

**A RELATIONAL IDENTITY THREAT RESPONSE MODEL: HOW THE UPS
AND DOWNS OF WORKPLACE RELATIONSHIPS DRIVE DISCRETIONARY
BEHAVIOR**

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**A RELATIONAL IDENTITY THREAT RESPONSE MODEL: HOW THE UPS
AND DOWNS OF WORKPLACE RELATIONSHIPS DRIVE DISCRETIONARY
BEHAVIOR**

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To my son, Jack Eli. I am grateful for you and all the joy you bring to my world.

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What you get by achieving your goals is not as important as what you become by achieving your goals. ~Henry David Thoreau

When I decided to start this journey on a January day in 2009, I thought what I wanted was a Ph.D. And now, as I stand on the edge of finishing this journey, I realize the wisdom in Henry David Thoreau's words. For as grateful as I am that the following dissertation marks the end of the journey, I am equally surprised by who I have become along the way.

The reason this matters is because what I am most grateful for – the person I have become – is not a function of my own doing, but rather a function of who has joined me along the way. I am grateful to my family and friends who took my phone calls when I didn't think I could finish, who called to check and see how it was going, and who offered many prayers that were the true secret of my success.

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SUMMARY

The relational identity threat response model describes how workplace relationships experiencing relational identity threat predict discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance). More specifically, the model utilizes an experience sampling methodology to capture the ebb and flow or momentary changes within supervisor-subordinate relationships with a focus on potential negative shifts in a subordinate's relational identity with his/her supervisor. By examining momentary behavior, meaning actions subordinates take within a short period of time such as the last few hours, I draw attention to the often overlooked effects of dynamic workplace relationships, arguing that the ebb and flow within supervisor-subordinate interactions play a critical role in subordinate choice as to the amount of momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance to offer. That is, I utilize recent developments within social identity theory (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007) to examine how subordinates reconcile relational identity threat, or potential shifts in the nature of 'who we are' (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Further, the data support the argument that momentary relational voice, which is communication to the supervisor focused on improving the workplace relationship or relational functioning, partially mediates relational identity threat's consequences for positive discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement). Additionally, I draw attention to self-compassion (i.e. how a subordinate treats him or herself [Neff, 2003a]), which moderates subordinate responses to relational identity threat within a supervisor-subordinate relationship.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Relationships are pervasive, both inside and outside organizations. Relationships have been argued to play a critical role in how work gets done within organizations (Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007). As such, previous research has focused on relationships from a static perspective, examining workplace relationships as either a positive, generative state (Dutton & Dukerich, 2006; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Dutton & Ragins, 2007a, 2007b; Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Ragins & Dutton, 2007), or a negative, draining state (Thau, Aquino, & Poortvliet, 2007; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). However, given the dynamic environment in which most workplace relationships exist, the idea that relationships are static – either positive or negative – oversimplifies the reality of the constant ebb and flow of interpersonal relationships within organizations (Miller & Stiver, 1997). As the work environment shifts and changes, the stability of relationships embedded within organizations also shifts and changes (Dutton & Ragins, 2007b). For example, Dana might consider her relationship with her supervisor to be positively valenced after a morning meeting in which her supervisor complimented her on a job well done, yet this might shift in the afternoon to a more neutral valence following a tense exchange in the hallway about an email Dana sent that her supervisor was displeased with. As such, I argue that this ebb and flow of workplace relationships plays a role in explaining behavior within organizations. That is, the dynamic nature of workplace relationships adds to current understanding of *why* relationships are *how* work gets done (Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007).

Among these dynamic workplace relationships, the supervisor-subordinate relationship is of primary importance, especially for subordinates (Sluss, Ployhart, Cobb, & Ashforth, 2012). While all workplace relationships are subject to momentary fluctuations, the supervisor-subordinate relationship has the potential to deeply influence the subordinate's work experience (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sluss et al., 2012). This makes the supervisor-subordinate relationship a critical relationship in which to understand these momentary fluctuations, which are changes within a short window of time (i.e. a few hours). Further, since so little is currently understood about how momentary relational interactions drive discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. attendance at an office happy hour or offering an idea or specific help to improve an organizational process that is beyond the scope of a subordinate's role), examining how these momentary fluctuations unfold within the primacy of the supervisor-subordinate relationship holds promise for increasing scholarly (and practical) understanding of dynamic workplace relationships. Therefore, while all dynamic workplace relationships have the potential to ebb and flow as described within this model, I focus exclusively on the supervisor-subordinate relationship because of its primacy within the constellation of workplace relationships.

Within the interactions between supervisors and subordinates, relational functioning 'ebbs and flows' based on whether or not the underlying message within the interaction is consistent with the existing relational identity (i.e. the nature and meaning of the relationship, [Sluss & Ashforth, 2007]). Because relationships, much like individuals, have identities, when the existing relational identity is threatened based on these momentary interactions (i.e. receiving an unusually critical email or not being

invited to attend a critical planning meeting), the discretionary workplace behavior of the subordinate shifts. Therefore, the goal of my research is to describe how workplace relationships, or supervisor-subordinate relationships especially, in a state of relational identity threat predict when subordinates will perform discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance).

Relational identity refers to how a given relationship is defined, providing boundaries for what the relationship is and what the relationship is not (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 2008). As such, each member of the relationship can have his or her own relational identity or definition of 'who we are'. Relational identity threat occurs when the nature and meaning of the relationship has the potential to shift in an undesirable way (cf. Petriglieri, 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). As subordinates interpret relational interactions as either supportive of the existing relational identity or a violation of the relational identity, the subordinate's response and, hence, his or her discretionary workplace behavior shifts. Utilizing recent advances within social identity theory (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), I explain the process through which subordinates make sense of these relational identity threats that can emerge within momentary interactions with supervisors (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). Furthermore, given the frequency with which supervisors and subordinates may interact, it stands to reason that there is significant opportunity for the subordinate to interpret these relational interactions as a potential violation of the relational identity (Miller & Stiver, 1997). Therefore, illuminating relational behavior responses that minimize the negative

consequences of relational identity threat provides insight into how dynamic workplace relationships can be navigated. The danger of relational identity threat is not from the cause or source of the threat itself, but rather from the uncertainty the threat creates. Henceforth, if subordinates can minimize this uncertainty, then they are able to participate more fully within the organization.

One of the fundamental ways in which the uncertainty within relational identity threat can be minimized is through voice behavior or by speaking up (cf. Altman & Taylor, 1973; Collins & Miller, 1994; Quinn, 2007). While voice behavior (henceforth organizational voice) has been traditionally defined as “discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning” (Morrison, 2011, 375), I add specificity to this organizational construct by modifying the intention or motivation from an organizational focus to a relational focus, which advances understanding as to how the construct influences workplace outcomes. That is, *relational voice* is defined as communication to a supervisor with the intent to improve the workplace relationship or relational functioning with the supervisor. More specifically, *momentary relational voice* reflects the extent to which a subordinate chooses to speak up toward his or her supervisor in a given moment in an effort to improve the supervisor-subordinate relationship or to improve the way in which the supervisor-subordinate relationship functions. For example, imagine a planning meeting where Brent’s supervisor Sara shares with the larger leadership team about a mistake Brent made on his forecast for next month’s sales report before discussing the error directly with Brent. Brent discusses this with Sara and expresses a preference for Sara to alert him to errors in his report

before addressing them with the team so that Brent is more prepared for the meeting. In this situation Brent is expressing momentary relational voice because he is speaking up toward his supervisor with the intention of improving his relationship with Sara.

Momentary relational voice contributes to prior research that suggests conversation is the foundation for connection (Collins & Miller, 1994; Quinn, 2007). In relationships wherein relational voice occurs more frequently, subordinates reduce the uncertainty and fear inherent within relational identity threat, enabling and encouraging participation in discretionary workplace behavior (Burris, Detert, & Romney, 2013; Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kahn, 1992; Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009).

In predicting how subordinates will respond to relational identity threats with supervisors, the subordinate's self-compassion needs to be considered. Self-compassion refers to how a subordinate will treat him or herself in the face of failure (Neff, 2003a). Because relational identity threat creates fear and uncertainty in regard to the potential for the subordinate to achieve his or her desired relational identity with the supervisor, relational identity threats create a potential failure for the subordinate. Therefore, how a subordinate treats him or herself in the face of failure (i.e. his or her level of self-compassion) will offer key insights into how the subordinate will respond to relational identity threat. While self-compassion has obvious connection to the personal-level of identity, self-compassion extrapolates to the relational level of identity because how a subordinate treats him or herself moderates how a subordinate will respond to potential relational failure. Given this, self-compassion is an important variable to include in the relational identity threat response model described below.

The final component of the relational identity threat response model – discretionary workplace behavior – adds significance by extending beyond the dyadic relationship between supervisor and subordinate. Discretionary workplace behaviors enable subordinates to express their identity by representing the components of work that subordinates control (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008). In other words, discretionary workplace behaviors can be described as contributions subordinates can make to the organization that enhance performance, while at the same time do not detract from performance if not provided to the organization. Momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement are two such discretionary workplace behaviors that benefit the organization when the subordinate offers them, whereas momentary supervisor-directed deviance represents a discretionary workplace behavior that harms the supervisor and, by extension, the organization. One of the key characteristics of discretionary workplace behavior is that the organization – or its agents – have difficulty recognizing (and hence difficulty penalizing for) situations in which subordinates have additional organizational voice or behavioral engagement to offer but choose not to share it with the organization. Likewise, supervisor-directed deviance can be difficult to recognize and consequently difficult to penalize when subordinates participate in it. As such, I argue discretionary workplace behaviors are directly impacted by the ebb and flow of supervisor-subordinate interactions given the control subordinates possess of these type of behaviors. Further, understanding the impact of relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behaviors illustrates how consequences of relational identity threat extend beyond the dyadic relationship between supervisor and subordinate. Understanding how relational identity threat predicts discretionary workplace behavior

highlights the immediate implications of relational functioning within the workplace. Heretofore, workplace relationships have been examined as static entities that operate in stable ways. My research, however, highlights the dynamic properties of workplace relationships, showing the importance of momentary interactions between supervisors and subordinates on workplace behaviors.

1.1 Model Summary

As alluded to above, the goal of my research is to describe how workplace relationships, or supervisor-subordinate relationships especially, impact discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance). That is, I focus on subordinate response to relational identity threat, or potential unwanted shifts in the definition of the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), as it occurs in the form of momentary relational voice. I argue momentary relational voice, as communication intended to benefit the supervisor-subordinate relationship, will be positively associated with a subordinate's momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement while negatively associated with a subordinate's supervisor-directed deviance. Additionally, I argue momentary relational voice partially mediates the relationship between relational identity threat and discretionary workplace behaviors. Further, highlighting self-compassion as a critical moderator, draws attention to how this individual difference variable impacts subordinate responses to supervisors. Most importantly, the relational identity threat response model described above, with its focus on the ebb and flow of daily relational interactions, adds to the current understanding of why workplace relationships influence organizationally relevant

outcomes (Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007). Figure 1 visually summarizes the hypothesized relationships.

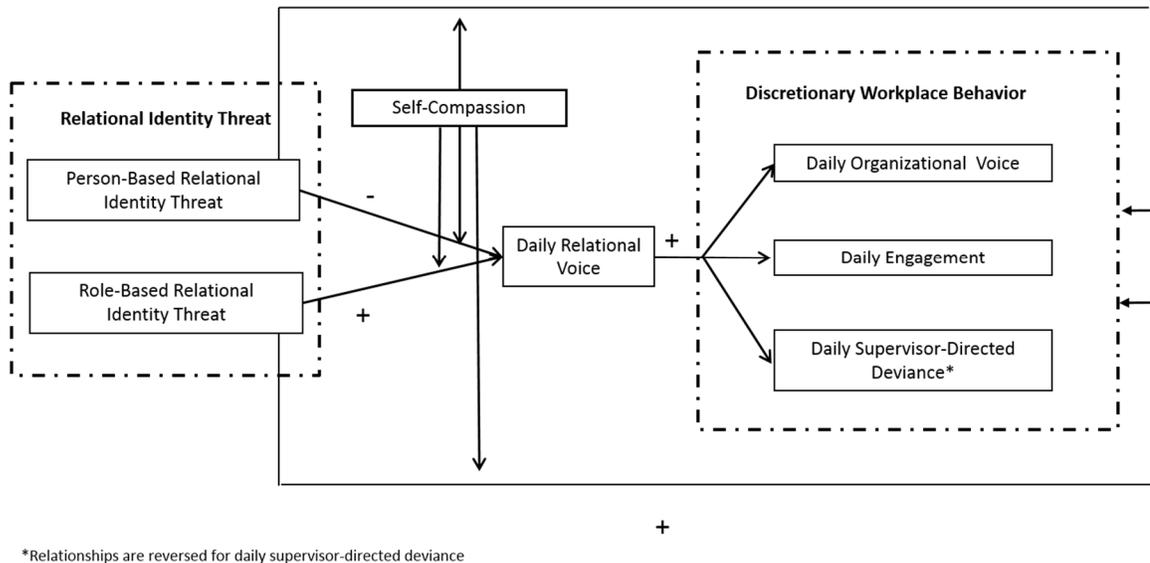


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

1.2 Contributions to the Extant Literature

The relational identity threat response model contributes to the management literature in three primary ways. First, I contribute to the workplace relationship literature by incorporating the complexity of dynamic workplace relationships within current understanding of how workplace relationships function (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Dutton & Ragins, 2007a; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). As current research on workplace relationships includes an underlying assumption that workplace relationships are relatively stable, I expand this notion to include how relationships function when subordinates perceive potential shifts or fluctuations. That is, I draw attention to workplace relationships as an evolving dynamic within organizations rather than a static,

dichotomous (i.e. positive or negative) constant state (Josselson, 1995; Miller & Stiver, 1997). While workplace relationships literature has historically focused on the ‘big picture’ of workplace relationships and how they function, I bring much needed attention to the momentary interactions within workplace relationships. I argue that these momentary interactions play a critical, often-overlooked role within organizational life: “The order in organizational life comes just as much from the subtle, the small, the relational, the oral, the particular, and the momentary as it does from the conspicuous, the large, the substantive, the written, the general, and the sustained” (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005, 410). As Weick and colleagues explained, it may be the small moments, the daily interactions, which are as important for management scholars to understand as the global, stable perspective on workplace relationships. As such, my research contributes to the workplace relationship conversation by highlighting the role these momentary interactions with supervisors play in predicting subordinate behavior.

Secondly, my research contributes to the management literature by integrating the workplace relationship and voice literature streams. By adding a relational lens to organizational voice, I introduce an additional construct with relevance to relationship maintenance (Collins & Miller, 1994; Miller & Stiver, 1997; Quinn, 2007). Relational voice adds to the workplace relationship literature by increasing current understanding of how workplace relationships can be transformed. Relational voice also contributes to the voice literature by adding specificity to organizational voice. By narrowing the voice construct to consider nuances as to the specific motivation or intention of the subordinate choosing to exercise voice enables additional clarity within voice research. Without this nuance, the broader lens of organizational voice may fail to magnify the true impact of

voice within workplace relationships. Akin to nuances developed in the fit literature (i.e. person-organization fit, person-job fit, person-environment fit, etc.), this paradox of expanding the voice literature by narrowing the scope of voice intention from organizational functioning to relational functioning has the potential to increase the breadth and depth of voice research overall.

Finally, I introduce self-compassion as a construct of interest to the management literature, suggesting that self-compassion is an identity-based process that can inform predictions as to how subordinates will respond to supervisor behavior. Self-compassion refers to how an individual treats him or herself, specifically when he or she fails (Leary, Tate, Adams, Batts Allen, & Hancock, 2007; Neff, 2003a, 2011). Since self-compassion is conceptualized as a “teachable skill” (Sbarra, Smith, & Mehl, 2012, 266), understanding the power of self-compassion to enhance workplace relationship dynamics equips scholars and practitioners alike with a skillset that may have the potential to transform ordinary workplace relationships into high-quality connections (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). That is, self-compassion expands research on relational identity and relational processes by highlighting ways in which subordinates can defend against threatening experiences, creating a source of resilience. By increasing understanding as to how self-compassion predicts subordinate responses to behavior from others, or supervisors more specifically, will help to more fully describe why specific behavior occurs within organizations. While this research focuses specifically on self-compassion’s role in relational identity threat response, illustrating that self-compassion does play a role in workplace interactions contributes to the management literature

overall by identifying an additional construct for management scholars to consider when predicting workplace behavior.

CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Theory Integration

Relational identity threats have the potential to occur frequently within workplace relationships, as subordinates are continually evaluating interactions with supervisors for indications of acceptance or rejection, as elaborated on below (Leary et al., 1995; Ragins & Dutton, 2007). Given the frequency with which supervisors and subordinates interact, it stands to reason that how subordinates react in the face of relational identity threat has a critical impact on behavioral choices by the subordinate. Several key areas of management and social psychology research are reviewed below as a precursor to the following chapter, in which these various areas of research will be integrated to explain the relational identity threat response model.

2.2 Identity Levels

Identity is a fundamental construct that explains how an individual defines him or herself – it is essentially who someone is. While the definition of identity seems straightforward and simple, given the complexity of the world subordinates live in, how a subordinate sees him or herself often determines the subordinates' behavior at work, making identity a critical construct for management scholars (Ashforth et al., 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). For example, identity can occur at three different 'levels': personal, relational, and collective (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Social identity refers to how subordinates create an identity as a part of collective (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). That is, a subordinate's social identity is based on both the knowledge and importance of membership in specific social groups: "The basic idea is that a social category (e.g.,

nationality, political affiliation, sports team) into which one falls, and to which one feels one belongs, provides a definition of who one is in terms of the defining characteristics of the category – a self-definition that is part of the self-concept” (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995, 259). Whereas personal identity is specific to the subordinate whose identity is being described -- the properties, characteristics, and traits of the subordinate (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007; Swann, Gomez, Seyle, Morales, & Huici, 2009), social identity is a depersonalization of self, wherein the properties, characteristics, and traits of the collective increase in salience (Turner, 1985). What makes relational and social identity different from personal identity is that these two levels indicate identity is based on interaction *with others*, while personal identity is how an individual distinguishes himself/herself *from others* (Brewer and Gardner, 1996). To develop the relational identity threat response model, I focus on the relational level of identity and identity-based motives, as described below.

2.2.1 Relational Identity

Relational identity (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 2008) consists of the person-based identity of each relational member and the role-based identity of each relational member. A relational identity serves to answer the question ‘who are we’, establishing the nature and meaning of the relationship (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Relational identities exist on a continuum from generalized to particularized: “Individuals are usually able to articulate not only a generalized relational identity (e.g., how Susan sees herself as a manager of subordinates) but also particularized relational identities at various levels of aggregation (e.g., how Susan sees herself as a manager of first-shift subordinates or as a manager of Bob the subordinate)” (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 14). As such, I focus my research model

on particularized relational identities. Based on Sluss and Ashforth's (2007) seminal work, relational identity is a property of the individual such that I focus on the subordinate's perception of the relational identity.

I contribute to this research stream by addressing workplace relationships wherein relational identity does not function as desired. In this case a *relational identity threat* occurs, which is the degree to which an experience is perceived as a potential unwanted shift in the expected definition or depiction of the given role relationship (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011; Thompson, 2013). That is, my research incorporates what happens when 'who we are' in the context of the supervisor-subordinate relationship has the potential to shift in an unwanted direction. More specifically, I argue that the type of relational identity threat (i.e. person-based relational identity threat vs. role-based relational identity threat) has distinct relationships with discretionary workplace behaviors. Because of this, understanding the differences between types of relational identity threat and their consequences offers additional insight into the important role relationships play within organizations.

2.1.2. Identity-based Motives

Much research in the management literature has been dedicated to motivations and how they impact behavior at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, 1966; Vroom, 1964). For the purposes of the relational identity threat response model, I focus on identity-based motives that are impacted by relational identity threats: personalized belongingness, self-expansion, and self-consistency¹ (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al.,

¹ There are additional identity-based motives, including self-enhancement, depersonalized belongingness, uncertainty reduction, efficacy and distinctiveness (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). Rather than including all

2008; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). Depending on the type of relational identity threat a subordinate experiences, different identity-based motives are impacted, each of which drives differing responses in terms of discretionary workplace behavior (as explained in chapter 3).

Personalized belongingness. Whether referred to as a need for affiliation (McClelland, 1985), a need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) or personalized belongingness (Ashforth, 2001; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010), previous scholars are consistent in arguing for a basic need of social connection. Personalized belongingness has been defined as “the sense of attachment that an individual derives from knowing that one or more others are familiar with and like him or her as an *individual*” (Ashforth, 2001, 70). Earlier workplace relationship research has argued that the supervisor-subordinate relationship is a fundamental workplace relationship for subordinates, arguing that subordinates desire personalized belongingness especially with a supervisor (Sluss et al., 2012). As Cooper and Thatcher (2010) argue, personalized belongingness is a critical motivation for the relational self-concept, supporting my contention that personalized belongingness can be jeopardized in the presence of relational identity threat (as described in chapter 3).

Because of an inherent need for personalized belongingness, many of the observations subordinates make of the supervisor’s behavior derive from a desire to understand the supervisor’s intention toward the subordinate (Leary, Springer, Negel, Ansell, & Evans, 1998; Leary et al., 1995). Belongingness theory posits that individuals have an innate need to be part of relationships in which there is frequent contact and

identity-based motives, I focus on the three identity-based motives (i.e. personalized belongingness, self-expansion, and self-consistency) central, or most salient, to the experience of relational identity threat.

within which there is ongoing or enduring care and concern among the relational members (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). This need causes the subordinate to monitor the supervisor's behavior for signs or signals of acceptance or rejection (Leary & Guadagno, 2011; Leary et al., 1995). That is, the behavior of a supervisor toward a subordinate contains *relational signals* from which the subordinate assesses his or her level of acceptance or rejection from the supervisor. Sociometer theory (Leary et al., 1995) argues that relational signals are detected by an internal sociometer, which is continually, and often subconsciously, monitoring all situations for signs of belonging – or not belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

Self-expansion. Earlier research has also established that subordinates have a desire for self-expansion, sometimes conceptualized as a desire for growth (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Weick, 1995). That is self-expansion includes a desire to include the other as part of the self, resulting in increased access to resources, perspectives and characteristics that the 'other' holds (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991). Leary defined self-expansion as “a process of improving one's potential efficacy for achieving one's goals by increasing one's resources, perspectives, and identities” (2007, 327). Each of these references to self-expansion highlight how subordinates desire to include others as part of their selves, which is particularly salient within the context of the supervisor-subordinate relationship given the resources, perspectives and characteristics that supervisors hold as compared to the resources, perspectives, and characteristics that subordinates hold. As such, this desire for self-expansion is particularly relevant when the supervisor-subordinate relationship experiences potentially unwanted shifts in the form of relational identity threats.

