INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

RICE UNIVERSITY

Action or Opportunity: A Further Examination of
Voice Effects

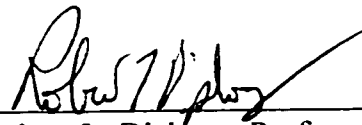

by

Derek R. Avery

A THESIS SUBMITTED
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

Master of Arts

APPROVED. THESIS COMMITTEE

_____
Miguel A. Quinones. Associate Professor. Chair
Psychology

_____
Robert L. Dipboye, Professor
Psychology

_____
Michelle R. Hebl. Assistant Professor
Psychology

Houston, Texas

November, 1999

UMI Number: 1399247

UMI®

ABSTRACT

Action or Opportunity: A Further Examination of Voice
Effects

by

Derek R. Avery

This study assessed whether the effect of voice on procedural fairness is due to the opportunity to voice or to actual voice behavior. In addition, it examined several possible antecedents of voice behavior. In a laboratory experiment, 100 undergraduates completed measures of personality, self-evaluation, perceived voice instrumentality and opportunity to voice. Opportunity for voice, goal setting, and voice instrumentality were manipulated. The results show that opportunity to voice, but not voice behavior, predicted fairness perceptions. Further, goal setting, perceived instrumentality, conscientiousness, and voice self-efficacy significantly predicted voice behavior. Significant interactions between locus of control and voice instrumentality and goal setting and perceived instrumentality on voice behavior were detected. The implications of these findings and directions for future research are discussed.

Acknowledgments

First, I would like to thank God, without whom none of this would have been possible. Second, I would like to thank my advisor, Miguel Quinones, for not giving up on me when it would have been easy for him to do so. He has been there to advise me every step of the way, and for that I am extremely grateful. I would also like to thank Michelle Hebl for her endless support. More than that, she has been invaluable in helping me to find the discipline to make this project a reality. In addition, Robert Dipboye has played an extremely instrumental role in the development and growth of the ideas expressed in this paper as well as my overall intellectual growth. Thank you. I would not be myself if I did not remember to thank my parents, family, friends, and Tiffany Perez for all of the support and encouragement that that they have shown me, not only in this project, but in all of my other undertakings as well. Finally, I would like to dedicate this work to my grandmother, Mary Avery.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents (continued)

Table of Contents (continued)

Table of Contents (continued)

List of Tables

List of Figures

Action or Opportunity: A Further examination of Voice Effects

During the past 40 years, the employer-employee relationship has changed

considerably (Tjosvold, 1998). Employees, for the most part, are no longer expected to

simply follow orders (Frey, 1991). Driving this change has been an increased emphasis on

forms of employee participation. Presently, many employees are allowed, and often

expected, to actively contribute to organizational decision making. Not surprisingly,

psychological and managerial research has reflected this trend. Numerous studies have

investigated the effects of participation in organizational decision-making on employee

attitudes and performance (Cawley, Keeping, & Levy, 1998; Wagner, Leana, Locke, &

Schweiger, 1997). The overwhelming majority of these studies have provided at least

marginal support for the various forms of employee empowerment.

Of the research examining the effects of participation, one of the best-documented

effects is the "voice effect" (Earley & Lind, 1987; Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990). The

term "voice," coined by Hirschman (1970), has been conceptualized in a variety of

different ways. For example, Hirschman defined voice as, "the attempt at changing the

practices, policies, and outputs of the organization to which one belongs (1970, p.30)."

Voice of this type will hereafter be referred to as voice behavior. A different denotation of

voice was presented by Lawler (1975), who defined it as the opportunity to participate in

organizational decision-making by expressing one's opinion. Voice of this type will

hereafter be referred to as opportunity for voice. These two distinct conceptualizations of

voice have lead to two separate lines of research. The first definition has lead to the

examination of voice as a behavior, while the latter has lead to the assessment of voice as

an opportunity provided to employees. The purpose of the present study is to empirically

determine the true nature of voice effects. Specifically, this study will attempt to address the following questions: 1) Are voice effects due to opportunity to voice or voice behavior, and 2) What are the predictors of voice behavior?

Opportunity for Voice

Thibaut and Walker (1978) found that by allowing individuals the opportunity to voice their concerns, perceptions of fairness could be increased. More specifically, the litigants in their study rated the court proceedings as more fair when they were given a chance to express themselves, regardless of the outcome of the case. These results provided support for the newly introduced theory of procedural justice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), which states that individuals are concerned with procedures used to determine an outcome as well as the outcome itself. This finding, that the provision of the opportunity for voice leads to increased perceptions of fairness, is now commonly referred to as the "voice effect."

While this "voice effect" held a clear practical value for litigation and court proceedings, its implications were also relevant to organizations. Consequently, research was conducted to examine the effects of providing an opportunity for voice to employees in organizations. For example, Folger (1977) found that individuals who were allowed the opportunity to voice personal preferences reported higher perceptions of managerial process fairness than those who were not allowed the opportunity to voice. Perceived process, or procedural fairness refers to an individual's feelings regarding the procedures used to determine an outcome. This concept differs from distributive fairness, which is concerned with an individual's perceptions regarding the fairness of the outcome of the decision (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

Several other researchers have replicated Folger's finding that providing

individuals the opportunity to voice increases their perceptions of process fairness

(Greenberg, 1990; Kanfer, Sawyer, Earley, & Lind, 1987; Leung & Li, 1990; Lind,

Kanfer, & Earley, 1990; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996; Tyler, 1987). In fact, Lind, Kanfer,

and Earley (1990) state that, "as long as there is an opportunity to express one's views

and opinions before the decision is made, procedural (process) fairness is enhanced

(p.952)." While such a statement downplays the importance of considering employees'

input in voice effects (Shapiro, 1993), it illustrates the strength of the empirical support

for the voice effect.

The benefits of providing the opportunity for voice have been consistently

demonstrated in both laboratory and field settings (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

However, a question arises due to the manner that researchers have conceptualized voice.

Specifically, researchers have manipulated whether or not the individual has the

opportunity to voice, thereby dichotomizing voice as an all or none effect. They have

failed to consider the possibility that different amounts of voice exhibited could yield

differing effects on individuals' perceptions of fairness. Simply stated, the amount of

voice behavior exerted by an employee/participant is not irrelevant, and its effects should

be investigated.

This failure to examine the effect of the level of voice behavior leaves two possible

explanations for the occurrence of voice effects. The first is that individuals value having

the opportunity to express their sentiments irrespective of whether or not they actually

take advantage of that opportunity. This appears to be the position of most voice

researchers in that they ignore the varying degrees of voice behavior. In support of their

argument, it could be that the opportunity to voice in and of itself conveys the notion that individuals' opinions are valued and welcomed by management. Based on this notion, the participants, or employees would perceive the manager as more fair. This logic is the basis for the relational theory of procedural justice (for a complete review, see Lind & Tyler, 1988).

However, it could also be the case that taking advantage of the opportunity to voice one's feelings is likely to reduce levels of anger, frustration, and discontent (Pennebaker, 1990; Tavris, 1989). This belief was a basis for many methods of psychotherapy, which involve having an individual verbalize his/her problems or complaints (Davison & Neale, 1996). Hence, the increase in perceptions of the fairness of the manager/organization involved in voice effects could be a result of employees having actually vented their feelings. Such an explanation would also help to account for the finding that increasing opportunities for voice increases satisfaction (Kanfer, Sawyer, Earley, & Lind, 1987; Peterson, 1999; Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1985), in that providing greater opportunity should result in more voice behavior, which subsequently relieves frustration, thereby increasing satisfaction.

While both of these possible explanations are logical, it remains unclear as to which, or to what degree each, is actually responsible for voice effects. To date, no published study has empirically investigated this distinction between opportunity to voice and voice behavior, although several have acknowledged its existence. For example, Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, and Roth (1992) noted that soliciting voice, or providing the opportunity to voice, does not guarantee that organizations will receive employee input. Such a statement acknowledges the difference between opportunity for voice and voice

behavior itself. More recently, Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) also declared the distinction citing that, "because we define voice as a behavior, our use of the term does not refer to the availability of grievance procedures (p. 854)" as voice is often construed. In another recent work, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) note the distinction as well, but they do so in an effort to highlight the importance of having one's views considered. They theorize that the opportunity to voice raises perceptions of fairness because either the opportunity conveys that principles of fairness have been considered, or voice behavior is perceived as having made an "impact" (consideration) on the listener (p. 34). However, they fail to acknowledge the possibility that the amount of voice behavior exhibited might influence the strength of the voice effect.

Another study took the distinction between opportunity and behavior a step further. Hunton, Hall, and Price (1998) hypothesized that the level of opportunity for voice affects the relationship between voice and perceptions of fairness and satisfaction. In their study, they varied the magnitude of voice by telling the participants that they had been asked to express their opinions for 5, 10, 15, or 20 of a total of 20 attribute choices in a managerial simulation. A curvilinear relationship was found such that a large difference in perceptions of fairness between the no- and low-voice conditions existed, whereas almost no difference was observed between low- and high-voice conditions. At first glance, this finding would appear to indicate that opportunity alone is sufficient to produce voice effects, because the effect takes place between the no-voice and low-voice conditions. However, it is important to consider that all participants who were given the opportunity were expected to, and consequently did, engage in voice behavior. This notion of experimenter expectancy will be discussed in detail later in the present study.

Despite Hunton, Hall, and Price's (1998) attempt, the effects of opportunity for voice and voice behavior on work related attitudes have yet to be empirically differentiated. Such a distinction is an important one to practitioners. If voice behavior is necessary to affect attitudes, then an organization that merely provides the opportunity to voice will find such a provision to be inadequate. Thus a significant contribution of the present study is that the effects of voice opportunity and behavior will be empirically investigated.

> *Hypothesis 1a*: There will be a main effect of opportunity to voice on perceptions of fairness such that individuals given the opportunity to voice will perceive the situation as more procedurally fair than those not given the opportunity.

> *Hypothesis 1b*: For individuals given the opportunity to voice, there will be a positive relationship between voice behavior and perceptions of procedural fairness such that, individuals exhibiting higher levels of voice behavior will perceive the situation as more procedurally fair than those who exhibit lower levels of voice behavior.

If it is the case that individuals who engage in higher levels of voice behavior will perceive the situation as more fair, it is important to understand the predictors of individuals' voice behavior. From an applied standpoint, it would be beneficial for organizations to be able to determine those employees for whom voice solicitation efforts will be most productive. Consequently, the next section will discuss previous attempts to predict voice behavior.

Voice Behavior

Previous research has identified several situational and individual difference variables that predict voice behavior. For example, Farrell, Rusbult, and their colleagues have found that, for individuals high in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, investment size, and quality of alternatives, there is a greater tendency to engage in voice behavior (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Farrell, Rusbult, Lin, & Bernthal, 1990; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988). In addition, the way that individuals perceive their managers has also been shown to have an effect on individuals' tendency to voice (Saunders, et al., 1992; Janssen, Vries, & Cozijnsen, 1998). Specifically, workers are more likely to exercise voice behavior when they perceive their supervisors as responsive and approachable.

Although research has identified several antecedents of voice behavior (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). much remains to be examined. For example, Farrell and Rusbult (1992) state that, "it might be fruitful to explore the impact of individual dispositions on response tendencies (exit, loyalty, neglect, and voice behavior) (p. 214)." Echoing this statement, Saunders et al. (1992) posit that a more complete model of employee voice behavior is needed, specifically examining the important personality correlates of employees that voice.

The most current research attempting to fill this void also acknowledges the lack of previous success in predicting voice (Janssen, Vries, & Cozijnsen, 1998; Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998). While both Janssen et al. (1998) and Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) make significant contributions to further understanding voice behavior by examining situational (supervisor/management style and group size) and personal (cognitive style, satisfaction

with group, and self-esteem) factors, much remains to be understood. Consequently, the present study will examine two situational factors (voice instrumentality and goals) as well as several individual differences as predictors of voice behavior.

Situational Predictors of Voice Behavior

Voice Instrumentality

Several studies have investigated the role of individual's perceptions regarding the instrumentality of their voice, or the extent to which the input (voice) that they provide produces a desired outcome (Cawley, Keeping, & Levy, 1998; Earley & Lind, 1987; Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996; Tyler, 1987; Tyler, 1994). Currently, there are two schools of thought on voice instrumentality: instrumental and relational (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). The instrumental theory states that individuals value voice because they feel that it allows them the opportunity to influence the decision-maker's judgment. In contrast, the relational theory argues that individuals value voice because the opportunity to provide input implies that their, "views are worthy of hearing (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990, p. 952)." Such an implication is indicative of an individual's positive status within the organization, and is therefore viewed favorably (Lind & Tyler, 1988). These two explanations for why individuals value voice are the rationales used by researchers to explain why providing the opportunity to voice increases perceptions of fairness.

Of the studies researching the role of instrumentality in voice effects, one of the most oft-cited was conducted by Lind, Kanfer, and Earley (1990). In this study, the researchers manipulated procedure (no, pre-decision, or post-decision voice) and information given by the experimenter (none, relevant, or irrelevant) in order to determine

their effects on procedural fairness, using a sample of undergraduates. Further, they also assessed the participants' perceptions of control. By examining the mediating role of perceived control in the voice-fairness relationship, Lind et. al were able to assess the contribution of instrumentality in voice effects. Their analyses revealed a partial mediation, indicating that perceived control is only partially responsible for the effect of voice on perceptions of fairness. This finding suggests that both instrumental and relational theories contribute in explaining why the opportunity for voice leads to increased perceptions of fairness.

Another study examining the role of instrumentality in voice effects found similar results (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996). Using a sample of employees from various industries, McFarlin and Sweeney (1996) collected measures of perceived opportunity for voice, decision control, procedural justice, and job satisfaction. Using structural equation modeling, they found that voice has a direct effect on procedural justice, and a smaller, indirect effect on procedural justice mediated by decision control. Consequently, their results supported Lind, Kanfer, and Earley's (1990) conclusion that voice effects are not strictly contingent on the individual getting his/her way.

