, respectively) showed good internal consistency (α: pre-meeting .88/post-meeting .89 for PA; .86/.88 for NA). As the dependent variable in our analyses, we computed the change in respectively positive and negative affect by subtracting the pre-meeting value from the post-meeting value.[2]

Voice efficacy. Usually, voice efficacy is assessed as a shared belief in the team, a shared team climate, rather than an individual perception (Morrison et al., 2011). However, here we are specifically interested in how

individual voice efficacy perceptions of the employee shape the relationship between voicing or being targeted and experiencing affect. To measure the extent to which team members felt that voice shown in the team would typically be effective, we used the voice efficacy measure by Morrison and colleagues (2011). The scale consisted of six items (e.g., "Members of your team feel they are capable of effectively doing the following: develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the team"). The answers were scored on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1: 'completely agree' to 7: 'completely disagree' (α = .89).

Control variables. We controlled for the length of the meeting, as a longer meeting would allow for more voice behavior, which could result in overestimating the effect of voice for longer meetings. Also, longer meetings are likely to put more strain on employees making it possible that they report less positive affective states after the meeting simply due to fatigue (Luong & Rogelberg, 2005). We therefore include the observed length of the meeting in minutes as a control variable in our analyses.

Analyses

We analyzed the data using the MPlus statistical software package (Version 7.1) and SPSS statistical software (Version 22). We estimated correlations in SPSS in order to explore our variables and their relationships. Next we used Mplus to test our hypotheses; we used a two-level multi-level

[2] We apply a change score approach here and acknowledge that there are other options to model change, such as a regressor model (where post-meeting affect would be the dependent variable and pre-meeting affect a control variable). Here, we are specifically interested in explaining the variance for the difference in how team members felt before and after the meeting, while using voice as a predictor. On top of that, we compared our model to a regressor variable model and found no difference in the direction of the effect (a difference would imply a Lord's paradox, Allison, 1990). Therefore, we conclude that the use of a change score is a viable strategy in our case that did not lead to biased results (Breukelen, 2013; Larzelere, Ferrer, Kuhn, & Danelia, 2010).

model, which takes into account both levels of the data (individual employee and team). We ran three consecutive models to explore and test our hypotheses. The first model included direct effects of our first hypotheses while controlling for our control variable, with positive and negative affect change included simultaneously as dependent variables. This model included effects at the individual level as well as the team level. The second model included the direct effect of our moderator variable on both levels in addition to the effects specified in the first model. Our third and final model included our moderator effects, as well as the effects specified in the second model. Finally, we plotted the interaction effect and performed a simple slope test to assert the nature of the interaction effect.

Results

Table 1 depicts the descriptive statistics of the variables in our study. On average, per meeting all team members together voiced 23 times, with the mean voice per employee being roughly 4 times. The voice standard deviation reflects voice disparity in the team, indicating that, on average, the dispersion was not large as employees differed about 2 voice actions from their team members. The standard deviation also shows that some employees in the sample did not voice at all, whereas others voiced considerably more often. Furthermore, employees were not often directly and individually targeted in their meeting, as the mean time of being targeted was .22 (the maximum was being targeted 9 times in one meeting though). The average meeting lasted about an hour and a half, but the large standard deviation (37 minutes) shows that there was great variability in the length of the meetings.

Furthermore, Table 1 shows the intra-class correlation (ICC) of our variables at the individual level. Our affective variables show an intra-class correlation of about .10, supporting our approach to assess our model at both levels. Voice efficacy shows an intra-class correlation of .00. Table 1 also shows the inter-correlations between variables. Negative and positive affect

were moderately negatively correlated (both in the pre-meeting survey, r=-.32, p<.01, and the post-meeting survey, r=-.34, p<.01), and the pre- and post-meeting measures of positive affect and negative affect respectively were highly correlated.

The main results of the analyses testing our hypotheses are presented in Table 2. We report findings with three decimals rather than the usual two, as our unstandardized coefficients are small due to the large count scale our voice variables are measured on. We estimated three models: Model 1 with only direct effects of our voice variables to test for our direct effects of being targeted by voice, Model 2 including the direct effect of voice efficacy at both levels, and finally model 3 with the moderating effects of voice efficacy included. First, we found that for the voicing employee, voicing in the meeting was positively related to change in positive affect (B=0.028; p<.05) but not in negative affect (B=-0.008; N.S.) (Model 1). The direct effect of voice on affective outcomes was not moderated by voice efficacy (PA: B=0.007; N.S.; NA: B=-0.008; N.S.). This supported Hypotheses 1a, but not 1b.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics*

	Mean	Standard Deviation	ICC	Correlations for continuous variables								
Pre-Meeting				1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. Positive Affect	5.34	0.81	0.10									
2. Negative Affect	1.81	0.83	0.09	-0.32**								
3. Voice Efficacy	5.33	0.94	0.00	-0.02	-0.09							
Post-Meeting												
4. Positive Affect	5.27	0.84	0.09	0.63**	-0.31**	-0.04						
5. Negative Affect	1.77	0.90	0.08	-0.34**	0.64**	-0.06	-0.40**					
Observed Variables §												
6. Voice (employee)	3.98	3.97	0.00	0.15*	-0.06	0.03	-0.24**	-0.02				
7. Targeted (employee)	0.22	0.87	0.00	0.13	0.01	-0.01	0.16*	0.02	0.40**			
8. Voice (team)	23.00	24.68	-	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.13	0.04	0.48**	0.40**		
9. Voice Disparity(team)	2.28	1.72	-	0.08	-0.07	-0.03	.009	0.06	0.54**	0.26**	0.69**	
10. Meeting duration	94.43	36.72	-	0.01	0.19**	-0.01	0.00	0.14*	0.12	0.14*	0.56**	0.024**

Note: Pearson correlations at the within-team level.

* p< .05

** p< .01

§: Please note that these are count variables and that the Pearson correlation may therefore be distorted as the assumption of normality is violated.

Table 2. *Results of the Analysis*

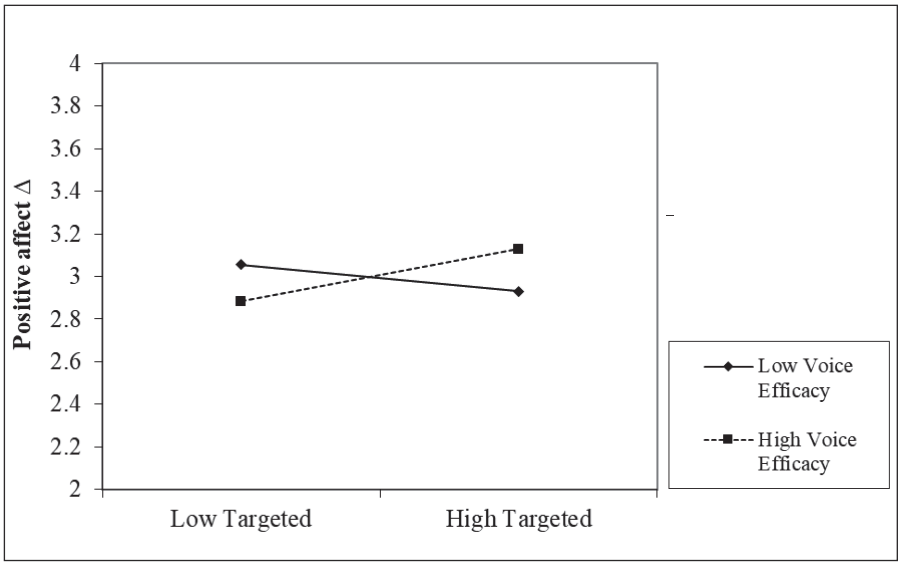
	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
Variable	Positive Affect		Negative affect		Positive Affect		Negative affect		Positive Affect		Negative affect	
Within Teams	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.
Voice	0.028*	0.012	-0.008	0.012	0.027*	0.011	-0.009	0.012	0.032**	0.012	-0.008	0.013
Being targeted	-0.034	0.049	-0.001	0.050	-0.031	0.050	0.000	0.049	-0.057	0.035	0.024	0.059
Voice efficacy					-0.010	0.053	0.011	0.048	0.008	0.051	-0.003	0.045
Voice efficacy*Voice									-0.007	0.012	-0.008	0.014
Voice efficacy*Being targeted									0.104**	0.037	-0.084†	0.048
Between Teams												
Intercept	0.110	0.153	0.034	0.194	0.069	0.161	0.038	0.232	-0.106	0.494	-0.250	0.397
Voice	0.012*	0.005	-0.005	0.006	0.010	0.006	-0.005	0.009	-0.007	0.035	-0.032	0.026
Voice disparity (SD)	-0.096*	0.044	0.121**	0.038	-0.145*	0.053	0.129*	0.058	0.020	0.130	0.213	0.119
Voice efficacy					0.313	0.659	-0.076	0.794	-0.713	0.953	-0.585	0.029
Voice efficacy*Voice									0.091	0.106	0.085	0.089
Voice efficacy*Voice disparity									-0.586	0.613	-0.208	0.634
Meeting duration	-0.002	0.002	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	0.002	-0.002	0.004	0.001	0.003
CFI	0.991				0.974				0.936			
TLI	1.000				1.000				0.551			
RMSEA	0.000				0.000				0.038			
SRMRwithin	0.001				0.001				0.023			
SRMRbetween	0.009				0.010				0.020			

Note: The observed variables were measured on a count scale, which is represented in the small coefficients. We therefore opted to show three decimals rather than the usual two.

† p<.1; * p< .05; ** p< .01

Next, the data did not support our expectation that being targeted by others' voice is experienced negatively, while voicing itself is experienced positively. We found that being specifically targeted by voice was not significantly related to a change in negative affect (*B*=-0.001; N.S.) or change in positive affect (*B*=-0.034; N.S.) in Model 1. These results were not in line with Hypotheses 2a and 2b. Furthermore, we found no significant effects for the moderating effect of voice efficacy perception on the relation between voice and either positive (*B*=-0.007; N.S) or negative affect (*B*=-0.008; N.S), which led to the rejection of hypotheses 3a and 3b. We did find that the effect of being targeted on affect change was moderated by voice efficacy, but only for positive affect change (PA: *B*=0.104; *p*<.01; NA: *B*=-0.084; N.S.), thus supporting Hypothesis 4a but not 4b. Contrary to our expectations (see Hypothesis 4a and 4b), there was no detrimental effect of being targeted by voice behavior in the team when the individual voice efficacy perception was high. Rather, employees who were targeted with voice behavior under these conditions reported an increase of positive affect after the meeting as compared to before the meeting. The simple slopes of the interaction effects were tested and found only to be significant for the high voice efficacy situation (high voice efficacy: gradient = 0.130; *t*-value = 2.670; *p*<.01, low voice efficacy: gradient = 0.066; *t*-value = -1.172; N.S). The points for low and high voice efficacy were specified as one standard deviation below and above the mean. Figure 2 on the next page depicts the interaction effect.

Figure 2: Plot of the Significant Interaction Effect



Plotted with worksheet derived from: www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm

In short, at the individual level, being able to voice in the meeting related to an increase in positive affect for the voicer and being specifically targeted by someone else's voice had a positive effect on positive affect change, but only when voice efficacy was high.

At the team level, looking at the change in affect between pre and post meeting, we found that voice (the total number of voice acts in the team meeting) was positively related to a team level positive change in positive affect (B=0.012; p<.05), but not related to change in negative affect (B=-0.005; N.S.) (Model 1). This supported Hypothesis 5a, but not Hypothesis 5b. However, as expected the voice disparity was related to a decrease in positive affect levels in the team (B=-0.096; p<.05), and to an increase in negative affect levels for the team (B=0.121; p<0.01) (Model 1 & 2). This supported Hypothesis 6b and 6a. When we added the direct effect of voice efficacy to the model (Model 2), the positive effect of voice in the meeting disappeared, but the negative effects of voice disparity remained. However, voice efficacy did not yield significant direct effect at this level. Furthermore,

voice efficacy did not yield any significant interaction effects at the team level (see Table 2, Model 3). This led to the rejection of Hypotheses 7 and 8.

In conclusion, large differences between the contributions of team members to the total number of voice events in the meeting were linked to negative changes in team positive affect and negative affect. Voice efficacy had no significant effect at this level.

Discussion

Our study was rooted in two ideas. The first one was that voice is a social act that may impact coworkers and thus result in reactions from different parties. We chose to explore the effects of voice in a team setting where we could investigate reactions of the voicing employee, specifically targeted team members, and the team as a whole. The second idea was that voicing ideas about 'how to do things differently' is a source of affective reactions for these different parties. The results supported our expectation that voice has positive (affective) consequences for both the voicing employee and the team as a whole. This finding suggests that the idea that voicing forms a positive affect regulatory practice for the employee (Lin & Johnson, 2015; Morrison et al., 2011), which can be extended from the individual level to that of the team. Our expectation that voice does not only yield positive effects was only partially substantiated, as we found negative affective reactions to voice as well. On the individual level, being specifically singled out as the target of voice did not result in experiences of negative affect in general, but it did when voice efficacy was high. At the team level, voice disparity had direct negative affective consequences.

Our results show that the effects of voice behavior in meetings are related to changes in both positive and negative affect in different ways. At the individual level, voice seems to be positively related to increases in positive affect. This finding adds to the literature on affect showing that

positive and negative affect are different emotional states that do not always need to move in tandem (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015).

At the team level, we saw a difference in changes in positive and negative affect, in addition to a positive effect of team level voice behavior on team level positive affect: positive team affect was negatively affected by voice disparity, and negative team affect was affected positively. Voice being expressed by only a small subgroup of team members might form a strong affective event that reduces positive affect and also leads to increases in negative affect. Voicing in team meetings thus seems to pose an affective event that impacts team's positive affect, but also the team's negative affect which tends to bear consequences for subsequent attitudes and behaviors (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015). Research investigating antecedents of proactive behavior indicates similarly that positive and negative affect differentially affect employee proactivity implying that different mechanisms might underlie the way that positive and negative affect function with respect to proactivity at work (e.g., Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007). Our findings here seem to suggest though that for affect as a consequence of proactivity, similar mechanisms may apply for positive and negative affect, especially at the individual level.

Our findings around voice efficacy were somewhat unexpected. We hypothesized that the voice efficacy perception of the team member would amplify the relationship between voicing or being targeted by voice and affect. However, the results we found were different: positive reactions to being targeted by voice were stronger when voice efficacy was high rather than low. A potential explanation for this finding might be that when voice efficacy is high, targeted team members were more likely to feel that receiving voice is normal, intended to be helpful, and forms 'part of the job' rather than it representing undue criticism, and thus they may be less likely to respond with negative affective reactions. Voice efficacy perceptions of the targeted individual seem to make being targeted a positive event for the target, as the voice is likely to be a useful direction for future performance. Similar effects were found in the past for feedback that is not clearly related

to performance (Ilgen, Fisher, & Susan, 1979) and feedback of which the goal is unclear (Silverman, Pogson, & Cober, 2005).

Furthermore, we did not find a team level effect for voice efficacy. Although this could be related to our lack of statistical power at that level (see limitations), it is interesting in light of our findings at the individual level and the fact that voice efficacy has been previously conceptualized at the collective level. It seems that in relation to our affective outcome variables, the individual perception of the way voice will be received in the team plays a larger role than the collective perception. It might be that for other team level outcomes (e.g., team performance), voice efficacy might have a stronger impact as the experienced effectiveness of voice behavior signals the extent to which the team makes use of voice behavior. Our study contributes to research showing that individual perceptions of voice efficacy also affect individuals' reactions to voice.

Our study goes beyond conventional survey measures of recent voice behavior by using observations of voice occurring in a natural field setting. This allowed us to record the instances of voice as they were taking place, thus avoiding some of the typical problems of self-report measures, such as common method variance or perception biases. It also enabled us to relate voice to shorter term and more immediate changes in affect, rather than assessing the link with work affect more generally. Most of the literature on voice has assumed a cross-sectional perspective making it difficult to investigate the role of time on the effects of voice (Morrison, 2011). The few existing longitudinal studies on voice in organizations take a long-term perspective with a time lag of several weeks (or even months) (Liang et al., 2012; Seibert et al., 2001). Here, we observed voice which allowed us to use short time horizons and test for more immediate reactions to voice. Our findings show that voice behaviors have direct (affective) consequences for all parties involved (voicer, targeted coworker, and team).

Limitations

Like most studies, this study also suffers from a number of limitations. While we contribute to the voice literature by objectively coding actual voice behavior in meetings, one could argue that we have merely replaced the perceptions of the employee with the perceptions of the observer. Although we trained observers, and although they reported that they were able to code voice behavior in meetings clearly and quite easily, the observers did not code the voice behavior in light of the team's history. This can be considered a limitation of our design, because we could not distinguish between high quality or low quality voice behavior. More research is needed to include this aspect of voice as well.

Secondly, our sample consisted of white collar teams from a very diverse group of organizations. Although this suggests that our results might be generalizable for different types of organizations (governmental, private etc.), our sample of teams (36) was too small to take the differences between these organizational environments into account. Also, the generalizability to blue collar work settings is not clear. However, the research design lends itself for studying voice in different contexts. Future research should address contextual differences that might affect how voice is experienced by employees.

Third, our sample size at the team level was not large, as 36 teams contributed to our sample. Although our results at the team level were statistically significant and the fit of our model was acceptable, we are aware that conclusions based on small samples should be treated with caution (Button et al., 2013). We therefore strongly suggest that our findings at the team level should be replicated with a larger sample size.

Furthermore, we chose a specific approach to the temporality of affect in our study. There is reason to expect that every instance of voice in a meeting represents an affective event for the team members, and that the order of these events happening throughout the meeting also shapes the affective outcomes of voice in the meeting. Future research could explore

the influence of order effects, for example, by using physiological measures of affect to monitor respondents' responses over the course of the meeting.

Also, the literature on voice distinguishes between different types of voice (see e.g., Morrison, 2011), a distinction that we did not include in this study. Future research could combine our approach to voice as an observable affective event with the distinction between different forms of voice, such as promotive and prohibitive voice. These types of voice might differ in how they are perceived by others and could very well invoke different affective reactions, as promotive voice focuses on ideal future states while prohibitive voice focuses on possible future problems (Liang et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015).

Finally, we focused on voice in a team context here. Although many organizations nowadays have organized work and employees in teams, our findings might not similarly apply to employees who work in solitary jobs or in virtual groups that have less contact with fellow team members. In such work contexts, the social aspects of voice behavior may be less relevant or important. Research into the relevance of voice behavior across employees working in different types of work design settings is therefore needed.

Practical Implications

Our results also have implications for practice. For individual employees, our results suggest that taking the opportunity to voice benefits their positive affect. However, when voicing, individuals need to be aware that the target of voice may react less positively and targeting a coworker can be experienced as criticism, which leads to strong negative affective reactions from the target, especially in work contexts where voice is not the norm or not typically taken seriously. For individuals who are the target of voice behavior, it may be helpful to realize that it is common to experience some negative affect at the suggestion of change. Team members should also try to focus on the positive intent of voice, which makes it more likely that negative reactions will be reduced (Shapiro, 2002). Such a realization

may help the target to more objectively consider the content of the suggestions provided.

Another recommendation relates to the finding that high voice efficacy suppresses the negative feelings related to being targeted by voice. Organizations can take steps to increase voice efficacy before asking employees to voice ideas and concerns. Voice of employees can potentially benefit the organization or work unit, but it is less likely to do so when it elicits negative affect. Making sure that employees feel that they are heard and taken seriously when speaking up could make an important difference here.

In addition, our results suggest there is some truth to the often held view that everyone should get a chance to say what they think on a subject. We found that, when there are great differences in how much team members express their ideas, suggestions and concerns and a small number of people effectively dominates the conversation, team affect is negatively affected.

Appendix A: Extreme Scores on Voice Disparity

Table 1. *Voice values for the 5 out of 36 teams with extreme values on voice disparity.*

Nr.	Voice action in the team, per team member
1	16, 9, 6, 3, 1, 4, 2
2	19, 14, 13, 10, 7, 3, 3
3	25, 10
4	9, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0
5	12, 3, 2, 1

CHAPTER 4

Paved with Good Intentions: Affective Reactions to Coworker Promotive Voice Behavior



This chapter is based on a paper written by R.E. van Geffen, D.N. den Hartog, F.D. Belschak & C.T. Boon, presented at EAWOP, Dublin, May 2017

Abstract

Employees speaking up with ideas and suggestions for improvement of the work situation (voice behavior) can have an impact on coworkers as their suggestions for change may also imply change for others around them. In this study, we investigate the affective reactions of coworkers to employee voice in an experience sampling study. We take into account personality traits as cross-level moderators. The results show promotive voice are related to positive affective coworker reactions. These reactions are more strongly positive for coworkers scoring high on extraversion or neuroticism. In contrast, we find no clear effects for prohibitively formulated employee voice.

