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The Influence Mechanism of Regulatory Focus on Employee Voice Behavior: An Empirical Study on China's Private Manufacturing Industry

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Doctor of Management

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April, 2020



**BUSINESS
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Marketing, Operations and General Management Department

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**The Influence Mechanism of Regulatory Focus
on Employee Voice Behavior: An Empirical
Study on China's Private Manufacturing
Industry**

CHEN Shanggao

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Abstract

This thesis explores the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior from the perspective of individual motivation. The study was conducted in 17 Chinese manufacturing enterprises. Through questionnaire collection and questionnaire pairing at two time points, 329 pairs of valid data are obtained. After the empirical analysis, the study comes to three conclusions. Firstly, promotion focus positively affects acquiescent voice and prosocial voice. Secondly, disintegration avoidance mediates the relationships between promotion focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. Harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. Thirdly, psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. From the perspective of individual motivation, the study has revealed the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior. Meanwhile, the study is of practical value to human resources management practices.

Keywords: regulatory focus, voice behavior, interpersonal harmony, psychological safety

JEL: L22, M12

Resumo

Esta tese explora o mecanismo de influência do foco regulatório no comportamento da voz dos colaboradores a partir da perspectiva da motivação individual. O estudo foi realizado em 17 empresas de manufatura chinesas. A recolha de dados foi realizada com questionários e foi realizado o emparelhamento em dois pontos de tempo, tendo sido obtidos 329 pares válidos. Após a análise empírica, o estudo apresenta três conclusões. Em primeiro lugar, o foco na promoção afeta positivamente a voz aquiescente e a voz pró-social. Em segundo lugar, a evitação da desintegração medeia as relações entre o foco de promoção e a voz defensiva, bem como a voz aquiescente. A melhoria da harmonia medeia a relação entre o foco na promoção e a voz pró-social. Em terceiro lugar, a segurança psicológica modera negativamente a relação entre a evitação da desintegração e a voz defensiva, bem como a voz aquiescente. Do ponto de vista da motivação individual, o estudo revelou o mecanismo de influência do foco regulatório no comportamento da voz. Este estudo tem também um valor prático para as práticas de gestão de recursos humanos.

Palavras-chave: foco regulatório, comportamento de voz, harmonia interpessoal, segurança psicológica

JEL: L22, M12

摘要

本研究从个体动机视角探讨了调节定向对建言行为的影响机理。研究对象为中国 17 家民营制造企业。通过两个时间点的问卷收集和问卷匹配，获得 329 对有效数据。经过实证分析，得到三个研究发现。第一，促进定向正向影响默认型建言、亲社会型建言。第二，避免破裂中介防御定向与防御型建言、默认型建言之间的关系，促进和谐中介促进定向与亲社会型建言之间的关系。第三，心理安全感负向调节避免破裂对防御型建言、默认型建言的影响。同时，本研究对于人力资源管理实践具有一定的实用价值。

关键词：调节定向，建言行为，人际和谐，心理安全感

JEL: L22, M12

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As the thesis is about to be completed, the sudden novel coronavirus pneumonia is also coming to an end. Everything is getting better!

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April, 2020, Ruian

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二〇二〇年四月于瑞安市

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Research background

The world economy has entered an era full of volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (short as VUCA). To prepare for external environment changes and market competition, enterprises must improve organizational flexibility and innovation. However, achieving organizational innovation and sustainable development cannot solely depend on leaders, it also relies on employees to actively contribute their knowledge and skills to the organization (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998). More and more managers recognize that organizational improvement and innovation require employees' voice behavior. Employees have the most intimate feelings about the problems in the organization, therefore, they can propose suitable solutions. Ideas and suggestions from employees can not only help the organization find and solve the problem in time but also become a source of innovation (Zhou & George, 2001). Li and Sun (2015) assume that today's increasingly complex organizational environment has made it difficult for managers to perceive and respond to problems encountered. Employees' opinions and suggestions can not only help the organization to perceive problems, correct mistakes, and improve decision-making quality, but also become an information source to improve organizational processes and inspire innovative ideas.

Enterprises cannot guarantee the rightness of every decision and the perfectness of each management process. Especially for Chinese private enterprises which tend to have short established time, their management systems are not so normalized and rigorous that some blind spots and loopholes in the management and system still exist. As an old Chinese idiom goes 'An ant-hole may destroy a thousand-mile dam', a minor problem may develop into a big one if it is not properly solved. Particularly in manufacturing industry, safety management is very important and crucial because a small operation mistake can lead to catastrophic accidents. The famous American safety engineer Herbert William Heinrich added up the mechanical accidents and found the ratio of death (or serious injury) accidents, minor injury accidents, no injury accidents to be 1:29:300, which is the widely recognized Heinrich rule. In enterprise safety management, there are 29 minor accidents and 300 potential dangers behind a serious accident. Detecting the mistakes, eliminating the hidden dangers, and preventing the accidents rely on

the active participation of every employee, and employees should be encouraged to voice when seeing a problem.

However, employees generally think that voicing is risky. They feel that presenting or proposing the opinions may challenge their supervisors' authority and have a negative impact on their career, consequently they often choose to give up voicing and remain silent. Moreover, in some cases, employees are motivated to voice just for their own benefit or to follow the trend. The following is a real case. Wang is the general manager of a chemical materials company. This company is a high-tech enterprise with more than 20-year history. The technology and quality of the company's product are highly recognized in the industry. One day, a customer lodged a complaint about the product quality and demanded compensation for the loss. On receiving the complaint, the company took it seriously and hoped to resolve the problem as quickly as possible. To solve the problem, Wang held an urgent quality meeting. Wu, head of the technical department, Xu, head of the production department, and Zhao, head of the quality department, participated the meeting. At the beginning of the meeting, Wang introduced the customer's complaint and the purpose of the meeting: firstly, identify the cause of this quality problem; secondly, assign responsibility; more importantly, improve the quality management. Generally, when discussing quality issues, the quality department comes first to reports the investigation results and conducts preliminary analysis of the problem. Xu knew the problem might be in the production process and he was afraid that he would be responsible, so he started first abnormally, "The product has met the standard at the outgoing quality checking, indicating that the quality control is qualified during the production, but quality problems occur at the customer-side, indicating inadequacy in quality checking. I think we should discuss the testing techniques to distinguish the defective products to prevent unintended use of nonconforming products." Meanwhile, Xu also enumerated the complaint problem caused by the inconsistency of the analytical instruments and analytical standards used by the company and the customer in the previous year, which was later resolved through standard comparison. The general manager Wang had received a report from the sales department before the meeting. After-sales service engineer went to the site to confirm and preliminarily judged the problem being in quality. The quality management department also confirmed a high possibility of product quality problems. When Xu was talking, the heads of other departments at the meeting did not even listen carefully. They knew that Xu always found excuses for production problems and often shifted the focus of the problem, because he did not want to discuss production issues too much. Wang felt that Xu's talk had deviated from the topic and had the tendency of avoiding problems, so he said,

“Quality department do the quality checking according to the standards provided by technical department. It is indeed important to improve the testing techniques, but that’s not the topic today. Our meeting is meant to find the cause of the problem”. Zhao noticed that although he was responsible for quality problems, this problem was not his responsibility. Zhao started to introduce the complaint and the on-site preliminary investigation in detail, but did not give any conclusion. He expressed his anticipation that the production department would verify the situation and the technical department would give technical conclusions. At last, Zhao expressed his agreement with Wang and suggested that each department should find their own problem and quality department would further improve the product testing capabilities. Xu did not respond too much to Zhao’s remarks. He still repeated his point of view, “According to the investigation by the quality department, the products met the outgoing quality standards”. Wang interjected: “The quality complaint involved more technical factors. Next, we invite Wu to share the technical analysis”. Wu was clear about the cause of the problem. If the process control in the production is improper, it will lead to defects in product quality, which cannot be found through conventional inspection methods. Similar quality problems have occurred before. Wu is an attentive person and had went to the production site to check and read the production records before the meeting. So, Wu put straightforward, “The main reason for the quality problem is production. During the production process, the process index deviated from the control standard, which is a human error”. Meanwhile, Wu showed the production records, proving that the production control errors led to product quality problems. He continued, “Production department should learn from this problem and improve the level of process standardization and process changes must be approved by the technical department”. Wu continued, “Our equipment capacity is obviously insufficient, which has seriously affected the quality. We have suggested upgrading the equipment earlier, but some leaders disagree. Here, I once again call on the company to adopt equipment upgrade solutions”. At the end of the meeting, Wang thought Wu’s analysis and suggestions reasonable, so he assigned the responsibility to the production department. He also ordered Xu to formulate a rectification plan, which was supervised and implemented by the quality department, and put the equipment upgrade plan on the calendar. In this case, the motivation of Xu’s suggestion on improving testing capability was to avoid or reduce his own responsibility by shifting the focus. Zhao thought that he did not have responsibility, so he expressed his agreement with the leader. Wu faced the problem directly and made the equipment upgrade proposal, which was beneficial to the company. Even though the suggestion was opposed by the leaders, he insisted on putting it forward.

In order to figure out what conditions are required to facilitate employee's voice and how to predict the voice types, the antecedents and the mechanism of voice need to be studied. Currently, many scholars have studied the antecedents of voice, including team and organizational factors, leadership factors, and personal factors. Organizational factors mainly include organizational justice (Takeuchi, Chen, & Cheung, 2012), performance appraisal (Zhang, Hu, & Qiu, 2014), work stress (Ng & Feldman, 2012), satisfaction (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011), and atmosphere of voice (Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011). Team and leadership factors include leaders' characteristics and management styles (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Detert & Burris, 2007; Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Liang & Tang, 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Wu et al., 2011; Hsiung, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Yan & Huang, 2012), leader-member exchange (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Wu et al., 2011), and leader's trust (Li, Ling, & Fang, 2010; Wong, Spence, & Cummings, 2010; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011). Personal factors are mainly individual traits, including demographic variables (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011), personality (Liang & Tang, 2009; Crant, Kim, & Jie, 2011), values (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Duan & Ling, 2011; Chen, Duan, & Tian, 2013; Du, Ran, & Cao, 2014), cognitive style preference (Janssen & Cozijnsen, 1998). Many scholars have studied the impact of motivation on voice (Wei & Zhang, 2010; Duan, Ling, & Wang, 2013; Xiang & Long, 2013; Cui & Zhai, 2014; Wu, Gao, & Duan, 2014; Cao, Cui, & Zhai, 2016; Chen, Li, & Lu, 2016; Huang & Zhang, 2016; Liu, Zhou, & Hong, 2017).

Hirschman (1970) constructed the EVL (Exit, Voice, and Loyalty) model and proposed the concept of voice for the first time. He defined voice as "the efforts to change the current situation fundamentally when dissatisfied with the situation". Later, the concept of voice behavior proposed by Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) was supported by many studies. Scholars have carried out abundant researches on the antecedents of voice behavior from the perspective of individual, leadership, team, and organization. Motivation factors have also been paid much attention to, but mainly focus on the impression management motivation (Xiang & Long, 2013; Cui & Zhai, 2014; Cao, Cui, & Zhai, 2016; Huang & Zhang, 2016). "Going after profits and avoiding harm" is a basic principle of self-regulation, which has a strong predictive effect on individual behavior. Regulatory focus theory holds that, individuals pursue happiness and avoid pain in different ways. Driven by different motivations, there are two basic ways: promotion focus and prevention focus (Higgins, 1997). The existing research shows that regulatory focus

significantly affects individual organizational behavior, including: organizational commitment (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007; Markovits et al., 2008; Tseng & Kang, 2009), performance (Wallace & Chen, 2006; Neubert et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2013), creativity (Li, Shang, & Xi, 2012; Li et al., 2012; Shang & Li, 2015), voice behavior (Chen, Li, & Lu, 2016), job satisfaction (Tseng & Kang, 2009) etc. Regulatory focus, as a general motivational principle, affects the basic psychological processes of people, such as cognitive evaluation, decision making and behavioral strategies. Voice behavior has both risks and benefits. Individuals' perception and preference of risks and benefits will influence whether the voice happens or what type of voice will happen. Therefore, regulatory focus has a strong predictive effect on individuals' voice behavior. Reviewing the existing literature, the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior has not been studied yet.

Before Van Dyne proposed the new definition of voice in 2003, voice behavior has always been a kind of positive and challenging extra-role behavior. Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) proposed the three-dimensional voice (prosocial voice, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice) based on voice motivation. Among the three dimensions, prosocial voice belongs to organizational citizenship behavior and has the same positive and challenging characteristics as the earlier definition, defensive voice that based on fear motivation and acquiescent voice that based on resignation motivation are newly added. As described in the case, Wu's words, which are challenging and mainly considering the interests of the organization, belong to prosocial voice. Xu's words, which is for the purpose of self-protection and focus-shifting, belong to defensive voice. Zhao knew that this problem was not his responsibility, so he disengaged and spoke in accordance with the leader, which belongs to acquiescent voice. The three-dimensional voice is more in line with the management practice. When voicing, employee not only consider the interests of the organization, but also consider their own interests. Therefore, adopting the three-dimensional voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) as the dependent variable is of both research value and practical value. However, there lacks research on defensive voice and acquiescent voice, not to mention the influence of regulatory focus on these two types of voice behavior.

How does regulatory focus affect voice behavior? In the voice context, defensive voice is triggered by fear motivation and acquiescent voice is the result of resignation motivation. As for the influence of regulatory focus on voice motivation, the thesis uses Vallerand (1997) 's hierarchical model of motivation to explain the relationship between regulatory focus and voice motivation. Vallerand (1997) divided motivation from the top to the bottom into three levels:

global motivation, contextual motivation, and situational motivation. Higher-level motivations have a top-down effect on lower-level motivations, so global motivation, contextual motivation, and situational motivation have a top-down effect. Vallerand (1997) also suggested that, generally, global motivation does not directly affect situational motivation. Regulatory focus, as a common motivation principle for individuals, should be classified as global motivation. Voice motivation arises from specific voice situations, so it should be categorized as situational motivation. Since regulatory focus does not affect voice motivation directly, contextual motivation should be included as the mediator in the influential process of regulatory focus on voice motivation. So, what variable can be used as this middle-level contextual motivation? Voice behavior occurs more in the context of interpersonal interaction, and individuals that voice pay more attention to interpersonal risk, therefore, we consider the contextual motivation from the field of interpersonal relationships.

Harmony is one of the essences of Confucian culture (Wang & Guo, 2012), among which, interpersonal harmony is the main content. Gabrenya and Hwang (1996) pointed out that in East Asian countries that are deeply influenced by Confucian culture, harmony is the most important principle that affects people's social interaction. Therefore, in this thesis, we choose interpersonal harmony as the contextual motivation between regulatory focus and voice motivation. As voice behavior is the result of voice motivation, the thesis actually chooses interpersonal harmony as the mediator between regulatory focus and voice behavior. Leung (1997) proposed a two-dimensional interpersonal harmony, including harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance, and argued that the two dimensions affect individual behavior through different mechanisms. Leung (1997)'s opinion has made great contributions to the study of voice behavior. Scholars have carried out abundant research on this basis. In China, the birthplace of Confucian culture, interpersonal harmony in organizations has attracted much attention from Chinese scholars and the research content has also extended from negotiation and conflict management to voice behavior (Wei & Zhang, 2010), organizational citizenship behavior (Lu & Chen, 2011), organizational commitment (Chen & Zhang, 2010; Yang & Tang, 2010), etc. However, no research on the influence of interpersonal harmony on defensive voice and acquiescent voice has been found, nor has the research that combines regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, and voice behavior in one model been found. Based on the survey of employees in China's private manufacturing industry, the thesis explores the impact of regulatory focus on voice behavior and the moderating effect of interpersonal harmony. Providing that individuals care about interpersonal risk and that psychological safety is an

important variable to characterize interpersonal risk, the thesis also considers psychological safety as a moderator between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior.

1.2 Research questions

Being a research in the organizational behavior field, the thesis studies the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior to predict voice behavior and improve organizations' innovation skills as well as risk control capabilities. The thesis mainly answers the following questions:

The first research question is, what effect does regulatory focus have on employee's voice behavior?

Pervin and John (1999) assumed that the behavioral tendency of "chasing after profits and avoiding harm" is a primary motivation that reflects human nature. Elliot and Thrash (2002) demonstrated that "chasing after profits and avoiding harm" is manifested as a stable personality trait. Regulatory focus is a motivation type that embodies "chasing after profits and avoiding harm". Therefore, regulatory focus can be classified as global motivation in Vallerand (1997)'s hierarchical model of motivation and will trigger global behavior. "Chasing after benefits" and "avoiding harm" are the basic behavioral tendencies of people. Regulatory focused individuals will produce specific behaviors of "chasing after benefits" and "avoiding harm". In organizations, voice is usually a way for individuals to achieve "chasing after benefits and avoiding harm". Therefore, it can be predicted that regulatory focus has a significant predictive effect on voice behavior, which has been supported in related empirical studies. Neubert et al. (2008) found that promotion focus is significantly positively related to helping behavior. Helping behavior is a kind of organizational citizenship behavior. Research conducted by Chen, Li, and Lu (2016) showed that promotion focus significantly affects voice behavior: high promotion focus has a significant relationship with inhibitive voice, and low promotion focus has a significant relationship with promotive voice. The voice behavior in Chen, Li, and Lu (2016)'s study is a challenging extra-role behavior, which is consistent with the prosocial voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003). No research has been found on how regulatory focus affects defensive voice and acquiescent voice. The regulatory focus theory proposed by Higgins (1997) holds that, different individuals have different ways in "chasing after profits" and "avoiding harm", which are driven by two basic motivations: promotion focus and prevention focus. Therefore, it can be predicted that promotion focused individuals and

prevention focused individuals will choose different types of voice. As for how to choose, that is the problem to be solve in this thesis.

The second research question is, how does interpersonal harmony play the mediating role between regulatory focus and voice behavior?

According to Vallerand (1997)'s definition of contextual motivation, interpersonal harmony motivation can be attributed to contextual motivation (Vallerand, 2000). From the perspective of employee voice motivation, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) divided voice into prosocial voice, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice. Prosocial voice is based on cooperation motivation, defensive voice is based on fear motivation, and acquiescent voice is based on resignation motivation. Therefore, in specific voice context, the three types of voice motivations (cooperation motivation, fear motivation, and resignation motivation) belong to the situational motivation in Vallerand (1997)'s hierarchical model of motivation.

According to Vallerand (1997) 's hierarchical model of motivation, regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, and voice motivation have a top-down effect, that is, regulatory focus affects interpersonal harmony, and interpersonal harmony affects voice motivation. Vallerand (1997)'s hierarchical model of motivation suggested that motivations at different levels can trigger the same-level results, such as emotion, cognition, and behavior. Situational motivation can lead to situational behavioral results, so voice behavior is the output of motivation. Therefore, we can predict that interpersonal harmony mediates the relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior. The regulatory focus proposed by Higgins (1997) includes two types: promotion focus and prevention focus. Leung (1997) proposed two types of interpersonal harmony: harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance. The voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) includes three types: prosocial voice, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice. What mediating role do different types of interpersonal harmony play between different types of regulatory focus and voice has not been studied in the existing research, which is exactly what this thesis needs to explore.

The third research question is, what role does psychological safety play in the relationship between interpersonal harmony and employee voice behavior?

Some studies have confirmed that individual-level psychological safety can significantly predict employee voice behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Duan, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Luo & Zhao, 2013; Liang, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017; Li, Yan, & Wang, 2018; Liu, Yu, & Huang, 2018). The voice in these studies are all extra-role behaviors, which coincide with the connotation of prosocial voice. There is rare research on how

psychological safety influences defensive voice and acquiescent voice. Meanwhile, in most studies, psychological safety appears as a mediator. What's more, there lacks research on the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior.

1.3 Research implications

1.3.1 Theoretical implications

Since Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) proposed the concept of voice, there have been abundant studies on the antecedents of voice. Among the antecedents at the individual level, many scholars focus on motivation factors. Based on global motivation, regulatory focus can better predict individual behavior. However, there lacks research on how regulatory focus influences voice behavior, and no research on how regulatory focus affects defensive voice and acquiescent voice has been found. From the perspective of individual motivation, the thesis takes employees in Chinese private manufacturing enterprises as the research sample and explores the influential mechanisms of voice behavior in Chinese context. The thesis has three theoretical implications: Firstly, the thesis has confirmed the impact of regulatory focus on the dimensions of voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003); Secondly, the thesis has unveiled the influencing path of regulatory focus on voice behavior; Thirdly, the thesis has uncovered the possible moderating mechanism in the above relationship and figured out the influential boundary.

1.3.2 Practical implications

Voice is of great significance for enterprise innovation and risk management. The three types of voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) are more in line with management practices. The thesis has three practical implications: Firstly, the thesis has revealed the direct impact of regulatory focus on voice behavior, which points a direction for managers to increase prosocial voice in Chinese context. Regulatory focus can exist not only as a long-term stable variable, but also as a temporary variable. In practice, organizations can activate promotion focus through specific context to get more prosocial voice. Secondly, the thesis has illuminated the mediating effect of interpersonal harmony on the relationship between regulatory focus and employee voice behavior. Motivation can be influenced by the environment. In practice, organizations can gain more prosocial voice by establishing authentic

and harmonious interpersonal relationship and strengthening the motivation of harmony enhancement. Thirdly, the thesis has confirmed the moderating role of psychological safety. Organizations can affect employees' voice behavior by improving individual psychological safety in the practice. Higher psychological safety will reduce the employees' fear motivation as well as resignation motivation, thereby reduce defensive voice and acquiescent voice and allow employees to put forward real ideas for the benefit of organizations.

1.4 Research method and research roadmap

1.4.1 Research method

This thesis combined theoretical analysis method and empirical research method to do the research.

The research was conducted based on theoretical analysis. Relevant literature on voice behavior, regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, psychological safety, and hierarchical model of motivation theory were collected and analyzed for the first step.

This research collected first-hand data through the questionnaire survey. Questionnaire method is an important data collection method in empirical research, which is also commonly used in social research. We designed the questionnaire based on the literature review and the research results of others. In order to ensure the quality of the data, face-to-face meetings or telephone communications were arranged before the survey. If conditions permit, guidance at the scene was preferred.

After obtaining and organizing the questionnaire data, we firstly did the reliability and validity test, common method bias test, collinearity test and model fit analysis. Then, statistical description and correlation analysis were carried out. Finally, we tested the research hypotheses by hierarchical regression analysis and Bootstrap analysis.

1.4.2 Research roadmap

The research roadmap of the study is shown in Figure 1-1.

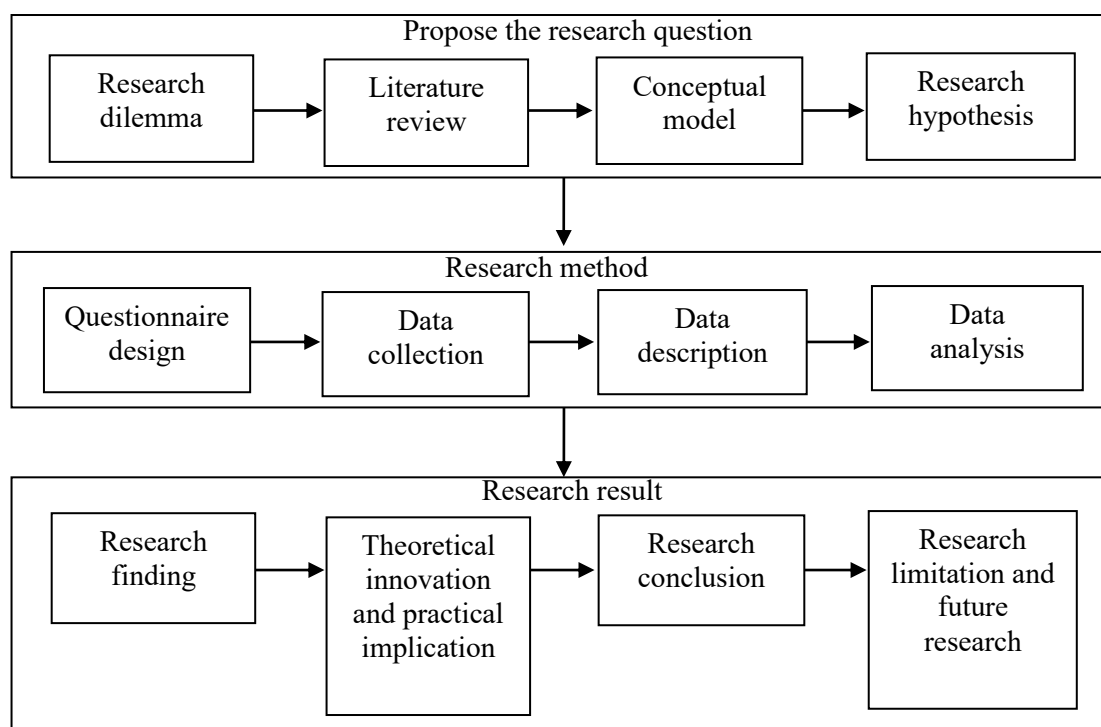


Figure 1 - 1 The research roadmap

1.5 Thesis structure

The thesis is divided into 7 chapters, and the main contents of each chapter are summarized as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction. This section introduces the research background, research question, research implication, research method and research roadmap, thesis structure, and chapter summary.

After describing the research background in this chapter, we can see that employee voice is of great significance to both organizational management and innovation. At the same time, a research dilemma is proposed, that is, employees often remain silent because voice is risky. In some cases, employees are motivated to voice in order to protect themselves rather benefit the organization. Figuring out in what conditions employees are encouraged to voice and how to predict the voice type is of theoretical and practical value.

By analyzing the research dilemma, we propose the research problem in this chapter, that is, the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on employees' voice behavior. This chapter also proposes three initial research questions: What impact does regulatory focus have on voice behavior? How does interpersonal harmony play the mediating role between regulatory focus and voice behavior? How does psychological safety moderate the relationship between

interpersonal harmony and voice behavior?

Through analyzing the initial research questions, this chapter proposes the research implications, including three theoretical innovations and three practical implications. At the end of this chapter, the empirical research method based on questionnaire survey, the research roadmap, and the thesis structure are presented.

Chapter 2: Literature review. This section reviews the existing literature on the four research variables involved in this study, further discusses the research dilemma, and identify the research problems based on the literature review.

In the employee voice part, we first introduce the concept of voice from reviewing the EVL model proposed by Hirschman (1970) and the EVLN model proposed by Farrell (1983). Then, we reviewed the definitions of voice by Van Dyne and Lepine (1998), LePine and Van Dyne (2001), Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003), Duan and Ling (2011), Burriss (2012), Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012), Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), etc. From the perspective of more in line with management practice, the defensive voice, acquiescent voice, and prosocial voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) were selected as the dependent variables of the study. Meanwhile, the measurement scales for voice behavior are introduced (Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; Duan & Ling, 2011; Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Next, we went through the four types of antecedents of voice behavior, including individual factors, leader factors, team factors, and organization factors. We also went through the outcome variables of voice behavior from the perspective of individual voice and team voice. It is found that there lacks research on defensive voice and acquiescent voice in the existing literature, and there are relatively few studies on regulatory focus and interpersonal harmony.

In the regulatory focus part, we first described the development of the regulatory focus theory from self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) and regulatory fit theory (Higgins, 2000). We highlighted regulatory focus theory and compared regulatory focus and prevention focus. Then, we introduced two types of methods for measuring regulatory focus, including the self-questionnaire for measuring trait focus, regulatory focus scale (Higgins et al., 2001), general regulatory focus scale (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002), work regulatory focus scale (Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009), and the laboratory method for measuring situational regulatory focus. Finally, according to the needs of this research, we reviewed the research on regulatory focus in interpersonal interactions in the organization and found that there is rare research that combines voice behavior with

regulatory focus in the existing literature. No research on the influence of regulatory focus as an independent variable on voice behavior.

In the interpersonal harmony section, we first introduced some research ideas that regard harmony as the core of Chinese culture (Cao, 2000; Chen & Zhang, 2009; Wang & Guo, 2012), two-dimensional interpersonal harmony (Leung, 1997; Huang, 1999; Leung, Koch, & Lu, 2002), and three-dimensional interpersonal harmony (Chen & Zhang, 2010; Leung et al., 2011). The two dimensions proposed by Leung (1997) which included disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement were selected as a mediator. Next, we reviewed the research on interpersonal harmony and organizational behavior from the perspectives of negotiation, conflict, voice behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment. Then, the measurement scale of interpersonal harmony is introduced (Chen & Zhang, 2010; Leung et al., 2011; Wu & Zheng, 2011). Finally, through reviewing, it is found that the research on the influence of interpersonal harmony on voice behavior is rare. No research on the influence of regulatory focus on interpersonal harmony has been found, nor has the research that combines regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, and voice behavior in one model been found.

In the psychological safety part, we first introduced the definitions of psychological safety, including individual psychological safety (Kahn, 1990), team psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999; Tynan, 2005), organizational psychological safety (Brown & Leigh, 1996). Next, the psychological safety measurement scales are introduced, including individual psychological safety scale (Li & Yan, 2007), team psychological safety scale (Edmondson, 1999; Tynan, 2005), organizational psychological safety scale (Brown & Leigh, 1996). Then, we reviewed the relevant literature on the impact of individual psychological safety and team psychological safety on voice behavior, and found that the research on the impact of psychological safety on defensive voice and acquiescent voice is rare. No research has been found on the mediating role of psychological safety in the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior.