More recently, Cawley, Keeping, and Levy (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of field investigations analyzing the role of participation in the performance appraisal process. They found that value-expressive participation (relational) was more strongly related to satisfaction, fairness, and motivation to improve than instrumental participation. However, the effects of instrumental participation were also statistically significant and comparable in size to those of value-expressive participation. Thus, their findings were similar to those of previous studies (e.g., Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990; McFarlin &

Sweeney, 1996). In addition, their analyses solely included studies conducted in organizational contexts, and thus their results extend the generalizability of the findings discussed in this section. It is apparent, based on these studies, that instrumentality does play a significant role in voice effects.

If instrumentality is involved in the effect of voice on subsequent perceptions of fairness, then it seems likely that it should also be pertinent in individuals' decisions to engage in voice behavior. In particular, a person who perceives that his/her input will be utilized should be more likely to exhibit voice behavior than someone who feels that his/her input will fall upon deaf ears. Based on this assertion, it is expected that an individual's perceptions regarding the instrumentality of his/her input will affect whether or not s/he will actually provide input.

> *Hypothesis 2*: There will be a main effect of instrumentality on voice
>
> behavior such that individuals in the high instrumentality condition will
>
> exhibit more voice behavior than those in the low instrumentality condition.

Goal Setting

In addition to the effect of instrumentality on voice behavior, it seems likely that the amount of voice expected would influence the amount of voice an individual exerts. For example, if a participant believes that s/he is expected to give ten suggestions, then it should follow that s/he will give more suggestions than if it were believed that no expectations for voice behavior existed. This idea was derived from a recent study by Hunton, Hall, and Price (1998). In their study, Hunton et al. instructed participants to, "assume that their supervisor either had not asked them to express their opinions and preferences for the 20 choices or that they had been asked to express their opinions and preferences for 5, 10, 15, or 20 of the 20 choices (p.789)." By doing so, the researchers

actually manipulated goals for voice behavior in their attempt to manipulate voice magnitude.

Hunton et. al's inadvertent use of goals draws on principles of goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goal setting theory states that setting specific, difficult but attainable goals will serve to motivate employees, so long as the employees accept the goals. The rationale underlying this theory is that goals inform individuals of the appropriate behaviors to engage in, and also serve to guide the amount of effort to be invested in those behaviors (Locke & Latham, 1990). Numerous studies have investigated the effectiveness of these goal-setting strategies on performance, with the majority finding support for the theory (Mento, Steel, & Karren, 1987; Locke & Latham, 1990; Tubbs, 1986).

Recently, it has been suggested that the use of goal setting techniques by managers could be used to incorporate employee involvement and empowerment (Martin, Martin, & Grbac, 1998). Martin et al. (1998) assert that, by setting goals for employees and providing employees some degree of authority to adjust their job activities, employee involvement will increase. Such a suggestion can also be viewed with respect to efforts to elicit voice behavior. If an organization sets specific goals for employee suggestions, it is likely that employees will subsequently exhibit more voice behavior.

> *Hypothesis 3*: There will be a main effect of goal setting on voice behavior,
> such that individuals in the goal-setting condition will exhibit more voice
> behavior than those in the no goal condition.

While managerial/organizational goal setting may elicit more employee voice behavior, it is possible that the expectations conveyed by the specified goals for the number of suggestions may diminish the effect of voice on perceptions of procedural fairness. The provision of voice presumably influences individual perceptions of fairness because it *allows* an individual to voice his/her concerns should s/he feel the need. However, by setting goals for voice behavior, supplying input may then be perceived by

employees as an additional responsibility. No longer are they allowed to express their concerns, but rather they are expected to voice a number of concerns that may or may not even exist. Consequently, while goal setting may increase voice behavior, it may decrease the hypothesized relationship between voice behavior and perceptions of procedural fairness. This reasoning serves as a possible explanation for the unexplained finding that the effect of increasing opportunity for voice yielded nonlinear (decreasing) increases in perceived fairness (Hunton et al. 1998). For if the participants felt compelled to engage in voice behavior in an effort to meet the goal set by the experimenter, it is likely that as that goal increased, the effect of having the opportunity to voice on fairness would decrease.

> *Hypothesis 4*: Goal setting will moderate the effect of voice behavior on
>
> procedural fairness perceptions. In particular, for individuals in the no-goal
>
> condition, there will be a stronger effect of voice behavior on perceived
>
> fairness than for individuals in the goal-setting condition.

In addition to main effects of instrumentality and goal setting, it is possible that the two will interact in their effects on voice behavior as well. For even when specific goals are present, if individuals perceive that their input is being solicited with no possibility of influence, they are likely to withhold their suggestions. This anticipated interaction is conceptually similar to what Folger (1977) entitled the "frustration effect". The frustration effect occurs when individuals have voiced repeatedly without observing any change as a consequence of their voice. Consequently, individuals become frustrated and the opportunity to voice no longer produces increased, but rather decreased perceptions of fairness.

Hypothesis 5: The effect of setting goals for voice will be moderated by voice instrumentality. Specific goals will lead to more voice behavior *only* when instrumentality is also high.

While situational variables are useful in predicting behavior, it is important to consider the effects of individual differences. It is possible, even likely that there are aspects of individual personalities that relate to whether or not an individual is likely to engage in voice behavior. Therefore, the present study will investigate the role of the big five personality factors, as well as core self-evaluations (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997), in predicting who will voice.

<center>Individual Difference Predictors of Voice Behavior</center>

<u>Big Five Personality</u>

Due to the complex nature of humans, personality psychology has been the topic of a tremendous amount of research. Perhaps one of the largest debates within the personality psychology literature has been the debate regarding how many independent factors of personality exist (Goldberg, 1995). However, within the last twenty years, "agreement has been growing about the number of orthogonal factors needed to account for the interrelations among English-language trait descriptors (Goldberg, 1992, p.26)." Simply put, at present, the five-factor model maintains solid standing as the preeminent model of personality.

The five factors, commonly referred to as openness to experience (or intellect), agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism (emotional stability), have often been used to predict behaviors (Costa, McCrae, & Dembroski, 1989; Moberg, 1998; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Wooten, Timmerman, & Folger, 1999). For example,

Wooten, et al. (1999) examined the role of the big five in predicting entrepreneurism

among outplaced managers. In another study, Moberg (1998) assessed the role of the five

factors in predicting managers' conflict resolution strategies. Thus, it is not without

precedent that the present study examines the role of the specified factors in predicting a

specified behavior.

The first of the factors believed to play a role in determining voice behavior is

agreeableness. "Highly agreeable people are less likely to demonstrate high emotion

(Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999, p. 102)." Agreeableness is often viewed in terms of

conflict management style, such that those high in agreeableness tend to avoid conflict.

Voice behavior is by definition confrontational, since it challenges the status quo

(Hirschman, 1970). Consequently, those high in agreeableness should be less likely to

engage in voice behavior.

> *Hypothesis 6a*: Agreeableness will predict voice behavior, such that
>
> individuals high in agreeableness will demonstrate less voice behavior than
>
> those rating moderate or low in agreeableness.

Another personality factor that is likely to be related to voice behavior is openness

to experience, also commonly referred to as intellect. Individuals high in openness tend to

be imaginative and daring (McCrae & Costa, 1985). Such individuals are likely to think of

innovative and creative ways of performing tasks. In fact, Griffin and Murray (1998)

found a significant positive correlation between openness and self-reported creative

interests and activities. Similarly, in a recent meta-analysis of the effects of personality on

creativity, the openness to experience-creativity relationship was also found (Feist, 1998).

Based on this link between creativity and openness, it seems likely that when provided the

opportunity to voice, that individuals high on the openness dimension would engage in voice behavior.

> *Hypothesis 6b*: Openness to experience will predict voice behavior, such that individuals high in openness will demonstrate higher levels of voice behavior than those lower in openness.

In addition to agreeableness and openness, it is also expected that conscientiousness will play a role in predicting voice behavior. Individuals high in conscientiousness are typically described as responsible, dependable, planful, organized, persistent, and achievement oriented (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Consequently, it is likely that when given the opportunity to provide suggestions, conscientious individuals will be driven to give more suggestions than those low in conscientiousness. Further, conscientious individuals have been shown to be more likely to set and be committed to goals, which is associated with higher levels of performance (Murray, Barrick, & Strauss, 1993). In the present study, performance will be measured in terms of voice behavior. Therefore, it is anticipated that conscientious individuals will produce a greater number of suggestions when prompted.

> *Hypothesis 6c*: Conscientiousness will predict voice behavior, such that individuals ranking high in conscientiousness will exhibit more voice behavior than those low in conscientiousness.

Finally, extraversion, or surgency is also likely to impact voice behavior. Extraverts are typically characterized as talkative, bold, and assertive (Goldberg, 1992). Based on such characterization, the relationship between extraversion and voice becomes apparent. Due to its confrontational nature, voice behavior requires a degree of boldness

and assertiveness. Therefore. extraverts should exhibit more voice behavior than introverts.

> *Hypothesis 6d*: There will be a positive relationship between extraversion and voice behavior, such that individuals high in extraversion will engage in more voice behavior than those rating lower in extraversion.

The final factor, neuroticism, is also one of the core self-evaluations to be discussed below.

Core Self Evaluations

Recently, Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) introduced the concept of "core self evaluations" that includes self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism (emotional stability). These evaluations refer to, "fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves" that may in part explain, "the dispositional sources of job satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998, p. 18)." Judge et al. (1997) posited that individuals who place low values on themselves are likely to react differently to their job responsibilities than individuals who consider themselves to be competent. Such an argument can be extended to include individuals' reactions to the opportunity to voice. Individuals who consider themselves to be good and competent would likely view the input that they could provide as more valuable and useful than individuals with low self-evaluations. Therefore, it is expected that three of Judge et al.'s (1997) core self evaluations, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and locus of control will predict voice behavior.

Self-Esteem. Self-esteem refers to an individual's perception of self worth (Harter, 1990). Recently, Brockner, Heuer, Siegel, et al. (1998) conducted a study assessing the role of self-esteem as a moderator of the voice-outcome satisfaction relationship. They

hypothesized that, "the more that people are confident of their capability to provide a meaningful input, the more motivated they will be to have voice (p.395)." Their results were in support of their hypothesized interaction, in that participants with high self-esteem were more satisfied when perceived voice was high.

In another recent study, Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) investigated the role of self-esteem as a predictor of voice behavior. Although they found only a marginally significant effect of self-esteem in predicting voice behavior. self-esteem was involved in significant interactions with situational variables in predicting voice behavior in work groups. Consequently, it is expected that self-esteem will predict voice behavior.

Hypothesis 7a: Individuals' self-esteem will predict voice behavior. Specifically, individuals high in self-esteem will exhibit more voice behavior than their low self-esteem counterparts.

Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's beliefs regarding his/her ability to perform a particular task at a specified level (Bandura, 1997). Thus, while self-esteem is a global concept, self-efficacy is task specific. In regard to voice behavior, self-efficacy encompasses the participant/employees' belief that they can effectively contribute to the development or improvement of their task.

Self-efficacy is positively related to desired participation (Hunton & Beeler, 1997). Individuals who are more confident in their abilities to contribute are more likely to want to participate. Put another way, "control (opportunity for voice) may benefit only those who are confident that they can use it (Litt, 1988, p. 253)." Consequently, individuals with high self-efficacy would be more likely to exhibit voice behavior, which would in-turn produce the voice effect.

The results of other previous studies lend further support for the self-efficacy-voice behavior relationship (Bezjak & Lee, 1990; Schaubboeck & Merritt, 1997). For example, Bezjak and Lee (1990) performed a study attempting to predict college students' physical fitness behaviors. They found that physical fitness self-efficacy significantly predicts participation in health-related physical fitness activities. In addition, a more recent study found that individuals higher in self-efficacy prefer to have more job control (Schaubboeck & Merritt, 1997). If individuals high in self-efficacy participate more and prefer more control in their jobs, then it is likely that such individuals would also be more likely to voice than their low self-efficacy counterparts.

Conversely, it should be noted that not all studies have found support for the idea that self-efficacy predicts participation. Recently, Noe and Wilk (1993) reported finding no significant relationship between self-efficacy and participation. However, they operationalized participation in terms of classroom developmental activities. It is possible that their failure to attain a significant effect is a result of the limited range of developmental activities included in the study, an explanation that they acknowledge. It is also possible that individuals who are high in self-efficacy would not perceive a need to participate in developmental activities due to their confidence in their abilities. However, in terms of voice, it is likely that individuals who are confident in their ability to make meaningful contributions, will engage in voice behavior. Thus it is hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 7b*: Self-efficacy will be positively related to voice behavior. Specifically, individuals high in voice self-efficacy will exhibit more voice behavior than their low self-efficacy counterparts.

Locus of Control. Locus of control captures an individual's attributional style. Individuals who believe that ability and hard work are the determinants of personal success are said to have an internal locus of control. Conversely, those who attribute success and failure to luck, fate, or chance are said to have an external locus of control (Rotter, 1966).

Various studies have examined locus of control as a potential moderator of the effect of participation on performance (Brownell, 1982; Ruble, 1976; Runyon, 1973; Spector, 1990). Their results have consistently demonstrated that internally oriented individuals perform best in conditions of high participation, while externally oriented individuals perform best in conditions of low participation. For example, in a study manipulating management style (participative vs. directive), internals were more involved in their work and more satisfied with a participative style of management (Runyon, 1973). Ruble (1976) extended this finding by including a direct measure of performance, rather than an indirect measure such as involvement. Through manipulating the opportunity to participate in planning, he found that internals perform better when given the opportunity, while externals perform better when a manager plans for them. These results have also been replicated using a sample of actual managers (Brownell, 1982). Thus, based on these findings it is apparent that internally oriented individuals prefer participative management styles that allow them to influence decision-making procedures.