Nowadays, work is often designed as the responsibility of a group, as the increased complexity of work demands employees to work together more closely to answer to those demands (Mathieu et al., 2008; Parker, 2014; van Dijk et al., 2012). As a consequence, employees have become more interdependent. This increased interdependence also implies an increase in the amount of interaction between employees and possible conflict between individual preferences of coworkers (Ashkanasy et al., 2014). At the same time organizations increasingly want a proactive stance from their workers (Cascio & Aguinis, 2014; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007; Thomas et al., 2010). Employees are expected to anticipate and solve problems, speak up with concerns and ideas, and improve procedures. However, in interdependent settings, the proactive behaviors of employees that aim to challenge or change the status quo will often affect the work of their coworkers in the workgroup (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Mathieu et al., 2008; Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Parker, 2014).

One type of proactive behavior that requires the presence of others and may have a direct influence on coworkers, is voice behavior. Employee voice behavior is a conscious act of seeking interaction with others and speaking up with ideas, opinions, or suggestions, with the aim to have a constructive impact on others in the work environment (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Liang et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Morrison, 2011). Voice has the potential to improve the organization and its processes and is therefore regarded as important for organizational performance (e.g., Dundon, Wilkinson, Marchington, & Ackers, 2004; Lin & Johnson, 2015). For example, employee voice can provide input that can improve decision making of managers and teams, which can have positive performance effects (see Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Furthermore, voice can be conceptualized as a link between employee creativity and organizational innovation: voice can represent the expression of an employee's creative suggestions and these can turn into innovation if they are well received and implemented (e.g., Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004).

Despite the proposed benefits of employee voice, voicing employees are not always judged favorably by others (e.g. Belschak, Den Hartog, & van Geffen, 2013; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). For instance, leaders are not always positive about voice because voicing can be perceived as "rock[ing] the boat" (Belschak, Den Hartog, & Fay, 2010, p. 269) or challenging their authority (Bolino et al., 2010; Fast et al., 2014; Liang et al., 2012). The challenging and interactive nature of voice behavior does not only affect leaders but also coworkers (Bolino et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2012). Researchers focusing on work design emphasize the social embeddedness of work and argue that employees work together more closely than ever before (Grant & Parker, 2009; Parker, 2014).

As voice is constructively intended, coworkers may react positively to employee voice. For example, they may become enthusiastic about a voiced idea. However, coworkers could also be skeptical about voiced ideas: they may doubt the positive intentions of the voicer and the suggested changes. Also, even if perceived as constructively intended, proposed changes might upset coworkers and they may resist changes to deeply ingrained work habits and routines. Despite the importance of this social dimension of voice, we do not yet sufficiently understand the impact that employees' voice behavior has on coworkers and how these coworkers feel after being targeted by voice.

In this study, drawing on affective events theory, we investigate the affective reactions of coworkers who are targeted by fellow employees' voice behavior. Affective events theory describes how daily affect at work is influenced by events or stimuli from the work environment, including interactions with coworkers (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These affective reactions are a within-person phenomenon: they reflect an individual's reaction to specific events and may vary from event to event. Such a within-person perspective is important as research has shown that employee proactivity and (affective) experiences in organizations vary within-person over time (Fay & Sonnentag, 2012). Here, we argue that being the target of an employee's voice behavior forms an affective event and we

investigate the affective reactions of coworkers to being targeted by employee voice behavior by looking at daily affect in relation to perceived voice events.

In addition to within-person differences, there may be individual differences at the between-person level in the extent to which individuals react emotionally to being targeted by voice. Personality traits can affect the way daily events translate into affective reactions for individual employees (Brief, 1998; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). Employees with certain personality traits may respond more positively and more strongly to the positive intent behind voice behavior. In particular, neuroticism and extraversion represent personality traits that have been found to influence the experience of affective events (Brief & Weiss, 2002), and we therefore study whether these two traits act as between-person level moderators of the daily voice–affect relationship. Furthermore, voice behavior is a challenging behavior that could be experienced as dominant, to which others who are dominant themselves (extraverted employees) or not at all (neurotic employees) may respond differently (Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011)We argue that extraverted employees tend to respond more positively to voice behavior based on their preference for direct, oral communication. Also, we argue that neurotic employees will respond positively to being targeted by voice behavior because of their preference to receive guidance from others. As previous research has shown, leaders who score high on neuroticism respond positively to proactive followers (Grant et al., 2011) and we propose this may also be the case for coworkers.

This study aims to increase our understanding of the daily voice – affect relationship and answers the call for research into coworkers' reactions to voice behavior (see e.g., Burris, 2012; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison, 2011). Also, current knowledge on voice is predominantly based on between-person designs and theorizing. Here we add to the proactivity and voice literature by looking at within-person variation using an experience sampling design. We thereby investigate daily within-person effects of being targeted by voice behavior, thus providing insights in the day-to-day

effects of a specific form of proactive work behavior on individuals who are targeted by it. Finally, as noted we contribute to the field by studying others' reactions to proactive behavior. Here, we focus on coworkers' reactions, which are still under-researched and specifically explore the role of coworker personality which, to our knowledge, has not been investigated in this context before.

Affective Events Theory

Affective events theory describes how events from our work environment can elicit positive or negative affective responses that in turn affect work attitudes and behaviors (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective reactions to these events vary over time (Ashkanasy et al., 2014; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). Fisher (2002), for example, assessed how momentary positive and negative states affected employees, showing that the day to day variability within people predicts several work outcomes. Affective events and subsequent daily fluctuations of affect at work have been linked to (behavioral) outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behaviors, performance, and occupational injuries (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009).

Previous research on the antecedents of affective reactions at work shows that many different types of events can trigger affective reactions. Diefendorf, Richard, and Yang (2008) showed that of these, interpersonal events where most prevalent. For example, a study among call center employees showed that being able to participate at work as well as receiving supervisory support were associated with positive affect (Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006). Research on the relationship between proactive behavior at work and affect to date has mostly investigated an individual's proactivity as a consequence of their own affect (e.g., Fay & Sonnentag, 2012; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010) rather than examining how voicing forms an interpersonal event that can have affective consequences both for the voicer and the target of voice. As noted, due to its challenging and interactive nature, voice behavior is bound

to elicit a reaction from coworkers (Liang et al., 2012) suggesting that being targeted by voice could be seen as an affective event and is therefore likely related to (daily levels of and changes in) affect of the target (Van Geffen, Den Hartog, & Belschak, 2015).

Employee Voice as an Affective Event for Coworkers

As noted, voice behavior is inherently social: one cannot voice without there being someone else present who is confronted with what is voiced (e.g., Morrison, 2011). Furthermore, the target of voice behavior – that is, the person that is specifically being targeted by the voice attempt – is often directly affected by what is voiced, as voice is change oriented (Chamberlin, Newton, & Lepine, 2017). The employee who voices intends to change the status quo of work, either to move closer to a desired state (promotive voice, e.g., suggestions that could lead to heightened performance, more efficient work methods) or to prevent an undesired state (prohibitive voice, e.g., ideas preventing reduced performance or failure to perform) (LePine & Dyne, 1998).

Although being targeted by voice behavior can be conceptualized as an affective event (Van Geffen, Den Hartog & Belschak, 2015), it is not clear how this is perceived by targets. For example, helpful ideas or suggestions on how to improve work procedures may be well received and lead employees to feel supported, therefore enhancing positive affect. As voice behavior is intended to yield improvements to the work situation, one might thus expect positive affective reactions to voice from coworkers. Yet, targeted coworkers could also perceive voiced ideas, suggestions, and opinions as negative, intrusive, or unhelpful. The positive intent behind voice may not always be clear, and coworkers may not agree with what is voiced or feel that the proposed changes may increase workload or threaten work habits (Liang et al., 2012). Perceived pressure to change set work routines can threaten feelings of security, identity, and belonging, or reduce perceived autonomy, resulting in negative affective reactions (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). Thus, how voice is experienced by the targeted coworker may depend on the way the message is formulated (Liang et al.,

2012; Morrison, 2011), for example, whether the voice has a prohibitive or promotive focus (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2012).

Promotion-focused messages aim at realizing an ideal future state and development, while prohibitive messages focus on what 'ought' to be done in order to prevent damage and reduced performance (Higgins, 1998). It matters whether a message is formulated with a promotive or prohibitive focus, because it changes the way it is perceived and responded to (Chamberlin et al., 2017). The focus of promotive voice on a desired future state in the formulation of voice fits with the positive intent behind voice, and therefore is likely to yield positive reactions from those targeted by voice. When voice is more prohibitively formulated, the tone does not match the positive intent. As a result, prohibitively focused messages are more ambiguous (Liang et al., 2012), and might generate mixed responses from recipients based on their preferences for promotive or preventive content (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Chamberlin et al., 2017; Venus, Stam, & van Knippenberg, 2013).

Here, we focus on promotive voice, which due to its positive intent and congruent positive formulation is more likely to unambiguously form a positive affective event for the targeted coworker, at least in terms of perceived intention of the voicer. While what is voiced may still entail change for the targeted coworker, the positive, promotive focus and tone is theorized to bring about positive reactions (Liang et al., 2012). For prohibitive voice, due to its ambiguous nature, we do not have clear expectations about targeted coworkers' affective reactions and therefore do not formulate a hypothesis. Furthermore, a pilot vignette study into the reactions to promotive and prohibitive voice of a hypothetical coworker showed no affect-related effects for prohibitive voice (see Appendix A). Yet, as past research showed that promotive and prohibitive voice tend to be positively correlated and that often both relate to outcomes such as job satisfaction (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2016; Liang et al., 2012), we also do consider prohibitive voice in our empirical study (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016; Spector & Brannick, 2011).

We focus on coworkers daily reactions to voice, as a within-person focus on affect is suitable for but not often applied to research on proactive behavior in organizations (Fay & Sonnentag, 2012). A daily focus also seems appropriate, as affective reactions to this type of specific interaction may not always be strong or memorable enough to be measured on, for example, a weekly basis. As within-person affect fluctuates during the day, so do affect-related behaviors such as organizational citizenship behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors, and performance at work (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009). The affect symmetry hypothesis argues that positive events mainly increase positive affect (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & Chermont, 2003), with some evidence for an additional reduction of negative affect (Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013). Here we similarly expect this. As noted, the clear positive focus and the positive intentions behind promotive voice of the employee should be experienced positively by the targeted coworker. Being the target of positively intended and formulated voice on a certain day should therefore leave the targeted coworker feeling more positive affect and less negative affect that day. We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Daily promotive voice is positively related to daily positive affect of the targeted coworker.

Hypothesis 2: Daily promotive voice is negatively related to daily negative affect of the targeted coworker.

Extraversion and Neuroticism

Although most employees react affectively to events at work on a daily basis, there are individual dispositions that make certain employees more likely to experience positive or negative affect at work (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Here, we therefore take employee personality traits into account when assessing the affective reactions at the daily level (within-employees). While certain personality traits are likely to predict daily levels of affect, a growing body of evidence also suggests moderating effects of personality on the relationship

between daily affective events and daily affect (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015). Two traits that have been found to play an especially relevant role in the way affective reactions are evoked by events are neuroticism and extraversion (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015). Neurotic individuals, who tend to be more anxious, have been found to generally experience more negative affect (and less positive affect), while extraverted individuals, who are outgoing and enthusiastic, tend to generally experience more positive affect (and less negative affect) (Costa & McCrae, 1980). In addition, these dispositional factors are likely to increase the receptivity for negative and positive affective events respectively, thus acting as a moderator of the relationship between affective events and affective reactions to these events (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015).

Extraversion is a personality trait that is associated with being comfortable at the center of attention and with being assertive, talkative and status seeking, among other things (Ashton, Lee, & Paunonen, 2002; Wu & Li, 2016). Extraverted coworkers are likely to be open to voice, as they have a preference for social contact and open communication (Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003; Wu & Li, 2016). Extraverted coworkers are more sensitive to reward than to punishment, and positive events are considered to be more salient for extraverted employees than negative events (Costa & McCrae, 1980; Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003). Affective events theory describes how daily fluctuations of affect are contingent on extraversion, such that extraverted employees are more sensitive to the effects of positive events at work (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989). In line with this, extraverted coworkers are expected to capitalize more on the positive intent behind promotive voice. When extraverted targets experience promotive voice from a fellow employee on a certain day, they are likely to report more positive affect and less negative affect on that day than introverted targets. Therefore, we hypothesize the following cross-level interaction effects:

Hypothesis 3: Extraversion moderates the relation between employee promotive voice and positive affect of the coworker targeted by the voice behavior, such that highly extraverted coworkers experience more positive affect from voice than coworkers low on extraversion.

Hypothesis 4: Extraversion moderates the relation between employee promotive voice and negative affect of the coworker targeted by the voice behavior, such that highly extraverted coworkers experience less negative affect from voice than coworkers low on extraversion.

Neuroticism as a personality trait is negatively related to openness to experience, internal locus of control, and self-efficacy (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002; Wu & Li, 2016). Although neuroticism tends to be negatively related to openness to new things (and employee voice suggests a change to the status quo), the negative relationship of neuroticism with locus of control is much stronger (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). The relationship of neuroticism with locus of control (i.e., the tendency of neurotic individuals to believe that external forces have control over the outcomes of events) implies a tendency to look for guidance outside of oneself. Neurotic coworkers are likely to pay more attention to sources outside themselves, seek direction from those sources (Judge et al., 2002) and thus are likely respond positively to promotive voice from an employee. Promotive voice provides the targeted coworker with positively framed guidance from an external source on how to achieve a desired future state and thus can help address neurotic coworkers' lack of self-efficacy and need for direction from others. Therefore, targets of promotive voice who are high on neuroticism might feel more daily positive affect than targets low on neuroticism. Furthermore, as neurotic coworkers are more insecure about their own decisions and work, they are likely to perceive a suggestion to improve their work methods as justified. At the same time the risk of introducing changes at work is relatively low as these changes have been proposed and are supported by the voicing employee,

likely reducing negative affect such as enxiety and worry about changing something. Thus, neurotic coworkers are more likely to experience less daily negative affect after being the target of an employee's promotive voice. In sum, we offer the following cross-level interaction hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 5: Coworker neuroticism moderates the relation between employee promotive voice and positive affect of the coworker targeted by the voice behavior, such that highly neurotic coworkers experience more positive affect from voice than coworkers low on neuroticism.*
>
> *Hypothesis 6: Coworker neuroticism moderates the relation between employee promotive voice and negative affect of the coworker targeted by the voice behavior, such that highly neurotic coworkers experience less negative affect from voice than coworkers low on neuroticism.*

Method

Design and Sample

This study aimed to show daily fluctuations in coworker affect after being targeted by employee voice. To that effect, we had respondents participate in a study reporting their experiences of being targeted by an employee's voice attempts. Respondents were asked to participate for one workweek. After they signed up for the study, they received information of what would be expected from them: filling out a pre-test survey and filling out surveys in the morning and at lunchtime for a week. Surveys were administered and responses collected via email. Respondents received an initial survey a week before the start of the weekday surveys in which their personality traits and demographics were measured. During one workweek, respondents received an electronic survey every morning, measuring their levels of affect at that moment. They were subsequently sent another electronic survey at lunch time, asking about the extent to which they had

experienced voice behavior directed at them from the time of the morning survey until the time of the lunch survey. The lunchtime survey also asked respondents about their affect again, in order to assess a change in affect in the study. After participation, respondents were thanked and sent a report of the results of the study, if they had indicated in the initial survey that they would like to receive such a report.

In total, 210 respondents signed up for the study, 123 respondents filled out the initial survey and at least 2 full days (morning and lunchtime) where they experienced voice from a coworker of the daily surveys at the correct times. Survey submission times were registered. Although working times differed and not all respondents filled out the surveys exactly at the same moment, there were for example also respondents who filled out both surveys at night. Those respondents were deleted from the sample. The remaining responses reflected a response rate of 59%. On average respondents contributed to the study for 2.2 days resulting in 272 usable data points. The sample consisted of Dutch employees working at least three days a week. 34.1% of respondents held a university degree and 41.5% of respondents were female. Respondents were asked to indicate their age by selecting one of five age categories (20-30; 31-40; 41-50; 50-60; 60 and older). Most respondents (42%) indicated to fall in the age-group between 20-30 years, and the average tenure at their current job was 8.7 years.

Measures

Being targeted by voice from an employee. Being targeted by voice from an employee was measured in the lunchtime survey using two one-item measures, based on the definition of promotive and prohibitive voice in the literature (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Liang et al., 2012). Coworkers were first asked to indicate whether they had been targeted by voice behavior of another employee (yes/no). If they answered 'no' that day was not taken into account for that respondent. When they responded 'yes' they were asked to answer the two questions about being targeted that morning: "To what extent do you agree with the statement: a colleague made a suggestion to make a change that would improve existing work processes", and: "To what

extent do you agree with the statement: I was meant to make a change that would prevent damage to the organization". These questions measured promotive voice and prohibitive voice respectively. Respondents answered on a seven-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1: "Completely disagree", to: 7 "Completely agree". Prohibitive voice was used as a control variable (see control variables).

Positive and Negative Affect. To investigate the positive and negative states of the respondents, we used the PANAS, a 20-item measure developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). The respondents were asked to what extent they felt the 10 positive and 10 negative states with regard to the suggestions they had received ("To what extent do the words below relate to how you feel about the suggestions you received?"). An example of a negative state was "exhausted", and an example of a positive state was "enthusiastic". The respondents answered on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 "Not at all" to 7 "Completely". The two scales (positive affect, PA, and negative affect, NA, respectively) showed good internal consistency (Within-person α: .87 (PA); .90 (NA); Between-person α: .88 (PA); .90 (NA)).

Personality. The level of extraversion and neuroticism of the respondents was measured in the pre-test survey, using the extraversion and neuroticism subscales of the Mini-IPIP (Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006), a shortened version of the Five-Factor model personality tool developed by Goldberg (1999). In these scales, consisting of 5 items for extraversion and 5 items for neuroticism, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which statements were applicable to them on a seven point Likert-scale ranging from 1 "Completely disagree" to 7 "Completely agree". Example items were "I talk to a lot of different people at parties" (extraversion) and "I get upset easily" (neuroticism). The scales showed adequate reliability (Cronbach's α: .78 for extraversion and .78 for neuroticism).

Control variables. We controlled for daily levels of affect (positive and negative), by including respondents' scores on the morning measure of

positive and negative affect as control variables in the model. These were measured with the same instrument as our dependent variable, described above (Within-person: α: .90 (PA)/.89 (NA); Between-person α: .91 (PA)/ .89 (NA)). Furthermore, we controlled for prohibitive voice from employees. Finally, we controlled for the day of the week (1-5) at the within level, as individuals' experiences may be different at the start of the week as compared to the end of the week.

Analyses

We employed a regressor-model approach in which we modeled levels of coworker (target) affect as a function of voice from an employee while controlling for previous levels of affect. This approach was chosen because the aim of this study was to investigate the effect of employee voice on coworker affect at work. An alternative approach would be to look at the change in affect (a change score approach), which would answer the question whether within-person affect changes differently for people who experience coworker voice than for those who do not. We tested whether a change score approach would result in different results (thus implying a Lord's Paradox, Allison, 1990).Results using change scores were consistent with the results reported below.

The hypothesized model was analyzed with Mplus statistical software, using multilevel analysis with two levels structuring the data. Daily voice and daily affect were at the within-person level, representing the day-to-day within-person fluctuation of these variables. Our control variable prohibitive voice was centered at the person-mean to represent the variation in perceived employee prohibitive voice. The second – higher – level represents the between-person level and therefore the general tendencies of individuals to perceive voice and to react to voice in a certain way, as well as the influence of the personality traits neuroticism and extraversion on these reactions. Because our model includes a cross-level interaction, the measurements of affect were centered around their grand-means, using the affect levels as deviations from the general level of affect in the analyses. All other variables were also centered around their grand means.

We started by estimating the fixed effects model (Hypotheses 1 and 2). Then, we tested a random slopes model to investigate the extent to which the relationship of promotive voice and affect differ structurally from one respondent to the next. This was done to investigate whether it was possible to test Hypotheses 3 to 6. Finally, we used a cross-level interaction model to investigate whether the differences in effects of employee promotive voice on coworker affect for different respondents could be explained by their respective levels of neuroticism and extraversion (Hypotheses 3 through 6).

Results

Table 1 depicts the descriptive statistics of the variables in our analyses as well as the Pearson correlations among these variables, both at the person level. Furthermore, Table 1 presents the within-level Pearson correlations for the affect measures and the voice measures. We found that the morning measurement of negative and positive affect were similar in mean and standard deviation, and correlated with the lunch-time measurements of affect, as expected. Negative affect in the morning and at lunch were correlated more strongly than the two measurements of positive affect. This indicates that, regardless of what happened between the two measurements, respondents' levels of negative affect seemed less volatile than their levels of positive affect.