Self-consistency. Self-consistency, on the other hand, is relevant to the relational identity response model because it serves to explain why relationship-targeted behavior extrapolates to organization-targeted behavior. Self-consistency (also referred to as self-coherence [Ashforth, 2001]) refers to how subordinates “value and seek a sense of coherence among their goals, values, beliefs, emotions, and actions” (Ashforth, 2001, 58). That is, I argue that subordinate responses to relational identity threat occur in a consistent and coherent manner, making self-consistency an identity-based motive relevant to the relational identity threat response model (Weick, 1995).

2.3 Discretionary Workplace Behaviors

Discretionary workplace behaviors are important dependent variables to consider in evaluating how relational identity threat and subsequent relational voice decisions extrapolate to the organization. The relational identity threat response model describes when subordinates in a state of relational identity threat will respond with (or refrain from) momentary relational voice. While this dyadic relational interaction pattern may be interesting in and of itself, the relevance and power of this specific dyadic relational interaction pattern to the management literature lies within how this interaction pattern extrapolates beyond the dyadic relationship to discretionary workplace behavior. Given that relational voice is a new construct within the management literature, understanding how relational voice predicts discretionary workplace behavior is a crucial step to establishing momentary relational voice as not only new, but also important for predicting organizational outcomes. Furthermore, explaining how the *relational identity threat to relational voice* interaction pattern leads to discretionary behavior within organizations increases the organizational relevance of the model.

More specifically, discretionary workplace behaviors contribute to performance; yet, subordinates can withhold positive discretionary workplace behaviors and still maintain an acceptable level of performance. Furthermore, subordinates can participate in negative discretionary workplace behavior and still maintain an acceptable level of performance. Discretionary workplace behaviors represent those actions a subordinate can exercise as members or employees of an organization that are tangential to performance. That is not to say that discretionary workplace behaviors do not impact performance, but rather, represent behaviors that supervisors and organizational others may not be able to easily ascertain. For example, if a subordinate who works as a customer service representative for a national retailer has an idea that would improve the efficiency of processing returns, but chooses not to share it with the organization, the supervisor lacks the ability to discern the subordinate's choice to remain silent. If the subordinate chooses to share this idea, however, then the subordinate's performance may be evaluated more favorably, while, by withholding the idea, the subordinate's performance does not change. In regard to engagement, a subordinate can offer the organization an acceptable level of behavioral engagement, however only the subordinate knows if he or she has additional behavioral engagement that he or she is not offering. In regard to supervisor-directed deviance, a subordinate can participate in behavior that harms the supervisor without impacting his or her performance, especially if the supervisor is unable to attribute responsibility to the subordinate. That is to say, because subordinates *control* discretionary workplace behaviors, only the subordinate knows the extent to which he or she is offering them to the organization (Ashforth, 2001). For the purposes of this research, I focus on three specific discretionary workplace behaviors –

momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

2.3.1. Momentary Organizational Voice

Research on organizational voice began with Hirschman's (1970) treatise outlining three ways in which subordinates can respond to dissatisfaction: voice, exit, and loyalty, which was later extended to also include neglect (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008). Following this initial work, Van Dyne and LePine (1998) established organizational voice as a critical predictor of performance, which launched a plethora of research on the predictors and consequences of organizational voice behavior (for a review, see Morrison, 2011). Organizational voice is defined as "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (Morrison, 2011, 375). More specifically, *momentary organizational voice* focuses on the frequent opportunities subordinates have to volunteer thoughts that benefit the organization as a whole.

Organizational voice is assumed to be offered to the organization based on a desire to improve performance or make positive contributions for the organizational collective (Morrison, 2011). Previous research has shown that two critical predictors of whether or not a subordinate who desires to improve the situation will exercise organizational voice are perceived efficacy and perceived safety (Morrison, 2011). In other words, subordinates must evaluate whether speaking up will ultimately achieve the desired improvement as well as any potential costs that can result from speaking up (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). Based on this "expectancy like

calculus” (Morrison, 2011, 384), subordinates choose between voice and silence, establishing two ends of a continuum.

As outlined in my research below, I argue that in addition to perceived efficacy and perceived safety, relational identity threat and momentary relational voice serve as additional predictors of a subordinate’s choice to exercise momentary organizational voice. I argue that the battle between organizational voice and silence is fought in the momentary choices subordinates make in regard to speaking up (Burriss et al., 2008; Morrison, 2011). As such, my research focuses on how relational dynamics, or more specifically relational identity threat, impacts these moment-to-moment choices subordinates make (Burriss et al., 2008).

2.3.2 Momentary Behavioral Engagement

Engagement has been conceptualized in a multitude of ways within the management literature – as an individual difference (i.e. trait), psychological state, and as a type of behavior (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rothbard & Patil, 2012). Early research on employee engagement (also referred to as work engagement) focused on the degree with which an individual employee uses his or her complete self, including physical, cognitive and emotional aspects (Kahn, 1990). For the purposes of this research, I focus on engagement as a discretionary workplace behavior, reflecting a behavioral choice on the part of the subordinate which manifests based on his or her decision to invest fully within a given role. Given the similarities between job performance and behavioral engagement, it is important to note that what distinguishes behavioral engagement from job performance is that behavioral engagement captures the discretionary or superfluous

component of job performance. That is, *behavioral engagement* is defined as actions that exceed normal or acceptable performance expectations (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Thus, *momentary behavioral engagement* reflects a subordinate's choice to perform actions that exceed normal or acceptable levels of performance in a given 'moment' or period of time (Macey & Schneider, 2008)². This conceptualization of behavioral engagement as a discretionary workplace behavior is consistent with prior research that has positioned engagement as investment of one's full self (Kahn, 1990). Given that performance in most roles does not require the investment of one's full self to meet acceptable levels of performance, the amount of investment beyond what is required by the role represents the level of behavioral engagement. That is, "engagement is observed through the behavioral investment of physical, cognitive and emotional energy" (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010, 619). Therefore, engagement as a discretionary workplace behavior serves as a benefit to organizations because subordinates who are engaged provide the organization with additional resources from which they can prosper (Kahn, 1990; Kahn, 1992). Each moment, subordinates have the choice as to whether or not they will exceed normal or acceptable performance expectations, establishing momentary behavioral engagement as a dynamic construct. That is, momentary behavioral engagement reflects the temporal nature of engagement, making momentary behavioral engagement an ideal dependent variable in the relational identity threat response model.

2.3.2 Momentary Supervisor-directed Deviance

² It is important to note that because organizational citizenship behaviors have been conceptualized as a part of performance (Dalal, 2005; Johnson, Tolentino, Rodopman, & Cho, 2010), I have not included them within the relational identity threat response model. Momentary behavioral engagement, on the other hand, reflects behavior that is not a direct part of performance.

The costs and prevalence of workplace deviance have been well-substantiated in the management literature (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Based on Robinson and Bennett's (1995) seminal work in employee deviance, deviant behavior can be categorized across two dimensions: the target of deviance (interpersonal to organizational) and degree of intensity (minor to serious). Within this typology, deviant behavior is grouped into four categories – production deviance, property deviance, political deviance, and personal aggression (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Since this development of a typology, the management literature has shown deviance can be predicted from both individual differences and situational context, finding that the interaction of these two types of predictors holds the most predictive explanatory power (Hershcovis et al., 2007).

Workplace deviance reflects behavior subordinates control: “Workplace deviance has been defined as voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms” (Bennett & Robinson, 2000, 349). Within the deviance literature, supervisor-directed deviance is a specific form of interpersonal deviance in which retaliation plays a key role (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Because supervisor-directed deviance represents a discretionary workplace behavior subordinates control, albeit negatively valenced, momentary supervisor-directed deviance plays a key role in the relational identity threat response model, offering a balanced perspective of the consequences that result from relational identity threats. By including a negatively valenced outcome within the relational identity threat response model, this research highlights both positive and negative outcomes following from relational identity threats. Among the types of employee deviance possible, it stands to reason that deviant behaviors targeted to the

supervisor represents the most proximal type of deviance to emerge from a relational identity threat. Therefore, the relational identity threat response model incorporates *momentary supervisor-directed deviance*, defined as subordinate's purposeful behavior in a given moment that is intended to harm the supervisor (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

2.4 Summary

Integrating the research streams described above contributes to the management literature by highlighting how threatened workplace relationships function and how they ultimately drive discretionary workplace behavior. While earlier workplace relationship research has highlighted that relationships are a fundamental mechanism through which work gets done (Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007), integrating these various research streams allows exploration of the dynamic nature of this truth. Further, by adding a dynamic lens to the study of workplace relationships, I show that the daily ebb and flow of relational interactions are the relational building blocks from which discretionary workplace behavior evolves. That is, integrating these research streams adds insight as to *why* relationships function the way in which they do as well as *how* that extrapolates to the larger organization through subordinate choice to exercise discretionary workplace behavior.

CHAPTER 3 MODEL DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Relational Identity Threat

Recent research has addressed how individuals process and respond to identity threats within work roles (Elsbach, 2003; Kreiner & Sheep, 2009; Petriglieri, 2011). Identity threats occur when an experience is “appraised as indicating potential harm to the value, meanings, or enactment of an identity” (Petriglieri, 2011, 644). Within organizations, identity threat occurs when an experience communicates to the subordinate that the way in which the organization defines the subordinate is in conflict with how the subordinate defines his or her self. Identity threat is, at the heart, fear of falsification of one’s own desired self-definition.

Similarly, within dyadic interpersonal relationships, relational identity can also be threatened. Relational identity describes the “nature of one’s role-relationship” (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 11). Whereas an individual identity refers to the individual’s self-definition, relational identity defines the relationship. Relational identity provides the answer to the question of ‘Who are we?’ Therefore, in the presence of relational identity threat, one or both members of the relationship begin to question his or her understanding of how the relationship is defined.

More precisely, *relational identity threat* is the degree to which an experience is perceived as a potential unwanted shift in the expected definition or depiction of the given role relationship (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011; Thompson, 2013). That is, when a workplace relationship is in a state of threat, the subordinate³ fears that

³ Because relational identity is a property of the individual (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), either member of the relationship (in this case the supervisor or the subordinate) can experience a relational identity threat apart

the relationship may be changing in an undesired way – an unwanted shift in the foundation of ‘who we are’ becomes possible (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007; Thompson, 2013). At the core of relational identity threat is behavior that does not match expectations of the current relational identity (cf. Andersen & Chen, 2002; Baldwin, 1992; Brewer & Hewstone, 2004). It is important to note that, consistent with earlier research on identity threat, I focus on potential *negative* shifts representing potential harm (Petriglieri, 2011). A potential positive shift would illicit separate identity-based processes, such that potential positive shifts are outside the scope of this research model. In summary, relational identity threat represents a state of uncertainty as to what the relationship is and what the relationship can become.

All relationships have the potential to experience relational identity threat, regardless of the current valence. While a positively or neutrally valenced workplace relationship experiencing a threat may be easier to imagine and may occur more frequently, it is also possible for a negatively valenced workplace relationship to experience relational identity threat. When precarious or negative relationships experience relational identity threat, the subordinate begins to question ‘how bad’ the relationship may become. For example, if Andrew, the supervisor, has repeatedly assigned William, the subordinate, to work every Saturday, despite knowing William dislikes working Saturday and having a plethora of other employees who want to work on Saturdays, then William may categorize his relationship with his supervisor as negatively valenced. If Andrew suddenly begins denying William’s first choice for paid time off

from the other member experiencing a relational identity threat. It is also possible for both members of the relationship to experience a relational identity threat simultaneously. However, for the reasons delineated earlier, I focus exclusively on the subordinate’s experience of a relational identity threat.

(which Andrew always granted in the past), then William's relationship with his supervisor may experience some degree of relational identity threat. While William may have resolved himself to a negatively valenced relationship with his supervisor years ago, William may now experience uncertainty in regards to *how negative* his relationship with his supervisor may become in the future. In other words, William may experience uncertainty in regard to the nature of his relationship with his supervisor (cf. Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). William has historically understood the relationship involves being assigned an unfavorable work schedule, but now William may begin to question whether the nature and meaning of the relationship will now include being denied desired vacation time. This creates some degree of uncertainty in terms of the potential for the relationship to reach William's desired value and meaning (i.e. relational identity threat). This example illustrates how even negative workplace relationships have the potential to shift in an unwanted direction, suggesting that all relationships have the potential to experience some degree of relational identity threat.

Relational identity threat disrupts workplace relationships because it interferes with a subordinate's identity-based motives, which drive subordinate behavior (Ashforth et al., 2008; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). That is, relational identity threat causes a potential shift (either explicitly or implicitly) in how the supervisor and subordinate are interacting (Ashforth et al., 2008; Pratt, 2000; Weick, 1995). This potential shift can be described as a relational signal that does not match the subordinate's existing relational identity with the supervisor (Leary & Guadagno, 2011; Leary et al., 1998; Leary et al., 1995). That is, when a subordinate detects a relational signal from the supervisor that does not match the existing relational identity, the

subordinate experiences questions as to whether he or she can achieve his or her desired relational identity. In other words, the subordinate re-evaluates the supervisor-subordinate relationship to assess how the future relational identity may differ from the existing relational identity.

This is a complicated assessment because relational identity consists of five dimensions: 1) the person-based identity of the supervisor, 2) the person-based identity of the subordinate, 3) the role-based identity of the supervisor, 4) the role-based identity of the subordinate, and 5) the sum of the parts (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Relational identity is the combination of who the subordinate is (as a person and within a role) and who the supervisor is (as a person and within a role) as well as how the supervisor and subordinate exist together as a dyad. If any of these five components potentially shift, then the definition of the dyad (i.e. the relational identity) also has the potential to shift. The subordinate begins to question which of these components of the supervisor-subordinate relational identity has the potential to shift in an unwanted direction. That is, the subordinate begins to question which of his or her earlier assumptions about these five components may or may not be accurate (cf. Andersen & Chen, 2002; Baldwin, 1992; Cross & Morris, 2003; Fiske & Haslam, 1996).

As delineated, it is possible for the either member of the dyad in isolation or in combination with the other member of the dyad to question any one of these five components of the relational identity, however, the subsequent research model focuses on the perceiver's questioning of his or her own person-based and role-based identity within the context of the specific relationship under threat (i.e. the subordinate's perception of his or her person-based or role-based identity within the supervisor-subordinate

relationship). I restrict the model to this specific context to facilitate understanding of the identity-based processes inherent within relational identity threats. If the subordinate questions the supervisor's person-based or role-based identities within the context of the relationship, it stands to reason that the subordinate's identity-based motives would not be impacted in the same ways, such that supervisor-based relational identity threats are outside the scope of the current research model. The subordinate's assessments of his or her relational identity with the supervisor occurs each time an interaction with the supervisor includes a negative relational signal. As sociometer theory predicts, subordinates are continually monitoring social interactions with the supervisor for cues of acceptance or rejection, often subconsciously (Leary et al., 1995). Given the frequency of interactions with the supervisor, it stands to reason that subordinates have the potential to frequently detect negative relational signals from the supervisor (Miller & Stiver, 1997). As I argue below, these relational identity threats drive momentary decisions about how much discretionary workplace behavior a subordinate will choose to participate in (Ashforth et al., 2008; Weick, 1995). This makes the phenomenon of relational identity threat a critical predictor of how discretionary work gets (or does not get) done (Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007).

For example, Gail (the subordinate) has been working for Grady (the supervisor) for three years and Gail's relational identity of her relationship with Grady is particularized and includes strong social support as a dimension of the supervisor-subordinate relationship. If Gail overhears Grady complaining to one of the other managers about how Gail is always starting their meetings by discussing her life outside of work, Gail will experience relational identity threat in regards to her relationship with

Grady. Gail's relational identity threat occurs as a function of detecting a negative relational signal from Grady (Leary et al., 1995). While Gail has enjoyed discussing her life outside of work with Grady in the past, Gail now has new information that suggests this aspect of their relationship is not shared. As Gail tries to make sense of her relationship with Grady, she will begin to question her earlier understanding in regards to both the person-based component of her relational identity and the role-based component of her relational identity with Grady. More specifically, she will begin to question whether discussing her life outside of work is outside the bounds of the role relationship with Grady as her supervisor whom she has also seen as a friend or whether discussing her life outside of work is an issue because of core characteristics of her personality. As Gail engages in this relational identity evaluation process, her subsequent behavior will depend upon the conclusions that she draws.

Gail's assessment of her relationship with Grady, as earlier research has shown, will depend on whether Gail believes the violated relational expectations are because of her personal qualities or because of her role within their workplace relationship (Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Remaining consistent with much of the management literature that distinguishes between social-based relational components and task-based relational components (i.e. affect-based and cognitive-based trust [McAllister, 1995], warmth and competence perceptions [Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008], person-based and task-based relational attribution [Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2011]), relational identity is a function of both person-based and role-based identity (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Therefore, relational identity threat can occur when either source of relational identity – person-based identity or role-based identity – is called into

question. That is, a person-based relational identity threat exists to the extent that a personal-qualities-violation has occurred within the supervisor-subordinate relationship whereas a role-based relational identity threat exists to the extent that a positional-violation has occurred within the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Cuddy et al., 2011).

3.1.1 Person-based Relational Identity Threat

Person-based relational identity threat, a specific type of relational identity threat, involves the subordinate questioning his or her personal qualities or core characteristics and traits, as part of the supervisor-subordinate relationship. This occurs when a relational signal is assessed as representing rejection (Leary et al., 1995). In the case of a person-based relational identity threat, these negative relational signals of rejection are interpreted as evidence that the supervisor does not have the subordinate's best interest in mind because of who the subordinate is as a person. That is, *a person-based relational identity threat* reflects the degree to which an experience is perceived as a potential unwanted shift in the expected definition or depiction of the relationship based on the subordinate's personal qualities that are essential to maintaining the relationship (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Person-based relational identity threat occurs when the subordinate questions who the subordinate is as an individual within the context of a specific dyadic relationship. Therefore, when there is a perceived violation of relational expectations based on core characteristics and traits of the subordinate, person-based relational identity threat occurs (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Baldwin, 1992; Cuddy et al., 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

Person-based relational identity threats are particularly damaging to workplace relationships because they interfere with subordinates' identity-based motive for personalized belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Mael & Ashforth, 2001). Personalized belongingness reflects a subordinate's need to be part of a mutual relationship wherein the subordinate is known as an individual (Ashforth, 2001). Because a person-based relational identity threat calls into question the traits of the subordinate, the subordinate questions if the supervisor *accepts* the subordinate, which is a critical component required for fulfilling the subordinate's desire for personalized belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). That is, person-based relational identity threat involves relational signals of rejection, potentially thwarting the subordinate's sense of personalized belongingness (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary et al., 1998).

In summary, person-based identity threats reflect the degree to which the subordinate has experienced a negative relational signal indicating rejection within the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Leary et al., 1998; Leary et al., 1995). This personal-qualities-violation challenges the subordinate's belief that he or she can achieve his or her desired relational identity with the supervisor because of potentially thwarted personalized belongingness within their relationship (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Cuddy et al., 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

3.1.2 Role-based Relational Identity Threat

Role-based relational identity threat, on the other hand, involves the occurrence of a positional-violation, as perceived by the subordinate. A positional-violation means that a relational signal is assessed as representing an inability for the subordinate to *enact his*

or her intentions within the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Cuddy et al., 2011; Leary et al., 1995). In other words, positional-violations represent difficulty carrying out the desired relational intentions due to task-related deficiencies such as hierarchical position constraints, differing role expectations or lacking skills⁴. Following from this, a *role-based relational identity threat* represents the degree to which an experience is perceived as a potential unwanted shift in how effective the subordinate is in enacting the goals, timelines, and norms that are important for the role relationship (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). These threats occur when the subordinate questions his or her ability to achieve the desired supervisor-subordinate relationship based on the tasks or positional expectations required to enact the role of subordinate within the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Role-based relational identity threats are often experienced as positional-violations, such that the subordinate lacks the skills necessary to enact the desired relational identity (Cuddy et al., 2011). Role-based relational identity threats occur at a *distance from the self*, such that they reflect disagreement or confusion as to the tasks or set of expectations typical to the given role of subordinate as opposed to the core traits and characteristics of the specific subordinate. Role-based relational identity threat is particularly salient within workplace relationships because many workplace relationships are based primarily on task-related functions, resulting in a significant need for mutual understanding in regard to role expectations (Ashforth, 2001).

Role-based relational identity threat impacts work relationships because it potentially impedes the subordinate's ability to achieve desired self-expansion (Cooper &

⁴ For the purposes of this research which is focused on the subordinate's response to relational identity threat, it is important to note that the positional-violations are perceived by the subordinate.

Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). Self-expansion reflects the subordinates' desire to acquire additional resources and perspectives from a relational other that enhance his or her self-efficacy for achieving goals (Leary, 2007). Because the role-based relational identity threat calls into question the subordinate's position or skills, then the subordinate questions if the supervisor will be willing to provide the additional resources and opportunities desired, which are critical for fulfilling the subordinate's desire for self-expansion (Aron et al., 1991; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). In summary, a role-based relational identity threat is the degree to which the subordinate fears that the desired relational identity or 'who we are' may shift in an unwanted direction due to the subordinate's position, which has the potential to thwart the subordinate's desire for self-expansion (Cuddy et al., 2008; Leary, 2007).