Further still, internals appear to be more likely to participate in organizational decision making (Mia, 1987) and employee involvement programs, such as quality circles and problem-solving teams (Allen, Lucero, & Van Norman, 1997). Due to their belief that they are personally responsible for their successes and their failures,

internals seek out the opportunity to take an active role (Kren, 1992). On the other hand, externals see no need to participate because they feel that the outcome will be arbitrarily determined. Or, as Runyon (1973) states, "as internality increases, the employee should perceive himself as being better able to control his own destiny. Consequently, he should respond positively to the freedom for personal initiative that is characteristic of participative management (p. 289)." Therefore, it follows that:

> *Hypothesis 7c*: Locus of control will predict voice behavior, such that internally oriented individuals will exhibit more voice behavior than their externally oriented counterparts.

Neuroticism. The neuroticism factor describes an individual's emotional stability (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Judge et al. (1997) hypothesized that an individual's emotional stability would predict his/her job and life satisfaction. They believed that individuals low in neuroticism would exhibit higher levels of satisfaction. Although the effect of neuroticism was not statistically significant, Judge et al. retained the variable as the fourth factor of their core self-evaluations. Due to the brief duration of the experimental task to be utilized in the present experiment, emotional stability is not expected to influence voice behavior. Consequently, no relationship between neuroticism and voice behavior is hypothesized.

Interactive Effects of Individual Differences

Furthermore, it is expected that these individual differences (personality and core self-evaluations) will play a role in determining the nature/strength of the aforementioned effects of voice instrumentality and goal setting of voice behavior. Psychological research attempting to predict human behavior has traditionally done so using either person-

centered or situation-centered variables (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998). Recently, research

has highlighted the importance of investigating the interactive relationship between an

individual and his/her surroundings, in addition to main effects of individual or situation

differences on behavior (Hattrup & Jackson, 1996; Wright & Mischel, 1987). Attempts at

predicting voice behavior have also displayed this trend. For example, Lepine and Van

Dyne (1998) conducted a study attempting to predict voice behavior in work groups by

examining the independent and interactive effects of satisfaction with the work group,

global self-esteem (both person-centered), group size, and style of management (both

situational). Their analyses found significant interactions between both person-centered

variables and each situational variable. thus supporting the need for analyzing both

individual and situational differences in efforts to predict behavior.

Another recent study investigating antecedents of voice behavior also employed

the use of a person-situation interactive model (Janssen, Vries, and Cozijnsen, 1998).

Janssen et al. (1998) used a cognitive style indicator, in conjunction with measures of

work satisfaction and supervisor's voice management competence, to predict employee

voice behavior. Though no significant two-way interactions were found, the three-way

interaction between the three independent variables was statistically significant.

The findings of Lepine & Van Dyne (1998) and Janssen et al. (1998) illustrate the

need for specifying situations in which individual differences are likely to affect voice

behavior. However, both experiments were correlational field studies and were as a result

conducted without the benefit of experimental control. Consequently, a further

contribution of the present study is that it attempts to replicate these interactive findings in

an experimental setting using novel predictors of voice behavior.

Hypothesis 8: Individual differences (personality and core self-evaluations) will moderate the relationship between voice instrumentality and voice behavior. Specifically, the effect outlined in hypothesis 2 will be more pronounced for individuals low in agreeableness, high in extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, self-esteem, self-efficacy, or with an internal locus of control.

Hypothesis 9a: Individual differences (personality and core self-evaluations) will moderate the relationship between experimenter goals and voice behavior. Specifically, the effects outlined in hypothesis 3 will be more pronounced for individuals high in extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, self-esteem, self-efficacy, or with an internal locus of control.

Unlike the other personal variables to be examined in this study, it is likely the case that the provision of goals for voice behavior will produce a different effect on individuals high in agreeableness. When a goal for voice is conveyed, those high in agreeableness are likely to attempt to meet this goal. For this reason, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 9b: The effect of goals for voice behavior will moderate the relationship between agreeableness and voice behavior, such that in the specified goal condition, individuals high in agreeableness will exhibit more voice behavior than those low in agreeableness.

Understanding the relationship between the conditions and personal attributes that predict voice behavior is a necessary step in the process of determining the optimal method of soliciting employee input. Further, knowing which variables will increase voice

behavior is important for several reasons. One such reason is that, via voice behavior, organizations can gain insight regarding means for organizational improvement. Another reason is that voice behavior may directly contribute to employee's perceptions of organizational procedural fairness (hypothesis 1b).

Increasing perceptions of procedural fairness can be highly beneficial for organizations. Individuals who perceive their organization to be fair are more likely to stay with the organization (Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Beyond its effect on turnover, increasing employee perceptions of fairness also affects several other work-related attitudes such as employee satisfaction and motivation.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is defined as, the perception of fulfillment regarding one's needs, desires, and appetites (Wordnet, 1999). A great deal of research has been devoted to investigating the determinants of satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1975) showed that intrinsic features of work such as task variety, skill, autonomy, significance, and feedback relate to satisfaction across occupations. Another factor related to satisfaction is the concept of procedural justice (Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Witt & Broach, 1991). Procedural justice entails the "perceptions of fairness concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, p. 26)." Research has shown that increased perceptions of procedural fairness correspond with increased satisfaction (Bartle & Hayes, 1999). For example, Bartle and Hayes (1999) conducted a meta-analysis of the effects of organizational justice on work outcomes and found procedural justice to be significantly related to satisfaction, even more so than distributive justice. Several other studies have yielded similar findings. More specifically,

the result has been replicated not only in a professional context (Mossholder, Bennett, & Martin, 1998), but also in regard to satisfaction with a training experience (Witt & Broach, 1991), leaders (Peters, 1999; Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1985), and an encounter with the police (Tyler & Folger, 1980). Further, in a recent study, perceptions of process fairness were found to be antecedents of job dissatisfaction and intent to turnover (Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Thus, not only has it been demonstrated that fairness leads to satisfied workers, but also that unfairness will lead to dissatisfied workers, or worse yet, no workers.

The logic behind the procedural fairness-satisfaction relationship is straightforward. If an organization is perceived by an individual to be fair, it naturally follows that the individual would be more inclined to be satisfied working there. This study will focus on one dimension of satisfaction, outcome satisfaction. Outcome satisfaction pertains to an individual's perceptions regarding the outcome of a particular process. It is expected that fair process should lead to individuals being more satisfied with the outcome. In line with this argument, Kanfer (1990) states that, "when procedures used to determine an outcome are perceived as fair, persons tend to report higher levels of satisfaction even when the outcome is not in their favor (p. 111)." It is this logic, accompanied by the aforementioned research findings, which leads to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 10*: Individuals having higher perceptions of procedural fairness
> will demonstrate higher levels of outcome satisfaction than those
> perceiving lower procedural fairness.

However, it is not the case that perceptions of fairness only affect an individual's satisfaction. Research investigating the effects of procedural justice has found it to be related to several work-related attitudes such as motivation.

Task Motivation

Task motivation is the process of directing, energizing, and sustaining behaviors in order to accomplish a specified task. Without motivation, even the most talented workers will not produce up to their potential. Hence, it is clear that investigating the antecedents of motivation is essential to maximizing organizational productivity.

Research linking perceptions of fairness to motivation has often done so using VIE theory (Kanfer, 1990). It is postulated that increasing perceptions of fairness will in-turn increase an individual's belief that a given level of performance will lead to a desired outcome (Steers & Porter, 1991). The rationale behind this theory is that when individuals feel that an organization is treating them fairly, they are more likely to believe that the organization will fairly compensate its employees, based on their performance. According to VIE theory (Vroom, 1964), if increasing perceptions of fairness increases an individual's perception that outcomes are tied to performance, a subsequent increase in motivation should result. Thus, logic and theory would suggest that increases in fairness yield increases in motivation.

Of late, researchers have attempted to use the fairness-motivation link to explain extra-role behavior in organizations. Extra-role behavior is that which exceeds what is required of an employee, and is generally referred to as going above and beyond the call of duty. Consequently, extra-role behavior is an indirect indicator of motivation. In a study examining extra-role behaviors, Folger (1993) found that motivation to engage in them is

linked to perceptions of procedural justice. Further, he suggests that extra role behaviors will only occur if procedural justice is high. In a more recent study, Lee (1995) provides support for Folger's assertion finding that perceived fairness is positively related to extra-role behaviors. Using employees of a consumer products company, she found that perceptions of fairness were significant predictors of extra-role behaviors. While these findings deal with motivation to go above and beyond role requirements, it can also be predicted that perceptions of process fairness affect task motivation as well.

Several recent studies provide support for such a prediction. For example, in addition to finding that perceptions of fairness influence extra-role motivation, Lee (1995) also found a link between fairness perceptions and in-role behaviors. Specifically, employees who perceived their workplace as fair were more likely to engage in task specific behaviors than employees who did not perceive the organization as fair. This relationship has been demonstrated in other contexts as well. Perceptions of fairness have been shown to be related to motivation in a training context (Quinones, 1995). In a subsequent related finding, Gilliland and Beckstein (1996) found that explanation and interpersonal sensitivity, two components of a procedurally just environment, are predictors of future journal submission intentions (JSI), an indirect measure of motivation. Based on the findings discussed in this study, it would appear that perceptions of process fairness are related to motivation.

> *Hypothesis 11*: Individuals with higher perceptions of process fairness will exhibit higher levels of task motivation than individuals with lower fairness perceptions.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 102 undergraduate students (35 males and 67

females) from a small, private, southern university who participated in the study in

exchange for course credit. All participants were treated in accordance with the American

Psychological Association guidelines (APA, 1992).

Design/ Analysis Plan

The analysis consisted of two parts. The first examined the effects of opportunity

to voice and voice behavior on fairness, satisfaction, and motivation. The independent

variables were opportunity for voice, which was manipulated and voice behavior, which

was measured. The hypothesized relationships addressed by this part were examined

using a one-way ANOVA for voice (voice, no voice) and correlational analyses. The no

voice condition was comprised of 20 randomly selected individuals who served as a

control group. In the second part of the study, the hypothesized predictors of voice

behavior were analyzed and consequently, voice behavior served as the dependent

variable. The design was a 2 x 2, instrumentality (high versus low) x goal setting (goal, no

goal) factorial design that was assessed using ANOVA. The person-centered variables

and their interaction with the situation-centered variables were assessed using multiple

regression analyses.

Materials

Each participant was given a list of commonly included activities, and subsequently

presented overhead projector transparencies containing a list of Orientation week (O-

week) activities and O-week schedule format. In addition, each participant received the measures described below.

<u>Measures</u>

Perceived Procedural Fairness

Six items adapted from Quinones (1995) was used to assess the participants' perceptions of procedural fairness (see Appendix D). The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). A sample item is: "The procedures used by the experimenter to choose the O-week activities were fair." Responses to the six items were summed to form a scale (Coefficient Alpha = .86).

Outcome Satisfaction

Six items adapted from Quinones (1995) was used to assess the participants' satisfaction with the outcome of the selection format design procedure (see Appendix D). The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). A sample item is: "I am pleased with the activities the experimenter selected." Responses to the six items were summed to form a scale (Coefficient Alpha = .85).

Task Motivation

Six items adapted from Quinones (1995) was used to assess task motivation (see Appendix D). The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). A sample item is: "I am highly motivated to design an agenda for O-week." Responses to the six items were summed to form a scale (Coefficient Alpha = .89).

Perceived Opportunity for Voice

One item adapted from an item used by Tyler, Rasinski, and Spodick

(1985) and one item designed by the researcher were used to assess the participants

perceptions of opportunity to voice: "I had the opportunity to provide my views regarding

what activities should be included in O-week." and "The experimenter solicited my input

for the activities for O-week." The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point

Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). Responses to these two items

were combined to form a scale (α = .82). This scale served as a manipulation check for the

opportunity for voice manipulation.

Perceived Instrumentality

One item adapted from Lind, Kanfer, and Earley (1990) was used to assess

participants' perceptions of voice instrumentality: "I feel like I had control over the

selection of the activities that we will use to design O-week." The participants' responses

were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree).

This item was used as a check for the instrumentality manipulation.

Individual Difference Measures

Big Five Personality. The Goldberg (1992) adjective checklist was

administered to assess the big-five personality characteristics. The checklist is composed

of 100 descriptive adjectives that respondents evaluate themselves against. The scales for

agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience showed good

reliabilities ranging from .85 to .92.

Core Self-Evaluations

Self-Esteem. A 10-item scale adapted from Rosenberg (1965) was used to assess participants' self-esteem (See Appendix C). The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). A sample item is: "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others." Factor and item analyses revealed that three of the items did not appear to correspond to the other items. Consequently, these three items were removed from further analyses. Responses to the remaining seven items were summed to form a scale (Coefficient Alpha = .84).

Self-Efficacy. Seven items adapted from Quinones (1995) were used to assess self-efficacy (See Appendix A). Research has shown that, "Likert-type and traditional measures of self-efficacy have similar reliability-error variance, provide equivalent levels of prediction, and have similar factor structure and similar discriminability (Maurer & Pierce, 1998, p. 324)." The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). A sample item is: "I feel strongly that I can design an agenda for O-week here at Rice." Responses to the seven items were summed to form a scale (Coefficient Alpha = .89).

Locus of Control. A 15-item Likert-type scale developed and tested by Johnson and McGill (1988), and also used by Kren (1992) was used to assess locus of control (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree; See Appendix C). The participants' responses were in the form of 7-point Likert-type scale (1= highly disagree and 7 = highly agree). A sample item is: "There really is no such thing as "luck"." Factor and item analyses revealed that six of the items did not appear to correspond to the other items.

Consequently, these six items were removed from further analyses. Responses to the remaining nine items were summed to form a scale (Coefficient Alpha = .83).