Table 2 shows the results of the multilevel analyses, depicted as recommended by Aguinis, Gottfredson, and Culpepper (2013). Table 2 shows that at the day-level, promotive voice from a coworker was positively related to positive affect, indicating that coworkers who reported that they had received promotive voice from one or more employees also reported more positive affect at lunchtime (B=0.12, $p<.01$), controlling for prohibitive voice, affect in the morning, and day of the study. Moreover, we see that reports of promotive voice were also negatively related to negative affect at lunchtime (B= -0.10, $p<.05$). These results of the fixed effects model support Hypotheses 1 and 2. We also noted that our control variables prohibitive

voice and day of the study did not have a significant effect on affect at the day level. Morning measurements of affect as control variables had significant effects, but they were lower than .30. Finally, the fixed effects model showed no effect of extraversion or neuroticism of the targeted coworker on affect at the person level, and stronger effects for our affect control measures.

Table 1. *Escriptive statistics*

		Mean	SD	Correlations							
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Promotive voice from a coworker	4.73	1.54		*.39***	*-.19**	-	-	*.58***	*.17**	*-.05*
2	Positive affect	4.92	0.69	.14		*-.36***	-	-	*.31***	*.30***	*-.15***
3	Negative Affect	1.83	0.80	.03	-.44**		-	-	*.02*	*-.19***	*.41***
4	Extraversion	4.46	1.17	.18*	.04	-.07		-	-	-	-
5	Neuroticism	2.77	1.09	-.00	.38	.49**	.02		-	-	-
6	Prohibitive voice from a coworker	3.98	1.81	.35**	.11	.09	.01	.01		*.03*	*.16*
7	Positive Affect control	5.06	0.75	.14	.44**	-.27**	.14	-.32**	.08		*-.22***
8	Negative Affect control	1.95	0.76	.15	-.25**	.68**	-.01	.51**	.17	-.30**	

Within level correlations in italics
* p<.05
** p<.01

Table 2. *Results of the Multilevel Analysis*

	Model									
Level and Variable	Null		Fixed Intercept and Fixed Slope		Random Intercept and Fixed Slope		Random Intercept and Random Slope		Cross-Level Interaction	
	PA	NA	PA	NA	PA	NA	PA	NA	PA	NA
Level 1										
Intercept (γ00)	-0.01	0.01	-0.14	-0.08	-0.12	-0.10	-0.11	-0.03	-0.12	-0.05
	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(.11)	(.10)	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.11)
Promotive Voice from a			.12**	-0.10*	0.11**	-0.10*	0.11**	-0.12*	0.12**	-
Coworker (γ10)			(0.04)	(0.04)	(.04)	(0.04)	(0.11)	(0.6)	(0.04)	0.14**
										(0.05)
Prohibitive voice from a			0.06*	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.03
coworker control (γ10)			(.04)	(0.04)	(.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)
Positive Affect control (γ10)			0.22** (.08)		0.24** (.08)		0.27** (0.08)		0.26** (0.08)	0.24* (0.11)
Negative Affect control				0.23**		0.24*		0.22*		
(γ10)				(0.10)		(0.10)		(0.11)		
Day of Study			0.05	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.02
			(0.3)	(0.04)	(.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)

this table continues

Level 2										
Extraversion (γ01)					-0.02	-0.20	-0.02	-0.03	-0.02	-0.02
					(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.4)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)
Neuroticism (γ01)					-0.12	0.12	-0.12	0.10	-0.11	0.11
					(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)
Positive Affect control (γ01)					0.48**		0.47**		0.48	
					(0.12)		(0.12)		(0.12)	
Negative Affect control (γ01)						0.66**		0.68**		0.68**
						(0.11)		(0.11)		(0.11)
Cross-Level Interaction										
Promotive voice * Extraversion (γ11)									0.05	-0.09*
									(0.03)	(0.04)
Promotive voice * Neuroticism (γ11)									0.01	-0.12*
									(0.03)	(0.05)
Variance Components										
Within-Person (L1) Variance (σ2)	.48	.70	.41	.61	.40	.59	.38	.49	.38	.50

this table continues

Intercept (L2) Variance (τ00)	.20	.21	.11	.01	.11	.01	.12	.02	.12	.01
Slope (L2) Variance (τ11)							0.01	0.06*	.01	.04
							(0.01)	(0.03)		
Intercept-slope (L2) Covariance (τ01)							-0.02	-0.02	-0.00	-0.00
							(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)
Additional Information										
RMSEA			.11		.06					
CFI			.84		.98					
SRMRw			.09		.04					
SRMRb			.03		.04					
R^2 °			.25	.35	.37	.20	.28	.46	.28	.47

* p<.05

**p<.01

° (Snijders & Bosker, 1999)

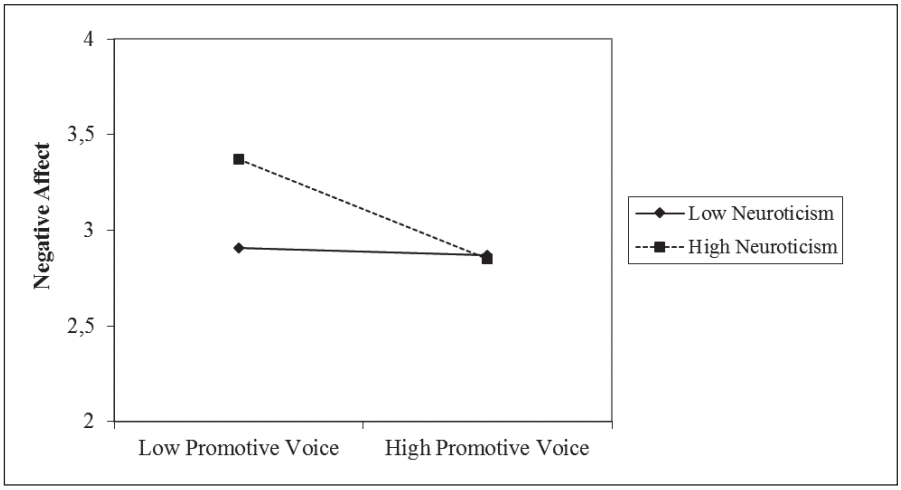
Table 3. *Slope Analysis for the Interaction Effects*

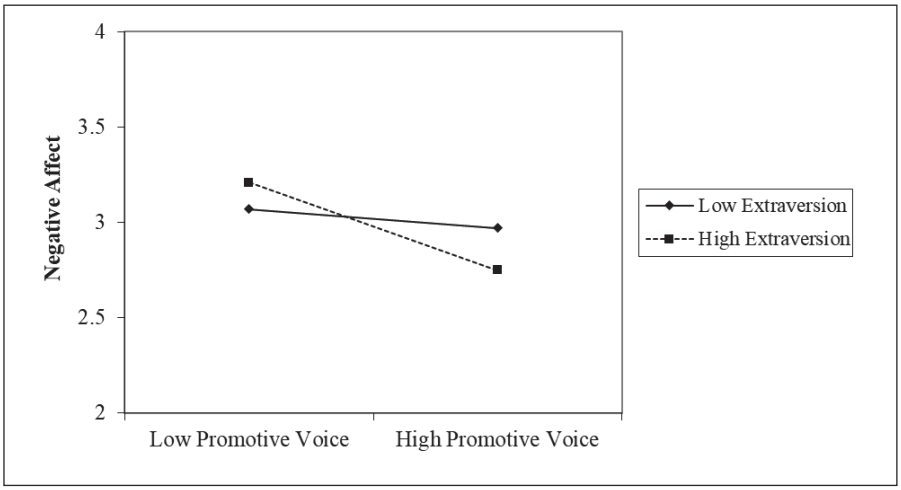
Moderator	Extraversion	Neuroticism
Effect at -2SD for the moderator	0.05 (0.09)	0.10 (0.10)
Effect at -1SD for the moderator	-0.04 (0.06)	-0.02 (0.07)
Effect at mean of the moderator	-0.14* (0.05)	-0.14* (0.05)
Effect at +1SD for the moderator	-0.23** (0.07)	-0.25** (0.07)
Effect at +2SD for the moderator	-0.32** (0.11)	-0.37** (0.11)

* p<.05

**p<.01

Figure 1a & 1b. Cross-level Interactions





Plotted with worksheet derived from: www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm

The random slopes model was estimated next, in order to investigate whether the relationship between promotive voice and affect at the day level explained further variance at the person-level. Our results show that this was the case for negative affect ($\tau 11=0.06$, $p<.05$;), but not for positive affect of the targeted coworker, as for the latter there was no variance of the slope at the person-level for neuroticism or extraversion to explain ($\tau 11=0.01$, N.S.). This leads to the rejection of Hypotheses 3 and 5. We continued our analyses of the cross-level interaction therefore only for negative affect, as only the variance of that random slope was significant.

Our analyses of the cross-level interaction model showed that both extraversion and neuroticism moderated the relationship between promotive voice and negative affect of the targeted coworker. Both interaction coefficients were negative (extraversion: B= -.09, $p<.05$; neuroticism B= -.12, $p<.05$). The moderating effects of the two personality traits are plotted in Figures 1a and 1b. These plots show that, as proposed in Hypotheses 4 and 6, high scores on neuroticism or extraversion strengthened the negative relationship between employee promotive voice and coworker negative affect. In short, coworkers that were more neurotic

(or more extraverted) seemed to experience less negative affect when they reported more promotive employee voice. Table 3 reports results of the slope tests for different levels of the moderators. For more extraverted coworkers, being targeted with *more* promotive voice was related to negative affect levels *below* those of less extraverted coworkers, but when *less* promotive voice was reported, there was no significant difference in affective reactions between more and less extraverted coworkers. For highly neurotic coworkers, differences were found when they received *less* promotive voice as they then reported *higher* levels of negative affect than less neurotic coworkers; *more* promotive voice did not come with a significant difference between more or less neurotic coworkers.

Discussion

In our study, we aimed to investigate how coworkers affectively responded to being the target of employee voice. We found support for our main expectation that voice attempts that are clearly positive in tone and well-intentioned, that is, promotive voice events, yield positive affective reactions for the target of this voice behavior. We found being targeted by promotive voice in the morning to be positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect at lunch time for the targeted coworker. Thus, at the day-level promotive voice behavior forms a positive affective event for the targeted coworker. This suggests that the positive intent behind promotive voice tends to be visible to and appreciated by the target of that voice behavior. Not only does the voicer aim to improve the work situation by proactively sharing ideas on how to improve work methods, this positive goal and tone seems to also be recognized by targets and leaves the targeted coworker feeling more positive afterwards.

As noted we focused on promotive voice and only took prohibitive voice attempts into account as a control variable, as affective reactions to such voice attempts were much less straightforward to hypothesize due to the ambiguous message that is inherent in prohibitive voice. Although

intended to avoid harm, the negative tone and preventive focus can distort the positive intention of the message as people are very sensitive to messages with a negative tone (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Our results indeed show no significant effect of prohibitive voice on either negative or positive affect, suggesting that the ambiguity inherent in such type of voice message may also translate into ambiguous affective reactions to prohibitive voice. It may be that the reactions to prohibitive messages are more dependent on the specific message or personal preferences. Furthermore, perceived pro-social, pro-organizational or pro-self intentions of the sender could create positive affective reactions in coworkers. More research is needed to further explore reactions to prohibitive voice more explicitly.

Our finding that coworkers with different personality traits experienced voice differently, highlights different functions that employee voice behavior can have for coworkers, at the person-level. For extraverted coworkers, voice behavior as an open and direct form of communication on how work is done in the organization seems to fit with their personal preferences, yielding the benefit of reduced negative affect when being targeted. This finding is in line with the similarity attraction hypothesis, which states that people respond positively when others show behaviors similar to their own behavioral tendencies and preferences (Singh & Teoh, 1999). The oral communication of ideas and suggestions is attractive to the extraverted target who has a preference for that type of direct communication and is likely to be more proactive him/herself (e.g., Thomas et al., 2010), and subsequently, he or she feels less negative affect.

This result is, however, not fully in line with previous findings (based on the dominance-complementarity theory) that extraverted leaders respond less favorably to voice behavior from their subordinates, due to a mismatch in dominance where voice as a dominant behavior clashes with the dominance component of extraversion (Grant et al., 2011). We did not focus specifically on leader-follower dyads though who differ in hierarchical role and status. Higher power distance between leaders and followers might lead to different reactions from extraverted leader targets that are more in line

with dominance complementarity theory (e.g., more extraverted and especially more dominant leaders might be more inclined to feel that a subordinate behaves inappropriately when targeting them with voice behavior). Here, we investigated the moderating effect of extraversion on the within-person relationship between employee voice and *coworkers'* affective reactions, and our findings suggest that this may reflect a different process. It might be the case that among coworkers ('speaking out'), similarity - attraction on the sociability component of extraversion plays a greater role, while between leaders and followers with the hierarchical difference ('speaking up') dominance - complementarity may play a stronger role for employee voice behavior. This is in line with literature arguing that different types of fit, supplementary vs. complementary fit, might apply at different levels in the organization (Ostroff & Judge, 2007). Future work might address this more specifically by using facet level trait measures.

Target neuroticism also played a role. Interestingly, we found the highest levels of negative affect for neurotic coworkers who experienced low levels of promotive voice. For neurotic individuals, receiving employee voice seemed to fulfill an important role by offering them much needed guidance that reduces their negative affect. It is interesting to note that, in our study, neurotic employees differed mostly in their reaction in the relative absence of voice. As neurotic employees are more critical of themselves and have a tendency to see causes outside themselves as more crucial (Judge & Bono, 2001), a lack of coworker voice perhaps leaves them unsure of how they should act. Positively framed promotive voice from coworkers seems to alleviate the negative affect they are prone to feel. This second role of promotive voice behavior, as a guiding mechanism for more neurotic individuals, can bring added benefits to organizations next to the positive outcomes of voice behavior itself.

Somewhat unexpectedly, our cross-level interaction hypotheses for positive affect did not receive support because we found no significant variance of positive affect at the person-level to be explained by voice. As has been noted in the affect literature, positive affect seems to be more

volatile, its occurrence lasting shorter periods of time and its consequences less long-lasting than those of negative affect (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003), which may explain the lack of variance. Indeed in this study we also found that morning and lunch levels of negative affect were more strongly correlated than those of positive affect.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

There are several limitations to our study and findings. First of all, we did not use an experimental design, so no claims can be made on the direction of causality within our model. Future research should employ experimental conditions that include situations in which employees are targeted by different kinds of voice behavior to see how promotive voice influences affect, and how the effect differs between different types or levels of voice behavior. Here, we focused mostly on the effects of promotive voice because we wanted to focus on what should be an unambiguously positive event, but future work could compare this to other types of voice that may spark different affective reactions. Also, we relied on self-report data. We were interested in targeted coworkers' reactions to voice behavior, but the 'actual' level of employee voice may differ from this perception. Future research could either include dyadic perceptions of coworker and employee voice, to investigate the differences in perception and the consequences for affect, or manipulate voice to keep objective levels constant.

Additionally, looking back at our results, it would be interesting to take a self-regulation perspective to further explore the reactions to voice. Previous research has shown that voicing yourself can be a mechanism to self-regulate affective states at work (Lin & Johnson, 2016, Wolsink, 2017). As more recent work suggests that voicing might indeed help voicers to self-regulate their affective states (Wolsink, 2017), (promotive) voice may yield positive consequences for both the voicing employee and targeted coworkers.

This study takes a first step in uncovering how engaging in promotive voice affects others in the work context. One next step to investigate is whether the experienced affect also affects subsequent target (proactive) behavior. For example, past research shows that positive affect relates to positive behavioral outcomes like pro-organizational behavior or individual performance (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Warr, Bindl, Parker, & Inceoglu, 2014), in line with this voice behavior from employees may also be met with other positive behaviors (such as attempting to reciprocate by also offering the voicer or others positive suggestions or help in return) and might hence inspire further positive behaviors aimed at improving the organization (such as speaking up with broader suggestions for organizational change, i.e., challenging OCB). As affect has been found to be an antecedent for proactive behavior in organizations (Bindl, Parker, Totterdell, & Hagger-Johnson, 2012; Parker et al., 2010), future research could hypothesize such reinforcing cycles of proactivity driven by affect resulting from others' proactivity.

As noted, our measurement of extraversion with the short IPIP scale did not have a strong representation of dominance as an extraversion facet as this measure draws more on the sociability element of extraversion. Future work could address this at the facet level of the trait by distinguishing dominance and sociability and examining how each of these relate to both voicing and reactions to others' voice. As mentioned, the dominance inherent in the role of leaders, would indicate further that our results may not directly generalize to the relationship between leader and follower. In short, more research into the role of dominance, either in personality or in status, in relation to voice is needed.

Finally, we did not assess the content or quality of what was voiced by the coworker. We did not ask whether the target was planning on following through on what was voiced, or if they perhaps were going to ignore what was suggested. Research has shown that the quality of what is voiced can differ, for example, in terms of usefulness (Wolsink, 2017). Future research should look into the connection between the specific content or

quality of what was voiced and affective reactions, as it seems likely that the positive effect of suggestions that are perceived to be good is stronger than that of suggestions that are perceived to be of little or no use. Also, having to listen to useless suggestions from others may create annoyance rather than enthusiasm. Furthermore, we did not explore the range of content of what was voiced to coworkers and whether this has an influence on our effects. For example, someone who receives voice that is always on the same topic, may react differently from someone receiving voice on a range of topics.

Practical Implications

Our findings have several practical implications. First, targets of voice react differently, depending on their personality traits. Employees should thus be careful to whom they present their ideas and suggestions. For one employee it may be satisfying a need for open communication, while for others it my offer much appreciated guidance. Especially in contemporary work settings in which employees are expected to be more self-reliant (Bolino et al., 2010), voice may act as a substitute for a more directive form of leadership. For organizations hoping to capitalize on the potential of employee voice, it is important to note that voice has affective consequences for voicers and targets and encouraging voice may have broader consequences than anticipated, depending on the personality traits of the receiver.

Second, the effects found here for promotive voice paint a predominantly positive picture, which is not the case for prohibitive voice. This suggests that promotively voiced initiatives are generally received well by their targets as they are clearly positively framed and focused on achieving a desired future state. This is similar to findings on feedback, as positively framed feedback yields more positive reactions than negatively framed feedback (London & Smither, 1995). Training employees to frame voice messages in a promotive manner may help enhance the positive impact they can have in organizations. Organizations and managers specifically should invest in making the importance of a positive formulation

in what is voiced clear to employees, as those messages will benefit others the most.

Conclusion

As employees have become more interdependent at work, the behavior of one employee increasingly forms an affective event for his or her coworker, and employee behaviors thus increasingly shape how coworkers feel at work. Here, we focused on promotive voice as such an affective event and found this indeed influences coworkers' affect in a positive way. Being targeted by employee voice is related to changes in daily levels of affect at work and, for negative affect, these relationships are stronger for more neurotic and more extraverted employees. The affective consequences for the targeted coworker of voice behavior thus depend on how one voices (promotive versus prohibitive voice) as well as who is listening (coworker personality).

Appendix A: Pilot Vignette Study

Design

To investigate the affective response to promotive voice behavior, we developed a vignette study. Vignette studies ask respondents to imagine themselves in a certain situation in order to assess their reactions to this situation. In this study, respondents were asked to imagine themselves in a work setting in which they had to work closely with an employee on a project that mattered greatly to them. After that, respondents read a text describing a meeting with said employee. Respondents were randomly assigned to read either about an employee who showed promotive voice, prohibitive voice, or no voice. After reading the vignette, respondents were asked how they felt about the coworker. We also measured affective tone before reading the vignette as a control measure and performed a manipulation check, to make sure respondents had understood the intended message of the voice behavior described in the scenario.

Sample

We invited 72 students of an Executive Program (part-time students who hold (full-time) jobs) in business administration to participate in the study and to invite a colleague outside of the study program to do the same. An anonymous link to an online survey was sent to the participants. This resulted in 119 employees who filled in the online survey. Of those 119 employees, 68 answered all questions and passed the manipulation check, resulting in a response rate of 57%. Respondents were all Dutch-speaking, as the survey was administered in Dutch.

Vignette

Three scenarios were developed to represent the three conditions: an employee that shows: a) promotive voice, b) prohibitive voice, or c) no voice. Respondents were randomly assigned to read one of the texts, and each respondent therefore only read one of the texts. The employee showing promotive voice was described as having a lot of suggestions on

how to actively change the work being done on the project with the objective to improve it. Based on the description of Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012) on promotive voice and its consequences, it was described how the suggestions clearly were meant well even though they would mean extra work for the respondent. The employee showing prohibitive voice was described as having suggestions how to change the work on the project with the objective to prevent the project from failing. Again in line with Liang, Farh, and Farh's (2012) description of prohibitive voice, it was described how the employee seemed to focus on possible flaws of the project and that the changes proposed would mean extra work for the respondent. Both these texts were written to clearly express the positive intent of the voicing employee to, one way or the other, improve the project.