3.2 Relational Identity Threat and Discretionary Workplace Behaviors

Previous research has established discretionary behavior as a natural outcome of who individuals think they are (Ashforth et al., 2008; Triandis, 1989). As these earlier scholars have suggested, the behavioral choices an individual makes reflects who the individual is. Identity explains why people do what they do: "The concept of identity helps capture the essence of who people are and, thus, why they do what they do – it is at the core of why people join organizations and why they voluntarily leave, why they approach their work the way they do and why they interact with others the way they do during that work." (Ashforth et al., 2008, 334). In other words, identity is one way in which individuals make sense of the world, especially their *'place'* in it (Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006; Pratt, 2000; Weick, 1995). That is, identity serves a critical sensemaking function which manifests through behavior (Ashforth et al., 2008).

When identity is threatened, however, the ability for individuals to make sense of their ‘place’ in the world is challenged (Petriglieri, 2011; Pratt, 2000; Weick, 1995). This extends to relational identity threat as well. In the face of relational identity threat, relational members’ ability to make sense of the world, or more specifically, their *‘relational place’* in the world is challenged. From this place of uncertainty, individual behavioral choices are impacted, often as part of an implicit or subconscious process that drives behavioral outcomes (Leary et al., 1995; Weick, 1995). In the case of a relational identity threat within the supervisor-subordinate relationship, discretionary workplace behaviors represent the most proximal behavioral choices that are impacted. Because subordinates can control their level of participation in discretionary workplace behavior without necessarily harming their performance, subordinates use discretionary workplace behaviors as an outlet for expressing their identity (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008).

There are multiple opportunities in any given day to exercise discretionary workplace behavior (Burriss et al., 2008; Sonnentag, 2003). For example, previous research has argued that “employees may have several occasions daily when they decide whether to speak up” (Burriss et al., 2008, 913). I argue this repeated decision-making subordinates face throughout the day in regards to how much discretionary workplace behavior to participate in hinges upon the most recent relational signals received within the supervisor-subordinate relationship. That is, the supervisor-subordinate relationship is critical to the subordinate’s ‘relational place’ within the organization, such that negative relational signals received within the supervisor-subordinate relationship drive the momentary decision to ‘invest’ more (or less) at work through discretionary workplace

behaviors (Hektner, Schmidt, & Csikszentmihalyi, 2007; Reis & Gable, 2000). The type of directional changes in discretionary workplace behavior that result depend upon whether the subordinate experiences person-based relational identity threat or role-based relational identity threat.

3.2.1 Person-based Identity Threat and Discretionary Workplace Behavior

In the case of a person-based relational identity threat, the subordinate's desire for personalized belongingness is jeopardized. Personalized belongingness is a motivation that drives behavioral choices and shapes how subordinates make sense of the situation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). That is, how subordinates make sense of their relational place at work changes based on detection of relational signals of rejection (Leary et al., 1998). When subordinates detect rejection within the context of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, the subordinate no longer feels safe to engage in interpersonal risk taking (Edmondson, 1999). Said another way, subordinates no longer feel safe to make mistakes because of feared rejection (Edmondson, 1999, 355). Therefore, as personalized belongingness decreases and subordinates begin to cognitively shift the way in which they process relational cues, positive discretionary workplace behavior decreases because subordinates no longer sense safety in interpersonal risk taking (Aron et al., 1991; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Edmondson, 1999). At the same time, negative discretionary workplace behavior increases as a form of retaliation for the feared rejection within the potentially thwarted personalized belongingness (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Empirical research supports this notion, showing the level of personalized belonging between individuals drives how information is organized and processed

(Brewer & Hewstone, 2004). For example, in one study, researchers found that recalling nouns associated with images of a close-other differed significantly from the same task associated with a famous other, suggesting that subordinates' level of personalized belongings determines how they process and store information cognitively (Aron et al., 1991; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Brewer & Hewstone, 2004; Karney, McNulty, & Bradbury, 2004). Empirical research has also shown that when subordinates fear rejection from mistakes, subordinates decrease discretionary workplace behavior, especially organizational voice (Burriss et al., 2008; Burriss, Rodgers, Mannix, Hendron, & Oldroyd, 2009; Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009).

These empirical examples support the contention that fear of rejection drives subordinate behavior. I extend this earlier research to argue that the fear of rejection inherent within person-based relational identity threat impacts more than just voice behavior such that it would also decrease other types of positive discretionary workplace behavior such as momentary behavioral engagement. Because momentary behavioral engagement requires investment of the self above and beyond normal expectations, when the subordinate fears rejection the subordinate will be less likely to offer additional investment as a form of psychological protection. The smaller the investment on the part of the subordinate the less the subordinate has to lose should the feared rejection become a reality. Subordinates withdraw in the face of decreased psychological safety (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Edmondson, 1999; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). In regard to negative discretionary workplace behavior, this is more likely to increase in the face of feared rejection such that 'advanced retaliation' can serve as a buffer to the inherent pain that would follow from the feared rejection (Brown, 2012). That is, the subordinate may

attack first in the form of momentary supervisor-directed deviance to create the illusion that the relationship in which the feared rejection may materialize is not as valued, decreasing the potential for pain should the feared rejection materialize.

For example, Jack, a chemist at XYZ organization is trying to decide whether or not he should attend the happy hour XYZ is hosting to welcome the new summer interns. Attending the office happy hour is not required or even part of Jack's performance evaluation, but Jack wants to create a welcoming atmosphere for newcomers and a desirable office culture. Being an active member of the organization is an important part of Jack's identity. While Jack is trying to decide what to do, he receives an email that is more terse and condescending than normal from his supervisor Chloe addressing how Jack missed an important meeting. This terse email may cause Jack to sense rejection from Chloe. This rejection is a result of Jack interpreting the email as potential evidence that Jack's personal qualities aren't what Jack thought they were (i.e. level of conscientiousness has shifted in a negative way) (Cuddy et al., 2011). Therefore, Jack may choose not to stay very long or to forego the happy hour in its entirety if Jack perceives the terse email as indication of a personal-qualities-violation (i.e. person-based relational identity threat). Because the personal-qualities-violation triggers feelings of decreased personalized belongingness, Jack questions whether additional investment makes sense given that his relationship with his supervisor may not reach the potential Jack desires. While Jack may or may not consciously recognize the role the terse email had as a relational signal, the terse email still serves as a decisive relational signal in predicting Jack's discretionary workplace behavior (Leary et al., 1998; Leary et al., 1995). The decision to participate in discretionary workplace behavior is a momentary

decision, meaning the subordinate's decision can fluctuate from moment-to-moment (Burriss et al., 2008; Sonnentag, 2003). Because the terse email from the supervisor reflects a potential unwanted shift in the relational identity Jack desires with Chloe, Jack may choose to 'withhold' his full engagement⁵ at the office happy hour from the organization as an attempt to protect his identity-based interests. In addition to not attending the office happy hour, Jack may also be less likely to offer suggestions during his afternoon planning meeting (i.e. decreased momentary organizational voice) and may be more likely to participate in gossip about Chloe at that same afternoon planning meeting such that his momentary supervisor-directed deviance increases. Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 1: Person-based relational identity threat is negatively related to (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary engagement, and positively related to (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

3.2.2 Role-based Identity Threat and Discretionary Workplace Behavior

Role-based identity threat, on the other hand, interferes with a subordinate's identity-based need for self-expansion. Because self-expansion involves the process of "improving one's potential efficacy for achieving goals by increasing one's resources, perspectives, and identities" (Leary, 2007, 236), when self-expansion is potentially thwarted in one domain (i.e. within a momentary interaction with the supervisor), the subordinate will seek to achieve self-expansion through other avenues, as evidenced by increased levels of discretionary workplace behavior. Role-based relational identity threat occurs when negative relational signals indicate an inability to enact an already

⁵ Jack's options for engagement at the office happy hour range from not attending to attending with little enthusiasm (i.e. not investing his self) to full engagement of his physical, emotional, and cognitive self (Kahn, 1990).

established relational identity due to position. Therefore, in the case of role-based relational identity threat, the emerging relational challenge centers on whether or not the subordinate has *the ability to enact* the desired relational identity. (Cuddy et al., 2008; Cuddy et al., 2011). To try and resolve this role-based relational identity threat, the subordinate increases his or her level of discretionary workplace behavior as a way to re-secure his or her ‘relational place’ at work. The subordinate resolves his or her feelings of constraint that resulted from the role-based relational identity threat by increasing his or her positive discretionary workplace behavior and decreasing negative discretionary workplace behavior. These shifts in discretionary workplace behavior create a different story – one of competence. That is, participation in positive discretionary workplace behavior (and refraining from negative discretionary workplace behavior) communicates to the subordinate that he or she is in fact capable of achieving his or her desired self-expansion. Therefore, by increasing positive (and decreasing negative) discretionary workplace behavior, the subordinate is able to create a new narrative of competence and simultaneously fulfill his or her need for self-expansion (Aron et al., 1991; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). As a result, in the case of role-based relational identity threat, the subordinate continues contributing to both the supervisor-subordinate relationship and the organization as a whole.

Previous research has shown that when subordinates achieve self-expansion through self-efficacy, organizational voice and engagement results (Burriss et al., 2008; Kahn, 1992; Morrison, 2011). Therefore, I suggest that to resolve the sense of constraint and potentially thwarted desire for self-expansion that the role-based relational identity threat created, subordinates respond by increasing participation in positive discretionary

workplace behavior (and decreasing negative discretionary workplace behavior) as an attempt to create a new narrative that establishes competency (Weick, 1995). More specifically, subordinates focus on increasing momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement because these specific discretionary workplace behaviors have been shown to have a relationship with efficacy (Burriss et al., 2008; Kahn, 1992). Momentary supervisor-directed deviance, on the other hand, will decrease because deviant behavior does not follow-from efficacy, but rather fulfills retaliation desires, meaning that momentary supervisor-directed deviance will decrease because it does not fulfill the subordinate's need for self-expansion (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 2: Role-based relational identity threat is positively related to (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary engagement, and negatively related to (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

In summary, role-based relational identity threat thwarts the process of self-expansion, which reflects what a subordinate desires in the form of increased access to resources (Leary, 2007), whereas person-based relational identity thwarts personalized belonging, which reflects what a subordinate needs in regards to acceptance (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Therefore, when a subordinate experiences role-based relational identity threat, he or she increases positive (and decreases negative) discretionary workplace behavior in a continued attempt to achieve his or her desired level of self-expansion whereas when a subordinate experiences person-based relational identity threat, he or she decreases positive (and increases negative) discretionary workplace behavior because he or she has received messages of rejection. That is, role-based identity threat occurs at a *distance from the self*, whereas person-based relational identity threat is a *rejection of the*

self, such that subordinate responses to role-based relational identity threat are different from subordinate responses to person-based relational identity threat.

3.3 Momentary Relational Voice

Relational voice is communication to a supervisor with the intent of improving the workplace relationship or relational functioning with the supervisor (cf. Morrison, 2011). *Momentary relational voice* reflects the extent to which subordinates choose to speak up toward their supervisors in an effort to improve the supervisor-subordinate relationship or to improve the way in which the supervisor-subordinate relationship functions in a short period of time. That is, momentary relational voice represents an effort on the part of the subordinate to invest in improving the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Momentary relational voice requires energy and effort, which indicates both a desire and intent on the part of the subordinate to improve the “space between” the supervisor and the subordinate (Josselson, 1995).

Previous research has established communication as an important source of connection within relationships (Collins & Miller, 1994; Quinn, 2007). Following from this research, momentary relational voice serves as an important source of connection within relationships, allowing the subordinate to create the story from which his or her behavior can be explained (Ashforth et al., 2008; Weick, 1995). As Weick (1995) so aptly explained, an individual’s behavior is the source from which a narrative is created. It isn’t the narrative that drives behavior but rather the behavior that enables subordinates to create the narrative that explains what happened. Therefore, momentary relational voice enables the subordinate to *create a narrative* that explains the events of the past.

As other scholars have suggested, the narrative from which subordinates establish their 'place' at work occurs *in media res* or in the middle of things (Shipp & Jansen, 2011). Therefore, understanding the ebb and flow of workplace relationships requires understanding how subordinates make sense of their 'relational place' at work in media res. As such, I argue that subordinates are repeatedly faced with the decision whether to speak up or to remain silent in regard to supervisor-subordinate relationship issues, and that subordinates do not always make the same choice. Each moment or interaction with the supervisor affords subordinates the choice as to the amount of relational voice to offer, ranging from silence (i.e. no relational voice) to complete relational voice (i.e. sharing all thoughts related to the supervisor-subordinate relationship with the supervisor) (Morrison, 2011). Given the range of possible momentary relational voice expressions within supervisor-subordinate communication, I argue that the momentary decision subordinates make in regards to the amount of relational voice to offer differs based on the type of relational identity threat the subordinate experiences, as explained below.

3.3.1 Momentary Relational Voice and Person-based Relational Identity Threat

As described earlier, when the subordinate experiences person-based relational identity threat, the subordinate's desire for personalized belonging is challenged because of negative relational signals indicating rejection (Leary et al., 1998). When a subordinate experiences rejection within the context of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, the subordinate decreases investment in the relationship. This decreased investment within the context of the supervisor-subordinate relationship is a form of self-preservation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). That is, reduced momentary relational voice represents a type of relational de-vestment resulting from the *rejection of self* inherent within the

person-based relational identity threat. Because momentary relational voice requires energy and effort, when the subordinate begins questioning his or her relational place with the supervisor because of person-based relational identity threat, the subordinate's desire to give additional energy and effort to the supervisor decreases. That is, person-based relational identity threat decreases momentary relational voice.

Additionally, person-based relational identity threat decreases momentary relational voice because of the perceived static nature of core traits and characteristics when personalized belongingness is potentially thwarted (cf. Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1997). That is, the subordinate has detected a personal-qualities-violation suggesting underlying negative relational intentions within the context of the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Cuddy et al., 2011). Personal-qualities-violations occur because the subordinate's core characteristics and traits have been challenged (Cuddy et al., 2011). Therefore, when the subordinate feels his or her own core traits and characteristics have been challenged then he or she will be less likely to exercise momentary relational voice in an attempt to influence the supervisor. Even if the subordinate is an incremental theorist who believes personality is malleable (Chiu et al., 1997), without personalized belongingness fulfillment, core traits and characteristics seem less susceptible to influence from momentary relational voice. Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 3: Person-based relational identity threat is negatively related to momentary relational voice.

3.3.2. Momentary Relational Voice and Role-based Relational Identity Threat

Momentary relational voice is an important relational mechanism within any relationship, but takes on critical importance following from role-based relational identity

threat. As described earlier, when subordinates experience role-based relational identity threat, subordinates call into question their ‘relational place’ with the supervisor, resulting in potentially thwarted self-expansion (Weick, 1995). Because the subordinate’s identity-based motive of self-expansion has been potentially thwarted, momentary relational voice creates an opportunity for the subordinate to seek self-expansion fulfillment in a new way. That is, when self-expansion is potentially thwarted, the subordinate seeks other opportunities to fulfill his or her self-expansion needs. The self-expansion motive drives action in the form of growth and improvement of the self (Leary, 2007). When this need is tampered with, the subordinate seeks fulfillment through increased momentary relational voice because relational voice enables the subordinate to directly influence the desired enactment of the previously agreed upon relational identity with the supervisor, restoring a sense of competence and efficacy (Cuddy et al., 2011). In other words, momentary relational voice provides an opportunity for the subordinate to offer input to the supervisor on better ways to accomplish or achieve the desired relational identity that was potentially thwarted from a role-based relational identity threat.

Role-based relational identity threat indicates an inability to *enact* an already established relational identity, which encourages momentary relational voice as an influence-tactic. In other words, because the relational challenge is centered on disagreement about how to achieve the desired relational identity (i.e. depiction) as opposed to who the subordinate is (as is the case with person-based relational identity threat), subordinates offer increased momentary relational voice based on the premise that speaking up will enable achievement of the desired relational identity (Burris et al.,

2008; Morrison, 2011). This argument is supported by empirical evidence that suggests that a subordinate's choice to voice or refrain from voice "can be thought of as influenced as much by their own cognitive frameworks as caused by current bosses' behaviors or other organizational factors" (Detert & Edmondson, 2011, 482). Subordinates taken-for-granted assumptions (i.e. implicit mental models) play a significant role in predicting when employees voice. I argue, therefore, that when the subordinate believes a positional-violation caused the relational identity threat, he or she will exercise more momentary relational voice because he or she believes the voice behavior will increase the likelihood of achieving the desired relational identity. This act of voicing a desire for an improved relationship serves to affirm the subordinate's desired relational place. Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 4: Role-based relational identity threat is positively related to momentary relational voice.

In summary, person-based relational identity threat reflects a potential shift in the relational definition based on core traits and characteristics which sends the subordinate a message of rejection and potentially thwarted personalized belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Leary et al., 1998). Potentially thwarted personalized belongingness results in withdrawal behaviors as a form of self-preservation in the face of rejection (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Therefore, person-based relational identity threat is negatively associated with momentary relational voice. Role-based relational identity threat, on the other hand, reflects a potential shift in the ability to enact the already established relational identity based on position. In this case, the subordinate receives a message thwarting his or her process of self-expansion, suggesting the subordinate cannot

achieve what he or she desires in the form of growth. Because this negative relational signal of constraint occurs at a *distance from the self*, the subordinate is able to seek other ways to achieve self-expansion, such as momentary relational voice. Given this, role-based relational identity threat is positively associated with momentary relational voice.

3.4 Momentary Relational Voice as a Predictor of Discretionary Workplace Behavior

Momentary relational voice involves risk. When exercising communication with the intent to improve the relationship or relational functioning, the consequences of the communication are unknown. Exercising momentary relational voice can serve to improve the relationship and/or relational functioning. Momentary relational voice can also negatively impact the relationship and/or relational functioning. In other words, momentary relational voice can improve a relationship and momentary relational voice can harm a relationship depending on the supervisor's response. Given that there is inherent risk within momentary relational voice, exercising momentary relational voice requires investment in the form of time and energy. The resources expended to enable momentary relational voice represent resources that the subordinate could be applying toward other relationships or task-related performance (Hobfoll, 1989). Therefore, the decision to exercise momentary relational voice represents a strategic decision on the part of the subordinate to increase his or her investment within the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Previous research has shown that when a focal individual chooses to invest in a relational other, the focal individual's perceived value of the relational other increases (Collins & Miller, 1994). Following from this, I argue that when subordinates exercise momentary relational voice, they are investing in the maintenance of the supervisor-

subordinate relationship specifically (cf. Dutton & Heaphy, 2003) as well as the organization holistically (cf. Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This extension of an investment in the supervisor-subordinate relationship to the organization as a whole derives from research that has shown perceptions of a specific person typically extend to closely related others (Cuddy et al., 2011; Sluss et al., 2012). Therefore, an investment in the supervisor-subordinate relationship (i.e. exercising momentary relational voice) manifests in additional investment to the network in which the specific relationship is embedded, in this case the organization as a whole.

More specifically, momentary relational voice focuses on the subordinate's frequent opportunity to choose between addressing relational concerns or remaining silent. I argue that these opportunities to exercise relational voice form the building blocks upon which discretionary workplace behavior emerges (Burriss et al., 2008). As described earlier, relational voice allows the subordinate an opportunity to *create a new narrative*, re-securing his or her relational place. Within this newly created narrative, the subordinate chooses to increase his or her positive discretionary workplace behavior (and decrease negative discretionary workplace behavior) to maintain self-consistency.

As reviewed earlier, subordinates have a need for self-consistency (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008). Self-consistency is a desire for coherence in the form of similar goals, values, and identities (Ashforth, 2001). Therefore, as a subordinate's level of momentary relational voice increases so will his or her level of positive discretionary workplace behavior (whereas negative discretionary workplace behavior decreases) based on desire for self-consistency (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008). This occurs because increasing positive (and decreasing negative) discretionary workplace behavior

matches the new narrative the subordinate has created through momentary relational voice. Because momentary relational voice represents an effort on the part of the subordinate to improve the relationship with his or her supervisor, the subordinate follows this effort with increased positive (and decreased negative) discretionary workplace behavior to improve the organization as a whole. Through these changes in discretionary workplace behavior, the subordinate is maintaining consistency with the narrative the subordinate created through momentary relational voice (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008). Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 5: Momentary relational voice is positively related to (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary engagement, and negatively related to (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

3.5 Momentary Relational Voice as a Partial Mediator

Relational identity threat has a negative impact on supervisor-subordinate relationships, serving as a negative relational signal. When the relational identity threat is caused by a personal-qualities-violation (Cuddy et al., 2011), the subordinate experiences the negative relational signal as a *rejection of self*, resulting in decreased positive (and increased negative) discretionary workplace behavior. When the relational identity threat is caused by a positional-violation (Cuddy et al., 2011), the subordinate experiences the negative relational signal at a *distance from self*, representing a disruption in achieving growth. As such, positive discretionary workplace behavior increases (and negative discretionary workplace behavior decreases). As explained above, the subordinate's response to relational identity threat varies as a function of the impacted identity-based motives (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). Regardless of the type of relational identity threat and corresponding response, however, the subordinate's level (i.e. amount) of momentary relational voice offered to the supervisor mediates the relationship between relational

identity threat and discretionary workplace behaviors (i.e. momentary organizational voice, momentary engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance).

As previous research has shown, identity serves as a mechanism through which subordinates make sense of the world around them (Ashforth et al., 2008; Pratt et al., 2006; Pratt, 2000). As relational identity threat increases, however, subordinates' ability to make sense of their relational-self decreases. Following from this, a subordinate's *response* to the threat, as opposed to the existence of the threat itself, will play a key role in predicting the ultimate outcomes of relational identity threat. That is to say, the negative experience of relational identity threat can be transformed by utilizing an explicit sensemaking process, such as momentary relational voice targeted toward the supervisor.

For example, previous research has shown how threats serve as negative indicators that harm relationships (cf. Elsbach, 2003; Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Petriglieri, 2011). However, other research has illuminated the premise that in some situations, relational identity threat can actually serve as a catalyst to the creation of a stronger relationships (cf. Ren & Gray, 2009) . These different outcomes of identity threat illustrate that the consequences of relational identity threat are not determined by the existence of the relational identity threat, but rather by the response to the relational identity threat. These differences in outcomes, at least in part, stem from the central relationship paradox, which argues that when individuals want to bring about closeness and connection, their behaviors can actually contribute to distance and disruption (Miller & Stiver, 1997). This contradiction illustrates how even when two relational members want to build a stronger relationship, their behavior can actually create further distance. I

argue, however, relational voice bridges the central relationship paradox, serving to move relational members towards mutual understanding as opposed to creating distance and disruption, attenuating the negative consequences that can result from relationships in a state of threat.