Neuroticism. The Goldberg adjective checklist was used to assess the participants' neuroticism. (Coefficient Alpha = .87).

Procedure

The participants assembled in sessions consisting of two to fifteen people. The researcher began with a brief introduction and informed the participants that the purpose of the present study was to redesign the Orientation week (O-week) used by the university. Everyone was given an informed consent form to sign, and told that they could exit the study at any time without penalty. After the participants had read and signed the consent forms, the forms were collected. The participants were then told to imagine that they were part of a committee to redesign O-week. Each was designated a subject number (which was used to randomly assign each participant to one of the four experimental conditions, or the control group) and given the list of common activities containing the manipulations, the self-efficacy measure, and depending on the condition, a suggestion sheet (See Appendices A and B). At this point, the participants were asked to refrain from speaking to one another for the duration of the experiment.

Included with the list of commonly performed O-week activities were the instructions indicating that,

> During the course of normal (committee) activities we sometimes find that opportunities for a person to be involved in the design of his or her work may exist, but not everyone is given this chance by their supervisors. During the course of this experiment you may or may not receive such opportunities depending on your experimental condition. As you respond to the various questionnaires, try to imagine yourself in an actual job situation (i.e., a student on a planning

committee) and keep in mind any opportunities you might or might not be provided (Earley & Lind, 1987, p.1151-52).

Furthermore, the following manipulations were included:

Manipulations

Opportunity for Voice Manipulation

Opportunity for voice was manipulating by allowing the voice participants to provide suggestions for O-week activities while denying this opportunity to the no-voice participants.

Instrumentality Manipulation

Instrumentality was manipulated by telling the participants that either their suggestions would or would not be used in the experimenter's selection of the activities that they would be incorporating at the end of the experiment. Those in the high instrumentality condition received a form noting that the experimenter intended to use their input, specifically, it was stated that, "We intend to use your suggestions in the selection of the activities to be included in the O-week that you will design." Those in the low instrumentality condition received a form stating that their input would not be used. Specifically, "Although your input will not influence the activities that we select for you to use in designing O-week, we are interested in your input."

Goal-Setting Manipulation

Goals were manipulated by telling the participants either that they were to suggest at least 15 activities, or simply asking them to suggest any activities they would like to see included. Participants who were given goals were instructed to, "please suggest at least 15 activities that you would like to see included in the components to be used to

plan O-week." Those who did not receive goals were instructed to, "please suggest any activities that you would like to see included in the components to be used to plan O-week."

Upon completion, these materials were collected and the experimenter distributed the self-esteem and locus of control measures, along with the Goldberg (1992) adjective checklist. He then informed the participants that he needed to "leave the room in order to review the suggestions that some of you have given and decide which activities you will be including in your designs for O-week", while the participants completed the measures. After 10-12 minutes, the experimenter returned and collected the measures once they were all completed. The experimenter then expressed that, "I have read and considered the suggestions that some of you made regarding the activities for O-week. Here are the activities that I have selected for you to use."

At this point, the experimenter placed a handwritten overhead sheet on the overhead projector containing a list of 16 activities, that the participants were led to believe[1] he had written while they had been completing the previous measures (see Figure 1). In actuality, the suggestions that were presented were determined via pilot testing with undergraduates prior to the conduction of the experiment. This was followed by the experimenter displaying a blank O-week schedule sheet (see Figure 2) on the overhead projector and explaining that their task would be to fill in an identical sheet. However, they were told that before receiving the schedule sheet, they needed to complete one additional brief measure. After placing the list of activities back on the overhead, the experimenter handed each participant the measures of task motivation, outcome

Figure 1: The handwritten list of activities presented to the participants.

1. ACADEMIC ADVISING
2. DEALING WITH DIVERSITY TRAINING
3. SGA FAMILIARIZATION
4. JACKS
5. "TARGET" RUNS
6. ICE BREAKERS TO MEET CLASSMATES
7. SEXUAL HARASSMENT WORKSHOP
8. CAMPUS SCAVENGER HUNTS
9. RELAXATION TIME
10. MOVIE NIGHT - ALL NIGHT MOVIES @ EACH COLLEGE
11. GET TO KNOW HOUSTON WORK-SHOPS (3)
12. "STEAM TUNNELING"
13. LIBRARY FAMILIARIZATION
14. CAMPUS TOUR
15. COLLEGE COMPETITION (I.E.- JEOPARDY)
16. TALENT SHOW

Figure 2: The blank O-week format sheet presented to the participants.

Time	Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
1 AM							
2 AM							
3 AM							
4 AM							
5 AM							
6 AM							
7 AM							
8 AM							
9 AM							
10 AM							
11 AM							
12 PM							
1 PM							
2 PM							
3 PM							
4 PM							
5 PM							
6 PM							
7 PM							
8 PM							
9 PM							
10 PM							
11 PM							
12 AM							

satisfaction, procedural fairness, and the two manipulation checks (See Appendix D).

Finally, upon completion and collection of these measures, the experimenter debriefed the

group, thanked them for their participation, and dismissed them. See Figure 3 for a general

outline of the experimental procedure.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Analysis of plots of the dependent variables revealed two outliers that were

removed from subsequent analysis, thereby decreasing the sample size to 100. Prior to

conducting analyses to test the experimental hypotheses, descriptive statistics were

computed for the measured variables and intercorrelations were calculated between all

manipulated and measured variables (see Tables 1 and 2).

Manipulation Checks

The effectiveness of the voice manipulation was examined by conducting a t-test

on the perceived opportunity to voice measure. As expected, subjects in the voice

condition reported higher perceptions of opportunity to voice than those in the no-voice

condition (mean = 9.56 versus 3.21, t = -8.74, p <.001).

The effectiveness of the voice instrumentality manipulation was examined by

conducting a t-test on the perceived instrumentality of voice measure. As expected,

subjects in the high instrumentality condition reported relatively higher perceptions of

instrumentality than those in the low instrumentality condition (mean = 3.9 versus 3.2, t =

-2.12, p <.05). However, it should be noted that in an absolute sense, the participants did

not perceive their voice to be instrumental in that the mean responses were less than four

on a scale ranging from one to seven.

Figure 3: Procedure Outline

Time 1

Participants receive Packet 1

-Self-Efficacy measure

-Instruction sheet

-0-week Activity sheet

    Voice Manipulation

    Instrumentality Manipulation

    Goal-Setting Manipulation

Time 2

Receive Packet 2

-Self Esteem Scale

-Goldberg Adj. Checklist

-Locus of Control Scale

Time 3

Receive Packet 3

-Selected Activities (Overhead)

-0-week Schedule Format (Overhead)

-Task Motivation

-Outcome Satisfaction

-Procedural Fairness

-Perceived Opportunity (MC)

-Perceived Instrumentality (MC)

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Measured Variables

Variable	**M**	**SD**
1. Perceived Instrumentality	3.16	1.67
2. Perceived Opportunity	8.35	3.78
3. Voice Behavior	10.07	5.11
4. Perceived Procedural Fairness	27.00	6.54
5. Voice Self-Efficacy	36.82	6.78
6. Self-Esteem	43.47	4.53
7. Locus of Control	39.74	8.35
8. Agreeableness	133.52	16.97
9. Extraversion	110.89	22.36
10. Conscientiousness	131.64	17.79
11. Openness to Experience	134.31	15.61
12. Outcome Satisfaction	27.03	5.77
13. Task Motivation	25.30	7.10

Notes. N = 100.

Table 2

Intercorrelations between Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Voice Opportunity	--								
2. Goal-Setting	--	--							
3. Voice Instrumentality	--	--	--						
4. Perceived Inst.	.49***	-.02	.23*	--					
5. Perceived Opp.	.66***	.25*	.23*	.67***	(.82)				
6. Voice Behavior	--	.84***	.08	-.09	.21*	--			
7. Procedural Fairness	.24*	.03	.10	.56***	.39***	-.06	(.86)		
8. Voice Self-Efficacy	-.01	.21*	.06	.13	.30**	.22*	.09	(.89)	
9. Self-Esteem	.00	.03	-.10	.18	.23	-.08	.22	.36***	(.84)
10. Locus of Control	-.06	.08	.12	-.03	.12	.07	.00	.23*	.10
11. Neuroticism	.05	.06	.16	-.03	.09	.09	.04	.12	.41***
12. Agreeableness	-.15	.09	-.19	-.02	-.01	.05	.05	.20*	.35***
13. Extraversion	-.11	-.01	-.04	.09	.08	-.02	.03	.27**	.28**
14. Conscientiousness	-.07	.30**	-.27**	-.13	.00	.30**	.07	.21*	.25*
15. Openness to Exp.	.07	.11	-.17	.07	.10	.01	.08	.17	.37***
16. Outcome Satisfaction	.11	.08	.09	.38	.30	.03	.70***	.08	.08
17. Task Motivation	.09	.13	.14	.22*	.22*	.07	.05	.45***	.19

Notes. N = 100. Numbers on diagonal are internal consistency reliabilities (*, p<.05. **, p<.01. ***, p<.001).

Table 2 (continued)

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Voice Opportunity								
2. Goal-Setting								
3. Voice Instrumentality								
4. Perceived Inst.								
5. Perceived Opp.								
6. Voice Behavior								
7. Procedural Fairness								
8. Voice Self-Efficacy								
9. Self-Esteem								
10. Locus of Control	(.83)							
11. Neuroticism	.06	(.87)						
12. Agreeableness	.13	.45***	(.90)					
13. Extraversion	.26**	.03	.22*	(.92)				
14. Conscientiousness	.10	.17	.38***	-.07	(.91)			
15. Openness to Exp.	.10	.10	.19	.27**	.16	(.85)		
16. Outcome Satisfaction	.14	.10	.09	.08	.03	.06	(.85)	
17. Task Motivation	.04	.20*	.18	.25*	.19	.09	.19	(.89)

Notes. N = 100. Numbers on diagonal are internal consistency reliabilities (*, $p<.05$. **, $p<.01$. ***, $p<.001$).

Tests of Hypotheses

Action versus Opportunity. It was expected that beyond the repeatedly

demonstrated effect of opportunity to voice, that the amount of voice behavior exerted

would also significantly predict procedural fairness perceptions. Hypothesis 1 predicted

that there would be a significant main effects of a) opportunity to voice, and b) voice

behavior on perceived fairness, such that individuals given the opportunity and giving

more suggestions would perceive higher levels of procedural fairness. A one-way

ANOVA showed opportunity to voice to be a significant predictor of perceived

procedural fairness ($\underline{F}(1,98) = 6.15$, $R^2 = .06$, $\underline{p} <.05$) (see Table 3). As hypothesized (1a),

individuals given the opportunity to voice reported relatively higher perceived fairness

than those not given the opportunity to voice (mean = 27.77 compared to 23.74).

Hypothesis 1b was tested by regressing perceived fairness on voice

behavior. This hypothesis was not supported, as voice behavior did not significantly

predict procedural fairness perceptions ($\beta = -.06$, $\underline{p} > .05$). In an effort to further test the

effects of action versus opportunity, voice behavior was divided into three categories

(low, moderate, and high). Subsequently, a bar graph was plotted examining the

differences in fairness perceptions by level of voice behavior in order to compare

increasing amounts of voice behavior to the no opportunity control group (see Figure 4).

The mean of the no opportunity group was significantly different from that of the low

(mean = 23.74 compared to 28, $\underline{t} = -2.13$, $\underline{p}<.05$) and moderate (mean = 23.74 compared

to 28.11, $\underline{t} = -2.17$, $\underline{p}<.05$) voice behavior groups. The difference between the no

opportunity and high voice behavior groups approached conventional levels of significance

Table 3

ANOVA Results on Perceived Procedural Fairness

Source	SS	Df	MS	F
Opportunity for Voice	249.77	1	249.77	6.15*
Within	3982.23	98	40.64	

Notes. N = 100. R^2 = .06. p <.05. Sums of Squares (SS) are Type III SS (* p< .05).

Figure 4: Graphic analysis of the effects of opportunity to voice and voice behavior on perceived procedural fairness.
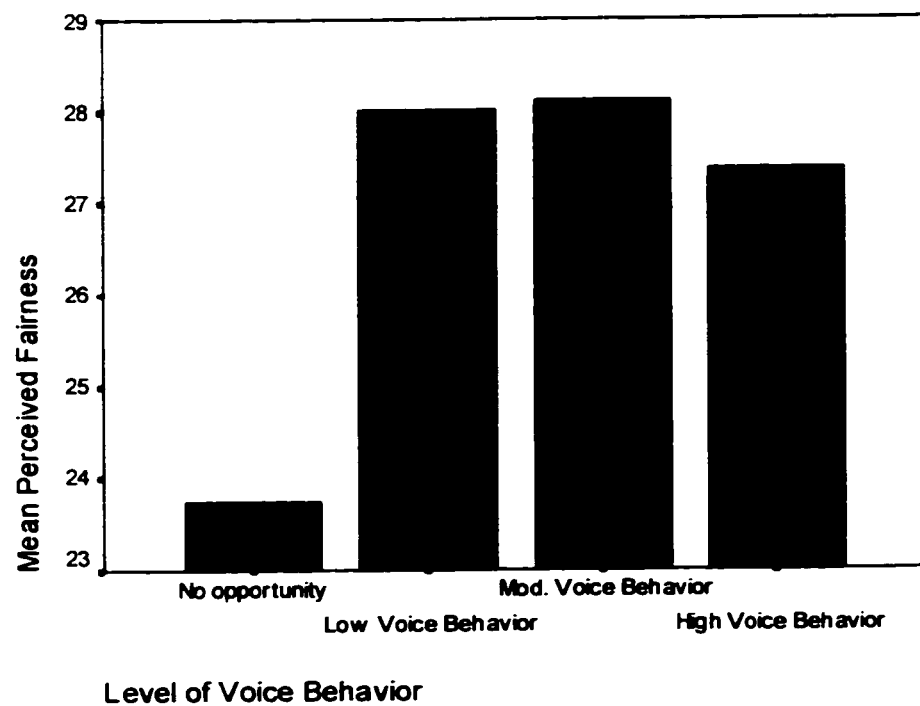
(mean = 23.74 compared to 27.38, t = -1.89, p<.07). No other mean differences between groups neared statistical significance. This provides further evidence that the effect of voice on fairness is not contingent on voice behavior.

