

Predicting Employee Voice Behavior: An Exploration of the Roles of Empowering
Leadership, Power Distance, Organizational Learning Capability, and Sense of
Empowerment in Korean Organizations

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Sitak Yoon and Sung Ok Kim,
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ABSTRACT

Organizations increasingly need people who openly express their new ideas and make valuable suggestions for change in order to proactively respond to the challenges of a dynamic business environment. Accordingly, an important question to answer in developing a better understanding of employee voice is what motivates and influences employees to speak up. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the antecedents and processes influencing employee voice behavior. Specifically, this study sought to investigate whether organizational learning capability and power distance orientation moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice behavior, and further examined the effects of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability on voice behavior, as mediated by psychological empowerment.

A correlational design was used to collect and analyze survey data. Data were collected from a cross-sectional sample of 403 Korean employees of for-profit organizations in South Korea. Hypotheses were tested by utilizing multiple moderated regression analyses and structural equation modeling. A series of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test the construct validity of the measurements. The findings of this study indicated that empowering leadership and organizational learning capability positively predicted voice behavior, and power distance orientation negatively predicted voice behavior. Also, both power distance orientation and organizational learning capability moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. Furthermore, psychological empowerment partially mediated the influence of empowering leadership on voice behavior, whereas it fully mediated the influence of

organizational learning capability on voice behavior. This study sought to contribute to the body of knowledge on empowering leadership, power distance, organizational learning, and employee voice behavior by uniquely integrating four developed streams of research that have not been connected previously. The findings of this study can provide the conceptual basis for interventions that are designed to promote voice behavior in organizations. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed, along with limitations of the study and directions for future research.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Employee voice is a topic of recognized importance in organizational scholarship. A dynamic term with extensive breadth in definitions, employee voice has received research attention from a variety of perspectives (Budd, Gollan, & Wilkinson, 2010; Wilkinson, Dundon, Marchington, & Ackers, 2004; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). According to Albert Hirschman's (1970) seminal work *Exit, voice, and loyalty*, voice is defined as any attempt to change rather than to escape from an unsatisfactory state. In an employment context, voice is an expression of dissatisfaction by employees and an attempt to change a problematic situation, whereas exist refers to leaving the problematic situation (Spencer, 1986). Because voice generally involves speaking about problematic situations, employee voice is often discussed along with unions as collective voice in the field of industrial and labor relations (Batt, Colvin, & Keefe, 2002).

Meanwhile, voice can mean the participation of employees in the decision-making processes of the organization (McCabe & Lewin, 1992). Budd (2004) views voice as "the ability to have *meaningful* input decisions" emphasizing that voice is one of the objectives of "employment relationship with a human face" (p. 23). Although voice has been conceptualized and interpreted in various ways, the fundamental idea underlying the perspectives on voice is based on a worker's right "to participate actively in all aspects of work life, through both formal and informal means" (Hodson, 2001, p. 237).

In recent years, employee voice has been viewed as a form of extra-role behavior or contextual performance (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Contextual performance refers to outcomes of behaviors that "contribute to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape

the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100). Accordingly, organizational researchers began to pay attention to the role of voice in a more positive way as a key construct with potential to enhance the context or environment in which organizational goals are achieved. Van Dyne and LePine (1998) define voice as “promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize” (p. 109). On the basis of this conceptualization, they also developed a scale to measure voice behavior. A great deal of subsequent research adopting this perspective has empirically examined the phenomenon of employee voice within organizations.

This study focuses on voice as employee behavior that proactively challenges the status quo and makes positive changes. Given that dynamic environments do not allow organizations to anticipate and identify all desired employee behaviors, extra-role behavior that is not explicitly prescribed in role requirements is crucial. Particularly, employees’ ideas and thoughts for constructive change are becoming more critical for organizations in today’s challenging and dynamic business environment, which relies on innovation and creativity. Organizations increasingly need people who openly express their new ideas and make valuable suggestions for change in order to proactively respond to the challenges of the environment (Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bourantas, 2008). Avery, Mckay, Wilson, Volpone, and Killham (2011) noted that “providing the opportunity for employees to express their views and concerns (i.e., voice opportunity) leads to more favorable workplace outcomes” (p. 147). Furthermore, employees’ choice of whether to

voice or remain silent when they have potentially crucial issues to convey can have significant implications for organizational performance (Morrison, 2011).

Despite the importance of employee voice in the workplace, it seems to be inadequately provided by employees, who tend to perceive the risks of speaking up to be greater than the benefits (Detert & Burris, 2007). In the same vein, it is important to explore who speaks up with valuable and constructive ideas in the workplace and identify the conditions that facilitate such behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007). With an emphasis on voice behavior as behavior that proactively challenges the status quo and makes constructive changes (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), this study addresses this important issue by developing and testing a conceptual model that identifies individual and contextual antecedents to employee voice behavior and explores the motivation underlying voice behavior.

Statement of the Problem

The existing literature on employee voice leaves several important questions unanswered. First, leadership is a critical factor enabling employees to voice their opinions. Previous studies emphasize the important role of leaders in encouraging employees to voice their thoughts (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, & Roth, 1992). In particular, employee voice is closely related to the concept of empowering leadership in that participatory systems allow employees to use their voices to make a difference in their work environment (Spreitzer, 2007). Yet, there is little research that examines the possible link between empowering leader behaviors and employee voice. The influence of employees' perceptions of their supervisors' empowering behaviors on the likelihood that employees will speak up is an

important hitherto unexamined research area. Moreover, the underlying psychological mechanisms behind leaders' empowering behaviors that may affect employee voice are as yet unexplored.

Second, previous research on employee voice has focused on individual-oriented antecedents such as personality (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998, 2001) rather than contextual ones. In particular, the conditions under which the positive association between contextual factors and employee voice is strengthened or weakened are mostly unknown. In this regard, this study examines the influence of organizational learning capability on employee voice. Organizational learning capability refers to organizational characteristics facilitating the organizational learning, including promoting experimentation, creating a climate of openness, and supporting employees who attempt to implement new ideas (Chiva, Alegre, & Lapiedra, 2007). These characteristics enable employees to experiment, risk making mistakes, and speak up when generating ideas. Despite the potential importance of organizational learning capability, research on the relationship between this construct and employee voice has been limited. Consequently, the role of organizational learning capability as a critical moderator in the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behaviors also remains unclear.

Lastly, relationships between leadership behaviors and employee behaviors are contingent on culture-related characteristics (Herrenkohl, Judson, & Heffner, 1999). Individuals' cultural value orientation (i.e., cultural values measured at the individual level) can vary within cultures (Hofstede, 1980). Individual-level cultural values have received increasing attention from scholars as a potentially significant predictor of employee behaviors, and an accumulating body of research has investigated how

individually held cultural value orientations moderate the impact of leader behaviors on employee outcomes. Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, and Lowe (2009) emphasized the importance of understanding how individually held cultural value orientations affect reactions to leadership as well as how various leadership behaviors interact with followers' cultural value orientations to influence follower affective, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes. Yet, little is known about the influences of cultural value orientations on voice behavior.

This study particularly considers individual power distance orientation using a sample from a South Korean cultural context. Power distance is defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 98). Thus, power distance is described on the basis of the value system of less powerful members (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). The exploration of the moderating role of power distance was particularly meaningful especially because this study was conducted in a South Korean context. South Korea is typically known as a high power distance society. Powerlessness in Korean organizations seems to be endemic, with only a few at the top of the organizational hierarchy exercising the power that tends to belong to them, and thus, employees may be reluctant to voice their thoughts within organizations in such a context (Edmondson, 1999; Liu et al., 2010). Participation is often limited to an one-way channel through which employees may speak but rarely receive responses.

However, simultaneously, the younger generations in South Korea tend to have more negative perceptions of the traditional notion of power than their older counterparts. Today younger generations seem to enthusiastically engage in sharing their thoughts

concerning a broad range of issues through social media channels (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Qualman, 2009) and enter the workforce with a different set of work values and positive characteristics such as high self-esteem and willingness to take risks (Erickson, 2008; Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). Accordingly, within-country variation in power distance might be also large. This assumption suggests that individual differences in cultural value of power distance can meaningfully affect empowering leadership processes at the individual level of analysis. In recent years, individual cultural orientation of power distance has received much attention in the literature (e.g., Chao, Cheung, & Wu, 2011; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2011). Several studies found that power distance orientation moderated the relationship between leadership and followers' behaviors in various cultural contexts including the United States and China (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Kirkman et al., 2009). Yet, the current study is one of the first to investigate the moderating role of power distance between empowering leadership and employee voice in the context of South Korea.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The primary goal of this study is to examine the antecedents of employee voice behavior in organizations. Specifically, this study aims to investigate whether organizational learning capability and power distance orientation moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice behavior. In addition, this study seeks to examine the effects of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability on voice behavior, as mediated by psychological empowerment. This study explores the processes influencing employee voice behavior through the investigation of the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice?
2. Is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice influenced by power distance orientation?
3. Is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice influenced by organizational learning capability?
4. What is the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee voice?
5. Is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice mediated by psychological empowerment?
6. Is the relationship between organizational learning capability and employee voice mediated by psychological empowerment?

Significance of the Study

This study is linked to existing research and further attempts to extend the literature on employee voice. It aims to investigate the effect of empowering leadership on voice behavior. Empowerment helps in learning how to take initiative and responding proactively to challenges. This study proposes that empowering leadership is one approach to allow employees to speak up. In building a model linking empowering leadership and voice behavior, this study further draws on the concept of psychological empowerment to propose a mediating mechanism with the potential to explain the positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice. Psychological empowerment refers to a set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel in control with regard to their work (Spreitzer, 1995). Furthermore, this study tests a model in which psychological empowerment is hypothesized to mediate the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior. Previous research has

examined the impact of the organizational context on employee voice (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). However, no research has examined the extent to which organizational learning capability functions through psychological empowerment to ultimately contribute to employee voice behavior.

In addition, this study seeks to examine two potentially critical moderators in the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior: power distance orientation and organizational learning capability. Power distance orientation deals with individuals' beliefs about power and status within organizations. Organizational factors that facilitate learning such as openness and experimentation enable employees to perceive the value of voice and eventually encourage employees to speak up. However, not all employees work in environments where they are encouraged to voice their new ideas and constructive suggestions. The current study examines whether the empowering leadership-employee voice relationship depends on individual differences in power distance orientation in order to capture variation at the individual level of analysis, and also examines the influence of important situational factors of organizational learning capability hypothesized to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice. To date, there has been no empirical research investigating whether individual power distance orientation and organizational learning capability moderate the relationship between leadership and employee voice behavior. Accordingly, this study extends prior research on employee voice by considering individual cultural value orientation of power distance and organizational learning capability as predictors of voice and moderators of the relationship between empowering leadership and voice.

The field of human resource development (HRD) is deeply concerned with the issues of unleashing human potential, promoting lifelong learning and development, and organizational change and effectiveness (Swanson & Holton, 2009). Empowerment is a priority for organizations to optimize human potential and is a key driver of organizational effectiveness (Kanter, 1977; Thorlakson & Murray, 1996). Furthermore, the key role of leaders has shifted from “leadership as control to leadership as a source of motivation and employee development” (Hakimi, van Knippenberg, & Giessner, 2010, p. 701).

In addition, the topic of how empowering leadership can unleash human potential is an essential area for exploration in HRD. This study takes a significant step toward developing a greater understanding of employee voice in the workplace. It is the first known attempt to uncover the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice and the role of individual cultural value orientation and learning capability within that relationship. From a practical perspective, this study will provide an insight into the ways in which empowering leadership can be used to enhance employee voice. In doing so, this study can help identify effective ways in which HRD professionals can promote employee voice.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following terms and definitions will be used in this study. A brief description of each term is provided below, with extended review included in subsequent chapters.

Voice Behavior

Building on the theory developed by Van Dyne and colleagues (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), this study focuses on

voice behavior defined as “promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize” (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109). Van Dyne and LePine stated that “voice is making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree” (p. 109).

Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership is defined as “behaviors whereby power is shared with subordinates and that raise their level of intrinsic motivation” (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006, p. 1240). Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005) identified four dimensions of empowering leader behaviors: enhancing the meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints.

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment refers to a set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel a sense of control in relation to their work (Spreitzer, 1995). According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), empowerment is defined as “intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual’s orientation to his or her work role: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1443). Specifically, *meaning* concerns a sense of feeling that one’s work is personally important. *Competence* refers to self-efficacy, or belief in one’s ability to successfully perform tasks. *Self-determination* indicates perceptions of freedom to choose how to initiate and carry out tasks. *Impact* represents the degree to which one views one’s behaviors as making a difference in work outcomes.

Organizational Learning Capability

Organizational learning capability is defined as “the organizational and managerial characteristics or factors that facilitate the organizational learning process or allow an organization to learn” (Chiva & Alegre, 2007, p. 682). Chiva et al. (2007) identified five underlying dimensions of organizational learning capability: experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making.

Power Distance Orientation

Power distance is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2001). To differentiate between power distance at the country and individual levels of analysis, Kirkman et al. (2009) coined the term *power distance orientation* to identify an individual-level construct. In this study, accordingly, power distance orientation means individually held cultural value of power distance.

Overview of Remaining Chapters

Employee voice is defined as “promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize” (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109). Employees’ ideas for constructive change are becoming more critical for organizations in a dynamic business environment. Organizations increasingly need people who openly express their new ideas and make valuable suggestions for change in order to proactively respond to the challenges of the environment. Accordingly, an important question to answer in developing a better understanding of employee voice is what motivates and influences employees to speak up. This study seeks to answer this

question examining how empowering leadership influences employee voice behavior. Moreover, this study investigates how individual cultural values and contextual factors influence this process by identifying power distance orientation and organizational learning capability as moderator variables in this relationship.

Following this introduction, Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive review of the relevant literature on the constructs used in this study. Additionally, this chapter will more explicitly draw together previously outlined evidence to build an argument for specific hypotheses. Chapter 3 provides an explanation of the procedures and methods used in this study and Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter and also provides theoretical and practical implications of the findings, limitations, and future research directions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of research and theory related to this study. The first section of the chapter reviews the theoretical perspectives on employee voice and presents factors affecting employee voice. The second section outlines two different perspectives on empowerment and the existing literature on empowering leadership. A discussion on the literature on power distance and organizational learning capability follows. The literature review concludes with a theoretical framework and the formulated hypotheses for this study.

Employee Voice

Employee voice has been conceptualized in a variety of ways (Budd, 2004; Budd et al., 2010). Although various perspectives on voice have existed across disciplines, Albert Hirschman's (1970) model of exit-voice is the most influential classic theory on the dynamics of employee voice. In his seminal work *Exit, voice, and loyalty*, Hirschman defined voice as follows:

Voice is here defined as any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs, whether through individual or collective petition to the management directly in charge, through appeal to a higher authority with the intention of forcing a change in management, or through various types of actions and protests, including those that are meant to mobilize public opinion. (p. 30)

Hirschman (1970) proposed that employees respond to work-related problems in one of two ways: *exit* or *voice*. Exit arises when employees terminate their employment

relationship and leave the organization. Hirschman further argued that the exit/voice decision is mediated by the degree of employee loyalty to the organization. That is, more loyal employees are more likely to voice and less likely to exit when they were dissatisfied. Hirschman's model influenced considerable research on employee voice. Building on Hirschman's framework, many studies have examined the voice mechanisms (e.g., Freeman & Medoff, 1984; Spencer, 1986; Withey & Cooper, 1989).

Several scholars subsequently provided more specific definitions. McCabe and Lewin (1992) viewed voice as two components: a) the expression of complaints or grievances in a work context by employees to management and b) the participation of employees in the decision-making processes of the organization. Detert and Burris (2007) defined voice as "the discretionary provision of information intended to improve organizational functioning to someone inside an organization with the perceived authority to act, even though such information may challenge and upset the status quo of the organization and its power holders" (p. 869). Taken together, employee voice has been conceptualized and interpreted in various ways; however, the fundamental idea underlying the perspectives on voice is based on a worker's right to contribute to and participate in the decision-making process either directly or indirectly (Hodson, 2001).

More recently, organizational researchers have begun to view employee voice in a more positive way as a form of extra-role behavior such that it has the potential to "contribute to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100). Employee voice as an informal process is accompanied by speaking up and may involve "championing ideas, providing

constructive feedback, engagement with management in meaningful ways, taking charge, issue selling, and making constructive suggestions-all of which result in having an authentic say about organizational practices” (Kassing, 2011, p. 44). From this perspective, voice is defined as “promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize” (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109). Based on this conceptualization, Van Dyne and LePine also developed a measurement scale and validated voice behavior empirically. Numerous subsequent studies adopting this perspective have examined the role of voice in the organization in recent years. In the following section, employee voice as a type of extra-role behavior is discussed along with the main theories and research on employee voice.

Voice as a Type of Extra-Role Behavior

Employee voice as a facet of extra-role behavior has generated recent attention from organizational researchers (Van Dyne et al., 1995; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Although the primary focus of this study is on employee voice, a thorough understanding of this concept may require an examination of definitions and different types of extra-role behavior. According to Van Dyne et al. (1995), extra-role behavior is defined as “behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations” (p. 218), whereas in-role behavior is defined as “behavior which is required or expected as part of performing the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role” (p. 222). Because in-role behavior is required behavior for job performance, failing to perform in-role behavior may result in fewer organizational rewards and negative financial consequences (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In contrast, extra-role behavior is “not specified in advance by

role prescriptions, not recognized by formal reward systems, and not a source of punitive consequences when not performed by job incumbents” (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 108). In particular, Van Dyne et al. (1995) emphasized the importance of extra-role behavior when it comes to benefiting the organization from the organization’s perspective.

