International Journal of Hospitality Management 91 (2020) 102657

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

International Journal of Hospitality Management

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ijhm

Enhancing employee voice to advance the hospitality organization's marketing capabilities: A multilevel perspective

Ceridwyn King [a,*], Kevin Kam Fung So [b], Robin B. DiPietro [c], Debra Grace [d]

[a] School of Sport, Tourism and Hospitality Management, Temple University, 1810 North 13th Street, Speakman Hall 111, Philadelphia, PA 19072, USA
[b] School of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Spears School of Business, Oklahoma State University, 365 Human Sciences, Stillwater, OK 74078, USA
[c] School of Hotel, Restaurant and Tourism Management, College of Hospitality, Retail and Sport Management, University of South Carolina, USA
[d] Griffith Business School, Griffith University, Australia

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Marketing capabilities
Employees
Voice behavior
Chain restaurants

ABSTRACT

Increased pressure to remain competitively viable necessitates that hospitality organizations are responsive to the market. Through a theory of cooperation and competition lens, this study examines how hospitality organizations can enhance their market responsiveness via the mechanism of employee voice. Using multi-level data from 75 U.S. chain restaurants, results show employee-organization goal alignment builds employee efficacy necessary to exhibit effective prosocial voice and fortifies the organization against misaligned employee goals that potentially lead to ineffective, defensive, or acquiescent, voice behavior. At the restaurant level, unit level prosocial voice had a positive impact on the organization's marketing capabilities through the support of a participatory organizational climate, providing evidence that enhancing employee voice is a viable marketing strategy to advance marketing capabilities.

1. Introduction

With the amount and speed of environmental change occurring, it stands to reason that organizations need to be much more responsive to the market (Marketing Science Institute, 2018). This leads to the question, "What strategies exist to quickly activate customer insights?" In a hospitality environment, where such activation happens in real time through the co-creation process, enabling employee voice is considered a viable strategy to achieve this (Xiong et al., 2019). While intuitive, such assertions oversimplify the concept of employee voice, assuming that all voice is equal, productive and driven by altruistic means. Further, the connection between employee voice at an individual level and benefits sought at an organizational level, are rarely, if at all, empirically examined. With competitive pressure in the hospitality industry continuing to increase (Tang, 2014), this paper addresses this paucity by elucidating how productive, versus unproductive, employee voice can be realized. In turn, this investigation empirically examines how such individual level efforts, collectively work together to influence organizational level outcomes. Specifically, consideration is given to the organization's climate that fosters collaboration necessary to activate such employee insight, as well as enhancing the organization's marketing capabilities that are necessary to respond to competitive pressures.

Any employee who has an impact on "customer relations, customer satisfaction, customer perceived quality, and revenue" plays a marketing role, albeit though not always in title (Gummesson, 1991, p. 60). Since Gummesson's (1991) coining of the phrase 'Part-time Marketer', practitioners and academics alike have grown to appreciate the important role front line employees (FLE), in particular, play in the success of an organization. It has been argued that in service organizations, because of the interaction between FLE and the customer, the employees' role as part-time marketers may be even more critical to future exchanges between the organization and the customer than full-time marketers (Grönroos, 2006). This is because marketing is essentially a "promise-making function", whereas marketing success is predicated on such promises being kept, highlighting the importance of how promises are being fulfilled (Grönroos, 2017, p. 219). In a hospitality context, such fulfilment is a byproduct of the interactions between the FLE and their customers.

The central role of FLE as part-time marketers, however, is not limited to their ability to deliver the promised service. Drawing on the boundary spanning literature, Woisetschläger et al. (2016) emphasize