In the case of person-based relational identity threat, the subordinate experiences a personal-qualities-violation (i.e. the potential to achieve the desired relational identity is threatened based on core traits and characteristics of the subordinate), which limits the subordinates' ability to fulfill his or her need for personalized belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). As previous research has suggested, subordinates are continually monitoring interactions with others for signs of rejection or acceptance (Leary et al., 1998; Leary et al., 1995). When a sign of rejection is detected, as is the case with person-based relational identity threat, the subordinate's personalized belongingness within the supervisor-subordinate relationship has the potential to erode. That is, a person-based relational identity threat causes the subordinate to question his or her 'relational place' with the supervisor and to fear that his or her need for personalized belongingness will no longer be met within the organization.

From this place of fear (i.e. thwarted psychological safety), the subordinate offers less relational voice to the supervisor (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). Because momentary relational voice would provide an opportunity to craft a new narrative that would re-establish personalized belongingness within the organization, offering less relational voice (or, in the extreme, relational silence) denies the subordinate the opportunity to craft a new narrative of personalized belongingness. Instead, the subordinate retains the negative narrative of rejection generated from person-based

relational identity threat, resulting in decreased positive (and increased negative) discretionary workplace behavior. Further, because the subordinate is withdrawing relationally through decreased relational voice, this intensifies the subordinate's withdrawal of positive discretionary workplace behaviors (and increases negative discretionary workplace behaviors) to maintain self-consistency (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

In summary, the subordinate's choice to offer less relational voice serves as a response to person-based relational identity threat results in the subordinate maintaining the negative narrative of rejection that emerged from person-based relational identity threat. That is, the subordinate continues to question his or her ability to achieve personalized belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). By not offering momentary relational voice, the subordinate fails to create a new narrative, ultimately resulting in less positive (and more negative) discretionary workplace behavior. Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 6a: Momentary relational voice partially mediates the association between person-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

In the case of role-based relational identity threat, however, the threat occurs at a *distance from the self*, which allows the subordinate to continue investing in the supervisor-subordinate relationship despite the threat. In this case, the subordinate's ability to achieve self-expansion is threatened based on a positional-violation (Cuddy et al., 2011; Leary, 2007). This positional-violation interferes with the subordinate's relational expectations. As a response, the subordinate is likely to participate in momentary relational voice to resolve the sense of constraint that occurred. That is,

because momentary relational voice allows the subordinate an opportunity to create a new narrative of competence, subordinates increase momentary relational voice as a way to fulfill their need for self-expansion. Because the role-based relational identity threat hampered the subordinate's ability to achieve self-expansion, the subordinate continues the process of fulfilling this motive, which I argue manifests in the form of increased momentary relational voice.

By increasing momentary relational voice, the subordinate is able to re-tell the narrative of the past in a way that supports competence as opposed to constraint. Based on this new narrative, the subordinate participates in increased positive (and decreased negative) discretionary workplace behavior because increased positive (and decreased negative) discretionary workplace behavior matches the subordinate's new narrative of competence and fulfillment of self-expansion needs (Swann, 1983; Weick, 1995). In other words, the act of momentary relational voice allows the subordinate to make sense (for his or her self) of the events that have transpired (Weick, 1995). Once the events of the past are re-cast within a new narrative involving competence, the subordinate increases participation in positive (and decreases negative) discretionary workplace behavior because these changes match a narrative of competence and fulfill the subordinate's need for self-consistency (Ashforth, 2001). That is, the subordinate's desire to increase positive (and decrease negative) discretionary workplace behavior manifests through the subordinate's participation in increased momentary relational voice. Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 6b: Momentary relational voice partially mediates the association between role-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

3.6 Self-Compassion

In considering how subordinates respond to relational identity threat, an additional research question needs to be addressed – what condition moderates how subordinates respond to relational identity threat with supervisors? While traditional individual difference variables (i.e. Big Five [Barrick & Mount, 1991]) may play a role in this process, a critical moderator to consider is self-compassion because of self-compassion's focus on how the subordinate treats him or herself in the face of failure as well as self-compassion's conceptualization as a skill that can improve (Neff, 2011; Sbarra et al., 2012). Self-compassion is a relatively new way to conceptualize how an individual intellectualizes or responds to his or her own behavior, specifically when he or she fails (Leary et al., 2007; Neff, 2003a, 2011). Relational identity threat instigates negative relational signals, and prior research has established that in the face of threat individuals will seek to maintain self-integrity in the form of self-affirmation (Elsbach, 2003; Steele, 1988). Therefore, I argue a subordinate's level of self-compassion serves as an internal source of self-affirmation, making self-compassion an important moderator in the relational identity threat response model. By understanding how subordinates treat *themselves* in the face of failure, as opposed to how subordinates behave with *others* (i.e. traditional individual difference variables), self-compassion impacts the relational identity threat response model more than traditional individual difference variables. That is, self-compassion interacts with a subordinate's identity-based motives such that a subordinate's level of self-compassion impacts all the relationships outlined within the relational identity threat response model.

Self-compassion occurs when one is “open to and moved by one’s own suffering, experiencing feelings of caring and kindness toward oneself, taking an understanding, nonjudgmental attitude toward one’s inadequacies and failures, and recognizing that one’s experience is part of the common human experience” (Neff, 2003a, 224). That is, self-compassion is a three-dimensional construct, consisting of self-kindness (i.e. treating oneself with benevolence), common humanity (i.e. connection to others through life experiences), and mindfulness (i.e. awareness of reality, not ignoring or exaggerating circumstances).

Self-compassion is a “theoretical cousin” of self-esteem (cf. Kreiner, 2011). Self-esteem refers to one’s self-evaluation of one’s own characteristics, behaviors, and identities (Brockner, 1988). That is, self-esteem focuses on evaluation and judgment of one’s self-worth in comparison to a standard of performance (Neff, 2003a). Low self-esteem contributes to a plethora of negative outcomes, however, high self-esteem has been shown to also relate to negative outcomes which makes achieving the optimal balance of self-esteem challenging (Brockner, 1988; Neff, 2011). In response to the difficulty involved in striking the optimal balance of self-esteem, Neff (2003a) exposed an alternative perspective to how an individual makes sense of oneself, illuminating the power of self-compassion. Self-compassion prioritizes self-treatment in response to negative situations. By treating oneself with the same compassion one would treat a friend facing adversity, Neff proposes self-compassion may hold the key to achieving the positive consequences that can be realized through high self-esteem while simultaneously avoiding the possible negative outcomes that result from inflated self-esteem (Neff, 2003a, 2011).

Self-compassion is a critical variable to consider in conjunction with person-based relational identity threat. Person-based relational identity threat creates an alert or signal of a potential failure in the form of potentially thwarted personalized belongingness. That is to say, self-compassion, or how a subordinate responds to him or herself in the face of failure, allows for more accurate predictions of how a subordinate will respond to a supervisor as person-based relational identity threat increases. Because the subordinate's self-compassion serves as a resource to buffer against the danger of thwarted need for personalized belongingness (Hobfoll, 1989; Thau et al., 2007), self-compassion serves as an important moderator within the relational identity threat response model.

When personalized belongingness is thwarted, the subordinate withdraws in varying degrees from the relationship in which the personalized belongingness is harmed. This desire to withdraw, however, interacts with the subordinate's level of self-compassion. As a subordinate's level of self-compassion increases, then the risk of thwarted personalized belongingness with the supervisor is less threatening because of the presence of compassion from the self (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Neff, 2003a). That is to say, the subordinate can depend on or rely on receiving more compassion from his or herself in the face of failure (as self-compassion increases) which protects against the damage that can result to the self-concept following from person-based relational identity threat (cf. Petriglieri, 2011). In other words, self-compassion fills in the gap the thwarted personalized belongingness created, motivating the subordinate to stay connected within the supervisor-subordinate relationship. From this place of continued connection, the subordinate is more likely to exercise momentary relational voice, which attenuates the negative relationship between person-based relational identity threat and momentary

relational voice described earlier. For subordinates with less self-compassion, relational identity threat represents the potential for a double loss – potential loss from an unwanted shift in relational identity with the supervisor as well as potential for infliction of pain and poor treatment from the self (Neff, 2003a, 2011).

More specifically, self-compassion, as a form of protection against the rejection inherent within person-based relational identity threat, also attenuates the subordinate's desire to withdraw from the larger organization as a whole. As argued earlier, it is the *rejection of self* (i.e. core traits and characteristics) that results in decreased momentary relational voice and discretionary workplace behaviors following from person-based relational identity threat. Therefore, as the subordinates' level of self-compassion increases, the subordinate is less impacted by the rejection from the person-based relational identity threat, attenuating all the negative relationships described earlier.

Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 7: When self-compassion is higher, the negative relationship between person-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice and (b) momentary behavioral engagement is weakened, as is the positive relationship between person-based relational identity threat and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

Hypothesis 8: When self-compassion is higher, the negative relationship between person-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice is weakened.

Hypothesis 9: Self-compassion will moderate the indirect effect of person-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior (through momentary relational voice).

In regard to role-based relational identity threat, self-compassion also interacts with a subordinate's desire for self-expansion. In this case, increased self-compassion strengthens a subordinate's desire for self-expansion, which strengthens the relationships

between role-based relational identity threat and the outcomes hypothesized earlier. When a subordinate experiences a role-based relational identity threat, he or she questions whether the desired relational identity is possible because of the tasks or positional expectations required to enact the associated roles (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). This role-based relational identity threat potentially impedes the subordinate's ability to achieve desired self-expansion (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). The subordinate's level of self-compassion interacts with role-based relational identity threat, such that as self-compassion increases, the desire for self-expansion also increases following from a role-based relational identity threat. That is, when self-compassion is higher, the subordinate treats him or herself well in the face of the failure that could result from a role-based relational identity threat. This increased compassion to the self *from the self* motivates a positive response in the form of increased desire for self-expansion. That is, when desired self-expansion is potentially thwarted, if the subordinate can provide him or herself with more compassion, then the subordinate can accept the thwarted self-expansion from role-based relational identity threat with a resilience that generates a desire to seek even more self-expansion. Therefore, I argue the following:

Hypothesis 10: When self-compassion is higher, the positive relationship between role-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice and (b) momentary engagement is strengthened, as is the negative relationship between role-based relational identity threat and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

Hypothesis 11: When self-compassion is higher, the positive relationship between role-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice is strengthened.

Hypothesis 12: Self-compassion will moderate the indirect effect of role-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior (through momentary relational voice).

CHAPTER 4 METHODS

4.1 Research Design Overview

The research design focuses on the dynamic nature in which relational identity threat and corresponding discretionary workplace behavior unfolds within workplace relationships. Given this focus, the theoretical model described earlier will be tested using experience sampling methodology. Experience sampling methodology requires that research participants complete multiple surveys over the course of the survey period to capture within-person variance in regards to the constructs of interest (Beal & Weiss, 2003; Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013; Hektner et al., 2007). The benefits of an experience sampling design include: focusing on how states and behaviors change in significant ways over time, fuller understanding of underlying psychological processes within the context of when they occur, as well as the potential to reduce recall bias present in survey data (Beal & Weiss, 2003). Additionally, and most importantly, because the model described earlier focuses on within-person responses to relational identity threat and how those responses drive momentary choices about discretionary workplace behaviors, experience sampling research design is the most appropriate choice to assess the underlying theoretical premises (McGrath, 1982).

Experience sampling research can include a variety of designs: event-contingent designs, signal-contingent designs, and interval-contingent designs (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013; Wheeler & Reis, 1991). The differences in these designs depend upon *when* participants complete surveys, or the catalyst for starting a survey session. Event-contingent designs occur when the participant in the research is trained on the criteria that define an ‘event’, such that when the event occurs, the participant completes the

designated survey (Wheeler & Reis, 1991). This design requires that the participant be clear as to which ‘events’ count for the purposes of the research and which events do not qualify as an official research-related event. Therefore, the disadvantage of an event-contingent design is that if participants are unable to distinguish or recognize an event, then the researchers will not gain the data they need to answer their research question or, perhaps even worse, researchers will not realize that critical data is missing from the data collection such that participants failed to recognize relevant ‘events’ (or included non-events) within the dataset (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Despite these disadvantages, event-contingent designs do allow for researchers to capture rare events that the other experience sampling methodologies would make it difficult to find (Wheeler & Reis, 1991).

Signal-contingent designs, on the other hand, require participants to complete a survey each and every time participants receive a predetermined signal from the research team, with a special emphasis on the participants experience in that isolated moment in which the signal is received (Wheeler & Reis, 1991). Signals can be generated by the researchers at pre-determined ‘fixed’ times or can be generated on a random basis. The advantage of this design is that it allows researchers to capture participants ‘in the moment’ of various activities, however, if researchers are trying to capture rare events, then the chance that researchers will time the signals with the desired event are significantly less likely (Wheeler & Reis, 1991). As such, while signal-contingent designs can virtually eliminate recency and memorability biases, signal-contingent designs can also preclude the collection of relevant data needed to achieve a large-enough sample from which to find effects (Wheeler & Reis, 1991).

Finally, interval-contingent designs are very similar to signal-contingent designs, with the distinction that participants know in advance when they will be required to complete the surveys. This interval-contingent design has the benefit of providing participants with the least intensive or disruptive process of the three different experience sampling methodology designs, which is one of the reasons I chose to use an interval-contingent design. Because in an interval-contingent design the participant is reminded to complete the survey at regular intervals, the element of surprise is removed from the process (Hektner et al., 2007). While participants may still be susceptible to recency and memorability bias with an interval-contingent design, researchers are able to capture the participant's experience since the last survey, which is important for the topic in which I am studying (Reis & Gable, 2000; Wheeler & Reis, 1991). Because the frequency of relational-identity threats is susceptible to idiosyncratic variability, I needed to utilize a design that would capture the events between surveys in addition to the events 'in the moment' the surveys were distributed. Because my model focuses on relational identity threats, or potential shifts away from a desired relational identity, it may at first-blush seem that an event-contingent design would be more appropriate. However, the participant's ability to recognize the event in question proves to be a risk too large to overcome with an event-contingent design. Event-contingent designs require both training and recognition on the part of participants to observe the construct or event in real-time and complete surveys accordingly. As Beal and Weiss (2003) suggest, if participants experience any difficulty recognizing or discriminating between events that qualify and events that do not, then the validity of the research is questionable. Given that sociometer theory specifically delineates that relational signals can occur unconsciously

(Leary et al., 1998; Leary et al., 1995), it is possible that participants would miss interpreting key episodes of relational identity threat, rendering the research results from the study invalid. Therefore, my choice to use an interval-contingent research design is the most appropriate, given that this design captures the dynamic nature of workplace relationships as elaborated on above, while also ensuring that subconscious relational signals are included within the data collection. Also, an interval-based design, as opposed to a signal based design, decreases the burden on the participant as the participant is able to anticipate the timing of survey completion and, therefore, are better able to make appropriate time allocation to thoughtful survey completion during the course of the workday (Beal & Weiss, 2003; Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). This design feature of the interval contingent research was especially important given the context in which the research participants work. Given that my participants were employed within healthcare settings where emergencies often arise, being able to communicate to participants in advance the requirements of the study and expectations as to when surveys would be received and the amount of time participants would have to respond was a critical component of obtaining commitment to the research from participants. The decreased burden that interval-contingent designs offer participants was essential for reassuring participants that they would have the time available to effectively participate in the research.

4.2 Participants

To investigate the model described earlier, I targeted participants employed within medical practices. I chose to focus on medical practices for two theoretical reasons: 1) frequency of interactions and 2) clearly defined roles. Utilizing a sample in

which the employee's daily experience includes multiple opportunities for communication with their supervisor about their work wherein the tasks for the employee are explicitly defined creates an environment in which both types of relational identity threat are more likely to occur. As a result, the impact of these relational identity threats can be understood. Medical practices represent complex organizations in which "work tasks" (i.e. attending to patients) involve an intense level of coordination among employees. Each patient that visits a medical practice is routed through a complex web of procedures requiring the interaction and hand-off amongst and between medical practice employees. This high-intensity of interaction and coordination creates an environment well-suited for understanding the momentary implications of relational identity threat for discretionary workplace behavior. In addition to frequency of interactions, medical practices also represent a context in which roles are clearly defined. The job of the front-desk employee is clearly different from the role of the physician's assistant. Given these demarcations between responsibilities of medical practice employees, medical practices represent an ideal setting in which to investigate the relationship between person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat.

Therefore, my research sample consists of employees from three separate medical practices, referred to as City, Village, and Town. City is a small medical practice, which includes five employees ranging from opticians to front-office staff. Village is a medium-sized medical practice with approximately 20 employees ranging from opticians to front-office staff. Town represents a large medical clinic with approximately 50-60 employees, offering a range of services including primary care, laboratory services, and a pharmacy.

The demographics of the final sample (35 participants) can be described as follows: 28 female (80%), 6 male (17.1%) and 1 undisclosed (2.9%); 1 Asian/Pacific Islander (2.9%), 9 Black/African American (25.7%), 18 White/Caucasian (51.4%), 5 Other (14.3%), and 2 undisclosed (5.7%); 4 completed high school (11.4%), 11 completed some college without earning a degree (31.4%), 5 earned an Associate's degree (14.3%), 5 earned a Bachelor's degree (14.3%), 3 earned a Master's degree (8.6%), 5 earned a Doctorate degree (14.3%), 2 undisclosed (5.7%); with a mean age of 41.09 (s.d. = 12.09).

4.3 Procedures

To recruit participants, I was invited to share the details of my research with employees at each of the three office locations as part of either already scheduled employee meetings or in one-on-one conversations⁶. At these informational meetings, potential participants were told the research focuses on the daily workplace experience, with particular emphasis targeted towards the twice-daily nature of the surveys and the importance of completing both surveys each day to ensure an accurate picture of the workplace experience is created. In addition, participants were provided instructions as to the importance of answering each survey based on *only* the experiences of that given

⁶ I was not provided with any data by the employing organizations as to employee lists or demographic data of employees. Participation was strictly voluntary and all contact information was provided by employees after expressing interest. Therefore, a non-respondent analysis is not possible, as I do not have any data in regards to those that learned about the opportunity to participate and declined to complete any of the surveys. However, an independent sample T-Test was conducted to compare the means of those four participants who completed the initial survey but did not complete any of the remaining surveys. The four participants who completed the initial survey were different from the participants who completed at least one of the twice-daily surveys in regard to education (initial only $M=2.5$ vs. $M=4.12$, $t=-4.28$, $p<.01$) and gender (initial only $M = 2$ vs. $M = 1.83$, $t=2.86$, $p = .01$). The four participants who completed the initial survey were not different from the participants who completed at least one of the twice-daily surveys in regard to age (initial only $M=48.5$ vs. $M=41.9$, $t=.7554$, $p=.50$), race (initial only $M=3.25$ vs. $M=3.98$, $t=-2.47$, $p=.05$), or self-compassion (initial only $M=4.9$ vs. $M=4.6$, $t=0.40$, $p=.71$). These differences, however, are partially attenuated in that demographic differences are controlled for where appropriate throughout the analysis.

period of time. Potential participants were informed that the data collection period would last for two weeks and would include a twice-daily email with a survey link at approximately 10 AM and 3:00 PM⁷. For the survey to be considered complete, participants needed to submit the morning survey at least one-hour before the afternoon survey began and the afternoon survey needed to be completed before 6:00 PM to ensure the survey captured a momentary perspective. Further, participants were informed that to qualify for compensation, 80% of the surveys needed to be completed⁸. Participants were told that each survey was expected to take 10-15 minutes to complete. Potential participants were given the opportunity to ask questions about the project with the understanding that more specific details about the research results can only be shared once the survey period is complete. Potential participants were asked to enroll in the research project by completing an initial survey online. 47 participants completed the initial survey and 43 participants completed at least one of the twice-daily surveys. 35 completed 80% of the daily surveys.

An independent sample T-test was conducted to compare the means of those participants completing at least 80% of the surveys (35 participants) and those participants who completed less than the desired 80% (8 participants). Means between the two groups were compared for each of the main variables of interest. To compare means, the nested component of the data needed to be accounted for, such that each participant's mean-level of the main variables of interest was compared. Dummy codes were created such that participants who completed at least 80% of the surveys, labeled as

⁷ For employees at Town, the afternoon survey was sent at 2:00 PM to accommodate a different operational schedule.

⁸ Participants who completed 80% of the twice-daily surveys earned \$30 compensation.

partially complete, were coded as “1” whereas participants who completed less than 80% of the surveys were coded as “0”, and labeled as minimally complete. For momentary organizational voice, there were no statistical differences between the partially complete group ($M = 3.38$) and the minimally complete group ($M = 3.50$, $t = 0.86$, $df = 77.34$, $p = .39$). For momentary behavioral engagement, there were no statistical differences between the partially complete group ($M = 5.91$) and the minimally complete group ($M = 5.72$, $t = -1.82$, $df = 75.02$, $p = .07$), nor were there statistically significant differences for self-compassion ($M_{\text{partial}} = 4.59$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 4.89$, $t = 1.72$, $df = 74.06$, $p = .09$). However, for role-based relational identity threat ($M_{\text{partial}} = 1.63$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 1.22$, $t = -8.61$, $df = 114.56$, $p < .01$), person-based relational identity threat ($M_{\text{partial}} = 1.79$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 1.30$, $t = -9.07$, $df = 153.609$, $p < .01$), momentary relational voice ($M_{\text{partial}} = 3.27$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 3.57$, $t = 2.43$, $df = 84.95$, $p = .02$), and momentary supervisor-directed deviance ($M_{\text{partial}} = 1.28$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 1.16$, $t = -2.72$, $df = 97.40$, $p = .01$), participants with minimal data (i.e. less than 80%) as compared to participants with partially complete data (i.e. at least 80% complete) demonstrated statistically significant differences in mean-levels. There were not any statistical significant differences between the two groups in regards to age ($M_{\text{partial}} = 41.27$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 39.53$, $t = -.76$, $df = 66.74$, $p = .45$), race ($M_{\text{partial}} = 3.96$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 4.00$, $t = .34$, $df = 75.35$, $p = .74$), or gender ($M_{\text{partial}} = 1.81$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 1.84$, $t = .54$, $df = 75.08$, $p = .59$), however participants with minimal data were significantly different from participants with partially complete data in regard to completed education ($M_{\text{partial}} = 4.23$, $M_{\text{minimal}} = 3.73$, $t = -3.52$, $df = 97.27$, $p < .01$).