Van Dyne et al. (1995) also proposed a typology of extra-role behaviors based on two underlying dimensions that contrasted *affiliative* and *challenging* behavior as well as *promotive* and *prohibitive* behavior. One dimension is *affiliative-challenging*. This continuum indicates whether the behavior would promote cooperation and strengthen relationships (*affiliative*), or focus on constructive challenges for change (*challenging*). The other dimension is *promotive-prohibitive*. This typology represents whether the behavior is expected to encourage something to occur (*promotive*) or prohibit something (*prohibitive*). Thus, based on these two dimensions, consequently, four types of extra-role behaviors can be generated: (a) *affiliative-promotive*, (b) *affiliative-protective*, (c) *challenging-protective*, (d) *challenging-promotive*. Table 1 presents the key characteristics of these four types of extra-role behaviors adapted from Van Dyne et al.

The first type of extra-role behavior is *affiliative-promotive* behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Most of work on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been included in this category. These types of behavior do not intend to change or criticize the situation or damage the relationship. Focusing on the present, they promote interpersonal harmony and benefit the organization by enhancing efficiency or leveling workloads.

The second type, *affiliative-protective* behavior includes stewardship behavior oriented towards stopping actions which could be harmful. This behavior is based on

unequal power relationships. Thus, the more powerful individual protects the less powerful or disadvantaged member by preventing unfair treatment or injustice.

The third type of extra-role behavior is *challenging-protective* behavior which includes whistle-blowing and principled organizational dissent. This behavior criticizes the situation or others' inappropriate and unethical past behavior based on legal, moral, or ethical standards. The focus of this behavior is to object to the situation rather than to suggest better ways to improve the situation.

Lastly, *challenging-promotive* behavior includes voice behavior. This behavior is characterized by the constructive expression of challenge to improve rather than simply criticize the situation. *Challenging-promotive* behavior such as voicing one's opinions to bring about positive change or taking personal initiative is often intended to challenge the status-quo (Van Dyne et al., 1995; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003).

The focus of this study is a specific type of *challenging-promotive* voice behavior. Key characteristics of voice behavior from the theoretical perspective above are as follows. Voice is defined as a behavior, and thus the term voice in this study does not refer to the expression of complaints or grievances in the workplace by employees to management or the accessibility of grievance procedures (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). In addition, voice is not in-role behavior. Therefore, constructive suggestions for change created by consultants or change agents in terms of their formal job requirements are not viewed as voice behaviors as suggested by LePine and Van Dyne. Finally, voice encourages change and arises from an intention to improve a given situation (Van Dyne et al., 1995; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Voice is challenging the status quo and proactively

making constructive suggestions for change when other people are afraid to speak up; however, voice is not intended to merely criticize the conditions or other members.

Predicting Employee Voice Behavior

Organizational scholars have traditionally predicted human behavior in organizations by drawing on either individual or contextual variables (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). Likewise, the employee voice literature can be divided into two broad streams focusing on a) individual factors (individual differences in voice behavior) and b) contextual factors (the organizational conditions that facilitate or inhibit voice behavior) as correlates of employee voice. The basic theme in the existing literature on employee voice is related to the factors that enable employees to make constructive suggestions and express their ideas freely about organizational issues. Detert and Burris (2007) stated that the most systemic research to date has focused on individual differences as correlates of voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). Detert and Burris noted that the logic behind this line of work is that “some individuals are simply more likely than others to ‘go the extra mile’ in regard to speaking up” (p. 869). Many studies have explored the influence of individual differences on employee voice behavior. For example, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) suggested that conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and agreeableness are related to voice behavior. Avery (2003) examined the effects of a five-factor dimension and core self-evaluations on self-reported voice behavior, and identified that self-efficacy and extraversion predicted voice behavior. More recently, Nikolaou et al. (2008) found that two personality characteristics (emotional stability and conscientiousness) are significantly associated with employees’ voice behavior towards their immediate supervisor, but not towards the top management of the company.

Another stream of research focuses on aspects of an organizational context that may facilitate or hinder employees' willingness to speak up. According to Detert and Burris (2007), an embedded belief in this stream of research is that "even the most proactive or satisfied employees are likely to 'read the wind' as to whether it is safe and/or worthwhile to speak up in their particular context" (p. 869). In recent years, scholars have increasingly investigated contextual factors that affect voice behavior in organizations (Detert & Treviño, 2010; Dundon, Wilkinson, Marchington, & Ackers, 2004). For example, Zhou and George (2001) viewed employee creativity as an expression of voice, and provided evidence that dissatisfied employees with high continuance commitment are more likely to be creative when their coworkers offered them useful feedback, were helpful and supportive, and employees perceived a high level of organizational support. Also, Detert and Treviño (2010) explored how leaders influence employee voice perceptions in their qualitative research.

Empowerment Theory and Research

The notion of empowerment has been embraced in the contemporary workplace (Abrahamson, 1996; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). Considerable research evidence indicates that empowerment is a priority for organizations to optimize human potential and a key driver of organizational effectiveness (Kanter, 1977; Thorlakson & Murray, 1996). The concept of empowerment has been developed from perspectives that are embedded within a broad range of management theories, but the historical bases of empowerment tend to be in line with humanistic approaches that took hold in the 1950s and 1960s (Potterfield, 1999).

Table 1

Differences between Four Types of Extra-Role Behavior

	Challenging/Promotive Behaviors	Challenging/Prohibitive Behaviors	Affiliative/Promotive Behaviors	Affiliative/Prohibitive Behaviors
Primary Action	Suggesting changes	Criticizing	Helping	Intervention
Example	Voice	Whistle-blowing	OCB	Stewardship
Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proactive focus • Change-oriented • Suggest constructive recommendations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Typically planned • Criticizing • Stop inappropriate behaviors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spontaneous act • Helping • Reinforce the status quo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stop actions that could cause harm • Occur in situations of unequal power
Orientation	Future	Past	Present	Future
Primary Allegiance	Performance/Excellence	Standards/Ethics	Proximal relationships	Unequal power
View of the Situation	“It could be better”	“It’s not right”	“It’s okay”	“It could be worse”
Key Antecedents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall satisfaction • Psychological ownership • Need for achievement • Task/Outcome oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low satisfaction • Propensity to task risks • Need for power • Task/Outcome oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall satisfaction • Propensity to trust • Need for affiliation • Relationship oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall satisfaction • Moral development • Need for power • Relationship oriented
Consequences to the Group/Organization	Innovation, Effectiveness, Adaptation to external conditions	Check and balance on illegal, immoral, and unethical behavior	Efficiency, Quantity, Timely output, Positive climate	Check and balance to protect others, Positive climate
Consequences to the Individual	Sense of contributing, Positive feedback based on effective execution	Sense of doing right, Sense of moral superiority, Little positive feedback	Sense of contributing, Positive feedback, Positive social relationships	Sense of doing right, Sense of moral superiority, Increased interpersonal power

Note. Adapted from “Extra-Role Behaviors: In Pursuit of Construct and Definitional Clarity (A Bridge over Muddied Waters),” by L. Van Dyne, L. L. Cummings, and J. M. Parks, 1995, *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 17, pp. 253–257.

Prominent theorists including Chris Argyris, Rensis Likert, and Douglas McGregor criticized authoritative control and hierarchical structure of traditional corporations, and demanded more democratic forms of corporate governance that would give employees greater freedom, autonomy, and opportunities for participation in decisions (Potterfield, 1999). The contemporary theory of empowerment is based on the philosophy and ideas of these earlier theorists. Given the shift from vertical, hierarchal organizations to flat, networked entities, empowerment is expected to provide the desirable basis for designing new organizational forms (Mills & Ungson, 2003).

Empowerment, however, still remains a perplexing notion for both researchers and practitioners since empowerment has no agreed upon definitions. Scholars have also addressed the fact that there is a lack of systematic work on the theories on empowerment (Potterfield, 1999). Nevertheless, enduring interest in theory development on empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), construct validation of measures of empowerment-related constructs (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Herrenkohl et al., 1999; Spreitzer, 1995), empirical investigation of its relationship to work outcomes (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000), and even critical perspectives on the concept among researchers (Boje & Rosile, 2001) reflect the prominence of the concept of empowerment.

A review of existing academic literature on empowerment reveals that two divergent perspectives on empowerment, *structural empowerment* and *psychological empowerment* have emerged in the organizational studies arena over the past few decades (Liden & Arad, 1996; Potterfield, 1999; Spreitzer, 2008). Structural empowerment relates to the social conditions that enable empowerment whereas psychological empowerment

focuses on the psychological states of feeling empowered (Spreitzer, 2008). In addition to two classic approaches to empowerment, scholarly writing on the topic has incorporated the emergent research on the leadership approaches. In line with Menon (2001), this study seeks to provide a review of the literature based on these three broad approaches to empowerment.

Structural Approach to Empowerment

A structural perspective on empowerment focuses on the structural conditions that enable empowerment in the organization (Spreitzer, 2008). The main emphasis is placed on how the sharing of power is affected by the structures and contexts of the organization (Potterfield, 1999). In this perspective, power means authority, the ability to make decisions, and control over resources within the organization (Lawler, 1986).

Accordingly, empowerment connotes sharing power and delegating authority to subordinates within the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy (Liden & Arad, 1996).

Kanter's (1977) theory of power provides a theoretical underpinning for a structural perspective on empowerment. Power may exist in a zero-sum sense and refer to limited resource behind hierarchical domination (Kanter, 1977). However, Kanter distinguished power from hierarchical domination:

As defined here, power is the ability to get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she is attempting to meet.....when more people are empowered—that is, allowed to have control over the conditions that make their actions possible—then more is accomplished,

more gets done. Thus, the meaning of power here is closer to “mastery” or “autonomy” than to domination or control over others. (p. 166)

Kanter’s (1977) pioneer study, “*Men and women of the corporation*,” states that the organizational structures characterized with key sources of power can empower people. These structures involve access to resources, information, support, and opportunity. In the perspective of structural empowerment, employees who sense that their work environment provides access to these structures are empowered. The focus of the structural perspective is on cascading power to the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy (Liden & Arad, 1996). This perspective puts emphasis on organizational policies, practices, and systems that support employee participation through increased access to resources, information, support, and opportunity (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2004).

Much research on empowerment from a structural perspective has been built on Kanter’s original study. This perspective has helped researchers recognize how macro forces influence the conditions that promote empowerment. Spreitzer (2008) describes this perspective as being rooted in the idea of democracy, and argues that employees at low levels of the organizational hierarchy can have a voice in a system if they have access to opportunity, information, support, and resources.

Psychological Approach to Empowerment

An alternative perspective on empowerment has emphasized the individual employee’s subjective experience of being empowered. Advocates of this psychological perspective have argued that a structural perspective is limited in that managerial

practices would have little effect on employees if they do not feel a sense of self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) provide a new approach toward empowerment by defining empowerment in terms of motivational processes. Drawing on Bandura's (1986) concept of self-efficacy, Conger and Kanungo viewed empowerment as "a process whereby an individual's belief in his or her self-efficacy is enhanced" (p. 474). In their perspective, empowerment is an enabling process rather than a delegating process, which is just one condition for empowering workers (Hakimi et al., 2010). Furthermore, Conger and Kanungo suggest that enabling processes involve creating conditions for promoting task motivation through a process of enhancing self-efficacy. According to Conger and Kanungo, empowerment is defined as "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (p. 474). Accordingly, empowered employees feel that they can perform their work competently, which in turn influences their task initiation and persistence.

Building on the approach taken by Conger and Kanungo (1998), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) further proposed a multidimensional cognitive model of empowerment and defined empowerment as increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in four cognitions that reflect an individual's orientation to one's work role: meaningfulness, competence, impact, and choice. Thomas and Velthouse conceptualized empowerment in terms of "changes in cognitive variables (called *task assessments*), which determine motivation in workers" (p. 667) and argued that individuals subjectively construct or

interpret their work environment beyond stimulus and response mechanisms. Thomas and Velthouse noted:

In Conger and Kanungo's model, individuals' judgments regarding personal efficacy are assumed to reflect objective conditions/events and information that flows from those events. In this way, they made stimulus-response assumptions about the causal effects of those external stimuli upon individuals. In contrast, we view such judgments as subjective interpretations (constructions) of reality, so that task assessments are also influenced by individual differences in interpretive processes. (p. 667)

Based on Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) model, Spreitzer (1995) developed a four-dimensional scale to measure psychological empowerment and operationalized the four cognitive dimensions of task assessment including competence, meaning, self-determination, and impact. Each dimension is as follows. *Meaning* concerns a sense of feeling that one's work is personally important. *Competence* refers to self-efficacy, or belief in one's ability to successfully perform tasks. *Self-determination* indicates perceptions of freedom to choose how to initiate and carry out tasks. *Impact* represents the degree to which one views one's behaviors as making a difference in work outcomes.

Since Spreitzer (1995) developed the instrument to measure psychological empowerment, the psychological perspective on empowerment has been widely adopted in numerous studies and has been well established empirically. However, many researchers maintain that psychological dimensions of empowerment should be examined together with the social structural context surrounding individuals rather than emphasizing the nature of work (Liden et al., 2000). Empowerment is influenced by

individual task assessments but it also depends on external factors including social interactions at work (Liden et al., 2000; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Empowering Leadership

Leaders play an important role in providing employees with feeling of empowerment or powerlessness (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Hakimi et al. (2010) state that empowering leadership is an essential criterion for leadership effectiveness, which refers to the ability to influence others (Yukl, 2002). As modern organizations have replaced their traditional hierarchical structures with empowered work teams, managers who are responsible for providing leadership have had to take on a different set of roles (Arnold et al., 2000). For example, managers are required to provide social and emotional encouragement, build trust and openness, and encourage self-reinforcement rather than to direct and control work (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Schein, 1993).

Organizational scholars have given considerable attention to the role of leadership in the empowerment process in recent years. Accordingly, many scholars have examined the relationship between leadership and empowerment both theoretically and empirically, and further have developed instruments measuring the effective leader behavior in empowered environments (e.g., Arnord et al., 2000). The guiding assumption underlying these efforts is that traditional constructs for measuring leader behavior have not captured the range of behaviors that are required of managers to lead effectively in empowering environments (Arnord et al., 2000).

Specifically, Arnord et al. (2000) identified eight categories of empowering leader behaviors through interviews with team members and external leaders from three different organizations. Arnord and his colleagues then developed a five-factor model for

an instrument to measure leader empowering behaviors involving leading by example, participative decision-making, coaching, informing, and showing concern/interacting with the team. In addition, the items in their instrument of the Empowering Leadership Questionnaire asked respondents to describe their leader behaviors toward their entire group and group members rather than toward each individual.

Accumulating empirical research has demonstrated considerable evidence for the link between empowering leader behaviors and a broad range of important outcomes in organizational contexts, including performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, creativity, and organizational citizenship behavior. Table 2 shows previous empirical research that has examined the relationship between empowering leadership and subsequent employee outcomes at the individual and team level over the past decade. As presented in Table 2, recent studies have increasingly examined the extent to which psychological empowerment or self-efficacy mediates the influence of empowering leadership on a variety of individual or team outcomes.

Cultural Value of Power Distance

Cultural Values

Scholars have continuously acknowledged the crucial role of cultural values in understanding individual behavior and attitudes in organizations. Culture has been defined in various ways. According to Hofstede (1980), culture represents “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another” (p. 21). Culture remains “below the threshold of conscious awareness because it involves *taken-for-granted* assumptions about how one should perceive, think, act, and feel” (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007, p. 100).

Table 2

Individual and Team Outcomes of Empowering Leadership

Study	Level	Key Outcomes	Mediator (a) / Moderator (b)
Ahearne et al. (2005)	Individual	Sales performance Customer satisfaction	a) Self-efficacy b) Adaptability
Boudrias et al. (2010)	Individual	Behavioral empowerment	b) Organizational climate b) Organizational justice
	Team	Firm performance	
Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, and Farh (2011)	Team	Innovative behavior Teamwork behavior Turnover intentions	a) Psychological empowerment b) Affective commitment
Konczak, Stelly, and Trusty (2000)	Individual	Job satisfaction Organizational commitment	a) Psychological empowerment
Pearce and Sims (2002)	Team	Team effectiveness	Not applicable
Raub and Robert (2010)	Individual	Extra-role behavior In-role behavior	a) Psychological empowerment b) Power values
Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, and Lawler (2000)	Individual	Coworker satisfaction Supervisor satisfaction Work satisfaction Work withdrawal Turnover intentions	Not applicable
Srivastava et al. (2006)	Team	Team performance	a) Knowledge sharing b) Team efficacy
Vecchio, Justin, and Pearce (2010)	Individual	Performance Job satisfaction	b) Dysfunctional resistance
Yun, Cox, and Sims (2006)	Individual	Self-leadership	b) Need for autonomy
Yun, Cox, Sims, and Salam (2007)	Team	Organizational citizenship behavior	a) Job satisfaction
Zhang and Bartol (2010)	Individual	Employee creativity	a) Psychological empowerment a) Creative process engagement a) Intrinsic motivation

Values are “conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (e.g., organizational leaders, policy-makers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations” (Schwartz, 1999, p. 24–25).

Because values involve intensity and direction (Hofstede, 1980), cultural values are the basis for the norms that inform people about what is appropriate in a range of situations (Schwartz, 1999). That is, people draw on cultural values to choose socially appropriate behaviors and to rationalize their chosen behaviors (Schwartz, 1999).

Accordingly, cultural values can be understood as the implicitly or explicitly shared abstract ideas about what is good, right, and desirable in a society (Williams, 1970). Hofstede (1980) further discusses the relationship between culture and values:

Culture, in this sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture. Culture is to a human collectivity what personality is to an individual. Personality has been defined by Guilford (1959) as “the interactive aggregate of personal characteristics that influence the individual’s response to the environment.” Culture could be defined as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group’s response to its environment. Culture determines the identity of a human group in the same way as personality determines the identity of an individual. (p. 21)

Hofstede’s (1980) “*Culture’s consequences: International differences in work-related values*” may be the most influential work on cultural dimensions of values. In this book, Hofstede provided five dimensions on which cultures vary at the country level of analysis including power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity, and long-term orientation. Hofstede’s pioneering work has inspired numerous empirical

studies using his cultural values framework. Numerous cross-cultural studies have frequently used Hofstede's value scores to understand the cultures of various national groups.