Situational Predictors of Voice Behavior

Voice Instrumentality. Hypothesis 2 proposed that there would be a main effect of voice instrumentality on voice behavior, such that in the high instrumentality condition, individuals would exhibit more voice behavior. To test this hypothesis a t-test was conducted. Hypothesis 2 was not supported, in that the amount of voice behavior was not significantly different for the low and high instrumentality conditions (t = -.69, p >.05). However, the effect was in the predicted direction, as participants in the high instrumentality condition voiced more suggestions than those in the low instrumentality condition (10.46 to 9.68). One possible explanation for this occurrence is the lack of a strong manipulation as evidenced by the small, albeit statistically significant difference in perceived instrumentality between the high- and low-instrumentality conditions.

In addition to the manipulated and perceived instrumentality variables, a measure of actual voice instrumentality was calculated by dividing the number of novel suggestions given by each participant by the number of those suggestions included in the hand-written list presented on the overhead projector (see Figure 2). Novel suggestions were any that differed from the six commonly included activities listed on the form that was presented to each participant (see Appendix A). Correlations were calculated between the number of suggestions implemented, the percentage of suggestions implemented (both measures of actual instrumentality), and perceptions of procedural fairness. The

relationships between the two measures of instrumentality and perceived fairness were not statistically significant (r's = .11 and .01 respectively), indicating that the effect of voice on fairness was independent of actual decision-making control. Moreover, actual instrumentality did not vary by experimental condition and consequently does not appear to be a potential confound.

However, the relationship between voice opportunity and perceived fairness was mediated by perceived voice instrumentality. This relationship was tested using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Total mediation is indicated by 1) a significant correlation between the independent variable and the mediator, 2) a significant correlation between the independent and dependent variables, and 3) the significant effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is replaced by a significant effect of the mediator on the dependent variable when the effect of the mediator is controlled (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

In the present study, voice opportunity was significantly correlated with perceived voice instrumentality (r = .49, p <.001) and perceived fairness (r = .24, p <.05). Further, when the effect of perceived voice instrumentality was controlled, the effect of voice opportunity on perceived fairness was no longer significant ($F(1,97)$ = .21, p >.05). In the ANCOVA, only perceived voice instrumentality significantly predicted perceptions of procedural fairness ($F(1,97)$ = 36.54, p <.001) (See Table 4). In addition, when perceived instrumentality is controlled, the amount of variance accounted for (R- squared) increases from .06 (p < .05) to .32 (p <.001). Consequently, perceived instrumentality

Table 4

Summary of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) Assessing the Role of Instrumentality in

Predicting Perceived Procedural Fairness

Source	SS	Df	MS	F
Voice	6.18	1	6.18	.21
Perceived Voice Instrumentality	1089.68	1	1089.68	36.54***
Within	2892.55	97	29.82	

Notes. $N = 100$. $R^2 = .32$, $p < .001$. Sums of Squares (SS) are type III SS (***, $p < .001$).

completely mediated the relationship between voice opportunity and perceived procedural fairness.

Goal-Setting. Hypothesis 3 predicted that individuals who were given goals would exert more voice behavior than those who were not given goals. The results of a t-test were in support of this hypothesis, in that the participants with goals made more suggestions than those without goals (14.38 compared to 5.88, $t = -13.59$, $p < .001$).

Voice Behavior x Goals on Fairness

Hypothesis 4 predicted a significant interaction between voice behavior and goals on perceived procedural fairness. Linear regression analyses were used to test this hypothesis (see Table 5), and the results were not supportive of the proposed interaction ($\beta = -.55$, $p > .05$).

Voice Instrumentality x Goals on Voice Behavior

In addition to the main effects outlined by hypotheses 2 and 3, it was also predicted that there would be an interaction between voice instrumentality and goals on voice behavior. This hypothesis (5) was examined by conducting 2 x 2 (instrumentality x goals) ANOVA (see Table 6). The interaction between instrumentality and goals was not statistically significant ($F_{(1,77)} = .74$, $p > .05$).

Individual Difference Predictors of Voice Behavior

Big Five Personality. Hypothesis 6 predicted significant relationships between personality factors (agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and extraversion) and voice behavior. These hypotheses were tested using multiple regression (see Table 7). Voice behavior was regressed on the four hypothesized

Table 5

ANOVA Results on Voice Behavior

Source	SS	Df	MS	F
Voice Instrumentality (VI)	15.88	1	15.88	2.03
Goals (G)	1467.33	1	1467.33	187.11***
VI x G	5.81	1	5.81	.74
Within	603.84	77	7.84	

Notes. N = 100. R^2 = .71. p <.001. Sums of Squares (SS) are Type III SS (* p< .05, ** p< .01, *** p< .001).

Table 6

Summary of Test for Interaction between Voice behavior and Goals on Perceived

Procedural Fairness

Variable	$\underline{B}$	$\underline{SE\ B}$	β
Voice Behavior (VB)	-.86	.95	-.71
Goal Setting (G)	-6.85	6.84	-.55
VB x G	.31	.54	.25

Note. N = 100. R^2 = .03, p > .05.

Table 7

Summary of the Effects of Big Five Personality on Voice Behavior

Variable	B	SE B	β
Agreeableness	-.02	.04	-.09
Openness to Experience	00	.03	.01
Conscientiousness	.09	.03	.34**
Extraversion	00	.04	.00

Notes. N = 100. R^2 = .10. p =.10 (* p< .05, ** p< .01, *** p< .001).

personality factors. Hypothesis 6a postulated that there would be a significant negative

relationship between agreeableness and voice behavior. This hypothesis was not supported

(β = -.09, p > .05). Hypothesis 6b, which predicted a positive relationship between

openness to experience and voice behavior, was also not supported (β = .01, p > .05).

Conversely, hypothesis 6c was supported, in that conscientiousness significantly predicted

voice behavior (β = .34, p <.01). Extraversion did not significantly predict voice behavior

(β = .00, p > .05). Consequently, hypothesis 6d was not supported.

Core Self-Evaluations. Hypothesis 7 stated that the core self-evaluations,

self-esteem (7a) and voice self-efficacy (7b) would significantly predict voice behavior. In

addition, hypothesis 7 also predicted that locus of control would be related to voice

behavior, such that internals would voice more than externals. To test this hypothesis,

voice behavior was regressed on the self-evaluations. Although no directional effect was

hypothesized for neuroticism, it was included to examine its role in predicting voice

behavior. The results were mixed in that self-efficacy significantly predicted voice behavior

(β = .28, p <.05), but no other statistically significant effects were observed (see Table 8).

While the main effect of locus of control was not significant, it

could be the case that internals did prefer to have the opportunity to participate, but did

not necessarily perceive the need to actually participate. In order to test the plausibility of

this explanation, separate one-way ANOVAs were conducted for internals and externals

examining the effect of opportunity to voice on procedural fairness perceptions. The effect

of the opportunity to voice on fairness was not significant for externals ($F(1,49)$ = 1.50, p

>.05), but statistically significant for internals ($F(1,46)$ = 5.37, p <.05). Thus, while both

Table 8

Summary of the Effects of Core Self-Evaluations on Voice Behavior

Variable	B	SE B	β
Voice Self-Efficacy	.21	.09	.28*
Self-Esteem	-.24	.14	-.22
Locus of Control	.02	.07	.03
Neuroticism	.04	.03	.15

Notes. N = 100. R^2 = .09, p > .10 (* p< .05, ** p< .01, *** p< .001).

internals and externals report greater procedural fairness when given the opportunity to voice. the effect was only statistically significant for internals, thereby supporting this explanation.

Hypothesized Situational x Individual Interactions

Hypotheses 8 and 9 predicted interactions between the individual difference variables and the manipulated variables: voice instrumentality and goal setting. These hypotheses were tested using linear regression. An interaction term was created by multiplying the manipulated variable by the individual difference variable. The presence of an interaction was indicated by the statistical significance of this interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991). The first relationship predicted by hypothesis 8 was that agreeableness would moderate the effect of instrumentality on voice behavior. This prediction was not supported ($\beta = 1.33$, $p > .05$). It was predicted that extraversion would moderate the relationship between instrumentality and voice behavior, which was also not supported ($\beta = .41$, $p > .05$). In addition, conscientiousness, openness to experience, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and locus of control were tested for potential moderating effects on the relationship between voice instrumentality and voice behavior (see Table 9). Only one interaction produced a statistically significant effect, locus of control ($\beta = -1.91$, $p < .01$). Specifically, internals exhibited significantly more voice behavior than externals when instrumentality was low ($t = 2.84$, $p < .01$) while externals voiced more, albeit not significantly more, than internals when voice instrumentality was high ($t = 1.25$, $p = .22$) (see Figure 5).

Table 9

Summary of Tests for Interaction between Voice Instrumentality and Individual

differences on Voice behavior

Variable	β_I	β_{ID}	$\beta_{I \times ID}$	R^2
Instrumentality x Agreeableness	-1.22	-.48	1.33	.04
Instrumentality x Openness to Experience	-1.46	-.57	1.58	.04
Instrumentality x Conscientiousness	-.20	.19	.34	.11*
Instrumentality x Extraversion	-.28	-.23	.41	.01
Instrumentality x Self-Esteem	-1.34	-.53	1.45	.03
Instrumentality x Voice Self-Efficacy	.04	.21	.03	.06
Instrumentality x Locus of Control	1.57**	1.0**	-1.91**	.11*

Note. N = 100. β_I is the Beta for Instrumentality. $\beta_{I \times ID}$ is the Beta for the Individual

difference measure (* p <.05, ** p <.01, *** p <.001).

Figure 5: The interaction between voice instrumentality and locus of control on voice

behavior.

Locus of Control (Med. Split)
——— externals
········ internals

Dot/Lines show Means
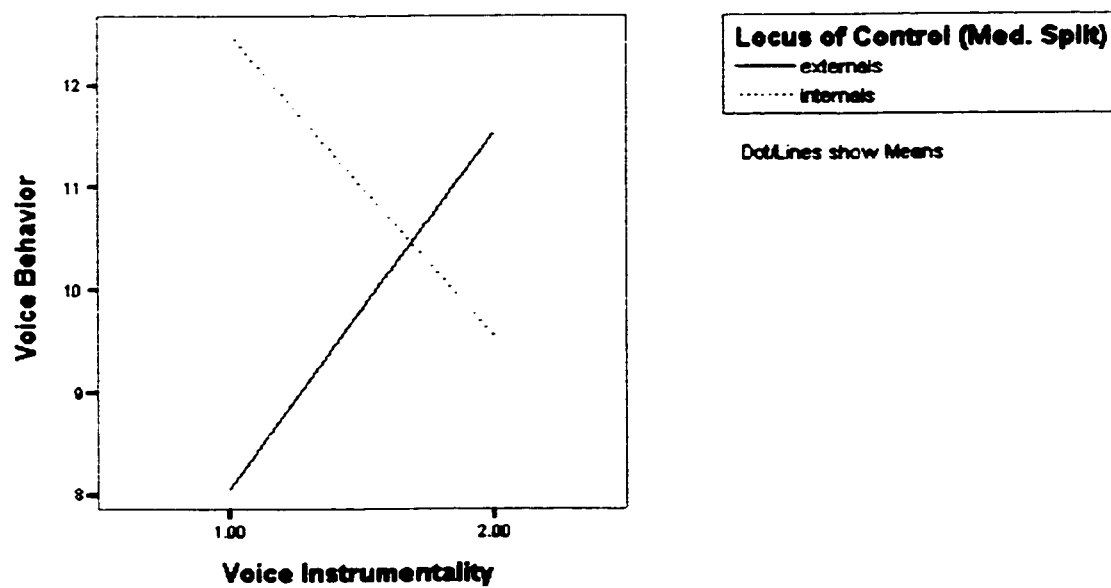
Hypothesis 9 predicted individual differences would moderate the effect of goal

setting on voice behavior. First, it was expected that extraversion would moderate the

effect of goal setting on voice behavior. This prediction was not supported by the findings

(β = -.40, p > .05). It was also expected that conscientiousness, openness to experience,

self-esteem, self-efficacy, and locus of control would each moderate the relationship

between goals and voice behavior (hypothesis 9a). Further, hypothesis 9b predicted a

significant interaction between goals and agreeableness on voice behavior. However, none

of these hypotheses were supported (see Table 10).

Effects of Perceived Procedural Fairness

Hypotheses 10 and 11 predicted relationships between perceived fairness

and outcome satisfaction and task motivation. These hypotheses were tested using linear

regression. Procedural fairness perceptions were regressed on both outcome satisfaction

and task motivation. The results were in support of hypothesis 10, in that individuals with

higher perceptions of procedural fairness were more satisfied with the activities that the

experimenter selected (β = .70, p <.001). However, hypothesis 11 was not supported as

perceived fairness did not significantly predict task motivation (β = .05, p > .05). Although

perceived fairness did not significantly predict task motivation directly, it is possible that

an indirect relationship exists through outcome satisfaction, as there was a marginally

significant relationship between outcome satisfaction and task motivation (r = .19, p =

.06).

Table 10

<u>Summary of Tests for Interaction between Goals and Individual differences on Voice</u>

<u>behavior</u>

Variable	β_G	β_{ID}	$\beta_{G \times ID}$	R^2
Goals x Agreeableness	.90	-.01	-.07	.69***
Goals x Openness to Experience	.59	-.17	.28	.70***
Goals x Conscientiousness	.91	.09	-.11	.70***
Goals x Extraversion	1.17***	.20	-.40	.70***
Goals x Self-Esteem	.65	-.17	.21	.71***
Goals x Voice Self-Efficacy	1.2**	.23	-.45	.71***
Goals x Locus of Control	.68*	-.09	.19	.70***

<u>Note</u>. N = 100. β_I is the Beta for Goals. $\beta_{I \times ID}$ is the Beta for the Individual difference measure (* p <.05, ** p <.01, *** p <.001).