* Corresponding author.
E-mail addresses: ceridwyn.king@temple.edu (C. King), kevin.so@okstate.edu (K.K.F. So), robin.dipietro@hrsm.sc.edu (R.B. DiPietro), d.grace@griffith.edu.au (D. Grace).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102657
Received 13 November 2019; Received in revised form 11 August 2020; Accepted 16 August 2020
Available online 2 September 2020

the nature of boundary spanning roles as bridging the inner and outer boundaries of an organization. This placement positions FLE uniquely to be a gatherer of information from the outer boundaries (e.g., customers) and, at the same time, a disseminator of that information within the inner boundaries (i.e., the organization). In this capacity, research acknowledges that FLE have the ability to be an idea generator that facilitates organizational improvement (Van der Heijden et al., 2013). The importance of FLE as brokers of organizationally beneficial information is also reinforced in the seminal work of Vargo and Lusch (2004). Organizational advancement requires the application of knowledge and collaborative processes with stakeholders such as customers and employees (Lusch et al., 2007). In the management innovation literature, knowledge brokering, or sourcing and transferring knowledge from and between customers as well as from and between co-workers to enable organizational success is also emphasized (Van de Berg et al., 2014).

Despite the well accepted assertion that organizational innovation and performance is often predicated by information and knowledge transference from and between employees, Woisetschläger et al. (2016) acknowledges that this role is often underestimated and has received little attention in the literature. Such a paucity is echoed by Lages and Piercy (2012) who illuminated the scant research on service improvement predicated by FLE idea generation. In a similar manner, Karlsson and Skålén (2015) noted the limited and mixed results pertaining to FLE and service innovation. Consistent with marketing literature, Van de Berg et al. (2014) also note that despite the dual facilitation of knowledge role played by boundary spanners, limited research focus is given to how employees contribute to organizational information needs. Collectively, this body of research illustrates a gap in the literature pertaining to comprehension of how FLE actions affect the market responsiveness of their respective organizations.

Given the long held, well-established acknowledgement that employees, particularly FLE, are an integral element of an organization's marketing capabilities (cf. Grönroos (1993) – interactive marketing; George (1990) – internal marketing; Gummesson (1991) – part-time marketers; Ind (2001) – brand ambassadors), such an oversight needs to be addressed. This is of particular importance for hospitality organizations where competitive pressures continue to increase at a rapid pace, necessitating a more agile response that is fueled by customer responsiveness (Tang, 2014) and market intelligence (Wang et al., 2012). Without empirical validation that employee actions directly influence the organization's marketing capabilities, employees will continue to be under-utilized as part-time marketers, relegated to the role of promise deliverer and simply a function of human resource management.

In seeking to address this gap in the literature relating to empirical validation of FLE as contributors to an organization's marketing capabilities, the current paper considers what is required to realize the benefit of FLE as part-time marketers that generate market intelligence. Specifically, as individual employee abilities are linked to unit level outcomes (Tracey and Tews, 2004), we expect that the ultimate benefit of FLE as part-time marketers who gather and disseminate information, is realized at the organizational level. However as Orr et al. (2011, p. 1074) note, "Despite this seemingly obvious importance of a firm's employees as a route to improving marketing performance, relatively little empirical evidence exists at the *firm level* that examines this issues in the marketing context." Therefore, we address this gap through multilevel data, considering how FLE behaviors at the firm level influence the organization's marketing capabilities, as well as create an environment that sustains such efforts (i.e., a participative climate).

Further, while idea generation and dissemination are at the core of a market oriented/responsive organization (e.g., Kohli and Jaworski, 1990) and FLE are considered a central conduit of such, Woisetschläger et al. (2016, p. 110) suggests that "only information perceived and deemed relevant and interesting for the company by the boundary spanning employees is collected and passed on." Such an assertion assigns FLE in an arbiter like role of service encounter generated market intelligence. If employees do not perceive the information to be relevant to the organization and/or they do not believe that the organization appreciates the contributions from them, such insight will not be forthcoming (King and Lee, 2016). This literature highlights a very important caveat to realizing the benefits of FLE as part-time marketers, that being the volitional nature of such efforts. Within the marketing and hospitality literature however, there appears to be limited consideration given to the motivational drivers required to elicit such part-time marketing behaviors, as well as potential barriers that may impede them.