The concept of culture is generally used in research on societies (nations) or ethnic groups. Theorists argue that the appropriate unit of analysis for assessing the validity of cultural values is the society, not the individual person (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1999). Although individual variations in cultural value priorities inevitably exist within a society, "the average priorities enculturation attributed to different values by societal members reflect the central thrust of their shared enculturation" (Schwartz, 1999, p. 26).

Cultural value dimensions appear to vary both across and within cultures (Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000). Despite Hofstede's opposition to applying his cultural dimensions to the individual level (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006), he stated that culture can be applied to other human collectivities such as an organization (Hofstede, 1980). Other researchers have also increasingly recognized that value orientations can be used to reflect the characteristics of individuals (Tyler et al., 2002), and a substantial number of studies have adopted Hofstede's original dimensions to empirically test the effects of cultural values at the individual level of analysis (e.g., Dierdorff, Bell, & Belohlav, 2011; Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006; Van Hooft & De Jong, 2009).

Tyler et al. (2002) used comparisons based on individual power distance scores rather than aggregate comparisons based on culture. Tyler and colleagues also suggested that the cultural value dimension can be an individual difference dimension that varies both within and across cultures. They further argued that "such a psychological analysis

is more sensitive to the possible effects of cultural values on the behavior of particular people than are analyses that treat all the members of a culture as the same” (p. 1141).

There is also evidence that within-country (individual-level) variation in cultural values can be larger than country-level cultural differences (Au, 1999; Hofstede, 2001).

Kirkman and Shapiro (1997) noted that researchers adopting this approach to test cultural values at the individual level of analysis need to use individual-level measures of cultural dimensions because Hofstede’s measures were intended to be used only at the country level of analysis.

Power Distance

Power distance represents the extent to which the less powerful members of a society accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2001). Within organizations, an unequal distribution of power is inevitable, and this inequality in power is typically formalized in hierarchical superior-subordinate relationships (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, research on cultural value frameworks usually regards high power distance as “hierarchy” and low power distance as “egalitarianism” (Kirkman et al., 2009, p. 745).

In Hofstede’s (1980) study, a Power Distance Index captures “perceptions of the superior’s style of decision-making and of colleagues’ fear to disagree with superiors, and with the type of decision-making which subordinates prefer in their boss” (p. 65). Table 3 summarized the differences in connotations, social norm, and consequences for organizations of low Power Distance Index and high Power Distance Index.

As shown in Table 3, in lower power distance cultures, inequalities among people tend to be minimized, decentralization of activities is more likely, subordinates expect to be consulted by superiors, and privileges and status symbols are less evident. Those low

in power distance prefer consultation and discussion and view subordinate disagreement with and criticism of authorities as appropriate and desirable. In contrast, in higher power distance cultures, inequalities among people are considered desirable, there is greater reliance by the less powerful on those who hold power, centralization is the norm, and subordinates are likely to be separated from the superiors by wide differentials in privileges and status symbols.

Hofstede (1980) also noted that employees in these societies accept hierarchy and power differences and comply automatically with the decisions of the powerful. Studies support this idea of greater acceptance of hierarchy in high power distance countries such as in East Asia than in low power distance Western countries (Bond, Wan, Leung, & Giacalone, 1985; Schwarz, 1999; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). Those high in power distance prefer autocratic leadership and dislike disagreement or criticism on the part of subordinates (Tjosvold, Sun, & Wan, 2005).

Although many studies have examined power distance at the country level (Robert et al., 2000), this study considers power distance at the individual level of analysis, not considering the country-level differences between South Korea and other countries. In a substantial body of research, the cultural values have been applied to the study of phenomena within a single country (e.g., Hwang & Francesco, 2010; Jackson et al., 2006). Kirkman et al. (2009) made a distinction between power distance at the country and individual levels of analysis, and used the term *power distance orientation* to represent an individual-level construct.

Table 3

Low Power Distance Index and High Power Distance Index

Connotations of Power Distance Index Differences	
<i>Low Power Distance Index</i>	<i>High Power Distance Index</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managers seen as making decisions after consulting with subordinates. • Close supervision negatively evaluated by subordinates. • Stronger perceived work ethic • Managers more satisfied with participative superior. • Subordinates' preference for manager's decision-making style clearly centered on consultative, give-and-take style. • Employees less afraid of disagreeing with their boss. • Managers seen as showing more consideration. • Informal employee consultation possible without formal participation. • Highly-educated employees hold much less authoritarian values than lower-educated ones. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managers seen as making decisions autocratically and paternalistically. • Close supervision positively evaluated by subordinates. • Weaker perceived work ethic • Managers more satisfied with directive or persuasive superior. • Subordinates' preference for manager's decision-making style polarized between autocratic-paternalistic and majority rule. • Employees fear to disagree with their boss. • Managers seen as showing less consideration. • Formal employee participation possible without informal consultation. • Higher- and lower-educated employees show similar values about authority.
Consequences for Organizations	
<i>Low Power Distance Index</i>	<i>High Power Distance Index</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less centralization • Flatter organization pyramids • Smaller proportion of supervisory personnel • Smaller wage differentials • High qualification of lower strata 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater centralization • Tall organization pyramids • Large proportion of supervisory personnel • Large wage differentials • Low qualification of lower strata

Note. Adapted from "Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values," by G. Hofstede, 1980, pp. 92, 94, and 107.

Table 3 (Continued)

Low Power Distance Index and High Power Distance Index

The Power Distance Societal Norm	
<i>Low Power Distance Index</i>	<i>High Power Distance Index</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All should be interdependent. • Hierarchy means an inequality of roles, established for convenience. • Subordinates are people like me. • Superiors are people like me. • The use of power should be legitimate and is subject to the judgment between good and evil. • All should have equal rights. • Powerful people should try to look less powerful than they are. • Stress on reward, legitimate and expert power. • The system is to blame. • The way to change a social system is by redistributing power. • People at various power levels feel less threatened and more prepared to trust people. • Latent harmony between the powerful and the powerless. • Cooperation among the powerless can be based on solidarity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A few should be independent; most should be dependent. • Hierarchy means existential inequality. • Superiors consider subordinates as being of a different kind. • Subordinates consider superiors as being of a different kind. • Power is a basic fact of society which antedates good or evil. Its legitimacy is irrelevant. • Powerful people should try to look as powerful as possible. • Powerful people should try to look as powerful as possible. • Power holders are entitled to privileges. • Stress on coercive and referent power. • The underdog is to blame. • The way to change a social system is by dethroning those in power. • Other people are a potential threat to one's power and rarely can be trusted. • Latent conflict between powerful and the powerless. • Cooperation among the powerless is difficult to bring about because of low faith in people norm.

Note. Adapted from “Culture’s Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values,” by G. Hofstede, 1980, pp. 92, 94, and 107.

Organizational Learning Capability

As learning has been considered one of the most valuable ways to achieve sustainable competitive advantage (Argyris & Schön, 1996; De Geus, 1988; Ellinger, Ellinger, Yang, & Howton, 2002), the notion of organizational learning has captured the attention of many scholars from various disciplines (Marquardt, 1996, 2002; Senge, 1990; Watkins & Marsick, 1993). Many organizations have recognized an ongoing need for continuous learning and scholars have become intrigued with understanding the nature and processes of learning as well as identifying factors that facilitate or impede learning inside organizations.

Traditionally, organizations have tended to regard learning as the development of training programs focusing on improving specific skills (Baldwin, Danielson, & Wiggernhorn, 1997). However, the notion of organizations as learning systems emerged during the 1960s and 1970s with an increasing emphasis placed on the perspective that organizations should be viewed as organic systems rather than mechanical systems (Bennis, 1969).

Although organizational learning essentially occurs through individuals, organizational learning is not simply a sum of the learning by each individual and is rooted in patterns of behavior not tied to any one individual (Yeung, Ulrich, Nason, & Von Glinow, 1999). Organizational learning embodies histories, systems, and norm within the organization that are transmitted to new organizational members (Fiol & Lyles, 1985).

Organizational learning scholars from various disciplines have provided divergent concepts, assumptions, different units of analysis, and measures, so consensus has yet to

emerge around the definition of organizational learning. Furthermore, scholars have clarified existing distinctions between organizational learning and the learning organization. For example, Easterby-Smith and Araujo (1999) argue that two concepts have developed along distinct purposes and interests. In particular, the literature on organizational learning focuses on understanding the nature and processes of learning within organizations. In contrast, most of the discussion on learning organizations tends to concentrate on the development of a normative model or diagnostic methodological tools which help to identify and assess the quality of learning processes in organizations (Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999; DiBella, Nevis, & Gould, 1996). Despite its conceptual elusiveness, many organizations have attempted to embark on creating the learning organization where learning is no longer confined to formal training programs but is an essential part of daily work for all levels in the organization (Garvin, 1993, 2000).

Organizational learning capability is defined as the organizational and managerial characteristics that facilitate the organizational learning process or allow an organization to learn (Goh & Richards, 1997). Thus, the concept of organizational learning capability emphasizes the importance of the facilitating factors for organizational learning. Understanding existing organizational learning capability is equally crucial for identifying learning in organizations as conceptualizing a prescribed model (DiBella et al., 1996).

Scholars have criticized this concept by noting that there is little practical application for organizations when it comes to the concept of organizational learning beyond explaining why learning matters. Garvin (1993) pointed out that the focus of organizational learning tends to be on “high philosophy and grand schemes, sweeping

metaphors rather than gritty details of practice” (p. 79). The lack of a systemic approach including the measurement of learning capability may make implementation of organizational learning convoluted (Goh & Richards, 1997). The exploration of organizational learning capability would enable organizations to identify how to make learning a reality in organizations and allow managers to develop interventions to overcome barriers in promoting organizational learning. Accordingly, it is important to identify and measure the essential organizational characteristics that promote organizational learning.

The fundamental organizational characteristics and factors that facilitate organizational learning have been dealt with in the literature in both organizational learning and the learning organization. For example, Yeung et al. (1999) defined organizational learning ability as “the capacity to generate and generalize ideas with impact, across multiple organizational boundaries, through specific management initiatives” (p. 59). To understand how various factors influence organizational learning capability, Yeung and the colleagues developed a model of organizational learning capability integrating three building blocks: generation of ideas, generalization of ideas, and identification of learning disabilities.

Jerez-Gómez, Céspedes-Lorente, and Valle-Cabrera (2005) also defined organizational learning capability as “the capability of an organization to process knowledge –in other words, to create, acquire, transfer, and integrate knowledge, and to modify its behavior to reflect the new cognitive situation, with a view to improving its performance” (p. 716). They suggested that organizational learning is a latent multidimensional construct and further developed a measurement scale for organizational

learning capability. Organizational learning capability dimensions proposed by Jerez-Gómez et al. include: (a) managerial commitment, (b) systems perspective, (c) openness and experimentation, and (d) knowledge transfer and integration.

Lastly, based on a comprehensive analysis of the facilitating factors for organizational learning, Chiva et al. (2007) identified five essential facilitating factors of organizational learning: experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. In addition, they developed and validated a measurement scale that captures the organizational capability to learn.

Research Model and Hypotheses

In the following sections, the hypotheses are formulated based on the literature review. Also, theoretical and empirical rationale for hypothesized relationships between constructs is provided.

Empowering Leadership and Voice Behavior

Detert and Treviño (2010) argued that leaders should be considered as a key influence on employees' voice behaviors. Specifically, employees need to "direct their concerns or suggestions to a specific target with the formal authority to act" when they desire to initiate action or make suggestions for changes (Detert & Treviño, 2010, p. 249). Thus, employees mainly speak *upward* to a leader in organizational hierarchy for essential resources and support needed to address the issues expressed by them. Liu et al. (2010) also noted that employees' immediate supervisor tends to be a main target of employee voice in the workplace. Therefore, it is important to examine what leadership behaviors influence employees to voice upward to a leader.

As stated by Arnord et al. (2000), leaders who exhibit more empowering behaviors are concerned with “the process of implementing conditions that increase employees’ feelings of self-efficacy and control, and removing conditions that foster a sense of powerlessness” (p. 250). Leaders characterized as high in empowering leadership share power with their employees by delegating authority to employees, involve employees in decision making, and express confidence in employees’ capabilities to handle demanding tasks (Ahearne et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011; Konczak et al., 2000). In contrast, leaders characterized as low in empowering leadership tend to focus on more monitoring behaviors and directing the individual and team’s work (Spreitzer, De Janasz, & Quinn, 1999) that reduce opportunities for self-directed behavior, and convey to their followers little confidence in their capabilities to handle challenging work (Chen et al., 2011).

Empirical evidence linking empowering leadership and employee voice behaviors is limited. Thus, it is difficult to speculate how leaders’ empowering behaviors may influence employee voice behaviors. Nevertheless, prior research has alluded to the possibility that empowering leadership may influence employee voice behaviors. For instance, Bormann (1988) argued that empowered employees have a voice in understanding and interpreting the organization and its goals. Similarly, Putnam, Phillips, and Chapman’s (1996) review of empowerment literature summarizes, “empowerment is the use of voice to provide active participation and commitment to organizational members” (p. 390). Spreitzer (2008) noted that even employees at low levels of the organizational hierarchy can have a voice in a system where “power ideally resides within individuals at all levels.” (p. 55)

Furthermore, the theoretical explanation for why empowered employees engage in employee voice behaviors can be found in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). That is, as Van Dyne, Kamdar, and Joireman described, “when employees believe that they are being treated well, they should feel a need to reciprocate this favorable treatment and should contribute to the organization above and beyond the call of duty” (p. 1196). Thus, I expect a positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice behavior.

Hypothesis 1. Empowering leadership is positively related to voice behavior.

Power Distance Orientation and Voice Behavior

This study attempts to examine the impact of empowering leadership on voice behavior as moderated by individual-level power distance orientation. As noted by Raub and Robert (2010), the word ‘empowerment’ is inevitably associated with the notion of power, and thus, a better understanding of empowering leadership must include an understanding of the role of power. Several scholars suggest that one approach to understanding the role of power would be to examine the link between empowerment and power distance (Kirkman et al., 2009; Raub & Robert, 2010). Given our focus on the influence of empowering leadership on employee voice, power distance orientation is particularly important to take into account, as it captures individuals’ beliefs about status, authority, and power in organizations. This study explicitly considers power distance orientation at the individual level of analysis in order to examine the role of power distance within a South Korean context, not considering country-level differences between South Korea and other countries.

Cultural value orientations play a central role in how individuals respond to facets of their work (Kirkman et al., 2009). Kirkman and his colleagues argued that leadership behaviors may interact with followers' cultural value orientations to influence their work-related outcomes. Cultural value orientations, in this vein, serve as enablers or barriers to leadership effects. Kirkman et al. also pointed out that power distance orientation has a more theoretically direct relationship to leadership reactions than other cultural values such as individualism-collectivism and uncertainty avoidance.

Individuals with a high power distance orientation expect more, and are more receptive to, one way, top-down direction from their leaders (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006). Employees with a high power distance, thus, tend to “behave submissively around managers, avoid disagreements, and believe that bypassing their bosses is insubordination” (Kirkman et al., 2009, p. 748). Moreover, employees who are high in power distance orientation consider that their leaders are superior and admit their own decision-making limitations. Accordingly, they tend to comply with their leaders' explicit orders or instructions without resistance (Kirkman et al., 2009). By trusting that leaders provide more reliable decision (Javidan et al., 2006), they might feel uncomfortable voicing their opinions. Therefore, the relationship between power distance orientation and employee voice would be negative.

However, empowering leadership contrasts with directive leadership, which primarily relies on position power and tends to provide explicit direction to subordinates (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Rather, the essential role of the empowering leader is to lead others to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 1987). Thus, an interesting theoretical and empirical question is whether or not those higher, rather than lower, in power distance

orientation would respond the same way to empowering leaders (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007).

This argument is also consistent with Raub and Robert (2010) examining the moderating role of individual differences in power values by emphasizing how power values strengthen or attenuate the influence of psychological empowerment on employees' challenging extra-role behaviors. Raub and Robert found that the relationship between empowering leader behaviors and challenging extra-role behavior was fully mediated by psychological empowerment, and this relationship was moderated by individual-level power values such that it was stronger for individuals lower in power values. On the basis of the evidence reviewed above, I propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2. Power distance orientation is negatively related to voice behavior.

Hypothesis 3. Power distance orientation moderates the positive relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior.

Organizational Learning Capability and Voice Behavior

This study additionally examines the role of organizational learning capability as a moderator of the empowering leadership-employee voice relationship. Organizations persistently seek new ways to improve their processes and respond proactively, and it is claimed that their success depends on their capacity to learn. Organizational learning capability is defined as the organizational and managerial characteristics that facilitate the organizational learning process or allow an organization to learn (Goh & Richards, 1997). This study predicts that organizational learning capability represents a potentially significant moderator between empowering leadership and employee voice. In particular, this study focuses on five dimensions of organizational learning capability identified by

Chiva et al. (2007): experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. This study further considers organizational learning capability as climate defined as “employee perceptions regarding the manner with which they are treated and/or managed in their organization” (Boudrias et al., 2010, p. 202). Following Boudrias et al.’s approach, thus, organizational learning capability is viewed as “a set of cognitive appraisals and interpretations made by individuals in relation to a specific target in their organizational context” (p. 202).

Empowering leadership allows employees to enhance their adaptability to the environment by diminishing bureaucratic barriers that may hinder flexibility and responsiveness (Spreitzer, 1995). However, empowerment initiatives tend to fail to meet the expectations of organizations and employees due to a range of reasons (Harley, 1999; Rothstein, 1995). For example, Harley (1999) asserted that organizational efforts aimed at promoting empowerment might be in vain because, contrary to purported beliefs in the emergence of the post-bureaucratic organizations, hierarchical structures still remain central to the majority of contemporary organizations. Argyris (1998) argued that the answer to why there has been little growth in empowerment is complex, but most practices promoting empowerment are rife with “inner contradictions” that engender no transformation (p. 98). Argyris described that “managers love empowerment in theory, but the command-and-control model is what they trust and know best” (pp. 98–99). In most organizations, top-down controlling system and authoritarian management styles still exist and might be indispensable to some degree in a large organization. Moreover, often employees are puzzled about empowerment or do not feel empowered even though their leaders demonstrate empowering behaviors. Accordingly, merely bestowing power

and conducting empowerment-oriented interventions by leaders may be insufficient or futile considering the complex nature of this phenomenon.