Discussion

Action versus Opportunity

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether the increase in

perceived fairness associated with the provision of voice is due to the opportunity, or an

individual's response to that opportunity. This distinction, while mentioned in several

studies, had yet to be empirically tested. The results of the present study suggest that

opportunity alone is sufficient for increasing perceptions of procedural fairness, as the

effect of opportunity to voice was significant while the effect of voice behavior on

perceived procedural fairness was not (see Figure 4). The finding of a significant effect of

opportunity echoes that of numerous studies illustrating the beneficial outcomes

associated with providing the opportunity for individuals to state their opinions (Folger &

Cropanzano, 1998).

In addition, the effect of voice opportunity on fairness was found to be

independent of actual decision-making control. However, perceived voice instrumentality

completely mediated the relationship between opportunity to voice and perceived fairness.

This suggests that perceived, not actual, voice instrumentality influences individuals

perceptions of fairness further illustrating the importance of studying perceptions. This

result is supportive of the instrumental theory of voice, which suggests that individuals

value the opportunity for voice because they feel it allows them to influence decision

outcomes (for a complete review, see Lind & Tyler, 1988). Such a finding is in stark

contrast to those of Tyler (1994) who found that relational, not instrumental, concerns

shape assessments of procedural fairness. Tyler's work was preceded and has been

followed by studies finding support for both instrumental and relational concerns with regard to procedural fairness perceptions (e.g. Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996). Consequently, further research is necessary to clarify the conditions that lead to instrumental and relational effects on perceived fairness.

The failure to observe a significant relationship between the amount of voice an individual exerts and his/her perceptions of procedural fairness suggests that voice effects are not contingent on actual employee input, but merely the availability of the opportunity to state one's concerns.

The logic behind the hypothesis that voice behavior would affect perceived fairness was that the more an individual vents, regarding his/her likes and dislikes, the fairer s/he should perceive the situation. Though this hypothesis was not confirmed in the present study, there are potential explanations for the failure to detect a significant relationship. The first involves the experimental setting in which the task took place. It could be that the participants had little/no personal stake in the experiment, and as a result, had no frustrations to vent. While the selection of a task believed to be meaningful to undergraduates was a direct attempt to prevent such a case, this remains a viable explanation. Another possible explanation is that the opportunity to voice alone is enough to produce perceptions of a procedurally fair environment.

Although the magnitude of voice behavior was not found to predict perceptions of procedural fairness, voice behavior is important for other reasons. Organizations can often gain valuable insight from the suggestions/complaints of their employees. In fact, previous research has identified employee input as an important component of successful

organizations (Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, & Roth, 1992). Consequently, the contribution of the second part of the present study, the assessment of possible predictors of voice behavior, remains a valuable one.

Situational Predictors of Voice Behavior

A second purpose of the present study was to extend previous findings regarding predictors of who will voice. Several situational and individual difference variables were examined to assess their role in the prediction of voice behavior. The results revealed that both situational variables (goal setting) and individual differences (conscientiousness and voice self-efficacy) predicted voice behavior.

The relationship between voice instrumentality and voice behavior, although not statistically significant, was in the hypothesized direction. It was expected that when told that their input would be used, individuals would give more suggestions than when they were told that their suggestions would not influence the experimenter's decision, which was indeed the case. One possible explanation for the failure to obtain a significant effect lies within the wording of the voice instrumentality manipulation. Participants in the low instrumentality condition were told that although their suggestions would not influence the experimenter's decision, that the experimenter was interested in their input. This expressed interest in their opinions is the foundation of the relational theory of voice (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

This theory suggests that individuals value the opportunity to voice because it conveys that their superiors value their opinions. Consequently, the opportunity to voice is indicative of respected status. With regard to the present study, the participants in the low

instrumentality condition may have voiced more than was expected because they were told that their views were important to the experimenter. A stronger manipulation would have involved participants in the low instrumentality condition being told simply that their opinions would not be used.

The strongest predictor of voice behavior in the present study was the effect of goal setting. When presented with specific goals for the number of suggestions to be given, individuals provided more significantly more suggestions (voice behavior) than when no goal was specified. In fact, goal setting alone accounted for 70% of the variance in voice behavior. Although several studies have illustrated the impact of goal setting on behavior (for a review, see Locke & Latham, 1990), no previous study has examined the effect of goal setting on voice behavior. In addition, the results hold tremendous practical value. For those organizations desiring to attain employee input, it appears as though specifying a goal for input is a potential means to that end. Further, the provision of goals for input does not appear to affect individual's perceptions of procedural fairness (see Figure 6). This conclusion was further supported by the non-significant correlation between the two variables (see Table 2). This finding is important as it could be expected that having goals for voice behavior would diminish the effect of the opportunity for voice on fairness perceptions.

These findings suggest that setting goals for input quantity is an excellent method of obtaining employee voice. When goals are given, the effect of perceived instrumentality on voice behavior disappears. Consequently, organizations need not concern themselves with conveying messages regarding the instrumentality of employees' suggestions. By

Figure 6: The relationship between goals for voice behavior and perceived procedural
fairness.
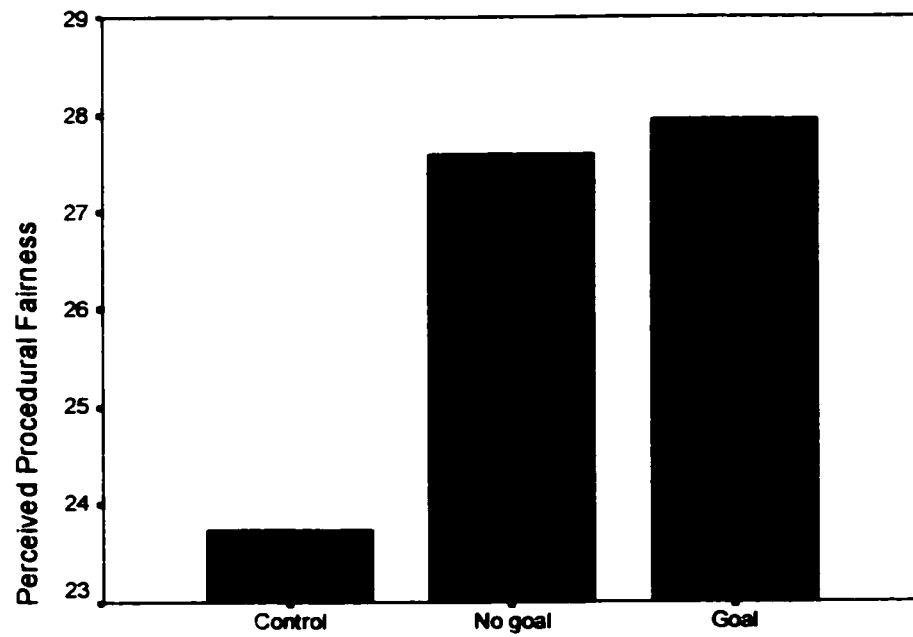
stipulating specific goals regarding desired contributions, organizations can attain

employee input and begin to maximize the effects of their intellectual capital.

Individual Difference Predictors of Voice Behavior

While it is important to understand the environmental elements that contribute to

employee input, it is equally important to identify individual characteristics that predict

those individuals most likely to contribute information. Consequently, the big five and core

self-evaluations were examined as potential predictors of voice behavior. With regard to

the big five, only one factor emerged as a significant predictor of voice behavior,

conscientiousness. Conscientious individuals are, by definition, reliable and dependable

(Costa & McCrae, 1992). Therefore it should come as no surprise that, when asked to

provide input, individuals higher in conscientiousness exhibited more voice behavior than

those lower in conscientiousness. Previous research has illustrated that conscientious

employees are more likely to set higher goals, work harder toward those goals (Barrick,

Mount, & Strauss, 1993), turnover less, and engage in fewer undesirable behaviors

(Tokar, Fischer, & Subich, 1998). The findings of the present study suggest that, in

addition to these findings, they are also more likely to voice.

With respect to the other three factors hypothesized to predict voice behavior,

there are several possible explanations for the failure to obtain significant relationships.

For example, it was predicted that there would be a negative correlation between

agreeableness and voice behavior due to the typical confrontational nature of voice

behavior. However, in the present study, participants' voice behavior was anonymous, and

therefore non-confrontational. Further, due to the fact that the participants were asked for

their input, it could have been predicted that agreeableness would positively correlate with voice behavior. Therefore, the failure to detect a significant relationship between agreeableness and voice behavior is explainable.

Similarly, openness to experience was also not significantly correlated with voice behavior. Previous research has shown openness to be related to creativity (i.e., Griffin & Murray, 1998). Consequently, it was expected that individuals high in openness would have more creative ideas and therefore provide more suggestions. However, this logic makes a faulty assumption. For, even if individuals high in openness do have more ideas than their low openness counterparts, that in no way translates to them providing more of those suggestions when solicited for input. Another possible explanation is that individuals high in openness, also referred to as intellect, may not want to report ideas that they do not feel are novel or intellectual. Consequently, they may actually under-report their ideas in an attempt to provide only insightful ideas while individuals lower in openness report many, or even all of their ideas. This notion represents an empirical question and could be a focus for future research.

The last factor of individual personality hypothesized to predict voice behavior was extroversion. Specifically, it was believed that due to their outgoing, vocal nature, extroverts would engage in more voice behavior than would introverts. The results failed to support this hypothesis, as the correlation between extroversion and voice behavior was almost nonexistent. However, the opportunity for voice in this experiment was written, not vocal. Based on this, one reason why extroversion did not correlate with voice behavior becomes apparent. Perhaps if this study were repeated allowing the participants

to actually vocalize their suggestions, extroversion might emerge as a significant predictor of voice behavior.

In addition to the characteristics of individual personalities, it was also expected that the manner in which people perceive themselves would predict responses to the opportunity to provide input. Self-esteem, voice self-efficacy, and locus of control were all believed to contribute to the prediction of voice behavior. Although previous research has found marginal significance for the role of self-esteem in predicting voice behavior (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998), it was previously stated that voice self-efficacy appears to be a more appropriate construct for attempting to predict voice behavior. This was indeed the case in the present study as voice self-efficacy was significantly correlated with the participants' voice behavior while self-esteem was not. Lepine and Van Dyne themselves seem to suggest the likely utility of self-efficacy as they state that, "it is probable that those who possess more knowledge and confidence will be more likely to engage in voice (1998; p. 864)." Thus, while they investigated the predictive nature of self-esteem, their logic supports the use of self-efficacy in predicting voice behavior.

Furthermore, it is important to note that there was not much variance in self-esteem among the participants (range = 21, SD = 4.53). Most of the participants reported moderate levels of self-esteem (the mean item-response was four on a Likert-type scale with values ranging between 1 and 7). Assuming that this range restriction is representative of the student population in general, it further advocates the use of voice self-efficacy which captures more variance among participants and significantly predicts voice behavior.

Another of Judge et al.'s (1997) core self-evaluations, locus of control, was also

hypothesized to predict voice behavior. Previous research findings suggest that internals

prefer more participative managerial styles than externals (i.e., Brownell, 1982; Ruble,

1976; Runyon, 1973). Based on these findings, internals were expected to engage in more

voice behavior than externals. However, although locus of control did not significantly

predict voice behavior, the results did show that the relationship between voice and

procedural fairness perceptions is stronger for internals. This finding suggests that

organizations' provision of the opportunity to voice is more likely to produce perceptions

of fairness for employees with an internal locus of control.

Situational x Individual Interactions

While it was predicted that each of the discussed individual difference variables

would moderate the relationships between goals and voice behavior and instrumentality

and voice behavior, only one such significant interaction was found. Locus of control

moderated the relationship between voice instrumentality and voice behavior. For

internally oriented individuals, low instrumentality produced more voice behavior, while

externals voiced more in conditions of high instrumentality (see Figure 2). It is clear as to

why internals would be expected to engage in more voice behavior than externals when

instrumentality is low. Internals possess the belief that they are personally responsible for

the things that happen to them (Kren, 1992). Thus, even when told that their input will not

affect the experimenter's decision, they still believe that they can affect the outcome and

consequently exhibit more voice. Externals, on the other hand, believe that their fate is not

within their personal control. Telling them that their input will not affect the

experimenter's decision is therefore confirming their belief that they are powerless. As a result, they yield fewer suggestions because they view the provision of input as pointless.

The finding that externals give more input than internals when voice instrumentality is high is not in and of itself surprising. When told that their input would be used, externals received disconfirming information regarding their ability to influence outcomes. Consequently, they are more willing to provide input when they believe that their input will be of use in producing their desired outcome. What is perplexing, however, is that internals actually provide fewer suggestions when voice instrumentality is high than when it is low. One would expect a slight increase in the, or at least the same, number of suggestions as voice instrumentality increases. Further research is necessary to explain this occurrence.

Consequences of Procedural Fairness

In the present study, the finding that the provision of the opportunity for participants to voice leads to increased perceptions of procedural fairness was replicated. Perceived fairness was in-turn expected to correlate with the participants' outcome satisfaction and task motivation. As predicted, the correlation between fairness and satisfaction was statistically significant. The observance of this significant correlation replicates the consistent finding that procedural fairness is related to satisfaction (Avery & Quinones, 1999; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1996; Roberson, Moye, & Locke, 1999). The rationale behind the relationship between fairness and satisfaction is straightforward. Individuals are more likely to be satisfied with the outcome of a decision when they believe that the procedures used to make the decision were fair.