These differences in the substantive variables of interest are consistent with the temporal nature of my research design. Because my research questions seek to highlight the ebb and flow of workplace relationships, I needed to capture momentary data across a sufficient number of work days (i.e. 10) to examine each of my hypotheses. For participants who did not complete 80% of the surveys across the designated days, their mean levels of many of the variables of interest were significantly different from participants with which I have a larger temporal ‘picture’ of their work experience. Given these differences, only participants who completed at least 80% of the surveys were included in my analysis, resulting in the final sample of 35 participants as described earlier.

4.3.1 Initial Survey

Each participant that chose to participate in the research project completed an initial survey. This initial survey included the moderator variable, self-compassion, which represents a stable skill (Neff, 2011; Sbarra et al., 2012). Self-compassion was not expected to vary within the research collection period, justifying collection of this variable on the initial survey. In addition, the initial survey included relevant demographic information, such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, and educational history.

4.3.2 Twice-Daily Survey

Once participants completed the initial survey, they began receiving twice-daily surveys for ten working days. Each twice-daily survey consisted of the independent variables (i.e. person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat), the mediating variable (i.e. momentary relational voice), and the dependent

variables (i.e. momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, and momentary supervisor-directed deviance).

4.4 Measures

Each of the following measures were assessed utilizing a seven-point scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”. Using a 7-point scale enables the detection of variance while not burdening participants with an overabundance of choice (Hektner et al., 2007). Additionally, the full scales I used in the pilot study are listed below. For each of the measures listed below, all the items listed were included in the pilot study, whereas the bold items reflect the shortened scales used in the main data collection.

Relational identity threat. Building from prior research on both identity threat at the individual level (Aquino & Douglas, 2003) as well as one study that examined relational identity threat (Thompson, 2013), I created a new scale to measure both components of relational identity threat – person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat. Because the current scales either do not address the relational level of identity threat (Aquino & Douglas, 2003), or fail to capture the nuance of person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat (Thompson, 2013), I developed a new scale that both integrates and expands these earlier scales by incorporating person-based relational identity threat items as well as role-based relational identity threat items. Following scale development guidelines from Hinkin (1995, 1998), I used an iterative process of matching the items to the definition. To further validate the scale, I conducted a pilot study to ensure the newly developed scale meets accepted standards based on exploratory factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The pilot study was conducted with participants from MTurk, wherein each participant was compensated \$1.00 for each daily survey completed across three consecutive days. 53 participants completed the first survey, 40 of the 53 participants completed the second survey, and 34 of the 53 participants completed the third survey. This data set was then reduced to a complete data set of 112 observations that in addition to completing the surveys, also included correct responses to the attention check question. The demographics of the final pilot sample (53 participants) can be described as follows: 22 female (41.5%), 27 male (50.9%) and 4 undisclosed (7.5%); 1 Native American (1.9%), 4 Asian/Pacific Islander (7.5%), 7 Black/African American (13.2%), 35 White/Caucasian (66.0%), 2 Hispanic (3.8%), and 4 undisclosed (7.5%); 1 completed some high school (1.9%), 4 completed high school (7.5%), 8 completed some college without earning a degree (15.1%), 1 earned an Associate's degree (1.9%), 25 earned a Bachelor's degree (47.2%), 9 earned a Master's degree (17.0%), 1 earned a Doctorate degree (1.9%), 4 undisclosed (7.5%); with mean age of 35.86 (s.d. = 10.40).

I utilized exploratory factor analysis based on a principal components extraction to determine the three highest loading items for each of the two respective scales, person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat, which are bolded below. Following from this, I calculated Cronbach's alpha for each of the two scales: person-based relational identity threat ($\alpha = .96$) and role-based relational identity threat ($\alpha = .94$). In addition, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (Lavaan package, R) to further establish the validity of the measure (Hinkin, 1998), testing a two-factor model of the six items, which resulted in a good fit of the data ($\chi^2 = 37.50$ [$df = 8$], $p < .01$; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .08, $p = .04$; SRMR = .02) (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Person-based relational identity threat. Each twice-daily survey assessed person-based relational identity threat that had occurred in the few hours preceding the survey distribution. The measure has a Cronbach's alpha of .96. The instructions and items are as follows:

Reflect upon the experiences you had while interacting with your supervisor IN THE LAST FEW HOURS⁹ and, then, indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. In the last few hours, I questioned if I have what it takes to live up to the expectations of my working relationship with my supervisor.
2. In the last few hours, I doubted whether my personal qualities enable me to work well with my supervisor.
3. I have misgivings about who I have been at work in the last few hours.
4. **In the last few hours, I have been less confident in whether my personality traits are helpful to maintaining an effective relationships with my supervisor.**
5. I have reservations about my character at work in the last few hours.
6. **I believe that my nature at work gets in the way of how my supervisor and I have worked together in the last few hours.**
7. In the last few hours, I have wonder if how my supervisor and I work together is hampered by my temperament.
8. **In the last few hours, I have questioned if my personality harms my relationship with my supervisor at work.**

Role-based relational identity threat. Each twice-daily survey assessed role-based relational identity threat in the last few hours. The measure has a Cronbach's alpha of .94. The instructions and items are as follows:

Reflect upon the experiences you had while interacting with your supervisor IN THE LAST FEW HOURS and, then, indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. **In the last few hours, I questioned whether I have the ability to play my work role effectively.**
2. **In the last few hours, I wondered if my competence is sufficient to work effectively with my supervisor.**

⁹ For the pilot study, the references to "in the last few hours" were changed to "today" because the pilot study occurred once per day whereas the main study occurred twice-daily. This change to "today" was consisted throughout all the measures of the study.

3. I believe that my skills get in the way of my relationship with my supervisor in the last few hours.
4. In the last few hours, I have had misgivings as to my capability for functioning well with my supervisor.
- 5. I doubt whether I performed my work role effectively with my supervisor in the last few hours.**
6. In the last few hours, I am less confident about how my skills enable an effective working relationships with my supervisor.
7. I have reservations as to whether my abilities enable my supervisor and I to work well together in the last few hours.
8. In the last few hours, I wonder if how I work gets in the way of an effective relationship with my supervisor.

I followed the same process outlined above for relational identity threat with each of the remaining variables to validate the use of shortened scales for my main data collection. That is, I performed an exploratory factor analysis based on a principal components extraction to determine the three highest loading items for each of the two respective scales. Given the number of variables of interest in addition to the repetitive nature of an experience sampling design, shortening the twice-daily surveys to reduce the cognitive burden for participants was important (Hektner et al., 2007). For each of the measures listed below, all the items listed were included in the pilot study, whereas the bolded items reflect the shortened scales used in the main data collection. That is, all original items are listed below, with the three highest loading items bolded.

Self-compassion. I used Neff's (2003b) five-item sub-scale of kindness . In a study further validating self-compassion as a distinct and reliable construct from self-esteem, Leary and colleagues (2007) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .91. While I included all five of the sub-scales (listed below) in the survey, I focused my analysis on the five-items in the self-kindness subscale given that the self-kindness subscale represents the dimension of self-compassion most relevant to my research model. That is, the self-kindness

dimension represents the facet of self-compassion that will moderate a subordinate's reaction to relational identity threat. Self-compassion is considered a stable skill, and was, therefore, assessed as part of the initial survey. The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .89, includes:

Self-kindness subscale:

- 1. I try to be understanding and patient towards those aspects of my personality I don't like.**
- 2. I'm kind to myself when I'm experiencing suffering.**
- 3. When I'm going through a very hard time, I give myself the caring and tenderness I need.**
- 4. I'm tolerant of my own flaws and inadequacies.**
- 5. I try to be loving towards myself when I'm feeling emotional pain.**

Self-judgment subscale:

6. When I see aspects of myself that I don't like, I get down on myself.
7. When times are really difficult, I tend to be tough on myself.
8. I can be a bit cold-hearted towards myself when I'm experiencing suffering.
9. I'm disapproving and judgmental about my own flaws and inadequacies.
10. I'm intolerant and impatient towards those aspects of my personality I don't like.

Common humanity subscale:

11. When I feel inadequate in some way, I try to remind myself that feelings of inadequacy are shared by most people.
12. I try to see my failings as part of the human condition.
13. When I'm down and out, I remind myself that there are lots of other people in the world feeling like I am.
14. When things are going badly for me, I see the difficulties as part of life that everyone goes through.

Isolation subscale:

15. When I fail at something that's important to me I tend to feel alone in my failure.
16. When I think about my inadequacies it tends to make me feel more separate and cut off from the rest of the world.
17. When I'm feeling down I tend to feel like most other people are probably happier than I am.
18. When I'm really struggling I tend to feel like other people must be having an easier time of it.

Mindfulness subscale:

19. When something upsets me I try to keep my emotions in balance.
20. When I'm feeling down I try to approach my feelings with curiosity and openness.
21. When something painful happens I try to take a balanced view of the situation.
22. When I fail at something important to me I try to keep things in perspective.

Over-identification subscale:

23. When something upsets me I get carried away with my feelings.

24. When I'm feeling down I tend to obsess and fixate on everything that's wrong.
25. When something painful happens I tend to blow the incident out of proportion.
26. When I fail at something important to me I become consumed by feelings of inadequacy.

Momentary relational voice. I changed the target of Van Dyne & LePine's (1998) six-item scale from the work group to the supervisor-subordinate relationship, also adding the prime 'in the last few hours' to emphasize the temporal nature of the construct. Van Dyne & LePine reported a Cronbach's alpha of .94. Momentary relational voice directed toward the supervisor was assessed as part of the twice-daily survey. The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .90, includes:

1. In the last few hours, I developed and made recommendations concerning issues that affect my relationship with my supervisor.
2. **In the last few hours, I communicated my opinions about how my supervisor and I work together, even if my opinion was different from my supervisor's opinion.**
3. **In the last few hours, I kept well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful for the relationship I have with my supervisor.**
4. In the last few hours, I got involved in issues with my supervisor that affect the quality of our relationship.
5. In the last few hours, I spoke up and encouraged my supervisor to get involved in issues that affect our relationship.
6. **In the last few hours, I spoke up to my supervisor with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures that will benefit our relationship.**

Momentary organizational voice. I used Van Dyne & LePine's (1998) six-item scale, changing the target from work group to organization and adding the moniker 'in the last few hours' to emphasize the temporal nature of the construct. Van Dyne & LePine reported a Cronbach's alpha of .94. Momentary organizational voice was assessed on the twice-daily survey. The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .92, includes:

1. **In the last few hours, I developed and made recommendations concerning issues that affect my organization.**
2. In the last few hours, I communicated my opinions about work issues to others at my organization, even if my opinion was different from others in the group.

3. In the last few hours, I kept well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my organization.
4. In the last few hours, I got involved in issues that affect the quality of work life at my organization.
- 5. In the last few hours, I spoke up and encouraged others at my organization to get involved in issues that affect my organization.**
- 6. In the last few hours, I spoke up at my organization with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.**

Momentary behavioral engagement. I tested 11-items from Rothbard & Patil's (2012) proposed 15-item scale in my pilot study. These 11 items represent the absorption and energy dimensions of engagement, as these most closely match the conception of engagement as a behavior. The other four items that Rothbard and Patil propose reflect the attention dimension of engagement, which fit more closely with engagement as a cognition, therefore, I did not include them in my survey. The absorption dimension was developed by Rothbard (2001) and reported a Cronbach's alpha of .78, whereas the energy (i.e. physical engagement) dimension was developed by Rich, LePine, & Crawford (2010), with a reported Cronbach's alpha of .95. Momentary behavioral engagement was assessed as part of the twice-daily survey. The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .67, includes:

1. When I was working in the last few hours, I often lost track of time.
2. I often got carried away in the last few hours by what I was working on.
3. When I was working in the last few hours, I was completely engrossed by my work.
4. When I was working, I was totally absorbed in the last few hours.
5. Nothing could distract me in the last few hours when I was working.
6. I worked with intensity in the last few hours on my job.
7. I exerted my full effort in the last few hours on my job.
8. I devoted a lot of energy to my job in the last few hours.
- 9. I tried my hardest in the last few hours to perform well on my job.**
- 10. I strived as hard as I could in the last few hours to complete my job.**
- 11. I exerted a lot of energy on my job in the last few hours.**

Momentary supervisor-directed deviance. I used an adapted version of the 10-item Supervisor-Directed Deviance Scale from Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) who reported a Cronbach's alpha of .82. I have adapted the scale to reflect the momentary nature of the construct as theorized earlier, adding the distinction "in the last few hours" to each of the items. Momentary supervisor-directed deviance was assessed as part of the twice-daily survey. The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .99, includes:

1. I made fun of my supervisor at work in the last few hours.
2. **I played a mean prank on my supervisor in the last few hours.**
3. In the last few hours, I made an obscene comment or gesture toward my supervisor.
4. **I acted rudely toward my supervisor in the last few hours.**
5. I gossiped about my supervisor in the last few hours.
6. **In the last few hours, I made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark against my supervisor.**
7. I publicly embarrassed my supervisor in the last few hours.
8. I swore at my supervisor in the last few hours.
9. In the last few hours, I refused to talk to my supervisor.
10. I said something hurtful to my supervisor at work in the last few hours.

Control variables. As part of the initial survey, I collected key demographic variables as well: age, race, gender, and education. I collected these demographic variables to ensure that the relationships I am examining are not impacted by key differences in participants in regards to external life-experience, as opposed to the substantive variables of interest. This potential is the strongest with self-compassion, given that all the other between-person differences are eliminated given that I use within-cluster centering (see section 5.1). It stands to reason, however, that self-compassion may be related to life experiences, such that controlling for age, race, gender, and education may be necessary. Therefore, following Becker (2005), I regressed all of my dependent variables and the mediator on all the potential demographic control variables (i.e. age, race, gender, and education) to measure potency. The results suggested that both age and

education were significant predictors of momentary relational voice and momentary organizational voice. Therefore, I controlled for age and education in models in which either momentary relational voice or momentary organizational voice were dependent variables.

Exploratory Analysis. I included several other variables as part of both the initial survey and twice-daily surveys to allow for post-hoc exploratory analysis. The purpose of this exploratory analysis is to further understand how the different types of relational identity threat impact identity-based motives. Each of these measures utilized a seven-point scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”. Additionally, the full scales I used in the pilot study are listed below, with the bold items reflecting the shortened scales used in the main data collection.

Generalized self-efficacy. I used the eight-item New General Self-Efficacy Scale from Chen, Gully and Eden (2001). In two studies, the authors found a Cronbach’s alpha of .86 and .90, respectively. Generalized self-efficacy is considered a stable variable, and was assessed as part of the initial survey. The measure, which has a Cronbach’s alpha of .88, includes:

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Growth need strength. I used Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) six-item scale from the Job Diagnostics Survey. The Job Diagnostics Survey has been used

extensively in research and two unrelated studies both reported a Cronbach's alpha of .88 (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2009; Staw & Oldham, 1978). Growth need strength is considered a stable variable, and was included as part of the initial survey for use in the alternate analysis (See section 5.7 below). The measure has a Cronbach's alpha of .84. The instructions and items include:

Please indicate the degree to which you would like to have each characteristic present in your job.

1. Stimulating and challenging work.
2. Opportunities to learn new things from my work.
3. Chances to exercise independent thought and action in my job.
4. Opportunities to be creative and imaginative in my work.
5. Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.
6. A sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work.

Personalized belonging. I used Leary, Kelly, Cottrell, & Schreindorfer's (2013) 10-item Need to Belong Scale, which has been used by other scholars with a reported Cronbach's alpha of .84 (Beal & Weiss, 2003) and a reported Cronbach's alpha of .83 (Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013), respectively. Need to belong is considered a stable individual difference, and was included as part of the initial survey for the alternate analysis (See section 5.7 below). The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .85, includes:

1. If other people don't seem to accept me, I don't let it bother me.
2. I try hard not to do things that will make other people avoid or reject me.
3. I seldom worry about whether other people care about me.
4. I need to feel that there are people I can turn to in times of need.
5. I want other people to accept me.
6. I do not like being alone.
7. Being apart from my friends for long periods of time does not bother me.
8. I have a strong need to belong.
9. It bothers me a great deal when I am not included in other people's plans.
10. My feelings are easily hurt when I feel that others do not accept me.

Momentary personalized belonging. In addition to capturing the need to belong as a stable individual difference, I adapted the Need to Belong Scale (Leary et al., 2013) to capture momentary shifts in subordinate's need for belonging. To accomplish this, I shortened the scale to 4-items and added "today" to the items to emphasize the need to belong as a state¹⁰. Momentary personalized belonging was measured as part of the twice daily survey to use in the alternate analysis (See section 5.7 below). The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .94, includes the following items:

Reflect upon the experiences you had while working **in the last few hours** and, then, indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

In the last few hours, an experience or experiences resulted in me:

- 1. Trying hard not to do things that would make other people avoid or reject me.**
2. Feeling that there are people I can turn to in times of need.
- 3. Wanting other people to accept me.**
- 4. Being bothered a great deal when I am not included in other people's plans.**

Momentary self-expansion. I used four of the eight¹¹ New General Self-Efficacy Scale items from Chen, Gully and Eden (2001). In two studies, the authors found a Cronbach's alpha of .86 and .90, respectively. I adapted this measure to fit the momentary nature of the construct and to capture the desire to seek self-expansion through 'improved self-efficacy' (Leary, 2007), as opposed to general self-efficacy. More specifically, I added "in the last few hours" to the item instructions as well as, where appropriate, modified the wording to reflect seeking self-expansion as opposed to achieving it. Momentary self-expansion was measured as part of the twice-daily

¹⁰ Only three of the four items from the original scale were used to maintain a twice-daily survey that was manageable for participants in regard to length of survey.

¹¹ *ibid*

survey to use in the alternate analysis (See section 5.7 below). The measure, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .94, includes:

Reflect upon the experiences you had while working **in the last few hours** and, then, indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. When facing difficult tasks in the last few hours, I am certain that I will have the opportunity to accomplish them.
2. **I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.**
3. **I try to successfully overcome many challenges.**
4. **I am confident that I can acquire what I need to perform effectively on many different tasks.**

4.5 Attrition Analysis

Given the differences in educational history between the two groups, I investigated the role of attrition with the data set. More specifically, I followed Goodman and Blum's (1996) procedures for testing longitudinal data for non-random missingness. I conducted a regression analysis of all the substantive variables of interest (person-based relational identity threat, role-based relational identity threat, momentary relational voice, momentary organizational voice, momentary behavioral engagement, momentary supervisor-directed deviance, and self-compassion) as predictors of the dummy coded variable for completed surveys (1=completed at least 80% of the surveys and 0=completed less than 80% of the surveys) utilizing each participant's first twice-daily survey. The results of the regression are as follows: Person-based relational identity threat ($\beta = .05$, $p = .51$), role-based relational identity threat ($\beta = -.03$, $p = .72$), momentary relational voice ($\beta = .01$, $p = .89$), momentary organizational voice, ($\beta = -0.04$, $p = .47$), momentary behavioral engagement ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .86$), momentary deviance ($\beta = .03$, $p = .82$), and self-compassion ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .86$). Since none of the substantive variables of interest at time 1 predicted whether a participant chose to complete at least 80% of the surveys, this suggests that the data are missing at random

and that the attrition within the sample has not biased the results: “If the results of the multiple logistic regression analysis indicate no non-random sampling, data are missing at random, at least with respect to the variables of interest, and researchers can be reasonably confident that attrition will not bias their subsequent longitudinal data analyses of these variables” (Goodman & Blum, 1996, 634). This attrition analysis supports the use of only the participants who completed at least 80% of the twice-daily surveys for my analysis.

4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To ensure the variables of interest represent a good fit of the data, confirmatory factor analysis (Lavaan package for R) was used. First, the hypothesized seven-factor model was tested ($\chi^2 = 837.76$ [$df = 209$], $p < .01$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .07, $p < .01$, SRMR = .05) indicating a good fit of the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999)¹².

Next, I compared my hypothesized model to two other possible models: 1) a six-factor model with relational voice and organizational voice combined as one factor ($\chi^2 = 1026.51$ [$df = 215$], $p < .01$; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .08, $p < .01$) and 2) a six-factor model with person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat combined as one factor ($\chi^2 = 1837.67$; [$df = 215$], $p < .01$; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .11, $p < .01$). Table 1 highlights the results of the various models. I further examined the change in chi-square between the hypothesized seven-factor model and the two alternative six-factor models. The change in chi-square between the hypothesized seven-factor model and the alternate six-factor model with relational voice and organizational voice as one

¹²Confirmatory factor analysis was tested at level-1 of the data set. Given that the final sample consists of 35 participants, the number of observations at level-2 was lower than the number of variables in the measurement model, requiring the analysis to be conducted at level-1.

factor ($\Delta\chi^2 = 188.75$, $df = 6$, $p < .01$), and the change in chi-square between the hypothesized seven-factor model and the alternate six-factor model with person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat as one factor ($\Delta\chi^2 = 999.91$, $df = 6$, $p < .01$), indicate that the hypothesized seven-factor model is the more appropriate model to use.

Table 1: Discriminant Analysis

Factor Structure Model	χ^2 (df)	χ^2 / df	CFI	RMSEA	90% Confidence Interval	$\Delta\chi^2^a$ (Δdf)
Full Model: 7-Factor Model (Hypothesized Model)	837.76 (209)	4.01	0.97	0.07	0.06 – 0.07	
Model 2: 6-Factor Model with relational voice and organizational voice as one-dimension	1026.51 (215)	4.77	0.95	0.08	0.07 – 0.08	188.75 (6)
Model 3: 6-Factor Model with person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat as one-dimension	1837.67 (215)	8.55	0.91	0.11	0.10 – 0.11	999.91 (6)

^a Compares the change in Chi-square to the full model.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 Partitioning Variance

To test my hypotheses, I used multilevel modeling (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). While there are multiple ways in which experience sampling data can be analyzed, multilevel modeling allows for the most robust use of all the data collected (Beal & Weiss, 2003). In addition to following standard multilevel modeling procedures, I utilized maximum likelihood estimation with an experience sampling design as recommended by Hektner and colleagues (2007). This multilevel modeling analytic strategy uses the within-individual responses as Level-1 variables, whereas the moderator, or individual difference variable, will be analyzed as a Level-2 variable. More specifically, I utilized within cluster centering for each of the level-1 variables, or within-person predictors, eliminating between-person variance. This eliminates confounding variation between-participants with the within-person variation the hypotheses address (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Also, it is important to note that centering within cluster will ensure that the intercept for each participant has meaning (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). The moderator variable (self-compassion), however, is grand-mean centered because it represents a between-person variable (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Table 2 provides the means, standard deviations, between-person correlations and the within-person correlations.