Organizational learning capability emphasizes the value of experimentation and risk taking. Under such condition, employees are encouraged to use their mistakes as developmental opportunities and try out new ideas. This leads to employees' willingness to take risk and initiative in expressing constructive suggestions. Also, interaction with the external environment and dialogue must provide employees with ample opportunities to communicate and share individual viewpoints. Lastly, Tesluk, Vance, and Mathieu (1999) found that employees are more involved in participative initiatives when organizational climates are more participative.

The existing literature on employee voice found the positive effect of psychological safety on voice behavior. According to Kahn (1990), psychological safety refers to "feeling able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (p. 708). As such, Edmondson (1999) defined it as a shared belief that other organizational members will not "embarrass, reject, or punish someone for speaking up" (p. 354). Thus, psychological safety allows employees to speak up and bring up their unique views (Pearsall & Ellis, 2011). Previous research found that psychological safety has been positively associated with various employee behaviors, including innovation, learning, adaptation, voice behavior (Baer & Frese, 2003; Edmondson, 1999). For example, Detert and Burris (2007) provided that psychological safety was a key cognition influencing voice because employees assume perceived costs prior to speaking up. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) also found that ethical leadership influenced followers' voice behavior and this relationship was partially

mediated by followers' perceptions of psychological safety. However, the concept of psychological safety seems to focus on the risky aspect of voice behavior.

To my knowledge, no empirical research has examined the potential link between organizational learning capability and employee voice. This study hypothesizes that one critical contextual factor that influences employee voice either directly or by moderating the influence of empowering leadership is organizational learning capability. That is, employee perceptions of organizational learning capability would be positively related to employee voice. I also predict that organizational learning capability is likely to moderate the positive influence of empowering leadership on voice behavior. When employees perceive that their organization has a strong organizational learning capability, they are more likely to speak up. I propose that empowering leadership is positively related to employee voice only in conditions where organizational learning capability is perceived as high. In the light of the above, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4. Organizational learning capability is positively related to voice behavior.

Hypothesis 5. Organizational learning capability moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior.

Mediation by Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment is a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions (Spreitzer, 1995): meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Empowerment theories see psychological empowerment as the mechanism through which contextual factors affect individual attitudes and behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Spreitzer, 1995). In keeping with this view, this study proposes that psychological empowerment is a mechanism through which empowering leadership and organizational

learning capability influence employees' voice behavior. A theoretical rationale for the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment is provided first, followed by the theoretical foundation for the relationship between organizational learning capability and psychological empowerment. Then, the argument for the theoretical linkage between psychological empowerment and employee voice is provided.

The present study adopts the notion of empowering leadership as developed by Ahearne et al. (2005) focusing on: a) enhancing the meaningfulness of work, b) fostering participation in decision making, c) expressing confidence in high performance, and d) providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints. Empowering leadership behaviors are likely to promote employees' psychological empowerment. By helping employees understand the importance of their contribution to organizational effectiveness, empowering leaders enhance employees' belief that their work is personally meaningful (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Also, empowering leaders help to foster employees' feeling of competence to successfully perform their tasks by expressing confidence in high performance. Indeed, previous studies found that empowering leadership enhanced employees' self-efficacy (Ahearne et al., 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2003). By providing employees with autonomy, empowering leaders make them feel released from bureaucratic constraints. Lastly, by encouraging employees' participation in decision making, empowering leaders foster a sense of feeling that they can make a difference in work outcomes. Ultimately, empowering leader behaviors signal to employees that the leader trusts their competence (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and employees respond to these behavioral cues by feeling more psychologically empowered (Chen, Kirkman,

Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Chen et al., 2011; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Accordingly, the above arguments suggest that empowering leadership is likely to lead to higher psychological empowerment.

Empowerment theories suggest that empowerment is directly influenced by organizational context (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1996). Spreitzer (1995) expanded the focus of empowerment to the feelings of empowerment that people have and argued that the empowerment context created by various organizational factors must be perceived by employees and must prompt psychological reactions in employees. To investigate the impact of organizational characteristics facilitating learning on voice behavior, the present study is based on the conceptualization of organizational learning capability as developed by Chiva et al. (2007). Chiva and the authors identified the five dimensions of the organizational learning capability including experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) argue that empowerment significantly relates to risk taking, change, and trust of employees, though it fundamentally refers to delegation of authority. An organization that encourages risk taking, challenging tradition, and experiments will be positively related to individuals' sense of empowerment, which in turn affects voice behavior. Also, learning experiences fostered by connecting with the external environment, engaging in authentic dialogue, and participating in decision making will lead to an active orientation to individuals' work role by perceiving their work situation to be shaped by their own actions rather than accepting the situation as given (Spreitzer, 1995, 1996).

Psychologically empowered individuals perceive themselves as competent and believe that they have the ability to influence their work environments and have choice in initiating actions (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Because psychologically empowered employees have an active orientation toward their roles (Raub & Robert, 2010), they are more likely to proactively suggest new ways of doing things for improvement rather than remain silent. Indeed, previous studies found that psychological empowerment has a significant relationship with innovative behavior (Chen et al., 2007; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). For example, Nederveen Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers, and Stam (2010) argued for the importance of psychological empowerment by stating that leaders can make employees “*willing* to be innovative, but they also need to feel *able* to be innovative (via psychological empowerment) in order to move into action” (p. 613). Moreover, psychological empowerment is a process of fostering feelings of self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). As noted by Van Dyne et al. (2003), employees might be reluctant to speak up and withhold their ideas based on low self-efficacy about personal capability. Accordingly, greater self-efficacy resulting from empowerment can enhance employees’ willingness to speak up.

No empirical research has tested psychological empowerment as a mediator of the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior as well as organizational learning capability and voice behavior. However, previous studies supported a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and employee behaviors similar to voice behaviors, and further found that the impact of empowering leadership is mediated by psychological empowerment. For example, Choi (2007) found that psychological

empowerment influenced change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, and mediated the link between characteristics of the work environment and change-oriented behavior. More recently, Zhang and Bartol (2010) suggested that empowering leadership influenced psychological empowerment, which in turn affected employee creativity. Raub and Robert (2010) also found that empowering leadership behaviors have an indirect effect on challenging extra-role behaviors and that this effect is mediated by psychological empowerment. Building on the above arguments, the following hypotheses were proposed.

Hypothesis 6. Empowering leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 7. Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior.

Hypothesis 8. Organizational learning capability is positively related to psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 9. Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the theory and constructs related to this study. Employee voice as a type of extra-role behavior was reviewed on the basis of Van Dyne et al.'s (1995) conceptualization. Individual and contextual factors affecting employee voice were also reviewed. Based on a review of existing literature on empowerment, two divergent perspectives on empowerment, structural empowerment and psychological empowerment, as well as empowering leadership were examined. In

addition, cultural values focusing on power distance orientation at the individual level of analysis and organizational learning capability defined as facilitating factors for organizational learning were discussed.

In sum, this chapter laid the foundation for examining the relationship between employee voice behavior and empowering leadership and the relationship between employee voice behavior and organizational learning capability, mediated by psychological empowerment, and the moderating effects of power distance orientation and organizational learning capability on the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice. Based on a comprehensive literature review, nine hypotheses are presented. Figure 1 depicts the hypothesized research model. The following chapter discusses the research methods that were used to empirically test the hypothesized relationships.

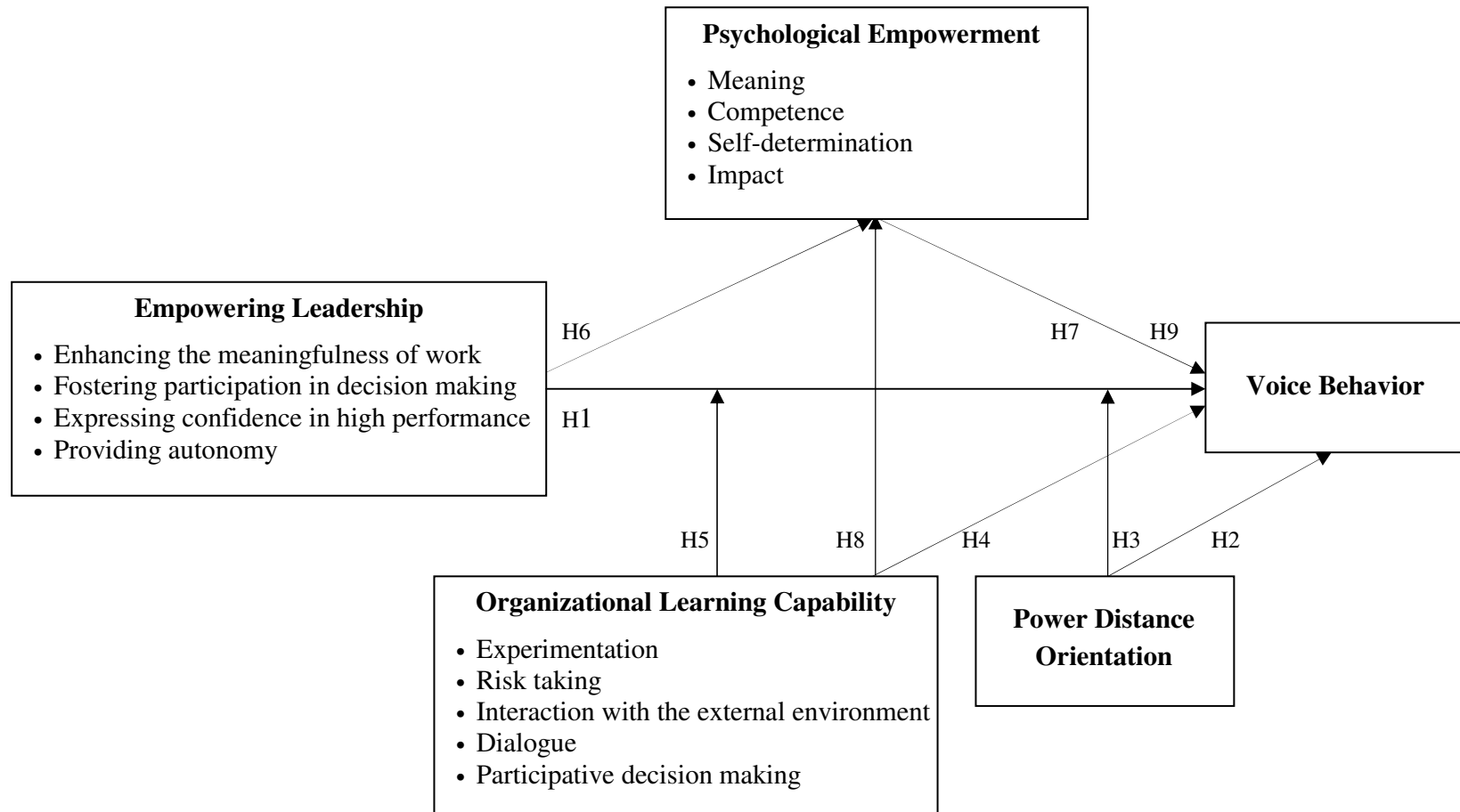


Figure 1. Hypothesized research model.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice behavior and investigate whether and how individual power distance orientation and organizational learning capability moderate this relationship. Further, this study seeks to examine the influences of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability on voice behavior, as mediated by psychological empowerment. In the current study, a correlational design was used to collect and analyze survey data. Hypotheses were tested by utilizing multiple moderated regression analyses and structural equation modeling. This chapter describes the participants, data collection procedures, instruments, and data analysis techniques used in the present study.

Participants and Data Collection Procedures

Participants for the present study were Korean employees of five for-profit organizations in South Korea. Data were collected from two conglomerates with more than 100,000 employees and three for-profit corporations with between 5,000 and 10,000 employees in the internet service, pharmaceuticals, and semiconductor sectors. Temporary employees and new employees with less than six months of work experience were excluded from the target population. Organizational rank of the participants of this study ranged from clerks to general managers. HR or HRD managers of the target organizations were provided with information on the research topic, the research procedures, and potential risks and benefits. If they agreed to participate in this study, the research support consent form was signed by the managers. Prior to the data collection,

this study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Minnesota for review of the research. Also, the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) designed for individuals involved in the use of human subjects in research was completed. IRB approved this research with an email confirmation notifying that this research was categorized as exempt from full committee review.

The questionnaire was administered in Korean following a back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980). The questionnaire items were originally compiled in English. Thus, the measurement items were translated to Korean and back-translated into English. Two bilingual translators who are native speakers of Korean and two monolingual reviewers participated in this procedure. To initiate the back-translation process, one bilingual translator translated the questionnaire from English into Korean. The resulting Korean version then was back-translated into English by another bilingual translator who had not seen the original instrument in English. After the back-translation, two monolingual reviewers compared each item of the back-translated instrument with the original version of the instrument and examined each item for translation error to assure that the original meaning of the items was retained. The bilingual translators repeated the translation and back-translation of several problematic items and the monolingual reviewers again examined the resulting back-translated items with the original instrument. After a repetition of the back-translation process to correct errors in translation, several items were reworded or retranslated for a valid translation of an instrument. Consequently, no further instances were found where an item's meaning had significantly changed due to the translation.

Participants completed the questionnaire either online or in paper-and-pencil form. Prior to the survey, subjects were briefly informed that the study pertained to their perceptions of themselves, their jobs, their immediate supervisors, and the organizations they work for. In accordance with the IRB's protocol, written assurances were provided that individual responses would be kept confidential and that employees were free to decide not to participate in the study or to terminate their participation at any time without questions. Respondents were asked to assess their personality and cultural value orientation and to rate their immediate supervisor's leadership behavior, their sense of empowerment, and organizational characteristics. In the last section in the survey, respondents were asked to include their demographic information, including age, gender, education, rank (hierarchical level), gender of their supervisor, organizational tenure, job type, and industry type. To ensure anonymity of responses, the information collected in the survey did not identify a respondent. No further information, including the participant's name and contact information, was collected to protect privacy.

In total, 300 paper-and pencil surveys and 350 online surveys were distributed. Since the study used both paper-and-pencil and online surveys, measurement equivalence, defined as "the absence of measurement effects (i.e. biases) of collecting survey data" across the different modes of data collection (De Beuckelaer & Lievens, 2009, p. 337) needed to be ascertained. In the present study, there was no significant difference in key study variables across two different modes of data collection.

Out of 650 distributed questionnaires, 437 were returned. Paper-and pencil surveys were completed by 235 employees and online surveys were completed by 202 employees. This represents response rates of 78.3 percent and 57.7 percent for paper-and

pencil and online surveys, respectively. The overall response rate was calculated at 67.2 percent. Yet, 34 cases were eliminated from the sample due to incomplete surveys or suspect responses (e.g., participants responding all 1's or all 7's across all items).

Therefore, the effective sample size used to test the hypotheses was 403.

In the sample of 403 participants, 78.7% were male, and 89.4% held at least a university degree. In terms of age, 14.1% of the sample were younger than 30 years old, 79.1% were between the ages of 30 and 44, and 6.7% were older than 45 years old. The average age of the participants was 36.4 years, ranging from 22 to 54 years ($SD = 5.7$). All participants had been employed by their organizations for at least six months. On average, participants had been employed in their company for 6.7 years ($SD = 6.0$). Table 4 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 4

Demographic Information

Demographic	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	86	21.3
	Male	317	78.7
Age	Less than 25	1	0.2
	25–29	56	13.9
	30–34	102	25.3
	35–39	96	23.8
	40–44	121	30.0
	45 or over	27	6.7
Highest Level of Education Completed	High school graduate	20	5.0
	Associate degree	23	5.7
	Bachelor's degree	267	66.3

	Master's degree	87	21.6
	Doctoral degree	6	1.5
Rank	Clerk/Senior clerk	60	14.9
	Assistant manager	73	18.1
	Manager	53	13.2
	Senior manager	203	50.4
	General manager	14	3.5
Years of Organization Tenure	Less than 1	61	15.1
	1–5	142	35.2
	5–10	84	20.8
	10–15	54	13.4
	More than 15	62	15.4
Job Function	Finance/Accounting	34	8.4
	Marketing/Sales	108	26.8
	Administration/Management	59	14.6
	Training and Development	47	11.7
	Research and Development	68	16.9
	Production	49	12.2
	Others	38	9.4
Industry Type	Finance/Insurance	51	12.7
	Electronics	152	37.7
	IT	103	25.6
	Pharmaceutical/Medical	22	5.5
	Service/Consulting	22	5.5
	Manufacturing	25	6.2
	Others	28	6.9

Note. $N = 403$

Measures

All items used a seven-point scale with anchors of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Respondents reported the degree to which they agreed with the items. The items for primary measures are provided in Appendix B.

Voice Behavior

Voice behavior was measured using the six-item scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine's (1998). Van Dyne and LePine measured voice behavior with six items based on Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) and Withey and Cooper (1989). Van Dyne and LePine obtained self, peer, and supervisor report of voice behavior at two times separated by six months (Time 1 and Time 2). Coefficient alphas for self, peer, and supervisor were .88, .95, and .94 at time 1 and .89, .96, and .94 at time 2 respectively. Prior research also showed high reliability of self-reported voice behavior (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009: $\alpha = .90$). In the present study, internal consistency for the voice behavior measure was $\alpha = .89$. Sample items include the following: "I develop and make recommendations to my supervisor concerning issues that affect my work." and "I speak up to my supervisor with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures at work." An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on this scale revealed the one-factor model explaining 64.64% of variance.

Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership was measured with the 12-item scale developed by Ahearne et al. (2005). This measure has multi-item subscales corresponding to four dimensions: (1) enhancing the meaningfulness of work, (2) fostering participation in decision making, (3) expressing confidence in high performance, and (4) providing

autonomy from bureaucratic constraints. This scale is reliable and has been used in previous studies. Zhang and Bartol (2010) indicated that the fit indexes for four first-order factors and one second-order factor fell within an acceptable range, supporting the notion that the dimensions are distinct and collectively reflective of the overall construct. Each participant evaluated the immediate supervisor in regard to his or her empowering leadership behavior.