Therefore, the second gap this study seeks to address is understanding motivational elements that influence part-time marketer behaviors, with specific reference to employee voice behavior. Inspired by the internal marketing, and more recent internal brand management literature that seeks to guide, prepare and motivate employees as part-time marketers to support the organization's intent (e.g. Rafiq and Ahmed, 2000; Burmann and Zeplin, 2005) we draw on the theory of cooperation and competition to illustrate the importance of employee – organization goal alignment. As employee voice behavior is extra role (i.e., not part of formal job requirements), with an element of risk (Raub and Robert, 2013), we also consider how such alignment informs employee self-efficacy, as reflected in organization-based self-esteem, which is deemed a catalyst for voice behavior (Liang, 2017).

In summary, by examining how to enhance employee voice to advance organizational marketing capabilities, the current study fills two gaps in the literature. First, given the lack of empirical validation of the connection between FLE actions and market performance, particularly at the firm level, the current study provides insight into how this connection is formed and can be enhanced. Second, with such a connection being predicated on the volitional actions of FLE, yet limited research has considered motivational drivers and potential barriers that may impede or render meaningless such efforts, the study also illuminates the complexity of realizing the benefits of FLE as part-time marketers. Collectively, in addressing these gaps in the literature, the study also provides insight for hospitality practitioners wanting to enhance their marketing capabilities through their FLE.

2. Literature review

2.1. Market driven organizational capabilities

The development of capabilities within an organization to realize a competitive foothold in the market place is not new. Originating in the strategy literature, organization capability insight, such as the organizational learning work of Huber (1991) or Day's market driven organization capabilities (1994), are reflected in the marketing concept (i.e., market orientation) proposed by marketing scholars (e.g., Kohli and Jaworski, 1990). Despite the plethora of research that the seminal market orientation work spurred, Foley and Fahy (2009) note that very little work had been done with respect to helping managers develop such a market driven focus. Rather the focus is on assessing the level of an organization's market orientation/capability. This is suggested to be the result of the marketing orientation concept being 'isolated' in the marketing literature, despite originating in the management and strategy fields (Foley and Fahey, 2009). This isolation seems counterproductive given the shared common purpose of marketing and strategic management scholars to seek insight with respect to leveraging and sustaining a competitive advantage (Srivastava et al., 2001). Foley and Fahey (2009) thus advocate value in an interdisciplinary approach by examining an organization's capabilities as a means through which market orientation can be understood (Foley and Fahey, 2009).

Possessing valuable resources and capabilities is insufficient to drive a competitive advantage if it does not reflect the dynamic characteristics of the market and customer needs (Martelo Landroguez et al., 2011). Thus capabilities, defined as 'complex bundles of skills and collective learning, exercised though organizational processes, that ensure superior coordination of functional activities' (Day, 1994, p. 38), need to be market oriented (Foley and Fahey, 2009), thus giving rise to the term

marketing capabilities. From this perspective, Morgan et al. (2009, p. 911) note that "marketing capabilities are viewed in the literature as important market-relating mechanisms by which superior market knowledge maybe deployed by firms." Consistent with the seminal work of Day (1994); Foley and Fahey (2009) emphasize specifically, market sensing and customer linking as two highly relevant capabilities that have the potential to inform how an organization can be more responsive to the market. From a macro perspective, the ability to anticipate changes in the market place, particularly in advance of competitors, as reflected in the market sensing capability (Day, 1994), is considered critical to market orientation (Foley and Fahey, 2009). At the same time, from a micro perspective, identifying customers' needs and wants to enable enduring customer relationship development, as reflected in customer linking capabilities (Day, 1994), is also valuable to an organization's market orientation (Hooley et al., 2005). Collectively, market sensing and customer linking capabilities allow the organization to compete more efficiently in the market place by being responsive to the market (Day, 1994). To this end, communication and valuable interaction experiences between firms, customers, and other market actors, such as employees, become a priority (Karpen et al. (2012). Such experiences help to ensure market changes are reflected in organizational performance, thus leading to a competitive advantage. Despite the importance of these issues, there is a dearth of literature that exists with respect to how such marketing capabilities can be enhanced.