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Between-Person and Within-Person)^a

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Gender	1.81	0.4		-0.28	-0.68	-0.27	-0.08	-0.16	-0.21	0.001	-0.11	0.27	0.08	0.09	-0.02	-0.28	-0.14
2. Age	41.27	11.9			0.19	0.14	0.01	0.42	0.42	0.12	0.06	-0.13	0.26	0.01	-0.25	0.25	0.14
3. Education	4.23	1.64				0.27	0.08	0.38	0.35	0.16	0.10	-0.35	0.19	0.03	-0.13	0.23	0.27
4. Person-based relational identity threat	1.79	1.02					0.70	0.05	0.05	-0.19	0.30	-0.38	0.37	-0.47	-0.26	-0.03	0.20
5. Role-based relational identity threat	1.63	0.83				0.56		0.10	0.11	-0.29	0.39	-0.24	0.29	-0.52	-0.31	-0.15	0.16
6. Momentary relational voice	3.27	1.47				0.02	-0.04		0.81	0.19	0.03	-0.03	0.32	0.11	-0.11	0.06	0.35
7. Momentary organizational voice	3.38	1.52				0.03	0.06	0.53		0.17	0.02	-0.02	0.29	0.13	-0.08	0.11	0.31
8. Momentary behavioral engagement	5.91	1				-0.11	-0.05	0.10	0.05		-0.22	0.16	0.08	0.47	0.09	0.15	0.11
9. Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	1.28	0.64				0.24	0.08	0.03	-0.03	-0.28		0.02	-0.03	-0.35	0.03	0.04	-0.09
10. Self-compassion	4.59	1.35											-0.37	0.41	0.48	0.28	-0.40
11. Momentary personalized belonging	3.12	1.76				0.23	0.11	0.16	0.09	0.00	0.12			-0.12	-0.37	-0.15	0.62
12. Momentary self-expansion	6.2	0.79				-0.21	-0.23	0.06	0.09	0.25	-0.26		-0.02		0.54	0.18	-0.12
13. Generalized self-efficacy	5.66	0.67														0.28	-0.26
14. Generalized growth need strength	6.16	0.61															
15. Generalized personalized belonging	4.02	1.02															

^a Correlations above the diagonal represent between-person correlations (n=33 for gender, age and education and n=35 for remaining variables) whereas correlations below the diagonal represent each participant's within-person correlation, averaged across the 35 participants (see Bono et al., 2013). For within-person-correlations, n ranges from 16-20.

Before beginning multilevel modeling techniques, I first examined the nested nature of the data to ensure multilevel modeling is appropriate. Following standard procedures for multilevel modeling, (Field, Miles, & Field, 2012; Finch, Bolin, & Kelley, 2014; Snijders & Bosker, 1999), I tested a series of nested models to compare AIC and BIC fit indices to ensure that accounting for the nested nature of the data improved the fit of the model. That is, I first established the AIC and BIC for each of the dependent variables and the mediator based on an “empty” model which only included an intercept. I then calculated the AIC and BIC for a random intercept model using the office (i.e. City, Village or Town) in which the participant was employed as the grouping variable. Next, I repeated this step, changing the grouping variable to the participant. Finally, I tested the potential for a three-level model, changing the grouping variable to account for both the participant and the office in which the participant is employed. The results for each of these models is listed in Table 3: Nested Models. As shown in the table, for each of the dependent variables and the mediator, accounting only for the participant demonstrated the best fit of data, whereas additionally accounting for the office in which the participant is employed did not increase the explanatory power of the random intercept model. Therefore, for all of my analysis, I utilized a two-level model in which each time the variable was measured serves as level-1 data whereas the participant serves as the level-2 variable.

Table 3: Nested Models

Grouping Variable	Momentary Relational Voice		Momentary Organizational Voice		Momentary Behavioral Engagement		Momentary Supervisor-Directed Deviance	
	AIC	BIC	AIC	BIC	AIC	BIC	AIC	BIC
Intercept Only	2324.88	2333.81	2362.06	2371.00	1825.70	1834.63	1260.46	1269.39
Office	2258.07	2271.47	2314.99	2328.39	1819.96	1833.35	1262.46	1275.85
Participant	1683.10	1696.50	1836.97	1850.37	1211.24	1224.64	756.41	769.81
Participant nested within Office	1686.69	1704.55	1840.69	1858.56	1215.36	1233.22	761.30	779.16

Bolded values represent the model with the best fit (i.e. lowest AIC/BIC value)

Table 4: Variance Summary

	Between-Person Variance*	Within-Person Variance
Person-based Relational Identity Threat	59%	41%
Role-based Relational Identity Threat	54%	46%
Momentary Relational Voice	61%	39%
Momentary Organizational Voice	58%	42%
Momentary Behavioral Engagement	60%	40%
Momentary Deviance	56%	44%

*Between-person variance is analogous with an ICC calculation.

To further understand the variation within the data, I also calculated the between-person variance and the within-person variance of each variable within my model. Table 4 summarizes both the between-person variance and the within-person variance for each construct within the model. It is important to note that the between-variance is analogous

to the intraclass correlation (ICC), which demonstrates whether there is a need to account for the nested nature of the data (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Finch et al., 2014). Given that the ICC(1) calculations for the dependent variables are between .54 and .61, this further supports the need to account for the two-levels within the data as described (Cohen et al., 2003; Finch et al., 2014).

5.2 Direct Effects

To analyze each of my hypotheses, I built a series of nested regression models. I began with an “empty” model in which the only predictor is an intercept. Next, I added a random intercept for each participant to account for the nested nature of the data. My subsequent model added the predictor variable(s) of interest¹³. My final model incorporated an autoregressive covariance structure to account for the temporal nature of the data (Beal & Weiss, 2003; Field et al., 2012; Finch et al., 2014). For each of the models, I compared AIC indices as well as the significance of the change in the log likelihood structure. While each subsequent model almost always suggest an improved fit of the model, the final model utilizing the autoregressive covariance structure was consistently an improved fit compared to all of the other models. Given this, my results are always reported from this final model.

To enable significance testing of the change in log likelihood, for the models involving control variables, I was only able to utilize data from 33 of the 35 participants because 2 of the participants declined to provide demographic information (i.e. age

¹³ I did not include a random slope for any of the predicted effects. First, the predictors represent within-person differences given that the variables are within-cluster centered. As such, between-person differences are eliminated in the model such that each participants mean is zero, which is consistent with recommended multilevel modeling procedures which caution against using random slopes for within-cluster centered variables (Snijders & Bosker, 2012, p. 88). The predictors that are grand mean centered represent either control variables or the moderator, which are not directly hypothesized within the model. Therefore, in the interest of parsimony, I do not incorporate random slopes within the nested regression models.

and/or education which were used as control variables in models in which momentary relational voice or momentary organizational voice were dependent variables). I did run all of these analyses with and without control variables and the reduction in sample from 35 participants to 33 participants did not change the statistical significance of any of my substantive variables. In an effort to utilize all of the participant data to the extent possible, I utilize a sample size of 33 for the models in which control variables are used and the complete sample size of 35 participants in which control variables are not used¹⁴.

¹⁴ For the analysis with the control variables, the alternative to removing the two participants who declined to provide education information (which resulted in a sample of 33 participants and 609 level-1 observations) would have been to utilize the “na.action = na.exclude” command (i.e. remove any rows with missing data), which resulted in excluding more level-1 observations than just excluding the two participants (i.e. a sample consisting of 33 participants and 581 level-1 observations). Using the smaller dataset of only 581 observations, one of my independent variables of interests (i.e. role-based relational identity threat), increased the level of marginal significance (i.e. the p-value shifted from $p = .14$ to $p = .06$) in the model predicting momentary organizational voice. This shift suggests that eliminating the two participants who declined to provide demographic information results in the most conservative of possible results.

TABLE 5: Results of Momentary Regression Analyses (Hypotheses 1-4)^a

Variables	Momentary Relational Voice	Momentary Organizational Voice	Momentary Behavioral Engagement	Momentary Supervisor-Directed Deviance
Intercept	.18 (.73, .25)	.31 (.71, .43)	5.91 (.14, 42.32)**	1.28 (.09, 14.91)**
Age	.04 (.02, 3.05)**	.05 (.01, 3.27)**	<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
Education	.27 (.11, 2.41)*	.24 (.11, 2.25)*	<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
Person-Based Relational Identity Threat	-.03 (.07, -.41)	-.20 (.08, -2.70)**	-.03 (.04, -.62)	.10 (.03, 3.19)**
Role-Based Relational Identity Threat	-.03 (.08, -.33)	.12 (.08, 1.43)	.01 (.05, .17)	-.01 (.04, -.38)

^a Values are the unstandardized regression coefficients (s.e., *t*). For momentary relational voice and momentary organizational voice, n = 33, 609 observations; df=574 (level-1) and 30 (level-2). For momentary behavioral engagement and momentary supervisor-directed deviance, n=35, 643 observations; df=606 (level-1).

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

The results for the regression analysis for hypotheses 1-4 are listed in Table 5. To test hypotheses 1 and 2, which address the role of person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat to predict discretionary work behavior, I entered both person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat simultaneously as fixed effects. I used this forced entry method of regression given the related nature and high correlation of the two independent variables so that I could ensure that all sources of variance were included in the model (Field et al., 2012). My results indicate person-based relational identity threat does have a negative association with momentary organizational voice ($\gamma = -.20, p < .01$) and a positive association with momentary supervisor-directed deviance ($\gamma = .10, p < .01$) as predicted, which supports hypothesis 1a and 1c. Person-based relational identity threat does not predict momentary behavioral engagement ($\gamma = -.03, p > .05$) such that hypothesis 1b is not supported. Role-based relational identity threat did not significantly predict momentary organizational voice ($\gamma = .12, p > .05$), momentary behavioral engagement ($\gamma = .01, p > .05$) or momentary supervisor-directed deviance ($\gamma = -.01, p > .05$) such that hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c are not supported.

To test hypothesis 3 and 4, I used the same procedure outlined above, with momentary relational voice as the dependent variable. Results indicate that neither person-based relational identity threat ($\gamma = -.03, p > .05$) or role-based relational identity threat ($\gamma = -.03, p > .05$) have a main effect on momentary relational voice such that hypotheses 3 and 4 are not supported.

To test hypothesis 5, which predicts momentary relational voice leads to discretionary workplace behavior, I calculated the regression in two ways, first with only

momentary relational voice as the predictor and then secondly with momentary relational voice as a predictor in conjunction with person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat as predictors. Including both person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat did not change the results, therefore I present the results which include only momentary relational voice as a predictor in Table 6. For momentary organizational voice, momentary relational voice was a significant predictor when momentary relational voice was the only predictor ($\gamma = .50, p < .01$), as well as when both types of relational identity threat were included in the model ($\gamma = .50, p < .01$). For momentary behavioral engagement, momentary relational voice was a significant predictor when regressed in isolation ($\gamma = .07, p < .01$), as well as when both types of relational identity threat were included in the model ($\gamma = .07, p < .01$). For momentary supervisor-directed deviance, momentary relational voice was not a significant predictor when regressed in isolation ($\gamma = .01, p > .05$), or when regressed in combination with both types of relational identity threat ($\gamma = .01, p > .05$). These results support hypotheses 5a and 5b, but do not support hypotheses 5c.

Table 6: Results of Momentary Regression Analyses (Hypothesis 5)^a

Variables	Momentary Organizational Voice	Momentary Behavioral Engagement	Momentary Supervisor-Directed Deviance
Intercept	.29 (.71, .41)	5.91 (.14, 42.36)**	1.28 (.09, 14.94)**
Age	.24 (.11, 2.25)*	<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
Education	.05 (.01, 3.28)**	<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
Momentary Relational Voice	.50 (.04, 12.00)**	.07 (.03, 2.70)**	.01 (.02, .62)

^a Values are the unstandardized regression coefficients (s.e., *t*). For momentary organizational voice, *n* = 33, 609 observations; *df*=575(level-1) and 30 (level-2). For momentary behavioral engagement and momentary supervisor-directed deviance, *n*=35, 643 observations; *df*=607 (level-1).

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

5.3 Indirect Effects

Hypotheses 6a and 6b address the indirect effects of person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior through momentary relational voice as a partial mediator. However, since there were no direct effects between person-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice or between role-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice, hypotheses 6a and 6b are not supported.

5.4 Moderation Effects

Hypotheses 7 through 12 address the role of self-compassion in the model. To test hypotheses 7 and 10, which predict that higher levels of self-compassion will attenuate the negative effect of person-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior (hypothesis 7) whereas higher levels of self-compassion will increase the positive effect of role-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior (hypothesis 10), I included both types of relational identity threat within the one regression model. The results of the regression (see Table 7) suggest that when self-compassion interacts with person-based relational identity threat, there is a positive association between person-based relational identity threat and momentary organizational voice ($\gamma = .20, p < .01$). The interaction between person-based relational identity threat and self-compassion does not, however, significantly predict momentary behavioral engagement ($\gamma = .00, p > .05$), or momentary supervisor-directed deviance ($\gamma = .02, p > .05$). These results show support for hypothesis 7a, but do not support hypothesis 7b or 7c. Given the significant results for hypothesis 7a, I also plotted the interaction, to verify the results matched the hypothesized relationships (see Figure 2). The simple slopes were

not significant at higher levels of self-compassion ($t = 1.51, p > .05$), however the simple slopes were significant at lower levels of self-compassion ($t = -4.05, p < .01$), resulting in partial support for hypothesis 7a.

Table 7: Results of Moderated Momentary Regression Analyses (Hypotheses 7-8 and 10-11)^a

Variables	Momentary Relational Voice	Momentary Organizational Voice	Momentary Behavioral Engagement	Momentary Supervisor- Directed Deviance
Intercept	.02 (.76, .02)	.12 (.74, .16)	5.91 (.14, 42.82)**	1.28 (.09, 14.89)**
Age	.05 (.02, 3.11)**	.05 (.01, 3.36)**	<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
Education	.30 (.11, 2.53)*	.28 (.11, 2.42)*	<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
Person-Based Relational Identity Threat	.10 (.08, 1.27)	-.05 (.09, -.65)	-.03 (.05, -.61)	.13 (.04, 3.40)**
Role-Based Relational Identity Threat	-.12 (.08, -1.49)	.01 (.09, .14)	.01 (.05, .31)	-.04 (.04, -1.11)
Self-Compassion	.11 (.14, .76)	.11 (.14, .84)	.10 (.10, 1.00)	.02 (.06, .27)
Person-Based Relational Identity Threat x Self-Compassion	.16 (.05, 3.16)**	.20 (.06, 3.54)**	.00 (.03, .00)	.02 (.03, .97)
Role-Based Relational Identity Threat x Self-Compassion	-.09 (.06, -1.63)	-.04 (.06, -.66)	.03 (.04, .75)	-.06 (.03, -2.15)*

^a Values are the unstandardized regression coefficients (s.e., *t*). For momentary organizational voice, n = 33, 609 observations; df=572 (level-1) and 29 (level-2). For momentary behavioral engagement and momentary supervisor-directed deviance, n=35, 643 observations; df=604 (level-1) and 33 (level-2).

*p < .05

**p < .01

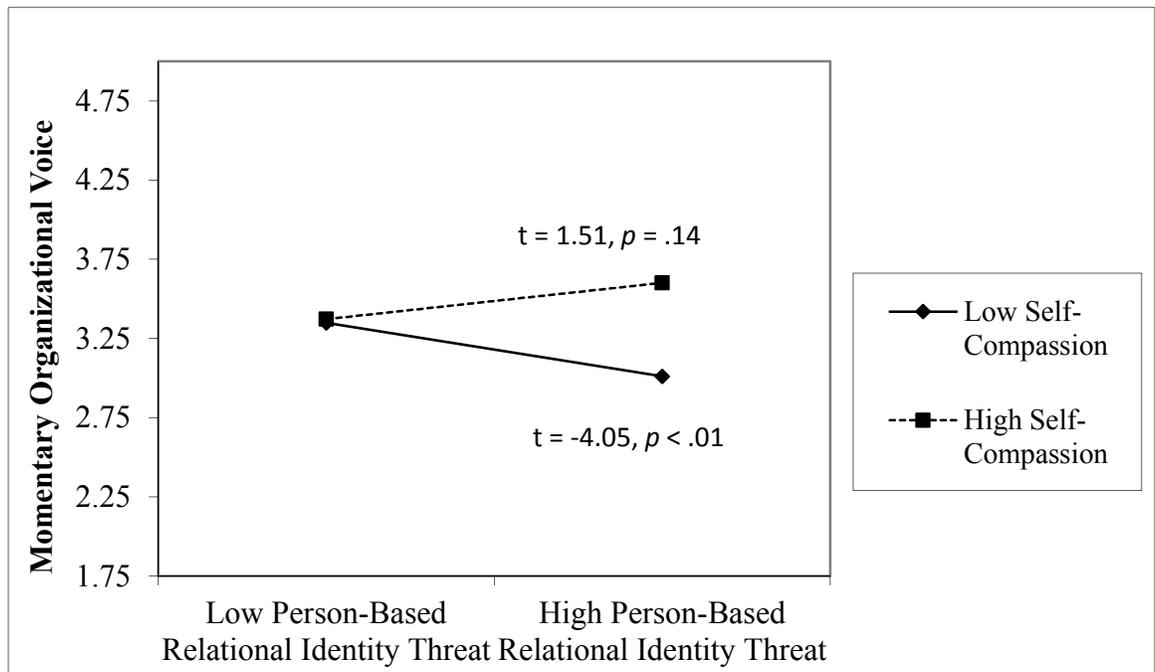


Figure 2: Relationships between Person-Based Relational Identity Threat, Self-Compassion and Momentary Organizational Voice

The interaction between role-based relational identity threat and self-compassion does not have a statistically significant association with momentary organizational voice ($\gamma = -.04, p > .05$), or with momentary behavioral engagement ($\gamma = .03, p > .05$), and has a negative association with momentary supervisor-directed deviance ($\gamma = -.06, p < .05$). Given that hypothesis 10 predicted an amplification of role-based relational identity threat's positive association with momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement, hypotheses 10a and 10b are not supported. Given the significant results for hypothesis 10c, I also plotted the interaction, to verify the results matched the hypothesized relationships (see Figure 3). The simple slopes were not significant at

higher levels of self-compassion ($t = -1.96, p = .06$), nor were the simple slopes significant at lower levels of self-compassion ($t = .80, p > .05$). Given these results, hypothesis 10c is not supported.

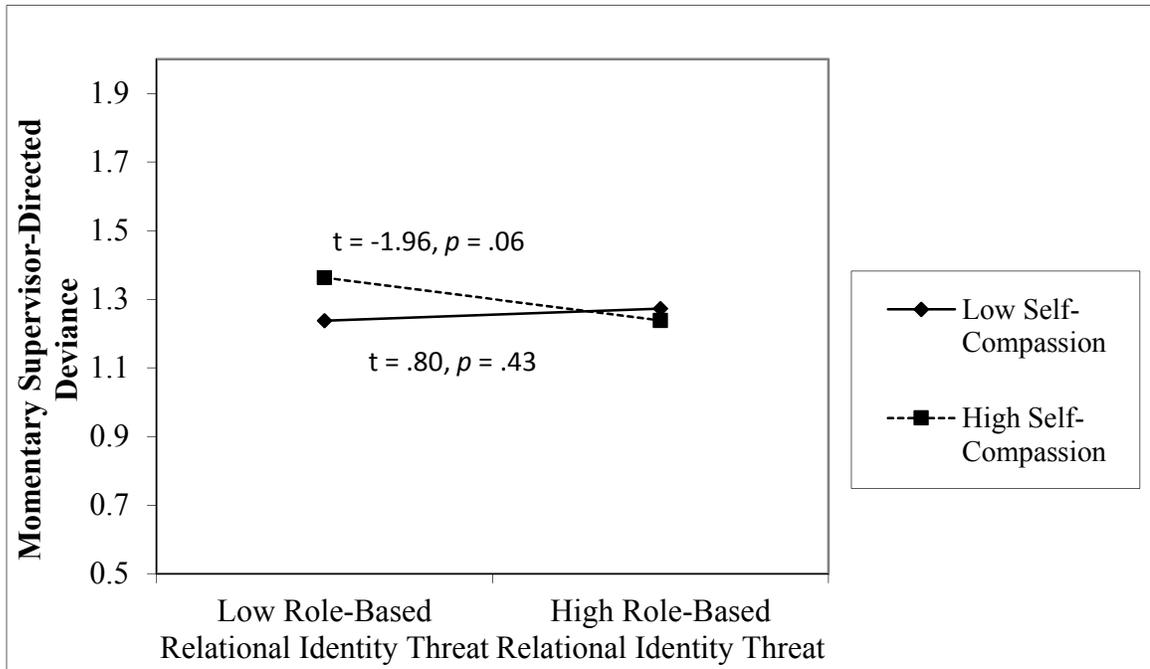


Figure 3: Relationships between Role-Based Relational Identity Threat, Self-Compassion, and Momentary Supervisor-Directed Deviance

Hypotheses 8 and 11 predicted the impact of higher levels of self-compassion on the relationship between person-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice (hypothesis 8) and between role-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice (hypothesis 11). For person-based relational identity threat, the interaction with self-compassion results in a positive association with momentary

relational voice ($\gamma = .16, p < .01$). Given the significant results for hypothesis 8, I also plotted the interaction, to verify the results matched the hypothesized relationships (see Figure 4). The simple slopes were significant at higher levels of self-compassion ($t = 2.49, p < .05$), however the simple slopes were not significant at lower levels of self-compassion ($t = -1.62, p > .05$). Since hypothesis 8 predicted that higher levels of self-compassion would attenuate the negative effect of person-based relational identity threat on momentary relational voice, the results show that higher levels of self-compassion create a positive effect, suggesting an even stronger effect than hypothesized, supporting hypothesis 8.