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework. This section mainly describes the basic elements as well as conceptual models involved in this research, and proposes specific research hypotheses.

In the basic elements, the definition of voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) was adopted: “Employee voice is employees’ intentional expression of work-related ideas, information and opinions” (p.1363). The two-dimensional structure of regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus) proposed by Higgins (1997) was adopted. For interpersonal harmony, we adopted the two-dimensional structure proposed by Leung (1997) ,

which includes disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement. For psychological safety, we adopted the definition proposed by Kahn (1990): “Employees can express themselves freely at work without worrying about their psychological perception of the negative impact on self-image, status, and occupation” (p.708).

Based on the hierarchical model of motivation proposed by Vallerand (1997) , regulatory focus theory by Higgins (1997), and research on interpersonal harmony and psychological safety, the thesis proposed the conceptual model. The thesis explored the impact of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior, the mediating role of interpersonal harmony, and the moderating role of psychological safety to reveal the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior.

This chapter presented 11 research hypotheses and the according theoretical deductions. The research hypotheses can be divided into three categories: the direct relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior (5 hypotheses), the mediating role of interpersonal harmony (3 hypotheses), and the moderating role of psychological safety (3 hypotheses).

Chapter 4: Research method. This section mainly includes the questionnaire design, data collection, sample data description, analysis method, validity and reliability analysis, common method bias analysis.

In the questionnaire design part, three measures selection criteria are clarified firstly, they are: indicator reliability, indicator adaptability, and the same anchor of measure. Secondly, the scales used to measure the indicators are introduced, including: voice behavior scale (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003), work regulatory focus scale (Neubert et al., 2008), interpersonal harmony scale (Leung et al., 2011), and psychological safety scale (Li & Yan, 2007). Online questionnaires are adopted. In order to reduce the common method bias, the study obtained the research data from the same respondent at two timepoints.

In the data collection part, the research sample was introduced. The sample came from 17 private manufacturing enterprises in six provinces and cities in China (Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Shanghai, Chongqing, Guangdong, and Fujian). These 17 enterprises belong to 4 industries. Then, the survey process was introduced. The survey was conducted at two timepoints, with the interval being 2 weeks. The first survey (T1) collected the data of regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, psychological safety, and control variables, and the second survey (T2) collected the data of voice behavior.

We distributed 550 questionnaires at each timepoint. At T1, 531 questionnaires were

collected, with the collection rate being 96.54%. Among the 531 questionnaires, 427 were valid, with the valid rate being 80.41%. At T2, 490 questionnaires were collected, with the collection rate being 89.10%. Among the 490 questionnaires, 405 were valid, with the valid rate being 82.65%. After matching the data from two timepoints, 329 pairs were successfully matched (one pair included one questionnaire at T1 and one questionnaire at T2). Comparing to the 531 questionnaires collected at T1, the successful pairing rate was 61.96%.

The Cronbach's α coefficients of regulatory focus (promotion focus 0.820, prevention focus 0.747), interpersonal harmony (disintegration avoidance 0.842, harmony enhancement 0.899), voice behavior (defensive voice 0.821, acquiescent voice 0.837, prosocial voice 0.867), and psychological safety (0.802) all exceeded 0.700, indicating a good internal consistency reliability of the four scales in this study. Through confirmatory factor analysis, the hypothetical model (eight-factor model) has an ideal model fit ($\chi^2=852.688$, $df=436$, $\chi^2/df=1.956$, $RMSEA=0.054$, $SRMR=0.056$, $CFI=0.915$, $TLI=0.903$), indicating a good structural validity. Harman's single factor test and confirmatory factor analysis proved that there was no serious common method bias in this study. Meanwhile, the results of collinearity test showed that there is no serious collinearity among the independent variables, and hierarchical regression method can be used for data analysis.

Chapter 5: Research results and research findings. This section mainly includes statistical description, empirical testing of research hypotheses, and research findings based on empirical analysis.

Of the 11 research hypotheses proposed in the thesis, 7 were supported and 4 were unsupported. The direct effects of prevention focus on defensive voice and acquiescent voice were not supported, because disintegration avoidance fully mediated the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. When promotion focused individuals are faced with actual loss, they will cognitively classify the situation as no gains. Instead of being afraid of the loss, they want to achieve positive returns through risk-taking. When promotion focused individuals are faced with loss, they often adopt the voice that can increase returns rather than the defensive voice that can avoid loss. Therefore, the direct impact of promotion focus on defensive voice is not significant. When individuals with harmony enhancement are making prosocial voice, they do not pay much attention to interpersonal risks. Therefore, it is predicted that the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice is not significant.

Through hierarchical regression analysis and Bootstrap analysis, this thesis came to three research findings: Promotion focus has positive impacts on acquiescent voice and prosocial voice; Interpersonal harmony acts as a mediator between regulatory focus and voice behavior, that is, disintegration avoidance plays a mediating role between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. Harmony enhancement plays a mediating role between promotion focus and prosocial voice; Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between defensive voice and acquiescent voice.

Chapter 6: Discussion. In this section, the theoretical innovations and practical implications of the research are illustrated in detail.

This thesis has three theoretical innovations. Firstly, this thesis has confirmed the direct effect of regulatory focus on the dimensions of voice behavior. Promotion focus can not only influence prosocial voice positively, but also affect acquiescent voice positively, which has forwarded the research on the direct effect of regulatory focus on voice behavior. Secondly, this thesis has opened the influencing path of regulatory focus on voice behavior. Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice, and harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. This research finding not only enriches the research on the impact of voice behavior from the perspective of motivation, but also establishes a new research path for studying regulatory focus's impact on voice behavior through interpersonal harmony; Thirdly, the thesis has uncovered the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior. Individual psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice, fulfilling our knowledge about the influencing boundary of interpersonal harmony on voice behavior. Meanwhile, the moderating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice is not significant, expanding our knowledge about the influence of psychological safety on harmony enhancement.

The thesis has three practical implications in human resources management. Firstly, this thesis has revealed the direct impact of regulatory focus on voice behavior, which points a direction for managers to increase prosocial voice in Chinese context. Secondly, this thesis has illuminated the mediating effect of interpersonal harmony on the relationship between regulatory focus and employee voice behavior. In practice, organizations can gain more prosocial voice by improving the quality of interpersonal interactions. Thirdly, this thesis has confirmed the moderating role of psychological safety. Organizations can affect employees'

voice behavior by improving individual psychological safety in the practice.

Chapter 7: Conclusion. In this section, the research summary is made and two research limitations are pointed out.

There are two limitations of the research. As for the first limitation, the concentrated geographical and industrial sources of the sample may affect the external validity of the research results. In future research, the sample should be as spread and balanced as possible in terms of geographical and industrial distribution. What's more, cross-culture may affect the external validity of the research, so future research can consider the influence of cross-culture. As for the second limitation, this study is not a multi-level research, as the data analysis did not support the cross-level moderation of team psychological safety. Future research can further the study on team psychological safety.

The thesis also gives four suggestions to the future research. Firstly, future research can consider the regulatory fit of superior and subordinate as an independent variable. Secondly, future research can take other mediators into account. Thirdly, future can use psychological safety at the team or organizational level as a moderator. Fourthly, future research can explore the influence of cross-culture.

1.6 Chapter summary

This chapter is the first part of the thesis. Firstly, the research background is introduced, and the research dilemma is proposed by introducing a real case. Next, research questions are proposed based on the hierarchical model of motivation, regulatory focus theory, and the research on interpersonal harmony and psychological safety. Then, this chapter analyzes the significance of the research and presents the research methods, the research roadmap, and the thesis structure. Finally, the main contents of each chapter are briefly introduced. Through Chapter 1, we can have a whole picture of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Voice behavior

2.1.1 The concept of voice behavior

Voice behavior in the field of organizational behavior originates from the word voice. In Hirschman (1970)'s monograph *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states*, the author pointed out that when employees are dissatisfied with the organization, three types of behaviors will be manifested: exit (E), loyalty (L) and voice (V), which is called the ELV model. The author proposed the concept of voice as "any attempt at all to change rather than to escape from an objectionable state of affair" (p30).

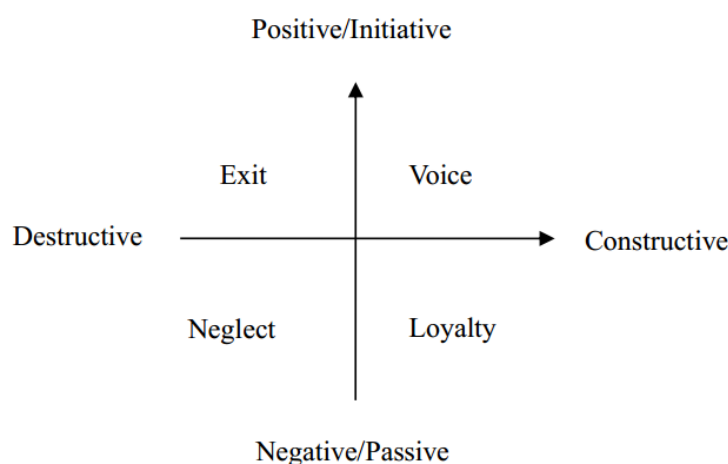


Figure 2 - 1 The EVLN Model

Source: Farrell (1983)

Farrell first introduced voice behavior into employee research, and later revised and developed the ELV model. Farrell (1983) proposed the EVLN model in which the author added 'neglect' (N) as the fourth behavior when employees are dissatisfied with the organization. The four kinds of reaction of employee dissatisfaction with organization is characterized by the specific behavior of employees, "such as turnover, absenteeism and lateness, talking to the supervisor, requesting a transfer". Farrell (1983) considered that employees who adopt voice behavior are more willing to actively solve organizational problems and improve organizational status. From the EVLN model (Figure 2-1), it can be seen that voice behavior in early studies is a proactive and constructive behavior choice when employees are dissatisfied with the

organizational status (Chen & Shi, 2017).

Later, Van Dyne and Lepine (1998) defined voice as promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize, and consider voice are not required as part of a job (p.109). In the definition, Van Dyne and Lepine (1998) further clarified that voice behavior is an extra-role behavior: “Voice, defined as nonrequired behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge with an intent to improve rather than merely criticize”. Katz (1964) first proposed extra-role behavior and he argued that extra-role behavior without prior provisions is a spontaneous behavior, which is conducive to the realization of organizational goals. Later, Bateman and Organ (1983) developed extra-role behavior into organizational citizenship behavior. The definition of voice behavior by Van Dyne and Lepine (1998) has a new extension in scope. Voice behavior is not only a challenging behavior choice for employees when they are not satisfied with the organizational state, but also a constructive suggestion to help the organization develop better. LePine and Van Dyne (2001) considered that the purpose of voice behavior is constructive, and further defined voice behavior as “constructive change-oriented communication intended to improve the situation” (p. 326), and considered that voice behavior is an organizational citizen behavior.

Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) considered that early voice behavior constructs only represented a single dimension that had positive significance to the organization, but there would be other types of voice behavior in the reality. Therefore, it is necessary to further expand the scope of voice behavior constructs. These authors put forward for the first time that voice behavior is a multidimensional concept. Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) defined voice as “Intentionally expressing work-related ideas, information, and opinions” (p.1363). At the same time, as shown in Figure 2-2, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) divided voice behavior into prosocial voice, defensive voice and acquiescent voice from the perspective of employee’s voice motivation. Prosocial voice refers to the voice based on cooperation motivation. Its main purpose is to benefit others and the organization and it belongs to organizational citizenship behavior. Defensive voice stems from fear motivation and the purpose is self-protection. Acquiescent voice is based on resignation motivation, passively keeping consistent with others, which is an inefficient expression of opinions. Prosocial voice and defensive voice are proactive behaviors, while acquiescent voice is a passive behavior.

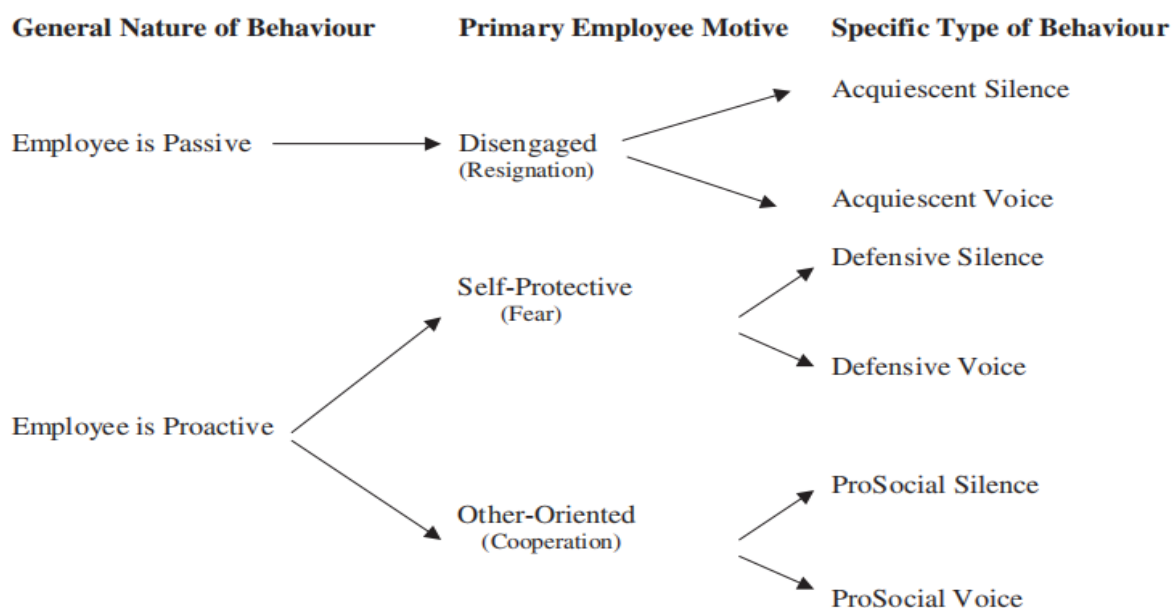


Figure 2 - 2 Employee motivation as critical characteristics of silence and voice

Source: Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003: 1362)

As described in the case of the introduction (P2): Wu’s speech mainly considered the interests of the organization. He bravely raised the problem of production control, and made voice on equipment upgrading despite the opposition of the leaders, which belongs to prosocial voice. Xu was worried about taking responsibility and shifted the focus of the problem to the detection capability. This is more based on self-protection and belongs to defensive voice. Zhao knew that the responsibility for the problem did not fall on him, so he disengaged and spoke along with the leader’s intention, which belongs to acquiescent voice behavior. After Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) proposed the concept of multi-dimensional voice, the purpose and definition of voice have been expanded. Prosocial voice behavior are extra-role behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors, while acquiescent voice and defensive voice are based on individuals’ own interests instead of the benefit of organizations.

Based on the definition of voice behavior by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003), scholars have carried out multi-perspective and multi-dimensional research on voice behavior. Based on the Chinese cultural background, Duan and Ling (2011) considered the voice to be two-dimensional, including aggressive voice and considerate voice. The former dimension has the characteristics of high interpersonal risk, and the latter dimension has the characteristics of low interpersonal risk. More recently, Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012) divided voice into promotive voice and prohibitive voice. The former contributes constructive suggestions to improve the organization, and the latter is a challenging proposition for restraining organizational loss. Burris (2012) considered that voice behavior may not be fully challenging, and proposed the

two-dimensional structure of challenging voice and supportive voice. Challenging voice behavior is the suggestion made by employees to against the differences and conflicts. Supportive voice behavior is the suggestion to promote the stability and improvement of the organization. Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) positioned voice behavior as a voluntary and open communication among employees within the organization, aiming to improve the working environment of the organization. Based on the two-dimensional concept of Burriss (2012), Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) proposed defensive voice behavior and destructive voice behavior, and divided voice behavior into four types: supportive voice behavior, constructive voice behavior, defensive voice behavior and destructive voice behavior. Defensive voice behavior is based on self-protection and involves putting forward opposing opinions to prevent organizational changes. Destructive voice behavior is also based on self-protection, complaints and denigration of the work process. From the dimensions of voice behavior divided by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), defensive voice behavior and destructive behavior are based on self-protection rather than organizational interests.

Table 2-1 are the views on voice behavior. Yu and Zhao (2013) drew on the existing literature and concluded that the structural dimensions of voice behavior can be mainly divided into two categories: the first category includes dimensions represented by promotive voice behavior and prohibitive voice behavior, and another category includes dimensions represented by prosocial voice behavior, defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior.

Table 2 - 1 Views on voice behavior

Scholar	View
Hirschman (1970)	“Any attempt at all to change rather than to escape from an objectionable state of affair” (p.30)
Van Dyne and Lepine (1998)	“Promotive behavior that emphasizes the expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize” (p.109)
LePine and Van Dyne (2001)	“Our purpose is to specify and test a predictive model of voice behavior (defined as constructive change-oriented communication intended to improve the situation)” (p.326)
Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003)	Voice: “Intentionally expressing work-related ideas, information, and opinions” (p.1363) Prosocial Voice: “Expressing solutions to problems based on cooperation.

- Suggesting constructive ideas for change to benefit the organization.” (p.1363)
- Defensive Voice: “Expressing ideas that shift attention elsewhere based on fear. Proposing ideas that focus on others to protect the self”. (p.1363)
- Acquiescent Voice: “Expressing supportive ideas based on resignation. Agreeing with the group due to low self- efficacy to make a difference”. (p.1363)
- “Voice behavior reflects two opposing psychological needs of individual employees: one is the need to integrate with the situation (considerate voice), and the other is the need to enhance independence (aggressive voice).” (p.1186)
- Duan and
Ling (2011) “The two-dimension structure of self-aggressive voice behavior and holistic voice behavior is proposed. The former has the characteristics of high interpersonal risk, while the latter has the characteristics of low interpersonal risk” (p.1195)
- “Accordingly, we propose two types of voice—promotive and prohibitive...” (p.74)
- Liang,
Farh, and
Farh (2012) Promotive voice: “Because promotive voice proposes ways of changing the status quo, it is challenging.” (p.74)
- Prohibitive voice: “In contrast, prohibitive voice describes employees’ expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization.” (p.75)
- “This ‘challenging voice’ specifically involves speaking up in ways intended to alter, modify, or destabilize generally accepted sets of practices, policies, or strategic directions that make up the status quo to those individuals who have devised or are in charge of sustaining those aspects of an organization.” (p.852)
- Burris
(2012) “Supportive voice is intended to stabilize or preserve existing organizational policies or practices.” (p.853)
- “Supportive voice is the voluntary expression of support for worthwhile work-related policies, programs, objectives, procedures, etc., or speaking out in defense of these same things when they are being unfairly criticized.” (p.91)
- Maynes
and
Podsakoff
(2014) “Constructive voice is the voluntary expression of ideas, information, or opinions focused on effecting organizationally functional change to the work context.” (p.91)
- “Defensive voice is the voluntary expression of opposition to changing an organization’s policies, procedures, programs, practices, etc., even when the proposed changes have merit or making changes is necessary.” (p.91)
- “Destructive voice is the voluntary expression of hurtful, critical, or debasing opinions regarding work policies, practices, procedures, etc.” (p.91)
-

2.1.2 The measurement of voice

Van Dyne and Lepine (1998) investigated and studied Midwestern American enterprises and developed a voice behavior scale containing 6 items. For example, “even if my views are different from my colleague’s, or my colleague does not agree with my views, I will still bring it up and communicate with my colleague about the problems I found at work.” This scale is used for the measurement of single-dimension voice behavior, which has good validity and reliability. The scale has been cited the most in the subsequent academic research. Ng and Feldman (2012) found through meta-analysis that 34% of voice behavior studies before 2010 adopted this scale.

Later, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) developed the voice scale and the silence scale, each has 15 items. Among them, there are five items to measure prosocial voice behavior, such as “as long as it is beneficial to the enterprise, I will boldly express my own suggestions”. There are five items to measure defensive voice behavior, such as “in order to protect myself, I will be consistent with my superiors”; The acquiescent voice behavior was measured by five items, such as “I generally agree with my supervisor on matters unrelated to my duties.” The scale is widely used in the study of silence, but relatively less used in the study of voice behavior, especially in the context of Chinese management. The reason is that many scholars consider that voice behavior is a kind of organizational citizenship behavior, and they do not pay enough attention to the motivation of voice behavior based on fear and resignation. Cai (2008) tested the localized voice behavior scale. In Cai (2008)’s report, the reliability of three subscales of acquiescent voice behavior, defensive voice behavior and prosocial voice behavior were 0.84, 0.86 and 0.83 respectively.

Based on Chinese cultural background, Duan and Ling (2011) compiled an 11-item scale to measure aggressive voice and considerate voice. Among them, there are 5 items measuring the dimension of aggressive voice, such as “I always choose the right place and time to express suggestions to colleagues or supervisors”. There are 6 items measuring the considerate voice dimension, such as “even if it affects the relationship with colleagues, I will directly point out the problems in the work of colleagues”. Duan and Ling (2011) reported that the internal consistency reliability of the scale was 0.80, that of the considerate voice subscale was 0.76, and that of the aggressive voice subscale was 0.73.

Based on the data from Chinese retail companies in Shenzhen, China, Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012) developed a two-dimensional scale to measure promotive voice and prohibitive

voice. The scale contains 10 items, with 5 for promotive voice and 5 for prohibitive voice. An example of promotive voice items is: “I actively put forward suggestions on improving the working procedures of the unit”. An example of prohibitive voice items is that: “I will tell the truth about serious problems that may cause unit loss, even if others have different opinions”. According to the report of Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012), the internal consistency reliability of the two subscales of promotive voice behavior and prohibitive voice behavior was 0.87, 0.86, 0.90 and 0.90 respectively. In the research of voice behavior under the management situation in China, this two-dimensional scale is widely used. (Chen, Duan, & Tian, 2013; Zhu & Wang, 2013; Liu & Liao, 2015; Sun, Yin, & Li, 2015; Wang, 2015; Liu, 2016; Sun, Shi, & Lan, 2018; Lu et al., 2019).

Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) developed a four-dimensional voice scale containing 20 measurement items. There are 5 items for measuring supportive voice, such as “when others unfairly criticize the organizational plan, I will defend the valuable organizational plan”. There are 5 items for measuring constructive voice, such as “I often make suggestions on how to do things in a new or more effective way at work”. There are 5 items for measuring defensive voice, such as “I will stubbornly oppose changes in working methods, even if the proposed change is valuable”. There are 5 items to measure destructive voice, such as “I often slander the policies or goals of organization.” According to the report by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), the internal consistency reliability of the four subscales of supportive advice, constructive advice, defensive advice, and destructive advice were 0.89, 0.95, 0.92, and 0.93, respectively.

2.1.3 The influencing factors of voice

Morrison (2014) summarized the factors that promote and inhibit voice behavior (see Table 2-2 for details), including individual disposition (such as conscientiousness, achievement orientation), Job and organizational attitudes and perceptions (such as organizational identification, detachment), emotions, beliefs and schemas (such as psychological safety, fear). Supervisor and leader behavior (such as transformational leadership, abusive leadership), and other contextual factors (such as group voice climate, formal voice mechanisms, climate of fear or silence), etc.

Table 2 - 2 Variables that can motivate or inhibit voice

	Motivators	Inhibitors
Individual dispositions	Extraversion	Achievement orientation
	Proactive personality	
	Assertiveness	
	Conscientiousness	
	Duty orientation	
	Customer orientation	
Job and organizational attitudes and perceptions	Organizational identification	Detachment
	Work-group identification	Powerlessness
	Felt obligation for change	
	Job satisfaction	
	Role breadth	
	Control or influence	
	Organizational support	
Emotions, beliefs, and schemas	Anger	Fear
	Psychological safety	Futility
		Image or career risks
Supervisor and leader behavior	Openness	Abusive leadership
	Consultation	
	Leader-member exchange	
	Transformational leadership	
	Ethical leadership	
	Leader influence	
Other contextual factors	Group voice climate	Job and social stressors
	Caring climate	Climate of fear or silence
	Formal voice mechanisms	Instrumental climate
		Hierarchical structure
		Change-resistance culture

Source: Morrison (2014: 186)

Later, Knoll et al. (2016) analyzed factors that have direct and indirect effect on organization voice, team voice and employee voice from four dimensions: organizational culture, team constitution (such as diversity, resources), managers (such as individual traits, motivations) and employees (such as individual traits, motivations). Specifically, organizational culture directly influences voice behavior at the organizational level through the continuous mediating effect of organizational structure (and system and practice) and organizational

atmosphere. Team constitution influences voice behavior at team level through the continuous mediating effect of team structure (and practice) and team atmosphere. Organizational culture and structure (and system and practice) have an impact on this continuous mediating process. Through three consecutive mediating processes, such as management methods (and leadership styles), psychological atmosphere (psychological safety, learning, innovation, trust), and individual internal level variables (states, activated scripts), manager's characteristics and motivation impact employee voice behavior based on different motivations in the employee level. Organizational culture, organizational structure (systems and practices), organizational atmosphere, and team atmosphere have an impact on this continuous mediation process. The characteristics of employees affect the variables on the internal level of individuals through interpersonal variables (leader-follower Dyad, co-worker Dyad). The motivation of employees directly affects the variables on the internal level of individuals, while the variables on the internal level of individuals directly affect employee's voice behavior. The characteristics and motivations of managers will affect the variables on the interpersonal level, and the organizational atmosphere and team atmosphere will also affect the variables on the internal level of individuals.

The existing literature shows that personality traits, leader behavior types as well as team atmosphere and organizational context are the three main streams of research on the antecedents of employees' voice. The following part will summarize the influencing factors of voice from four levels: individual level, leader level, team level and organizational behavior level.

2.1.3.1 Individual factors

From the perspective of individuals, the factors affecting voice behavior are mainly reflected in individual traits. It mainly includes personality, values, motivation, cognitive preference and so on. Demographic characteristics are potential factors that influence voice (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008). Demographic variables, such as employee tenure, gender, ethnicity, educational degree etc., have an influence on employee's voice (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011). The position can also affect voice (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006). Employees with high positions believe that they have the responsibility to voice, whereas employees with low positions are reluctant to voice.

In terms of personality traits, Big Five personality (openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, neuroticism) and proactive personality have attracted more attention. Among them, there are many conclusions about the influence of the Big Five

Personality on the voice behavior. Duan, Wang, and Zhong (2007) found that conscientiousness and extraversion positively affect voice behavior, while neuroticism and openness negatively affect voice behavior. Nikolaou, Vakola, and Bourantas (2008) found that neuroticism was negatively related to voice behavior, and conscientiousness was positively related to voice behavior, and the relationship between openness, agreeableness, extraversion, and voice behavior was not significant. LePine and Van Dyne (2001) found that conscientiousness and extraversion were positively related to voice behavior, and neuroticism and agreeableness were negatively related to voice behavior. The relationship between openness and voice behavior was not significant. Yu, Yu, and Lu (2014) also found that extraversion positively affect employee voice behavior. An empirical research conducted by Liang and Tang (2009) showed the positive relation between proactive personality and employee's voice. Crant, Kim, and Jie (2011) found that responsibility and proactive personality are positively related to employee's voice, and proactive personality is a better predictor than Big Five personality. Besides, Janssen and Cozijnsen (1998) explored the impact of employee cognitive style on voice. By contrast, employees with adapting style are more likely to provide traditional views and employees with innovative styles are more tend to offer novel ideas.

In terms of values, Botero and Van Dyne (2009) took the United States and Colombia as the sample and validated that power distance is negatively related to employee's voice. Empirical study of Duan and Ling (2011) shows that: the doctrine of the mean is positively related to considerate voice and negatively related to aggressive voice. Chen, Duan, and Tian (2013) predicted that the doctrine of the mean and collectivism are negatively related to prohibitive voice and positively related to promotive voice. Power distance is not conducive to voice. (Du, Ran, & Cao, 2014) found in their research that the value of the mean is positively related to employees' transformational behaviors. Many scholars have studied the influence of value matching on voice behavior (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Wang et al., 2011; Cole, Carter, & Zhang, 2013; Ma et al., 2015a; Ma et al., 2015b).

In terms of motivation factors, Wei and Zhang (2010) proposed that the surface harmony and power distance are negatively related to the prohibitive voice, and negative expectations mediate this process. Some scholars have studied the influence of power motivation as a mediator on voice behavior (Duan, Ling, & Wang, 2013; Wu, Gao, & Duan, 2014). Chen, Li, and Lu (2016) empirically tested the influence of impression management motivation, prosocial motivation and organization caring motivation on voice behavior, as well as the mediating effect of regulatory focus. Many scholars have studied the influence of impression management

motivation on voice behavior (Xiang & Long, 2013; Cui & Zhai, 2014; Cao, Cui, & Zhai, 2016; Huang & Zhang, 2016). Liu, Zhou, and Hong (2017) pointed out that the relationship between employee's high commitment work system and employee's voice behavior is mediated by employee's public service motivation.

2.1.3.2 Leadership factors

In the study of the relationship between leadership characteristics as well as management styles and voice behavior, there are many literatures on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership influences subordinates by arousing and motivating their higher-level needs, so that the subordinates will transcend their own interests, focusing on organizational interests, and work harder (Bass, 1995). These studies have reported the same conclusion that transformational leadership is positively related to employee's voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liang & Tang, 2009; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Wu et al., 2011; Duan & Huang, 2014). Detert and Burris (2007) examined how transformational leadership and open management leadership influence the voice behavior, further suggesting that the positive effect of open management leadership on employee's voice is more obvious.