In the current study, a sample item and internal consistency for each subscale is “My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture” (enhancing the meaningfulness of work, $\alpha = .92$); “My manager makes many decisions together with me” (fostering participation in decision making, $\alpha = .88$); “My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks” (expressing confidence in high performance, $\alpha = .88$); and “My manager allows me to do my job my way” (providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints, $\alpha = .84$).

In the present study, internal consistency for empowering leadership was $\alpha = .93$. In addition, an additional model was specified in which the four first-order dimensions were loaded onto a second-order empowering leadership dimension. The second-order factor loadings for four subdimensions of empowering leadership were all positive and statistically significant. The result of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the validity of this measure confirmed the fit indexes for four first-order factors plus one second-order factor fell within an acceptable range ($\chi^2[50] = 217.02, p < .001$; CFI = .98, GFI = .92, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .09), indicating that the dimensions reflected the overall construct.

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment was measured using 12 items developed by Spreitzer (1995). This scale is composed of four subscales measuring meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact, and contains three items for each dimension. Sample items are: “The work I do is very important to me” (meaning), “I am confident about my ability to do my job” (competence), “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my work” (self-determination), and “I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department” (impact). Previous studies have demonstrated the construct validity and internal consistency of the scale of psychological empowerment (e.g., Randolph & Kemery, 2011; Spreitzer et al., 1999).

In the present study, internal consistency for psychological empowerment was $\alpha = .93$ and for subscales was $\alpha = .93$ (meaning), $\alpha = .90$ (competence), $\alpha = .90$ (self-determination), and $\alpha = .92$ (impact). The fit indexes for four first-order factors plus one second-order factor fell within an acceptable range ($\chi^2[50] = 202.94, p < .001$; CFI = .98, GFI = .92, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .07), indicating that the dimensions reflected the overall construct.

Power Distance Orientation

Power distance orientation was measured using eight items developed by Earley and Erez (1997). Sample item are: “Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective,” and “Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.” Prior research indicated acceptable internal consistency reliability of this measure (Kirkman et al., 2009: $\alpha = .71$). In the present

study, internal consistency for the power distance measure was $\alpha = .88$. An EFA on this measure revealed the one-factor model explaining 54.50% of variance.

Organizational Learning Capability

Organizational learning capability was measured with a 14-item of scale developed by Chiva et al.'s (2007). This scale has been successfully validated and used in several previous studies (e.g., Camps & Majocchi, 2009; Chiva & Alegre, 2007). Chiva and Alegre (2007) provided a detailed assessment of this measurement scale's psychometric properties, including scale dimensionality, reliability, content validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The loadings of the measurement items on the first-order factors and the loadings of the first-order factors on the second-order factors were all significant. The CFI exceeded .90, indicating good model fit and a confirmation of scale dimensionality (Chiva & Alegre, 2007). Also, Camps and Majocchi (2009) showed internal consistency for each subscale: .90 (experimentation), .77 (risk taking), .82 (interaction with the external environment), .86 (dialogue), and .88 (participative decision making).

In the present study, internal consistency for the organizational learning capability measure was $\alpha = .94$. Sample items are: "People here receive support and encouragement when presenting new ideas" (experimentation, $\alpha = .90$), "People are encouraged to take risks in this organization" (risk taking, $\alpha = .87$), "There are systems and procedures for receiving, collating and sharing information from outside the company" (interaction with the external environment, $\alpha = .84$), "There is a free and open communication within my work group" (dialogue, $\alpha = .88$), and "Policies are significantly influenced by the view of employees" (participative decision making, $\alpha = .92$). The result of a CFA to assess the

validity of this measure confirmed the fit indexes for four first-order factors plus one second-order factor fell within an acceptable range ($\chi^2[72] = 395.55, p < .001$; CFI = .97, GFI = .88, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .10), indicating that the dimensions reflected the overall construct.

Control Variables

A set of variables were controlled to eliminate spurious relationships in this study because prior research found that individual differences, including demographics and personality, influenced voice behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Control variables included employee age, gender, education, rank (hierarchical level), organizational tenure, supervisor's gender, and personality, all of which are likely to have potential effects on the hypothesized relationships.

Gender was dummy-coded as 0 for male and 1 for female. Education data were collected in ordinal form and coded as follows: 1 (high school graduate), 2 (associate degree), 3 (bachelor's degree), 4 (master's degree), and 5 (doctoral degree). Age and organizational tenure were coded in number of years. Rank data were collected in ordinal form and coded as 1 (clerk/senior clerk), 2 (assistant manager), 3(manager), 4(senior manager), and 5(general manager). However, there was a high correlation ($r = .85$) between age and rank potentially due to seniority-based promotions in South Korea. When a regression with six demographic variables (age, gender, education, rank, supervisor's gender, organizational tenure) was run, the variance inflation factor (VIF) values for age and rank were equal to 2.95 and 2.93, and the Tolerance values for both variables were equally 0.34. Allison (1991) suggests that Tolerance values less than 0.4

(VIF greater than 2.5) may indicate the presence of multicollinearity. Thus, age was excluded from control variables due to multicollinearity.

The personality of the respondent was controlled because personality factors may influence individual voice behavior. To measure personality, I assessed openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, and emotional stability using the 10-item measure of the Big Five dimensions developed by Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann (2003). Gosling and his colleagues recommended that this instrument be used for “situations where very short measures are needed or personality is not the primary topic of interest” (p. 504). Gosling et al. found that the Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) showed adequate levels in each of the criteria against which it was evaluated such as convergent and discriminant validity, test-retest reliability, although the TIPI is less reliable compared with the 44-item Big-Five inventory. Sample items are: “I see myself as extraverted, enthusiastic,” and “I see myself as calm, emotionally stable.”

Data Analysis Approach

Prior to data analysis, data screening was conducted. To detect univariate and multivariate outliers, I examined the studentized residual, scatterplots, and Mahalanobis distance (D^2) (Orr, Sackett, & Dubois, 1991). Multicollinearity among the independent variables can inflate the variance, and these inflated variances are problematic because some variables may add very little independent information to the regression model (Belsley, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980; Robinson & Schumacker, 2009). Thus, VIF was examined to detect the degree of multicollinearity. Normal probability plots, histograms, and scatterplots of standardized residuals were examined to test the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For

the preliminary analyses to assess the construct validity of the measurement model, a series of CFA were conducted.

Stepwise regression analyses were employed to examine the main effects of empowering leadership, power distance, and organizational learning capability (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4). In addition, the present study investigated the changing of a relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior as a function of moderating influence. Moderated multiple regression was used to examine the role of power distance orientation as a moderator of the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice (Hypothesis 3) and the role of organizational learning capability as a moderator of the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice (Hypothesis 5).

In this analysis, the multiplicative interaction term represented the hypothesized moderator relationship and was examined for significance after controlling for variance attributable to its main effects components (Stone, 1988). Robinson and Schumacker (2009) noted that interpretation of results would be incorrect for interaction effects with uncentered variables, and centering of variables is an important step when testing interaction effects in multiple regression. Prior to the analyses, all of the variables were mean-centered (Aiken & West, 1991).

To test the main and interactive effects, I performed hierarchical moderated multiple regression analyses in which the control variables were entered in the first step followed by the inclusion of the main effects variables of empowering leadership, power distance orientation, and organizational learning capability in the second. In the third step, two interaction terms (empowering leadership \times power distance orientation, empowering

leadership \times organizational learning capability) were additionally entered. To probe the nature of these effect, I plotted the interactions following Aiken and West's (1991) procedures and conducted simple slopes tests.

To test the mediation hypotheses, structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was used. According to Preacher and Hayes (2008), mediation hypotheses posit "how, or by what means, independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through one or more potential intervening variables, or mediators (M)" (p. 879). SEM is generally accepted as the preferred method for testing the mediation hypotheses and is useful when researchers examine relationships across multiple latent variables (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Kline, 2005). Holmbeck (1997) suggested the steps how to test mediation using SEM. These steps are similar to the basic idea of testing mediation using regression analyses by Baron and Kenny (1986), although Baron and Kenny's method has been criticized due to the inflated possibility of Type I and Type II errors (Holmbeck, 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). I used several goodness-of-fit indices in assessing the fit of the research model to alleviate problems associated with using a single goodness-of-fit index in SEM (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994). These fit indices include the chi-squared statistic divided by the degrees of freedom (χ^2 / df), comparative fit index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). For the analyses, LISREL 8.80 was used.

Subsequently, I used bootstrapping to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized indirect effect. Bootstrapping is a nonparametric approach to effect-size estimation and hypothesis testing that has no assumptions about the sampling distribution

of the statistics (Bollen & Stine, 1990). Shrout and Bolger (2002) noted that a more accurate estimate of the standard error of the indirect effect could be estimated with a bootstrapping approach. This resampling technique is free from any assumptions or requirements regarding the normal distribution of individual variables and overall dataset (Bollen & Stine, 1990). I followed the steps described by Preachers and Hayes (2008) using their SPSS macro command set for bootstrapping.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the data collection, measures, and data analysis approaches, as well as target population and sample of this study. The target population was non-executive Korean employees of for-profit organizations in South Korea. Data were collected from two major conglomerates and three companies (internet service, pharmaceuticals, and semiconductor) in South Korea in cooperation with HR or HRD managers of each organization. Six hundred and fifty survey questionnaires were distributed and 437 usable questionnaires were returned. Prior to the data collection, this research was approved by the IRB at the University of Minnesota.

For the survey questionnaire, validated measurement scales were used to assess voice behavior, empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, power distance orientation, and organizational learning capability. All of the measures used in this study were previously developed and validated. The questionnaire was administered in Korean following a back-translation procedure. A series of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test the construct validity of the measurements. Consistent with accepted practice in SEM, several different fit indices were used to assess the fit of the model.

Moderated regression analyses were used to test the main and interaction effects of power distance orientation and organizational learning capability on the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior (Hypotheses 1 through 5). SEM was used to test mediation of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior and between organizational learning capability and voice behavior (Hypotheses 6 through 9) based on the casual steps approach by Baron and Kenny (1986). Then, a bootstrap procedure was used to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized indirect effect.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. First, preliminary analyses including descriptive statistics, correlation matrix, and CFA are presented. Next, results of the moderated multiple regression analyses for testing the hypotheses on the main and interactive effects are provided. Finally, results of SEM and bootstrap analyses for testing the hypotheses on the medication effects are presented.

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to analyses, to check for univariate outliers and multivariate outliers, I examined the z scores of each of the overall scales and Mahalanobis distances among the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). No extreme outliers were found. An examination of the assumptions underlying multiple regression analysis showed that organizational tenure had positively skewed distribution. In keeping with recommendations regarding positively skewed data (Watson, Driver, & Watson, 1985), a square-root transformation was performed on the organizational tenure distribution.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Table 5 presents the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the study variables. An inspection of the correlations indicated that voice behavior was positively and significantly related to empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and organizational learning capability, whereas power distance orientation was inversely related to voice behavior. Psychological empowerment was significantly correlated with empowering leadership, organizational learning capability, and power distance orientation. Among the demographic variables, age, rank, and organizational

tenure were positively and significantly related to voice behavior. A negative correlation for the relationship between voice behavior and leader's gender was found, suggesting that employees exhibited less voice when their immediate supervisor was female. Results also showed that openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability were significantly related to voice behavior.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The present study measured empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, organizational learning capability, power distance orientation, and voice behavior from the same source and used translated measures. Therefore, prior to testing the hypotheses, I conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses to ensure the construct distinctiveness of the measures using LISREL 8.80 and a maximum likelihood estimation (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The overall model's chi-square, CFI, NFI, NNFI, and RMSEA were used to assess model fit. For empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, which are a four-dimension construct, I reduced the number of items by creating four indicators, with each indicator being represented by the dimension score. Likewise, for organizational learning capability, which is a five-dimension construct, I reduced the number of items by creating five indicators. I did not reduce the number of items of both voice behavior and power distance orientation.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations between Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Age	36.40	5.73															
2. Gender	0.21	0.41	-.34**														
3. Education	3.09	0.72	-.24**	.07													
4. Rank	3.09	1.19	.85**	-.24**	-.16**												
5. Tenure	6.72	6.08	.52**	-.07	-.31**	.50**											
6. Leader's gender	0.10	0.30	-.24**	.46**	-.01	-.19**	-.04										
7. Openness	4.84	1.07	.08	-.05	.09	.11*	.02	.00									
8. Conscientiousness	5.29	0.85	.13**	-.02	-.02	.15**	.11*	-.01	.24**								
9. Extraversion	4.24	1.13	-.12*	.18**	.11*	-.09	-.01	.04	.44**	.08							
10. Agreeableness	5.67	0.83	.06	.03	-.03	.04	.04	.10*	.25**	.32**	.06						
11. Emotional stability	5.19	0.98	.10*	-.12**	.03	.09	-.01	-.08	.20**	.40**	-.11*	.44**					
12. EL	4.99	0.94	.11*	-.07	.05	.11*	.09	-.04	.18**	.15**	.06	.25**	.20**				
13. PE	5.29	0.82	.31**	-.09	.04	.33**	.25**	-.11*	.37**	.33**	.24**	.29**	.24**	.50**			
14. PDO	3.04	0.77	.06	-.06	-.05	.02	-.03	-.03	-.21**	-.09	-.08	-.11*	-.05	-.09	-.12*		
15. OLC	4.55	0.98	.21**	-.08	.00	.19**	.16**	-.10*	.20**	.18**	.06	.24**	.23**	.49**	.55**	-.06	
16. Voice behavior	5.07	0.84	.28**	-.07	.07	.32**	.20**	-.15**	.41**	.26**	.25**	.22**	.21**	.57**	.68**	-.19**	.42**

Note. $N = 403$ after listwise deletion of missing data. EL = Empowering leadership; PE = Psychological empowerment; PDO = Power distance orientation; OLC = Organizational learning capability. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 6

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the Study Variables

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	NFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Five-factor model ^a	1045.40	314		0.96	0.94	0.95	0.076
Four-factor model 1 ^b	1494.11	318	448.71	0.94	0.92	0.94	0.096
Four-factor model 2 ^c	1895.74	318	850.34	0.93	0.91	0.92	0.111
Three-factor model ^d	2443.80	321	1398.40	0.91	0.89	0.90	0.128
Two-factor model ^e	3072.06	323	2026.66	0.89	0.87	0.88	0.146
One-factor model ^f	5607.35	324	4561.95	0.81	0.80	0.79	0.201

Note. $N = 403$. All χ^2 and $\Delta\chi^2$ values are $p < .001$.

^a Five-factor model includes empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, organizational learning capability, power distance orientation, and voice behavior. ^b Four-factor model 1 includes organizational learning capability, power distance orientation, voice behavior, and a factor combining empowering leadership and psychological empowerment. ^c Four-factor model 2 includes psychological empowerment, power distance orientation, voice behavior, and a factor combining empowering leadership and organizational learning capability. ^d Three-factor model includes power distance orientation, voice behavior, and a factor combining empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and organizational learning capability. ^e Two-factor model includes power distance orientation and a factor combining empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, organizational learning capability, and voice behavior. ^f One-factor model includes one factor combining all five constructs.

As indicated in Table 6, results showed an acceptable level of fit to the five-factor structure based on goodness-of-fit statistics ($\chi^2[314] = 1045.40$; CFI = .96; NFI = .94; NNFI = .95; RMSEA = .076). In addition, all factor loadings were significant. To confirm that a five-factor model was the most appropriate representation of data, the five-factor model was compared to alternative models with fewer factors. I first estimated two four-factor alternative models. The first model collapsed empowering leadership and psychological empowerment into one factor (CFI = .94; NFI = .92; NNFI = .94; RMSEA

= .096), whereas the second model collapsed empowering leadership and organizational learning capability into one factor (CFI = .93; NFI = .91; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .111). Neither alternative model fit the data as well as the five-factor model.

Furthermore, two other potential models, a three-factor model and a two-factor model, both provided poorer fit to the data. Finally, I tested a single-factor model in which all items were specified to load on a single latent variable. This model did not provide a good fit to the data (CFI = .81; NFI = .80; NNFI = .79; RMSEA = .201). As indicated in Table 6, results showed that the hypothesized five-factor model proved superior to any more parsimonious model.

Hypothesis Tests

Testing the Main and Interaction Effects

To test Hypotheses 1 through 5, moderated regression analysis was performed. In step 1, all of the control variables were entered. In step 2, three main effect variables, empowering leadership, power distance orientation, and organizational learning capability were added. In step 3, I tested for interactions by entering the product of empowering leadership and power distance orientation (empowering leadership \times power distance orientation) and the product of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability (empowering leadership \times organizational learning capability). Of the control variables, rank ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), leader's gender ($\beta = -.11, p < .01$), openness ($\beta = .19, p < .01$), and extraversion ($\beta = .14, p < .01$) were significantly related to voice behavior.

Hypotheses 1 and 3 predicted that empowering leadership and organizational learning capability would be positively associated with voice behavior. Hypothesis 2

predicted that power distance orientation would be negatively associated with voice behavior. I regressed voice behavior on empowering leadership, power distance orientation, and organizational learning capability. As shown in step 2 of the regression models in Table 7, the individual beta weights indicated that empowering leadership ($\beta = .42, t = 10.46, p < .01$) and organizational learning capability ($\beta = .09, t = 2.12, p < .05$) significantly and positively predicted voice behavior, supporting Hypotheses 1 and 3. In support of Hypothesis 2, power distance orientation significantly and negatively predicted voice behavior ($\beta = -.09, t = -2.45, p < .05$).

In step 3, I tested power distance orientation and organizational learning capability's interactions with empowering leadership in predicting voice behavior. Hypothesis 4 predicted that empowering leadership and power distance orientation would interact to affect voice behavior. Hypothesis 5 predicted that empowering leadership and organizational learning capability would interact to affect voice behavior. If there is a significant change in R^2 when the interaction term is added, a moderating effect is said to exist.