While it was expected that similar logic would also apply to the fairness-motivation link, task motivation was not related to perceived fairness. One possible explanation for the failure to support this hypothesis is that the measure of task motivation measured the participants' intentions regarding a task they were led to believe that they were about to perform. Ajzen (1991) states that, "when behaviors pose no serious problems of control, they can be predicted from intentions with considerable accuracy (p. 186)." However, perhaps in the present study, the participants' behavioral intentions are not representative of what their behavior would have been had they actually performed the task of designing O-week. Further, it is likely that in addition to fairness, several other factors, not assessed in the present study, contribute to individuals' motivation to perform a task.

While the failure to observe a direct relationship between fairness and motivation was somewhat discouraging, the nearly significant relationship between outcome satisfaction and task motivation suggests a route for a possible indirect effect. Perhaps through its effect on outcome satisfaction, perceived fairness does contribute to task motivation.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although this study had several strengths (random assignment of participants to experimental conditions, fairly large sample size, novel measurement of voice behavior), it also had several limitations. It was decided that in order to manipulate goals and voice instrumentality, a laboratory setting would be optimal. However, by using undergraduates instead of actual employees, some degree of generalizability of the results may have been sacrificed in the process. Further, the task employed may not have elicited enough

personal investment on the part of the participants, thereby diminishing the hypothesized effect of voice behavior on perceived fairness. Subsequent researchers might consider the use of deception or a more controversial task to increase the participants' involvement in a lab setting. Conversely, a field test of the hypotheses outlined in this study could also be a focus for future studies. In addition, the measure of task motivation measured intentions that may or may not actually translate into behavior. Therefore, caution should be exercised in attempting to draw conclusions regarding the true relationship between task motivation and procedural fairness.

An interesting finding in this study was that while perceived opportunity is significantly correlated with voice behavior, it only explains five percent of its variance. Thus, as suggested by Saunders et al. (1992), the provision of the opportunity to voice does not ensure that an organization will receive the input of its employees. This illustrates the need for increased understanding of the antecedents of voice behavior. Despite the large amount of variance in voice behavior explained by the variables included in this study, other theoretically relevant antecedents should be examined.

In addition, further research is needed to understand why individuals value voice. It has been repeatedly demonstrated that both instrumental and relational concerns are involved in voice effects (cf. Folger & Cropanzano, 1998), but the factors that precipitate each, remain unknown. One focus of research could be to examine the role of individual differences such as locus of control or personality in predicting instrumental or relational effects of voice.

Conclusions

The findings reported in this study have provided several contributions to the existing literature through both statistically significant and non-significant findings. First, it appears as though the provision of the opportunity for voice, and not voice behavior or some combination of the two, is responsible for increasing perceptions of procedural fairness. To date, no published study has reported empirical tests of this distinction.

A second major contribution is the discovery of the significant main effects of goals, conscientiousness, voice self-efficacy and the interaction between voice instrumentality and locus of control in predicting voice behavior. These are novel predictors that provide several practical implications for organizations. For instance, if organizations wish to efficiently attain employee input, they should 1) provide employees with goals for input, 2) effectively train employees (in order to increase their voice self-efficacy), and 3) assess employees' locus of control, and where possible match internals with low voice instrumentality and externals with high voice instrumentality.

A third contribution is the use of a new method for measuring voice behavior. The measurement of voice behavior has been an issue in voice behavior research for the past 20 years (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998). Traditionally, researchers have used self-report or second-hand sources (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998) or measures of intentions to voice (Jansssen, Vries, & Cozijnsen, 1998; Saunders, Sheppard, Roth, & Knight, 1992) rather than actual voice behavior. Conversely, the present study operationalized voice as the number of suggestions given by each participant. Consequently, the two shortcomings of previous research attempting to predict voice

behavior, focusing on a single antecedent and using measures of voice behavior with questionable construct validity (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998), were addressed in the present study.

As organizations continue to strive for competitive advantages, one means of achieving such, is to take full advantage of the resources of those individuals employed by the company (Pfeffer, 1998). Employees can generate new and innovative ideas as well as determine methods of improving or eliminating existing problems. In addition, the provision of the opportunity to provide input is likely to increase employees' perceptions of organizational fairness and consequently, their satisfaction with the outcomes of organizational decisions. However, this model necessitates that researchers discover the optimal means of soliciting employee input. The present study, in conjunction with the previous research examining predictors of voice, is the first of what will hopefully be many steps toward this end.

References

Aiken, L. & West, S. (1991). Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, 50, 179-211.

Allen, R., Lucero, M., & Van Norman, K. (1997). An examination of the individual's decision to participate in an employee involvement program. Group & Organization Management, 22, 117-143.

Avery, D. & Quinones, M. (1999). Moderators and mediators of the voice effect: Value of voice and procedural fairness. An unpublished manuscript.

Bandura, A. (1986). Social Cognitive Theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control. New York: W.H. Freeman & Co.

Barrick, M., Mount, M., & Strauss, J. (1993). Conscientiousness and performance of sales representatives: Test of mediating effects of goal setting. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 715-722.

Baron, R. & Kenny, D. (1986). The moderator-mediator distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 51, 1173-1182.

Bartle, S. & Hayes, B. (1999). Organizational justice and work outcomes: A meta-analysis. Presented at the 14th annual Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology conference, Atlanta, Ga.

Bezjak, J. & Lee, J. (1990). Relationship of self-efficacy and locus of control constructs in predicting college students' physical fitness behaviors. Perceptual & Motor Skills, 71, 499-508.

Brockner. J., Heuer, L., Siegel, P., Wiesenfeld, B., Martin, C., Grover, S., Reed, T., & Bjorgvinsson, S. (1998). The moderating effect of self-esteem in reaction to voice: Converging evidence from five studies. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 75, 394-407.

Brownell, P. (1982). The effects of personality-situation congruence in a managerial context: Locus of control and budgetary participation. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 42, 753-763.

Cawley, B., Keeping, L., & Levy, P. (1998). Participation in the performance appraisal process and employee reactions: A meta-analytic review of field investigations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 615-633.

Costa, P. & McCrae, R. (1992). For ways five factors are basic. Personality & Individual Differences, 13, 653-665.

Costa. P., McCrae, R., & Dembroski, T. (1989). Agreeableness versus antagonism: Explication of a potential risk factor for CHD. In A. Siegman & T. M. Dembroski (Eds.), In Search of Coronary-Prone Behavior: 41-63. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dailey, R. & Kirk, D. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as antecedents of job dissatisfaction and intent to turnover. Human Relations, 45, 305-317.

Davison, G. & Neale, J. (1996). Abnormal Psychology. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Earley, P. & Lind, E. (1987). Procedural justice and participation in task selection: The role of control in mediating justice judgments. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 52, 1148-1160.

Farrell, D. & Rusbult, C. (1992). Exploring the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect typology: the influence of job satisfaction, quality of alternatives, and investment size. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 5, 201-218.

Farrell, D., Rusbult, C., Lin, Y., & Bernthal, P. (1990). Impact of job satisfaction, investment size, and quality of alternatives on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses to job dissatisfaction: A cross-lagged panel study. In L. R. Jauch & J. L. Wall (Eds.), Best Papers Proceedings of the Fiftieth Academy of Management, 211-215. San Francisco: Academy of Management.

Feist, G. (1998). A meta-analysis of personality in scientific and artistic creativity. Personality & Social Psychology Review, 2, 290-309.

Folger, R. (1977). Distributive and procedural justice: Combined impact of "voice" and improvement on experienced inequality. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 108-119.

Folger, R. (1993). Justice, motivation, and performance beyond role requirements. Employee Responsibilities & Rights Journal, 6, 239-248.

Folger. R. & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Organizational Justice and Human Resource Management. London: Sage Publications.

Frey, R. (1991). Empowerment or else. Harvard Business Review, September-October. 80-94.

Gilliland. S. & Beckstein, B. (1996). Procedural and distributive justice in the editorial review process. Personnel Psychology, 49, 669-691.

Goldberg, L. (1992). The development of markers for the big-five factor structure. Psychological Assessment, 4, 26-42.

Goldberg, L. (1995). What the hell took so long? Donald W. Fiske and the Big-Five factor structure. Pp. 29-43 In Shrout, P. & Fiske, S. (Eds.), Personality research, methods, and theory: A festschrift honoring Donald W. Fiske. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. Journal of Management, 16, 399-432.

Griffin. M. & McDermott, M. (1998). Exploring a tripartite relationship between rebelliousness, openness to experience and creativity. Social Behavior & Personality, 26, 347-356.

Hackman. J. & Oldham, G. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 159-170.

Harter, S. (1990). Causes, correlates, and the functional role of global self-worth: A life-span perspective. In R. Sternberg & J. Kolligan, Jr. (Eds.), Competence Considered (pp. 67-97). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Hattrup, K. & Jackson, S. (1996). Learning about individual differences by taking situations seriously. In K. Murphy (Ed.), Individual differences and behavior in organizations (pp. 507-547). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hirschman, A. (1970). Exit, Voice, and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations, and States. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hunton, J. & Beeler, J. (1997). Effects of user participation in systems development: A longitudinal field experiment. MIS Quarterly, 21, 359-388.

Hunton, J., Hall, T., & Price, K. (1998). The value of voice in participative decision making. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 788-797.

Janssen, O., de Vries, T., & Cozijnsen, A. (1998). Voicing by adapting and innovating employees: An empirical study on how personality and environment interact to affect voice behavior. Human Relations, 51, 945-967.

Johnson, G. & McGill, G. (1988). An abbreviated locus of control measurement scale. Working paper, University of Houston.

Judge, T., Locke, E., & Durham, C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. Research in Organizational Behavior, 19, 151-188.

Judge, T., Locke, E., Durham, C., & Kluger, A. (1998). Dispositional effects of job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 17-34.

Kanfer, R. Sawyer, J., Earley, P.. & Lind, E. (1987). Participation in task evaluation procedures: The effects of influential opinion expression and knowledge of evaluative criteria on attitudes and performance. Social Justice Research, 1, 235-249.

Kanfer, R. (1990). Motivation theory and industrial/organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (2nd ed., Vol. 1, p.75-170). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Kren, L. (1992). The moderating effects of locus of control on performance incentives and participation. Human Relations, 9, 991-1012.

Korsgaard, M. & Roberson, L. (1995). Procedural justice in performance evaluation: The role of instrumental and non-instrumental voice in performance appraisal discussions. Journal of Management, 21, 657-669.

Lawler, E. (1975). Pay, participation, and organizational change. In E. L. Cass & F. G. Zinner (Eds.), Man and Work in Society. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Lee, C. (1995). Prosocial organization behaviors: The role of workplace justice, achievement striving, and pay satisfaction. Journal of Business & Psychology, 10, 197-206.

Lepine, J. & Van Dyne, L. (1998). Predicting voice behavior in work groups. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 853-868.

Leung, K. & Li, W. (1990). Psychological mechanisms of process-control effects. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 613-620.

Lind, E., Kanfer, R., & Earley, P. (1990). Voice, control, and procedural justice: Instrumental and noninstrumental concerns in fairness judgments. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 59, 952-959.

Lind, E. & Tyler, T. (1988). The Social Psychology of Procedural Justice. New York: Plenum.

Litt, M. (1988). Cognitive mediators of stressful experience: Self-efficacy and perceived control. Cognitive Therapy & Research, 12, 241-260.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. (1990). A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Lowe, R. & Vodanovich, S. (1995). A field study of distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction and organizational commitment. Journal of Business & Psychology, 10, 99- 114.

Martin, J., Martin, B., & Grbac, B. (1998). Employee involvement and market orientation in a transition economy: Importance, problems and a solution. Journal of Managerial Issues, 10, 485-502.

Maurer, T. & Pierce, H. (1998). A comparison of Likert scale and traditional measures of self-efficacy. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 324-329.

McCrae, R. & Costa, P. (1985). Updating Normans's "adequate taxonomy": Intelligence and personality dimensions in natural language and questionnaires. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 49, 710-721.

McFarlin, D. & Sweeney, P. (1996). Does having a say matter only if you get your way? Instrumental and value-expressive effects of employee voice. Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 18, 289-303.

Mento, A., Steel, R., & Karren, R. (1987). A meta-analytic study of the effects of goal setting on task performance: 1966-1984. Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, 39, 52-83.

Mia, L. (1987). Participation in budgetary decision-making, task difficulty, locus of control, and employee behavior: An empirical study. Decision Sciences, 18, 547-561.

Moberg, P. (1998). Predicting conflict strategy with personality traits: Incremental validity and the five-factor model. International Journal of Conflict Management, 9, 258-285.

Mossholder, K., Bennett, N., & Martin, C. (1998). A multilevel analysis of procedural justice context. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19, 131-141.

Noe, R. & Wilk, S. (1993). Investigation of the factors that influence employees' participation in development activities. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 291-302.

Pennebaker, J. (1990). Opening Up: The Healing Power of Confiding in Others. New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc.

Peterson, R. (1999). Can you have too much of a good thing? The limits of voice for improving satisfaction with leaders. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25, 313-324.

Pfeffer, J. (1998). The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Roberson, Q., Moye, N., & Locke, E. (1999). Identifying a missing link between participation and satisfaction: The mediating role of procedural justice perceptions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 84, 585-593.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the Adolescent Self-Image. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rotter, J. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80, (1 whole No. 609).

Ruble, T. (1976). Effects of one's locus of control and the opportunity to participate in planning. Organizational Behavior & Human Performance, 16, 63-73.

Runyon, K. (1973). Some interactions between personality variables and management styles. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57, 288-294.

Rusbult, C., Farrell, D., Rogers, G., & Mainous, A. (1988). Impact of exchange variables on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: An integrative model of responses to declining job satisfaction. Academy of Management Journal, 31, 599-627.

Saunders, D., Sheppard, B., Knight, V., & Roth, J. (1992). Employee voice to supervisors. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 5, 241-259.