Other studies have focused on the influence of moral leadership, authentic leadership, abusive leadership and other leadership styles on voice behavior. Brown and Treviño (2006) considered that ethical leaders would show their ethical behaviors in communication with their subordinates and in the decision-making process, and promote more ethical behaviors among organizational members. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) found that moral leadership positively affects subordinates' voice behavior through their psychological safety. Liang (2014) also found similar research conclusions with Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009), that moral leadership positively affects employee voice behavior, responsibility perception and psychological safety mediate the relationship between moral leadership and voice behavior, and power distance plays a positive moderating role between moral leadership and responsibility perception and psychological safety. Walumbwa et al. (2008) consider that authentic leaders develop and maintain authentic and transparent relationships with subordinates, and actively promote their self-development. At the same time, authentic leaders encourage employees to voice and inspire their sincerity, which will increase their trust in leaders (Avolio et al., 2004). Namely, Hsiung (2012) proposed the positive relationship between authentic leadership and employee's voice. Liu and Liao (2015) also found that authentic leadership positively affected inhibitive voice behavior of employees. Abusive leaders will make subordinates feel the hostile verbal behaviors and non-verbal behaviors that do not include physical contact of managers

(Tepper, 2000). Fruitful research has also revealed presented the negative correlation between abusive leadership and employee's voice (Burriss, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Li & Ling, 2010; Wu et al., 2012; Yan & Huang, 2012).

Considerable research has found Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) to be positively related to employee's voice (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Wu et al., 2011). An empirical research conducted by Botero and Van Dyne (2009) reported that in the United States, power distance (PD) has interactive effect with voice and has a more significant impact on the voice behavior when leader-member exchange (LMX) is high, whereas in Colombia, no interaction between PD and LMX has been observed. Burriss, Detert, and Chiaburu (2008)'s research in the catering industry showed the mediating role of employee psychological detachment in the relationship between LMX and voice behavior. Van Dyne, Kamdar, and Joireman (2008) validated the mediating role of employee role perceptions in the relationship between LMX and voice.

Some scholars consider that leader trust has a significant positive impact on employee's voice (Li, Ling, & Fang, 2010; Wong, Spence, & Cummings, 2010; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011). Gao, Janssen, and Shi (2011) found leadership empowerment to positively moderate the relationship between leadership trust and employee's voice. Li, Ling, and Fang (2010) proposed that leader support perception positively influenced employee behavior by affecting trust and psychological ownership; abusive leadership had a negative influence on employee's voice.

2.1.3.3 Team factors

Team factors mainly include team member exchange (TMX), workplace friendship, team voice behavior atmosphere, team satisfaction, etc. Wang (2015) found that team member exchange (TMX) positively predicted prohibitive voice behavior, but had no significant relationship with inhibitive voice behavior. The research results of Sun, Yin, and Li (2015) showed that both colleague trust and workplace trust significantly and positively predicted inhibitive voice behavior and prohibitive voice behavior, and there was no significant difference in the predictive power of colleague trust between the two types of voice behavior. However, compared with inhibitive voice behavior, workplace friendship has a stronger predictive power on prohibitive voice behavior. Next, Yin et al. (2018) proved through empirical research that workplace friendship positively predicts voice behavior, and team member exchange (TMX) positively predicts voice behavior. Team member exchange (TMX) completely mediates the relationship between workplace friendship and voice behavior. Morrison, Wheeler, and Kamdar (2011) showed that the formation of voice behavior not only depends on personal attitude and

working environment, but also on the belief of the group. Team voice atmosphere has a high predictive power on team members' voice behavior.

In terms of satisfaction, Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) concluded that work group satisfaction has a positive impact on employee's voice, whereas group size has a negative impact on employee's voice. Morrison, Wheeler, and Kamdar (2011) emphasized the significant impact of team satisfaction on employee's voice.

2.1.3.4 Team factors

Organizational factors mainly include organizational justice, high-commitment organization, performance appraisal, job stress, job satisfaction, etc. Among them, organizational justice and high-commitment organizations have received more attention. Organizational justice includes distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and information justice (Colquitt, 2001). Pinder and Harlos (2001) found that procedural justice positively affects individual voice motivation. Van et al. (2004) proposed that the voice channel will make employees feel higher organizational justice and then positively affect employee's voice behavior. Takeuchi, Chen, and Cheung (2012) research on organizational justice found that interpersonal justice is positively related to voice behavior, and there are interactions between interpersonal justice, procedural justice and distribution justice. By studying the trickle-down effect of the high level, medium level and entry level in Chinese manufacturing enterprises, Jin and Lin (2017) found that interpersonal justice positively affected creativity and voice behavior at the same level, and higher-level interpersonal justice influenced lower-level interpersonal justice through the mediating effect of higher-level creativity and voice behavior. Sun, Shi, and Lan (2018) found that interpersonal justice was positively correlated with employees' prohibitive voice behavior, but not significantly correlated with inhibitive voice behavior. Psychological authorization plays a mediating role in the relationship between interpersonal justice and prohibitive voice behavior. Zhang and Wang (2018) found from the four dimensions of organizational justice that procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice and information justice all positively predicted the voice behavior of groups. High-commitment organizations, also known as high-commitment work systems, refer to achieve high commitment level of employees through human resource practices, which is an important part of strategic human resource management system (Duan, Shi, & Ling, 2017). Several studies have pointed out that high-commitment organizations and high-commitment human resource practices positively predict employee voice behavior (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Duan, Shi, & Ling, 2017; Liu, Zhou, & Hong, 2017).

In other studies, Lu et al. (2019) pointed out that work pressure positively affects defensive voice behavior, and negatively affects constructive voice behavior, and self-depletion mediates this relationship. However, Ng and Feldman (2012) found a negative correlation between work stress and employee voice behavior through meta-analysis. Duan, Ling, and Wang (2013) found that the type of organization affected voice behavior, and there were significant differences among employees' voice behavior in four types of organizations: state-owned enterprises, private enterprises, foreign-funded enterprises and government agencies, and employees' sense of power played a mediating role. From the perspective of organizational structure, Zhu and Wang (2013) found that centralization of an organization negatively affects prohibitive voice behavior and inhibitive voice behavior, but the impact on inhibitive voice behavior is relatively small. The regularization of the organization has positive influence on prohibitive voice behavior and inhibitive voice behavior, but the impact on prohibitive voice behavior is relatively small. Zhang, Hu, and Qiu (2014) found that developmental performance appraisal plays a positive role in voice behavior and a mediating role in job satisfaction. Yan, Shan, and Xu (2017) concluded that corporate social responsibility perceived by employees has a significantly positive impact on voice behavior, and organizational trust mediates this relationship. In addition, studies by several scholars have shown that job satisfaction is positively correlated with voice behavior (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Hagedoorn et al., 1999). At the same time, the research on voice behavior extends to the role of labor unions. Based on the theory of planned behavior, Hu et al. (2019) found that the higher the practice level of labor unions in the Chinese context, the more conducive to employee voice behavior. Psychological safety, effectiveness sense of voice behavior, and responsibility for constructive change mediating this relationship.

2.1.4 The outcomes of voice behavior

The research on the outcome variables of individual voice behavior mainly focuses on work output, job satisfaction, employee performance, performance evaluation, perceived justice, interpersonal conflict, etc.

Bhal and Ansari (2007) found that employee voice mediates the relationship between organizational justice and work output, and employee voice positively affects work output. In another research, Holland et al. (2011) verified the effects of employee's direct voice and indirect voice on job satisfaction. The results show that there is a complementary effect between employees' direct voice and employee's indirect voice (through labor unions), but direct voice

is more predictive of job satisfaction.

Chinese scholars Shi, Gao, and Qu (2013) paid attention to the Chinese management scenario. Through the empirical analysis of 314 pairs of employees and superiors, it is found that employee's voice behavior positively predicts employee performance and job satisfaction, however, the relationship between voice behavior and organizational commitment is insignificant. Meanwhile, compared with organizational citizenship behavior, employee voice behavior can better predict job performance. Whiting et al. (2011) adopted laboratory method and found that employees' constructive voice can improve their perception of solving organizational problem and improving supervisors' evaluation of their performance. The research of Ng and Feldman (2012) also came to similar findings that voice behavior positively predicts employee's in-role performance and innovation ability.

The impacts of voice behavior on performance can be divided into positive type and negative type. Hung, Yeh, and Shih (2012) found that employee's voice behavior is negatively related to their performance evaluation, and employee's political skills play a positive moderating role in the relationship. Other studies have also found that employee voice would weaken the performance of the employee that voice (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2006; Burris, 2012). There are two reasons for the negative impact of voice behavior on performance: on the one hand, voice behavior may be perceived by managers as an offensive behavior, which challenges the managers and could lead to retaliatory performance evaluation (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011); on the other hand, voice behavior consumes many resources, which would occupy the time and energy on work tasks, thereby reducing the performance (Lin & Johnson, 2015).

Regarding the research on voice opportunity, Avery and Quiñones (2002) found that only when an employee perceives that he owns the opportunity to voice, will the voice opportunity positively affect the employee's perceived procedural justice. The research conducted by Vries, Jehn, and Terwel (2012) showed that employees' perception of the manager's motivation to provide voice opportunities will affect employees' voice behavior and their perception of interpersonal conflict. Specifically, if employees perceive that the managers' motivations are false, they will reduce their voice behavior and enhance their perception of interpersonal conflicts.

There is relatively less research on the outcome variables of team voice behavior (Li et al., 2018). The existing research mainly focuses on productivity, group performance, group learning, etc.

Kim, MacDuffie, and Pil (2010) took global automobile assembly plants as the research object, and conducted an empirical analysis. The results show that when the team's voice and the representative worker's voice take effect respectively, the relationship between the two forms of voice and labor productivity are insignificant. Moreover, the co-existence of the two voice may offset their positive effects on productivity, but the interaction of the two voice would positively affect performance and productivity.

Many scholars have found that team voice positively predict team performance (Erez, Lepine, & Elms, 2002; Frazier & Bowler, 2012; Walumbwa, Morrison, & Christensen, 2012). Lam and Mayer (2013) found that after the hospital adopted the questions and suggestions from customers, the customer's service experience is improved, thereby improving the hospital's service performance. Several research conclusions have shown that team voice has a positive effect on team learning, thereby promoting organizational innovation (Edmondson, 2003; Nguyen, Chen, & Cremer, 2017).

2.1.5 Summary of this section

2.1.5.1 Selection and measurement of voice behavior types

Different scholars have defined voice from various perspectives. There isn't a uniform definition at present but the connotation of voice is gradually enriched from 'constructive suggestions on dissatisfaction about the organization' (Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983) to 'constructive suggestions to improve the organization' (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998). Before Van Dyne proposed a new definition in 2003, voice was a positive and challenging extra-role behavior. Before Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) proposed a three-dimension construct of voice behavior, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) defined voice as an organizational citizenship behavior. Except for prosocial voice which is positive and challenging and belongs to organizational citizenship behavior, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) added defensive voice based on fear motivation and acquiescent voice based on resignation motivation. Defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior do not have challenging characteristics, and at the same time, acquiescent voice behavior does not have positive characteristics. Burris (2012) thought that not all voice behaviors were challenging, so the author proposed supportive voice. Based on Burris (2012)'s theory, Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) added defensive voice and destructive voice. The purposes and results of voice have undergone great changes. Voice may be beneficial and harmful as well.

The main content of this thesis is to explore the influence mechanism of regulatory focus

on employee voice behavior. Interpersonal harmony is the mediating variable, and psychological safety moderates the relationship between mediating variable and dependent variable. Both regulatory focus and interpersonal harmony are latent variables of motivation. They influence employee voice behavior through motivation level by level. Therefore, from the perspective of motivation, the three-dimensional voice construct (prosocial voice, defensive voice, acquiescent voice) proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) is adopted in this thesis because the three dimensions of voice are more in line with the real management situation.

As for the measurement of voice, accordingly, this thesis adopted the voice and silence scale developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003). The voice scale measures prosocial voice, defensive voice and acquiescent voice and each of them is measured by 5 items.

2.1.5.2 The summary of literature review

From the above analysis, it can be clearly seen that there are many researches on the influencing factors of voice, including individual factors, leader factors, team and organizational factors. These researches manifested two characteristics. Firstly, the research on voice basically adopted the definition proposed by Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) and agreed that voice is a positive and challenging extra-role behavior. The literature research shows that the connotation of voice behavior has expanded, and there is a side of self-protection and disengagement, but the research on defensive voice and acquiescent voice is relatively lacking. Secondly, there are many researches on motivation, mainly considering the influence of impression motivation on voice behavior, while less on the regulatory focus and interpersonal harmony.

2.2 Regulatory focus theory

2.2.1 The development of regulatory focus theory

The regulatory focus theory proposed by Higgins (1997) can be regarded as the development of self-discrepancy theory to some extent. Based on regulatory focus theory, Higgins (2000) later proposed regulatory fit theory (Yao & Yue, 2009).

2.2.1.1 Self-discrepancy theory

Higgins (1987) proposed the self-discrepancy theory. Self-discrepancy theory defined three kinds of self: actual self, ideal self and ought self. Actual self refers to the characteristics the individual thinks he or she possesses. Self-discrepancy refers to the gap between the actual

self and the ideal self and the ought self, including the difference between the actual self and the ideal self, the actual self and the ought self.

Self-discrepancy theory suggests that the existence of self-discrepancy will make individuals want to reduce the difference, and there is a difference in the motivational tendency of individuals to reduce the difference to achieve self-standard. Self-discrepancy theory also suggests that different types of self-discrepancy reflect specific types of negative psychological situations and specific negative psychological situations are associated with specific emotions. The discrepancy between actual self and ideal self reflects the negative psychological situation of ‘absence of positive outcomes’, which will lead to dejection-related emotions. The discrepancy between actual self and ought self predicts the ‘presence of negative outcomes’, which will lead to agitation-related emotions (Yang & Chen, 2008).

2.2.1.2 Regulatory focus theory

The process that individuals adjust their ideas and reactions to achieve certain goals is defined as self-regulation (Geers et al., 2005). During the process of self-regulation, individuals will show certain tendencies, which is regulatory focus. In early days, many psychologists thought the hedonic principle of pursuing happiness and avoiding pain as the most basic principle of individual self-regulation. Higgins (1997) suggested that pursuing benefits and avoiding harm are the basic principles, but different individuals implement the principle in different ways. The author considered that there are two other types of motivations: promotion focus and prevention focus. The author then proposed Regulatory Focus Theory accordingly.

Higgins (1997) divided the results faced by individuals into four types: no losses, losses, no gains and gains. Regulatory focus theory illustrates that promotion focused individuals are more concerned with the process from no income to profitable and more sensitive to gains, while prevention focused individuals are more concerned with the process from no losses to losses and more sensitive to losses (Yang et al., 2017). For promotion focused individuals, it’s happy to have gains and painful to have no gains. For prevention focused individuals, it’s happy to have no losses and painful to have losses (Zou, Scholer, & Higgins, 2014).

Higgins and Pinelli (2020) proposed that promotion-focused individuals are concerned with ideal aspirations and growth, whereas prevention-focused individuals are concerned with ought responsibilities and security. Promotion-focused individuals are concerned with moving from the status quo “0” to attain a better state “+1,” whereas prevention-focused individuals are concerned with maintaining (or restoring) a satisfactory status quo “0” against a worse state

“-1.” Table 2-3 summarized the research by representative scholars and made a comparison between promotion focus and prevention focus (see Table 2-3 for details).

Table 2 - 3 A comparison between promotion focus and prevention focus

Scholar	Promotion focus	Prevention focus
Higgins (1997)	Driven by improvement needs. Define desired goals as ambition and completion, focusing on how to achieve their ideals and ambitions.	Driven by security needs. Define the desired goal as responsibility and security, focusing on how to achieve the responsibilities and obligations so as not to be punished.
Crowe and Higgins (1997); Molden and Finkel (2010)	Have a clear tendency to take risks. Maximize the benefits at the expense of significant losses. Prefer to adopt a desired strategy.	Have a clear conservative tendency. Avoid losses at the expense of giving up significant returns. Prefer to adopt a vigilance strategy.
Crowe and Higgins (1997)	High openness and inclusiveness of information.	Low openness and inclusiveness of information.
Liberman et al. (2001)	Tendency to use exploratory information processing methods	Tendency to use cautious information processing methods.
Zhu and Meyers (2007)	Good at extracting deep relationships between things.	Pay more attention to the specific information points of external things
Lee, Anand, and Brian (2010)	Tend to describe positive valence information as gain.	Tend to describe negative information as loss
Yin and Wang (2013)	More sensitive to positive results. Care more about whether the results are self-sufficient.	More sensitive to negative outcomes. More concerned with the consequences of behavioral losses.
Zou, Scholer, and Higgins (2014)	It's happy to have gains and painful to have no gains	It's happy to have gains and painful to have no gains
Yang et al. (2017)	More sensitive to gains and more concerned with the process from no income to profitable	More sensitive to losses and more concerned with the process from loss-free to loss

2.2.1.3 Regulatory fit theory

Higgins (2000) proposed that when an individual's behavioral strategy fits with its regulatory focus, a value independent from the actual value of the object is derived, that is, the value from fit. Higgins (2000) also proposed that regulatory fit was achieved when individuals with different regulatory focused used their preferred behavioral strategies. Promotion focuses individuals tend to use the desire—approaching strategy, prevention focused individuals prefer vigilance—avoiding strategy (Lin & Wang, 2007).

Higgins (2000) found that regulatory fit would enhance individuals' behavioral motivation to pursue the goal and their emotional experience of the expected result will be more intense. The positive expected result is corresponding to positive emotional experience and the negative expected result is corresponding to negative emotional experience. What's more, regulatory fit will increase individuals' satisfaction with their behavioral assessment.

2.2.2 The measurement of regulatory focus

Higgins (1997) considered that regulatory focus can be manifested as the personality traits formed during individuals' growth, which is chronic regulatory focus. Regulatory focus can also be immediately activated by the situation, which is situational regulatory focus. Trait regulatory focus is mainly measured with questionnaire method and situational regulatory focus is mainly measured with experiment activation method.

2.2.2.1 Questionnaire method

Yao and Yue (2009) posited that the most commonly used questionnaires measuring regulatory focus include: selves questionnaire (Higgins, 1987), regulatory focus questionnaire (Higgins et al., 2001) and general regulatory measurement (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002).

Selves questionnaire is a classical measurement of self-discrepancy. Each subject uses 10 words to describe the characteristics of their every self (actual, ought, ideal). Then four types of self-discrepancy (actual self- ideal self, actual self- ideal others, actual self- ought self, actual self- ought others) are evaluated and calculated. Higgins et al. (2001) improved the computational method. After describing the characteristics of each self, the subjects were asked to evaluate the degree to which they possess or ought to possess or hope to possess each characteristic using a 4-point scale from 1-4 (Yang & Chen, 2008).

Regulatory focus questionnaire (RFQ) (Higgins et al., 2001) measures the regulatory focus through individuals' subjective success history. The questionnaire consists of 11 items. Among

them, prevention focus was measured by five questions, such as, “Compared to most people, are you unable to get what you want out of life?” Promoting focus was measured by six questions, such as “I feel my life is progressing on the path to success.” According to the report of Higgins et al. (2001), the internal consistency reliability of the defense orientation and promotion orientation subscales are 0.80 and 0.73, respectively.

General regulatory focus measurement (GRFM) (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) measures regulatory focus more directly by asking the subjects to report their acceptance degree of promotion goals and prevention goals. The questionnaire constructed according to the theory proposed by Higgins et al. (2001) has a total of 18 items. There are nine items to measure promotion focus goals, such as “I often imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations”. There are also nine questions to measure prevention focus goals, such as “I often think about how I can avoid failure in life.” According to the report of Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002), the internal consistency reliability of prevention focus and promotion focus subscales are 0.75 and 0.81 respectively.

Yao et al. (2008) thought that the operation and scoring of selves-questionnaire were cumbersome and not suitable for large-scale measurement. GRFM placed too much emphasis on academic achievement, which limited its application range. RFQ had been widely used in previous studies. Summerville and Roese (2008) analyzed the relationship between RFQ and GRFM and argued that GRFM was measuring the approaching motivation and avoidance motivation.

Neubert et al. (2008) developed the work regulatory focus questionnaire (WRF) to measure regulatory focus, which is more suitable for work situations. WRF has a total of 18 items. There are nine items to measure the promotion focus, such as “in order to achieve success, I took risks in my work”. There are also nine items for measuring prevention focus, such as “I am committed to accurately completing the tasks I undertake to enhance job security.” Promotion focus includes three sub-dimensions: achievement, ideal, and gains. Prevention focus includes three sub-dimensions: security, oughts and losses, and each sub-dimension has three items. According to the report of Neubert et al. (2008), the internal consistency reliability of the promotion focus and prevention focus subscales are 0.92 and 0.91, respectively.

Wallace, Johnson, and Frazier (2009) developed the work regulatory focus questionnaire from the perspective of achievement-oriented behavior and responsibility-oriented behavior, with 12 items in total. There are six items for measuring promotion focus, such as “complete a lot of work in a short time”. There are also six items for measuring prevention focus, such as

“fulfill work obligations”. According to the Wallace, Johnson, and Frazier (2009), the internal consistency reliability of the promotion focus and prevention focus subscales are 0.82 and 0.84, respectively.

2.2.2.2 Experiment activation method

Experiment activation method is mainly used to measure situational regulatory focus. There are many paradigms and activation methods, such as task framework paradigm activation, emotional activation, self-activation, etc. Among them, the task framework paradigm activation is commonly used (Yao & Yue, 2009).

Task framework paradigm activation (or profit and loss framework) operates promotion focus using the framework which emphasizes whether there are gains and operates prevention focus using the framework which emphasizes whether there is a loss. In both frameworks, the criteria and results of success or failure are the same. Emotional activation uses the context including a joyful experience to activate promotion focus and uses the context including an angry experience to activate prevention focus. Self-activation requires participants to list their wishes and responsibilities and then describe them in 2-3 sentences to activate regulatory focus (Yao & Yue, 2009).

2.2.3 The literature review of regulatory focus theory

As a common motivation principle, regulatory focus has a vital impact on people’s basic psychological processes such as cognitive evaluation, decision-making judgment and behavioral strategy. Researchers apply the regulatory focus theory to interpersonal interaction, organizational management, marketing and other fields. Regulatory focus theory is applied in the most in the field of marketing, producing abundant academic fruit (Yao & Yue, 2009). This thesis mainly concentrates on the application and research in organizational interpersonal interaction.

Brockner and Higgins (2001) first applied regulatory focus theory to organizational research and proposed that employee motivational orientation differences should be noted when researching employees’ resistance to organizational change.

According to Kark and Van Dijk (2007)’s research in 2007, promotion focused employees are more driven by internal motivation and had an emotional commitment to the organization, while prevention focused employees are more driven by external motivation and had a normal commitment or continuous commitment. The research by Markovits et al. (2008) had come to

a similar conclusion that the relationship between promotion regulatory focus and emotional commitment is more pronounced, and the relationship between preventive regulatory focus and normative commitment is more significant.

In a study that regulatory focus as a moderator, Wallace and Chen (2006) found through cross-layer research that regulatory focus mediates the relationship between group safety climate, conscientiousness and production performance, safety performance. Promotion regulatory focus is positively related to production performance and negatively related to safety performance; prevention regulatory focus is negatively correlated with production performance and positively related to safety performance.

In some studies, regulatory focus is used as a mediating variable. Neubert et al. (2008) found that prevention focus mediated the relationship between initiating structure, in-role performance and Deviant Behavior, and positively correlated with in-role performance, negatively correlated with deviant behavior. promotion focus mediated the relationship between servant leadership, helping behavior and creative behavior, and positively correlated with helping behavior and creative behavior.

Tseng and Kang (2008) found that both promotion focus and prevention focus have a significant positive impact on the uncertainty of organizational change and that promotion focus positively affects organizational commitment. Tseng and Kang (2009) deepened the research and pointed out that promotion focus was positively related to job satisfaction and has a significant positive impact on transformational leadership and the uncertainty of organizational transform.

In a different set of studies, Chinese scholars, with Li as a representative, have conducted a research on the influence of regulatory focus theory on the enthusiasm and creativity of employees. Li, Shang, and Xi (2011) confirmed that promotion focused subordinates match with leaders' promotive linguistic framework and prevention focused subordinates match with leaders' defensive linguistic framework, which can promote the positive working attitude of employees. Li, Shang, and Xi (2012) found that subordinates' situational regulatory focus partially mediates the relationship between leaders' linguistic framework and subordinates' creativity; subordinates' chronic regulatory focus moderates the relationship between context regulatory focus and subordinates' creativity. Subsequently, an empirical research conducted by Li et al. (2012) showed that leader feedback effect, feedback style and subordinate regulatory focus all have significant interactions with subordinates' creativity. When promotion regulatory focused subordinates receive the leader's promotive feedbacks successfully, subordinates will

show the highest creativity. In addition, Shang and Li (2015) proposed that employees' work regulatory focus mediated the relationship between leader behavior demonstration and employee creativity, and mediated the moderated effect of work complexity on the relationship between leader behavior demonstration and employee creativity.

Other scholars from China carried out research from the perspectives of performance and apology. Wu et al. (2013) found that the promotion focus of subordinates positively affects subordinate's contextual performance, and the prevention focus of subordinates positively affects subordinate task performance; the leader's promotion of regulatory focus positively affects subordinate contextual performance, and prevention regulatory focus positively affects subordinate task performance; LMX mediates the relationship between superior-subordinate regulatory focus matching and subordinate contextual performance.

Zheng et al. (2015) have shown that the positive framework's apology information matches with the offended people who are promotion focused, the negative framework's apology information matches with the offended people who are prevention focused, which can reduce the negative evaluation of the offended people to the offender, and the apology effect will be better.

More recently, Chinese scholars Chen, Li, and Lu (2016) established a motivation model of voice behavior, including impression management motivation, prosocial motivation, and caring organization motivation, and empirically tested the impact of three types of motivation on voice behavior, as well as the moderating effect of regulatory focus on the process of these influences. The research results show that all three types of motivations significantly positively predict voice behavior. Compared with high prevention focus employees, low prevention focus employees with high pro-social motivation exhibit more accelerative voice behavior. Impression management motivation positively predicts promotive and inhibitive voice behavior. Compared with high promotion focus employees, the correlation between low promotion focus employees' impression management motivation and promotive voice behavior is more significant. When the prosocial motivation drives voice behavior, the voice behavior individual will be more concerned about the organization and others, and more likely to trigger voice behavior. At the same time, compared with high-prevention-focused individuals, low-prevention-focused individuals are less worried about the loss of their own interests. Therefore, low-prevention-focused employees with high-prosocial motivation will show more voice behavior. High-promotion-focused employees are driven by the pursuit of benefits and will show more voice behavior. The motivation of low-promotion-focused employees to pursue

benefits is relatively low, but with the improvement of impression motivation, their voice behavior will also increase.

2.2.4 Summary of this section

2.2.4.1 The measurement of regulatory focus

This thesis adopts the regulatory focus theory proposed by Higgins (1997). Higgins (1997) considered that individuals may exhibit specific tendencies in the self-regulation process of achieving goals. The tendency mainly includes promotion focus and prevention focus. As for the connotations and differences of promotion focus and prevention focus, the research results of relevant scholars in Table 2-3 can be referred to.

This thesis mainly studies the influence mechanism of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior in work situations, and interpersonal harmony plays a mediating role in this process. Therefore, idiosyncratic regulatory focus was used as the independent variable, and the work regulatory focus questionnaire (WRF) developed by Neubert et al. (2008) was used for measurement. The subscales of promotion focus and prevention focus are all 9 items.

2.2.4.2 The summary of regulatory focus literature review

Since Brockner and Higgins (2001) introduced regulatory focus theory into organizational research, scholars at home and abroad have carried out some research. In recent years, Chinese scholars have studied this topic a lot, but research combining voice behavior and regulatory focus is rare, and regulatory focus more as a mediator variable. No Research has been found that regulatory focus affects the voice behavior as an independent variable.

2.3 Interpersonal harmony

2.3.1 The interpersonal harmony theory

Confucius said ‘The gentleman aims at harmony but not uniformity. The mean man aims at uniformity but not harmony’. This old saying is considered as the origin of harmony thinking (Chen & Zhang, 2010). Cao (2000) considered that the core of Chinese traditional culture is harmony, that is, based on interpersonal harmony and then achieve group harmony and ultimately achieve the harmony between man and nature. Wang and Guo (2012) held the view that harmony thinking is one of the essences of Chinese Confucian culture, including ‘harmony’ and ‘combination’. ‘Harmony’ retails the harmonious relationship between people.

'combination' is mainly embodied by 'the combination of heaven and man'. Harmony thinking is the core of Chinese traditional culture, and interpersonal harmony is the main content of harmony thinking.

On the one hand, China is an important economy in the world, and Chinese culture has more and more influence on the world; on the other hand, it is generally recognized in management practice that harmonious interpersonal relationships within organizations are very important for successful management of organizations (Lu & Chen, 2011). Therefore, attracting the attention of scholars at home and abroad. In the early research, scholars mainly studied harmony under the framework of conflict management, and often equated harmony with conflicts avoidance. Chen and Chung (1994) studied the influence of Confucianism on the organization and suggested that when individuals from East Asian culture face conflicts, they will use harmonious communication to avoid conflicts.

Leung (1997) has made great progress in the study of harmony. Leung (1997) proposed a two-dimensional interpersonal harmony, including harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance and considered that harmony enhancement was closer to the interpersonal harmony advocated by Confucianism, whereas disintegration avoidance was more related to self-protection and avoiding conflicts. The two dimensions affect individual's behaviors through different mechanisms.