The result showed that the interaction term of empowering leadership \times power distance orientation turned out to be significant on voice behavior ($\beta = .09, t = 2.53, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported. In keeping with Hypothesis 4, I found that empowering leadership interacted significantly with organizational learning capability to influence voice behavior ($\beta = .09, t = 2.36, p < .05$). Hypothesis 5 was also supported. Adding the two interaction variables improved the amount of variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .12, p < .01$).

Table 7
Moderated Regression Results for Voice Behavior

Variables	Voice Behavior								
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β
Step 1: Control variables									
Gender	.07	.10	.03	.10	.08	.05	.09	.08	.04
Education	.11	.05	.09*	.06	.04	.05	.07	.04	.06
Rank	.16	.04	.23**	.15	.03	.21**	.15	.03	.21**
Leader's gender	-.35	.13	-.13**	-.30	.11	-.11**	-.29	.11	-.10**
Organizational tenure	.08	.04	.11*	.04	.03	.06	.04	.03	.06
Openness	.20	.04	.26**	.15	.03	.19**	.13	.03	.17**
Conscientiousness	.09	.05	.09	.07	.04	.07	.06	.04	.06
Extraversion	.11	.04	.14**	.10	.03	.14**	.10	.03	.14**
Agreeableness	.09	.05	.09	-.01	.04	-.01	-.02	.04	-.02
Emotional stability	.06	.04	.08	.03	.04	.03	.04	.04	.04
Step 2: Main effects									
EL				.38	.04	.42**	.40	.04	.45**
PDO				-.10	.04	-.09*	-.11	.04	-.10**
OLC				.08	.04	.09*	.07	.04	.08
Step 3: Interaction effects									
EL x PDO							.10	.04	.09*
EL x OLC							.07	.03	.09*
R^2			.315**			.526**			.538**
ΔR^2						.211**			.012**
Adjusted R^2			.298**			.510**			.520**

Note. EL = Empowering leadership; PDO = Power distance orientation; OLC = Organizational learning capability. Unstandardized (*b*) and standardized (β) regression coefficients are shown. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

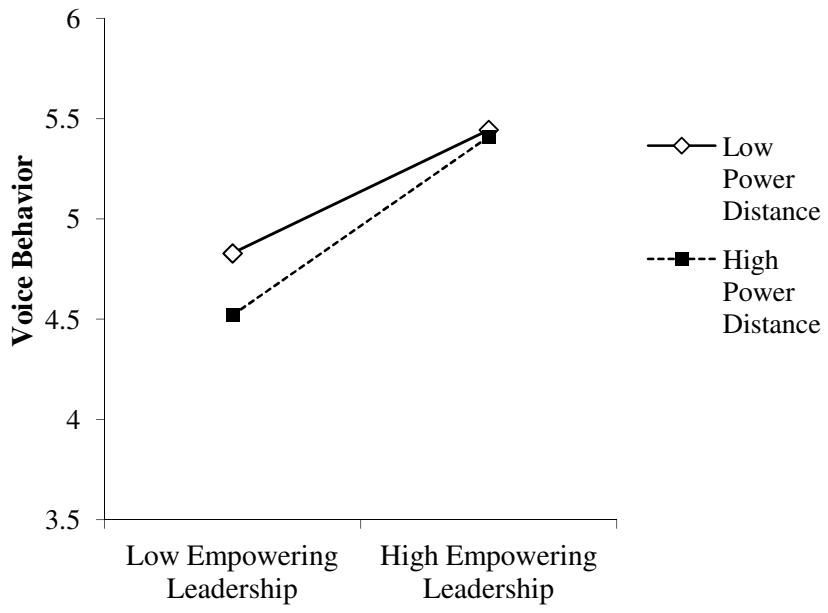


Figure 2. Interactive effect of empowering leadership and power distance orientation on voice behavior

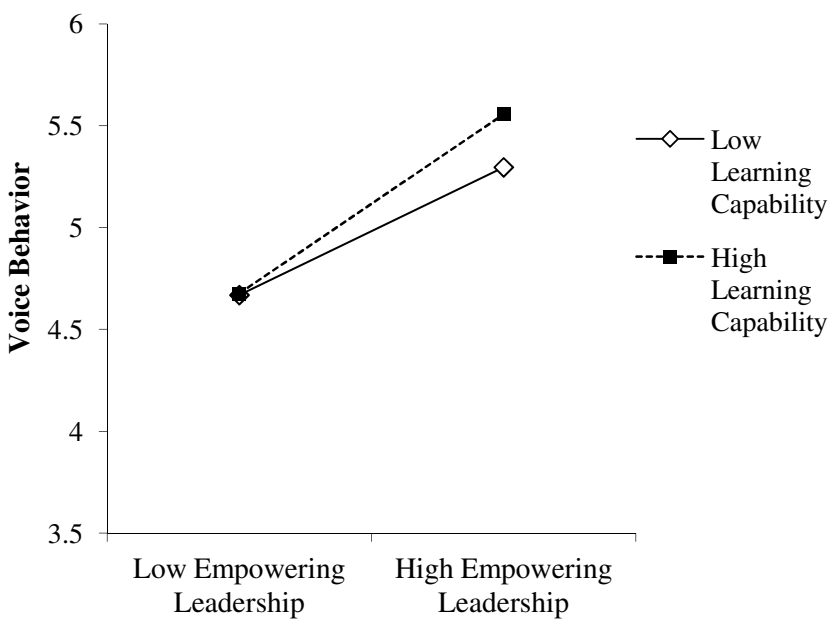


Figure 3. Interactive effect of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability on voice behavior

To probe the nature of the effects, I plotted the interactions following Aiken and West's (1991) procedures and conducted simple slopes tests. First, the relationship between empowering leadership \times power distance orientation and voice behavior was plotted using conditional values for power distance orientation that were calculated to be 1 standard deviation above and 1 standard deviation below the mean (Aiken & West, 1991). Figure 2 shows that the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior is positive for both high and low power distance orientation, but the relationship is stronger for high power distance orientation (dashed line) than low power distance orientation (solid line). Furthermore, I conducted a simple slopes test, which is the method for testing "the statistical significance of the slopes of the simple regression lines representing relations between the predictor and the outcome at specific values of the moderator variable" (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004, p. 122). Frazier et al. (2004) further point out that testing the simple slopes can give information about the significance of the relationships between the independent and dependent variable at different levels of the moderator.

In the present study, simple slope tests indicated that empowering leadership has a stronger positive effect on employee voice behavior when an employee's power distance orientation is high ($\beta = .49, t = 9.55, p < .01$) than when such power distance orientation is low ($\beta = .36, t = 6.94, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported. Next, the relationship between empowering leadership \times organizational learning capability and voice behavior was plotted (see Figure 3). The plot shows that the impact of empowering leadership on voice behavior is higher when organizational learning capability is high (dashed line) than when it is low (solid line). Simple slopes tests confirmed that

empowering leadership had a stronger positive effect on employee voice behavior when organizational learning capability is high ($\beta = .50, t = 8.43, p < .01$) than when it is low ($\beta = .39, t = 8.38, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Testing Mediation Effects

To examine the mediation effects, I first followed the causal step approach in testing for mediation proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) using both hierarchical regression and SEM. Then, a bootstrap procedure was used to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized indirect effect, and the mediating effect was tested using the Preacher and Hayes's macro for SPSS version of INDIRECT (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008). This macro expands on the Baron and Kenny's method by estimating the path coefficients in a multiple mediator model and producing bootstrap confidence intervals for total and specific indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through a one or more mediator variable(s). To examine the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice behavior, I drew on the work of Baron and Kenny (1986). Baron and Kenny suggested that for establishing mediation, the following four conditions had to be met:

- (1) Empowering leadership is related to voice behavior,
- (2) Empowering leadership is significantly related to psychological empowerment,
- (3) Psychological empowerment is related to voice behavior, and
- (4) The strength of the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior diminish when psychological empowerment is added to the model as a mediator.

Table 8

Regression Results for Psychological Empowerment as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Psychological Empowerment					
	Step 1			Step 2		
	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β
Step 1: Control variables						
Gender	-.03	.10	-.02	-.01	.08	-.00
Education	.09	.05	.08	.06	.04	.05
Rank	.14	.04	.21**	.12	.03	.17**
Leader's gender	-.20	.13	-.07	-.12	.11	-.04
Organizational tenure	.10	.04	.15**	.07	.03	.10*
Openness	.14	.04	.18**	.10	.03	.13**
Conscientiousness	.15	.05	.16**	.12	.04	.14**
Extraversion	.12	.04	.16**	.10	.03	.14**
Agreeableness	.15	.05	.16**	.06	.04	.06
Emotional stability	.05	.04	.06	.00	.04	.01
Step 2: Predictor						
Empowering leadership				.22	.04	.25**
Organizational learning capability				.25	.04	.30**
R^2			.34**			.53**
ΔR^2						.19**
Adjusted R^2			.32**			.51**

Note. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

The results of moderated regression analyses (see Table 7) satisfied the first requirement for mediation. Hypothesis 6 proposed that empowering leadership would be positively related to employees' psychological empowerment. The regression analyses results for this hypothesis are shown in Table 8. With the control variables included (step

1), empowering leadership was significantly related to psychological empowerment ($\beta = .25, t = 6.23, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported, satisfying the second requirement for mediation.

Hypothesis 7 stated that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. Shown in step 3 of the regression models in Table 9, the beta weight for psychological empowerment was statistically significant and in the expected direction ($\beta = .38, t = 8.68, p < .01$), satisfying the third requirement for mediation. In order to fully support Hypothesis 7, the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior must disappear when psychological empowerment is entered in a final hierarchical step. As shown in Table 9 (step 3), the beta weight for empowering leadership ($\beta = .33, t = 8.55, p < .01$) was still significant, indicating that psychological empowerment did not fully mediate the relations between empowering leadership and voice behavior. However, the strength of the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior diminished when psychological empowerment was added to the model as a mediator from $\beta = .47$ to $\beta = .33$. Thus, psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. But it did not fully mediate the relationship. Hypothesis 7 was not fully supported. Similarly, to examine the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior, the following four conditions had to be met:

- (1) Organizational learning capability is related to voice behavior,
- (2) Organizational learning capability is significantly related to psychological empowerment,

Table 9
Mediation of the Relationship of Empowering Leadership with Voice behavior by Psychological Empowerment

Variables	Voice Behavior								
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β
Step 1: Control variables									
Gender	.07	.10	.03	.11	.09	.05	.11	.08	.05
Education	.11	.05	.09*	.06	.04	.06	.04	.04	.04
Rank	.16	.04	.23**	.15	.03	.21**	.10	.03	.13**
Leader's gender	-.35	.13	-.13**	-.32	.11	-.11**	-.25	.10	-.09*
Organizational tenure	.08	.04	.11*	.05	.03	.06	.01	.03	.02
Openness	.20	.04	.26**	.17	.03	.22**	.13	.03	.16**
Conscientiousness	.09	.05	.09	.08	.04	.08	.02	.04	.02
Extraversion	.11	.04	.14**	.10	.03	.13**	.06	.03	.08
Agreeableness	.09	.05	.09	.00	.04	.00	-.03	.04	-.03
Emotional stability	.06	.04	.08	.03	.04	.04	.02	.03	.03
Step 2: Predictor									
Empowering leadership				.42	.03	.47**	.30	.03	.33**
Step 3: Mediator									
Psychological empowerment							.39	.05	.38**
R^2			.32**			.51**			.60**
ΔR^2						.19**			.09**
Adjusted R^2			.30**			.50**			.58**

Note. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 10

Mediation of the Relationship of Organizational Learning Capability with Voice Behavior by Psychological Empowerment

Variables	Voice Behavior								
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β	<i>b</i>	SE	β
Step 1: Control variables									
Gender	.07	.10	.03	.07	.09	.04	.09	.08	.04
Education	.11	.05	.09*	.10	.05	.09*	.06	.04	.05
Rank	.16	.04	.23**	.14	.04	.21**	.08	.03	.11*
Leader's gender	-.35	.13	-.13**	-.30	.13	-.10*	-.23	.11	-.08*
Organizational tenure	.08	.04	.11*	.06	.04	.08	.02	.03	.02
Openness	.20	.04	.26**	.18	.04	.23**	.12	.03	.16**
Conscientiousness	.09	.05	.09	.08	.05	.08	.01	.04	.01
Extraversion	.11	.04	.14**	.10	.04	.14**	.04	.03	.06
Agreeableness	.09	.05	.09	.06	.06	.06	-.00	.04	-.00
Emotional stability	.06	.04	.08	.05	.04	.05	.03	.04	.03
Step 2: Predictor									
Organizational learning capability				.24	.04	.28**	.06	.04	.07
Step 3: Mediator									
Psychological empowerment							.53	.05	.51**
R^2			.32**			.38**			.52**
ΔR^2						.06**			.14**
Adjusted R^2			.30**			.37**			.50**

Note. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

- (3) Psychological empowerment is related to voice behavior, and
- (4) The strength of the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior diminish when psychological empowerment is added to the model as a mediator.

The results of moderated regression analyses (see Table 7) satisfied the first requirement for mediation. Hypothesis 8 proposed that organizational learning capability would be positively related to psychological empowerment. The results for this hypothesis are shown in Table 8. With the control variables included (step 1), organizational learning capability was significantly related to psychological empowerment ($\beta = .30, t = 7.13, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported, satisfying the second requirement for mediation.

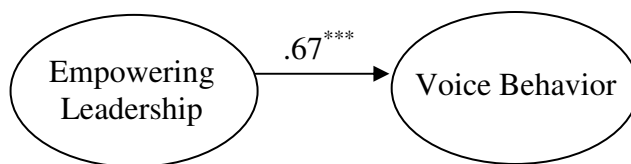
Hypothesis 9 stated that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior. Shown in step 3 of the regression models in Table 10, the beta weight for psychological empowerment was statistically significant and in the expected direction ($\beta = .51, t = 10.52, p < .01$), satisfying the third requirement for mediation. In order to fully support Hypothesis 9, the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior must disappear when psychological empowerment is entered in a final hierarchical step.

As shown in Table 10 (step 3), the beta weight for organizational learning capability ($\beta = .07, t = 1.64, p = \text{nonsignificant}$) was statistically not significant, indicating psychological empowerment fully mediated the relations between empowering leadership and voice behavior. Consequently, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

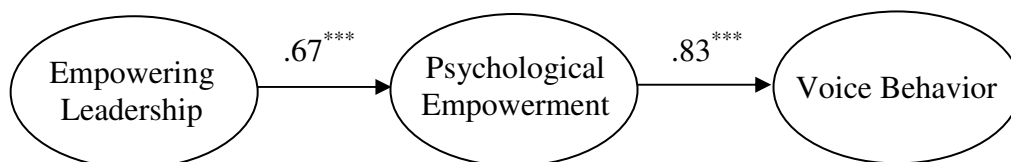
Test of the Structural Model

To test mediation effect of psychological empowerment, maximum likelihood SEM was used to assess the model fits and path coefficient estimates as Holmbeck (1997) described. In Figure 4 and Figure 5, the ovals represent latent variables.

A



B



C

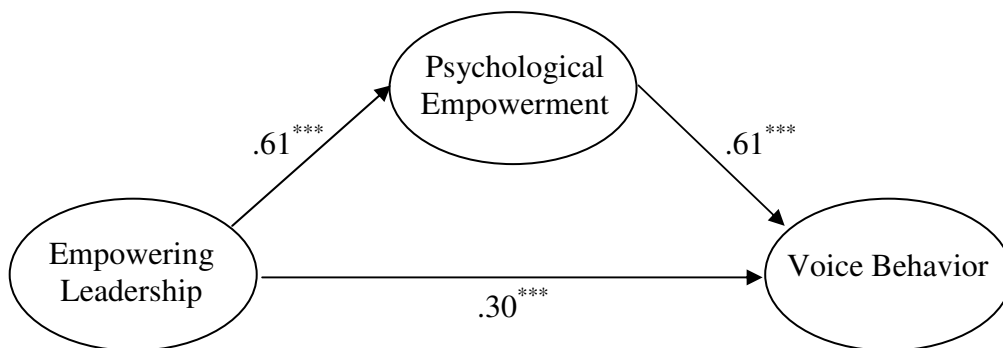


Figure 4. The standardized path coefficients of the mediated model of empowering leadership → psychological empowerment → voice behavior

First, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior was tested. In Figure 4, Model A, which is the unmediated model, indicates the relationship between empowering

leadership and voice behavior with a single arrow. Model B shows the fully mediated model. That is, the effect of empowering leadership is mediated by a mediating variable, psychological empowerment. No indirect path was specified. The results show that Model B fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 325.83$, $df = 75$; RMSEA = .009; SRMR = .064; GFI = .90; CFI = .97; NNFI = .96). All path coefficients in Model B were found to be statistically significant. In Model C, a direct path from empowering leadership to voice behavior was added. The results indicate that Model C also fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 304.39$, $df = 74$; RMSEA = .089; SRMR = .054; GFI = .90; CFI = .97; NNFI = .96).

This study used SEM in order to test the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. When psychological empowerment (the mediator) was specified, this study found that the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior remained significant as shown in Model C, though the effect was reduced from .67 to .30. Also, the relationships between both (1) empowering leadership and psychological empowerment (.61, $p < .001$) and (2) psychological empowerment and voice behavior remained significant (.61, $p < .001$).

Next, Model B and Model C are compared. Two path models, Model B and Model C, are hierarchical or nested because one is a subset of the other (Kline, 2005). Here, Model B is nested under Model C. The path between empowering leadership and voice behavior was constrained to zero in Model B, whereas this path was set free in Model C. Since Model B is nested in Model C, the chi-square difference test was conducted. The chi-square difference statistic can be used to test the statistical significance of the improvement in overall fit as paths are added (Kline, 2005). The chi-

square difference statistic is the difference between the chi-square values of two models and its degrees of freedom equal the difference between the two respective values. The chi-square difference statistic tests “the null hypothesis of identical fit of the two hierarchical models in the population” (Kline, 2005, p. 146). When the models follow chi-square distribution, the difference of the chi-square values also follows chi-square distribution (Kline, 2005; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Muller, 2003). Table 11 represents the fit indices of Model B and Model C. The chi-square difference (325.83 – 304.39) is 21.44 and *df* difference (75 – 74) is 1 ($\Delta \chi^2 [1, N = 403] = 21.44, p < .001$). There was a statistically significant difference between both models’ chi-square values, which indicated a significant difference between two models. Thus, Model C is chosen. Hypothesis 7 predicted a full mediating relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and voice behavior. When the mediator, psychological empowerment was specified, the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior remained significant, although the strength of the relationship was reduced. These findings indicated partial mediation, which partially supported Hypothesis 7.