2.2. Enhancing Marketing Capabilities – the role of the employee

The importance placed on marketing capabilities lies in their ability to contribute to a competitive advantage and superior profitability (Day, 1994). However, capabilities need to be responsive to the changing environment [market] suggesting that organizational learning and the application of such is paramount (Ambrosini and Bowman, 2009). Huber (1991) notes that organizational learning, facilitated by information processing, is enabled through interpersonal or social channels, in contrast to more mechanical means. Therefore, it is suggested that the development of marketing capabilities resides within the organization's ability to leverage their human resources - a significant repository and enabler of market intelligence. It is for this reason that Orr et al. (2011, p. 1074) suggest that "marketing capabilities represent the *accumulated knowledge and skills of the firm's marketing employees* that are utilized to create customer satisfying outcomes". Boundary spanning employees, specifically FLE, given their distinctive dual customer/organization facing role, are integral to the development of marketing capabilities. Thus, emphasis is given to employees internalizing and sharing market intelligence (Menguc et al., 2013) for the benefit of enhanced organization performance (Wang, 2015).

Given the intuitive nature of the organization's human resource underpinning essential organizational marketing capabilities, particularly for service organizations, it is surprising to note the lack of investigation in the marketing capabilities literature with regard to employee contributions. While effort has been made to establish the significance of marketing capabilities on organizational performance (e.g. Bharadwaj et al., 2012; Bharadwaj and Dong, 2014; Lindblom et al., 2008) as well as organizational level antecedences to enact such capabilities (Hooley et al., 2005; Rapp et al., 2010), limited attention has been given to individual level antecedents that influence marketing capabilities. The exception appears to be Menguc et al.'s (2013) examination of task and outcome interdependence of teams with respect to predicting the customer knowledge creation capability at the team level.

In contrast, in other streams of the marketing literature, mostly as it relates to service marketing or internal brand management, there seems to be a plethora of research that espouses and empirically validates the importance of employees in realizing marketing objectives (e.g. Park and Tran, 2018; Sirianni et al., 2013). A clear implication reflected in such studies is the acknowledgement that for employees to have a positive impact on marketing outcomes, an intentional effort is first required to align their perceptions with organizational intent. This not only ensures employees are motivated to play their role as part-time marketers, but that in doing so, they contribute to, rather than detract from, organizational success (King and Grace, 2010). Informed by such thinking, and in recognition that employee exhibition of voice behavior necessary to enhance the organization's marketing capabilities is volitional and not without risk, we draw on the theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949) to understand how employee-organization goal alignment may be a precursor to employee contributions to the organization's marketing capabilities.

2.3. Theory of cooperation and competition

Originating in social and educational psychology (Deutsch, 1949), the theory of cooperation and competition considers the way in which people perceive their goals are aligned/related to others and the subsequent impact on dynamics and outcomes of their interactions. The theory was originally advanced in an organizational context by Tjosvold (1984) as a framework to help understand issues, such as participation in organizational decision making, stemming from social interactions within firms that underpin productivity. "Cooperation has the potential of fulfilling the needs of individuals and the requirements of organizations; cooperative groups can integrate the individual into the organization and help the organization be productive" (Tjosvold, 1984, p. 751).

The essence of Deutsch's (1949) theory is that interactions, and subsequent outcomes, between people are premised by the individual's perception of the relatedness of their respective goals. From an organizational perspective, employee expectations, communication exchange, problem-solving and productivity are significantly influenced by their perceptions as to how their goals are related to the organization (Alper et al., 1998). The assumption is that employees work to satisfy their self-interest through the articulation and pursuit of their goals, noting that such goals are not necessarily mutually exclusive to the organization. Rather the attainment of the employee's goals could also align with the organization's goals. From this perspective, three alternatives are articulated through which employees perceive their goals relative to the organization, namely, cooperative, competitive and independent (Deutsch, 2011).

Cooperative goals are evident to the extent that an employee believes that their goals are aligned with the organization's goals; as the employee moves towards achieving that goal, the organization also moves toward goal attainment. In contrast, competitive goals are employee goals that are perceived as opposite to the organization's goals; that attaining one's goal is to the detriment of the organization achieving theirs – "if one succeeds, others must fail. If one "wins", others "lose"" (Alper et al., 1998, p. 36). From the theory's perspective, cooperation and competition refer to the interdependence between goals (Tjosvold, 1984). Lastly, Deutsch notes that people may also perceive a lack of interdependence between goals; that their actions have no impact whatsoever on the organization and vice versa, giving rise to the term independent goals.