Huang (1999) reconstructed the concept of conflict and harmony in Chinese traditional culture and proposed two types of interpersonal harmony: true harmony and superficial harmony. True harmony is defined as a relationship which makes both sides feel the tangible coordination, the cooperation, the agreement, and even the integration. Superficial harmony is the relationship which makes two sides try to maintain a disguise but their inner-feelings are not harmonious.

Comparing the research of Leung (1997) and Huang (1999), Zhang, Yao, and Huang (2013) suggested that individuals with true harmony tend to view others from a positive perspective and communicate with sincerity, trust and support, which is consistent with the dimension of harmony enhancement. On the contrary, individuals with superficial harmony are more likely to view others from a negative perspective and tend to be defensive and retreating when communicating with others, which is consistent with the dimension of disintegration avoidance.

Leung, Koch, and Lu (2002) integrated relevant literature on harmony and argued that disintegration avoidance (superficial harmony) and harmony enhancement (true harmony) are corresponding with instrumental harmony and value-oriented motivation. Harmony enhancement (true harmony) regards the construction of harmonious interpersonal relationship

as an important goal, focusing on the positive consequences of interpersonal relationship, reflecting the individual's recognition and pursuit of true harmony. Disintegration avoidance (superficial harmony) regards interpersonal relationships as a mean to safeguard their own interests, and pays more attention to the negative consequences of tense interpersonal relationships.

Table 2 - 4 Interpersonal harmony theory

Scholar	Concept
Cao (2000)	The core of Chinese traditional culture is harmony, including interpersonal harmony, group harmony and harmony between man and nature.
Chen and Zhang (2009)	'The gentleman aims at harmony, and not at uniformity. The mean man aims at uniformity, and not at harmony' proposed by Confucius is the origin of harmony thinking.
Wang and Guo (2012)	Harmony thinking is one of the essences of Chinese Confucian culture, including 'harmony' and 'combination'. 'Harmony' refers to the harmonious relationship between people. 'combination' is mainly embodied by 'the combination of heaven and man'.
Chen and Chung (1994)	Harmony is equal to avoidance conflict.
Leung (1997)	Interpersonal harmony is two-dimensional, including harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance.
Huang (1999)	Two types of interpersonal harmony: true harmony and surficial harmony
Leung, Koch, and Lu (2002)	Disintegration avoidance (superficial harmony) and harmony enhancement (true harmony) are corresponding with instrumental harmony and value-oriented motivation
Zhang and Zhang (2010)	Organizational interpersonal harmony is divided into three dimensions: peer harmony, leader-member harmony and overall harmony
Leung et al. (2011)	Propose negative harmony based on value-oriented harmony and instrumental harmony.

There are also studies on the dimensions of harmonious values. Chen and Zhang (2010) divided organizational interpersonal harmony into three dimensions: peer harmony, leader and member harmony as well as overall harmony. They then developed the organizational interpersonal harmony scale using the grounded theory research method. Leung et al. (2011)

proposed negative harmony based on value-oriented harmony and instrumental harmony. Negative harmony refers to neglecting the significance of harmony and denying the meaning of interpersonal harmony (Lu & Chen, 2011). Table 2-4 presented major views on interpersonal harmony theory.

2.3.2 The literature review of interpersonal harmony

East Asian countries are deeply influenced by traditional Confucian culture, and harmony is the main principle followed in social communication and interaction (Gabrenya & Hwang, 1996). With China being the birthplace of Confucianism, interpersonal harmony in organizations has attracted the attention of more and more Chinese scholars. The content of the research has also expanded from the initial negotiation and conflict management to the areas of voice, organizational citizenship and organizational commitment.

Lim (2009) found that individuals with strong disintegration avoidance motivation fear that defending for themselves in negotiations will undermine their interpersonal relationship, so they usually choose to avoid instead of making their utmost effort to fight for their point of view. Leung et al. (2011) compared Chinese and Australian, and found that people with strong disintegration avoidance motivation are more likely to avoid conflicts, which has a negative impact on negotiations. Chinese score higher on disintegration avoidance than Australians. When discussing the influence of harmony motivation on integrated negotiation, Zhang, Yao, and Huang (2013) proposed that harmony enhancement motivation positively affects individual negotiation gains, and positively correlates with the mutual evaluation of the relationship between negotiating parties; disintegration avoidance motivation negatively affects individual negotiation gains, and negatively correlates with the mutual evaluation of the relationship between negotiating parties.

In the study of interpersonal harmony' influence on other variables, Chen and Zhang (2010) confirmed the significant positive impact of interpersonal harmony on organizational commitment, but the impact of interpersonal harmony on turnover intention has not been validated. Yang and Tang (2010) took Chinese small and medium-sized enterprises as the sample and found value harmony to be positively related to organizational commitment and instrumental harmony to be not related to organizational commitment. Wei and Zhang (2010) argued that superficial harmony and power distance are negatively related to prohibitive voice; negative expectation mediates the above process. A study conducted by Lu and Chen (2011) showed that the value-oriented harmony positively predicted knowledge sharing with

organizational citizenship behavior and interpersonal communication mediating the process. Instrumental harmony has no significant impact on knowledge sharing and negative harmony has a negative effect on knowledge sharing with interpersonal communication as the mediator. Yang (2012) found that leadership fairness and information fairness positively affect tool harmony, leadership fairness negatively affects value harmony, and information fairness positively affects value harmony. Zhang and Long (2014) concluded that true harmony moderates the relationship between employee forgiveness and interpersonal citizenship behavior. High true harmony positively moderated the relationship and low true harmony have no significant influence. Zhang and Long (2014) also pointed out that Superficial harmony moderates the relationship between employee forgiveness and interpersonal citizenship behavior. Low superficial harmony positively moderated the relationship and high superficial harmony have no significant influence.

2.3.3 The measurement of interpersonal harmony

Leung et al. (2011) developed a 33-item interpersonal harmony scale by semi-structured interviews. There are 13 items for measuring harmony enhancement, such as “knowing to live in harmony with others makes a big difference”. There are 8 items for measuring disintegration avoidance, such as “in order to maintain harmony, the principle of fairness may have to be abandoned”. There are 12 items for measuring harmony impediment, such as “those who seek harmony often become hypocritical”. Lu and Chen (2011) reported that the internal consistency reliability of the three subscales of harmony enhancement, disintegration avoidance and harmony impediment is 0.81, 0.84, and 0.86, respectively. The scale has been adopted by many scholars in the study of Chinese context, but most scholars only use the first two dimensions of the scale, that is, harmony enhancement, and disintegration avoidance (Wei & Zhang, 2010; Yang & Tang, 2010; Lu & Chen, 2011; Yang, 2012; Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013; Zhang & Long, 2014). According to Leung et al. (2011), the internal consistency of disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement are 0.74 and 0.86.

Wu and Zheng (2011) took the students in a Beijing university as the research object, and developed the college student psychological harmony scale, including three dimensions: self-harmony, interpersonal harmony and harmony between persons and matters. There is a total of 20 items and each dimension has 5, 7 and 8 items respectively. Wu and Zheng (2011) reported that the internal consistency reliability of the three subscales of self-harmony, interpersonal harmony and harmony between persons and matters is 0.77, 0.74 and 0.76, respectively.

Chen and Zhang (2010) put forward the interpersonal harmony scale through grounded theory research, including three dimensions of colleague harmony, superior and subordinate harmony and overall harmony, with a total of 13 items. Among them, there are five items to measure colleague harmony, such as “colleagues share work information and resources with each other”. There are four items to measure the harmony between superior and subordinate, such as “the communication between superiors and subordinates is very smooth”. There are four items to measure overall harmony, such as “if you encounter difficulties in the company, others will help you whether they are colleagues in the same department or not”. Chen and Zhang (2010) reported that the internal consistency reliability of the three subscales of colleague harmony, superior and subordinate harmony and overall harmony is 0.90, 0.90 and 0.85, respectively.

2.3.4 Summary of this section

2.3.4.1 The measurement of interpersonal harmony

Harmony thinking is the core of Chinese traditional culture. Interpersonal harmony is the main content of harmony thinking. The purpose of this study is to explore the mechanisms by which regulatory focus affects employee voice behavior in the context of Chinese management. Looking back at the literature, we can see that whether the employees show voice behavior, or how they show voice behavior, is not only affected by the individual characteristics of the employees themselves, but also by leadership, team, and organizational factors. In the process of voice, the individuals who voice will consider the interpersonal environment that they are facing, and the impact it may have on interpersonal relationships. As the main principle for Chinese people to deal with interpersonal relationships, it can be predicted that interpersonal harmony will have a significant impact on voice behavior. Therefore, this thesis focuses on interpersonal harmony within the organization.

This thesis adopts the two-dimensional interpersonal harmony proposed by Leung (1997), which included harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance. This two-dimensional structure has been widely applied to research. This thesis adopts the scale developed by Leung et al. (2011) correspondingly and chooses the first two dimensions: harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance. There are 21 items in the scale, among which 13 items are measured to harmony enhancement and 8 items are measured to disintegration avoidance.

2.3.4.2 The summary of the literature review

China is the birthplace of Confucian culture, and the idea of harmony affects the interpersonal interaction and communication of Chinese. It can be said that the influence of harmony on Chinese culture and the behavior of Chinese is very profound. Therefore, it is of high research value to explore the influence of interpersonal harmony on Chinese employees' voice behavior. The concept of harmony was first formally proposed by Chen and Chung (1994) in their research on Confucianism, and then the two-dimensional structure of interpersonal harmony proposed by Leung (1997) was widely recognized in later academic researches. Early research on interpersonal harmony focused on negotiation and conflict management, and later extended to the impact on employee behavior. Perhaps because interpersonal harmony is more closely integrated with Chinese management context, most research on the impact of interpersonal harmony on employee behavior comes from Chinese scholars.

Looking back at these researches, we can see three characteristics: Firstly, there is a lack of research on the influence of interpersonal harmony on voice. Secondly, the research on the influence of regulatory focus on the interpersonal harmony; Thirdly, the research combining regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony and voice behavior together has not been found.

2.4 Psychological safety

2.4.1 The definition of psychological safety

Schein and Bennis (1965) first introduced the concept of psychological safety into organizational research. In the study of organizational transform, Schein and Bennis (1965) proposed that in order to ensure employees with the courage to undertake tasks and promote organizational transform, it is necessary to provide a safe psychological environment for employees. Kahn (1990) proposed the concept of psychological safety from the individual level. With the in-depth study, the concept has been extended to the team level and organization level.

2.4.1.1 Individual psychological safety

Kahn (1990) defined psychological safety as "Psychological safety was experienced as feeling able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (p.708). Kahn (1990) argued that psychological safety is an important psychological condition for employees to engage in their work. Psychological safety significantly predicts employees' work engagement. Kahn (1990) considered that when

individuals believe that they will not be troubled by interpersonal relationships, their psychology will perform as a safe state. In other words, the perceived support and trust of interpersonal relationships will improve the level of individual psychological safety.

2.4.1.2 Team psychological safety

Edmondson (1999) defines team psychological safety from the perspective of interpersonal relationship as “The existence of team psychological safety, conceptualized as a shared belief about the consequences of interpersonal risk” (p.375). The author considered that team psychological safety involves but transcends interpersonal trust. Being a team atmosphere characterized by interpersonal trust and mutual respect where people can freely express themselves, even if there is a risk in the performance of the behavior, but they will not be harmed. Team psychological safety is a construct at the team level which focuses on team characteristics rather than personal characteristics. Team members have similar psychological safety.

Based on Edmondson (1999)’s definition of team psychological safety, Tynan (2005) decomposed psychological safety into two dimensions: self- psychological safety and other-psychological safety. “Self-psychological safety is defined here as how emotionally safe an individual feels with another...” (Tynan, 2005: 229). “Other psychological safety is defined here as how safe an individual perceives another to be in their relationship” (Tynan, 2005:229). Tynan (2005) considered that self-safety is consistent with the connotation of team psychological safety defined by Edmondson (1999). The difference is that self-safety is at the individual level, while the team psychological safety defined by Edmondson (1999) is at the team level. Therefore, from the team level to the individual level, the object of psychological safety is no longer the team, but the two sides of the interaction.

2.4.1.3 Organizational psychological safety

Brown and Leigh (1996) defined organizational psychological safety as that “based on the extent to which employees perceive the organization to be a psychologically safe and meaningful work environment” (p.358). Brown and Leigh (1996) consider that organizational psychological safety is employees’ perception of organizational environmental characteristics. Organizational characteristics include management flexibility and support, clear roles, and permission to express oneself. When organizations have more supportive management, give employees clear job expectations and allow employees to express themselves freely, employees will perceive a higher level of psychological safety from the organization.

After reviewing the literature, Ling, Duan, and Zhu (2010) summarized that the concepts

of psychological safety proposed by Brown and Leigh (1996) and Edmondson (1999) tend to reflect the contextual characteristics perceived by employees, all of which are expressed as a shared belief, except that they defined the objects of psychological safety differently.

2.4.2 The measurement of psychological safety

Edmondson (1999) developed a Likert 7-point self-report scale, which includes 7 items. Four items are scored positively, such as “it is safe to take risks in this team”. Three items are scored reversely, such as “if I make mistakes in the team, team members often have opinions on me.” Edmondson (1999) reported that the internal consistency reliability of the scale is 0.82. The scale was originally used to measure the team psychological safety and was subsequently cited or revised by relevant studies to measure individual psychological safety. And the scale has been widely used by Chinese scholars (Chen, Zhao, & Jiang, 2008; Deng, 2010; Zhang, Liu, & Liao, 2011; Yang & Zhang, 2012; Ni et al., 2013).

Chinese scholar Li and Yan (2007) adjusted and added two items from Edmondson (1999)’s scale on the three items developed by May, Gilson, and Harter (2004), forming the individual level psychological safety measurement scale, which includes five items. The first item is scored positively as “I don’t need to be careful at work”. The other four items are scored reversely, for example, “in my work environment, there are always some people playing tricks behind me, which lets my efforts be in vain”. According to Li and Yan (2007), the internal consistency reliability of the scale is 0.83.

Tynan (2005) developed a self-reported scale to measure team psychological safety. The scale involves two parts: self-psychological safety (7 items) and other psychological safety (5 items). The seven items of measuring self-psychological safety are positively scored, such as “my leadership attaches great importance to my ability”. The five items of measuring other psychological safety are reversely scored, such as “my leadership will get angry when he or she is questioned”. According to Tynan (2005), the internal consistency reliability of the two subscales of self-psychological safety and other psychological safety is 0.93 and 0.82 respectively.

The measurement of organizational psychological safety at the organizational level mainly uses the organizational level psychological safety scale compiled by Brown and Leigh (1996). It has a total of 12 items with 3 dimensions of supportive management, role clarification and free expression. Among them, there are five items to measure supportive management, such as “my leader supports my ideas and practices”. There are three items to measure role clarification,

such as “the management is very clear about how to do my job”. There are four items to measure free expression, such as “the feelings I express at work are my true feelings”. According to the report of Brown and Leigh (1996), the internal consistency reliability of the three subscales of supportive management, role clarification and free expression is 0.83, 0.78 and 0.83, respectively.

2.4.3 The literature review of psychological safety

This thesis studies the influence mechanism of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior, with interpersonal harmony as the mediating variable and psychological safety as the moderating variable. Considering that voice behavior often occurs in the context of interpersonal interaction, the quality of interpersonal interaction between colleagues will also affect the occurrence of voice behavior, as well as the type of voice behavior.

Therefore, this study focuses on the literature about the influence of psychological safety on voice behavior at the individual level and team level.

At the level of individual psychological safety, several scholars have found that leader’s behavior will affect employee’s voice through employees’ psychological safety. Detert and Burris (2007)’s study showed that open management leaders will promote employee’s voice with psychological safety mediating the relationship. Further research by Detert and Burris (2007) illustrated that transformational leadership and management openness would promote employee’s voice through personal identity and psychological safety. Li, Ling, and Liu (2009) found abusive leadership to reduce organizational support and psychological safety, leading to the suppression of employee prohibitive voice. Through empirical analysis, Wu et al. (2011) took 5 electronic enterprises in Guangzhou, China as research samples and found that transformational leadership will positively influence employees voice through LMX and psychological safety. Wu et al. (2011) found that leaders with transformational leadership will encourage employees to challenge their ideas and care about employees’ growth, which will positively affect employees’ psychological safety, and then positively affects employee voice. Wu et al. (2012) took two petrochemical companies in Xinjiang, China as a research sample. The research objects included 258 employees and their corresponding 102 superiors. The empirical analysis found that abusive management would reduce employees’ psychological safety, thus negatively affecting employees’ voice behavior. At the same time, the study also found that the uncertainty avoidance characteristics of employees moderated the relationship between abusive management and psychological safety.

When Chinese scholar Duan (2012) studied the relationship between paternalistic leadership and voice behavior, it was found that the dimension of moral leadership positively affected employee voice behavior, authority leadership negatively affected employee voice behavior, and psychological safety played a mediating role. Luo and Zhao (2013) consider that real leadership has a positive impact on employees' voice behavior, psychological safety plays a mediating role, and team leadership gender plays a cross-level regulatory role. Liang (2014) found that moral leadership was positively correlated with employee voice behavior. Perception of responsibility and psychological safety played a mediating role in this relationship, and power distance played a positive moderating role. Zhang (2016) found that humble leadership positively affected employee voice behavior, and employee psychological safety played a mediating role. Xu, Duan, and Li (2017) considered that benevolent leadership is positively predicting employees' voice behavior, and employees' psychological safety plays a mediating role.

A study conducted by Edmondson (2003) showed that psychosocial safety perception can promote the expression of employees' personal opinions and employees will determine whether voice is safe or worthwhile depending on the specific organizational or work situation. Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012) confirmed that the relationship between perceived constructive change responsibility and promotive voice is the most closely related and that the relationship between psychological safety and prohibitive voice is the closest. What's more, organizational self-esteem and promotive voice are interrelated. Perceived constructive change responsibility strengthens the positive effect of psychological safety on the two forms of voice but organizational self-esteem weakens the effect. Liu, Yu, and Huang (2018) found that perceived superior trust positively affected employee voice behavior, and psychological safety and self-efficacy as mediating variables, power distance played a positive moderating role.

As for the level of team psychological safety, Edmondson (2003) found in research that under the conditions of high team psychological safety, team members will be freer to express their ideas and suggestions. Psychological safety has a significant prediction effect of employee voice behavior. Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) considered that a high team psychological safety is conducive to encouraging team members to openly discuss failures or mistakes. Deng (2010) also considered that the team psychological safety directly affects employees' voice behavior, moderating the relationship between individual goal orientation and voice behavior across layers. Morrison, Wheeler, and Kamdar (2011) considered that the team voice atmosphere (common belief) has a high predictive power for team members' voice behavior.

2.4.4 Summary of this section

2.4.4.1 The measurement of psychological safety

This study explored the influence mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior, and considered interpersonal harmony as the mediating variable. Interpersonal harmony is the basic principle that guides individual interpersonal communication in Chinese management context. Employees' voice behavior will face more interpersonal risks, and individuals will weigh the risks to make a choice of whether and how to make voice. Both interpersonal harmony and voice behavior are related to interpersonal interaction and interpersonal relationship quality. However, whether at the individual level or at the team level, psychological safety is an important index to measure perceived interpersonal risk. Therefore, this thesis chooses psychological safety at individual level as a moderating variable to explore the influence boundary of interpersonal harmony on voice behavior. Correspondingly, using the viewpoint proposed by Kahn (1990), when individuals are in good interpersonal relationships, they can express themselves freely at work without worrying about the negative influence on self-image, status, and occupation.

This thesis mainly studies the employee's voice behavior under the Chinese management situation. In order to fit the Chinese management situation better, the individual level psychological safety scale developed by Li and Yan (2007) was used to measure. This scale is developed based on the mature scale and has high consistency coefficient.

2.4.4.2 Summary of the literature review of psychological safety

In the study of the relationship between voice behavior and psychological safety, the main factors affecting psychological safety is the types of leadership, including transformational leadership (Detert & Burris, 2007; Wu et al., 2011), authentic leadership (Luo & Zhao, 2013), ethical leadership (Duan, 2012; Liang, 2014), humble leadership (Zhang, 2016), and benevolent leadership (Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017). In addition, management openness (Detert & Burris, 2007), goal orientation (Deng, 2010), voice atmosphere (Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011), perception of constructive change responsibility (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012), power distance (Liang, 2014) and other factors can also directly or indirectly affect psychological safety. And in these studies, psychological safety basically appears as a mediating variable.

According to the literature review, many studies have showed that psychological safety can significantly predict employee's voice behavior weather at the individual level or team level. However, the voice behavior constructs adopted by these scholars belong to extra-role

behaviors, which are consistent with the connotation of prosocial voice behavior. In the existing literature, the research on the influence of psychological safety on defensive voice and acquiescent voice is still lacking. In addition, in the existing literature, psychological safety rarely appears as a moderating variable. According to the design of this study, individual psychological safety is used as a moderating variable to moderate the relationship between interpersonal harmony and employee voice behavior. However, there is still a lack of research on how psychological safety moderates this relationship.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

3.1 Basic elements

The basic elements involved in this study include: regulatory focus, voice behavior, interpersonal harmony and psychological safety. Before establishing the conceptual model and proposing the research hypothesis, these basic elements are clearly defined according to the literature review of this thesis.

3.1.1 Regulatory focus

In this thesis, the concept of regulatory focus proposed by Higgins (1997) is adopted. It is believed that individuals have different ways of seeking advantages and avoiding disadvantages, and there are two types of motivation: promotion focus and prevention focus. Promotion-focused individuals are more sensitive to the absence of benefits. The absence of benefits is painful, and the gain is happy. Prevention-focused individuals are more sensitive to loss. Loss is painful, no loss is happy. Promotion-focused individuals have obvious risk-taking tendency and prefer to adopt desire strategy. While prevention-focused individuals have obvious conservative tendency and prefer to adopt vigilance strategy.

3.1.2 Interpersonal harmony

This study adopts the two-dimensional structure of interpersonal harmony proposed by Leung (1997), including harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance. Harmony enhancement focuses on the positive consequences of interpersonal relationships, and disintegration avoidance pays more attention to the negative consequences of tense interpersonal relationships. Individuals who hold the values of harmony enhancement view others more positively, are more willing to sincerely communicate with others and trust others. Individuals with values of disintegration avoidance communicate more cautiously and show more defense and retreat.

3.1.3 Employee voice behavior

This thesis adopts the definition proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003). Employee voice behavior refers to “Intentionally expressing work-related ideas, information,

and opinions” (p.1363). There are three types of employee voice behavior: defensive voice behavior, acquiescent voice behavior, and prosocial voice behavior. Prosocial voice behavior is based on cooperation motivation, belonging to proactive organizational citizenship behavior. Acquiescent voice behavior is based on resignation motivation, which is passive behavior. Defensive voice behavior is based on fear motivation, which is proactive behavior. Prosocial voice behavior and defensive voice behavior are both proactive behaviors, but the former is based on pro-social motivation and the latter on fear motivation.

3.1.4 Psychological safety

The research in this thesis uses the concept of psychological safety at the individual level, so the definition proposed by Kahn (1990) is adopted. “Psychological safety was experienced as feeling able to show and employ one’s self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career” (p.708).

3.2 Conceptual model

From the literature review, we can see that employee voice behavior has very important value to the organization, and it has also attracted many scholars’ attention and research. Most studies focus on the characteristics of voice behavior, such as initiative, challenge and prosocial. However, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) believe that in reality, voice behavior based on self-protective motivation and resignation motivation still exists. Cai (2008) verified that the type of psychological contract between managers and employees had significant influence on the three types of voice behavior. Therefore, it is of great research value to use the three-dimensional voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) as dependent variable in this study.

Many scholars have carried out many empirical studies from the perspective of the influence of individual, leadership, team and organization on voice behavior. At the individual level, the factors that influence voice behavior are mainly manifested in individual characteristics, mainly including demographic variables, personality, value, motivation. Some scholars have studied the impact of demographic variables and personality on voice behavior (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011). Researches on the impact of personality on voice behavior focused on the Big-five (Openness, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Extroversion, Neuroticism) (LePine & Van

Dyne, 2001; Duan, Wang, & Zhong, 2007; Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bourantas, 2008; Yu, Yu, & Lu, 2014) as well as initiative personality (Liang & Tang, 2009; Crant, Kim, & Jie, 2011). Some scholars have studied the impact of individual values on the voice behavior (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Wei & Zhang, 2010; Duan & Ling, 2011; Chen, Duan, & Tian, 2013; Du, Ran, & Cao, 2014). There are also scholars studying voice from the perspective of value congruence (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Wang et al., 2011; Cole, Carter, & Zhang, 2013; Ma et al., 2015a; Ma et al., 2015b).

There are also many scholars studying the influence of motivation on voice behavior (Wei & Zhang, 2010; Duan, Ling, & Wang, 2013; Xiang & Long, 2013; Cui & Zhai, 2014; Wu, Gao, & Duan, 2014; Cao, Cui, & Zhai, 2016; Chen, Li, & Lu, 2016; Huang & Zhang, 2016; Liu, Zhou, & Hong, 2017), but the main consideration is the motivation factor of impression management, and there are relatively few studies on the regulatory focus (Chen, Li, & Lu, 2016). Regulatory focus is the basic motivation of individuals and has a strong predictive effect on individual behavior. Therefore, it would be more meaningful to study the effect of regulatory focus on the voice behavior. Reviewing the literature, we found that the mechanism of regulatory focus influencing the voice behavior is not clear. Therefore, this thesis considers that an important influence path is the way to influence the voice behavior by affecting interpersonal harmony, and the individual's psychological safety plays a moderating role in this process. In the current research, no studies have been found on the influence of regulatory focus on interpersonal harmony, nor has it been found the study that combining the regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, and employee voice behavior.

Existing research shows that individual psychological safety has a significant predictive effect on employee voice behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Duan, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Luo & Zhao, 2013; Liang, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017; Liu, Yu, & Huang, 2018). The construct of voice behavior used in these studies belong to extra-role behavior, which is consistent with the connotation of prosocial voice behavior, and the research on the effects of defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior is still lacking. At the same time, in most studies, psychological safety appears as a mediating variable (Detert & Burris, 2007; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Wu et al., 2011; Duan, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Luo & Zhao, 2013; Liang, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017; Liu, Yu, & Huang, 2018), and it is rare as a moderating variable (Deng, 2010). How the psychological safety moderates the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior has not been studied in the existing literature.

Therefore, based on the research results of motivation theory, regulatory focus theory, interpersonal harmony and psychological safety, this thesis investigates the influence of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior, as well as the mediating effect of interpersonal harmony and the moderating effect of psychological safety, thereby reveal the influencing mechanism. The conceptual model proposed in this thesis is presented in Figure 3-1.

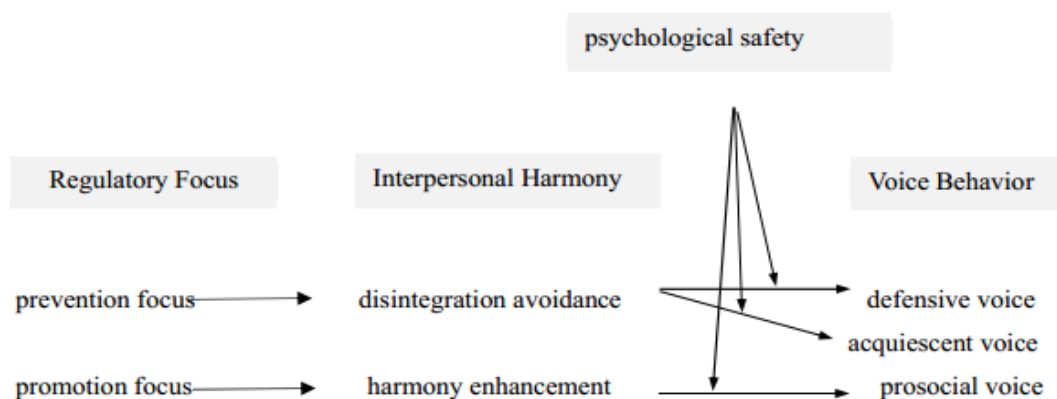


Figure 3 - 1 The conceptual model

3.3 Research hypothesis

3.3.1 Motivation hierarchy theory

3.3.1.1 Levels of motivation

Vallerand (1997) divided motivation from the top to the bottom into three levels: global motivation (or personality motivation), context motivation (or domain motivation), and situational motivation (or state motivation). Global motivation refers to the general motivation orientation of an individual's interaction with the external environment. Global motivation is relatively stable and lasting, and it is reflected in personality traits. Context motivation refers to the motivational orientation of individuals in a certain field of activity, such as education, interpersonal relations, leisure, etc. Situational motivation refers to the motivational state of an individual in a specific situation.

3.3.1.2 The influence of motivation

According to Vallerand (1997), the higher level of motivation affects the lower level of motivation, and the global motivation, context motivation and situational motivation exert influence from the top to the bottom. That is, global motivation affects context motivation, and

context motivation affects situational motivation. Global motivation has an indirect effect on situational motivation. In the other direction, as time goes on, the lower level motivation will produce a recursive effect on the higher-level motivation from the bottom to the top.

As for the factors that affect motivation, global motivation is affected by global factors, context motivation is affected by the combined effects of global motivation and contextual factors, and situational motivation is affected by the combined effects of context motivations and situational factors.