Finally, the third text was written as a control condition in which the employee did not voice. The employee and the meeting were described as being very pleasant, but the employee did not have any suggestions on the work of the respondent. It was made clear that this was not a lack of interest or enthusiasm, and that they did discuss the project and the work well, but that the employee just seemed to have no suggestions for improvement in the way of working. All three texts were written to resemble one another in terms of length and wording except for the type of voice behavior. An English translation of the three scenarios is presented in Appendix B.

Manipulation check

After the vignette, respondents were asked whether the coworker they had just read about (they could not return to the page with the scenario) showed A) suggestions on how to improve the project through changing it, B) suggestions to change the project to prevent it from failing, or C) little or no suggestions to change the project. As mentioned above, a number of respondents failed the manipulation check and were excluded from the final dataset. Specifically, some respondents that did not answer correctly, marked the employee to show promotive voice when it had been prohibitive voice (15 respondents). Respondents also mistook promotive voice as prohibitive (7 respondents). Some respondents reported promotive (6

respondents) or prohibitive voice (13 respondents) while there was no voice in their condition. Hardly any respondents failed the manipulation check because of erroneously indicating a no voice condition, with only 3 respondents indicating no suggestions from the employee where the employee had actually shown voice behavior. This led to a final distribution of 28 employees in the promotive voice condition, 21 employees in the prohibitive voice condition, and 19 employees in the no-voice condition.

Measurements

Affective reaction to coworker voice. To investigate the positive and negative reactions of the respondents, we used the PANAS, a 20-item measure developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). The same measurement for affect was used before (see general affect control below) and after reading the vignette, but after reading the vignette the accompanying question was formulated as: "To what extent do the following words describe how the described interaction with the employee makes you feel?" Respondents indicated the extent to which the item was applicable to them on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from "Completely disagree" to "Completely agree". Both scales for negative and positive affect showed adequate reliability (Cronbach's α: .88 (negative affect); .86 (positive affect)).

Neuroticism. The dispositional trait neuroticism of the respondents was measured in the pre-test survey, as these types of traits are considered stable over the course of the data collection period (one week). The extraversion scale of the Mini-IPIP (Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006) was used, which is a shortened version of the Five-Factor model personality tool developed by Goldberg (1999). The scale, consisting of 5 items, contained statements for which the respondents indicated the extent to which that statement was applicable to them on a seven point Likert-scale ranging from "Completely disagree" to "Completely agree". An example item was "I get upset easily". The scale showed adequate reliability (Cronbach's α: .74).

Extraversion. The level of extraversion of the respondents was measured in the pre-test survey, using the extraversion scale of the Mini-IPIP (Donnellan et al., 2006), a shortened version of the Five-Factor model personality tool developed by Goldberg (1999). The scale consisted of 5 items, and respondents indicated the extent to which that statement was applicable to them on a seven point Likert-scale ranging from "Completely disagree" to "Completely agree". An example item was "I talk to a lot of different people at parties". The scale showed adequate reliability (Cronbach's α: .82).

General Affect Control. To investigate the positive and negative states of the participants before reading the scenario, we used the PANAS, a 20-item measure developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). The respondents were asked at the beginning of the survey about the extent to which they currently felt the 10 positive and 10 negative states. An example of a negative state was "exhausted", and an example of a positive state was "enthusiastic". Cronbach's alpha was adequate for both positive and negative affect (Cronbach's α: .72 (negative affect); .91 (positive affect).

Analyses

We used Mplus statistical software to regress positive and negative affective reactions on two dummy variables representing the promotive and prohibitive voice conditions. The no-voice condition was therefore the referent for the effects in the model. We chose to employ Mplus, as it allows for simultaneous estimation on both dependent variables.

Results

The results of the analyses are depicted in Table A1. The promotive voice and prohibitive voice conditions are coded in such a way that the regression coefficients represent the comparison of that condition with the condition in which the coworker did not voice. We subsequently analyzed three models. Starting with a model including only the control and our direct

effect of the voice conditions (Model 1), followed by an extended model that included the direct effects of extraversions and neuroticism (Model 2) and finally a model that included the interaction effects for the promotive condition and neuroticism/extraversion (Model 3).

The results of Model 1 show a significant positive effect of promotive voice from the employee on participants' positive affect (β=0.250, p<.05). This implies that compared to the condition with a non-voicing employee, the respondents in the condition with the promotive voice felt significantly more positive affect in relation to the described employee. Furthermore, we found a borderline significant negative effect of the promotive voice condition on negative affect of the respondent (β=-0.205, p=.10), indicating that promotive voice was also be negatively related to negative affect.

We found no significant effects of the prohibitive voice condition on either positive or negative affect (Positive affect: β=-0.150, N.S.; Negative affect: β=0.167, N.S.). This indicates that respondents do not respond more positively or negatively to the prohibitive voice than to the no-voice condition. As expected, the control levels of affect had a strong significant effect on the affective reaction to the described situation (Positive affect: β=0.503, p<.001; Negative affect: β=0.361, p<.001). Finally, there was a strong negative and significant correlation between the positive and negative affective reactions to the described situation (β=-0.491, p<.001).

In Model 2, with extraversion and neuroticism added as predictors of affective reactions to voice, we found a significant effect of extraversion on positive affect (β=0.224, p<.05). This indicates that extraverted respondents were more likely to report positive affect after reading the vignette. The positive effect of promotive voice on positive affect was still borderline significant (β=0.221, p=.05). For negative affect, we found a positive effect of neuroticism (β=0.306, p<.01) and prohibitive voice (β=0.271, p<.05). This indicates that neurotic respondents were more likely to report negative affect after reading the vignette and that the prohibitive condition left respondents feeling more negative affect when controlling for the effect of neuroticism.

In our final model, Model 3, we see a significant interaction effect for the promotive voice condition and extraversion for negative affect (β=-0.871, $p<.05$). The plot of this interaction (Figure A 1 effect shows that for highly extraverted respondents, promotive voice is related to lower scores of negative affect after reading the vignette. For respondents low on extraversion, there is no discernable effect of promotive voice on negative affect. For positive affect, there are no significant interaction effects.

Table A1. *Results of the analysis*

	Model 1						Model 2						Model 3					
	Positive Affect			Negative Affect			Positive Affect			Negative Affect			Positive Affect			Negative Affect		
	β	S.E.	p	β	S.E.	p	β	S.E.	p	β	S.E.	p	β	S.E.	p	β	S.E.	p
Promotive Voice[a]	.250**	.110	.023	-.205†	.125	.102	.211†	.109	.053	-.135	.125	.281	.006	.431	.988	.624	.492	.204
Prohibitive Voice[b]	-.150	.110	.170	.167	.125	.183	-.172	.111	.121	.271*	.127	.033	-.146	.114	.169	.275*	.128	.032
Extraversion							.224*	.089	.012	.008	.102	.939	.130	.126	.305	.218	.143	.127
Neuroticism							-.057	.094	.544	.306**	.112	.006	.001	.124	.997	.290*	.142	.041
Promotive* *Extraversion													.380	.379	.316	-.871*	.429	.042
Promotive* *Neuroticism													-.157	.236	.504	.057	.267	.830
Positive Affect control	.503***	.075	.000				.465***	.079	.000				.468***	.080	.000			
Negative Affect control				.361***	.090	.000				.242*	.097	.013				.212*	.097	.028

Standardized coefficients.

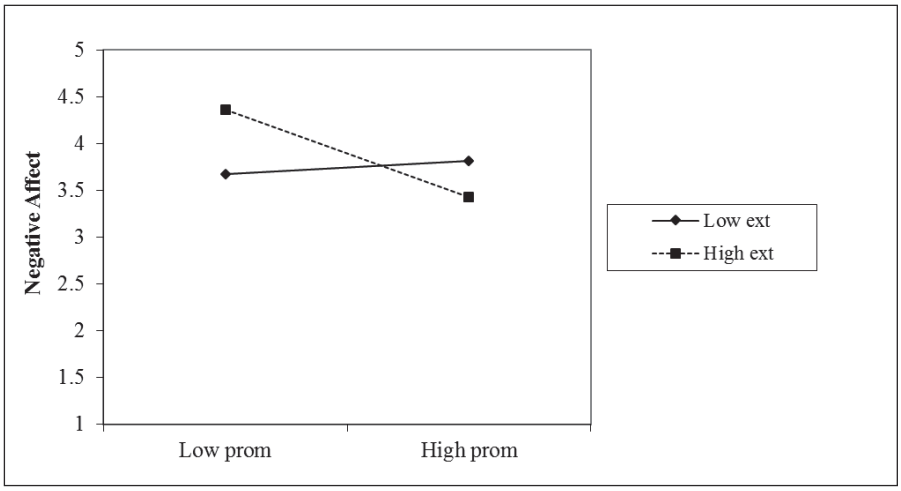
[a]Coded with the no-voice condition as referent. 29 out of 68 total respondents in this category.

[b]Coded with the no-voice condition as referent. 21 respondents in this category.

***, **, *:P<.001, .01, .05 respectively

†Borderline significance.

Figure A1: Plot of the interaction effect



Plotted with worksheet derived from: www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm

Conclusion

Our results show support for the idea that promotive voice from a coworker leads to positive affective reactions of the voice target, as respondents who read about working with an employee showing promotive voice showed more positive and less negative affect than respondents who read about a coworker who did not voice. This supports that, although promotive voice also entails a change to the status quo and can entail an increase in workload for the target (Liang, Farh & Farh, 2012), targeted individuals seem to respond positively in terms of affect in this scenario study. When controlling for neuroticism, which indicates a general tendency to experience negative affect, we find that prohibitive voice has a positive effect on negative affect in the scenario study. This indicates that in this context the more negative framing of prohibitive voice might result in more negative affective experiences of the target. Finally, we found an interaction effect for extraversion and promotive voice on positive affect. This might be explained by extraverted employees' preference for direct communication (Ashton et al., 2002), of which promotive voice is a positively framed example.

Appendix B: Vignette texts used for vignette study

A note on translation: In the Dutch texts used for the study, the wording of the three conditions is highly similar, the texts are of near equal length (75, 92, 80 words) and sentence structure was left almost identical. Furthermore, negatives (e.g. 'is not') were avoided. This may not come across in the English translation below (especially the no-voice condition).

Introduction (all respondents)

Please imagine the following work situation:

You are working together with a colleague on a project. You colleague has about the same tasks and responsibilities as you do. The work relationship is good, because you both communicate openly with one another. Your colleague is not likely to keep their opinions to themselves. The deadline for your project is approaching and you have scheduled a meeting to discuss the final tasks and evaluate past work. Below, you will read how that meeting went. Your meetings with this colleague always more or less go like this.

Promotive voice condition

When discussing your tasks, your colleague has many useful suggestions for you. Your colleague has many new ideas to reach your goals. Looking back at the tasks that are finished, your colleague sees areas for improvement. The suggestions of your colleague often mean more work of which the value is not absolutely clear in the short term. Your colleagues stresses the importance of your work together for the organization as a whole.

Prohibitive voice condition

When discussing your tasks, your colleague has many useful suggestions for you. Your colleague has many suggestions aimed at preventing the failure of your project. Sometimes it concerns possible troubles that lie ahead,

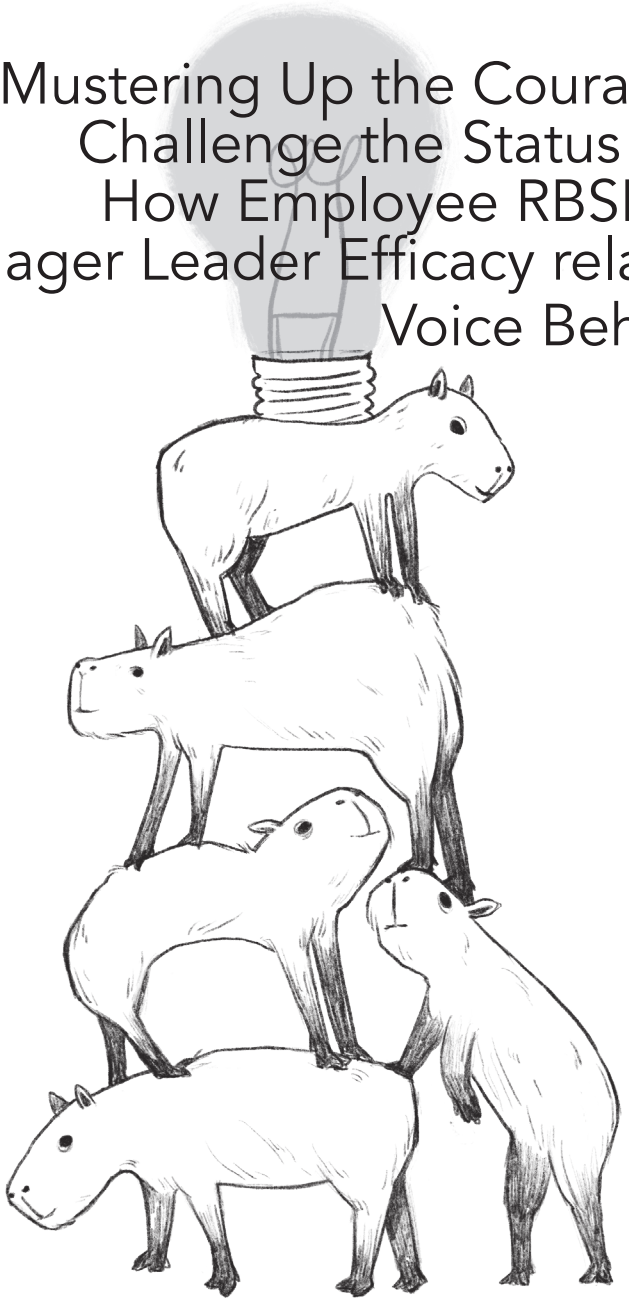
sometimes it concerns issues that present an acute risk to your project's success. Your colleague mentions many harmful factors and who is responsible to act on them. Your colleague often stresses how a failure of your project would negatively impact the organization.

No voice control condition

When discussing your tasks, your colleague has few useful suggestions for you. Your colleague does not have a lot of input to share on your tasks. You discuss what has been done and how you will continue, but your colleague does not add anything new. For whatever reason, your colleague does not have any ideas regarding your tasks. This is not a lack of interest: your colleague asks you extensively about your tasks and tells you about their completed work.

CHAPTER 5

Mustering Up the Courage to Challenge the Status Quo: How Employee RBSE and Manager Leader Efficacy relate to Voice Behavior



This chapter is based on a paper written by R.E. van Geffen, D.N. den Hartog & F.D. Belschak, presented at EAWOP, Dublin, May 2017

Abstract

Both manager and employee characteristics influence employees' motivation to show proactive behavior at work. Here, we address how both managers' leader efficacy and employees' role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) jointly predict whether employees speak up with proactive ideas and suggestions to improve the work situation (employee voice behavior). In order to examine the relationship between different configurations of manager leader efficacy and employee RBSE with employee voice behavior, we apply response surface analysis. Our results show that a combination of both medium to high leader efficacy and medium to high RBSE, compared to other combinations, comes with highest employee voice. We also find that differences in these scores predict lower levels of voice behavior. This study suggests that both employee and manager characteristics interactively shape employee proactivity.

It takes efficacy to speak up and challenge the status quo. Voice behavior refers to doing just that: speaking up to challenge the status quo at work with the aim of improving the work situation (Burris, 2012; Morrison, 2011). Voice behavior is desirable for organizations as it tends to promote learning and performance throughout the organization (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014; Parker & Collins, 2010). However, it is also risky for employees to voice their ideas, concerns, and suggestions for change because others might not agree or welcome this (Burris, 2012; Morrison, 2011). For example, when employees voice their ideas for improvement, they may encounter resistance to the proposed changes from those around them who fear being affected by these changes (Glaser, Stam, & Takeuchi, 2016; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009).

Voice is a form of proactive work behavior in that it is self-starting, goal driven, and future focused (see Grant & Ashford, 2008; Bindl & Parker, 2010). Voice behavior is also inherently social in the sense that one needs others to voice ideas, suggestions or concerns to. The expected responses and reactions of others affect the likelihood that employees engage in voice behaviors. Managers in particular are likely to play an important role in whether employees voice as they are typically highly influential in employees' work contexts (Glaser et al., 2016; Grant & Ashford, 2008a; Grant & Rothbard, 2013; Urbach & Fay, 2018). If employee believe that their voice is likely to be met with a negative reaction on the part of their manager, employees might be more inclined not to voice and rather stay silent (e.g., Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Urbach & Fay, 2018). As such, whether employees in organizations engage in voice behavior likely depends on their own willingness and ability to voice as well as on whether their manager is open to voice and typically reacts positively to it.

Several studies have shown that a person's willingness to engage in a certain behavior is positively linked to their self-efficacy, that is, their beliefs and expectations of being able to perform this behavior successfully (e.g., Bandura, 1986). Research in the field of proactive behavior shows that role-breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) (defined as a person's self-efficacy of being able

to successfully engage in different types of proactive behaviors, Parker, 1998) is positively linked to showing different types of proactive behaviors, such as voice (see for example Grant & Ashford, 2008). When employees are efficacious in their ability to be proactive, they expect a good chance of success when showing a proactive behavior such as voice (Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker et al., 2006). The expectation that they are likely to do well and will be successful when voicing helps them overcome the fear of failure in the potentially risky situation of speaking up (e.g., Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker, 2000; Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009).

Employees having efficacy in their proactive capabilities is in itself not yet sufficient to make voice behavior happen. They also need to have positive expectations that such behavior will not have negative consequences, in particular they need to be convinced that their managers are open to their proactive ideas and willing to support them (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Fast et al., 2014; Urbach & Fay, 2018). Managers tend to control the resources that allow employees to follow-up on their voiced ideas and are therefore important gatekeepers (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Urbach & Fay, 2018). Even though research shows that employee voice generally benefits the organization, some managers do not encourage voice (Fast et al., 2014; Milliken et al., 2003). Managers can feel threatened in their role as leader when confronted with changes or ideas proposed by employees (Fast et al., 2014; Waldron et al., 1993).

Whether managers tend to respond negatively to voice behavior, is at least to some extent dependent on the managers' own characteristics (Urbach & Fay, 2018). Experiencing voice as threatening is especially likely for managers who are not efficacious in their role as leader (Fast et al., 2014). Leader efficacy is defined as "a specific form of efficacy associated with the level of efficacy in the knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with leading others" (Hannah et al., 2008, p. 696), and has been found to predict employee voice. For example, Fast and colleagues (2014) show that leader efficacy is negatively related to managers' voice aversion. Managers low on leader efficacy were found to discourage voice behavior from their

employees which reduced levels of employee voice as employees estimate their chances of getting support to be low (Fast et al., 2014). Knowing from interacting with one's manager that she or he does not encourage voice and is likely to react negatively due to her/his voice aversion, results in employees not speaking up with ideas that could potentially benefit the organization.

With this study, we look into the interactive effects of employees' RBSE and managers' leader efficacy and the relationship with employee voice behavior. We propose that when levels of managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE both reach similarly high levels, employee voice is most likely to occur. For both leader efficacy and employee RBSE direct effects on voice have been established (Fast et al., 2014; Parker, 2000; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010) and their combination where both employees feel efficacious to behave proactively and managers feel efficacious in their leadership role might create an especially strongly favorable situation for voice occurrence. Vice versa, a combination of low manager's leader efficacy and low employee RBSE suggests a situation in which less voice will occur. In this situation, the employee lacks the efficacy to speak up and the manager lacks the efficacy to encourage the employee to do so.

However, we also aim to shed light on what happens to employee voice behavior when the manager's level of leader efficacy and the employee's RBSE level differ. Response surface analysis allows us to investigate what happens when, for example, a manager with high levels of leader efficacy is paired with an employee with medium or low levels of RBSE and predict how much voice is likely to occur in that situation. We propose that when levels of leader efficacy of the manager and RBSE of the employee differ, this reduces the likelihood of employee voice. We also propose that it matters which is lower: the employee's RBSE or the manager's leader efficacy. In both cases there is a discrepancy between leader efficacy and employee RBSE. However, in case of voice behavior the employee needs to take the risk of challenging the status quo. The employee being efficacious in their ability to do so (having RBSE) when the manager is not efficacious in their leadership role may imply that there is a higher efficacy threshold to

speak up. Highly efficacious employees may still feel able to voice if they are motivated to do so, even if their manager might be less receptive due to low efficacy in the leadership role. Having a more efficacious manager who is likely to be more receptive to voice, is less likely to make a difference when the employee does not feel sufficiently capable of voicing due to low RBSE, regardless of the manager's level of leader efficacy.