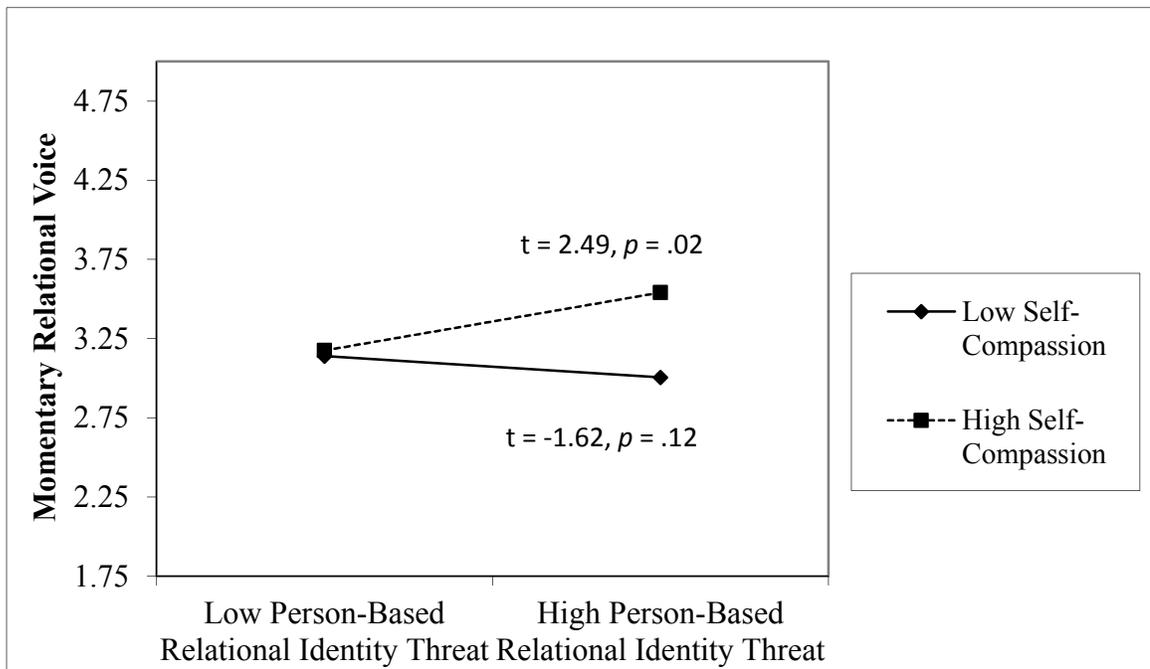


Figure 4: Relationships between Person-Based Relational Identity Threat, Self-Compassion, and Momentary Relational Voice

For role-based relational identity threat, the interaction with self-compassion results in a marginal negative association with momentary relational voice ($\beta = -.09, p = .10$). While the interaction is only marginally significant, I still plotted the interaction to explore the direction of the relationships (see Figure 5). The graph suggests that higher levels of self-compassion result in a negative association between role-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice with marginal statistical significance ($t = -1.93, p = .065$), whereas lower levels of self-compassion do not change role-based relational identity threat's relationship with momentary relational voice ($t = .001, p = .99$). These results do not support hypothesis 11 since the relationship between the variables is only marginally statistically significant.

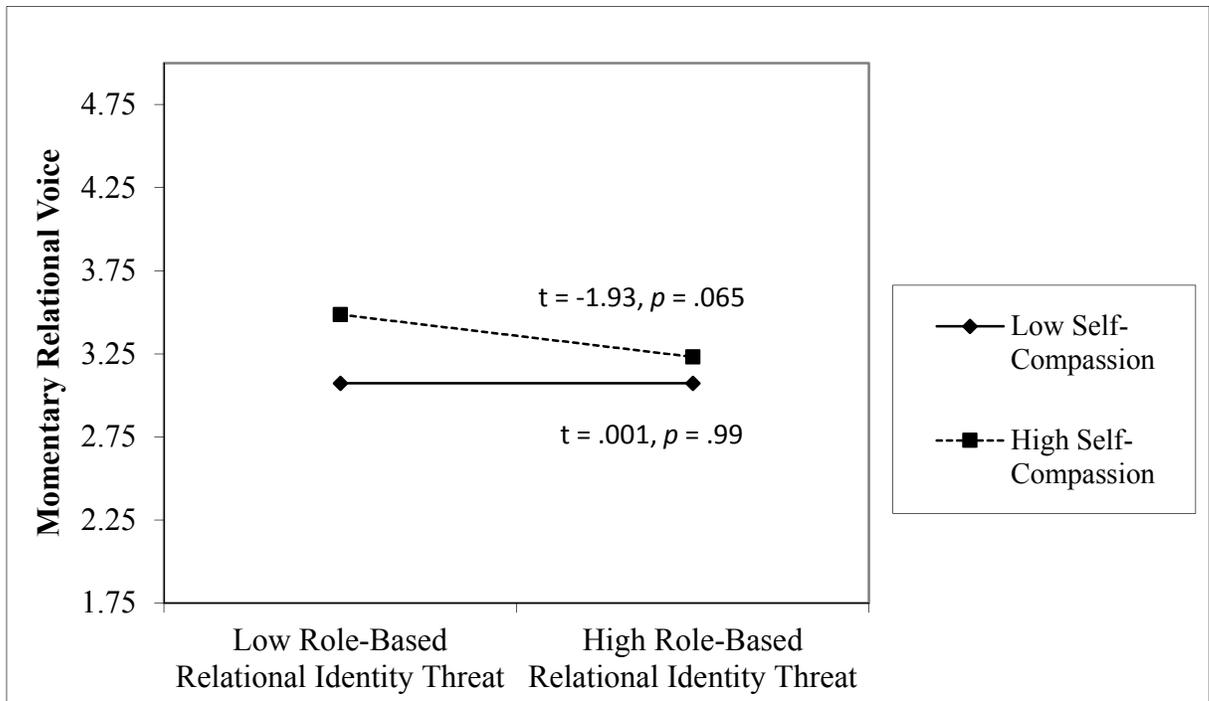


Figure 5: Relationships between Role-Based Relational Identity Threat, Self-Compassion, and Momentary Relational Voice

5.5 Moderated Indirect Effects

For hypotheses 9 and 12, I tested the moderated indirect effect of person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational on discretionary workplace behaviors through momentary relational voice. That is, I utilized the product of distribution method to examine the effect of the interaction of person-based relational identity threat and self-compassion on momentary relational voice multiplied by the effect of momentary relational voice on discretionary workplace behavior to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized indirect effect (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011; Tofighi & Thoemmes, 2014). Table 8 shows the regression results used in the calculations. Based on this analysis, the indirect effect is significant for both momentary organizational voice (95% confidence interval = .03, .13) and momentary behavioral engagement (95% confidence interval = .002, .02). To further validate the presence of a significant mediated moderation, I also utilized the Monte Carlo Method for Assessing Mediation (Selig & Preacher, 2008) with 10,000 bootstrap samples, which produced the same confidence intervals: 1) indirect effect of the interaction (i.e. person-based relational identity threat and self-compassion on momentary organizational voice through momentary relational voice (95% confidence interval = .03, .13) and 2) indirect effect of the interaction (i.e. person-based relational identity threat and self-compassion on momentary behavioral engagement (95% confidence interval = .002, .02). These results show partial support for hypothesis 9. For hypothesis 12, the interaction of role-based relational identity threat and self-compassion with momentary relational voice was not significant such that the

mediated moderated effect could not be tested. Therefore, hypothesis 12 is not supported¹⁵.

¹⁵ Given that momentary relational voice does not predicted momentary supervisor-directed deviance, there was no analysis conducted in relation to momentary relational voice mediating the effect of either person-based relational identity threat or role-based relational identity threat on momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

Table 8: Results of Momentary Regression Analyses to Calculate Mediated Moderation (Hypotheses 9 and 12)^a

Variables	Momentary Relational Voice	Momentary Organizational Voice	Momentary Behavioral Engagement
Intercept	.02 (.76, .02)	.11 (.74, .14)	5.90 (.14, 42.78)**
Age	.05 (.02, 3.11)**	.05 (.01, 3.36)**	<i>N/A</i>
Education	.30 (.11, 2.53)*	.28 (.12, 2.42)*	<i>N/A</i>
Person-Based Relational Identity Threat	.10 (.08, 1.27)	-.10 (.08, -1.28)	-.04 (.05, -.76)
Role-Based Relational Identity Threat	-.12 (.08, -1.49)	.06 (.08, .74)	.03 (.05, .48)
Self-Compassion	.11 (.14, .76)	.12 (.14, .84)	.10 (.10, 1.00)
Person-Based Relational Identity Threat x Self-Compassion	.16 (.05, 3.16)**	.14 (.05, 2.70)**	-.01 (.03, -.25)
Role-Based Relational Identity Threat x Self-Compassion	-.09 (.06, -1.63)	.00 (.06, .12)	.03 (.04, .94)
Momentary Relational Voice	<i>N/A</i>	.49 (.04, 11.77)**	.07 (.03, 2.73)**

^a Values are the unstandardized regression coefficients (s.e., *t*). For momentary organizational voice, *n* = 33, 609 observations; *df*=571 (level-1) and 29 (level-2). For momentary behavioral engagement and momentary supervisor-directed deviance, *n*=35, 643 observations; *df*=603 (level-1) and 33 (level-2). (Bolded cells represent the values used to calculate confidence intervals of moderated mediation.)

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

5.6 Lagged Effects

In analyzing the data, I also examined lagged effects within the data. I created an additional dataset, in which the *previous time's* person-based relational identity threat and the previous day's role-based relational identity threat were used to predict momentary relational voice and discretionary workplace behaviors. To create this dataset, I had to eliminate the first daily survey from the dataset because there were no previous day's threat measures. This reduced my dataset by 35 observations. I also had to eliminate observations in which the participant did not complete the survey within the previous time period which generated a substantial amount of missing data. This resulted in adequate data for 12 participants. None of the hypotheses were supported using this alternative dataset.

To further examine the presence of lagged effects, I created a third dataset in which I used each participant's previous relational identity threat measure, without regard to the time between survey completions. While each participant's first observation still had to be eliminated, this definition of "previous" resulted in being able to analyze all 35 participants and 608 level 1 observations in dataset 3 (or 33 participants and 576 level 1 observations when control variables were considered). With this dataset 3, the interaction of previous-time-period person-based relational identity threat and higher levels of self-compassion were marginally significant in predicting relational voice ($\gamma = .08, p = .11$), however none of the other relationships within this lagged analysis demonstrated statistical significance.

5.7 Exploratory Analysis

To substantiate the theoretical logic underlying my hypotheses, I conducted a supplementary analysis of the latent mechanisms within the relational identity threat response model. To accomplish this, I tested the role of person-based relational identity threat in predicting momentary personalized belongingness as well as whether momentary personalized belongingness mediates the effect of person-based relational identity threat on relational voice. I likewise examined the role of role-based relational identity threat in predicting momentary self-expansion as well as whether momentary self-expansion mediates the effect of role-based relational identity threat on relational voice. In addition, I considered other moderators (i.e. growth need strength, generalized self-efficacy, and generalized need to belong) in addition to self-compassion within these theorized models. To analyze this data, I used the same multilevel procedures outlined earlier (see section 5.2), with two exceptions: First, I examined each type of relational identity threat in isolation. Given that the two types of relational identity threat were theorized to impact different identity-based motivations, I constrained my analysis to each type of relational identity threat as a single predictor of the theorized identity-based motivation impacted. Second, I report the results from the analysis that included control variables. For the newly introduced variables, momentary personalized belongingness and momentary self-expansion, control variables resulted in statistically significant differences in regards to my substantive variables of interest. For momentary personalized belongingness, all four control variables (i.e. age ($b = .06, p = .01$), race ($b = -.60, p = .03$), gender ($b = 1.38, p = .08$) and education ($b = .35, p = .06$) demonstrated statistically significant or marginally significant associations. For momentary self-

expansion, none of the four control variables demonstrated a statistically significant association. Therefore, I ran the analysis both with control variables (33 participants, 609 observations) and without control variables (35 participants, 643 observations) to try and maximize all possible data. However, the statistical significance of the substantive variables shifted without including the control variables, therefore, I report the results from the analysis that included the control variables.

In analyzing the theoretical relationships between person-based relational identity threat, momentary personalized belongingness, and momentary relational voice, there was not a relationship with person-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice ($\gamma = -.04, p = .49$) nor was there a relationship between momentary personalized belongingness and momentary relational voice ($\gamma = .05, p = .43$). However, there was a consistent positive relationship between person-based relational identity threat and momentary personalized belongingness ($\gamma = .13, p < .01$).

In analyzing the theoretical relationships between role-based relational identity threat, momentary self-expansion, and momentary relational voice, there was not a relationship between role-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice ($\gamma = -.04, p = .51$) nor was there a relationship between momentary self-expansion and momentary relational voice ($\gamma = .01, p = .90$). However, there was a consistent negative relationship between role-based relational identity threat and momentary self-expansion ($\gamma = -.09, p = .01$),

When participant's self-compassion is considered, self-compassion interacts with person-based relational identity threat such that the interaction is positively related to momentary relational voice ($\gamma = .11, p = .01$). While person-based relational identity

threat continues to positively predict momentary personalized belongingness ($\gamma = .14, p < .01$), self-compassion has a negative relationship with momentary personalized belongingness ($\gamma = -.60, p < .01$). However, the interaction of self-compassion and person-based relational identity threat does not have a statistically significant relationship with momentary personalized belongingness ($\gamma = .01, p = .78$). When self-compassion moderates the negative relationship between role-based relational identity threat and momentary self-expansion, the interaction creates a marginally statistically significant positive relationship ($\gamma = .04, p = .09$). The other non-significant relationships described earlier (i.e. role-based relational identity threat as a predictor of momentary relational voice and momentary self-expansion as a predictor of momentary relational voice) remain non-significant.

When conducting my initial confirmatory factor analysis, I analyzed the fit of each of the proposed alternate analysis individual difference variables captured within the initial survey. The fit of each variable for the initial survey is as follows: Generalized belongingness ($\chi^2 = 1225.11 [df=35], p < .01$; CFI = .66; RMSEA = .23, $p < .01$; SRMR = .12), generalized self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 1811.18 [df=20], p < .01$; CFI = .55; RMSEA = .37, $p < .01$; SRMR = .17), and growth need strength ($\chi^2 = 535.98 [df=9], p < .01$; CFI = .73; RMSEA = .30, $p < .01$, SRMR = .09). Each of these goodness-of-fit measures indicate that the individual difference variables represent a poor fit of the data. However, I did analyze each individual difference variable's influence on the theorized relationships. Several of the theorized relationships involving generalized personalized belongingness were significant within both the person-based relational identity threat model and the role-based relational identity threat model. First, the interaction of person-based relational

identity threat and generalized personalized belongingness demonstrated a marginally significant negative relationship with momentary relational voice ($y = -.12, p = .05$).

While person-based relational identity threat continued to show a positive relationship with momentary personalized belongingness ($y = .13, p < .01$) and generalized personalized belongingness also demonstrated a positive relationship with momentary personalized belongingness ($y = .97, p < .01$), the interaction of person-based relational identity threat and generalized personalized belongingness did not demonstrate a statistically significant relationship with momentary personalized belongingness ($y = -.01, p = .80$).

The interaction of role-based relational identity threat and generalized personalized belongingness also demonstrated a marginally significant negative relationship with momentary relational voice ($y = -.12, p = .05$). Additionally, while role-based relational identity threat continued to have a negative association with momentary self-expansion ($y = -.09, p < .01$), the interaction of generalized personalized belongingness and role-based relational identity threat showed a marginally significant positive association with momentary self-expansion ($y = .05, p = .09$).

None of the theorized relationships involving growth need strength in the person-based relational identity model are significant. Within the theorized role-based relational identity threat model, the interaction between growth-need strength and role-based relational identity threat predicted momentary relational voice ($y = .29, p < .01$). None of the other theorized relationships involving growth need strength and role-based relational identity threat related variables were significant.

None of the theorized relationships involving generalized self-efficacy were significant in either the person-based relational identity theorized model or the role-based relational identity theorized model. However, generalized self-efficacy did demonstrate a negative relationship with momentary personalized belongingness ($y = -.82, p = .03$) and a positive effect on momentary self-expansion ($y = .60, p < .01$).

5.8 Summary of Findings

Table 9: Summary of Findings

Hypothesis		Results	y	P-value	Higher Self-Compassion	Lower Self-Compassion
1	Person-based relational identity threat is negatively related to (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and positively related to (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Supported	-.20	< .01		
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Not supported	-.03	> .05		
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Supported	.10	< .01		
2	Role-based relational identity threat is positively related to (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and negatively related to (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Not supported	.12	> .05		
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Not supported	.01	> .05		
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Not supported	-.01	> .05		

Table 9 (continued).

	Hypothesis	Results	y	P-value	Higher Self-Compassion	Lower Self-Compassion
3	Person-based relational identity threat is negatively related to momentary relational voice.	Not supported	-.03	> .05		
4	Role-based relational identity threat is positively related to momentary relational voice.	Not supported	-.03	> .05		
5	Momentary relational voice is positively related to (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and negatively related to (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Supported	.50	< .01		
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Supported	.07	< .01		
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Not supported	.01	> .05		
6	Momentary relational voice partially mediates the association person-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Not supported				
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Not supported				
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Not supported				
7	Momentary relational voice partially mediates the association role-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice, (b) momentary behavioral engagement, and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Not supported				
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Not supported				
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Not supported				

Table 9 (continued).

	Hypothesis	Results	γ	P-value	Higher Self-Compassion	Lower Self-Compassion
8	When self-compassion is higher, the negative relationship between person-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice and (b) momentary behavioral engagement is weakened, as is the positive relationship between person-based relational identity threat and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Partially Supported	.20	< .01	t=1.51, p > .05	t=-4.05, p < .01
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Not supported	.00	> .05		
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Not supported	.02	> .05		
9	When self-compassion is higher, the negative relationship between person-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice is weakened.	Supported	.16	p < .01	t=2.49, p < .05	t=-1.62, p > .05
	Self-compassion will moderate the indirect effect of person-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior (through momentary relational voice).	Partially Supported				
	a) Momentary organizational voice			(0.03 - 0.13) 95% confidence interval		
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement			(0.002 - 0.02) 95% confidence interval		
10	When self-compassion is higher, the positive relationship between role-based relational identity threat and (a) momentary organizational voice and (b) momentary behavioral engagement is strengthened, as is the negative relationship between role-based relational identity threat and (c) momentary supervisor-directed deviance.					
	a) Momentary organizational voice	Not supported	-.04	> .05		
	b) Momentary behavioral engagement	Not supported	.03	> .05		

Table 9 (continued).

	Hypothesis	Results	γ	P-value	Higher Self-Compassion	Lower Self-Compassion
	c) Momentary supervisor-directed deviance	Not supported	-.06	< .05	t=-1.96, p = .06	t=.80, p > .05
11	When self-compassion is higher, the positive relationship between role-based relational identity threat and momentary relational voice is strengthened.	Not supported	-.09	=.10	t=-1.93, p = .065	t=.001, p=.99
12	Self-compassion will moderate the indirect effect of role-based relational identity threat on discretionary workplace behavior (through momentary relational voice).	Not supported				

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The findings support the premise that relational identity threat plays a role in predicting momentary discretionary workplace behavior. More specifically, person-based relational identity threat has a negative association with momentary organizational voice and a positive association with momentary supervisor-directed deviance. Furthermore, momentary relational voice demonstrates a consistent positive association with both momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement. While these main effects are of interest, the interaction effects of relational identity threat with self-compassion highlight the complexity of how relational identity threats unfold within workplace relationships.

More specifically, the divergent responses to person-based relational identity threat when the subordinate's level of self-compassion is considered highlights the diversity of ways in which subordinates may react when a person-based relational identity threat occurs within a supervisor-subordinate workplace relationship. When a subordinate has higher levels of self-compassion, the subordinate is more likely to exercise momentary relational voice when person-based relational identity threat increases. In addition, when subordinates have lower levels of self-compassion, subordinates are less likely to participate in momentary organizational voice when person-based relational identity threat increases. Additionally, self-compassion moderates the indirect effect of person-based relational identity threat on both momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement through momentary relational voice.

These significant mediated moderation results support the theorized relationships such that momentary relational voice is a mechanism through which subordinates resolve person-based relational identity threat resulting in increased performance of positive discretionary workplace behavior. In summary, these findings suggest three critical ideas: 1) a subordinate's level of self-compassion plays a crucial role in how the subordinate chooses to respond to different types of relational identity threat, 2) momentary relational voice can serve as a gateway to more expansive forms of discretionary workplace behavior, and 3) momentary relational voice can serve as a 'tool' subordinates use to resolve person-based relational identity threat such that increased positive discretionary workplace behaviors are possible despite the experience of relational identity threat.

First, these findings support the power of self-compassion in predicting how a subordinate will respond to relational identity threat. Since increased levels of self-compassion result in positive outcomes following from person-based and role-based relational identity threat, it stands to reason that both the organization and the subordinate benefit when subordinates have increased levels of self-compassion. That is, increased levels of self-compassion enable the subordinate to respond to a negative event such as person-based relational identity threat with increased levels of momentary relational voice, which is a positive response given that momentary relational voice represents the subordinate's attempts to improve the relationship or the relational functioning with the supervisor. Additional support for this idea is found in the significant interaction between role-based relational identity threat and momentary supervisor-directed deviance. While the simple slopes test was not significant, the fact that the slopes are differently valenced in addition to the statistically significant interaction suggests that increased levels of self-

compassion enable the subordinate to decrease momentary supervisor-directed deviance in the face of a role-based relational identity threat. Since momentary supervisor-directed deviance is a negative outcome, decreased levels represent another example of how increased levels of self-compassion result in a positive response to a negative event.