Motivations at different levels produce results at the corresponding level. Global motivation produces global-level results, context motivation produces context-level results, and situational motivation produces situation-level results. These results include three categories: Affect, Cognition, and Behavior.

The hierarchical model of motivation is presented in Figure 3-2.

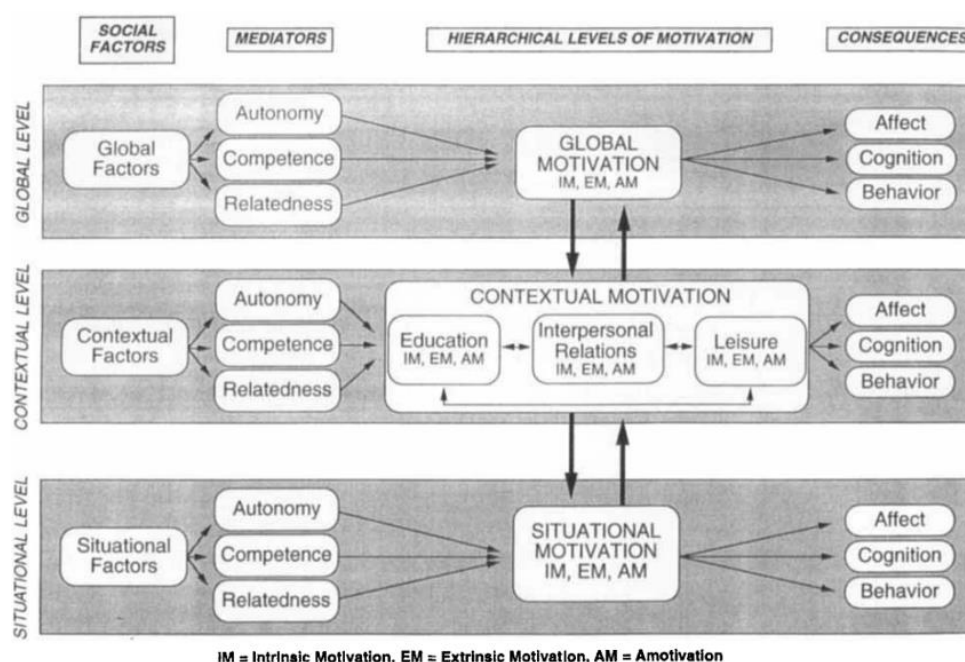


Figure 3 - 2 The hierarchical model of motivation

Source: Vallerand (1997: 74)

3.3.2 Regulatory focus and employee voice behavior

According to Pervin and John (1999), the behavioral tendency of “seeking advantages and avoiding disadvantages” is a primary motivation to reflect human nature. Elliot and Thrash (2002) considered that “seeking advantages and avoiding disadvantages” is manifested as stable personality traits. Considering that regulatory focus is the type of motivation that embodies

“seeking advantages and avoiding disadvantages”, regulatory focus can be classified as global motivation in the hierarchical classification of Vallerand (1997), and it triggers global-level behavior. “seeking advantages” and “avoiding disadvantages” are the basic behavioral tendencies of a person. Therefore, regulatory focused individuals will produce specific behaviors of “seeking advantages” and “avoiding disadvantages”.

When employees are in an organization, the problems or opportunities of the organization are directly or indirectly related to the interests of employees to a certain extent. These related benefits may be loss, no impact or gains for the individual employees. In organizations, voice behavior is usually a way for individuals to achieve “seeking benefits and avoiding disadvantages”. However, each individual’s ways of “seeking benefit” and “avoiding harm” are different (Higgins, 1997). Therefore, the types of voice behavior will also be selected differently.

Higgins (1997) proposed that prevention focused individuals are more sensitive to losses. It’s happy to have no losses and painful to have losses, and they prefer a vigilant strategy. Prevention-focused individuals are more concerned with maintaining (or restoring) a satisfactory status quo “0” against a worse state “-1” (Higgins, 2000). Therefore, when faced with organizational problems or opportunities, prevention focused individuals will have two kinds of behaviors: first, when individuals are in the state of loss, they are painful and will take actions to restore them to the state of no loss, or take positive actions to avoid the imminent possible loss. The other is that when individuals are in a state of no loss, they are happy and choose to stay that way. Accordingly, in order to avoid disadvantages, prevention focused individuals adopt different types of voice behavior in the two states.

The defensive voice behavior defined by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) is an active and positive behavior which originates from fear motivation, and the purpose is self-protection. In the choice of voice behavior, when the prevention focused individual is in a state of loss or about to lose, the individual will maintain consensus with his or her superiors or colleagues for self-protection. According to the principle of reciprocity of social exchange theory, the individual’s initiative to show friendly will be supported by his or her superiors or colleagues, then reduce losses and avoid damage to interest. They even try to avoid affecting themselves by shifting the focus of the problem to others. As the case mentioned in the introduction (P3): in order to avoid risks and reduce responsibilities, Xu Hua shifted the discussion focus of quality accidents to the quality department. These types of self-protected voice, which are taken for fear of loss, are defensive voice. No research has been found on the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 1 is

proposed:

H1 Prevention focus positively affects defensive voice behavior.

Similarly, when prevention focused individuals are in a state of no loss, they are happy and their purpose is to remain in the current state. For things not related to their duty, a better choice is to echo the opinions of the superior, or to express the opinions according to their superior's thoughts. On the one hand, it seems to express their own ideas positively, on the other hand it avoids the conflict with their superior's views at the same time. Even if it is related to one's own duty, as long as no loss occurs, it is better to obey the superior's opinions and not to propose new opinion. As the case mentioned in the introduction (P3): Zhao Yang knew that the quality problem was related to his responsibilities, but the quality accident did not have any negative impact on himself, so he echoed the opinions of his leader. This kind of voice is usually passive and negative. Seek not to be meritorious, but only to avoid blame, just keep the current state. These obedience-based voice belong to the acquiescent voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003). No research on the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice has been found. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 2 is proposed:

H2 Prevention focus positively affects acquiescent voice behavior.

As for promotion focused individuals, they are more sensitive to gains. It's happy to have gains and painful to have no gains. They have an obvious tendency to take risks and prefer to adopt the desire strategy (Higgins, 1997). Therefore, in order to "seeking benefit", promotion focused individuals usually gain benefits by taking risks. Higgins (2000) proposed that promotion-focused individuals are concerned with ideal aspirations and growth, and more concerned with moving from the status quo "0" to attain a better state "+1". Yin and Wang (2013) also argue that promotion focused individuals are more sensitive to positive outcomes. When facing organizational problems or opportunities, individuals' interests may be in the range [-1, +1]. Although the promotion focused individuals pay more attention to gains, when they are in the state of loss, the first thing to achieve is to reduce the losses. Only achieving no loss can they pursue positive profit.

It is also painful to promotion focused individuals when they are in a state of loss. Therefore, defensive voice and acquiescent voice will also be adopted to reduce losses. In terms of voice behavior to reduce losses, the types of voice adopted by promotion focused and prevention focused individuals are the same, but the results they pursued are different. The prevention focused individuals take the loss reduction as the goal and hope to achieve a no loss

state. Promotion focused individuals take the loss reduction as a means, or a process to get benefits, and ultimately hope to get positive benefits. At present, no research has been found on the relationship between the promotion focus and defensive voice, or acquiescent voice. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 4 are proposed.

H3 Promotion focus positively affects defensive voice behavior.

H4 Promotion focus positively affects acquiescent voice behavior.

From the perspective of promotion focus risk preference, voice behavior will be adopted as long as it can reduce losses and increase profits. Therefore, whether the promotion focused individual is in a loss or no loss state, he or she will not only adopt the defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior based on self-interest, but also adopt other more active voice behavior. According to the reciprocity principle of social exchange theory, when an individual's behaviors are beneficial to others or organizations, he or she will get corresponding returns. Therefore, for the promotion focused individuals, as long as it is beneficial to the enterprise, they will boldly express themselves and actively express their opinions even if faced with risks. They will also propose reasonable reform suggestions based on the concern for the enterprise. As the case mentioned in the introduction (P3): despite facing interpersonal risks with the production department, Wu Qing pointed out the source of the quality problem directly. As long as he thinks it is beneficial to the company, even if there is a leader against it, he will still convince him to accept the equipment upgrade suggestion. This kind of voice behavior belongs to the prosocial voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003). The starting point of prosocial voice behavior is to benefit others or organizations, which belongs to organizational citizenship behavior. It has also been confirmed in empirical studies. Neubert et al. (2008) found that promotion focus was significantly positively correlated with helping behavior and innovation behavior. Helping behavior belongs to organizational citizenship behavior. The research of Chen, Li, and Lu (2016) shows that promotion focus significantly affects voice behavior. High promotion focus significantly affects prohibitive voice, and low promotion focus significantly affects promotive voice. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 5 is proposed.

H5 Promotion focus positively affects prosocial voice behavior.

3.3.3 The mediating effect of interpersonal harmony

Interpersonal harmony is the most important principle of social interaction in East Asian countries (Gabrenya & Hwang, 1996). Leung (1997) proposed that the two-dimensional

structure of interpersonal motivation includes harmony enhancement and disintegration avoidance. According to Vallerand (1997)'s definition of context motivation, interpersonal harmony motivation can be attributed to context motivation (Vallerand, 2000). From the perspective of employee voice behavior motivation, Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) divided voice behavior into prosocial voice, defensive voice and acquiescent voice. Prosocial voice behavior is based on cooperation motivation. Defensive voice behavior is based on fear motivation, and acquiescent voice behavior is based on resignation motivation. Therefore, in the specific voice behavior situation, the three types of voice behavior motivation, namely cooperation motivation, fear motivation and resignation motivation, belong to the situational motivation in the hierarchical classification of Vallerand (1997).

According to the motivation hierarchy theory proposed by Vallerand (1997), the higher level of motivation affects the lower level of motivation, and the global motivation, context motivation and situational motivation exert influence from top to bottom. Therefore, regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony and voice motivation exert influence from top to bottom. That is, regulatory focus affects interpersonal harmony motivation, and interpersonal harmony motivation affects voice motivation.

The motivation hierarchy theory of Vallerand (1997) shows that different levels of motivation will produce different results in corresponding level. Situational motivation produces situational results, including affect, cognition and behavior. Therefore, voice behavior is the result of voice motivation. Based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that interpersonal harmony mediates the relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior.

Prevention focused individuals have obvious conservative tendency. In order to avoid losses, they are willing to give up significant gains and prefer to adopt vigilance strategies (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). They are more sensitive to negative results and more concerned about whether there is loss in the consequences of behaviors (Yin & Wang, 2013). As a global motivation, prevention focus affects the context motivation. Therefore, prevention focused individuals are more likely to protect themselves and avoid conflicts in interpersonal interactions in order to avoid their own losses. Individuals with disintegration avoidance take interpersonal relationship as a means to maintain their own interests, and pay more attention to the negative consequences of tense interpersonal relationship (Leung, Koch, & Lu, 2002). They will view others more negatively, communicating more cautiously, and showing more defense and retreat (Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013). At present, there is no research on the influence of regulatory focus on interpersonal harmony. According to the motivation hierarchy theory of

Vallerand (1997) and the above analysis, it can be predicted that prevention focus is positively correlated with disintegration avoidance.

The caution, defense, and retreat that individuals with disintegration avoidance shows in their relationships are to protect themselves and avoid conflict. Defensive voice behavior is based on fear motivation and for the purpose of self-protection. Acquiescent voice behavior is based on resignation motivation to avoid conflict. The motivation of fear and resignation belong to situational motivation. According to Vallerand (1997)'s hierarchical model of motivation, disintegration avoidance affects fear motivation and resignation motivation. In the voice behavior situations, defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior are the results of fear motivation and resignation motivation respectively. At present, there is no research on the influence of interpersonal harmony on defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior, but it can be speculated that disintegration avoidance is positively related to defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 6 and 7 are proposed.

H6 Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice, that is, prevention focus affects defensive voice by disintegration avoidance.

H7 Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice, that is, prevention focus affects acquiescent voice by disintegration avoidance.

Promotion focused individuals have obvious risk preference and tend to adopt the desire strategy (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). They are more sensitive to positive results and care more about whether the behavior results are beneficial or not (Yin & Wang, 2013). As a global motivation, promotion focus affects the context motivation to which interpersonal relationships belong. It can be predicted that individuals with harmony enhancement will show positive expectations of interpersonal relationship in interpersonal interaction. In order to obtain continuous benefits, they will actively build long-term good interpersonal relationships, and even regard the improvement of interpersonal relationships as a kind of benefit. This kind of interpersonal relationship is the real interpersonal harmony. Leung, Koch, and Lu (2002) proposed a two-dimensional structure of harmony and pointed out that individuals who have harmony enhancement focus more on positive interpersonal relationship results, reflecting the individual's identification and pursuit of the real harmony. At present, there is no research on the relationship between promotion focus and harmony enhancement, but according to the above analysis, it can be speculated that promotion focus positively affects harmony

enhancement.

Individuals with harmony enhancement pursue harmony in a real sense. When encountering conflicts, they will not deliberately avoid them. They communicate with others more actively and sincerely, and they are more willing to trust others (Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013). They are more cooperative in negotiation, more active in sharing their own ideas and promoting the other party to participate in the interaction (Zhang & Han, 2004). They are more likely to adopt a win-win conflict management method (Leung et al., 2011). Huang (1999) defined real harmony (harmony enhancement) as a relationship which makes both sides feel the tangible coordination, the cooperation, the agreement, and even the integration. Individuals with harmony enhancement pursue real harmony. Only a stable “win-win” results can ensure real interpersonal harmony between the two parties. Based on the principle of reciprocity, to achieve a “win-win” result, they consider not only their own benefits, but also the benefits of the other party. Therefore, when individuals with harmony enhancement see organizational problems or opportunities, they will not avoid them, but will actively raise their own views, and hope that problems can be solved and opportunities can be realized, which is conducive to the other party to reduce losses and increase profits.

Prosocial voice behavior is based on the motivation of cooperation, and its starting point is to benefit others or organizations. According to Vallerand (1997) motivation hierarchy theory, harmony enhancement affects cooperation motivation. Prosocial voice behavior is the result of cooperation motivation in voice behavior situations. Lu and Chen (2011) proved through empirical research that value harmony (harmony enhancement) positively affects interpersonal communication and organizational citizenship behavior. (Zhang & Long, 2014) found that harmony enhancement positively moderates the relationship between employee forgiveness and interpersonal citizenship behavior. Interpersonal citizenship behavior belongs to the category of organizational citizenship behavior, but only focuses on colleagues. Therefore, it can be speculated that harmony enhancement positively affects prosocial voice behavior. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 8 is proposed.

H8 Harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice, that is, promotion focus affects prosocial voice by harmony enhancement.

3.3.4 Moderating role of psychological safety

Kahn (1990) defined psychological safety as the psychological perception that employees are free to express themselves at work without worrying about negative effects on their self-

image, status, and career. This definition has been widely used in the study of individual psychological safety. From the perspective of individuals on both sides of the interaction, Tynan (2005) decomposed psychological safety into two dimensions: self-psychological safety and other-psychological safety. Self-psychological safety refers to individuals' perception of the influence of other people on their own safety. Other-psychological safety refers to the perception of whether others feel safe in their relationship. From these definitions, it can be concluded that the level of psychological safety is mainly based on the individual's perception of interpersonal risk.

According to the hierarchical model of motivation theory (Vallerand, 1997) and the above analysis, as a context motivation, disintegration avoidance will have an impact on the situational motivation of voice behavior, thus positively affecting the defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior. In order to protect themselves and avoid conflicts, individuals with disintegration avoidance show more caution, defense and retreat in interpersonal interaction (Leung, 1997). They pay more attention to the negative consequences in tense interpersonal (Leung, Koch, & Lu, 2002). When individuals with disintegration avoidance have a higher psychological safety, they will perceive low interpersonal risk, and reduce their caution and defense in interpersonal interaction. Thereby, they will reduce their fear motivation and resignation motivation, and then reduce defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior. At present, there is no research on the influence of interpersonal harmony on defensive voice behavior and acquiescent voice behavior. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 9 and 10 are proposed.

H9 Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice, that is, lower psychological will amplify the positive influence of disintegration avoidance on defensive voice.

H10 Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and acquiescent voice, that is, lower psychological will amplify the positive influence of disintegration avoidance on acquiescent voice.

In the same way, according to the above analysis, as an environmental motivation, harmony enhancement will also have an impact on the voice motivation at the situational level, thus positively affecting the prosocial voice behavior. The prosocial voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) belongs to positive challenging behavior. The content of prosocial voice behavior includes: putting forward constructive suggestions that are beneficial to the organization, putting forward reasonable suggestions on the existing problems of the

organization, and trying to persuade the superior about things that are beneficial to the enterprise but opposed by the superior. Prosocial voice behavior is faced with higher interpersonal risk. When individuals with harmony enhancement have a higher psychological safety, they will perceive lower interpersonal risks, reducing perceived voice behavior costs, and thus generate more prosocial voice behavior. Numerous studies have shown that individual psychological safety positively affect employees' voice behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Duan, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Luo & Zhao, 2013; Liang, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017; Liu, Yu, & Huang, 2018). The voice behavior constructs adopted by these scholars are all extra-role behaviors, which are consistent with the connotation of prosocial voice behavior. Therefore, based on the above analysis, hypothesis 11 is proposed.

H11 Psychological safety positively moderates the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice, that is, higher psychological safety will amplify the positive influence of harmony enhancement on prosocial voice.

3.4 The summary of this chapter

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the effects of regulatory focus on the voice behavior, as well as the mediating effect of interpersonal harmony and the moderating effect of psychological safety.

There are four latent variables in the conceptual model: the independent variable is the regulatory focus, including the two dimensions of prevention focus and promotion focus. The dependent variable is the voice behavior, which includes the three types of defensive voice behavior, acquiescent voice behavior and prosocial voice behavior. The mediating variable is interpersonal harmony, which includes the two dimensions of disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement. The moderating variable is psychological safety, which plays a moderating role between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior.

Based on the theoretical deduction, a total of 11 research hypotheses are proposed. Moreover, the reasons and theoretical evidence for these research hypotheses were explained in detail. As can be seen from Table 3-1, the research hypotheses can be divided into three categories: the relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior, which includes 5 research hypotheses; the mediating effect of interpersonal harmony, which include 3 research hypotheses; the moderating effect of psychological safety, which also include 3 research hypotheses.

Table 3 - 1 Summary of the research hypotheses

Number	Research hypotheses
1. Relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior	
H1	Prevention focus positively affects defensive voice behavior.
H2	Prevention focus positively affects acquiescent voice behavior.
H3	Promotion focus positively affects defensive voice behavior.
H4	Promotion focus positively affects acquiescent voice behavior.
H5	Promotion focus positively affects prosocial voice behavior.
2. The mediating effect of interpersonal harmony	
H6	Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice. That is, prevention focus affects defensive voice by disintegration avoidance.
H7	Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice. That is, prevention focus affects acquiescent voice by disintegration avoidance.
H8	Harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. That is, promotion focus affects prosocial voice by harmony enhancement.
3. The moderating effect of psychological safety	
H9	Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice, that is, lower psychological will amplify the positive influence of disintegration avoidance on defensive voice.
H10	Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and acquiescent voice, that is, lower psychological will amplify the positive influence of disintegration avoidance on acquiescent voice.
H11	Psychological safety positively moderates the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice, that is, higher psychological safety will amplify the positive influence of harmony enhancement on prosocial voice.

Chapter 4: Research method

4.1 Questionnaire design

4.1.1 Measurement

4.1.1.1 Measures selection criteria

For the selection of measurement indicators, this study follows the following three rules.

Firstly, indicator reliability. There may be multiple definitions of the same variable, and different definitions can have different scales or measurement methods. This thesis adopted the definitions that are accepted by most scholars at home and abroad, and tried to cite scales from the source literature to improve the indicator reliability.

Secondly, indicator adaptability. The scales of independent variables, dependent variables, and mediating variables in this thesis are all from English literature. Therefore, the thesis adopted the Chinese versions of these scales that have been published in Chinese core journals. On the one hand, these Chinese version scales have been empirically tested and have high validity and reliability, on the other hand, these scales are more suitable in Chinese management scenarios. As for some scales that are rarely published in Chinese core journals, we referred to the doctoral thesis of China's top universities and then made appropriate adjustments based on the English version and the research purpose.

Thirdly, the same anchor of measure. Except for the control variables, other variables were all measured with Likert 5-point scales. Number 1-5 were used to anchor the respondent's subjective cognition or agreement with specific issues. Among them, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral opinion, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

4.1.1.2 Measures

The variables that require measuring in this study are: regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, psychological safety, employee voice behavior, and control variables like gender.

For regulatory focus, the thesis adopted the two-dimensional structure proposed by Higgins (1997), which includes prevention focus and promotion focus. Higgins (1997) considered that regulatory focus can be manifested as trait regulatory focus or situational regulatory focus. Neubert et al. (2008) developed the work regulatory focus questionnaire

(WRF), which is applicable for measuring trait regulatory focus in work situations (Mao, 2017). According to Neubert et al. (2008), the internal consistency reliability of promotion focus and prevention focus are 0.92 and 0.91. Therefore, the thesis adopted the questionnaire developed by Neubert et al. (2008). Chinese scholars, with Li as a representative, have conducted many researches on the impact of regulatory focus on employee motivation and creativity using this scale (Li, Shang, & Xi, 2011, 2012; Li et al., 2012; Shang & Li, 2015). In organizational behavior field, other Chinese scholars have also cited the scale (Chen, Li, & Lu, 2016).

The thesis adopted the work regulatory focus questionnaire translated by Shang and Li (2015), with 9 items measuring promotion focus and 9 items measuring prevention focus, such as “In order to succeed, I take risks at work”, “I am committed to complete the tasks undertaken to enhance my sense of security at work.” The scale is a Likert 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral opinion, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Work regulatory focus questionnaire measures individual motivation and can only be evaluated by individuals. According to Shang and Li (2015), the internal consistency reliability of the promotion focus and prevention focus are 0.82 and 0.84.

For interpersonal harmony, the thesis adopted the two-dimensional structure proposed by Leung et al. (2011), which includes disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement, and then adopted the interpersonal harmony scale developed by Leung et al. (2011) accordingly. The internal consistency of disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement are 0.74 and 0.86 (Leung et al., 2011). The scale has been widely used in Chinese management scenarios (Wei & Zhang, 2010; Yang & Tang, 2010; Yang, 2012; Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013; Zhang & Long, 2014).

The scale translated by Zhang, Yao, and Huang (2013) is used in this thesis, with 13 items measuring harmony enhancement, such as “Only when knowing to live in harmony with others can one person go big”, with 8 items measuring disintegration avoidance, such as “To maintain harmony, we may abandon the principle of justice.” The scale is a Likert 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral opinion, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Interpersonal harmony is an individual trait variable and can only be evaluated by individuals.

For employee voice behavior, the thesis adopted the three-dimensional structure proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003), which includes acquiescent voice, defensive voice, and prosocial voice, and then adopted the voice behavior and silence behavior scale proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) accordingly. The scale has 15 items measuring voice behavior and 15 items measuring silence behavior. The scale is widely used in the study of

silence behavior, but relatively little in the study of voice behavior. The reason is that many researchers regard voice behavior as an organizational citizenship behavior and they pay insufficient attention to the motivation of voice that based on fear and resignation. This is also an important research gap this study is going to solve. From the perspective of management practice, this thesis focuses not only on prosocial voice, but also on defensive voice. Cai (2008), from Fudan University, cited and translated the scale in his doctoral thesis, and verified that psychological contract type between managers and employees has a significant impact on employee voice and silence. In Cai's doctoral thesis, the reliability of acquiescent voice / silence, defensive voice / silence, and prosocial voice / silence in the localized voice / silence behavior scale are 0.84, 0.86, and 0.83.

This thesis adopted and adjusted the items from Cai (2008)'s localized voice and silence behavior scale. Prosocial voice, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice each contains 5 items, such as "As long as it is good for the company, I will bravely express my suggestions", "In order to protect myself, I will be consistent with my superiors", "For matters not in my responsibilities, I usually echo my superiors." The scale is a Likert 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral opinion, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) proposed the voice dimension based on voice motivation. Therefore, these items reflect the characteristics of individuals and can only be evaluated by individuals.

For psychological safety, the thesis measured psychological safety from the individual level using the psychological safety questionnaire proposed by Li and Yan (2007). Based on the three-item scale developed by May, Gilson, and Harter (2004), Li and Yan (2007) adjusted and added two items from Edmondson (1999)'s scale, and proposed an individual-level psychological safety scale. According to Li and Yan (2007), the internal consistency of psychological safety scale is 0.83.

Widely been used in Chinese scenarios (Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Li, Ling, & Fang, 2010; Tu et al., 2017), the scale includes 5 items, with the first one being forward scoring and the other four being reverse scoring, such as: "I don't always need to be careful in my work", "In my work, there are always people playing tricks behind my back and make my work in vain." The scale is a Likert 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral opinion, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

For control variables, the thesis considered the following factors. Demographic characteristics can have a potential influence on voice behavior (Burriss, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008). Demographic variables, such as employee tenure, gender, ethnicity, education, etc. can

affect employee voice behavior (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Morrison, Wheeler, & Kamdar, 2011). Position levels can also affect voice behavior (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006). Duan, Zhang, and Xu (2016) found through meta-analysis that employee age, education, tenure and position were positively related to voice behavior. Considering all these factors, this thesis took gender, age, education, accumulative working time in the unit, and position level as the control variables.

Control variable measurement scale: gender (0 = male, 1 = female), age (1 = 25 years old or younger, 2 = 26-35 years old, 3 = 36-45 years old, 4 = 46-55 years old, 5 = more than 55 years old), education (1 = high school or below, 2 = college degree, 3 = bachelor's degree, 4 = master's degree, 5 = doctoral degree), accumulative working time in the unit (1 = less than or equal to 2 years, 2 = 3-6 Years, 3 = 7-10 years, 4 = more than 10 years), position level (1 = high level, 2 = medium level, 3 = entry level).

4.1.2 Questionnaire design

4.1.2.1 Online questionnaire

The survey designed an online questionnaire and collected data through a Chinese online survey platform called Wenjuanxing. The advantages of online questionnaire are: it is convenient to issue; questionnaire filling and collecting can be done in one step, which is convenient and flexible; online questionnaire can set all the items as required, which can avoid missing values; online questionnaire can export data directly, eliminating the difficulty of inputting data. However, compared with paper questionnaire, there are also some problems. For this survey, the biggest problem is the pairing of questionnaires in multi-time surveys.

4.1.2.2 Common method bias

Zhou and Long (2004) assumed that common method bias exists commonly in behavioral research that use questionnaires. Chen, Xu, and Fan (2012) considered that common method bias is caused by the unity of the measurement method, and proposed three methods to solve common method bias: Multi-volume and multi-time questionnaire method, which uses the same or similar questionnaires for the same research sample and collect data in at least two time periods; multi-group questionnaire method, which collects data for the same research question from at least two different groups; multi-source data method, which obtains data from at least two different sources.

In this study, regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, employee voice behavior, and

psychological safety are all variables that involve individuals' motivation or traits, so the data source can only be from individuals. Meanwhile, the survey of dependent variable and other variables are conducted in two periods (T1, T2): variables except dependent variables are surveyed at T1, and dependent variables are surveyed at T2. There are two weeks between T1 and T2 to ensure multi-time data.

4.1.2.3 Questionnaire pairing

On the questionnaire, T1 and T2 are marked to distinguish the two surveys. The questionnaires at T1 and T2 are paired by the last four digits of the mobile phone number and the employee number reported by the respondents.

4.1.2.4 Data validity

In order to obtain genuine answers from the participants, besides describing the questions in a clear and understandable way, this questionnaire also adopted the following methods during designing.

The first method is anonymous investigation. In order to ensure the anonymity and pairing needs, only the last four digits of the personal mobile phone number and employee number are filled in the questionnaire.

The second method is declaration of confidentiality. In the introduction and instruction of the questionnaire, it is emphasized that the survey is only used for the study and will not be made public. The questionnaires are completed online, and it is illustrated that the content of the questionnaires had no negative impact on the individuals and organizations.

The third method is item testing. In the questionnaires for both surveys, there is a testing item "This year is 1980". Questionnaires that chooses "Agree", "Strongly agree", and "Neutral" are invalid questionnaires.

4.2 Data collection

4.2.1 Sample selection

Sampling methods usually include random sampling and non-random sampling. The advantages of random sampling are: the samples are representative; the uncertainty of the samples can be better controlled. Non-random sampling is convenient and economic, but the sample is not as representative as random sampling. The research content of the thesis is the

mechanism of how regulatory focus influencing employee voice behavior. The research range is Chinese private manufacturing enterprises. On the one hand, the range of the study is relatively wide, and it is difficult to determine the overall sampling; on the other hand, the data of the two surveys needs to be paired, which requires high-quality data and cooperation of the sampling objects. Therefore, convenient sampling is adopted in this thesis.