In sum, we aim to add to the literature by better understanding the interactive effects of leader efficacy and employee RBSE in relation to voice, and we employ response surface analysis to do so (e.g., Edwards, 2002; Shanock et al., 2010). Response surface analysis allows for a nuanced understanding of the relationship between combinations of leader efficacy, RBSE and employee voice, and it helps address the degree and direction of the effect for different combinations of manager's leader efficacy and employee's RBSE (Shanock et al., 2010). As a consequence, this technique will show a more detailed picture than regular moderated regression analysis, as it allows for non-linear effects and shows the predicted levels of voice behavior at any combination of scores, rather than the relationship at certain levels of the variables (Edwards, 2002).

RBSE and Leader Efficacy: 'can do' & 'reason to' Motivation for Voice Behavior

Voice behavior is of relevance to organizations, as employees speaking up about ideas to improve the work situation or to prevent problems allow organizations to adapt to changing environments (Morrison, 2011). As noted, previous research has shown that the leader efficacy of the manager and the RBSE of the employee both play a role in stimulating voice behavior in organizations. For employees, RBSE has been identified as an antecedent for proactive behavior at work (see Grant & Ashford, 2008). The challenging nature of proactive (voice) behavior at work requires employees to be efficacious in their ability to go beyond the task at hand. In addition, for managers, leader efficacy determines how easily managers feel

threatened by employee initiative and voice, and hence how open they are to such behavior, which in turn affects the likelihood of employees showing voice behavior (Fast et al., 2014).

Employee behaviors are increasingly argued to occur as a co-creation in social interaction with their managers, rather than only as a reaction to directions from the manager (see Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014), thus characteristics of both parties will affect and shape employee behavior. Here, in order to gain a better understanding of how proactive employee behavior occurs specifically, we take into account the manager's leader efficacy and employee's RBSE. Going beyond the direct effects of manager's leader efficacy and employee's RBSE, we investigate how different constellations of managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE are related to employee voice behavior.

As the theoretical base for our model, we outline two motivational drivers for voice behavior of employees, stemming from employees' RBSE as well as their manager's leader efficacy at work. We build on the work by Parker, Bindl and Strauss (2010) on proactive motivation to explain how leader efficacy and RBSE reflect different motivational processes for voice behavior. Parker, Bindl and Strauss identify a 'can do', 'reason to' and 'energized to' motivation for proactivity, which they explain as (Parker et al., 2010, p. 827):

> *"Can do motivation arises from perceptions of self-efficacy, control, and (low) cost. Reason to motivation relates to why someone is proactive, including reasons flowing from intrinsic, integrated, and identified motivation. Energized to motivation refers to activated positive affective states that prompt proactive goal processes."*

RBSE and leader efficacy relate to the 'can do' and the 'reason to' motivation for voice behavior. 'Energized to' motivation stems from affective or emotional experiences in the work place, that differ from situation to situation and lead employees to take on proactive work behaviors. For example, experiencing negative emotional states may lead employees to be

proactive in order to change the situation (Wolsink, 2017). Here, we do not discuss the 'energized to' motivation, as we do not focus on the short-term and highly fluctuating nature of affective states, but are interested in more general effects of leader efficacy and RBSE in relation to employee voice.

RBSE has been theorized to reflect a 'can do' motivational state related to proactive behavior (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). This 'can do' motivational state relates to the assessment of the employee of whether they are able to be proactive and their assessment of whether they are likely to be successful when they are proactive (Parker et al., 2010). Empirical research has found RBSE to be one of the key antecedents of voice behavior (e.g. Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker, 2000), as employees with high RBSE expect to be successful ('can do') when they are proactive (Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker et al., 2006). Employees high on RBSE believe that they will be successful when speaking up (not necessarily their actual success in doing so) (Ohly & Fritz, 2007), reducing their estimated chances of negative outcomes and increasing their motivation to engage in voice.

Day and Dragoni (2015) identified leader efficacy as a self-view that plays an important role in the development of managers and their performance. As managers are secure in leading others, they create an environment open to experimentation and learning (Hannah et al., 2008; Hannah & Lester, 2009). Self-rated leader efficacy has for example been shown to be a determinant of other-assessed leadership competence (Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000). More importantly, leader efficacy was found to be positively related to employee voice behavior (Fast et al., 2014). In their attempt to uncover why certain managers do not encourage voice and even show voice aversion, Fast and colleagues (2014) found that managers low on leader efficacy experienced ego-threat from follower voice behavior and were more likely to respond with deprecation to voice behavior. These managers were averse to suggestions from subordinate employees, with employee voice levels subsequently diminishing. In contrast, managers who feel efficacious in their role as leader, are more likely

to be open for employee voice and thus stimulate voice behavior from their employees (Fast et al., 2014).

We argue here that leader efficacy can relate to 'can do' motivation as manager's lack of openness might signal the inability to be effective through voice, yet high leader efficacy can also provide the employee with the 'reason to' motivation to be proactive. Managers high on leader efficacy solicit more voice behavior, as they signal that employee voice behavior is not only welcome but also expected and appreciated (Fast et al., 2014). Through signaling that voice behavior is expected (Fast et al., 2014), efficacious managers provide employees with 'identified regulation': a motivation for behavior based on the conscious evaluation that the behavior is accepted and personally important (Parker et al., 2010). When voice behavior is likely to be rewarded, it becomes a way for the employee to reach personal goals as personal goals are likely to depend on positive evaluations by the manager. This identified regulation to be proactive is an extrinsic form of motivation, based on the experienced importance of voice behavior as signaled by the manager, and is part of the 'reason to' motivation for voice behavior (Parker et al., 2010).

Hannah and colleagues (2008) note that leader efficacy, through the development of an efficacious climate or culture in which both employee and manager have agency to do their job well, is likely to be a reinforcing factor for employee efficacy. Managers with high leader efficacy are likely to encourage employees showing their efficacy by taking initiative, enabling employees to build their efficacy further. Hannah and colleagues (2008) take a broader definition of employee efficacy than RBSE, so we aim to extend their findings by looking at the effects of leader efficacy combined with employee RBSE. We do so by looking at the effects of managers' leader efficacy levels and employees' RBSE levels together on levels of voice behavior. By hypothesizing effects of combinations of the two scores of efficacy (manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE at high and low levels of these measures) and how disparity between employee RBSE and manager leader efficacy relates to employee voice behavior, we address the

degree and direction of the effect of a efficacy discrepancy between manager and employee (cf. Shanock et al., 2010).

Leader Efficacy, RBSE & Voice

As expectancy theory argues (Eerde & Thierry, 1996; Vroom, 1964, 1994), employees need both self-efficacy and a positive expectation that their behavior will lead to consequences in order to be motivated to take action. Applying this idea to employee voice, employees thus need both high expectations regarding their ability to successfully perform voice (i.e., RBSE) and high expectations regarding the outcome of their voice behavior in terms of their manager being open to and accepting of their suggestions and likely to reward rather than punish employees for voicing in order to be motivated to speak up with their ideas. As Fast et al. (2014) show, leader efficacy predisposes managers to display openness to voice which to employees is a signal that their voice behavior will have positive consequences. In line with this reasoning, we hence expect that a combination of both high employee RBSE and high manager leader efficacy comes with highest levels of employee voice behavior. RBSE and leader efficacy relate to positive capability expectations and positive outcome expectations and the idea that individuals need both to be motivated to show certain behavior also resonates with more general psychological motivation theories such as expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964, 1994).

This motivational approach also implies that when both manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE scores are low, this should lead to the lowest level of predicted voice behavior. Although this seems contradictory to the idea of similar combined scores on manager leader efficacy and employee RBSE as described above it is not, as the response surface argumentation describes that the effects of congruent scores provide the strongest situations meaning that low scores on both leader efficacy and RBSE provides a strong (but negative) situation (Shanock et al., 2010). The relationship between congruent scores and voice behavior would then still be positive, but with the specification that this applies specifically to average and high levels of managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE.

We therefore propose that a combination of (sufficiently) high levels of both manager leader efficacy and employee RBSE is associated with higher levels of voice behavior and that employee voice will be highest when both managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE are high. This leads to the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 1: Similar levels of manager leader efficacy and employee RBSE at moderate to high levels of employee RBSE and manager leader efficacy are positively related to employee voice behavior.*

Response surface analysis provides us with the opportunity to also test how employee voice is affected when managers' leader efficacy scores and employee RBSE scores are dissimilar and what happens when leader efficacy is high and RBSE is low or vice versa. Thus, we address the two different situations where levels of managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE differ in more strength (manager efficacy low, employee RBSE high and vice versa). Initial theorizing on voice considered voice as a response to an undesirable situation where loyalty was no longer an option, but exit not yet warranted (Hirschman, 1970). Although we have argued here that low levels of leader efficacy provide a less conducive environment for voice behavior than high levels (Fast et al., 2014; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), if a self-efficacious employee has an idea to improve the work situation, a less than efficacious and thus voice aversive manager may provide a higher threshold rather than an absolute barrier to voice. For example, the need to be very sure of the quality of what is voiced may increase in a hostile environment (Detert & Edmondson, 2011), but employees (very) high on RBSE may feel that they are competent enough to still voice and try to have an effect and they may still speak up about something they feel they are right about.

When the manager reports a high level of leader efficacy, this provides the employee with a relatively safe environment to voice in (Fast et al., 2014). However, if the employee him- or herself lacks the internal conviction they can make a valuable contribution to the work situation by

being proactive – in other words: he or she has low RBSE – unlike the previously described situation, this may provide a barrier rather than an increased threshold. For example, if an employee is convinced of her/his lack of skill (showing extremely low levels of RBSE), signaling from the manager might not be enough to mitigate the felt inability to speaking up. On the contrary, a manager who is open to and listens to voice behavior might even notice more easily if an employee's suggestions are not well developed and correct. Furthermore, when an efficacious manager projects a clear vision for the work that needs to be done, an employee who is unsure of her/his contributions may not feel the need or drive to speak up. RBSE has been found to be more strongly related to proactive behavior than assessments of the work situation (Ohly & Fritz, 2007). Therefore, we expect that low RBSE of the employee in combination with high levels of leader efficacy of the manager is related to lower levels of voice than low levels of leader efficacy combined with high levels of RBSE. This leads to our final hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 2: Voice is higher when low levels of manager leader efficacy are combined with high levels of employee RBSE than the other way around.*

Method

Sample and Procedure

Students of a Dutch university participating in a quantitative research project for their Master's thesis in Business Administration recruited employees and managers to participate in an online survey. The sample consisted of Dutch employees and managers who both worked at least 20 hours a week. For some managers, more than one employee participated in the study, which resulted in a multilevel structure in the dataset as employees working with the same manager experienced similar working conditions. The students collected e-mail addresses and indicated to participants that they would all receive a digital invitation to a survey at a specific date. The students were asked to collect corporate e-mail addresses, rather than

private e-mail addresses, which were checked for irregularities before the invitations were sent out. Participants were all e-mailed an invitation at the same time and with the same text, indicating that they were participating in an academic study and that their participation was completely voluntary and confidential. Finally, the respondents were informed that a gift certificate of 50 euro would be raffled off among respondents that completed the survey. The online survey was available to respondents for one week, after which the link to the survey in the invitation was deactivated. A month later, respondents received a report with the main objectives and conclusion of the student project, if they had indicated they wished to receive one. Finally, the winner of the gift certificate was randomly selected and notified by e-mail.

A total of 82 managers and 302 employees were invited to fill out the survey, of which 46 managers and 138 employees completed the survey, leading to response rates of 56% for managers and 46% for employees, respectively. This resulted in a final sample of 138 matches between employees and their manager. Although the survey did poll for age and gender, the response to these questions was not forced and some respondents did not disclose their gender and/or age. Of the 46 managers, 6 identified as female and 14 identified as male while 26 did not disclose their demographics. The average age of the managers was 40 years (standard deviation of 9.6 years), with the youngest 24 and the oldest 61. Of the participating employees, 28 identified as female, 18 identified as male and 92 did not disclose their demographics in the survey. The employees had an average age of 38 years (standard deviation of 11.2 years) with the youngest being 21 and the oldest 61.

Measurements

Role breadth self-efficacy. RBSE was measured as an employee self-rating using the scale developed by Parker (1998), consisting of 7 items. The employee-respondents were asked to indicate how efficacious they would feel in seven work related situations. The 5-point answer categories ranged from "not at all" to "completely". An example item was "How efficacious

would you be if you had to present information to a group of peers?" The scale showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha: .83). The variable RBSE was computed as mean of these seven items, and z-standardized to remove dependency to a measurement scale for this variable.

Leader efficacy. Leader efficacy was rated by the managers and measured using the scale developed by Quigley (2013), consisting of five items. The items reflect different aspects of being efficacious in the leadership role, an example item was: "I have confidence in my ability to steer this team in the right direction". The managers responded on a seven-point Likert scale to indicate the extent to which they felt the statement applied to them. The answer categories ranged from "completely disagree" to "completely agree". The scale showed acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha: .71, n:46). The variable leader efficacy was computed as mean of these five items, and z-standardized to remove dependency to a measurement scale.

Voice behavior. Voice behavior was rated by employees and measured with a scale based on the measurement developed by LePine and Van Dyne (1998). The scale consisted of five items, which were formulated as statements on the extent to which the employee is generally able to speak up. An example item was: "I speak up and encourage others to get involved in issues that affect the group". Employees assessed their own voice behavior as the extent to which they feel they were able to voice. The scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha: .79). The variable was computed as mean of these five items, and z-standardized to remove dependency to a measurement scale.

Control variable. Because we were specifically interested in the effects of managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE and the combination of different scores on these variables rather than their general relationship quality, we controlled for leader member exchange (LMX). LMX refers to the extent to which employee and manager develop and maintain a mature relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The quality of that relationship may impact the extent to which employees feel they can voice,

as a good relationship makes positive reactions to voice more likely, providing an environment conducive to voice (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009). Furthermore, having a good relationship with a follower is very likely to play a role in the construction of the identity and leader self-efficacy of the manager (Hannah et al., 2008; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). Because we want to exclude this relationship aspect from the effects under investigation, we control for employee-reported LMX. The LMX measure was based on the measure by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and consisted of six items. Employees indicated to what extent the statement reflected their relationship with their manager on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from "completely disagree" to "completely agree". An example item was: " The working relationship with my manager is effective". The scale showed good internal consistency with a Cronbach's Alpha of .90. The variable was calculated as the mean of the items and subsequently z-standardized.

Analysis

Before we analyzed the data in order to test our hypotheses, we investigated the factor model of our proposed variables. Even though this is a multisource study, we wanted to make sure that the two variables measured at the employee level were statistically discriminant and that there was no serious problem with common source bias in our data. To test the factor structure in our date, we performed confirmatory factor analyses with MPlus v. 7.2 statistical software comparing three factor models in our data. First, we had all indicators of all variables load on one factor. Second, we tested a model in which we had employee rated indicators load on one factor and manager rated indicators on another factor. Finally, we assessed a model in which our presumed variables presented latent factors for their indicators. The results of the factor analyses are presented in Table 1. There we show that although the model with 2 (source related) factors fits the data better ($\Delta \chi^2 = 329.68$; $\Delta df = 1$; $p < .00$) than the one-factor model, the model with three factors fits the data best ($\Delta \chi^2 = 236.95$; $\Delta df = 1$; $p < .00$). We therefore moved on with the analyses for our hypotheses, as described

below. We also ran a model to investigate the role of common method variance in our two self-rated variables by including a common method factor loading on all self-rated items to the three factor model, but this model did not converge.

Table 1. *Confirmatory Factor Analyses*

	One-factor model	Two-factor model	Three-factor model
Degrees of freedom	119	118	116
χ^2	800.18**	470.50**	233.52**
RMSEA	0.21	0.15	0.09
CFI	0.42	0.70	0.90
TLI	0.34	0.65	0.88
AIC	5409.11	5081.43	4848.44
BIC	5557.65	5232.89	5005.73

**: p<.01

In order to take the nested nature of our data into account – as multiple employees worked with the same manager – we performed multilevel polynomial regression in IBM SPSS v. 22 statistical software to obtain the regression coefficients of our response surface analysis. We used the procedures described by Shanock and colleagues (2010) to test the slopes and curvatures of the lines of congruence (similar scores on leader efficacy and RBSE) and incongruence. The terms **congruence** and **incongruence** are used here – in the description of the analyses and the results section – in line with the literature on response surface analyses and the terminology of the statistics of that literature (Edwards, 2002; Shanock et al., 2010).

To test Hypotheses 1-3, we used multilevel polynomial regression and response surface plotting to assess the effects of similar scores on manager leader efficacy and employee RBSE on voice behavior, in accordance with the procedures suggested by Shanock and colleagues (2010) and Edwards (2002). Our dependent variable (voice behavior) was

regressed on five polynomial terms, namely: b_1 (X: employee rated RBSE), b_2 (Y: manager rated leader efficacy), b_3 (X^2: $RBSE^2$), b_4 (XY: interaction term RBSE*leader efficacy) and b_5 (Y^2: leader $efficacy^2$). This implies that the following regression equation was estimated:

$$Voice = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2$$

As mentioned above, the variables were z-standardized before calculating the three second order polynomial terms. Following the recommendations of Shanock et al. (2010), we used the estimated regression coefficients to plot the three-dimensional response surface in which employee-rated RBSE and manager-rated leader efficacy were plotted on horizontal axes perpendicular to one another, and employee voice was plotted on the vertical axis (recent examples of this method: Landry, Vandenberghe, & Ayed, 2014; Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015; Shanock et al., 2010).

For the subsequent tests of our hypotheses, we were not interested in the significance and direction of our estimated regression coefficients, but rather in the slopes and curvature of the congruence and incongruences lines with the surface estimated with those regression coefficients (Edwards, 2002; Shanock et al., 2010). The congruence line (RBSE=LE) represented the situations in which employee and manager report comparable levels of RBSE and leader efficacy, and the relation of the congruence with reported employee voice behavior. The incongruence line (or RBSE= -LE), represented the situations in which there is a discrepancy between the level of employee RBSE and manager leader efficacy.

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, we assessed four features of the response surface (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Shanock et al., 2010). The first feature under investigation was the line of congruence on employee RBSE and manager leader efficacy. This congruence line was expected to have a positive slope that is significantly different from zero (Shanock et al., 2010). The slope of the congruence line was computed as $a_1=(b_1+b_2)$, and tested as a linear combination of regression

coefficients (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013; Edwards, 2002). We expected that similar scores of leader efficacy and RBSE significantly related to voice behavior, when both these scores were average or high, but not when these scores were low. The significance and positive direction of the slope of the congruence line presented a test of Hypotheses 1.

A further test of Hypothesis 1 was the curvature of the congruence line. Our second hypothesis predicted a linear effect of similar scores on leader efficacy and RBSE on voice behavior. As we expected that similarity on higher levels of leader efficacy and RBSE is related to high voice behavior whereas similarity on low levels of leader efficacy and RBSE is not, we expected the curvature of the congruence line to not be significantly different from zero. The curvature of the congruence line was computed as $a_2=(b_3+b_4+b_5)$ and tested as a linear combination of regression coefficients (Cohen et al., 2013; Edwards, 2002). A congruence line curvature that is significant would imply a non-linear or non-additive effect of congruence on the outcome variable (Shanock et al., 2010), which we do not expect here.

Next, we inspected the line of incongruence to test our final hypothesis. We hypothesized that a difference in scores on leader efficacy and RBSE would also have an effect on voice behavior, in the sense that low levels of employee RBSE (paired with high scores on leader efficacy) would relate to lower levels of voice than low levels of manager leader efficacy (paired with higher levels of RBSE). Therefore we expected the curvature of the incongruence line to be significant and negative, as a negative significant curvature of the incongruence line indicates a concave surface where our outcome variable decreases more sharply as the degree of discrepancy increases (Edwards, 2002; Shanock et al., 2010). The curvature of the incongruence line is computed as $a_4=(b_3-b_4+b_5)$ and tested as a linear combination of regression coefficients (Cohen et al., 2013; Edwards, 2002).

Finally, we assessed whether the direction of the discrepancy was related to our outcome variable, by assessing the direction and significance of the slope of the incongruence line (Edwards, 2002; Shanock et al., 2010). Here we expected the slope of the incongruence line to be significant and

positive, to represent that voice is higher when employee RBSE is higher than manager leader efficacy, compared to the opposite. The slope of the incongruence line was computed as $a_3 = (b_1 - b_2)$ and tested as a linear combination of regression coefficients (Cohen et al., 2013; Edwards, 2002). If this slope of the incongruence line is significant and positive, this supports Hypothesis 2.