Schaubboeck, J. & Merritt, D. (1997). Divergent effects of job control on coping with work stressors: The key role of self-efficacy. Academy of Management Journal, 40, 738-754.

Shapiro, D. (1993). Reconciling theoretical differences among procedural justice research by re-evaluating what it means to have one's views considered": Implications for

third party managers. Pp. 51-78 in R. Cropanzano (Ed.), Justice in the Workplace: Approaching Fairness in Human Resource Management. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Skarlicki, D., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the relationship between fairness and retaliation. Academy of Management Journal, 42, 100-108.

Spector, P. (1990). Perceived control by employees: A meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work. Human Relations, 39, 1005-1016.

Steers. R. & Porter, L. (1991). Motivation and Work Behavior (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tavris, C. (1989). Anger: The Misunderstood Emotion. New York: Touchstone Books.

Thibaut, J. & Walker, L. (1975). Procedural Justice: A Psychological Analysis. Hillsdale. NJ: Erlbaum.

Thibaut, J. & Walker, L. (1978). A theory of procedure. California Law Review, 66, 541-566.

Tjosvold, D. (1998). Making employee involvement work: Cooperative goals and controversy to reduce costs. Human Relations, 51, 201-214.

Tokar, D, Fischer, A., & Subich, M. (1998). Personality and vocational behavior: A selective review of the literature, 1993-1997. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 53, 115-153.

Tubbs, M. (1986). Goal setting: A meta-analytic examination of the empirical evidence. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 474-483.

Tyler. T. (1987). Conditions leading to value expressive effects in judgments of procedural justice: A test of four models. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52, 333-344.

Tyler. T. (1994). Psychological models of the justice motive: Antecedents of distributive and procedural justice. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 67, 850-863.

Tyler. T. & Folger, R. (1980). Distributional and procedural aspects of satisfaction with citizen-police encounters. Basic & Applied Social Psychology, 1, 281-292.

Tyler, T., Rasinski, K., & Spodick, N. (1985). Influence of voice on satisfaction with leaders: Exploring the meaning of process control. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48, 72-81.

Vroom. V. (1964). Work and Motivation. New York: Wiley.

Wagner, J., Leana, C., Locke, E., & Schweiger, D. (1997). Cognitive and motivational frameworks in U.S. research on participation: a meta-analysis of primary effects. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18, 49-65.

Witt. L. & Broach, D. (1991). Exchange ideology as a moderator of the procedural justice-satisfaction relationship. Journal of Social Psychology, 133, 97-103.

Wooten, K., Timmerman, T., & Folger, R. (1999). The use of personality and the five-factor model to predict new business venture: From outplacement to start-up. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54, 82-101.

Wordnet [World wide website]. (1999).

Wright, J. & Mischel, W. (1987). A conditional approach to dispositional

constructs: The local predictability of social behavior. <u>Journal of Personality & Social</u>

<u>Psychology, 53,</u> 1159-1177.

Appendix A

Introduction and Self-Efficacy Measure

"Welcome to Rice" Study

In this study, we aim to assess your feelings regarding orientation week here at Rice. During the last few years, orientation week, known at Rice as O-week, has been the topic of a great deal of debate. While some individuals find it to be an extremely rewarding experience filled with material that is essential to an incoming student's survival, others have found it to be significantly less rewarding. Consequently, the present study will present participants with the opportunity to suggest activities that they feel would create an efficient, but effective O-week.

The task in this study will involve participants providing meaningful suggestions regarding activities that should be incorporated in O-week.

Please give us your candid reactions to the following items. Your responses will be anonymous and the only right answer is an accurate reflection of your opinion. Please go through this survey one page at a time. Be sure that you have completed all the items on a page before turning to the next page, and once you have moved on please do not return to a page. Please write your subject number on every form in the allotted space.

Subject Number_____

Using the scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by writing the number that corresponds with your position in the blank provided. Thus, if you strongly disagree with a statement you should write the number "1" in the blank.

1 = **Strongly Disagree**
2 = **Disagree**
3 = **Somewhat disagree**
4 = **Neither agree nor disagree**
5 = **Somewhat agree**
6 = **Agree**
7 = **Strongly Agree**

_____ 1. I feel confident in my ability to perform this task effectively.

_____ 2. I think I can performance this task well.

_____ 3. I feel strongly that I can devise an agenda for O-week here at Rice.

_____ 4. I don't feel that I am as capable of performing this task as other people.

_____ 5. On the average, other people are probable much more capable of performing this task as I am.

_____ 6. I am not confident that I can perform this task effectively.

_____ 7. I doubt that my performance will be very adequate on this task.

_____ 8. Having the right to express myself means a lot to me.

_____ 9. I need to be able to state my feelings on how to make tasks better.

_____ 10. In general, I prefer to speak up rather than remain quiet.

_____ 11. Voicing my opinion is important to me.

_____ 12. I like to provide input for improving tasks.

_____ 13. I value the opportunity to speak my mind about how things should be done.

Appendix B

Experimental Manipulations

O-Week

(Control Group/ No voice Condition)

Recently, orientation week here at Rice has become a hot issue. While some students have been very pleased with the format, others have voiced their displeasure. Consequently, this study will attempt to assess the opinions of a representative sample of Rice students regarding Orientation week. Here are a few of the things that commonly take place during O-week.

1) Academic advising.

2) Campus scavenger hunts.

3) Practical Jokes (jacks) aimed at other residential colleges.

4) Water games.

5) Ice breakers to get to know new classmates.

6) Houston Familiarization outings.

Assume that you are now a part of a committee whose initiative is to redesign O-week. However, during the course of normal committee activities it is sometimes the case that opportunities for a person to be involved in the design of his or her work may exist, but not everyone is given this chance. During the course of this experiment you may or may not receive such opportunities depending on your experimental condition. As you respond to the various questionnaires, try to imagine yourself in an actual job situation (i.e., a student on a committee) and keep in mind any opportunities you might or might not be provided. Later in this experiment, you will be designing an agenda for O-week.

O-Week

(Specified goal, High Instrumentality Condition)

Recently, orientation week here at Rice has become a hot issue. While some students have been very pleased with the format, others have voiced their displeasure. Consequently, this study will attempt to assess the opinions of a representative sample of Rice students regarding Orientation week. Here are a few of the things that commonly take place during O-week.

1) Academic advising.

2) Campus scavenger hunts.

3) Practical Jokes (jacks) aimed at other residential colleges.

4) Water games.

5) Ice breakers to get to know new classmates.

6) Houston Familiarization outings.

Assume that you are now a part of a committee whose initiative is to redesign O-week. However, during the course of normal committee activities it is sometimes the case that opportunities for a person to be involved in the design of his or her work may exist, but not everyone is given this chance. During the course of this experiment you may or may not receive such opportunities depending on your experimental condition. As you respond to the various questionnaires, try to imagine yourself in an actual job situation (i.e., a professor on a committee) and keep in mind any opportunities you might or might not be provided.

Later in this experiment, you will be designing an agenda for O-week. Please suggest at least 15 activities that you would like to see included in the components to be used to plan O-week. We intend to use your suggestions in the selection of the activities to be included in the O-week you will design.

O-Week

(Specified goal, Low Instrumentality Condition)

Recently, orientation week here at Rice has become a hot issue. While some students have been very pleased with the format, others have voiced their displeasure. Consequently, this study will attempt to assess the opinions of a representative sample of Rice students regarding Orientation week. Here are a few of the things that commonly take place during O-week.

1) Academic advising.

2) Campus scavenger hunts.

3) Practical Jokes (jacks) aimed at other residential colleges.

4) Water games.

5) Ice breakers to get to know new classmates.

6) Houston Familiarization outings.

Assume that you are now a part of a committee whose initiative is to redesign O-week. However, during the course of normal committee activities it is sometimes the case that opportunities for a person to be involved in the design of his or her work may exist, but not everyone is given this chance. During the course of this experiment you may or may not receive such opportunities depending on your experimental condition. As you respond to the various questionnaires, try to imagine yourself in an actual job situation (i.e., a professor on a committee) and keep in mind any opportunities you might or might not be provided.

Later in this experiment, you will be designing an agenda for O-week. Please suggest at least 15 activities that you would like to see included in the components to be used to plan O-week. Although your input will not influence the activities that we select for you to use in designing O-week, we are interested in your input.

O-Week

(No goal, High Instrumentality Condition)

Recently, orientation week here at Rice has become a hot issue. While some students have been very pleased with the format, others have voiced their displeasure. Consequently, this study will attempt to assess the opinions of a representative sample of Rice students regarding Orientation week. Here are a few of the things that commonly take place during O-week.

1) Academic advising.

2) Campus scavenger hunts.

3) Practical Jokes (jacks) aimed at other residential colleges.

4) Water games.

5) Ice breakers to get to know new classmates.

6) Houston Familiarization outings.

Assume that you are now a part of a committee whose initiative is to redesign O-week. However, during the course of normal committee activities it is sometimes the case that opportunities for a person to be involved in the design of his or her work may exist, but not everyone is given this chance. During the course of this experiment you may or may not receive such opportunities depending on your experimental condition. As you respond to the various questionnaires, try to imagine yourself in an actual job situation (i.e., a professor on a committee) and keep in mind any opportunities you might or might not be provided.

Later in this experiment, you will be designing an agenda for O-week. Later in this experiment, you will be designing an agenda for O-week. Please suggest any activities that you would like to see included in the components to be used to plan O-week. We intend to use your suggestions in the selection of the activities to be included in the O-week you will design.

O-Week

(No goal, Low Instrumentality Condition)

Recently, orientation week here at Rice has become a hot issue. While some students have been very pleased with the format, others have voiced their displeasure. Consequently, this study will attempt to assess the opinions of a representative sample of Rice students regarding Orientation week. Here are a few of the things that commonly take place during O-week.

1) Academic advising.

2) Campus scavenger hunts.

3) Practical Jokes (jacks) aimed at other residential colleges.

4) Water games.

5) Ice breakers to get to know new classmates.

6) Houston Familiarization outings.

Assume that you are now a part of a committee whose initiative is to redesign O-week. However, during the course of normal committee activities it is sometimes the case that opportunities for a person to be involved in the design of his or her work may exist, but not everyone is given this chance. During the course of this experiment you may or may not receive such opportunities depending on your experimental condition. As you respond to the various questionnaires, try to imagine yourself in an actual job situation (i.e., a professor on a committee) and keep in mind any opportunities you might or might not be provided.

Later in this experiment, you will be designing an agenda for O-week. Please suggest any activities that you would like to see included in the components to be used to plan O-week. Although your input will not influence the activities that we select for you to use in designing O-week, we are interested in your input.

Subject Number_____

Please write your suggestions for activities for O-week in the space below. Please number

each separate suggestion.

Appendix C

Self-Esteem and Locus of Control Measures

Subject Number_____

Once again, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by writing in the number that corresponds with your opinion.

1 = **Strongly Disagree**
2 = **Disagree**
3 = **Somewhat disagree**
4 = **Neither agree nor disagree**
5 = **Somewhat agree**
6 = **Agree**
7 = **Strongly Agree**

_____ 14. I feel I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.

_____ 15. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

_____ 16. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

_____ 17. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

_____ 18. I feel I do not have much to be proud of

_____ 19. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

_____ 20. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

_____ 21. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

_____ 22. I certainly feel useless at times.

_____ 23. At times I think I am no good at all.

_____ 24. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

_____ 25. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

_____ 26. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

____ 27. Getting people to do the right things depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

____ 28. There really is no such thing as "luck."

____ 29. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

____ 30. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

____ 31. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

____ 32. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

____ 33. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.

____ 34. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

____ 35. In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

____ 36. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

____ 37. Many times we might as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

____ 38. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or noting to do with it.

Appendix D

Outcome Measures

Subject Number_____

Once again, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by writing in the number that corresponds with your opinion.

1 = **Strongly Disagree**
2 = **Disagree**
3 = **Somewhat disagree**
4 = **Neither agree nor disagree**
5 = **Somewhat agree**
6 = **Agree**
7 = **Strongly Agree**

_____ 39. I believe that the way the activities for O-week were selected was fair.

_____ 40. The procedures used by the experimenter to choose the O-week activities were

fair.

_____ 41. I think it is unfair that more of my suggestions were not used.

_____ 42. I seriously question the activities selected to be used in planning O-week.

_____ 43. The decision to use these activities in O-week was a fair one.

_____ 44. I would disagree with anyone who tried to tell me that the decision to use these

activities was fair.

_____ 45. I am satisfied with the experimenter's decisions regarding the activities we will

use in the planning of O-week.

_____ 46. I am pleased with the activities the experimenter selected.

_____ 47. I am very dissatisfied with the activities that were chosen.

_____ 48. The experimenter did not do a very good job in choosing the components for O-

week.

_____ 49. I feel good about the experimenter's decision to incorporate these activities.

_____ 50. The list of activities that the experimenter presented could not have been better.

_____ 51. I am highly motivated to design the agenda for O-week.

_____ 52. My level of performance on this task is important to me.

_____ 53. I want to design the best O-week possible.

_____ 54. I am going to blow off this task.

_____ 55. I really could not care less about anything regarding O-week.

_____ 56. I am going to put forth a lot of effort during this task.

_____ 57. I had the opportunity to provide my views regarding what activities should be

included in O-week.

_____ 58. I feel like I had control over the selection of activities that we will use to design

O-week.

_____ 59. The experimenter solicited my input for the activities for O-week.

60. What is your gender (circle one)?   Male   Female

61. Have you ever been an O-week advisor/mentor (circle one)?   Yes   No

62. What year are you at Rice (circle one)?   First year   Second year   Third year

Fourth year   Fifth year   Other

Notes

1- The overhead sheet listing the activities to be included in O-week was designed before

the conduction of the experiment and was therefore not due to any of the suggestions

made by the participants. The participants were deceived in order to ensure that the

individuals felt that their views were considered, a necessary component for voice

effects (for a complete review, see Shapiro, 1993).