Table 4 - 1 Data source

Company nature	Number	Ratio
Private enterprises	17	100.00%
Other types	0	0.00%
In total	17	100.00%
Listed companies	3	17.65%
Unlisted companies	14	82.35%
In total	17	100.00%
Regions		
Zhejiang	8	47.06%
Jiangsu	3	17.64%
Shanghai	1	5.88%
Chongqing	2	11.77%
Guangdong	2	11.77%
Fujian	1	5.88%
In total	17	100.00%
Industry		
C26 Chemical raw materials and chemical manufacturing	7	41.18%
C28 Chemical fiber manufacturing	3	17.65%
C29 Rubber and plastic manufacturing	6	35.29%
C34 General equipment manufacturing	1	5.88%
In total	17	100.00%

It can be seen from Table 4-1, the Yangtze River delta and the Pearl River delta are the two most developed city clusters in China, with private economy being the most active. The Yangtze River delta mainly includes “two provinces and one city”: Zhejiang, Jiangsu and Shanghai. The

Pearl River delta includes 9 cities (e.g. Guangzhou), all of which belong to Guangdong. Considering that Fujian borders Zhejiang and connects the Yangtze River delta and the Pearl River Delta, Fujian should also be a highly-developed coastal province. The study chooses Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Shanghai, Guangdong, and Fujian, the five provinces and cities on the coastal economic belt, as the key areas for this sampling. In order to increase the representativeness of the sample, it is necessary to add some inland private manufacturing enterprises. Chongqing is the only inland province-level municipality and is the economic center of Southwest China and upper Yangtze River, therefore, Chongqing can represent the economic characteristics of China's inland regions. With Chongqing included in the sampling area, the samples from six provinces and cities can represent both the private manufacturing industries in active coastal cities and the private manufacturing industries in inland regions, which is representative.

Therefore, the research sample comes from 17 private manufacturing companies in Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Shanghai, Chongqing, Guangdong, and Fujian, 3 of which are listed companies. According to the *Industrial classification for national economic activities* (GB / T 4754-2017), the 17 companies come from 4 industries.

4.2.2 Data collection process

The surveys are conducted at two time points (T1, T2), with the interval being 2 weeks. At T1, the independent variable (regulatory focus), mediator (interpersonal harmony), moderator (psychological safety), and the basic information of the participants (gender, age, education, accumulative working time in the unit, department category, position level, current position time, company staff size) are investigated. At T2, the dependent variable (employee behavior voice) is investigated. The author contacted 26 coordinators in the 17 companies. These coordinators are all senior managers or department managers of the companies, and are colleagues or friends whom the author familiar with. The survey respondents are all within the compass of these 26 coordinators.

Before each survey (T1, T2), the author will provide written instructions to the coordinators, and conduct sufficient communications via telephone and email to ensure that the coordinators understand the survey requirements. Then the coordinator communicates with the respondents, highlighting the key information (paired code) and emphasizing confidentiality statements. Two weeks after the first survey and before the T2 survey, it was emphasized to the coordinator that the key pairing code should be the same as the code filled at the first time.

During the investigation, the author tries to communicate face to face with the coordinator and keep in touch with the coordinator to answer related questions and ensure the questionnaire carried out smoothly.

4.3 Sample description

4.3.1 Questionnaire collection

4.3.1.1 Questionnaire collection

At T1, a total of 550 questionnaires were distributed and 531 questionnaires were collected, with the collection rate being 96.54%. At T2, 550 questionnaires were distributed to the same respondents at T1, and 490 questionnaires were collected, with the collection rate being 89.10%. All the items in the questionnaires have been answered, and there is no missing data.

4.3.1.2 Invalid data processing

If multiple questionnaires are filled by the same person, only the first questionnaire will be valid, and the others will be sorted as invalid. In the testing item “This year is 1980”, the questionnaires that selected “strongly agree”, “agree” and “neutral” are sorted as invalid. Questionnaires that choose the same answer for all items or choose answers with regularity are also considered as invalid.

Among the 531 questionnaires collected in the first survey (T1), 104 invalid questionnaires were deleted, and 427 valid questionnaires are remained, with the valid rate being 80.41%. Among the 490 questionnaires collected in the second survey (T2), 85 invalid questionnaires were deleted, and 405 valid questionnaires are remained, with the valid rate being 82.65%.

4.3.2 Questionnaire pairing

Among the valid questionnaires, there are 329 pairs (one pair included one questionnaire from T1 and one questionnaire from T2). The pairing successful rate was 61.96% compared to the 531 valid questionnaires at T1 and the pairing successful rate was 77.05% compared to the 427 valid questionnaires at T2.

4.3.3 Paired data description

The paired data was described from eight aspects: gender, age, education, cumulative

working time in the unit, department category, position level, current position time, and company employee size.

Table 4-2 presents the information of 329 employees. As can be seen from the table, the majority of the employees are male (278, 84.50%), and there are 51 female employees (15.50%). There are 53 employees (16.11%) under the age of 25, most employees are 26-35 years old (193, 58.66%), and 8 employees are 36-45 years old (2.43%). There are 86 employees (26.14%) with a high school education or below, 125 employees with a college degree (38.00%), 107 employees with a bachelor's degree (32.52%), and 11 employees with a master's degree (3.34%).

Table 4 - 2 Paired data description

	Category	Number	Percentage
Gender	Male	278	84.50%
	Female	51	15.50%
	In total	329	100.00%
Age	<=25 years old	53	16.11%
	26-35 years old	193	58.66%
	36-45 years old	75	22.80%
	46-55 years old	8	2.43%
	>55 years old	0	.00%
	In total	329	100.00%
Education	High school or below	86	26.14%
	College degree	125	38.00%
	Bachelor's degree	107	32.52%
	Master's degree	11	3.34%
	In total	329	100%
Accumulated working time in the unit	<=2 years	65	19.76%
	3-6 years	142	43.16%
	7-10 years	68	20.67%
	>10 years	54	16.41%
	In total	329	100.00%
Position level	High level	0	.00%
	Medium level	3	0.91%
	Entry level	326	90.09%

The Influence Mechanism of Regulatory Focus on Employee Voice Behavior

	In total	329	100.00%
	Technology R&D	19	5.78%
	Manufacturing	236	71.73%
	Marketing	0	.00%
	Administrative support	9	2.74%
Department category	Purchasing and logistics	3	.91%
	Quality and safety	38	11.55%
	Financial auditing	0	.00%
	Others	24	7.29%
	In total	329	100.00%
	<=2 years	105	31.92%
Current position	2-5 years	129	39.21%
time	5-10 years	66	20.06%
	>10 years	29	8.81%
	In total	329	100.00%
	<=100 employees	51	15.50%
	101-500 employees	29	8.81%
Company size.	501-1000 employees	33	10.03%
	>1000 employees	216	65.66%
	In total	329	100.00%

There are 3 employees at the middle management positions (0.91%), most of the employees are at the entry positions (326, 90.09%). A total of 65 employees (19.76%) have worked in the current company for less than 2 years, nearly half of the employees have worked in the current company for 3-6 years (142 employees, 43.16%), 68 employees have worked in the company for 7-10 years (20.67%), 54 employees have worked in the company for over 10 years (16.41%). There are 105 employees in the current position for less than 2 years (31.92%), 129 employees in the current position for 2-5 years (39.21%), 66 employees in the current position for 5-10 years (50.0%), and 29 employees in the current position for more than 10 years (8.81%). There are 19 employees from the technology R&D department (5.78%), the majority from the manufacturing department (236, 71.73%), 9 employees from the administrative support department (2.74%), 3 employees from the purchasing and logistics department (0.91%), 38 employees from the quality and safety department (11.55%), 24 employees from other department categories (7.29%). There are 51 employees whose company have 100 or less than 100 employees (15.50%), 29 employees whose company have 101-500

employees (8.81%), 33 employees whose company have 501-1000 employees (10.03%), and 216 employees whose company have more than 1,000 employees (65.66%).

4.4 Introduction of analysis method

4.4.1 Reliability and validity of the scale

Reliability and validity are two key indicators for evaluating measurement scales. Validity refers to the extent to which the scale reflects the constructs it wishes to measure. Reliability refers to the stability of the scale. From the perspective of measurement error, validity reflects the system error and reliability reflects the random error.

4.4.1.1 Validity analysis

The work regulatory focus scale (Neubert et al., 2008), interpersonal harmony scale (Leung et al., 2011), voice behavior scale (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003), and the psychological safety scale (Li & Yan, 2007) used in this study are mature scales and have good content validity. The thesis uses confirmatory factor analysis to test whether the hypothetical model fit is acceptable, and whether there is a good discrimination validity between the scales in the hypothetical model. The main parameters are as follows.

Firstly, the more χ^2/df approaches to 1, the closer the observed “variance matrix” to the estimated “variance matrix” is, that is, the higher the model fit is. $\chi^2/df < 2$ indicates a good fit and $\chi^2/df < 5$ is acceptable.

Secondly, the more RMSEA and SRMR values approach to 0, the higher the model fit is. RMSEA, SRMR < 0.05 indicates a good fit and RMSEA < 0.08 is acceptable;

Thirdly, the more GFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI values approach to 1, the higher the model fit is. GFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI > 0.90 indicate a good fit.

Wen, Hou, and Herbert (2004) proposed that: NNFI, CFI > 0.90 and RMSEA < 0.08 indicate that the model is acceptable; other indexes are used as a reference and the model with a small χ^2/df value is better.

4.4.1.2 Reliability analysis

Internal consistency reliability is often used to evaluate the degree of consistency between scale indicators in management research. The higher the degree of consistency between the indicators is, the smaller the random error of the scale will be. Internal consistency reliability

is represented by the Cronbach's α coefficient. The mathematical formula of Cronbach's α coefficient is:

$$\alpha = \frac{K}{K-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum S_i^2}{S_x^2} \right) \quad (4.1)$$

K—Number of indicators included in the scale
 S_i^2 —The variance of the scores of all respondents on the i-th item
 S_x^2 —The variance between the total scores of each respondent

Cronbach's α coefficient is between 0 and 1. A larger coefficient indicates a higher reliability of the scale's internal consistency. Cronbach's α coefficients greater than 0.70 are acceptable (Hinkin, 1998).

4.4.2 Common method bias analysis

4.4.2.1 Harman one-factor test

Harman one-factor test is commonly used to analyze common method bias (Zhou & Long, 2004). Harman one-factor test is an unrotated factor analysis that puts all variables together. The basic logic of Harmon one-factor test is that if the common method bias is serious, a single factor or a common factor will explain most of the variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

4.4.2.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Harris and Mossholder (1996) assume that, if the model fit of the model with a scale as a factor is better than that of the single-factor model with all the items as a factor, then the common method bias does not influence the research findings seriously.

4.4.3 Hierarchical regression analysis

The study will use a hierarchical regression method to test the direct effects of independent and dependent variables, as well as the mediating and moderating effects through SPSS 20.0. Hierarchical regression is a type of multiple regression analysis, with the level describing the relationships between the independent variables. The more fundamental the influence of independent variable on the dependent variable is, the higher the level of independent variable is, and the higher-level independent variable will affect the lower-level independent variable (Long, 2004). The basis for entering variables into the regression equation is the logical order in which independent variables affect the dependent variables. When performing hierarchical regression analysis, variables are gradually entered to the regression equation from the higher level to the lower level. Usually, the demographic variables are entered to the equation first.

(Long, 2004). Gan, Zhang, and Zou (2005) argued that researchers can determine the entry order of variables according to their own research models. Usually, important variables are entered first according to the cause and effect order; or ordinary variables are entered first, followed by the important variables, focusing on the impact of importance variables on dependent variables after controlling the ordinary variable.

The calculation formula of the hierarchical regression coefficient proposed by Long (2004) is as follows:

$$B_{Y1.2} = (r_{Y1} - r_{Y2}r_{12})/(1 - r_{12}^2) \quad (4.2)$$

$$B_{Y2.1} = (r_{Y2} - r_{Y1}r_{12})/(1 - r_{12}^2) \quad (4.3)$$

Among them, r_{Y1} represents the relation between dependent variable Y and independent variable X_1 , r_{Y2} represents the relation between dependent variable Y and independent variable X_2 , r_{12} represents the relation between independent variable X_1 and independent variable X_2 , and r_{12}^2 represents the square of the relation between independent variable X_1 and independent variable X_2 . (Long, 2004).

Gan, Zhang, and Zou (2005) proposed that multicollinear evaluation is one of the basic prerequisites of hierarchical regression. At the same time, the sample size must be considered, that is, the number of respondents should be more than 5 times the number of independent variables and should exceed 100. Generally, it is considered that the variance inflation factor (VIF) greater than 5 indicates high collinearity, greater than 10 indicates severe collinearity, and equal to 10 is the critical value for the degree of collinearity.

4.4.4 Bootstrap method

Bootstrap is a repeated sampling method, which is divided into two types: parametric Bootstrap and non-parametric Bootstrap. Non-parametric bootstrap takes the sample as a population, then reset the sampling and randomly extract multiple subsamples from the original sample and obtain statistics (Fang & Zhang, 2012). Non-parametric Bootstrap methods include non-parametric percentile methods and bias-corrected non-parametric percentile methods. Compared with the Sobel method, the bias-corrected non-parametric percentile Bootstrap method has more accurate confidence intervals and higher detection capabilities (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Fang & Zhang, 2012).

Therefore, following the suggestions of relevant scholars, the thesis uses the bias-corrected non-parametric percentile Bootstrap method to test the mediating role of interpersonal harmony

motivation in the relationship between regulatory focus and employee voice behavior (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003) and the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Using SPSS 20.0, the thesis does the analysis through the Process compiled by Hayes (2013).

4.5 Method for mediation test

Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed a stepwise regression coefficient method to test the mediation effect. First, determine whether the direct effect of X on Y (c) is significant. If it is not significant, stop the test. If it is significant, continue to test the mediation effect. In other words, direct effect (c) is the premise to test the existence of mediation effect. Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) argues that there are circumstances when the direct effects (c) and indirect effects (ab) or the indirect effects have similar absolute values but of opposite signs, making the total effect not significant, but indirect effects still exist. Therefore, Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) proposed a new method for testing mediation effects (see Figure 4-1).

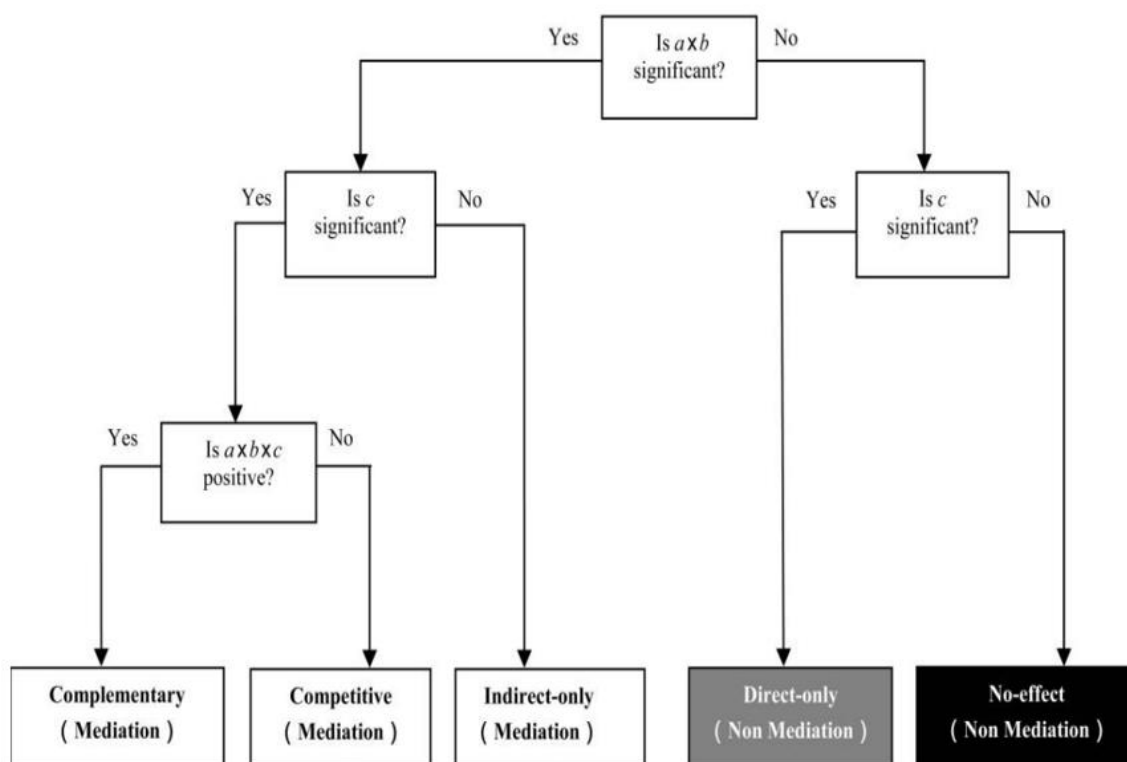


Figure 4 - 1 Establishing mediation and classifying type

Source: Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010: 201)

Wen and Ye (2014) considered that after the Bootstrap method replacing the Sobel method, it is necessary to make necessary adjustments to the testing process of the mediation effect, that

is, mediation test should be continued whether the direct effect (c) is significant or not. In the mediation testing process proposed by (Wen & Ye, 2014), when the coefficients (a) and (b) are significant and the direct effect (c) is not significant, it is determined as a complete mediation effect.

This thesis adopted Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) and Wen and Ye (2014)'s method of testing mediation effect. The mediation test should be continued whether the direct effect is significant or not, and when the indirect effect is significant and the direct effect is not significant, it is determined to be a complete mediation effect (see Figure 4-2).

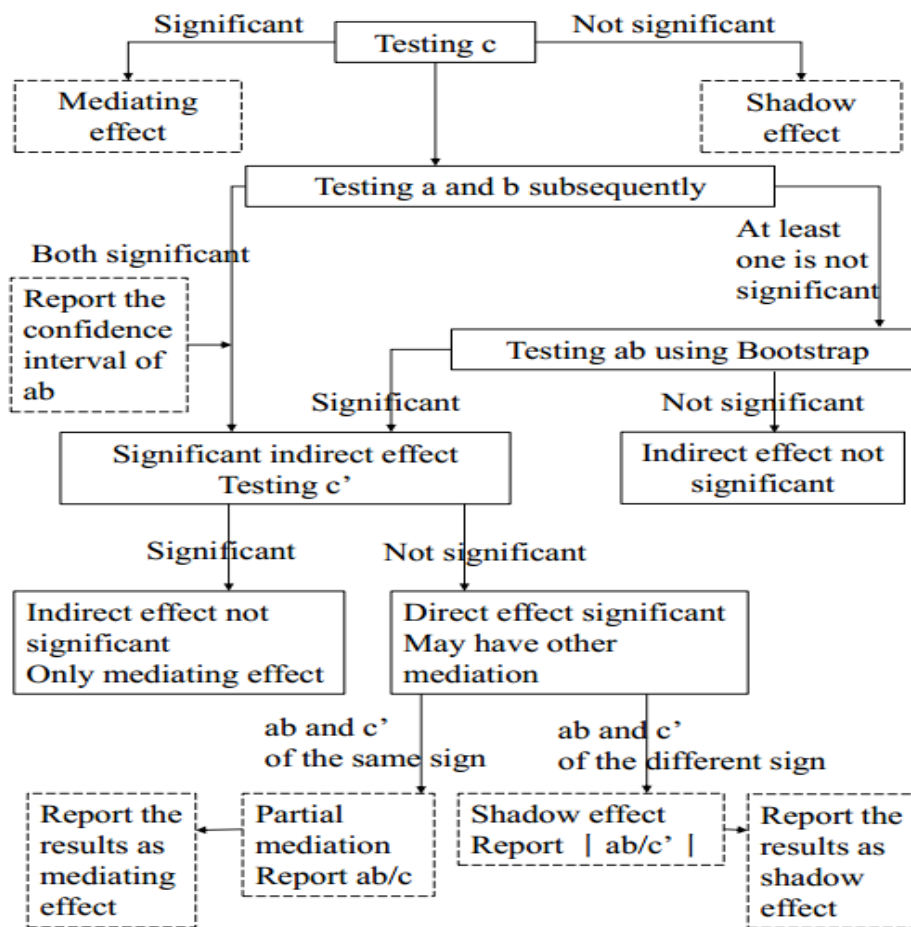


Figure 4 - 2 Mediating testing process

Source: Wen and Ye (2014: 738)

4.6 Validity and reliability analysis

4.6.1 Validity analysis

The thesis used Mplus7.0 to perform confirmatory factor analysis. Table 4-3 below shows

that the hypothetical model (eight-factor model) fits well ($\chi^2=852.688$, $df=436$, $\chi^2/df=1.956$, $RMSEA=0.054$, $SRMR=0.056$, $CFI=0.915$, $TLI=0.903$), indicating that the hypothetical model is acceptable. Meanwhile, if the model fit is better than that of other nested models (seven-factor model-single-factor model), it indicates that the eight variables in this study have good discriminant validity.

4.6.2 Reliability analysis

The thesis carried out reliability analysis through SPSS 20.0. For regulatory focus, the Cronbach's α of prevention focus and promotion focus are 0.820 and 0.747. For interpersonal harmony motivation, the Cronbach's α of disintegration avoidance and harmony enhancement are 0.842 and 0.899. For employee voice behavior, the Cronbach's α of acquiescent voice, defensive voice and prosocial voice are 0.821, 0.837, 0.867. For psychological safety, the Cronbach's α of psychological safety is 0.802.

Therefore, the Cronbach's α of the scales used in the thesis are all above 0.7, which indicates relatively high internal consistency reliability.

4.7 Common method bias analysis

Each variable in this study was self-evaluated by the respondent through the scale in the questionnaire survey. Although the survey was carried out at T1 and T2, which has achieved multi-time survey, common method bias may also occur. In this thesis, Harman single factor analysis was adopted using SPSS 20.0 to evaluate the common method bias. As shown in Table 4-4, when all variables are put together for un-rotated factor analysis, no single factor has appeared, and the first principal component explained only 17.45% of the variation, which cannot explain most of the variation. Therefore, there is no serious common method bias.

In addition, from the results of confirmatory factor analysis in Table 4-3, it can be found that the single-factor model has the worst fit ($\chi^2=3849.927$, $df=464$, $\chi^2/df=8.297$, $RMSEA=0.150$, $SRMR=0.164$, $CFI=0.310$, $TLI=0.263$). The eight-factor model with the best model fit ($\chi^2=852.688$, $df=436$, $\chi^2/df=1.956$, $RMSEA=0.054$, $SRMR=0.056$, $CFI=0.915$, $TLI=0.903$) is significantly better than the single-factor model. From the results in Table 4-3 and Table 4-4, we can see there is no serious common method bias in this study.

Table 4 - 3 Confirmatory factor analysis

Model	Factor	χ^2	df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
Hypothetical model (eight-factor)	PreF, ProF, DA, HE, DV, AV, PV, PS	852.688	436	0.054	0.056	0.915	0.903
Seven-factor model	PreF+ProF, DA, HE, DV, AV, PV, PS	1240.017	443	0.075	0.070	0.838	0.818
Six-factor model	PreF+ProF, DA+HE, DV, AV, PV, PS	2250.450	455	0.110	0.149	0.634	0.601
Five-factor model	PreF+ProF, DA+HE, DV, AV, PV+PS	2292.718	460	0.111	0.149	0.627	0.597
Four-factor model	PreF+ProF, DA+HE, DV, AV+PV+PS	2945.654	464	0.128	0.169	0.494	0.460
Three-factor model	PreF+ProF+DA+HE, DV, AV+PV+PS	3121.199	467	0.132	0.171	0.459	0.426
Two-factor model	PreF+ProF+DA+HE, DV+AV+PV+PS	3554.922	463	0.142	0.178	0.397	0.355
Single-factor model	PreF+ProF+DA+HE+DV+AV+PV+PS	3849.927	464	0.150	0.164	0.310	0.263

Note: PreF is prevention focus, ProF is promotion focus, DA is to disintegration avoidance, HE is harmony enhancement, DV is defensive voice, AV is acquiescent voice, PV is prosocial voice, PS is psychological safety.

Table 4 - 4 Total variance explanation

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.296	17.451	17.451	10.296	17.451	17.451
2	6.949	11.778	29.229	6.949	11.778	29.229
3	3.114	5.278	34.507	3.114	5.278	34.507
4	2.834	4.803	39.310	2.834	4.803	39.310
5	2.506	4.247	43.557	2.506	4.247	43.557
6	2.348	3.980	47.537	2.348	3.980	47.537
7	1.921	3.256	50.793	1.921	3.256	50.793
8	1.689	2.863	53.655	1.689	2.863	53.655
9	1.417	2.401	56.056	1.417	2.401	56.056
10	1.299	2.202	58.258	1.299	2.202	58.258
11	1.225	2.077	60.335	1.225	2.077	60.335
12	1.164	1.973	62.308	1.164	1.973	62.308
13	1.063	1.802	64.110	1.063	1.802	64.110
14	1.000	1.695	65.805			
...						
59	.118	.200	100.000			

4.8 Collinearity test

The thesis conducted collinearity test using SPSS 20.0. As can be seen from the results in Table 4-5, the tolerances of each independent variable are greater than 0.1 and the variance inflation factor (VIF) is less than 5, indicating that there is no serious collinearity between the independent variables. Therefore, this study can be analyzed using hierarchical regression methods.

4.9 Chapter summary

The main contents of this chapter are: questionnaire design, data collection, sample description, analysis method introduction, validity and reliability analysis, common method bias analysis, and multicollinearity test. In the questionnaire design section, the principle of

indicator selection was clarified and the scales used to measure the indicators were determined based on the literature review. In the data collection section, the source of the research sample and the industry distribution of the sample were introduced, and the process of two surveys at two time points were also introduced. It can be seen from the sample description that the collection rate and the valid rate are high, and the pairing successful rate is acceptable. In the analysis method section, we introduced the acceptable range of discriminant validity and internal consistency reliability, common method bias analysis, hierarchical regression analysis, Bootstrap, and the test of mediation. From the analysis of the scales, the Cronbach'α of the four scales involved in the study all exceeded 0.700, indicating good consistency reliability. Through confirmatory factor analysis, it is found that the hypothetical model fit is good. Meanwhile, Harman single-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis showed that there was no serious common method bias in this study. Multicollinearity test shows that there is no serious collinearity among independent variables, and hierarchical regression method can be adopted in analysis. Through the analysis in this chapter, we can see that the questionnaire data in this study meets the research requirements and the hypothetical model is acceptable. For the next step, further research can be done according to the analysis methods introduced in this chapter.

Table 4 - 5 Multicollinearity

Variables	Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	.972	1.029
Age	.640	1.561
Education	.821	1.219
Working time	.728	1.374
Prevention focus	.730	1.370
Promotion focus	.828	1.208
Disintegration avoidance	.720	1.390
Harmony enhancement	.623	1.606
Psychological safety	.911	1.097

Chapter 5: Research results and research findings

5.1 Statistical description of the variables

Table 5-1 presents the statistical description of the variables, including mean, standard deviation, maximum, minimum, and range. For mean, standard deviation, and range, the values of prevention focus are 4.419, 0.840, 2.17, the values of promotion focus are 3.267, 0.524, 3.33, the values of disintegration avoidance are 3.124, 0.843, 4.00, and the values of harmony enhancement are 3.890, 0.768, 3.83, the values of acquiescent voice are 2.710, .761, 4.00, the values of defensive voice are 2.663, 0.772, 4.00, the values of prosocial voice are 4.047, 0.617, 4.00, and the values of psychological safety are 3.769, 0.911, 4.0.

Table 5 - 1 Statistical description of the variables

Variables	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Range
1 Gender	1.149	.357	1.00	2.00	1.00
2 Age	2.116	.689	1.00	4.00	3.00
3 Education	2.131	.840	1.00	4.00	3.00
4 Working time	2.842	1.390	1.00	5.00	4.00
5 Prevention focus	4.419	.480	2.83	5.00	2.17
6 Promotion focus	3.267	.524	1.44	4.78	3.33
7 Disintegration avoidance	3.124	.843	1.00	5.00	4.00
8 Harmony enhancement	3.890	.768	1.17	5.00	3.83
9 Acquiescent voice	2.710	.761	1.00	5.00	4.00
10 Defensive voice	2.663	.772	1.00	5.00	4.00
11 Prosocial voice	4.047	.617	1.00	5.00	4.00
12 Psychological safety	3.769	.911	1.00	5.00	4.00

Note: N=329

As among the 329 participants, 0 is on the senior level, 3 are on the middle level, and 326 are on the entry level. As almost all the employees in the study are from the entry level, it is not necessary or meaningful to take the position level as a control variable. Therefore, the control variables are gender, age, education, and working time.

The Influence Mechanism of Regulatory Focus on Employee Voice Behavior

Table 5 - 2 The correlations between variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Gender	1											
2 Age	-.021	1										
3 Education	.037	-.321**	1									
4 Working time	.035	.513**	-.118*	1								
5 Prevention focus	-.034	-.085	.002	-.001	(.820)							
6 Promotion focus	-.108*	-.167**	.262**	-.084	.206**	(.747)						
7 Disintegration avoidance	.053	.067	.002	.014	.254**	.196**	(.842)					
8 Harmony enhancement	-.022	.136*	-.101	.087	.437**	.165**	.497**	(.899)				
9 Acquiescent voice	.050	.096	-.024	.105	-.043	.145**	.248**	.108	(.821)			
10 Defensive voice	.005	.049	-.004	.028	-.017	.165**	.267**	.133*	.721**	(.837)		
11 Prosocial voice	-.146**	.158**	-.175**	.096	.325**	.152**	.124*	.395**	-.059	-.067	(.867)	
12 Psychological safety	-.011	-.021	.095	.041	.182**	-.079	-.114*	-.022	-.263**	-.302**	.083	(.802)

Note: N=329, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. The values in the brackets on the diagonal are the reliability coefficients of the corresponding variables.