The negative effects of lower levels of self-compassion, in the form of decreased momentary organizational voice following from person-based relational identity threat, represent the other-side of the story. While the theory presented focuses on how and why increased levels of self-compassion will improve responses to relational-identity threat, it underestimated the extent to which lower levels of self-compassion would have a detrimental impact on potential relational responses. This detrimental effect of lower levels of self-compassion is illustrated through decreased momentary organizational voice that follows from lower levels of self-compassion and person-based relational identity threat. This “withdrawal effect” that appears to occur when subordinates experience lower levels of self-compassion suggest that self-compassion is indeed a complex construct worthy of significant attention in regard to its ability to predict behavioral responses within relationships. The fact that self-compassion focuses on self-treatment can easily obscure its critical role in relational dynamics. However, as this research contributes to the ongoing conversation as to self-compassion’s effects (Leary et al., 2007; Neff, 2003a, 2011; Sbarra et al., 2012), this research shows that how a subordinate treats him or herself extrapolates to the relational level in terms of how the subordinate responds within threatened workplace relationships.

In exploring why higher levels of self-compassion do not lead subordinates to respond to role-based relational identity threats with increased momentary relational

voice, it may be that their self-compassion serves as a buffer to the feelings of incompetence inherent within role-based relational identity. That is, subordinates with higher levels of self-compassion may not need to resolve role-based relational identity threat with momentary relational voice because they are able to recognize and compensate for their own perceived lack of skills or ability to achieve the desired relational identity. The self-compassion they offer themselves may serve as a source of resolution to the relational identity threat when the relational identity threat is isolated to the role the subordinate plays within the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Alternatively, perhaps role-based relational identity threat did not have stronger relationships with momentary relational voice or positive forms of discretionary workplace behavior because of the diversity of the roles within the sample. Since the sample includes a range of occupations, from front-office staff to doctors, role-identification may be a critical factor in predicting how role-based relational identity threat impacts discretionary workplace behavior. As previous research has shown, the level of identification a subordinate has with an organization serves as an important moderator of subordinate and organizational outcomes (for a recent meta-analysis, see Riketta, 2005). Therefore, it stands to reason that role identification may serve as a critical moderator in how subordinates respond to role-based relational identity threat. In striving to find a context in which person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat would be distinct, I may have obscured the importance of role to the subordinate in understanding the theorized relationships. Accounting for role identification in future studies will ideally resolve this potential obscurity.

Relational identity threat's impact on negative discretionary workplace behavior offers additional insights into how subordinate responses differ depending on both the type of relational identity threat and the subordinate's level of self-compassion. For example, person-based relational identity threat has a positive main effect on momentary supervisor-directed deviance without regard to the subordinate's level of self-compassion. Person-based relational identity threat's positive relationship with momentary supervisor-directed deviance suggests that person-based relational identity threats do result in behavior that has been shown by earlier research to serve as a form of retaliation (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). This suggests that person-based relational identity threat triggers a need for retaliation regardless of the subordinate's level of self-compassion. Role-based relational identity threat, however, does not have a main effect on momentary supervisor-directed deviance. These findings suggest that role-based relational identity threats do not trigger a need for retaliation as a result of the lack of a main effect between the two variables. From this finding, it may be reasonable to deduce that person-based relational identity threats are more impactful or severe for subordinates. This possibility can further explain the fewer findings from role-based relational identity threat as compared to person-based relational identity threat. Further, it may be that in the case of higher levels of self-compassion, subordinates extend their internally directed compassion to supervisors in the event of less-severe types of threat, as suggested by the significant interaction between role-based relational identity threat, self-compassion and momentary supervisor-directed deviance.

This research also highlights that momentary relational voice does not relate to both positive and negative types of discretionary workplace behavior. First, momentary

relational voice's positive relationship with positive discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement) supports the notion that relationships play a crucial role in how work gets done (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Ferris et al., 2009; Ragsin & Dutton, 2007). Perhaps momentary relational voice generates a secure foundation from which the subordinate is able to increase participation in the larger organization, as evidenced by increased momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement. Given that exercising momentary relational voice requires courage in that the response of the supervisor is unknown, perhaps momentary relational voice establishes a sense of ownership in the outcomes of the organization which leads to increased positive discretionary workplace behaviors, as evidenced in these results. In this way, momentary relational voice may serve as a gateway to empowerment within the organization from which momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement manifest.

Despite this connection between momentary relational voice and positive forms of discretionary workplace behavior, momentary relational voice did not change levels of momentary supervisor-directed deviance. This discrepancy may relate to the fact that positive discretionary workplace behavior and negative discretionary workplace behavior are rooted in very different antecedents. Since momentary relational voice is a type of positive discretionary workplace behavior, it stands to reason that the need for self-consistency would drive additional positive discretionary workplace behavior in the form of momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement as both theoretically suggested and empirically shown (Ashforth, 2001). This fulfillment of the need for self-consistency may be strengthened by the fact that momentary relational voice

could be triggering a sense of psychological safety and self-efficacy, which previous research has established as antecedents to positive discretionary workplace behavior (Morrison, 2011). While refraining from momentary supervisor-directed deviance seems at a theoretical level to be self-consistent with offering momentary relational voice, this lack of empirical support suggests that the different antecedents undergirding acts of momentary supervisor-directed deviance (as opposed to the antecedents undergirding positive discretionary workplace behavior) play a larger role in determining subordinate actions than the theorized role of self-consistency. That is, since earlier research has established that retaliation is one of the strongest motivators for supervisor-directed deviance, perhaps the fact that exercising momentary relational voice does not impact the need, or lack of a need, for retaliation precludes the application of the identity-based motive of self-consistency. The need for self-consistency may instead only be activated across behaviors that share similar antecedents. Whereas momentary relational voice may generate a sense of psychological safety and self-efficacy, allowing the identity based motive of self-consistency to drive the relationship between momentary relational voice and positive discretionary workplace behavior, since momentary relational voice does not address retaliation needs, the identity based motive of self-consistency does not change negative discretionary workplace behavior in the presence of increased momentary relational voice.

In conclusion, self-compassion's significant moderation of the indirect effect of person-based relational identity threat on positive forms of discretionary workplace behavior (i.e. momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement) through momentary relational voice verifies that momentary relational voice is a tool that

can be used to resolve person-based relational identity threats. This finding highlights the power of momentary relational voice to serve as a resource within workplace relationships to resolve unwanted negative workplace experiences. Further, this finding supports the earlier contention that the danger of relational identity threats are not from the threats themselves, but rather from the uncertainty relational identity threats create. If the subordinate chooses to exercise momentary relational voice, then the potentially negative outcomes of the person-based relational identity threat can be attenuated.

6.1 Theoretical Implications

The significant findings for person-based relational identity threat in conjunction with the lack of significant findings for role-based relational identity threat offer potentially interesting theoretical implications. One possibility from these findings is the idea that person-based relational identity threats are more severe than role-based relational identity threat such that the need to resolve person-based relational identity threat is greater than the need to resolve role-based relational identity threat. Extending this idea further, perhaps not all identity-based motives are created equally. Previous research has identified and delineated a variety of identity based motives, such as personalized belongingness, self-expansion, and self-consistency (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leary, 2007). However, the importance or salience of these different motives may not be equivalent within the workplace domain. Considering differences in the power of the various identity-based motives is one potential explanation for the findings from this research.

This research also suggests that subordinates do not compensate for a thwarted need for self-expansion by increased discretionary workplace behavior as theorized

earlier. One alternative may be that subordinates experiencing thwarted self-expansion as a result of role-based relational identity threat compensate for the thwarted self-expansion in domains outside of work (Elsbach, 2003; Steele, 1988). Rather than seeking to fulfill their need for self-expansion in the given role in which the need was thwarted, it may be more likely that this thwarted need is resolved through increased discretionary behavior in places such as volunteer organizations and in family activities (cf. Cook, Purdie-Vaughns, Garcia, & Cohen, 2012; Sherman et al., 2013).

However, with person-based relational identity threat, it seems that it is not the thwarted need to belong in isolation that drives responses as much as it is the interaction of the person-based relational identity threat with the subordinate's level of self-compassion. That is, the way in which we treat ourselves plays a key role in how we respond to relational identity threats. While other individual difference variables (i.e. Big Five) examine how subordinates behave *with others*, examining how subordinates treat themselves may unlock critical understanding as to the variance of reactions within workplace relationships. It may be that a subordinate's level of self-compassion interacts with workplace experiences beyond relational identity threats to predict how the subordinate will choose to respond to a variety of situations. The results of the research lead credence to incorporating self-compassion in other organizational behavior research.

Additionally, the results of this research also suggest that there is value in studying workplace relationships with a dynamic lens. As reported earlier, the within-person variance in relational identity threat suggests that workplace relationships do have a critically dynamic component. By illuminating this facet of workplace relationships, this research highlights the importance of considering the ebb and flow of workplace

relationships. Further, this research shows that the within-person variance in constructs typically studied as constant state constructs have the potential to illuminate additional predictive power in explaining why subordinates make the behavioral choices that they do.

Finally, the integration of workplace relationships literature with the voice literature, offers theoretical implications for both domains. First, by broadening the traditional target of voice research from only the organization to including relationship-focused voice, this research magnifies the power of speaking up within workplaces (Burris et al., 2013; Morrison, 2011). Adding specificity to voice behavior in future research – by including more nuanced targets as opposed to categorizing all “speaking up” behavior as organizational focused – may offer additional insights within voice research overall. More specifically, this research highlights the important of relational voice as a distinct construct worthy of additional attention within management literature. Given momentary relational voice’s power to predict positive discretionary workplace behavior such that negative workplace experiences (i.e. person-based relational identity) are not only attenuated but actually generate positive outcomes, momentary relational voice is a construct with a strong potential future. As a gateway to additional forms of positive discretionary workplace behavior, momentary relational voice is positioned to serve as a key relational practice. That is, by including voice behavior within workplace relationship research, scholars have the potential to increase understanding of how workplace relationships are maintained. Previous workplace relationships research has distinguished the important role relationships play in getting work done (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007), such that including relational

voice in the burgeoning research on ‘relational maintenance’ will contribute to explaining both why and how workplace relationships play a fundamental role in how work gets done (Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; Eberly et al., 2011; Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Quinn, 2007; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002).

6.2 Exploratory Analysis

The findings discussed above highlight potentially surprising difference in how person-based relational identity threats and role-based relational identity threats unfold within supervisor-subordinate relationships. However, the findings from my exploratory analysis can illuminate potential reasons for these somewhat surprising findings. That is, the differences in how person-based relational identity threat and role-based relational identity threat thwart underlying identity-based motives offers explanation as to why subordinates respond differently to person-based relational identity threats and role-based relational identity threats. While both types of threat were theorized to potentially thwart identity-based motives, this theorized disruption to the subordinate’s underlying identity-based motives occurs in very distinct ways. When subordinates experience a sense of threat as to who they are as individuals within the supervisor-subordinate relationship (i.e. person-based relational identity threat), this triggers a more intense need to belong as demonstrated by the positive relationship between person-based relational identity threat and momentary personalized belonging. On the other hand, when subordinates experience a sense of threat as to their competence or ability to enact the role of subordinate within the supervisor-subordinate relationship (i.e. role-based relational identity threat), rather than increasing momentary self-expansion to compensate as theorized, subordinates experience a decreased feeling of momentary self-expansion.

This result suggests that whereas person-based relational identity threat increases subordinates' identity-based motive to belong, role-based relational identity threat decreases a subordinate's sense of self-expansion. This nuance as to how the underlying identity-based motives are thwarted in the face of relational identity threat may suggest that all identity-based motives are not created equally.

When personalized belongingness is potentially thwarted, subordinates desire it even more whereas when momentary self-expansion is thwarted subordinates recognize the loss. This recognized loss is suggestive of acceptance or complacency, whereas the increased need for personalized belonging may drive more responsive behavior within workplace relationships, as suggested by the data. That is, person-based relational identity threats serve as a catalyst for behavioral responses within the supervisor-subordinate relationship to satisfy this increased identity-based need to belong, whereas role-based relational identity threat does not seem to create a similar drive for compensatory momentary self-expansion within either the supervisor-subordinate relationship or the larger organization. In fact, role-based relational identity threat demonstrated a marginally significant negative relationship with momentary relational voice when the subordinate's level of self-compassion is higher. This opposite result from what was predicted suggests that subordinates do not compensate for thwarted self-expansion with increased forms of momentary relational voice or positive discretionary workplace behavior, but rather withdraw from relationship-maintenance behavior (Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; Quinn, 2007). As discussed earlier, this lack of compensation within the supervisor-subordinate relationship or the larger organization may be because

subordinates choose to compensate in domains outside of the workplace (Elsbach, 2003; Steele, 1988).

6.3 Practical Implications

This research offers key insights into the ways in which managers and organizations can improve workplace environments such that positive outcomes result for the subordinate and, as a result, the organization as a whole. First, promoting increased levels of self-compassion, which has been established as a teachable skill (Sbarra et al., 2012), has the power to improve subordinate responses to relational identity threat experiences. As an unexpected finding, it may be that in addition to higher levels of self-compassion improving subordinate responses, lower levels of self-compassion have detrimental effects on positive discretionary workplace behavior. While these results suggest that it may be most important to increase lower levels of self-compassion to attenuate the detrimental effects lower levels of self-compassion have on positive discretionary workplace behavior, since higher levels of self-compassion have positive effects on positive discretionary workplace behavior as well, simply focusing on increasing self-compassion regardless of the current level may serve the organization well. That is, educating subordinates on the power of self-compassion may improve both the daily lives of subordinates as well as responses to relational identity threats that occur within workplace relationships. While this research focused on the supervisor-subordinate relationship, it stands to reason that self-compassion would translate to more positive responses to relational identity threats that occur with coworkers as well.

Additionally, managers and organizations have to potential to benefit when they create an environment in which subordinates are comfortable exercising momentary

relational voice. Momentary relational voice has the potential to resolve the tension that occurs in relational identity threat and ultimately result in positive outcomes, such as increased momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement. Said another way, there is power for managers in creating an environment in which subordinates feel comfortable and choose to exercise momentary relational voice following from incidences of relational identity threat. Since increased momentary relational voice increases momentary organizational voice and momentary behavioral engagement, establishing relationships with subordinates in which subordinates are more likely to voice ideas for improvement and suggestion following from a violation of the expected or desired relational identity with the supervisor will enhance the subordinate's participation in positive discretionary workplace behavior. While minimizing relational identity threats would also be beneficial, given that the occurrence of relational identity threats may be difficult to avoid in their entirety, creating a relational space between supervisors and subordinates in which momentary relational voice is offered enables subordinates to resolve relational identity threats when they do occur.

6.4 Limitations

One potential limitation of the research is that lagged effects were not found, such that the previous time period's relational identity threat does not impact discretionary workplace behavior. These lack of findings may be caused by the extraordinarily small sample size (N=12) that results when analyzing the data in this way or the discrepancies between the amount of time that occurred between the surveys analyzed if all the data is utilized. Another potential cause for the lack of lagged effects is the way in which the questions were framed. Both in the introductory participant meeting and on each and

every survey, the momentary nature of discretionary workplace behavior was emphasized. Therefore, the lack of lagged effects does not preclude the previous time's relational identity threat from predicting non-momentary discretionary workplace behavior.

Another potential limitation is that experience sampling research design focuses on self-report data, however, common method bias concerns are attenuated because the participants are not generating global recollections but rather momentary ones (Reis & Gable, 2000). That is, earlier research has found that within-person estimates are lacking response-bias artifacts: "It seems clear that event-sampling protocols characterize ongoing experience with substantially greater accuracy than do global self-reports." (Reis & Gable, 2000, 197). Further attenuating these concerns, the centering strategies used eliminate between-person variance for the independent variable, which also reduces the potential for common method bias (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006). Based on the subjective nature of the research question, self-report data cannot be avoided. By identifying how intraindividual responses to relational identity threat predict discretionary workplace behavior within momentary interactions, self-report data is necessary given that only the participants themselves know the extent to which he or she is choosing to exercise these types of behaviors (i.e. momentary organization voice, momentary behavioral engagement, or momentary supervisor-directed deviance). That is, other-report data could not capture the extent to which a subordinate has suggestions or ideas and chooses to refrain from sharing all of the ideas or details within the ideas. The subordinate is the only source from which his or her level of investment (i.e. momentary behavioral engagement) can be accurately reported (Reis & Gable, 2000). Therefore, while a design

involving all self-report data is typically a concern, the research question and experience sampling design attenuate these concerns.

Finally, the lower than desired sample size is another limitation of this research. My initially proposed research design assumed completed data from 50 participants resulting in an N of 750. These calculations were based on a slightly different research design (surveys once a day for three weeks instead of twice a day for two weeks). To ensure adequate power, I originally utilized MLPowSim software (Browne, Lahi, & Parker, 2009), which creates a script of R code based on a variety of model-specific conditions. For the purposes of testing my model, I utilized the option for maximum-likelihood estimation, as recommended by Hektner and colleagues (2007) and incorporated an assumed effect size of .30, following Cohen and colleagues (2003)'s assertion that .30 represents a moderate effect in management research. Given these initial assumptions, a sample of 50 complete surveys across my originally estimated 15 working days provided an estimated power level of $p=.95$, which was higher than the recommended $p=.80$ (Cohen et al., 2003). However, my final sample contained 106 observations fewer than desired, the consequence of which is reduced power. Yet, given that some of the hypothesized relationships were significant, this potential limitation is also mitigated.

6.5 Future Research Directions

This research serves as a gateway to future research involving the ebb and flow of workplace relationships. While previous workplace relationship research has focused on the static nature of workplace relationships (Dutton & Dukerich, 2006; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Dutton & Ragins, 2007a, 2007b; Gersick et al., 2000; Kram & Isabella, 1985;

Ragins & Dutton, 2007), incorporating the dynamic nature of workplace relationships will continue to paint a more fine-grained picture of how workplace relationships unfold and predict discretionary workplace behavior. Because this research focused on the subordinate's perspective, future research that incorporates the supervisor's perspective would broaden scholarly understanding of how and why workplace relationships ebb and flow.

As to future research more specifically targeted to understanding responses to relational identity threat, studying the source or cause of the relational identity threat holds potential promise. In the future, it would be prudent to investigate how different causes or sources of relational identity threat can impact the ways in which subordinates respond. While the antecedents or causes of relational identity threat are outside the scope of this research, understanding the role of intentionality versus accidental relational identity threats could serve as a fruitful avenue for uncovering how and why relational identity threat responses among subordinates differ.

Additionally, examining the role of gender within relational identity threat responses could also serve to unlock more of the missing pieces between the different responses to relational identity threat as well as to the differences between person-based and role-based relational identity threat. Since the current research sample was predominately female, understanding what role, if any, this played in the relationships within the relational identity threat response model may help explain additional variance. For example, given that gender is more strongly correlated with person-based relational identity threat than role-based relational identity threat, perhaps a more balanced research sample would have generated stronger effects for role-based relational identity threat.

Earlier research has established that men and women behave differently within relationships beginning from an early age (Maccoby, 1990), following from this, it stands to reason that women may respond to the different types of relational identity threats differently than men do, such that person-based relational identity threats may be more severe for women as opposed to men. Following from this, gender's moderate correlation with self-compassion also highlights additional future research directions, such that perhaps there are three-way interactions between relational identity threat, gender and self-compassion to further explore. These potential differences in both perception of relational identity threat and response to relational identity threat based on gender warrants additional research as to how gender differences moderate how relational identity threat responses unfold.

Also, future research that incorporates positive shifts in relational identity, relaxing the current condition to the relational identity threat response model wherein shifts are due to negative events, would further enhance understanding as to how the ebb and flow of workplace relationships contribute to discretionary workplace behavior. For example, unpacking the differences between positive person-based relational identity shifts and positive role-based relational identity shifts would help management scholars and practitioners alike better predict how subordinates will respond to shifts within the supervisor-subordinate relationship. With positive shifts in relational identity, it may be that person-based relational identity shifts occur so much less frequently than positive role-based relational identity shifts that positive role-based relational identity shifts hold more explanatory power than positive person-based relational identity shifts do within the context of workplace relationships.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, future research that unpacks the role of time in responses to relational identity threat may serve to explain what, if any, lagged effects occur in regard to discretionary workplace behavior and relational identity threat. Therefore, collecting additional data with a large enough sample that contains consistent time periods between participant responses will enable analysis of how relational identity threats in the morning can predict discretionary workplace behavior that occurs in the afternoon. This additional data will enable increased understanding as to how subordinates respond to relational identity threat. Collecting additional data to more clearly understand the lagged effects of relational identity threat may help to further understanding as to how workplace relationships function over time.

6.6 Conclusion

This research contributions to management literature in three important ways. First, this research highlights the dynamic component of workplace relationships through the utilization of an experience sampling methodology. By analyzing each subordinate's change in level of relational identity threat, this research indicates that shifts in 'who we are' (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 2008), drive subordinate choice as to the momentary amount of discretionary workplace behavior to offer. Given that subordinates are faced with a multitude of opportunities to either invest more at work (or less at work), understanding how shifts in 'who we are' predict the choice subordinates will make contributes to the call for more research in regard to how work gets done through relationships (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Ferris et al., 2009; Ragins & Dutton, 2007; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Additionally, by analyzing the effect of self-compassion as a moderator, this research illuminates the power of self-compassion in predicting how a

subordinate will respond to a negative relational event with his or her supervisor. The divergent results, depending on whether the subordinate has higher or lower levels of self-compassion, suggest self-compassion has much to contribute to management research as an individual difference variable of interest. Finally, this research contributes to management literature overall by integrating a relational lens with traditionally organizational-focused voice behavior. This relational lens on voice behavior contributes additional explanatory power to voice behavior as a meta-construct, such that narrowing the focus of voice behavior to a relational target can extend understanding as to the power of speaking up at work (Burriss et al., 2013; Morrison, 2011). The workplace relationships literature also benefits from increasing the understanding as to how voice behavior contributes to the maintenance of workplace relationships. By focusing on the ways in which subordinates choose to respond to relational identity threats, this research ideally contributes to a more nuanced conversation on the ways in which workplace relationships unfold.

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