Results

Means, standard deviations, intraclass correlations and Pearson correlations are presented in Table 2. The Cronbach's alpha scores for the scales are provided on the diagonal. The Pearson correlations were estimated as individual level correlations, as most of our variables were measured at that level. Table 2 shows justification for our inclusion of leader-member exchange as a control variable as the variable correlates significantly with leader efficacy as well as voice (r=.18, p<.05; r=.29, p< .01). Furthermore, we found a positive and significant correlation between voice and RBSE (r=.38, p<.01), as expected. Next, we found a borderline significant correlation between leader efficacy and voice behavior (r=.17, p=.05). Finally, we did not find a significant correlation between RBSE and leader efficacy (r=.03, p=N.S.).

Table 2. *Descriptive statistics*

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Intraclass Correlation	Corre-lations 1	2	3	4
1 Role breadth self-efficacy	3.87	0.54	.03	(.83)			
2 Leader efficacy	5.88	0.41	-	.03	(.71)		
3 Voice	5.93	0.69	.16	.38**	.17†	(.79)	
4 Leader-member exchange°	5.40	1.03	.99	.05	.18*	.29**	(.90)

**: p<.01 *: p<.05 †: p=.05 °: Control variable

The results of the multilevel polynomial regression and response surface analysis are depicted in Table 2, and the corresponding surface plot is shown in Figure 1. Hypothesis 1 predicted that similar and (sufficiently) high scores on manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE would be positively related to voice behavior, whereas those low would not. The first feature of the response surface (as described in the method section) pertains to the congruence line *(RBSE=Leader efficacy)*. The slope of this line was found to be significant indicating that similarity in scores on manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE is significantly related to voice behavior (a_1: .49, $p<.01$). Furthermore, the significant coefficient of the slope (a_1) was positive and the curvature of the congruence line was found to be insignificant (a_2: -.18, p=N.S.), implying that the effect of similarity of scores on leader efficacy and employee RBSE is linear and that having similar scores on higher levels of manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE is related to higher levels of voice in a linear way. This is in line with our predictions and provides support for Hypotheses 1.

Next, we turn to the line of incongruence *(RBSE=-Leader efficacy)* to investigate the effects discrepancies between a manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE. Depicted in Table 3 is the slope and curvature of the incongruence line. The slope (a_3) was found to be positive and significant (a_3: .27, $p<.05$), implying that voice is higher when employee RBSE is higher than manager's leader efficacy than vice versa. This provides support for Hypothesis 2.

Furthermore, the curvature of the incongruence line was found to be negative and borderline significant (a_4: -.19, p=.05), implying that voice decreases more sharply when differences between a manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE become larger. However, this feature of the response surface was only borderline significant at p=.05 and should be treated with caution. Therefore, we conclude that we have only found limited support of Hypothesis 2. Finally, the Snijders and Bosker (1999) R^2 was .23, implying that 23% of the individual level variance in voice was explained by our model.

Table 3: Result of the multilevel polynomial regression analysis

	Voice	
Variables	Coefficient	S.E.
Constant	0.19	0.11
Leader-member Exchange (control)	0.25**	0.08
Polynomial terms		
b_1 Role breadth self-efficacy	0.38**	0.07
b_2 Leader efficacy	0.11	0.08
b_3 Role breadth self-efficacy²	-0.12*	0.05
b_4 Role breadth self-efficacy*Leader efficacy	0.00	0.07
b_5 Leader efficacy²	-0.06	0.05
R^2 °	0.23	
Congruence line		
(Role breadth self-efficacy=Leader efficacy)		
Slope ($a_1=b_1+b_2$)	0.49**	0.10
Curvature ($a_2=b_3+b_4+b_5$)	-0.18	0.11
Incongruence line		
(Role breadth self-efficacy=-Leader efficacy)		
Slope ($a_3=b_1-b_2$)	0.27*	0.11
Curvature ($a_4=b_3-b_4+b_5$)	-0.19†	0.10

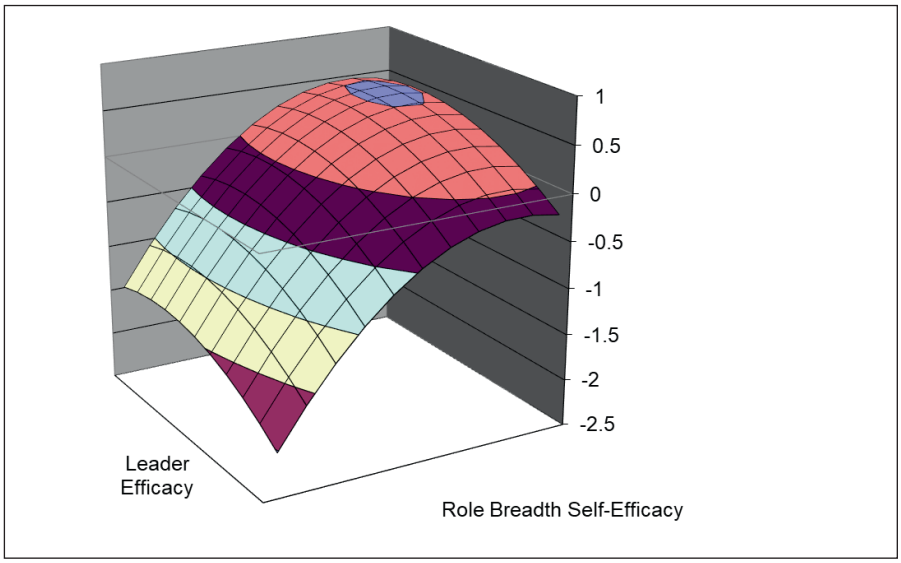
**: p<.01, *: p<.05, †: p=.05, °:(Snijders & Bosker, 1999) R^2

Looking at Figure 1, which depicts the response surface plot, we see the effects as described above. The highest levels of voice are predicted when a manager's leader efficacy and employee RBSE are similar and high. It is also visible there, that for low levels of leader efficacy an increase in RBSE still makes a difference in voice, but for low levels of RBSE an increase in leader efficacy seems to achieve much less. Finally, the plot showed that the vertical axis is shifted up and that the steepest area of the surface plot was related to standardized voice scores below zero (i.e., below average voice levels).

Because the control variable showed a consistently significant effect in our model, we investigated post hoc whether the effect of dissimilar scores

on managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE in relation to voice could be moderated by LMX. We therefore undertook additional analyses, the reasoning for and the results of which can be found in Appendix A.

Figure 1: Response Surface Plot



Plotted with worksheet derived from:
http://public.kenan-flagler.unc.edu/faculty/edwardsj/downloads.htm

Discussion

The inspiration for this study came from the idea that being able to voice in an organizational setting does not only depend on whether an employee has a good idea that might change the work situation for the better. The employee also needs to be sufficiently certain of her/his proactive abilities to be willing to speak up, and the manager receiving and evaluating the employee's proactivity needs to be efficacious in her/his leader role so that they do not feel threatened by the employee's suggestions. Our study suggests that the decision to voice is indeed contingent on both of these factors together. By including both the manager

(the manager's leader efficacy) and the employee (RBSE), we apply an interdependent perspective on voice behavior in organizations, thus answering a call to incorporate more of the complexity of contemporary work design in research by scholars in voice and job design alike (Grant & Parker, 2009; Morrison, 2011; Parker et al., 2010).

Our estimated surface plot reflects relatively few voice scores that are above average, which further emphasizes the need for exploration of the different sources of motivation for voice behavior. Only in situations where employee's RBSE and manager's leader efficacy were both (very) high, our model estimated above average levels of voice behavior. The significant effect of our control variable LMX shows that the interdependent grounds for voice behavior are more complex than managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE. When managers and employees have a good relationship, negative reactions to voice based on ego threat induced by low leader efficacy might be less likely to occur as the manager experiences the relationship as a positive environment. This is in line with the ideas of Fast et al. (2014), who discussed that leader efficacy may prove specifically consequential for employee voice behavior when LMX is low.

In our efforts to explore the employee's RBSE and the manager's leader efficacy together, it is important to note that the curvature of our congruence line was negative and while it was approaching significant levels, it was not significant. Were this statistic to be found significant, this would imply a non-linear effect of similar scores on leader efficacy and RBSE on voice behavior. Looking at our surface plot, at very high values of similar scores – both employee's RBSE and manager's leader efficacy score more than 2 standard deviations above the mean – the predicted voice score seems to begin to decrease. This could reflect a limit of the benefits of supplementary fit: two extremely efficacious individuals may start to clash. A manager with extremely high levels of leader efficacy may see their own views as infallible, leaving little room for employees' contributions. An employee with extremely high levels of RBSE may be experienced as threatening by managers, leading managers to respond negatively.

Furthermore, the employees high on the so called dark triad personality traits (Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy) tend to overestimate their own abilities and score high on RBSE (Paulhus & Williams, 2002), while these employees are not necessarily interested in the merits of voice behavior (de Vries, Jehn, & Terwel, 2012). These employees would not necessarily be more inclined to voice when combined with an efficacious leader.

Our results also showed significant effects for the similarity in scores of manager's leader efficacy and employee's RBSE. This effect is driven by medium and high scores of efficacy and RBSE and when these are both sufficiently high is positively related to predicted employee voice, in contrast when both leader efficacy and RBSE are low very little voice behavior is found. This is in line with theorizing on (proactive) motivation which argues that both manager's leader efficacy and RBSE provide motivation for proactive employee behavior. When both 'can do' and 'reason to' motivation are lacking, employees are unlikely to be proactive (Parker et al., 2010). This does not contradict the finding that similar scores on leader efficacy and RBSE predict voice behavior, as this particular situation only applies to extremely low levels of both variables, as visible in the surface plot in the results section. The effect of similar scores of leader efficacy and RBSE is significant and represents the effect at medium and high levels of similar scores on leader efficacy and RBSE. This also fits with our finding that more voice occurs as higher levels of leader efficacy and RBSE occur together.

Limitations & Directions for Future Research

While involving multiple sources, the current study also has some limitations. First of all, the cross-sectional design of the study excludes the possibility to draw conclusions about the direction of causality between the variables. There is also a need to know more, for example, about the development of managers in interaction with the development of their followers (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Hannah et al., 2008). The relatively small sample size combined with the cross-sectional nature of the study does not allow for inferences about

the development of self-efficacy of employees and leader efficacy of managers in relation to the development of voice behavior in organizations. We also relied on employee rated voice behavior thus cannot exclude that source effects play a role for some of the findings.

Furthermore, our measurement of voice behavior was a very broad one. This measure was chosen for its established validity and because of the exploratory nature of this study, as this is, to our knowledge, the first time that manager efficacy and employee RBSE are combined in one model as antecedents of voice behavior. However, we know from extant literature that there are a number of different types of voice behavior that can be identified (e.g. Promotive and Prohibitive voice, Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Constructive and destructive voice, Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Suggestion-, problem- and opinion-focused voice, Morrison, 2011). These types of voice differ in their way of delivering a message of change within the organization, and there may also be differences in how RBSE of employees and leader efficacy of managers relate to these different ways of voicing. More research is needed to understand the relationship between employee's RBSE and manager's leader efficacy for different types of voice behavior.

Another avenue for exploration lies with the reactions of managers to employee voice behavior. Here we based much of our reasoning on earlier findings that manager's leader efficacy is related to their reactions to employees voice behavior (Fast et al., 2014). In order to more fully test for the effects of similar scores of leader efficacy and employee RBSE, our model should be extended to include the reactions of managers. A longitudinal and/or experimental design including the manager reactions to voice would serve that purpose, and such a design would also allow deeper insights into how the interactions between manager and employee affect behavior at work over time, for instance, how subsequent reactions to voice behavior in turn are linked to employee RBSE. More research into the interactive development of managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE is needed (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Hannah et al., 2008) and including employee voice and manager's reaction to voice would provide a mechanism through which

employee's RBSE and manager's leader efficacy influence each other's development.

Furthermore, we relied on managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE reported by the employee and manager themselves, as we felt that an individual is the best judge of their own efficacy. However, in the literature there is some consensus that it is not alignment on actual scores, but alignment of perception that is most important to reach beneficial outcomes (Atwater & Dionne, 2007). Therefore it would be interesting to look at the alignment between employees' perception of their manager's leader efficacy in combination with manager's own perception of leader efficacy, as disagreement here may be a signal of inconsistent information on how desirable voice is. This would increase our understanding of different types of efficacy in the organization in relation to voice behavior further.

Finally, there could be one aspect of the low leader efficacy situation that could inspire voice behavior from employees: such a negative situation may provide 'energized to' motivation for proactivity. The 'energized to' motivation for proactivity represents affect or emotions from organizational situation which stimulate the employee to engage in proactive action (Parker et al., 2010). Wolsink (2017) found that negative affect from interaction with managers can motivate employees to take proactive action to regulate their negative affect by attempting to change the situation. Thus it may be that employees do not speak up but that they take other proactive action to change the situation or feel better, for example. The cross-sectional nature of this study is not suitable to uncover these affective effects and patterns, as these reactions and their effects are highly variable during one working day and need to be observed over time. In terms of proactive behavior, more (longitudinal) research is needed to make clear what exactly happens in the situation where manager leader efficacy is low and employee RBSE is low. Voicing may be considered too risky, but perhaps it still leads the employee to choose a different proactive behavior, or there may be additional situational factors altogether that would lead employees to speak up in those situations.

Recommendations for Practice

Finally, we have some suggestions for practitioners to make use of our findings. First of all, employees and managers in organizations should be aware that merely signaling that proactivity and particularly speaking up is desirable is not always enough to inspire those behaviors. Neither is selecting employees or managers that have the right characteristics to show those behaviors. The way managers and employees interact shapes the environment in which employees are (de)motivated to speak up with their ideas that could improve the organization's functioning. By offering training to managers and employees to increase their leader efficacy and RBSE, organizations can help create the environment needed to speak up. Our findings show that similar scores of leader efficacy and RBSE of manager and employee as well as the quality of their relationship play an important role that organizations should consider.

Conclusion

Not only does it take employee efficacy (RBSE) to challenge the status quo, it also takes leader efficacy to support employees in their efforts to do so. Based on Parker, Bindl and Strauss's (2010) model for proactive motivation, as well as a supplementary fit perspective on managers' leader efficacy and employees' RBSE, we investigated and found that having similar and (sufficiently) high levels of employee's RBSE and manager's leader efficacy were related to voice behavior of those employees. It seems that particularly employees' RBSE plays a strong role, yet the efficacy of the manager in their role as leader has the potential to reinforce the positive effect of RBSE. Mustering up the courage to voice thus seems easiest as a collaborative effort.

Appendix A: Additional Analyses

In the main analyses of this paper we found that our control variable LMX had a strong and positive effect on voice behavior. We controlled for LMX because we focused specifically on the effect of efficacy of the leader and employee in relation to voice, regardless of the quality of the relationship. However, in retrospect, we felt similarity of managers' leader efficacy and employee RBSE may mean something different for employees experiencing high LMX and employees experiencing low LMX. LMX refers to the extent to which employee and leader have developed and maintain a mature and good relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Having a good relationship with followers is very likely to play a role in the construction of the identity and (leader) self-efficacy of the manager (Hannah et al., 2008; van Knippenberg et al., 2004). The threat of efficacious employees may be less for managers who have a high quality relationship with their employee and the employee may feel supported and be willing to speak up when LMX is high regardless of the level of leader efficacy. Besides, an employee with low RBSE may not feel enough support from an efficacious leader to compensate their feelings of incompetence to be able to voice, but with the support of a strong relationship with that leader may be able to still stimulate this.

We therefore ran a post-hoc analysis and included LMX as a moderator in our polynomial regression, as described by (Edwards, 2002), to assess the different surface plot for high and low LMX. Including the moderator in the regression equation according to that method, lead to the following equation with W representing LMX:

$$\text{Voice} = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + b_6W + b_7WX + b_8WY + b_9WX^2 + b_{10}WXY + b_{11}WY^2$$

In order to obtain the simple quadratic functions for the surface plot, the following rewritten equation was used:

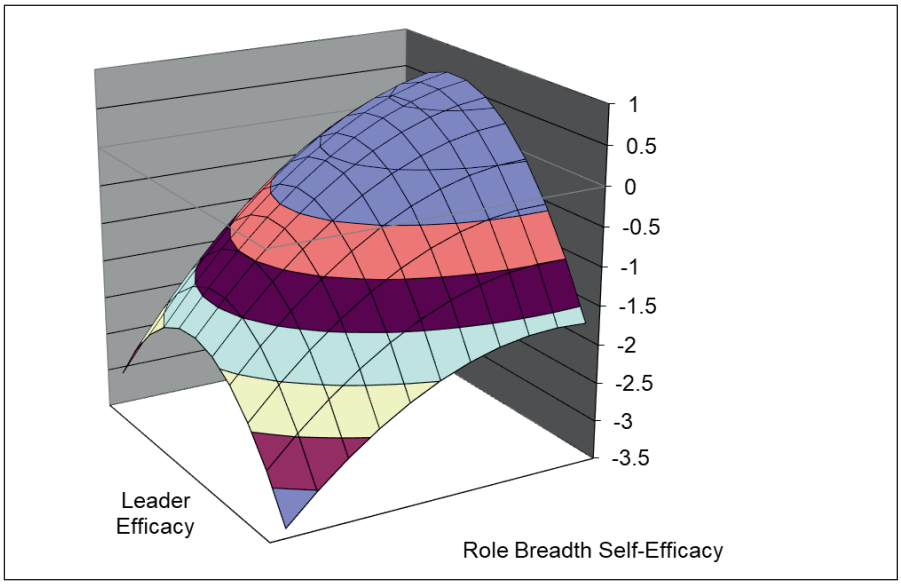
$$\text{Voice} = (b_0 + b_6W) + (b_1 + b_7W)X + (b_2 + b_8W)Y + (b_3 + b_9W)X^2 + (b_4 + b_{10}W)XY + (b_5 + b_{11}W)Y^2$$

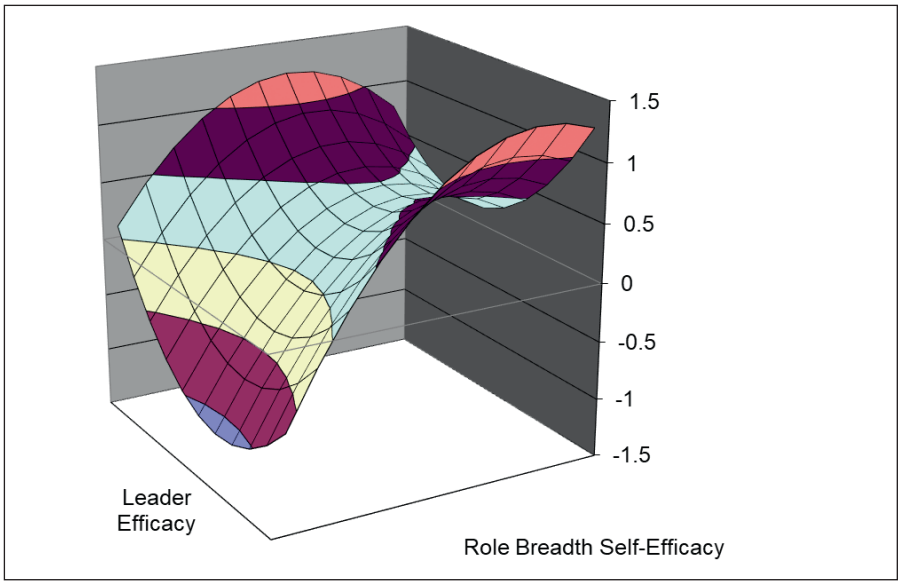
In this case, the measurement of LMX was z-standardized, obtaining a mean of 0, which means that for an average level of LMX the equation is derived by substituting 0 as value for W. This implied that the surface presented in the results section equals the surface for average levels of LMX.

In order to test whether the effect of the moderator was significant, we applied a General Linear Model approach to test the weighted linear combinations of our regression coefficients (Edwards, 2002). We tested the moderator one standard deviation above and below the mean. This resulted in significant results for the value of LMX one standard deviation below the mean ($df=1$; $F=15.07$; $p<.001$), as well as for a value of LMX one standard deviation above the mean ($df=1$; $F=3.12$; $p<.05$). In order to assess the surface plots for high levels and low level of LMX, W is substituted with a value for LMX one standard deviation (1) above and below the mean (0) of this variable respectively. Using the same methods as described in the method and results section, we obtained the following statistics (Table A1) and surface plots (Figures A1a and A1b).

The surface plot for high levels of LMX, showed an uninterpretable result, as is not uncommon with moderated response surface analysis. The surface plot for low levels of LMX showed a clear picture. Figure A1a showed a similar shape to that of Figure 1 in the results section, implying that the effect for low levels of LMX is comparable to that of average levels of LMX. However, this result was significant and there were some distinguishing features. Under the low LMX condition, we see that high levels of RBSE combined with low levels of Leader efficacy relate to lower values of voice behavior than in the average LMX condition. It seemed that for employees with a poor relationship with their supervisor, leader efficacy becomes a prerequisite for voice behavior next to RBSE. Furthermore, we saw that under the low LMX condition, low RBSE combined with low leader efficacy yields more extreme low values of voice behavior than under the average LMX condition.