Control variables: gender (0 = male, 1 = female), age (1 = 25 years old or younger, 2= 26-35 years old, 3= 36-45 years old, 4= 46-55 years old, 5= more than 55 years old), Education (1= high school and below, 2= college, 3= bachelor's degree, 4= master's degree, 5= doctoral degree), accumulative working time in the unit (1= 2 years or less, 2= 3-6 years, 3= 7-10 years, 4= 10 years or more).

Table 5-2 presents the correlations between promotion focus and defensive voice ($r=0.165$, $p < 0.01$), promotion focus and acquiescent voice ($r=0.145$, $p < 0.01$), promotion focus and prosocial voice ($r=0.152$, $p < 0.01$), prevention focus and disintegration avoidance ($r=0.254$, $p < 0.01$), disintegration avoidance and defensive voice ($r=0.267$, $p < 0.01$), disintegration focus and acquiescent voice ($r=0.248$, $p < 0.01$), promotion focus and harmony enhancement ($r=0.165$, $p < 0.01$), harmony enhancement and prosocial voice ($r=0.395$, $p < 0.01$), psychological safety and defensive voice ($r=-0.302$, $p < 0.01$), psychological safety and acquiescent voice ($r=-0.263$, $p < 0.01$).

5.2 Empirical analysis of the research hypotheses

5.2.1 The direct effect of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior

The thesis uses hierarchical regression analysis to test the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. The results are shown in Table 5-3.

In Model 2, the regression coefficient of prevention focus on defensive voice is not significant ($B = -0.083$, $p > 0.05$), so H1 is not supported. In Model 2, although the regression coefficient of promotion focus on defensive voice is significant ($B = 0.293$, $p < 0.01$), the F value corresponding to ΔR^2 is not significant ($F = 2.073$, $p > 0.05$), which indicates that promotion focus and prevention focus did not significantly increase the interpretation of defensive voice. Therefore, H3 is not supported due to the insignificant regression variance.

In Model 4, the regression coefficient of prevention focus on acquiescent voice is not significant ($B = -0.120$, $p > 0.05$), so H2 is not supported. In Model 4, the regression coefficient of promotion focus on acquiescent voice is significant ($B = 0.288$, $p < 0.01$), and the F value is also significant ($F = 2.906$, $p < 0.01$), so H4 is supported.

In Model 6, the regression coefficient of promotion focus on prosocial voice is significant ($B = 0.247$, $p < 0.001$), and the F value is also significant ($F = 7.373$, $p < 0.001$), so H5 is supported.

The Influence Mechanism of Regulatory Focus on Employee Voice Behavior

Table 5 - 3 Regression analysis of regulatory focus on voice behavior

Variables	Defensive voice		Acquiescent voice		Prosocial voice	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Control variables						
Gender	.013 (.120)	.060 (.120)	.103 (.118)	.148 (.117)	-.244** (.093)	-.201* (.092)
Age	.058 (.076)	.071 (.076)	.067 (.075)	.076 (.074)	.082 (.059)	.099 (.058)
Education	.012 (.054)	-.033 (.055)	.002 (.053)	-.043 (.054)	-.100* (.042)	-.136** (.042)
Working time	.002 (.036)	.004 (.036)	.040 (.035)	.043 (.035)	.017 (.028)	.017 (.027)
Independent variables						
Prevention focus		-.083 (.090)		-.120 (.088)		
Promotion focus		.293** (.086)		.288** (.084)		.247*** (.065)
R ²	.003	.037	.016	.051	.063	.102
Δ R ²	-.010	.019	.004	.034	.051	.089
F	.212	2.073	1.300	2.906**	5.403***	7.373***

Note: The coefficients are non-standardized regression coefficients; the values in parentheses are standard errors. N=329, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

5.2.2 The mediating effect of interpersonal harmony

The thesis uses hierarchical regression to test the mediating role of interpersonal harmony in impact of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior. Following the recommendations of Mackinnon, Lockwood, and Williams (2004), Bootstrap is employed to further examine the mediating effect. The thesis adopts the SPSS macro compiled by Hayes (2013) to do the analysis, with bootstrap set to be 5000 times, the confidence interval set to be 95%, and the sampling method set to be non-parametric percentile method of bias correction. If the confidence interval for the indirect effect of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior does not contain 0 at 95% significance level, the mediating effect is significant.

5.2.2.1 The mediating effect of disintegration avoidance

Table 5 - 4 The mediating effect of disintegration avoidance on the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice

	Model 1	Model 2		
	Disintegration avoidance	Defensive voice		
Control variables				
Gender	.153 (.127)	-.029 (.116)		
Age	.157 (.080)	.015 (.074)		
Education	.034 (.057)	.003 (.052)		
Working time	-.030 (.038)	.010 (.035)		
Independent variables				
Prevention focus	.468 (.094)***	-.145 (.090)		
Disintegration avoidance		.265 (.051)***		
R ²	.079	.080		
F	5.543**	4.666**		
Mediator	B	SE	LL95% CI	UL95% CI
Disintegration avoidance	.124	.040	.060	.216

Note: B is non-standardized coefficient; values in parentheses are standard errors; CI is confidence interval; LL is the lower limit of the confidence interval; UL is the upper limit of the confidence interval; N=329, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.

Model 2 and Model 4 in Table 5-3 show that the direct effects of prevention focus on defensive voice and acquiescent voice are not significant. According to the mediation test process proposed by Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) as well as Wen and Ye (2014), the mediation test should be continued whether the direct effect is significant or not. When the indirect effect

is significant and the direct effect is insignificant, the mediation is determined as full mediation.

From the regression analysis in Table 5-4, prevention focus can significantly predict disintegration avoidance ($B = 0.468, p < 0.001$) (Model 1). When prevention focus and disintegration avoidance are both entered in the regression equation (Model 2), prevention focus cannot significantly predict defensive voice ($B = -0.145, p > 0.05$) and disintegration avoidance can significantly predict defensive voice ($B = 0.265, p < 0.001$). Therefore, disintegration avoidance plays a mediating role, fully mediating role more specifically, between prevention focus and defensive voice. So H6 is supported.

From the Bootstrap results in Table 5-4, the indirect effect of prevention focus on defensive voice is positively significant ($B = 0.124, SE = 0.040; 95\%$ confidence interval = $[0.060, 0.216]$, not including 0). Therefore, disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice, further supporting H6.

Table 5 - 5 The mediating effect of disintegration avoidance on the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice

	Model 1	Model 3		
	Disintegration avoidance	Acquiescent voice		
Control variables				
Gender	.153 (.127)	.063 (.114)		
Age	.157 (.080)	.023 (.073)		
Education	.034 (.057)	-.007 (.051)		
Working time	-.030 (.038)	.048 (.034)		
Independent variables				
Prevention focus	.468 (.094)***	-.173 (.088)		
Disintegration avoidance		.245 (.050)***		
R ²	.079	.085		
F	5.543**	4.979**		
Mediator	B	SE	LL95% CI	UL95% CI
Disintegration avoidance	.115	.037	.054	.202

Note: B is non-standardized coefficient; values in parentheses are standard errors; CI is confidence interval; LL is the lower limit of the confidence interval; UL is the upper limit of the confidence interval; N=329, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

It can be seen from the regression analysis in Table 5-5, prevention focus significantly predicts disintegration avoidance ($B = 0.468, p < 0.001$) (Model 1). When prevention focus and disintegration avoidance are both entered in the regression equation (Model 3), prevention focus cannot significantly predict acquiescent voice ($B = -0.173, p > 0.05$) and disintegration

avoidance can significantly predict acquiescent voice. ($B = 0.245, p < 0.001$). Therefore, disintegration avoidance plays a mediating role, fully mediating role more specifically, in the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice. So H7 is supported.

It can be seen from the results of Bootstrap in Table 5-5, the indirect effect of prevention focus on acquiescent voice is positively significant ($B = 0.115, SE = 0.037$; the 95% confidence interval = $[0.054, 0.202]$, not including 0). Therefore, disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice, further supporting H7.

5.2.2.2 The mediating effect of harmony enhancement

It can be seen from the regression analysis in Table 5-6, promotion focus significantly predicts harmony enhancement ($B = 0.321, p < 0.01$) (Model 4). When promotion focus and harmony enhancement are both entered in the regression equation (Model 5), promotion focus can significantly predict prosocial voice ($B = 0.276, p < 0.001$) and harmony enhancement can significantly predict prosocial voice. ($B = 0.276, p < 0.001$). Therefore, harmony enhancement plays a mediating role, fully mediating role more specifically, in the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. So H8 is supported.

Table 5 - 6 The mediating effect of harmony enhancement on the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice

Variables	Model 4 Harmony enhancement	Model 5 Prosocial voice		
Control variables				
Gender	.017 (.117)	-.205 (.086)*		
Age	.133 (.074)	.063 (.055)		
Education	-.107 (.053)*	-.107 (.040)*		
Working time	.017 (.035)	.013 (.026)		
Independent variables				
Promotion focus	.321 (.083)**	.158 (.063) *		
Harmony enhancement		.276 (.041)***		
R ²	.067	.213		
F	4.607**	14.497***		
Mediator	B	SE	LL95% CI	UL95% CI
Harmony enhancement	.089	.028	.039	.147

Note: B is non-standardized coefficient; values in parentheses are standard errors; CI is confidence interval; LL is the lower limit of the confidence interval; UL is the upper limit of the confidence interval; N=329, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

It can be seen from the results of Bootstrap in Table 5-6, the indirect effect of promotion focus on prosocial voice is positively significant ($B = 0.089$, $SE=0.028$; the 95% confidence interval = $[0.039, 0.147]$, not including 0). Therefore, harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice, further supporting H8.

5.2.3 The moderating effect of psychological safety

According to Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007), whether the mediation of psychological safety on the indirect relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice is valid depends on 4 criteria: (1) Regulatory focus has a significant impact on disintegration avoidance; (2) The interaction of prevention focus and psychological safety has a significant effect on disintegration avoidance, or the interaction of disintegration avoidance and psychological safety has a significant effect on defensive voice; (3) disintegration avoidance has a significant impact on defensive voice; (4) When individuals' levels of psychological safety are different, the intensities of the mediating effect of disintegration avoidance on the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice are different. Similarly, to verify the moderating effect of psychological safety on the indirect relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice, and to verify the moderating effect of psychological safety on the indirect relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice, all of the above four criteria need to be satisfied.

5.2.3.1 The moderated mediation of prevention focus on defensive voice

As can be referred to from Table 5-4, criterion (1) and criterion (3) have been satisfied. Therefore, prevention focus has a significant effect on disintegration avoidance, and disintegration avoidance has a significant effect on defensive voice. In order to test criterion (2) and criterion (4), the thesis adopts Edwards and Lambert (2007)'s bootstrap method and uses the SPSS macro compiled by Hayes (2013). Bootstrap is set to be 5000 times, the confidence interval is set to be 95%, and the sampling method is set to be non-parametric percentile method of bias correction. See Table 5-7 for details.

Table 5-7 shows that the interaction of disintegration avoidance and psychological safety has a significant negative effect on defensive voice ($B = -0.128$, $p < 0.05$), which satisfies criteria (2).

Moreover, when psychological safety is at the low level or mean level, the mediating effect of disintegration avoidance is significant (0.253 and 0.128, respectively), and the 95% confidence intervals do not contain 0; When psychological safety is at the high level, the

mediating effect of disintegration avoidance becomes weaker and nonsignificant (0.045, 95% CI [-0.003, 0.145], including 0). Therefore, when the levels of psychological safety are different, the mediating effect of disintegration avoidance on the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice are of different intensities, which satisfies the criterion (4).

Table 5 - 7 The moderated mediation of prevention focus on defensive voice

Variables	Model 1		Model 2	
	Disintegration avoidance		Defensive voice	
Control variables				
Gender	.159	(.125)	-.031	(.111)
Age	.155	(.079)	.030	(.071)
Education	.046	(.056)	.034	(.050)
Working time	-.027	(.037)	.014	(.033)
Independent variables				
Prevention focus	.515	(.094) ***	-.083	(.089)
Psychological safety	-.137	(.051) **	.179	(.176)
Disintegration avoidance			.249	(.051) ***
Prevention focus×Psychological safety	-.194	(.110)	-.128	(.053) *
Disintegration avoidance×Psychological safety			.165	7.873***
R ²	.115			
F	5.937***			
The mediating effect of disintegration avoidance under different conditions				
Psychological safety				
-1 SD	.253	.082	.111	.435
M	.128	.040	.062	.222
+1 SD	.045	.036	-.003	.145

Note: B is non-standardized coefficient; values in parentheses are standard errors; CI is confidence interval; LL is the lower limit of the confidence interval; UL is the upper limit of the confidence interval; N=329, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.

According to the above analysis, the four criteria have all been met. Therefore, the moderating effect of psychological safety on the indirect relationship between prevention focus

and defensive voice is supported. As the interaction of disintegration avoidance and psychological safety has a negative impact on defensive voice, then psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice. So H9 is supported.

5.2.3.2 The moderated mediation of prevention focus on acquiescent voice

Table 5-8 presents the result of moderated mediation of prevention focus on acquiescent voice.

Table 5 - 8 The moderated mediation of prevention focus on acquiescent voice

Variables	Model 1		Model 3	
	Disintegration avoidance		Acquiescent voice	
Control variables				
Gender	.159 (.125)		.061 (.110)	
Age	.155 (.079)		.039 (.070)	
Education	.046 (.056)		.020 (.050)	
Working time	-.027 (.037)		.051 (.033)	
Independent variables				
Prevention focus	.515 (.094) ***		-.134 (.089)	
Psychological safety	-.137 (.051) **		.274 (.175)	
Disintegration avoidance			.240 (.050) ***	
Prevention focus	-.194 (.110)			
×Psychological safety			-.146 (.053) **	
Disintegration avoidance ×			.155	
Psychological safety			7.307***	
R ²	.115			
F	5.937***			
The mediating effect of disintegration avoidance under different conditions				
Psychological safety				
-1 SD	.257	.082	.120	.445
M	.123	.037	.061	.211
+1 SD	.036	.032	-.005	.130

Note: B is non-standardized coefficient; values in parentheses are standard errors; CI is confidence interval; LL is the lower limit of the confidence interval; UL is the upper limit of the confidence interval; N=329, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Table 5-5 shows that criterion (1) and criterion (3) have been satisfied, that is, prevention focus has a significant effect on disintegration avoidance, and disintegration avoidance has a significant effect on acquiescent voice. The same with the above analysis, Bootstrap is adopted to test criterion (2) and criterion (4). The results are shown in Table 5-8.

Table 5-8 shows that the interaction of disintegration avoidance and psychological safety has a significantly negative effect on acquiescent voice ($B = -0.146$, $p < .01$), which satisfies criteria (2). Moreover, when psychological safety is at a low level or mean level, the mediating effect of disintegration avoidance is significant (0.257 and 0.123, respectively), and the 95% confidence intervals do not contain 0. When psychological safety is at a high level, the mediating effect of disintegration avoidance becomes weaker and nonsignificant (0.036, 95% CI [-0.005, 0.130], including 0). Therefore, when the levels of psychological safety are different, the mediating effect of disintegration avoidance on the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice are of different intensities, which satisfies the criterion (4).

According to the above analysis, the four criteria have been satisfied. Therefore, the moderating effect of psychological safety on the indirect relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice is supported. As the interaction of disintegration avoidance and psychological safety has a negative impact on acquiescent voice, then psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and acquiescent voice. So H10 is supported.

5.2.3.3 The moderated mediation of promotion focus on prosocial voice

As can be referred from Table 5-6 in the previous section, criterion (1) and criterion (3) have been satisfied, that is, promotion focus has a significant effect on harmony enhancement and harmony enhancement has a significant effect on prosocial voice.

The same with the above analysis, Bootstrap is adopted to test criterion (1) and criterion (3). The results are presented in Table 5-9. It can be seen from Table 5-9 that the interaction of harmony enhancement and psychological safety on prosocial voice is not significant ($B = .038$, $p > .05$), so condition (2) has not been satisfied. Therefore, the moderating effect of psychological safety on the indirect effect of promotion focus on prosocial voice is not supported. So H11 is not supported.

5.2.3.4 Further analysis of the moderating effect of psychological safety

To have a more intuitive view of the moderating effect, the thesis divides the sample into high psychological safety group and low psychological safety group. Using SPSS 20.0,

moderation diagrams of the moderating effect of psychological safety are presented in Figure 5-1 and Figure 5-2.

Table 5 - 9 The moderated mediation of promotion focus on prosocial voice

Variables	Model 4		Model 5	
	Harmony enhancement		Prosocial voice	
Control variables				
Gender	.019	(.117)	-.205	(.086) *
Age	.132	(.074)	.063	(.054)
Education	-.104	(.054)	-.118	(.040) *
Working time	.015	(.035)	.112	(.026)
Independent variables				
Promotion focus	.326	(.083) **	.179	(.063) **
Psychological safety	.014	(.046)	-.070	(.183)
Harmony enhancement			.272	(.041) ***
Promotion focus × Psychological safety	-.113	(.078)	.038	(.046)
Harmony enhancement × Psychological safety			.228	11.793***
R ²	.073			
F	3.591**			
The mediating effect of harmony enhancement under different conditions				
Psychological safety				
-1 SD	.102	.037	.044	.189
M	.089	.027	.041	.147
+1 SD	.068	.043	.003	.174

Note: B is non-standardized coefficient; values in parentheses are standard errors; CI is confidence interval; LL is the lower limit of the confidence interval; UL is the upper limit of the confidence interval; N=329, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.

As shown in Figure 5-1, for individuals with low psychological safety, the positive effect of disintegration avoidance on defensive voice is greater. Therefore, H9 is further supported.

As shown in Figure 5-2, for individuals with low psychological safety, the positive effect of disintegration avoidance on acquiescent voice is greater. Therefore, H10 is further supported.

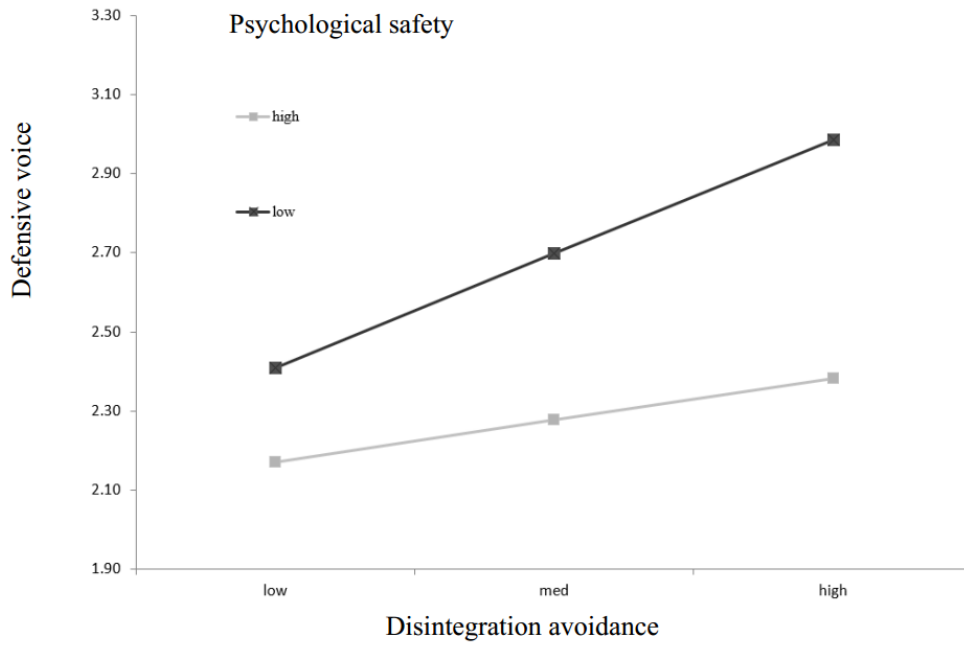


Figure 5 - 1 The moderating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice

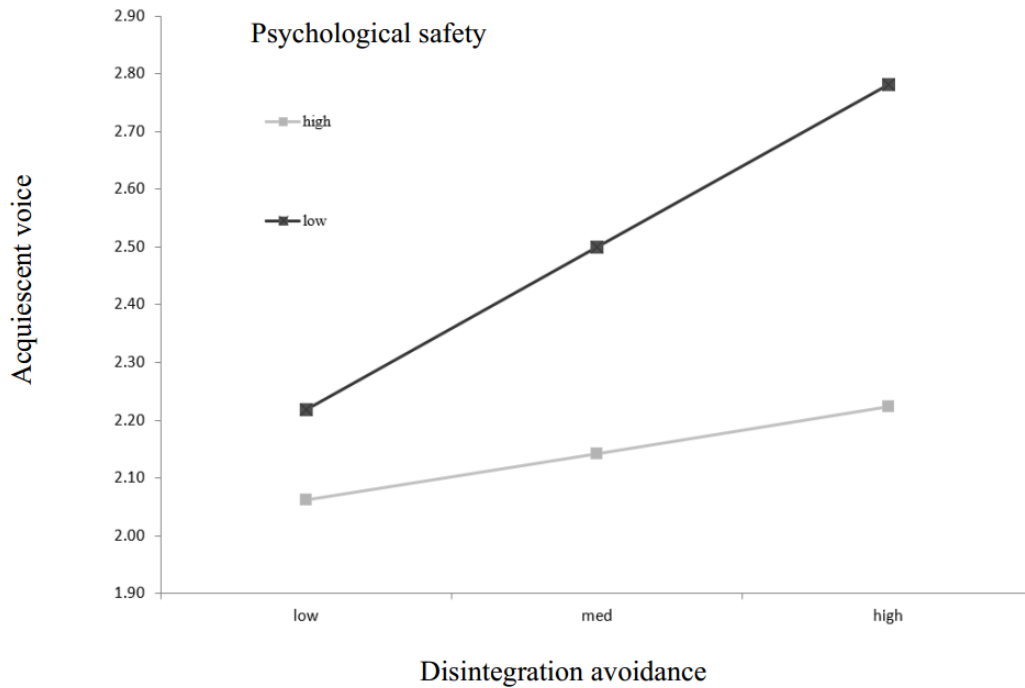


Figure 5 - 2 The moderating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between disintegration avoidance and acquiescent voice

5.2.4 Summary and interpretation of the hypothesis testing results

5.2.4.1 The empirical test results of the research hypothesis

Table 5-10 presents test results of the research hypothesis.

Table 5 - 10 Summary of hypothesis test

Number	Research hypothesis	Results
1.	The relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior	
H1	Prevention focus positively affects defensive voice behavior.	Unsupported
H2	Prevention focus positively affects acquiescent voice behavior.	Unsupported
H3	Promotion focus positively affects defensive voice behavior.	Unsupported
H4	Promotion focus positively affects acquiescent voice behavior.	Supported
H5	Promotion focus positively affects prosocial voice behavior.	Supported
2.	The mediating effect of interpersonal harmony	
	Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice. That is, prevention focus affects defensive voice by disintegration avoidance.	Supported
H6		
	Disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and acquiescent voice. That is, prevention focus affects acquiescent voice by disintegration avoidance.	Supported
H7		
	Harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. That is, promotion focus affects prosocial voice by harmony enhancement.	Supported
H8		
3.	The moderating effect of psychological safety	
	Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice, that is, lower psychological will amplify the positive influence of disintegration avoidance on defensive voice.	Supported
H9		
	Psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and acquiescent voice, that is, lower psychological will amplify the positive influence of disintegration avoidance on acquiescent voice.	Supported
H10		
	Psychological safety positively moderates the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice, that is, higher psychological safety will amplify the positive influence of harmony enhancement on prosocial voice.	Unsupported
H11		

5.2.4.2 Testing results of the concept model

The ultimate analysis results of the conceptual model proposed in this thesis are shown in Figure 5-3.

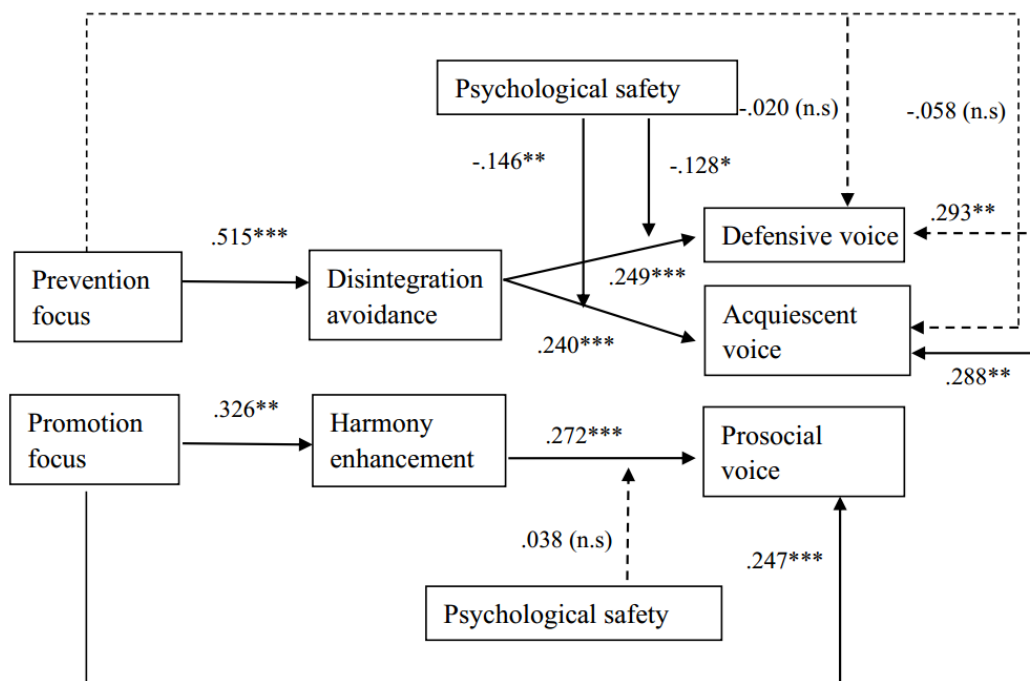


Figure 5 - 3 The testing results of the conceptual model

5.2.4.3 Explanations of the unsupported research hypothesis

In this study, H1, H2, H3, and H11 hasn't been supported, the explanations are as follows:

H1 and H2 have not been supported, that is, the direct effects of prevention focus on defensive voice and acquiescent are not significant. As can be seen from Tables 5-4 and 5-5, the reason is that disintegration avoidance fully mediates the effects of prevention focus on defensive voice and acquiescent.

H3 has not been supported, that is, the direct effect of promotion focus on defensive voice is not significant. Higgins (1997) argued that promotion-focused individuals pay attention to gains, and they have clear risk-taking tendency. In other words, when promotion-focused individuals are faced with actual loss, they will cognitively classify the situation as no gains. In that case, they are not fearful of the loss, instead, they will try to achieve gains through risk-taking. They take risks not because of fear or loss avoidance, but because of their eagerness to obtain returns from risks. Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) assumed that defensive voice is based on the fear motivation and for self-protection. The purpose of self-protection is to avoid

the occurrence or expansion of losses, not to increase returns. Therefore, when promotion-focused individuals are faced with losses, they will tend to adopt the voice type which will increase revenue, rather than the defensive voice which will not avoid losses. Unlike defensive voice, promotion-focused individuals adopt acquiescent voice to improve the relationship the relationship with the leader by obeying leader' idea. In that case, they will obtain more resources. Therefore, promotion focus positively influences acquiescent voice.

H11 has not been supported, that is, the moderating effect of psychological safety in the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice is not significant. The level of psychological safety is mainly based on the individual's perception of interpersonal risk. Prosocial voice faces higher interpersonal risks. The influencing mechanism of psychological safety on prosocial voice is: individuals with higher psychological safety will perceive lower interpersonal risks, reduce the perceived cost of voice, and thus generate more prosocial voice. However, individuals motivated by harmony enhancement pursue harmony in the true sense. When encountering conflicts, they will actively and sincerely communicate with others (Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013). They will propose reasonable suggestions on the problems in the organization, and try to persuade their superiors even if it is good for the enterprise but opposed by superiors. In other words, individuals motivated by harmony enhancement will not pay too much attention to interpersonal risks when they are making prosocial voice. Therefore, the moderating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice is not significant.

5.3 Research findings

From the perspective of individual motivation, this thesis examines the impact of regulatory focus on employee voice behavior, explores the mediating role of interpersonal harmony and the moderating role of psychological safety. The thesis is meant to solve three main questions: First, what effect does regulatory focus have on voice behavior? Second, how does interpersonal harmony play a mediating role between regulatory focus and voice behavior? Third, how does psychological security moderate the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior? Regarding the three research questions, the thesis came to the following three research findings.

Firstly, promotion focus has positive impacts on acquiescent voice and prosocial voice;

Secondly, interpersonal harmony acts as a mediator between regulatory focus and voice

behavior, that is, disintegration avoidance plays a full mediating role between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. Harmony enhancement plays a partial mediating role between promotion focus and prosocial voice;

Thirdly, psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between defensive voice and acquiescent voice.