Table 11

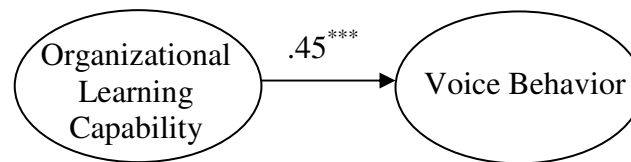
Comparison of the Model Fit Indices

Fit indices	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	CFI	NNFI
Model B	325.83	75	4.43	.069	.064	.90	.97	.96
Model C	304.39	74	4.11	.060	.054	.90	.97	.96

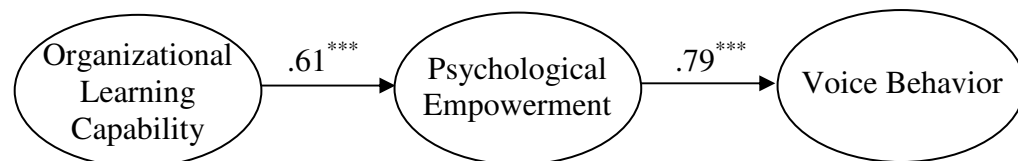
Next, the mediation effect of psychological empowerment between organizational learning capability and voice behavior was tested. In Figure 5, Model D, which is the unmediated model, shows the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior with a single arrow. Model E indicates the fully mediated

model. That is, the effect of organizational learning capability is mediated by a mediating variable, psychological empowerment. No indirect path was specified. The results show that Model E fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 349.18$, $df = 88$; RMSEA = .086; SRMR = .055; GFI = .90; CFI = .97; NNFI = .96). All path coefficients in Model E were found to be statistically significant. In Model F, a direct path from organizational learning capability to voice behavior was added. The results indicate that Model F also fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 347.49$, $df = 87$; RMSEA = .086; SRMR = .055; GFI = .90; CFI = .97; NNFI = .96).

D



E



F

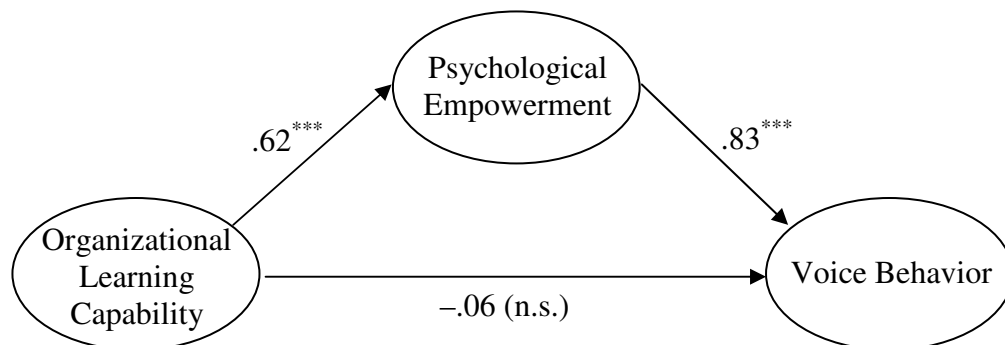


Figure 5. The standardized path coefficients of the mediated model of organizational learning capability → psychological empowerment → voice behavior

As shown in Figure 5, when psychological empowerment (the mediator) was specified, the relationships between both (1) organizational learning capability and psychological empowerment (.62, $p < .001$) and (2) psychological empowerment and voice behavior remained significant (.83, $p < .001$). However, the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior did not remain significant.

Next, Model E and Model F are compared. Here, Model E is nested under Model F. The path between organizational learning capability and voice behavior was constrained to zero in Model E, whereas this path was set free in Model F. Table 12 shows the fit indices of Model E and Model F. The chi-square difference (349.18 – 347.49) is 1.69 and df difference (88 – 87) is 1. The nonsignificant chi-square difference, $\Delta \chi^2 (1, N=403) = 1.69, p = .19$, indicated that Model E is not significantly different from Model F. In addition, previously significant path (.45, $p < .001$) between organizational learning capability and voice behavior became nonsignificant (–.06). These findings indicated full mediation, which supported Hypothesis 9. Thus, more parsimonious Model E is chosen.

Table 12

Comparison of the Model Fit Indices

Fit indices	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	CFI	NNFI
Model E	349.18	88	3.97	.086	.055	.90	.97	.96
Model F	347.49	87	3.99	.086	.055	.90	.97	.96

Bootstrapping

The causal steps approach proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) has been the most commonly used approach to testing mediation relationships (Mathieu, DeShon, & Bergh, 2008; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). However, researchers have reported the

shortcomings of the Baron and Kenny's approach. Mallinckrodt, Abraham, Wei, and Russell (2006) describe that the method for testing mediation popularized by Baron and Kenny, which is referred as the *normal theory* approach by these authors, relies on the assumption that mediation effects are distributed normally and also highlight that the bootstrap approach provides greater statistical power and relative advantages than the normal theory approach. MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002) stated that the standard errors of the indirect effects from the LISREL program might be inaccurate and MacKinnon, Lockwood, and Williams (2004) further argued that confidence intervals obtained from the normal theory approach revealed lower statistical power and inferior coverage of the parameter estimates than different resampling procedures including bootstrapping test. Shrout and Bolger (2002) argued that bootstrap-based tests can be useful for testing theories of mediating processes and provide more accurate estimates. The bootstrap procedure can be used as an empirical method of estimating the significance of the indirect effects and this approach is powerful when the sample is small to moderate and the distribution of the indirect effect is skewed away from zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

In the current study, a bootstrap procedure is used to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized indirect effect based on Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008). As Preacher and Hayes (2008) noted, the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution of the total and specific indirect effects is questionable. Thus, this study bootstrapped the indirect effects of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability on voice behavior through psychological empowerment, using the SPSS version of macro developed by Preacher and Hayes. In these analyses, no latent variables

are employed. First, 5,000 bootstrap samples were created from the original data set through random sampling with replacement. Each bootstrap sample included a sample size of 403. Then, two structural models, (1) empowering leadership → psychological empowerment → voice behavior and (2) organizational learning capability → psychological empowerment → voice behavior were run with these 5,000 bootstrap samples to yield 5,000 estimations of each path coefficient. All the control variables used in the regression analyses were entered into both models. The 95% confidence interval (CI) of the indirect effect was calculated in three ways: percentile, bias-corrected (BC), and bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) which was relatively free from poor coverage error as compared with the first two methods (Carpenter & Bithell, 2000). The macro provides a bootstrap estimate of the indirect effect with an estimated standard error. The indirect effect is significant at the .05 level if the 95% CI for the estimate does not include zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Table 13

Indirect Effects of Empowering Leadership and Organizational Learning Capability on Voice Behavior through Psychological Empowerment

Indirect Effect	Point Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping 95% CI					
			Percentile		BC		BCa	
			Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
EL→PE→Voice	.129	.021	.090	.171	.091	.176	.089	.174
LC→PE→Voice	.178	.025	.133	.227	.136	.232	.133	.231

Note. EL = Empowering leadership; PE = psychological empowerment; LC = organizational learning capability; Voice = Voice behavior; BC = Bias-corrected method; BCa = Bias-corrected and accelerated method; 5,000 bootstrap samples.

As shown in Table 13, none of the 95% confidence intervals (percentile, BC, and BCa) contains zero in both models. First, the results from the bootstrap procedure indicated that 95% of the bootstrap estimates for EL→PE→Voice were between .090 and .171 (point estimate = .129 [percentile 95% CI: .090, .171]). This CI result led to conclude that the indirect effect of empowering leadership on voice behavior through psychological empowerment was significantly different from zero. Therefore, psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. Similarly, from the bootstrap percentile CI shown in Table 13, 95% of the bootstrap estimates for LC→PE→Voice were between .133 and .227, which led to conclude that the indirect effect of organizational learning capability on voice behavior through psychological empowerment was significantly different from zero (point estimate = .178 [percentile 95% CI: .133, .227]). In this study, psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior.

Summary

This chapter presents the results of data analyses. First, moderated multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the main and interactive effects. The results of regression analyses showed that empowering leadership and organizational learning capability significantly and positively predicted voice behavior, supporting Hypotheses 1 and 3. In support of Hypothesis 2, power distance orientation significantly and negatively predicted voice behavior. Furthermore, both interaction terms of empowering leadership × power distance orientation and empowering leadership × organizational learning capability turned out to be significant on voice behavior. Adding these interaction

variables improved the amount of variance explained. Thus, power distance orientation and organizational learning capability moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior, supporting Hypotheses 4 and 5.

In addition, the results of SEM showed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior, which failed to support the hypothesis which predicted a full mediating relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and voice behavior. However, psychological empowerment fully mediated the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior. Finally, the result from the bootstrap procedure indicated that the indirect effects of empowering leadership and organizational learning capability to voice behavior through psychological empowerment were statistically significant.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter. First, a summary of the results and discussion are presented. Then, theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed. Next, limitations of this study are addressed. Finally, the chapter concludes by outlining future research directions.

Summary of Results and Discussion

Employees' ideas and thoughts for constructive change are becoming more critical for organizations in today's challenging and dynamic business environment which relies on innovation and creativity. Although previous studies have investigated the impact of individual and situational factors on voice behavior, there remains a scarcity of research that focuses on exploring the process influencing employee voice behavior. The aim of the present study was to investigate the antecedents and processes influencing employee voice behavior through the investigation of the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Empowering Leadership and Voice Behavior

Hypothesis 1 predicted that empowering leadership would be positively related to voice behavior. This hypothesis was confirmed with a positive association between empowering leadership and voice behavior. More specifically, employees who perceive that their leaders enhance the meaningfulness of work, foster participation in decision making, express confidence in high performance, and provide autonomy from bureaucratic constraints were more likely to engage in voice behavior. There has been increasing interest in empowerment and related concepts such as employee participation (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). However, previous research has shown weak relationships

between empowering managerial practices and employee behavioral outcomes (Wagner, 1994). The current study confirmed that empowering leadership was recognized as a strong predictor of voice behavior, controlling for the effects of individual personality and demographic variables.

Hypotheses 2-3: Power Distance Orientation and Voice Behavior

Hypothesis 2 predicted that power distance orientation would be negatively related to voice behavior. This hypothesis was also confirmed, indicating that employees with a high power distance orientation were less likely to engage in voice behavior. Because voice behavior may challenge the status quo by suggesting constructive ideas for change, employees who engage in voice behavior “run the risk of being opposed by their leaders who usually feel a sense of ownership towards the current framework of thought and practices” (Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011, p. 794). This finding supports the argument that employees who are high in power distance orientation acknowledge their own decision-making limitations, so they tend to comply with their leaders’ explicit orders or instructions without vocal resistance (Kirkman et al., 2009). In addition, this result is in line with the argument that employees with low power distance tend to feel more freedom to question supervisors and have a strong belief that they can initiate actions that result in significant change (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that power distance orientation would moderate the positive relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. The interaction result provides support for hypothesis 3 indicating that empowering leadership is likely to be more effective in influencing employee voice behavior when an employee has high power distance orientation. Empowering leadership is associated with fostering self-

directedness by sharing power with subordinates (Vecchio et al., 2010). Thus, individual power distance orientation may moderate the empowering leadership-employee voice relationship because power distance orientation influences employees' perceptions about power differences in organizations and dictates appropriate supervisor-subordinate roles (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009). This finding is consistent with Edmondson's (2003) argument that "power differences in teams intensify the interpersonal risk faced by members who wish to speak up with ideas, questions, or concerns" (p. 1420).

Hypotheses 4-5: Organizational Learning Capability and Voice Behavior

Hypothesis 4 predicted that organizational learning capability would be positively related to voice behavior. In the present study, the construct of organizational learning capability included five underlying dimensions: experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. This hypothesis was confirmed, indicating that there is a positive association between organizational learning capability and voice behavior. This result is in line with the argument that employees search for cues regarding whether or not the organization provides a positive and encouraging context for speaking up (Dutton, Ashford, Lawrence, & Miner-Rubino, 2002). Morrison and Milliken (2000) further indicate that employee voice behavior may be far more frequent in some settings than in others because the organizational context can have a considerable effect on the occurrence of employee voice behavior.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that organizational learning capability would moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. This hypothesis was also confirmed. Organizational learning capability strengthened the positive relationship

between empowering leadership and voice behavior such that the relationship was stronger for employees who perceived that organizational learning capability was high instead of low. More specifically, the positive relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior was stronger when employees perceived that their organization highly promoted experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. This is consistent with Boudrias et al.'s (2010) argument that effective supervisor empowering practices are more positively related to employee behavioral outcomes when there are higher perceptions of a supportive organizational climate.

Hypotheses 6-9: Psychological Empowerment

Hypothesis 6 predicted that empowering leadership would be positively related to psychological empowerment. This hypothesis was confirmed, which is in line with the argument that empowering leader behaviors promote employees' psychological empowerment by enhancing their sense of meaningfulness, competence, self-determination, and impact (Chen et al., 2011).

Hypothesis 7 predicted that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. This hypothesis was partially supported. That is, psychological empowerment partially mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment. Empowering leader behaviors signal to employees that the leader trusts their competence, and employees respond to these behavioral cues by feeling more psychologically empowered (Chen et al., 2007, 2011; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). This result is consistent with Raub and Robert's (2010) recent findings that the impact of

empowering leadership on challenging extra-role behaviors (i.e., voice) is fully mediated by psychological empowerment, but psychological empowerment did not mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and either in-role work behaviors or affiliative extra-role behavior (i.e., helping).

Hypothesis 8 predicted that organizational learning capability would be positively related to psychological empowerment, and hypothesis 9 predicted that psychological empowerment would mediate the relationship between organizational learning capability and voice behavior. Both hypotheses were confirmed, indicating that individual feelings of empowerment are directly influenced by the organizational context (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1996), and psychologically empowered employees are more likely to proactively suggest new ways of doing things for improvement rather than to remain silent because psychologically empowered employees have an active orientation toward their roles (Raub & Robert, 2010). These results are consistent with the notion that leaders can make employees “*willing* to be innovative, but they also need to feel *able* to be innovative (via psychological empowerment) in order to move into action.” (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2010, p. 613).

Theoretical Implications

The present study provides four significant theoretical contributions to the existing literature on voice behavior. First, this study sought to contribute to the body of knowledge on empowering leadership, power distance, organizational learning, and employee voice behavior by uniquely integrating four developed streams of research that have not been connected previously. Research on voice behavior is one approach for investigating communication between leaders and employees (Botero & Van Dyne,

2009). Accordingly, previous research has investigated relationships between leadership styles and employee voice behavior (e.g., Wong, Laschinger, & Cummings, 2010).

However, little research has examined the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. In addition, limited research has examined the role of cultural values in predicting voice behavior in various cultural settings, even though power distance plays an important role in how employees react to supervisors who hold higher positions in the company hierarchy (Kirkman et al., 2009). More importantly, many studies on the link between organizational contexts and employee voice behavior have primarily focused on understanding the negative environment of intimidation and individual psychological safety. No research has investigated the important role of organizational learning capability in promoting voice behavior. The findings of this study suggest that empowering leader behaviors, individual power distance orientation, and organizational learning capability are significant precursors for employee voice behavior. To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to jointly examine the effects of empowering leadership, power distance, and organizational learning capability on voice behavior.

Second, another theoretical contribution is that this study identified individual power distance orientation as a moderator in the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. The results of this study suggest that the employees' power distance orientation significantly moderated the relationship of empowering leadership with voice behavior such that empowering leadership had a stronger and more positive effect on employee voice behavior when employees were higher, rather than lower, in power distance orientation. This is a very interesting finding suggesting that empowering leadership might be more important for individuals with higher power

distance orientation, rather than those with lower power distance orientation. When employees have high power distance, it appears that voice behavior is contingent on their leaders' empowering behaviors. This finding highlights the importance of understanding the role of power distance in organizations. For employees with high power distance orientation, sharing power with their leaders might not be expected compared to those with low power distance orientation. Thus, it is possible that high power distance employees are likely to reciprocate by engaging in voice behavior based on a social exchange perspective when their leaders try to share power with their subordinates, involve them in the decision-making process, and convey confidence in their capability. In contrast, employees with higher power distance might be less willing to speak up about possible changes compared to those with low power distance when their leaders engage in micromanaging behaviors, reduce opportunities for self-directed behavior, and show little confidence in their employees' capabilities. This study may also be meaningful because it focuses on the individual-level power distance orientation. Following previous approaches of organizational scholars (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Kirkman et al., 2006), this study acknowledges the variability of cultural values within culture and views power distance as a characteristic of individual-level cultural value orientation. Recently, Botero and Van Dyne (2009) found that power distance is negatively related to voice behavior both in the U.S. and Colombia but they found that there is an interaction between leader-member exchange and power distance in predicting employee voice behavior only in the U.S. sample. The present study extends their prior research on cultural values by examining individual-level power distance in the South Korean context.

Third, another key finding of this study is that organizational learning capability operates as a condition that moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior such that organizational learning capability strengthens the positive relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. This finding demonstrates that higher levels of voice behavior are likely to be enhanced when empowering leadership is accompanied by organizational learning capability. This result suggests that empowering leadership itself is not always sufficient to encourage a positive influence on employee voice behavior. As Boudrias et al. (2010) noted, the impact of empowerment does not take place in a vacuum, but rather in an organizational structure, hierarchy, and culture. Boudrias and colleagues asserted that supervisors may encourage employees to become empowered by giving them decision-making responsibilities and control over their work environment, yet other facets of the organizational system could be sending “contradictory messages” to employees (p. 201). In this respect, the present study suggests that effective empowering leadership requires the development of organizational learning capability characterized by experimentation, dialogue, risk-taking, and active participation.