Figures A1a & A1b: Surface plot for congruence on RBSE and Leader Efficacy for Low levels of LMX (left) and High levels of LMX (right).





Plotted with worksheet derived from: http://public.kenan-flagler.unc.edu/faculty/edwardsj/downloads.htm

Table A1. *Multilevel Regression Coefficients used for Surface Plot Generation*

	Voice	
Variables	Coefficient	S.E.
b_0 Constant	0.19	0.11
Polynomial terms		
b_1 Role breadth self-efficacy	0.38**	0.07
b_2 Leader efficacy	0.11	0.08
b_3 Role breadth self-efficacy²	-0.12**	0.05
b_4 Role breadth self-efficacy* Leader efficacy	0.00	0.07
b_5 Leader efficacy²	-0.06	0.05
b_6 LMX	0.17	0.10
b_7 LMX*Role breadth self-efficacy	-0.14**	0.10
b_8 LMX*Leader efficacy	-0.05	0.09
b_9 LMX*Role breadth self-efficacy²	-0.02	0.07
b_{10} LMX*Role breadth self-efficacy*Leader efficacy	-0.07	0.10
b_{11} LMX*Leader efficacy²	0.22**	0.08

**: p<.01, *: p<.05

CHAPTER 6

Discussion



Discussion

For most employees, working closely with peers *and* being expected to proactively shape their own work environment is daily reality. In this dissertation, I set out to investigate proactive employee behavior in interdependent work contexts, to answer the question: Can employees work together to be proactive, and work together proactively? I did so, because when I started to delve into the topic of proactive behavior, I found that the interdependence of employees in work settings was underrepresented in existing research on employee proactivity. By broadening the knowledge on proactive behavior, its interpersonal antecedents and its consequences, this dissertation has started to answer the call to include the social complexities of contemporary organizations (Parker, 2014; Parker & Bindl, 2016a). Employee proactivity has been found to serve a number of purposes for proactive employees, their team and/or their organization (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2016). However, I have aimed to show here that there are social, to some extent perhaps unintended effects of employee proactivity. To answer the main question in more detail, four sub-questions were empirically investigated with five empirical research designs. Here, I will discuss my findings in those studies in relation to the extant literature, their practical implications and recommendations for future research and methodology. Finally, I will present my conclusions.

How do Team Members Interact to be Proactive?

In chapter 2, I set out to explore team proactivity as an outcome variable. Although proactivity at the team level has been conceptualized and investigated before (e.g. Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010), I wanted to specifically know how team members' individual perspectives translates into proactivity in an interdependent setting. By doing so, I focused on the interdependent setting of the team as a key feature of contemporary work that helps teams to be proactive. I specifically focused on employees' perceptions of how they interact with their fellow team members' and how these interactions shape the extent to which the team is considered to be proactive by their manager.

The concept of employees interacting in teams and making use of their different experiences is not new (Jehn, 1995; van Dijk et al., 2012). Specifically team members discussing their differing views on the task (task conflict) has received ample research attention over the last decades, mostly in relation to team performance (e.g. Bradley, Klotz, Postlethwaite, & Brown, 2013; De Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). Task conflict should generally be beneficial for team proactivity, as it can allow teams to make use of differences and discussing different views on the task allows teams to come up with solutions to problems beyond their usual frame of reference. Proactivity requires employees to go above and beyond regular performance. In Chapter 2, I found that task conflict indeed positively affects team proactivity, but not in a direct manner. In order for teams to profit from task conflict, they need to have routines in place that allow them to make use of differing views of team members. I found team reflection, or the extent to which teams are used to scrutinizing their methods and past performance in order to do better (Edmondson, 2002), to act as mediator between task conflict and team proactivity.

In chapter 2 I showed that team members can be proactive together, and that their (perception of) interaction in the team shapes the extent to which the team can be proactive. The research on proactivity has treated proactivity only to a limited extent as a team level outcome. Harris and Kirkman (2016) conclude their review of the team proactivity literature with an Input Mediator Outcome Input (IMOI) model that presumes proactive behaviors in the team to act as a mediator before team and individual outcomes. However, team performance can be measured in many ways (e.g. task performance, goal achievement, financial performance) depending on the nature of the team and the organization, and employees' or teams' proactive efforts to shaping their work may not be related to measures of performance. Although intended positively, some proactive efforts of the team may fail, may not be seen by those rating performance, or may simply not be related to or even move effort away from the primary goals of the team.

In their review of team proactivity research, Harris and Kirkman (2016) further describe reciprocal effects between proactive states – such as creative efficacy or empowerment - and proactive behavior – such as voice behavior or strategic scanning - in the team as the mediating process between team inputs and team outputs. The model investigated in Chapter 2 may present a more micro lens applied to this proposed process, as I investigated the effects of specific interactions over a short period of time, rather than general levels. They propose task conflict to be a proactive state that influences a team's interaction pattern and proactivity (Harris & Kirkman, 2016). By looking more closely at how discussion of the task is related to teams' reflection on whether the right decisions have been made, we have learned more of how one specific proactive state is related to team proactivity. Team members discuss their different viewpoints and consequently reflect on their work as a team thus resulting in team proactivity.

What are the Affective Consequences of Employees being Proactive in a Team?

Employees being proactive in a team setting often brings about change for their fellow team members. Based on affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), I proposed a coworker attempting to change the work situation should present an event that will elicit an affective reaction from an employee. As a proactive coworker usually has positive intentions for being proactive (i.e. improvement), the affective reaction could be positive as the coworker's proactivity implies that the team is moving to a positive future state. However, the intentions behind the coworker's proactivity, even if positive, may be directed at improving his/her individual situation rather than the team, or may present team members with undesired change. As past research has shown that affective reactions in the workplace are consequential to subsequent employee attitudes and behaviors (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015), I set out to investigate the affective reactions to proactivity in the team.

In chapter 3 I found that, in line with past research and theory (e.g. Bindl & Parker, 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015), being proactive (here: voicing) in the team meeting can be considered an affective event for the voicing employee. Being able to bring forth your own ideas and suggestions for change is a positive experience for employees. However, in the team context, bringing about change for the better may imply that fellow team members need to do their work differently. When employees feel threatened as they are expected to behave differently in the future, for example due to something proactively suggested by a peer, reactance theory describes that employees may react negatively (Bolino et al., 2016). For such a target of voice (i.e., someone directly addressed with a voiced idea, suggestion or opinion), this is not always a positive event, depending on the climate in the team. When the target perceives that voicing is effective and expected in the team, in other words there is a proactive state in the team that prepares the target for voice, the effects are positive. The results from this chapter suggest that being put on the spot to change your way of working for the better of the team requires a positive psychological environment in order to be a positive event. This is in line with team learning theory (Edmondson, 2002; Edmondson & Lei, 2014) that posits that in order for teams to learn, teams need to have a suitable psychological climate. When it comes to voice behavior, this may be presented in that team members need to feel that voice behavior is effective and appreciated, and hence 'normal' behavior which is expected by the organization and the team.

Furthermore, I found in general that teams where more voice occurs experience more positive affective states after the meeting. However, when there is voice disparity – a subgroup being silent or very vocal relative to the rest of their team – team affect suffers. This forms an extension of the finding that diversity in the extent that team members are generally proactive, is related to team outcomes (Harris & Kirkman, 2016; Parker et al., 2006). Instead of taking into account differences between team members in their tendency to be proactive, I looked at differences in the actual levels of proactive behavior (Mediator) and their effects on the affective outcomes of the team. Furthermore, although the negative affective reactions found in

this study were limited, they add to the under-researched area of the 'dark side' of proactivity in organizations (Bolino et al., 2016).

In short, the affective 'collateral' effects of proactivity in a team meeting tend to be positive; collateral effects, because the affective effects of proactivity are usually not the intended outcomes, which is rather to achieve change. Being able to proactively share ideas in team meetings is positive for team members as well as for the team and seems to revolve around different perceptions of inclusion: either knowing that what is suggested is usually appreciated and taken seriously in the team or knowing that there is no subgroup that has a disproportionate amount of power over the direction of the team (or lack thereof).

What are the Affective Reactions of Employees to Coworker Voice?

Moving forward from Chapter 3, I took two next steps to increase the understanding of the affective effects of employee voice in relational settings. First, the investigation of different types of voice behavior, as there are many types of voice (e.g., solution-oriented, promotional voice versus problem focused, prohibitive voice) and the positive intentions behind voice behavior may be more clear to coworkers in one type than in the other (Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Morrison, 2011). Next to that, affective events theory explains that not all employees react the same way to events, depending on certain personality traits (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015). In the two studies presented in Chapter 4, I investigated further how promotive and prohibitive voice are perceived by coworkers in terms of affective reactions and how these reactions differ for different employees.

In the two studies presented in this Chapter 4, I found more positive effects of employee voice. In general, employee promotive voice seemed to be experienced positively by coworkers. I expected this, as promotive voice focuses on a positive future state in relation to the idea or suggestion that is voiced. The positive intent behind what is voiced, should thus be clear to

employees affected by promotive voice. The results for prohibitive voice were much less straightforward. As prohibitive voice is formulated around a negative future state that needs to be avoided, the positive intent may be hidden by a negative wording. Although prohibitive voice has been argued and found to yield negative reactions for the voicer themselves (Lin & Johnson, 2015), the results are somewhat inconsistent and unclear (Chamberlin et al., 2017). Chapter 4 supports this finding, therefore concluding that it is not only the message, but also the way it is brought across that determines how employees affectively react to coworker voice.

Furthermore, I have found that the reactions that coworkers have to employee voice behavior are, as other affective events, to some extent dependent on the personality traits of the targeted employee. Coworkers with a strong preference for direct and open communication (employees scoring high on extraversion) as well as coworkers with a preference to be directed by or receive confirmation from others (employee scoring high on neuroticism) tend to benefit from coworker promotive voice (more so than employees who show average scores on these traits). This chapter further establishes employee voice behavior as affective events for those around them, with the positive conclusion that most reactions are positive but differ for different employees and voice types.

How do Manager Leader Efficacy and Employee RBSE together contribute to Employee Voice Behavior?

Moving on from coworker reactions to proactivity, I was drawn to the interaction between managers and employees in contemporary organizations, in relation to proactivity. The role of managers has changed significantly as the design of work changed, with more autonomy and cooperation for employees (Grant & Parker, 2009; Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Parker, 2014) demanding managers to take on a more facilitating role (Day & Dragoni, 2015). That facilitating role has been formulated in many different leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, servant leadership, empowering leadership or inclusive leadership. Some of those

leadership styles have been shown to be related to proactive behavior. However, the premise that some managers find proactive behavior from their employees threatening and therefore discourage or even punish employee voice employee voice behavior is not explained completely by differences in leadership styles. Whether a manager responds negatively to employee voice, seems to be related to their self-confidence in their role as a leader (leader efficacy) (Fast et al., 2014).

Although a leadership style may describe the way in which a manager generally interacts with employees, it does not necessarily describe whether the manager and the employee together create a social environment in which employee voice is welcomed and appreciated. I therefore investigated how configurations of manager's leader efficacy and employee's role breadth efficacy predicted voice behavior of the employee. The idea here was that manager and employee interact at work, and that both their levels of relevant confidence (leader efficacy for the manager and role-breadth self-efficacy for the employee) are important for that interaction to be conducive to employee proactivity. The results suggest that indeed, when employees as well as their managers are efficacious, employees show more voice behavior. The results did show that employee RBSE plays a bigger role than leader efficacy of the manager, which can be related to the aforementioned leadership styles. Most positive leadership styles (transformational leadership, empowering leadership etc.) influence how employees feel at work and stimulate their self-efficacy. I would therefore suggest, based on the results of Chapter 5, that leadership styles set the stage for proactivity related interaction between managers and employees, but the experienced efficacy of managers and employees shapes the interactions themselves.

Implications for Practice

The studies in this dissertation revolved around the experiences of employees in organizations as they perform their jobs and the outcomes should benefit these employees. I therefore make suggestions here how

practice could make use of my results. I will distinguish between recommendations for employees as they are working together, and recommendations aimed at leading organizations or organizational units.

The value of my research for employees in their day to day work is twofold. First of all, my research shows that under the right circumstances, working together allows for proactivity at a larger scale. By discussing different points of view in teams and sharing ideas of how to improve work, teams become more proactive and may evoke positive affective states in the process. Although, in my experience, few employees would state that working alone is more efficient than working together, many would agree that the coordination of work with peers is almost never without trouble. It takes effort and involvement of all concerned to coordinate and communicate effectively. My research shows that managing the different views, consciously reflecting, and taking the step to share ideas that challenge the status quo, do have benefits beyond performance, in the shape of proactivity and positive affective experiences.

Secondly, my dissertation calls for considering the other when being proactive at work. For individual employees aiming to make the most of their ideas in organizational settings, it is good to realize the affective consequences of how and when making suggestions for improvements and launching initiatives at work. Formulating one's ideas around a desired future state (rather than impending doom) may yield more positive reactions and thus greater chances of suggestions being valued on content. Furthermore, addressing one's colleague's inefficient tendency to adhere to methods that hamper the success of the team directly in the team meeting might not always be a good idea. For that type of direct communication to work out well in a social context, a climate in which employees can successfully voice (in the eyes of that colleague!) is needed. Finally, it takes confidence to speak up, but not only from the voicing employee. In order to bring across one's ideas for improvement well, individuals need a target that does not feel threatened by the ideas and/or one they have a high quality relationship with, to increase the chances of successfully challenging and improving the status quo.

My recommendations for leading organizations or organizational groups are similar and revolve around establishing the right environment for employees to be proactive in. First of all, my results show that when employees share their views openly in the team, they are more likely to reflect and in turn be proactive. This calls for leadership in organizations to set the example that differing views are encouraged, appreciated and even expected. Furthermore, the encouragement of reflective practices deserves extra attention. By signaling the importance of reflective behaviors in teams for example, teams may become less susceptible to negative effects of interpersonal clashes, which often occur when people work together. Furthermore, my research shows that developing an organizational climate in which suggestions for improvement are taken seriously and are encouraged of all employees could have positive affective consequences. In other words, making sure that employees feel they are taken seriously when putting forward their ideas and making sure that all employees get to share their views could contribute to employees feeling better at work. Specifically for those leading others, feeling confident and efficacious in one's role as a leader may have consequences beyond one's own performance and well-being and could influence whether employees speak up with their ideas or not. Finally, leaders in organizations are of course also employees and all the recommendations listed above, apply to them as well.

Recommendations for Future Research

When I started my dissertation, I thought I knew a lot. The main thing I have learned throughout this process is that I know very little and that there is in fact always more to learn. Here I endeavor to point in the direction of where we might look next, as I formulate my recommendations for research.

Proactivity in teams

In the later stages of the development of this dissertation, Harris and Kirkman (2016) developed and published their overview of research into team proactivity. Although I have argued in the discussion section how my studies into the proactivity in teams fits in their proposed IMOI model, my research also deviates from their overview in some ways. For example, in considering team proactivity as an outcome variable next to performance, rather than considering proactive behaviors in the team an antecedent of team performance. I have argued above that my reasoning for this is that some proactivity may not (directly) contribute to team performance and that team proactivity defined as the extent to which a team collectively amends the work situation for the better has broader consequences than team performance.

However, more research is needed to gain more insight into the relationship between team proactivity and team performance. My research is mostly cross-sectional and does therefore not allow any causal inference, and though my hypotheses are based on previous research and theory of proactivity in organizations, they require more testing. My first suggestion for future research would be to do a comprehensive longitudinal study into the effects of proactivity of teams (individual behavior and collective conceptualization) on different measures of team performance to investigate further which conceptualizations of proactivity relate to which measures of performance. This would result in more knowledge on how exactly employee proactivity influences performance in organizations, clarifying the mixed results that have been found so far.

Another next step in the research of proactivity in teams would be a research design that takes into account more fine-grained aspects of the team context, such as the different roles that team members hold in the team. In my dissertation, I explored team members interacting without taking into account whether there were status, experience, or expertise

differences between them. This was partly because the mostly Dutch employees that made up my samples are known to communicate openly and directly with little regard for hierarchical status (Van Vree, 2008). However, especially as cross-functional teams where employees from different departments work together to move projects forward more quickly (e.g. a team consisting of engineers as well as sales employees to react faster to client demands) appear more and more nowadays (Parker, 2014), more research into the effects of roles in the team is needed. Furthermore, a less experienced team member speaking up could have less strong affective consequences for the team, as reacting openly and negatively to such a suggestion (alleviating negative affect) is easier than if the voicing fellow team member holds more status (for example due to more experience).

Furthermore, in my investigation of proactivity in teams, I have noticed a divide between the two research areas (on teams and proactivity, respectively). Where the research on the functioning of teams emphasizes the interaction between employees in the team (team members and managers), the research into proactive behavior has neglected the interpersonal aspects of proactive behavior in organizations to a large extent. For example, in team research there is a lot of attention for the ties that form between team members, the different status of team members within the same team and how these concepts shape team functioning. The literature on proactivity in organizations would benefit from applying existing knowledge of interactions in teams to the concept of proactivity. Therefore my second recommendation for future research would be to test known team processes' effects on team member and team proactivity.

Proactive behavior as affective event

The link between affect and proactive employee behavior has been established in the existing literature, mostly with affect as a driver for proactive behavior (Bindl et al., 2012; Wolsink, 2017). However, the research into proactive behavior as an affective event in itself has been limited to date.

This dissertation has made a start by looking at the affective consequences for employees, coworkers and entire teams (Chapters 3 and 4). The results showed mainly positive affective reactions, with some exceptions. Future research should look more closely into those exceptions, because although the positive affective reactions to proactivity at work are interesting, negative affective reactions tend to be more consequential in terms of subsequent attitudes and behaviors (Warr et al., 2014; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Therefore, the next two recommendations for future research revolve around the negative affective reactions to employee proactivity.

First, we need better insights into when proactivity is experienced negatively by others in the organization. Proactive behavior is challenging in nature, in the sense that most types of proactive behavior are intended to achieve some sort of change to the status quo. Depending on employees' attachment to that status quo, negative reactions become more likely. The impact of a coworkers' proactive behavior may differ, depending on the type of behavior and the setting. Instead of different types of proactive behavior in terms of focus or formulation, we might need to assess the social orientation (e.g., in terms of its impact on peers) as a categorization of proactive behavior. This may help us learn more about when proactive behavior presents a negative affective event to employees.

Furthermore, although affective events theory describes how affective reactions to events translate into subsequent attitudes and behavior in organizations, this has not been applied to proactive behavior. In other words, if we accept that incidences of proactive behavior in organizations can form affective events for employees, we need to look into their broader consequences. It would be interesting to learn whether the affective reactions to proactive behavior have long-lasting effects for coworkers, by inspiring for example subsequent proactive behavior. For example, research has shown that organizational citizenship behaviors incites cycles of reciprocity in co-working employees thus leading to increased levels of citizenship behavior in the organization (Halbesleben &

Wheeler, 2012). A similar research design should be applied to the investigation of proactive behavior in organizations. Furthermore, it would be of consequence to investigate the effects of exposure to proactive behavior on attitudes to the organization. As organizations call for proactive behavior, it is important to investigate how proactivity as an affective event shapes for example job satisfaction or commitment to the organization.

Leadership and proactive behavior

The research in this dissertation (especially Chapter 5) has shown that the link between leadership in organizations and employee proactivity could benefit from a broader perspective on leadership. Although there are many studies that have found certain leadership styles to be related to proactive behavior of followers (see Den Hartog & Belschak, 2016 for an overview), there is limited longitudinal research into the interaction between leaders and followers in relation to employee proactivity development. Yet, the perception of whether a leader is willing to support proactive endeavors of the employee, which determines the employee's willingness to be proactive, is built over time as leader and follower interact (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2016). Managers to a large extent shape the work situation for the employee as they control the resources available to the employee and determine which behaviors are desired from the employee. It is therefore imperative that we learn more about the long term effects of leadership (styles, behaviors, role perceptions) on proactivity of employees over time (Wu & Li, 2016).

Finally, in the additional analyses of Chapter 5, I found that the quality of the relationship between leader and follower had great impact on the other effects under investigation there. Such a relationship is generally the result of repeated interactions between leader and follower in the organizational setting, over a long period of time. In conclusion, in order to properly understand the ways leaders influence employee proactivity,

longitudinal research into the interaction between leader and follower is needed.

Implications for Methodology

Throughout this dissertation, I have used different research designs to answer my research questions. This diversity of quantitative methods stems from a passion for methodology as well as a belief that in order to answer a certain question, one needs to think carefully about how to study that question. Based on my experiences, I present some methodological recommendations.