5.4 Summary

This chapter mainly includes three parts: statistical description of the variables, empirical analysis of the research hypotheses, and research findings. According to the results of correlation analysis, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9, and H10 were preliminary supported. Further analyzing by hierarchical regression and Bootstrap, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9, H10 were supported, and three research findings were obtained. For the four research hypotheses that are unsupported (H1, H2, H3, and H11), theoretical explanations are given. In general, most of the research hypotheses proposed in this study have been verified: the hypothesis that regulatory focus has a direct effect on voice behavior has been partially supported; the two mediating paths in which regulatory focus indirectly affects employee voice behavior have been supported; the moderating effect of psychological safety has also been partially supported. The research results indicate that the aim of the research has been achieved.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Theoretical implications

From the perspective of individual motivation, the thesis takes employees in Chinese private manufacturing enterprises as the research sample and explores the influential mechanisms of voice behavior in Chinese context. The thesis has contributed to the theoretical construct in three ways.

As a first contribution, this thesis has confirmed the direct effect of regulatory focus on the dimensions of voice behavior.

The research by Neubert et al. (2008) demonstrated that promotion focus is positively related to helping behavior. As helping behavior is an organizational citizenship behavior, it can be regarded as an evidence to support the effect of promotion focus on voice behavior. Furthermore, the study by Chen, Li, and Lu (2016) showed that promotion focus significantly affects voice behavior. Whether it is the helping behavior in Neubert et al. (2008)'s research or the voice behavior in Chen, Li, and Lu (2016)'s research, they are both challenging extra-role behavior, which coincide with the prosocial voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003). Up to now, no research has been found on the effect of regulatory focus on defensive voice and acquiescent voice.

Through empirical study, this research found that promotion focus can not only influence prosocial voice positively, but also affect acquiescent voice positively, which has forwarded the research on the direct effect of regulatory focus on voice behavior. The regulatory focus theory proposed by Higgins (1997) pointed out that, promotion focused individuals are more sensitive to the gains. For promotion focused individuals, it's happy to have gains and painful to have no gains, and they have a clear tendency to take risks. Prosocial voice is a challenging behavior which has certain risks. According to the reciprocity principle of social exchange theory, an individual will receive returns when his/ her behavior is beneficial to others or the organization. Therefore, promotion focused individuals will have prosocial voice as long as it's beneficial to the company, even if they are faced with risks. Promotion focused individuals also have acquiescent voice, but their acquiescent voice is meant to obtain more resources by obeying the leaders' idea and improving the relationship with the leaders. Therefore, promotion focus also positively affects acquiescent voice.

Secondly, this thesis has unveiled the influencing path of regulatory focus on voice behavior.

In Neubert et al. (2008)'s study, promotion focus positively affects the helping behavior as a mediator. In Chen, Li, and Lu (2016)'s research, promotion focus significantly influences voice behavior as a moderator. However, there is little research on the influence or influencing path of regulatory focus on voice behavior. In Chinese management scenarios, the influence or the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior has also not been studied yet. Among the existing literature, Wei and Zhang (2010) argued that disintegration avoidance negatively affects prohibitive voice, which can predict the negative effect of disintegration avoidance on prosocial voice. Lu and Chen (2011) demonstrated that harmony enhancement positively influences the relationship between interpersonal communication and organizational citizenship behavior. In another study, Zhang and Long (2014) found that harmony enhancement plays a positive moderating role in the relationship between employee forgiveness and interpersonal citizenship behavior; The above three studies support the positive effect of harmony enhancement on prosocial voice. Until now, no research on the relationship between interpersonal harmony, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice has been found, nor has the research that include regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, and voice behavior in one model been found.

From the perspective of individual motivation, this thesis explores the influential mechanism of voice behavior based on Vallerand (1997)'s hierarchical model of motivation. Through empirical research, it is found that interpersonal harmony plays a mediating role in the relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior. This research finding not only enriches the research on the impact of voice behavior from the perspective of motivation, but also opens a new research path for studying regulatory focus's impact on voice behavior through interpersonal harmony. Moreover, the research finding forwards the research on the three-dimensional voice behavior proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) in Chinese management scenarios, providing a new perspective for the influential mechanisms of voice behavior.

Vallerand (1997) divided motivation into three levels from the top to the bottom: global motivation, contextual motivation, and situational motivation. Vallerand (1997) suggested that there is a top-down effect from higher levels to lower levels, so the top-down effect applies to global motivation, contextual motivation, and situational motivation. Generally, global motivation does not affect situational motivation directly. According to Pervin and John (1999)

and Elliot and Thrash (2002), regulatory focus can be categorized as global motivation. Interpersonal harmony motivation can be categorized as contextual motivation (Vallerand, 2000). According to Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) 's classification, prosocial voice is based on cooperation motivation, defensive voice is based on fear motivation, and acquiescent voice is based on resignation motivation. In the voice context, cooperation motivation, fear motivation, and resignation motivation all belong to contextual motivations. Therefore, regulatory focus, interpersonal harmony, and voice motivation have a top-down effect, that is, regulatory focus affects interpersonal harmony, and interpersonal harmony affects voice motivation. Considering that contextual motivation triggers contextual behavior (Vallerand, 1997), voice motivation triggers voice behavior. Therefore, it is proposed that interpersonal harmony mediates the relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior.

The mediating effect of interpersonal harmony is achieved through two paths. One mediating path is that disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. Prevention focused individuals have a clear conservative tendency (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). In interpersonal interactions, this tendency is more reflected as self-protection and conflict avoidance. Individuals with disintegration avoidance pay more attention to the negative consequences of tense interpersonal relationships (Leung, Koch, & Lu, 2002) and show more defense and avoidance in communicating with others (Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013), which is essentially about self-protection and conflict avoidance. Defensive voice is based on fear motivation and acquiescent voice is based on resignation motivation. Disintegration avoidance can be regarded as a manifestation of prevention focus in the interpersonal interaction context, and the fear motivation and resignation motivation of voice can be regarded as a manifestation of disintegration avoidance in the voice context. Prevention focus, disintegration avoidance, and voice motivation have a top-down effect. Moreover, fear motivation triggers defensive voice and resignation motivation triggers acquiescent voice. Therefore, disintegration avoidance plays a mediating role in the relationships between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice.

Another mediating path is that harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. Promotion focused individuals have obvious risk-taking preferences (Crowe & Higgins, 1997), and they care more about whether their behaviors can bring gains (Yin & Wang, 2013). It can be predicted that, in order to obtain continuous benefits, individuals with harmony enhancement will actively establish long-term good interpersonal

relationships, and even consider the improvement of interpersonal relationships as a benefit. This kind of interpersonal relationship is interpersonal harmony, which is exactly the meaning of harmony enhancement proposed by Leung (1997) and reflects individuals' identification and pursuit of true harmony. Individuals with harmony enhancement will not evade when encountering conflicts. Instead, they will actively and sincerely communicate with others (Zhang, Yao, & Huang, 2013), which reflects a win-win conflict management method (Leung et al., 2011). To achieve a win-win situation, benefits of both parties should be considered. Therefore, individuals with harmony enhancement will not evade the problems and will actively put forward their views, which can help the other party to reduce losses and increase profits. Prosocial voice is based on cooperation motivation, which starts from benefiting others or helping the organization. Harmony enhancement can be regarded as a manifestation of promotion focus in the interpersonal interaction context, and cooperation motivation of voice can be regarded as a manifestation of harmony enhancement in the voice context. Promotion focus, harmony enhancement, and cooperation motivation have a top-down effect. Meanwhile, cooperation motivation triggers prosocial voice. Therefore, harmony enhancement plays a mediating role in the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice.

Finally, this thesis has uncovered the moderating role of psychological safety in the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior.

Researchers have found out that individual psychological safety can significantly predict employees' voice behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Duan, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Luo & Zhao, 2013; Liang, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017; Li, Yan, & Wang, 2018; Liu, Yu, & Huang, 2018). The voice behavior in these studies is extra-role behavior, which is consistent with the connotation of prosocial voice, so there lacks research on the impact of defensive voice and acquiescent voice. Moreover, in most studies, psychological safety appears as a mediator, and it seldom appears as a moderator. Moreover, there still lacks research on how psychological safety moderates the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior.

Through empirical research, this thesis found out that individual psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. This research finding expands our knowledge about the influencing boundary of interpersonal harmony on voice behavior. In order to protect themselves and avoid conflicts, individuals with disintegration avoidance show more caution, defense, and retreat in interpersonal interactions (Leung, 1997). From Kahn (1990) and Tynan (2005)'s definition of

psychological safety, we can see that the level of psychological safety is mainly based on individuals' perception of interpersonal risk. When individuals' psychological safety is high, they will perceive lower interpersonal risks, which will reduce caution and defense in interpersonal interactions. Then, the impact of disintegration avoidance on fear motivation and resignation motivation will weaken, thereby reducing defensive voice and acquiescent voice. Therefore, individual psychological safety plays a negative moderating role in the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice.

Through empirical analysis, the effect of psychological safety on the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice is found to be not significant, which expands the understanding of the relationship between psychological safety and regulatory focus. Many studies have confirmed that individual psychological safety has a significant predictive effect on employee voice behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007; Li, Ling, & Liu, 2009; Duan, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Luo & Zhao, 2013; Liang, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017; Liu, Yu, & Huang, 2018), and the voice behavior in these studies is extra-role behavior, which coincide with the connotations of prosocial voice. However, the study found that the moderating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between harmony enhancement and prosocial voice is not significant. An explanation may rely in the fact that the level of psychological safety mainly depends on individuals' perception of interpersonal risk, but individuals with harmony enhancement will not pay much attention to interpersonal risks when making prosocial voice.

6.2 Practical implications

Employees have the most intimate feelings about the problems in the organization. Managers expect employees to voice, which can not only help the organization find and solve the problems in time but also become a source of innovation and opportunity. However, employees generally think that voicing is risky, consequently they often choose to give up voicing and remain silent. Especially in Chinese management scenarios, factors such as power distance can inhibit employees' voice behavior (Wei & Zhang, 2010; Zhou & Liao, 2012; Chen, Duan, & Tian, 2013; Liu, 2016). Therefore, it's even harder to obtain prosocial voice. Being a research in organizational behavior field, this thesis can contribute to human resource management in three ways.

Firstly, this thesis has revealed the direct impact of regulatory focus on voice behavior, which points a direction for managers to increase prosocial voice in Chinese context.

The research results show that, promotion focus positively affects acquiescent voice and prosocial voice. High promotion focus can trigger more voice behavior, which includes not only prosocial voice but also acquiescent voice. Therefore, obtaining more prosocial voice requires efforts from two aspects: let the employees have more voice; let the employees have more prosocial voice.

Regulatory focus can exist not only as a long-term stable variable, but also as a temporary variable (Higgins, 1997). Joyful situations (Yao & Yue, 2009) and profitable contexts (Crowe & Higgins, 1997) can help employees trigger promotion focus, thereby obtain more employee voice. Prosocial voice is based on cooperation motivation, and its starting point is to benefit others or help the organization. According to the reciprocity principle in the social exchange theory, care and support from managers or organizations will affect employees' cooperation motivation and reap more positive returns from employees. In a word, organizations should establish a caring and pleasant enterprise culture, trigger employee promotion focus, and gain more prosocial voice via the influence of cooperation motivation.

Secondly, this thesis has illuminated the mediating effect of interpersonal harmony on the relationship between regulatory focus and employee voice behavior. In practice, organizations can gain more prosocial voice by improving the quality of interpersonal interactions.

The research results show that, disintegration avoidance plays a mediating role in the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice; disintegration avoidance positively affects defensive voice and acquiescent voice. Harmony enhancement plays a mediating role in the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice; harmony enhancement positively influences prosocial voice. From the mediating mechanism, we can see that: higher disintegration avoidance brings stronger effects on fear motivation and resignation motivation, and thereby produces more defensive voice and acquiescent voice; higher harmony enhancement brings more cooperation motivation, and thereby produces more prosocial voice. As defensive voice and acquiescent voice are of no benefit for organizations, managers prefer to reduce defensive voice and acquiescent voice and increase prosocial voice in management practice. Therefore, it is necessary to reduce disintegration avoidance and increase harmony enhancement.

From Huang (1999)'s definition of interpersonal harmony, we can come to the conclusion that harmony enhancement happens when both parties feel tangible coordination, cooperation, agreement, or even integration, while disintegration avoidance happens when both parties try to maintain a disguised harmony in the appearance instead of a real inner harmony. Zhang, Yao,

and Huang (2013) demonstrated that promotion focused individuals trust people, and they will be more positive towards others and more willing to communicate with others. While disintegration avoidance individual show more defense and retreat, and they will be more passive towards others and more cautious in interpersonal communication. Motivation is affected by the context. A positive interpersonal interaction context will allow people to drop their defense and disguise, bringing more frank and sincere communication, thereby weakening the disintegration avoidance motivation and strengthening the harmony enhancement motivation. For example, when leaders communicate with employees, they can honestly admit their problems and responsibilities in the work, which will guide employees to express their ideas freely. What's more, when leaders are hosting a meeting, they can make a declaration at the beginning of the meeting, which informs employees to put straightforward the ideas and avoid hypocritical words. In that way, question discussions can be separated with interpersonal relationship. Therefore, in practice, organizations should establish a concise and sincere atmosphere and improve employees' awareness of voice, which could guide the employees to form a real harmonious relationship and improve the interpersonal interaction quality. Moreover, organizations should strengthen the harmony enhancement motivation to obtain more prosocial voice and weaken the disintegration avoidance motivation to reduce defensive voice and acquiescent voice.

Thirdly, this thesis has confirmed the moderating role of psychological safety. Organizations can affect employees' voice behavior by improving individual psychological safety in the practice.

The research results show that, psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice. The higher individuals' psychological safety is, the less defensive voice and acquiescent voice are. Higher psychological safety will reduce the interpersonal risks perceived by employees, thereby reducing employees' fear motivation and resignation motivation, and reducing defensive voice and acquiescent voice. Organizations can increase psychological safety to reduce defensive voice and acquiescent voice, and allow employees to put forward real ideas for the benefit of organizations.

Influencing factors of psychological safety can be divided to four aspects: individual factors, colleague factors, leader factors and organization factors. Individual factors such as active personality (Detert & Burris, 2007) can positively predict an individual's psychological safety. Colleague factors such as colleague trust can enhance individuals' psychological safety

(Chen & Chen, 2017), and workplace ostracism can negatively affect psychological safety (Ye, Ni, & Huang, 2015; Yu & Peng, 2018). Leader factors such as transformational leadership (Detert & Burris, 2007; Wu et al., 2011), authentic leadership (Luo & Zhao, 2013), moral leadership (Duan, 2012; Liang, 2014), humble leadership (Zhang, 2016), and benevolent leaders (Xu, Duan, & Li, 2017) can positively affect psychological safety. Organizational factors such as high-commitment human resource practices can positively affect individuals' psychological safety (Collins & Smith, 2006; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Therefore, managers can improve employees' psychological safety according to the above four aspects: Firstly, organizations should recruit employees with proactive personality. Secondly, in order to increase colleague trust and reduce workplace ostracism, organizations should guide employees to produce more mutual assistance behaviors from the perspectives of system and culture. Thirdly, organizations should adopt the leadership that are conducive to voice, including transformational leadership, moral leadership, authentic leadership, moral leadership, humble leadership, and benevolent leadership. Fourthly, organizations can promote the construction of high-commitment human resource management system.

Chapter 7: Conclusions

7.1 Summary of the research

Ideas and suggestions from employees can not only help the organization to find and solve the problem in time, but also become a source of innovation (Zhou & George, 2001). Therefore, voice behavior has received extensive attention and research. However, voice in existing research are mainly extra-role behavior, which is challenging but beneficial to the organization. There lacks research on the voice behavior in real life, which is caused by employees' fear of loss. Among the individual factors that have an impact on voice, motivation have been paid much attention to, but these researches mainly focus on the impression management motivation, and the research on regulatory focus is relatively rare. Moreover, the research on the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior has not been found yet. Therefore, it is of importance to study how regulatory focus, the common individual motivational principle, affects voice behavior.

Adopting empirical research method and based on the hierarchical model of motivation (Vallerand, 1997), the study explores the influential mechanism of voice behavior in Chinese management context from the perspective of individual motivation. The study takes Chinese private manufacturing enterprise employees as the research sample, which comes from 17 private manufacturing enterprises in 6 provinces and cities (Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Shanghai, Chongqing, Guangdong, Fujian), and involves 4 industries (such as chemical engineering enterprise). The surveys are conducted at two time points (T1, T2), with the interval being 2 weeks. After deleting invalid data and pairing the questionnaires, 329 pairs of valid questionnaires were finally obtained. Each pair includes one questionnaire from T1 and one questionnaire from T2.

Through regression analysis, the research came to three research findings. Firstly, promotion focus positively affects acquiescent voice and social voice. Secondly, Interpersonal harmony plays a mediating role in the relationship between regulatory focus and voice behavior: disintegration avoidance mediates the relationship between prevention focus and defensive voice as well as acquiescent voice, and harmony enhancement mediates the relationship between promotion focus and prosocial voice. Thirdly, psychological safety negatively moderates the relationship between disintegration avoidance and defensive voice as well as

acquiescent voice. These research findings have: promoted the research on the direct effect of regulatory focus on voice behavior; unveiled the influencing path of regulatory focus on the dimensions of voice behavior through interpersonal harmony from the perspective of motivation; expanded the understanding of the influencing boundary of interpersonal harmony on voice behavior. Moreover, these research findings are of high practical value in reducing employees' defensive voice and acquiescent voice, and increasing employees' prosocial voice behavior in human resource management practice.

7.2 Research limitations

There are two main limitations in this study.

The first limitation is about sample selection. The study takes the employees from Chinese manufacturing enterprises as the research sample. On the one hand, the range of the study is relatively wide, and it is difficult to determine the overall sampling; on the other hand, the data of the two surveys needs to be paired, which requires high-quality data and cooperation of the sampling objects. Therefore, convenient sampling is adopted in this thesis. The research sample came from 17 private enterprises in 6 provinces and cities (such as Zhejiang). Among them, there are 8 enterprises in Zhejiang, accounting for 47.06%, and there are 16 chemical engineering enterprises, accounting for 94.12%. The concentrated geographical and industrial sources of the sample may affect the external validity. In future research, the sample should be as spread and balanced as possible in terms of geographical and industrial distribution. Meanwhile, employee behavior can also be affected by traditional Chinese culture under the Chinese management context. China is a developing country. Compared with developed countries, the professionalization of Chinese employees is not that mature. Considering that the cultural factors and the economic factors can also affect the external validity of this research. Especially when interpersonal harmony is based on Chinese culture, whether the conclusions are applicable to other cultures require cross-cultural research.

For the second limitation, this study is not a multi-level research. Individual psychological safety and team psychological safety are both representatives of individuals' perception of interpersonal risk. Therefore, besides taking individual psychological safety as a moderator, this study also considered the cross-level moderation of team psychological safety before. However, the data analysis did not support the cross-level moderation of team psychological safety. Edmondson (2003) suggested that team psychological safety has a significant predictive effect

on employee voice behavior. Future research can further the study on team psychological safety.

7.3 Research prospects

Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) put forward three types of voice from the perspective of motivation, which are more in line with management practice. Wang, the general manager in the true case mentioned in introduction (p2), realized the importance of employee voice through business activities. Without the participation of employees, it is difficult to notice and solve problems in time only relying on the management team. However, Wang often encounters scenarios we introduced in the case: not everyone can make suggestions that are beneficial to the company. Wang hopes the heads of each department act like Wu, who dare to voice from the standpoint of the company. Wang also noticed several phenomena in the company. “Most of the employees in the technical department can point out the company’s problems directly and make suggestions for work improvement. Most of the employees in the production department are also willing to express their opinions, but mainly for the benefit of the production department, showing more individualism”, “After Zhou Ran, an engineer from the technical department, transferred to the quality department, his voice became less, like most of the employees in the quality department. He seldom voice at the meeting, and when he is called by name, most of his views are following the mainstream and neutral”. Wang also found an interesting phenomenon, “Every time when I discuss with the employees from the Germany site and the US site, I can get a lot of valuable information. The foreign employees in these two sites speak directly, and do not consider much about the leaders or whether the leaders can accept their opinions. In comparison, the opinions of employees in the Japanese site seem standard, but their opinions could neither be applauded, nor be picked out obvious problems.” Considering these phenomena, Wang is thoughtful. Affected by employee’s individual factors, by the superiors, by the employee’s team, and by different cultural backgrounds, it is indeed not easy to get valuable advice. Wang hopes to get theoretical guidance on whether employee’s voice behavior is affected by these factors and how to get more valuable suggestions.

However, by literature review, it is found that there is rare research on the three types of voice proposed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003), and there also lacks research on voice behavior from the perspective of individual motivation. As a common motivational principle, regulatory focus plays an important role in the basic psychological processes such as individual decision making and behavioral strategies. Therefore, the research on the influence of regulatory focus on the three types of voice behavior is of high theoretical value and practical

significance. Combining the literature review, the above case, and the conclusions of this study, future research can deepen the study from the following four aspects:

Firstly, future research can consider the regulatory fit of superior and subordinate as an independent variable. Superior is a direct stakeholder of the subordinate, and the regulatory focus of superiors will have an important impact on subordinates' motivation and behavior. According to the regulatory fit theory, regulatory fit can enhance individuals' motivation to pursue goals (Higgins, 2000).

Secondly, future research can take other mediators into account. According to Vallerand (1997)'s hierarchical model of motivation theory, regulatory focus can affect voice motivation through contextual motivation, thereby affecting voice behavior. Exploring the mediating effect of other contextual motivations can enrich the influential mechanism of regulatory focus on voice behavior.

Thirdly, future can use psychological safety at the team or organizational level as a moderator. Edmondson (1999) defined team psychological safety as the team's shared belief in dealing with interpersonal risk and ensuring safety. Brown and Leigh (1996) argued that organizational psychological safety is employees' perception of the organization's environmental characteristics such as allowing self-expression. Interpersonal risk affects interpersonal harmony and motivation. It can be inferred from the two definitions that team-level or organization-level psychological safety can also predict employee voice behavior.

Fourthly, future research can explore the influence of cross-culture. The core of Chinese traditional culture is harmony and the main content of harmony is interpersonal harmony. Therefore, the thesis selected interpersonal harmony as the mediator to fit the Chinese management scenario. Cross-cultural studies can be considered in the future, for example, similar studies can be carried out in other cultural contexts.

7.4 Closing remarks

The importance of voice behavior has been extensively studied and supported. However, the voice behavior in the existing studies are all challenging extra-role behavior, leaving a research gap for the voice types that are based on self-protective motivation and resignation motivation, which exist in real life. Furthermore, among the influencing factors of voice, there lacks research on regulatory focus. Regulatory focus, as a common motivational principle, affects people's basic psychological processes such as cognitive evaluation, decision-making

and behavior strategies, which is of research value. Based on these facts, the thesis studies the influential mechanism of voice behavior from the perspective of individual motivation. Considering the influence of cultural factors and interpersonal risks, this thesis chooses interpersonal harmony as the mediator and psychological safety as the moderator. In terms of theoretical innovation, this thesis promotes not only the research on the direct effect of regulatory focus on the dimensions of voice behavior, but also the research on the moderating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between interpersonal harmony and voice behavior. More importantly, the thesis opened two research paths in which the two regulatory focus types affect the three dimensions of voice through two interpersonal harmony types. The research conclusions in the thesis are of great value in obtaining more beneficial voice behaviors and reducing useless voice behaviors.

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Appendix

Organizational behavior questionnaire (T1)

Dear leaders, colleagues, and friends,

I am Chen Shanggao. I am now studying for my PhD in Management. This survey is a crucial part of the empirical study in my doctoral thesis.

The survey is anonymous and will be conducted at two timepoints. I personally assure you that the information collected is completely confidential and only used for this research. It will not cause any inconvenience to you and your company, so please be relaxed in filling out the questionnaire.

All the items in this questionnaire need to be filled out truthfully, because the data quality is of vital importance.

Sincerely thank you for your support!

Part I Basic information

1. Please fill in the **last four digits** of your mobile phone number_____ (only for data pairing)
2. Please fill in the **last four digits** of your employee ID_____ (only for data pairing)
3. Your gender: Male Female
4. Your age: ≤25 years old 26-35 years old 36-45 years old
46-55 years old >55 years old
5. Your education: High school or below College Bachelor's degree
Master's degree
6. Your accumulated working time in this company: ≤2 years 3-6 years
7-10 years 10 years or more
7. Your department category: Technology R & D Manufacturing Marketing
Administrative support Purchasing and logistics
Quality and safety Financial auditing Others
8. Your position level: High level Medium level Entry level
9. Your working time at current position: ≤2 years 2-5 years
5-10 years 10 years or more
10. Your company size: ≤100 employees 101-500 employees 501-1000 employees
1000 employees or more

Part II About work

The following items describe your thoughts in daily life and work. There is no right or wrong answer. Please read each sentence carefully and choose the options according to the extent you agree.

	Stongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral opinion	Agree	Strongly agree
11. I am committed to completing the tasks undertaken to enhance my sense of security at work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. At work, my focus is fulfilling my	1	2	3	4	5

	responsibilities.					
13.	The fulfillment of work obligations is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	At work, I try to live up to the responsibilities and obligations others give to me.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	At work, I always concentrate on the tasks that will satisfy my safety needs.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I try my best to avoid mistakes at work.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	When looking for a job, stability and low risk are the factors I focus on.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I concentrate on avoiding failure at work.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I am very careful to avoid losses at work.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	To maximize my self-development goals, I take risks at work.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	In order to succeed, I take risks at work.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	If there is a high-risk, high-return project, I will participate.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	If there is no room for development in my job, I will find ways to adjust.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	When looking for a job, developing room is my key consideration.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	At work, I concentrate on accomplishing tasks that are beneficial to my development.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I put much effort into figuring out how to find my values or ambitions at work.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The ideal employee type I aspire to be has influenced my thoughts on work priorities.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	At work, my ideals and ambitions have always inspired me.	1	2	3	4	5

Part III About opinions

The following items describe your thoughts in daily life and work. There is no right or wrong answer. Please read each sentence carefully and choose the options according to the extent you agree.

		Stongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral opinion	Agree	Strongly agree
29.	Only when knowing to live in harmony with others, can one person go big.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	“A harmonious family makes everything good”. It is important to maintain harmony among family members.	1	2	3	4	5

31.	Forbearance represents one's generosity.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Forgiveness represents one's maturity and open mind.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Harmonious coexistence and inclusive tolerance can give us a more comprehensive view.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Everyone has a different view and agreement is not a must. We should tolerate each other	1	2	3	4	5
35.	When socializing with others, we should consider others' difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Harmony with others is an important goal in life.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	"Harmony brings fortune" is a wise philosophy.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Tolerance to others represents your respect.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Living in harmony with people is important, because things are unpredictable. Maybe we will ask others for help one day.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Tolerance is a virtue.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Tolerance can maintain the image of "noble man"	1	2	3	4	5
42.	When others are more powerful than us, we should tolerate them.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	To maintain harmony, we may abandon the principle of justice.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	We should not have conflicts with others, so that we are not embarrassed when meet next time.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Life pushes us forward. In the face of unfair things, it's better to think brightly.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	It's better to not generate trouble and be peaceful.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	If the losses are limited, then there is no need to fight to the end.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	If others can give us benefits, we should tolerate them so as not to damage our own interests.	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Harmony with others can prevent them from bothering us in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	This year is 1980.	1	2	3	4	5

Part IV About opinions

The following items describe your thoughts in daily life and work. There is no right or wrong answer. Please read each sentence carefully and choose the options according to the extent you agree.

		Stongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral opinion	Agree	Strongly agree
51.	I don't always need to be careful in my work.	1	2	3	4	5

52.	In my work, there are always people playing tricks behind my back and make my work in vain.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	My work environment is full of potential threats.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Once I make a mistake at work, the consequences will be very serious.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	There are always people in my work environment who keep giving me problems.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your generous help!
Wish you a happy life and successful work!

Organizational behavior questionnaire (T2)

Dear leaders, colleagues, and friends,

I am Chen Shanggao. Thank you for filling out the T1 questionnaire. This is the T2 questionnaire.

The survey is anonymous. The information collected is completely confidential and only used for this research. It will not cause any inconvenience to you and your company.

All the items in this questionnaire need to be filled out truthfully, because the data quality is of vital importance.

Sincerely thank you for your support!

Part I Basic information

1. Please fill in the **last four digits** of your mobile phone number_____ (same with the first survey)

2. Please fill in the **last four digits** of your employee ID_____ (same with the first survey)

Part II About work: voice behavior

The following items describe your thoughts in daily life and work. There is no right or wrong answer. Please read each sentence carefully and choose the options according to the extent you agree.

	Stongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral opinion	Agree	Strongly agree
3. For matters not in my responsibilities, I usually echo my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I always obey my superior's opinion, and rarely provide new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Congruence is important, so I always agree with my superior.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Suggestions are not very useful in practice, so I generally agree with my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I usually express my opinion according to my superior's idea.	1	2	3	4	5
8. To avoid affecting my career development, I always agree with my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
9. To avoid affecting me, I will shift the focus of problems when making comments.	1	2	3	4	5
10. To avoid affecting the relationship, I will support my superior's idea.	1	2	3	4	5
11. In order to protect myself, I will agree with my superiors	1	2	3	4	5
12. To avoid hurting my interests, I will maintain good communication with my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5

13.	I will bravely express my suggestions as long as it is good for the company.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	For the company's problems, I will put forward reasonable suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	This year is 1980.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	For the things that are good for the company, I will try to persuade him / her even if the superior objected.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	For the new things, I will actively express support as long as it is beneficial to the company.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I will put forward some suggestions for changes from my concern for the company.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your generous help!
Wish you a happy life and successful work!