Fourth, the present study also contributes to the voice literature by exploring psychological empowerment as a mediating mechanism through which leadership and the organizational context influence employee voice behavior. The findings of this study suggest that psychological empowerment is a proximal outcome through which two constructs, empowering leadership and organizational learning capability, influence a more distal individual behavioral outcome: voice behavior. A common theme contained in prior research on employee voice is that individual and contextual factors can enhance

employee voice behavior. However, the mediating mechanisms by which contextual factors including leadership and organizational culture may be linked to employee voice behavior are not well specified. A particularly interesting finding is that psychological empowerment serves as a partial mediator between empowering leadership and voice behavior and serves as a full mediator between organizational learning capability and voice behavior. Because this study found partial as opposed to full mediation, future research may consider other mechanisms to further explain the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior.

Finally, all analyses were conducted while controlling for individual personality and demographic variables that are believed to influence employee voice behavior. Thus, the effects shown are beyond the personal characteristics of individual employees. This study suggests that although personality and demographics are indeed associated with voice behavior, the role of leadership and the nature of the organizational environment should not be neglected.

Practical Implications

Given the increasing complexity and uncertainty of today's business environment, employees are expected to become more proactive (De Stobbeleir, Ashford, & Sully de Luque, 2010). Accordingly, voice behavior is increasingly accepted as an important factor contributing to organizational effectiveness. Nonetheless, the topic of employee voice behavior has not been sufficiently explored among HRD professionals. This study can provide valuable insights from different angles for HRD practitioners, managers, and organizations on how to effectively promote voice behavior in organizations.

The most fundamental implication of this study is that the findings of this study can provide the conceptual basis for interventions that are designed to promote voice behavior in organizations. This study sheds light on one of the potential reasons some employees are willing to risk speaking up and provide suggestions for change while others remain silent. Voice behavior often entails risk because constructive ideas and suggestions may imply criticism of current practices (Liu et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2011). In particular, employees with high power distance orientation are likely to avoid disagreements with supervisors and tend to withhold potentially useful and critical information by remaining silent. In this study, individual power distance orientation was recognized as a significant predictor of voice behavior and moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior. These findings imply that managers should pay additional attention to understanding their subordinates' power distance orientation and should empower their employees to believe that it is worthwhile to speak up.

This study also has important implications for leadership development in practice. First, empowering leadership should be part of leadership programs. This study provides evidence that employee voice behavior is strongly influenced by empowering leader behaviors through employees' psychological empowerment. Arnord et al. (2000) stated that empowering leader behaviors focus on "the process of implementing conditions that increase employees' feelings of self-efficacy and control (e.g., participative decision making), and removing conditions that foster a sense of powerlessness" (p. 250). They further identified the most important empowering leader behaviors, including leading by example, participative decision making, coaching, informing, and showing

concern/interacting with the team. These empowering leader behaviors can be used as a guide for developing HRD interventions that directly affect psychological empowerment and challenging citizenship behavior like voicing concerns. Second, this study confirms the notion that effective leadership is the outcome of an interactive relationship among mutually interdependent people in dynamic and complex environments (Whittington, Goodwin, & Murray, 2004). As Morrison (2011) noted, “even leaders who wish to encourage employee voice may not always do so, and that it may be quite difficult for leaders to demonstrate that they truly are open to employee input” (p. 391). In this regard, leadership development programs aimed at fostering employee voice behavior can be enhanced by understanding employees’ dispositional factors and cultural values, incorporating confidence-building practices between leaders and followers, and creating a favorable atmosphere for speaking up in organizations.

Finally, the findings of this study suggest that organizational learning capability plays an important role in promoting voice behavior and further imply that in the absence of organizational learning capability, empowerment may not provide sufficiently positive benefits. Boudrias et al. (2010) noted that nonalignment between supervisory practices and organizational climate could lead to cynicism among employees. It is implied that organizations should place particular emphasis on developing organizational learning capability and regularly evaluate the work climate to discover the factors that foster or inhibit employee voice. In the present study, the construct of organizational learning capability consists of five underlying dimensions: experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making. HRD professionals play an important role in transforming organizations in ways that

promote learning (Kontoghiorghes, Awbre, & Feurig, 2005). These dimensions can provide HRD professionals with a useful tool to diagnose the organizational climate and further develop effective interventions to improve organizational learning capability.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations that should be acknowledged and addressed in future research. First, the data for this study were collected at a single point in time. Thus, the cross-sectional nature of the study design precludes definitive claims on the causality of the relationships between the variables. For example, this study confirmed that employees who reported having higher levels of psychological empowerment were more likely to engage in voice behavior, but the alternative explanation cannot be ruled out that higher levels of voice behavior might influence psychological empowerment. Although this study did not investigate this possibility, the theoretical rationale for the proposed relationships was provided, and the results show that the proposed model is a reasonable representation of the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. Nonetheless, to provide more conclusive evidence about causal relationships of the model, a longitudinal research design is necessary for future research.

A second potential limitation relates to the fact that the data of this study were collected from a single source for all of the variables, which may produce an inflated estimate of the true underlying correlations between variables due to common method variance. In the present study, results of CFA showed that all five constructs (empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, power distance orientation, organizational learning capability, and voice behavior) were differentiated in the measurement model, suggesting that common method variance was not a major threat

that could invalidate the present results. As an advantage of the self-ratings of voice behavior, Gao et al. (2011) noted that the employees' reports of their own voice behavior may be more subtle than those of observers. Yet, future research may benefit from the use of multiple evaluators for each employee to adequately assess voice behavior. In his literature review on employee voice behavior, Morrison (2011) argued that most of the research has assessed voice behavior from a single perspective and argued that assessing voice from multiple perspectives is imperative. Besides the individual employee, supervisors or peers may be good sources for evaluating the voice behavior of the employee.

Finally, another limitation of this study stems from the characteristics of the sample. This study was conducted in mid- to large-sized, for-profit companies in South Korea with mostly educated male participants. The nature of the sample composed of South Korean employees may limit the generalizability of the findings of this study to other cultural contexts or other types of organizational settings. This limitation provides an opportunity for future research to examine the present findings in other types of organizations with more heterogeneous or culturally diverse samples.

Future Research Directions

The present study can suggest conceptual ideas and promising directions for future research. First, future research may investigate the antecedents of outcomes of different types and components of voice behavior. This study focused on one type of voice behavior. Van Dyne et al. (2003) conceptually differentiated three types of voice including *Acquiescent voice*, *Defensive voice*, and *ProSocial voice*. The majority of the literature on voice has focused on proactive and positively-intended behavior that

highlights expression of change-oriented comments (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Van Dyne et al., 2003). However, Van Dyne and the authors conceptualized *Defensive voice* that is defined as “expressing work-related ideas, information or opinions-based on fear-with the goal of protecting the self” (p. 1372) and *Acquiescent voice* that is defined as “the verbal expression of work-related ideas, information, or opinions-based on feelings unable to make a difference” (p. 1373). It would be meaningful to explore the motives and outcomes of different components of voice behavior.

Second, this study showed that organizational rank, supervisors’ gender, and personality variables (*Openness* and *Extraversion*) are associated with voice behavior. An unexpected finding of this study was that there was a significant association between supervisors’ gender and employee voice behavior, although employees’ gender had no significant relationship with voice behavior. The present study did not investigate supervisor’s gender as a moderator. However, future research might include supervisor’s gender or gender fit between supervisor and follower to better understand the gender effect that has not been explored in the present study.

Third, future research may incorporate multiple levels of analysis and investigate organizational level, team-level, and individual level antecedents of employee voice. Morrison (2011) strongly encourages scholars to conduct multi-level research on voice by arguing that an emphasis on only person-level factors or group-level factors may provide an inaccurate understanding of voice. To deal with the multi-level design, research using hierarchical linear modeling would be an important extension of the current study.

Fourth, the linkage between organizational learning capability and psychological empowerment provides a perspective for further insights. While the present study demonstrated the full mediation of psychological empowerment between organizational learning capability and voice behavior, this study could not provide a complete understanding about how organizational learning capability might be related to psychological empowerment. Therefore, future research might explore what social and psychological mechanisms underlie the relationship between organizational learning process and individuals' sense of empowerment.

Fifth, another extension of the present study would answer for "what particular leader behaviors are more likely to increase voice behavior?" Future research may extend the current study to different types of leadership such as authentic leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) and shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003) as the antecedents of voice behavior and further explore the mechanisms that mediate the effects of leadership and such behavior.

Finally, future research should investigate how voice behavior is cultivated in the organizations through human resource development interventions and how voice behavior promotes learning in organizations. No research has provided an answer to the following question: "Can voice behavior be developed?" Edmondson (2003) argues that ease of speaking up helps explain learning outcomes. Formal policies and practices implemented by organizations to increase voice behavior can be considered. For example, several scholars suggest that incorporating voice behavior as a performance evaluation criterion by the use of 360-degree performance appraisals may be an effective way to help enhance employee voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Ng & Feldman, 2011). Future

research might investigate the impact of HRD interventions on voice behavior and further examine what conditions transfer individual voice potential acquired from training and development into voice behavior in organizations.

In conclusion, this study tested a model of antecedents of employee voice behavior in order to investigate specific hypotheses while generating new insight into the mechanisms related to voice behavior. Along with providing new insights into the literature on employee voice, this study serves as a foundation for further inquiry into related research questions.

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APPENDIX A

Research Support Consent Form

Research Support Consent Form

I am a Ph.D. candidate majoring in Human Resource Development at the University of Minnesota. I am conducting a study on the antecedents and processes influencing employee voice behavior in South Korean organizations. This study is being conducted as part of Hea Jun Yoon's Ph.D. thesis in the Department of Organizational Leadership, Policy, and Development at the University of Minnesota. I am asking you to support this study in terms of recruiting survey participants in your organization.

Background Information

Employees' ideas for constructive change are becoming more critical for organizations in a dynamic business environment. Organizations increasingly need people who openly express their new ideas and make valuable suggestions for change in order to proactively respond to the challenges of the environment. Accordingly, an important question to answer in developing a better understanding of employee voice is what motivates and influences employees to speak up. This study seeks to answer this question examining how empowering leadership influences employee voice behavior. Moreover, this study investigates how individual cultural value and contextual factor influence this process by identifying power distance orientation and organizational learning capability as moderator variables in this relationship. This study explores the processes influencing employee voice through the investigation of the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice?
2. Is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice influenced by power distance orientation and organizational learning capability?
3. What is the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee voice?
4. Is the relationship between empowering leadership and employee voice mediated by psychological empowerment?
5. Is the relationship between organizational learning capability and employee voice mediated by psychological empowerment?

Procedures

If you agree to support this study, I would ask you to help with the following:

1. Solicit the participants to respond voluntarily to the survey questionnaires
2. Distribute the paper or e-mailed survey questionnaires to the participants in your organization
3. Distribute reminder emails to complete the survey

Confidentiality

The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report the researcher might publish, the researcher will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records. After survey responses are collected, company names will be coded

appropriately. All data of this study will be maintained anonymously. Since only the aggregated results will be reported, individual results will remain confidential.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Participation in the procedure of this research is voluntary. Your organization's and your employees' decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota or the researcher. Any participants are free to withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions

The researcher conducting this study is Hea Jun Yoon. If you have any comments or questions about the survey, please write or call:

Hea Jun Yoon
 University of Minnesota
 1400 South Second Street B104
 Minneapolis, MN 55454
 1-612-388-9341 / yoonx081@umn.edu

Or you may contact my adviser, Dr. Ardichvili, at ardic001@umn.edu. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate line at the University of Minnesota, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware Street. Southeast, Minneapolis, MN 55455; telephone 612- 625-1650.

You may keep a copy of this form for your records.

Statement of Consent

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and received answers. I give consent for participation in this study.

Company: _____

Department: _____

Title: _____

Name: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX B

Survey Questionnaire

Section 1: Ten-Item Personality Inventory (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

I see myself as:

1. Extraverted, enthusiastic.
2. Critical, quarrelsome.
3. Dependable, self-disciplined.
4. Anxious, easily upset.
5. Open to new experiences, complex.
6. Reserved, quiet.
7. Sympathetic, warm.
8. Disorganized, careless.
9. Calm, emotionally stable.
10. Conventional, uncreative.

TIPI scale scoring (“R” denotes reverse-scored items): Extraversion: 1, 6R; Agreeableness: 2R, 7; Conscientiousness: 3, 8R; Emotional Stability: 4R, 9; Openness to Experiences: 5, 10R

Section 2: Power Distance Orientation (Earley & Erez, 1997)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

1. In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.
2. In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.
3. Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.
4. Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.
5. Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.
6. Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.
7. Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.
8. A company’s rules should not be broken—not even when the employee thinks it is in the company’s best interest.

Section 3: Empowering Leadership (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005)

The following items assess your immediate supervisor's leadership behaviors. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| Strongly disagree | Moderately disagree | Slightly disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Slightly agree | Moderately agree | Strongly agree |
1. My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.
 2. My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.
 3. My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.
 4. My manager makes many decisions together with me.
 5. My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.
 6. My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me.
 7. My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.
 8. My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.
 9. My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level.
 10. My manager allows me to do my job my way.
 11. My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.
 12. My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer needs.

Section 4: Psychological Empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| Strongly disagree | Moderately disagree | Slightly disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Slightly agree | Moderately agree | Strongly agree |
1. The work I do is very important to me.
 2. My work activities are personally meaningful to me.
 3. The work I do is meaningful to me.
 4. I am confident about my ability to do my jobs.
 5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
 6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.
 7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
 8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
 9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.
 10. My impact on what happens in my department is large.
 11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
 12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.

Section 5: Voice Behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

1. I develop and make recommendations to my supervisor concerning issues that affect my work.
2. I speak up and encourage others in my work unit to get involved in issues that affect our work.
3. I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my work unit, even if their opinions are different and they disagree with me.
4. I keep well informed about issues at work where my opinion can be useful.
5. I get involved in issues that affect the quality of life in my work unit.
6. I speak up to my supervisor with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures at work.

Section 6: Organizational Learning Capability (Chiva, Alegre, & Lapiedra, 2007)

The following items assess your organization's learning capability. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

1. People here receive support and encouragement when presenting new ideas.
2. Initiative often receives a favorable response here so people feel encouraged to generate new ideas.
3. People are encouraged to take risks in this organization.
4. People here often venture into unknown territory.
5. It is part of the work of all staff to collect, bring back, and report information about what is going on outside the company.
6. There are systems and procedures for receiving, collating and sharing information from outside the company.
7. People are encouraged to interact with the environment: competitors, customers, technological institutes, universities, suppliers, etc.
8. Employees are encouraged to communicate.
9. There is a free and open communication within my work group.
10. Managers facilitate communication.
11. Cross-functional teamwork is a common practice here.
12. Managers in this organization frequently involve employees in important decisions.
13. Policies are significantly influenced by the view of employees.
14. People feel involved in main company decisions.

Section 7: Demographics

The following questions are to obtain demographic information about you. The information is being collected to explore basic characteristics of the respondents and will not be used to identify you. Please answer the following questions.

1. What is your age? _____ (in years)
2. What is your gender? a) Male b) Female
3. What is your immediate supervisor's gender? a) Male b) Female
4. What is your highest level of education?
 - a) High school diploma
 - b) Associate degree
 - c) Bachelor's degree
 - d) Master's degree
 - e) Doctoral degree
5. How long have you worked in your current organization? _____ (year & month)
6. What is your current position?
 - a) Clerk/Senior Clerk
 - b) Assistant Manager
 - c) Manager
 - d) Senior Manager
 - e) General Manager
 - f) Other _____ (Please fill in)
7. What industry is your organization in? _____
 - a) Finance/Insurance
 - b) Electronics
 - c) IT
 - d) Pharmaceutical/Medical
 - e) Service/Consulting
 - f) Manufacturing
 - g) Others
8. What is your job function in the organization?
 - a) Finance/Accounting
 - b) Marketing/Sales
 - c) Administration/Management
 - d) Training and Development
 - e) Research and Development
 - f) Production
 - g) Others _____ (Please fill in)

APPENDIX C

Letter of Approval from Institutional Review Board

FROM: irb@umn.edu
TO: yoonx081@umn.edu
DATE: Fri, Jun 10, 2011 at 12:03 PM
SUBJECT: 1106E00703 - PI Yoon - IRB - Exempt Study Notification

TO: ardic001@umn.edu, yoonx081@umn.edu,

The IRB: Human Subjects Committee determined that the referenced study is exempt from review under federal guidelines 45 CFR Part 46.101(b) category #2 SURVEYS/INTERVIEWS; STANDARDIZED EDUCATIONAL TESTS; OBSERVATION OF PUBLIC BEHAVIOR.

Study Number: 1106E00703

Principal Investigator: Hea Jun Yoon

Title(s): The effect of empowering leadership on employee voice behavior in South Korean organizations: Exploring the role of power distance orientation and organizational learning capability

This e-mail confirmation is your official University of Minnesota RSPP notification of exemption from full committee review. You will not receive a hard copy or letter.

This secure electronic notification between password protected authentications has been deemed by the University of Minnesota to constitute a legal signature.

The study number above is assigned to your research. That number and the title of your study must be used in all communication with the IRB office.

Research that involves observation can be approved under this category without obtaining consent.

SURVEY OR INTERVIEW RESEARCH APPROVED AS EXEMPT UNDER THIS CATEGORY IS LIMITED TO ADULT SUBJECTS.

This exemption is valid for five years from the date of this correspondence and will be filed inactive at that time. You will receive a notification prior to inactivation. If this research will extend beyond five years, you must submit a new application to the IRB before the study's expiration date.

Upon receipt of this email, you may begin your research. If you have questions, please call the IRB office at (612) 626-5654.

You may go to the View Completed section of eResearch Central at <http://eresearch.umn.edu/> to view further details on your study.

The IRB wishes you success with this research.