First of all, I recommend any researcher interested in researching proactive behavior to always take into account the different perspectives of different sources within the organizations, as to neglect doing that means losing valuable information. For example in Chapter 2, it turned out that the perception of team reflection of the manager is very different from that of the team (members). Because of this, I wanted to make sure in Chapter 3 that the main behavior under scrutiny was measured correctly and therefore decided on observing the actual behavior myself (with help from research assistants). In Chapter 4, I found that the distinction between promotive and prohibitive voice was not as clear to respondents as it was to me. And in chapter 5 I found that the perceptions of both the leader and the employee matter when it comes to employee proactivity. In short: I would make a plea for collecting multisource data, not only because of its advantages in terms of avoiding common source bias, but also because it simply gives more insights.

Secondly, and related to my recommendations for future research, I would recommend more team research to be carried out in the field of proactivity research. Team or group structures are prevalent in contemporary organizations. That is why I have taken all nestedness (employee in their work units, or experiences within the employee) into account when analyzing my

data, even when that nestedness was not necessarily key to my research question (for example, see chapter 5). As employees work together closely they influence one another in their interaction, and this shapes perceptions, attitudes and even behaviors. I recommend multilevel analyses, to take into account the aforementioned nestedness of data, and to help researchers think and theorize across levels ((intra)individual-team-organization) to come to new insights.

Finally, I would always recommend researchers not to stick to one best way of doing research. Looking at a phenomenon with different instruments (vignettes, experiments, surveys, interviews, etc.) increases our understanding of it. Specifically when it comes to proactive behavior in organizations, we tend to rely heavily on survey research and quantitative analyses. I would therefore suggest that in order to learn more about causality, we need more studies such as the work by Wolsink (2017) that apply experimental designs. Furthermore, as a through and through quantitative researcher, I would argue for the value of qualitative research for our field of research. Almost every employee that I have spoken with has complex experiences with proactivity at work, that can never be captured using surveys. Specifically how proactivity shapes and is shaped by employees interacting at work, would benefit from a more detailed and thorough qualitative research approach. In conclusion, my final recommendation would therefore be for proactivity scholars to diversify their research methods, in order to learn more.

Conclusion

Can employees work together to be proactive, and work together proactively?

This is the question I set out to investigate as I started my dissertation. Based on the discussion of the sub-questions above, I would say the answer is: Yes, employees can work together to be proactive and work together proactively. Based on Chapters 2 and 5, I would argue that employees can work together to be proactive. As teams make use of the pool of expertise, experiences and capabilities by discussing the task at hand from all different viewpoints in their group, they take the first step to proactively performing together. However, there is more to it than simply putting employees together and waiting for proactivity to happen. The same goes for managers who want to lead their employees to proactivity. Certain routines (e.g., team reflection), climates (e.g., voice climate) and relationships (e.g., LMX) need to be in place for employees to be proactive together.

Furthermore, as employees work together proactively, they impact each other beyond the change they wanted to achieve by being proactive. Employee proactivity is behavior that has a strong social component, as employees are confronted with each other's proactive efforts and have affective reactions to proactivity at work. However, many of these consequences are positive and could benefit the organization beyond being more adaptive to their ever changing environment. I have shown here that when employees are proactive in a relational work design, the effects are likely to go beyond what was intended. More research is needed to uncover the full effects of proactivity at work.

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English Summary

With this dissertation, I aim to contribute to research on proactive behavior in organizations by investigating proactive behavior in relational work settings (i.e. work contexts where individuals work together to achieve a common goal). The demand for employee proactivity as well as the prevalence of relational work designs – employees working together closely and interdependently – are two concurrent developments in contemporary organizations (Grant & Parker, 2009). On the one hand, employees are asked to be proactive: to show self-started behaviors that are aimed at improving the work situation with a long term focus (Crant, 2000). On the other hand, the rise of team work has employees working closely together in teams, work groups or projects, with the aim of making optimal use of the knowledge, skills and abilities available in the organization (Mathieu et al., 2008). However, these two developments together mean that employees are asked to proactively shape not only their personal work situation, but also that of their peers. With this dissertation I set out to explore the consequences of these two co-occurring developments. The question that is central to this dissertation is: Can employees work together to be proactive, and work together proactively?

Chapter 1 details the state of the art of proactivity research that inspired this dissertation. In this review, I identify four important avenues for future research. First, even though many organizations nowadays organize their work in teams (Grant & Parker, 2009; Harris & Kirkman, 2016; Mathieu et al., 2008), the research on proactivity in this context is limited. What is still missing in existing research, is a focus on the way team members interact in teams, in relation to employee proactivity. This presents a caveat as interaction within the team is what should make teams more productive compared to employees working separately. As teams discuss their different viewpoints, they make better decisions and they should perform better. Whether they also become more proactive in the process is another question.

Furthermore, employee proactivity may have interpersonal consequences that have not previously been considered. Affective events theory (Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996) describes that employees could potentially have positive and reactions to coworker's proactivity. On the one hand, proactive employees endeavor to improve the work situation (yielding positive reaction). On the other hand, they also impact the work situation of their coworkers in the process, and not necessarily in a way coworkers prefer (thus yielding negative reactions). However, proactivity research to date has focused mainly on the consequences of proactivity for the employee themselves, rather than their coworkers..

Chapter 2 presents the first of four empirical studies in this dissertation, based on the first part of the research question: Can employees work together to be proactive? In this Chapter, I aim to assess to what extent a team's discussion of the task and subsequent team reflection could help team proactivity. Teams currently operating in organizations in the Netherlands were asked to participate in an online survey in order to test the hypotheses of Chapter 2. In total, 129 teams and their manager contributed to the study. The results showed that both at the individual and the team level, perceptions of task conflict (discussion of the task) was related to team reflection, and that team reflection in turn was related to both team performance and team proactivity. This chapter showed that when team members discuss the task at hand and subsequently reflect on their work, they can be more proactive together.

Team proactivity is defined as the extent to which a group of employees is able to proactively shape their work together (Harris & Kirkman, 2016; Karoline Strauss et al., 2009). Although some team characteristics (e.g. team composition and climate) have been researched in relation to team proactivity, there has been little attention for the perception of interaction between team members in the team. However, in the team literature the notion that team members benefit from interaction by discussion their different views of the task is considered a given (De Wit et al., 2012). I therefore expected and found that team task conflict is positively related to team proactivity.

Chapter 3 moves on to look more closely at proactive behavior in the team as it occurs, and how team members feel afterwards. In order to explore the affective effects of employee proactivity in teams, Chapter 3 presents observations of employee proactivity in the work meetings of 36 teams and the affective reactions in the team. The results show that although employee proactivity tends to yield positive reactions, in terms of affect – positive emotional states- of the proactive individual and the team as a whole, there are some negative effects as well. When employees are targeted (directly addressed and influenced by the proposed change) by another employee's idea for change, the extent to which the team climate is favorable for employee proactivity determines whether the targeted employee's reaction is positive or negative. Furthermore, when a subgroup in the team is disproportionally vocal or silent in the meeting, the collective reactions are more negative.

Scholars of proactivity in teams note that the proactive behavior taking place in teams could explain how team situational characteristics such as composition influence team outcomes (Harris & Kirkman, 2016). Furthermore, proactive behavior in the team could have affective reactions for both the proactive employee and their coworkers. For example, if one employee decides a work method needs to be improved, this requires the rest of the team to also make changes. As proactive employees shape the team's work based on their expertise and preferences, they should be more satisfied with the work situation making their proactivity a positive event for themselves. However, for coworkers, employee proactivity could be a negative event as they may feel restricted by ideas, suggestions and comments proactively shared, as those ideas impact their work situation (Bolino et al., 2016). Chapter 3 utilizes an innovative research design for this field (behavioral observation) to learn more about the second part of the research question: can employees work together proactively?

Chapter 4 combines two empirical study designs to further investigate the reactions to proactivity perceived by coworkers. In order to increase our understanding of the perceptions of voice behaviors –

proactively sharing ideas for improvement - of voice targets (the coworkers affected), the first study involves a vignette study to compare reactions to promotive voice behavior to reactions to prohibitive voice behavior. Although both are positive in their intent, one (promotive voice) aims to promote a desired future state, while the other (prohibitive voice) aims to prohibit a negative future state (Liang et al., 2012). I expected promotive voice to yield positive affective reactions from targeted employees because it is positively formulated. Because prohibitive voice is positively intended, but formulated negatively, I expected the affective reactions to prohibitive voice to be twofold; positive and negative. Participants in this vignette study responded to a described situation in which a coworker showed either promotive, prohibitive, or no voice. We found that there was no clear effect for prohibitive voice and a clearly positive effect of promotive voice as compared to no voice. In short, employees felt better after their coworker had voiced to them in a promotive way. Finally, there were some differences in responses when targeted employees are more extraverted or more neurotic (both had more positive reactions to voice).

In order to substantiate these findings, Chapter 4 presents an experience sampling study, in which employees reported on a daily basis for one week when they perceived voice from their coworkers and how they felt about what was voiced. In this second study, it was hypothesized that extraverted employees, because they have a preference for direct oral communication (Cropanzano & Dasborough, 2015; Gray, 1970), would react more positively than the average employee to promotive voice. Furthermore, we expected that more neurotic employees would also react more positively to promotive voice, due to their preference for direction from others (Judge et al., 2002; Rusting & Larsen, 1997). The results support the expectation that certain employees experience less negative affect after their coworker's voice. Specifically, more neurotic employees as well as more extraverted employees were found to experience less negative affect when targeted with promotive voice compared to when they are not targeted with promotive voice. We again found no effects for prohibitive voice (in terms of affective reactions), signaling that this type of voice behavior is not clearly

positively or negatively perceived by the target. These results support that voice is a positive affective event for employees who are targeted by it, but the affective reactions differ for different employees as well as for different types of voice behavior.

Finally, in Chapter 5, the focus is on how employee and manager efficacy relate together to employee proactivity. Specifically, the extent to which both the manager feels efficacious in their leading role and the employee shows RBSE, or not, and how this influences employee voice behavior. Previous research has shown that manager efficacy – how secure managers feel in their role as leader - plays a role in the extent to which employees feel that they should voice, given that manager efficacy determines the chances of a positive reaction of the manager to employee voice (Fast et al., 2014). Furthermore, research has shown that employees need role breadth self-efficacy in order to feel that they can succeed, which makes it worth it to take the risk of showing voice behavior as they feel they are able to make a contribution (Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker, 1998). In this study, we move one step further by looking at the combination of manager and employee efficacy rather than the efficacy of employees and managers separately.

In order to do so, paired employees and managers of Dutch organizations filled out online surveys on their level of efficacy and on the voice behavior of the employee. With polynomial regression analysis and subsequent surface plot analysis, a detailed picture of different configurations of managers and employees was obtained. The results showed that a match between employee and manager efficacy levels predicts higher levels of voice behavior better than a mismatch (an efficacious employee with an insecure manager or the other way around). A match always predicts more voice, even when both the leader and the employee experience low levels of self-efficacy voice is higher than when one of them is highly efficacious and the other is not. Our findings also show that employee efficacy plays a larger role in voice behavior of the employee, such that it represents a prerequisite of voice behavior. When the manager's

level of efficacy matches that of the employee, predicted levels of voice increase further. Finally, additional analyses showed that this specifically applies to situations in which managers and employees do not have a strong relationship. These results show the significance of manager and employee interaction at work in stimulating proactive behavior.

The final Chapter outlines how the previous chapters relate to and advance the current literature on proactivity and relational work settings. First of all, two of the studies described above (Chapters 2 and 3) contribute to the literature on proactivity in teams by shedding light on the way team members interact (discussing the task, reflecting on past work, or proactively sharing ideas) in relation to team outcomes. However, they also point to possible negative (affective) side effects of proactivity (Bolino et al., 2016), and question whether proactivity really precedes team performance by suggesting that proactivity may be an outcome by itself next to task performance. Chapters 3 and 4 extend the knowledge on affect in relation to proactivity at work by showing that there might be long term proactive affective cycles occurring in organizations, where the affective reactions to proactivity act as antecedent to more proactivity (see also the research on how affect inspires proactive behavior, e.g., Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Wolsink, 2017). The mostly positive affective consequences of proactivity in a relational work setting provide another rationale for organizations to aim for a climate conducive to proactivity. As employees become more proactive, not only should organizational functioning improve, but the positive reactions of others may improve the organization at another level as well. This provides a starting point for research on why organizations as a whole should become more proactive. Chapter 5 brings an interactive perspective to the literature on leadership in relation to employee proactivity, which has so far mainly focused on leadership styles rather than the fit between leader and follower (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2016). Chapter 6 goes on to describe avenues for future research, the methodological contributions of the 5 research designs, and provides recommendations for practice based on the presented results.

In conclusion, the answer to the first part of the previously stated research question is: yes; employees can work together to be proactive, provided that they make use of their differing views and reflect structurally about their ways of working. The answer to the second part also is a yes: employees can work together proactively, with other employees as well as with their manager, as long as there is a right fit in efficacy (both manager and employee are confident of their roles) and/or personality with behavior (voice targeted at neurotic/extraverted employees). This dissertation has aimed to broaden the perspective on proactive behavior in organizations by taking into account aspects of relational work designs. Although there is more to it than simply putting employees together and waiting for the magic to happen, this dissertation clearly shows that the relational aspects of work can help employees, teams and organizations to be more proactive. People interact with each other and it is through this interaction and due to individual differences or synchrony between these people, that proactivity may wither or thrive.

Nederlandse samenvatting

Dit proefschrift gaat over proactiviteit op de werkvloer. Proactiviteit, het op eigen initiatief proberen de werksituatie te verbeteren, is een veelgevraagde kwaliteit in vacatures. Dat is niet gek, want proactieve werknemers helpen organisaties om te gaan met een omgeving die steeds sneller verandert. Tegelijkertijd heeft er een andere ontwikkeling plaatsgevonden: medewerkers werken steeds vaker nauw met elkaar samen. De afstand tussen manager en medewerker verkleint, veel werk is georganiseerd in (project)teams en de autonomie op de werkvloer neemt toe. Dit betekent ook dat wanneer werknemers proactief de werksituatie veranderen, zij daarmee ook de werksituatie van anderen waarmee zijn samenwerken beïnvloeden. In het onderzoek naar proactiviteit is tot dusver over deze sociale complexiteit weinig onderzoek te vinden. De hoofdvraag van dit proefschrift is daarom: Kunnen werknemers samen proactief zijn, en kunnen ze proactief samenwerken?

Ik heb dit onderzocht door met vijf verschillende onderzoeks-ontwerpen en –analyses naar de proactieve interacties van werknemers te kijken. Allereerst heb ik met vragenlijsten in teams gekeken naar wat er besproken wordt, hoeveel teamleden discussiëren over hun perspectieven op taken en in hoeverre ze reflecteren op genomen beslissingen en werkmethodes. De managers van die teams hebben vervolgens beoordeeld hoe proactief zij het team vonden. In deze eerste studie vond ik dat teams die gebruik maken van de verschillende perspectieven die aanwezig zijn in het team meer structureel reflecteren en dat die reflectie specifiek gerelateerd is aan proactiviteit van het hele team. Werknemers kunnen dus samen proactief zijn.

Het tweede onderzoek draaide om de interactie van werknemers in teams tijdens vergaderingen. Om meer te weten te komen over de reacties van teamgenoten op proactiviteit in het team, ben ik proactief gedrag gaan observeren in vergaderingen. De teams vulden ook vragenlijsten in, waarin

zij voor- en achteraf aangaven hoe ze zich voelden. We weten uit voorgaand onderzoek dat dit soort gevoelens effect hebben op gedrag en attitudes van werknemers. Hier vond ik dat mensen die zelf proactief waren, zich beter voelden na de vergadering en dat teams zich gemiddeld ook beter voelden naarmate er meer proactiviteit in de vergadering was voorgekomen. Als proactiviteit direct gericht was op een specifiek persoon (een idee voor verbetering dat een specifiek persoon vraagt haar/zijn werk aan te passen), dan voelde deze persoon zich na afloop alleen beter als een positief klimaat in het team heerst. Verder vond ik dat als proactiviteit scheef verdeeld is in het team (een subgroep is relatief heel proactief of juist passief), het hele team gemiddeld een negatieve reactie heeft. Proactiviteit lokt dus emotionele reacties van anderen uit, welke overwegend positief zijn.

In het derde onderzoek heb ik Nederlandse werknemers gevraagd zich in te leven in een werk situatie waarbij iemand proactief is, en vervolgens hun gevoelens te beschrijven in een vragenlijst. Hiermee wilde ik in kaart brengen of de emotionele reacties van teamgenoten afhankelijk zijn van de manier waarop collega's proactiviteit formuleren. De deelnemers kregen een tekst te lezen waarin een collega proactief of niet proactief was, een proactief idee positief formuleerde of negatief formuleerde. Ik vond dat positief geformuleerde proactiviteit positieve gevoelens opriep en negatief geformuleerde proactiviteit geen effect had op gevoelens/emoties, vergeleken met de situatie waarin geen proactiviteit was. In het vierde onderzoek heb ik dit nogmaals getest, maar dan door werknemers een week lang iedere dag te vragen of hun collega's proactief waren en hoe zij zich daarbij voelden. Daar vond ik dezelfde resultaten als in het vorige onderzoek, met de toevoeging dat zowel extraverte mensen als neurotische mensen meer positieve gevoelens/emoties ervoeren/rapporteerden dan mensen die laag scoren op deze persoonlijkheidskenmerken. Dit komt waarschijnlijk omdat extraverte werknemers van directe open communicatie houden en neurotische medewerkers graag richting krijgen van anderen. Werknemers kunnen dus proactief samenwerken, want hoewel sommige werknemers proactiviteit van collega's prettiger vinden dan anderen, en het uitmaakt hoe proactieve boodschappen geformuleerd worden zijn de

affectieve reacties op proactiviteit van collega's in de meeste gevallen positief.

Ten slotte heb ik in de laatste studie gekeken naar de interactie tussen manager en werknemer. Voorgaand onderzoek heeft al aangetoond dat zelfverzekerdheid van zowel de manager als de werknemer positief gerelateerd is aan proactiviteit van de werknemer. Ik heb specifiek gekeken hoe overeenstemming of verschil in zelfverzekerheid van manager en werknemer proactiviteit beïnvloedt. In dit onderzoek was ik geïnteresseerd naar wat er gebeurt als één van de twee meer zelfverzekerd (voor managers over hun rol als leider en voor medewerkers over de mate waarin zijn proactief kunnen zijn) is dan de ander. Door middel van vragenlijsten heb ik naar setjes van werknemers en managers gekeken, om te zien welke combinaties het meest succesvol zijn in het bevorderen van proactiviteit van de werknemer. De resultaten laten zien dat de meest proactieve medewerkers zelfverzekerd zijn en werken met een zelfverzekerde manager. De zelfverzekerdheid van de werknemer is echter wel het meest belangrijk: de zelfverzekerdheid van de manager kan hier slechts iets toe voegen. Ik vond ook dat deze resultaten vooral gelden als manager en werknemer een kwalitatief slechte relatie met elkaar hebben. Deze laatste resultaten bevestigen mijn eerdere antwoord op de vraag of werknemers samen proactief kunnen zijn: voor de proactiviteit van de werknemer is de interactie met de manager heel belangrijk.

Dit proefschrift had als doel om de literatuur rond proactiviteit op de werkvloer aan te vullen door samenwerking tussen mensen beter op te nemen in het bestaande onderzoek. De resultaten zijn veelal positief: werknemers kunnen zeker samen proactief zijn en proactief samenwerken. Het is alleen niet voldoende om medewerkers simpelweg in team verband te laten werken en passief te gaan zitten wachten op proactiviteit.

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the end turns out to not be most efficient, I know you have my back. Thank you, for teaching me that weird is cool and freedom is everything.

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A

"If you think for one second no one knows what you've been going through; be accepting of the fact that you are wrong."

- Shane Koyczan, Instructions for a bad day (spoken word poem)

This dissertation aims to explore proactive behavior in organizations in relational work settings (i.e. team work). On the one hand, employees are asked to be proactive: to show self-started behaviors that are aimed at improving the work situation with a long term focus. On the other hand, the rise of team work has employees working closely together in teams, work groups or projects, with the aim of making optimal use of the knowledge, skills and abilities available in the organization. These two developments together mean that employees are asked to proactively shape not only their personal work situation, but also that of their peers. With this dissertation I set out to explore the consequences of these two co-occurring developments, exploring team proactivity, proactive interaction between coworkers, and leader-member interactions in relation to proactivity.

The results of the research in this dissertation shows that employees can work together to be proactive, provided that they make use of their differing views and reflect structurally about their ways of working. Furthermore, employees can work together proactively, with other employees as well as with their manager. As long as there is a right fit in efficacy (both manager and employee are confident of their roles) and/or personality with behavior (voice targeted at neurotic/extraverted employees). There is more to it than simply putting employees together and waiting for the magic to happen. Through interaction at work and due to individual differences or synchronicity between people, proactivity may wither or thrive.