The importance of goal interdependence here is the assertion that employee perception as to the relatedness of their goals, "profoundly affects their orientation and intentions" towards the organization (Alper et al., 1998, p. 36). If organizational learning relies on employee voice, then it is imperative that employees perceive the attainment of organizational goals are positively related to their own. Cooperative goals are suggested to have a positive impact on an employee with respect to effective communication and influence, expected and actual assistance, coordination of effort, friendliness and support, amongst other things, whereas competitive goals are expected to have the opposite effect (Deutsch, 2011). Potentially just as damaging as competitive goals with respect to encouraging employee voice, is independent goals, whereby no social interaction is expected and thus no outcomes, positive or negative, are realized (Tjosvold, 1984). Organization-employee goal

alignment increases the employee's perception of self-worth as an organizational member – if my goals are aligned with the organization, then I must be a valued organizational member (Ferris et al., 2009). Such self-worth is reflected in employees' organization-based self-esteem (OBSE), which is considered a requirement to realize the positive outcomes associated with employee-organization goal alignment, particularly when those outcomes can be characterized as high risk for the individual employee.

2.4. Organization-based self-esteem

Defined as the "degree to which an individual believes themselves to be capable, significant and worthy as an organization member" (Pierce and Gardner, 2004, p. 593), OBSE is influenced by one's experiences at work. Such self-esteem impacts work-related motivations, attitudes and behavior (e.g., Lin et al., 2018b). A contributing factor to OBSE is the messaging associated with organization socialization, specifically from those who evaluate one's work (Pierce and Gardner, 2004). To the extent that these messages reinforce or run counter to the individual's assessment of themselves in the workplace, an individual will internalize, becoming part of their self-concept. For example, Riordan et al. (2001) found a positive relationship between a good job fit and OBSE. This is because employees gain a sense of accomplishment by demonstrating professional competence and reaching organizationally prescribed goals (Dormann and Zapf, 2004). Behaviors associated with providing employees with role clarity and direction have a similar effect (Ferris et al., 2009). In accordance with self-consistency theory (Korman, 1970), whereby individuals seek to keep their attitudes, beliefs and intentions congruent by maintaining consistency between task performance and self-esteem, employees whose goals align with the organization should perceive a high level of OBSE. Thus it is hypothesized that:

H1a. Cooperative Goals (COOP) are positively related to Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE).

However, when the work environment is not congruent with employee beliefs, their workplace self-esteem can be negatively impacted. For example, when employees perceive that their role in the workplace adversely affects them, they often perceive themselves to be a less competent and less successful organizational member (i.e., low OBSE) (Pierce and Gardner, 2004). Further, employees experience of work related goal failures have been shown to be negatively related to OBSE (Park and Kim, 2020), consistent with employee sense of powerlessness in pursuit of their professional goals, as a result of job insecurity (Lin et al., 2018a, b). OBSE has also been found to be negatively affected when employees perceive their personal values to be incongruent with organizations (Naus et al., 2007). As these results again underscore the elements of Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory, we hypothesize that:

H1b. Competitive Goals (COMP) are negatively related to Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE).

When conceptualizing OBSE, Pierce et al. (1989) made the distinction from global esteem by identifying the central role of the organization. OBSE is predicated on the extent to which organizational membership satisfies the individual's needs through organizational role participation. The employee-organization relationship is explicit in one's assessment of workplace based self-esteem (i.e., OBSE). From this perspective it is not surprising that organizational identification has been observed as having a positive relationship with OBSE (e.g., Bao et al., 2016). Likewise, OBSE has been positively associated with organizational commitment while negatively associated with turnover intention (Lin et al., 2018a). As these results underscore the importance of the workplace defining who the employee is, it is reasonable to expect that when an employee does not see the workplace as being central to the pursuit of their personal goals, their workplace based self-esteem is likewise less relevant. It is on this basis we hypothesize that:

H1c. Independent Goals (IND) are negatively related to Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE).

As an outcome of employee-organization goal alignment, OBSE is promoted as a psychological mechanism that explains employees' response to the dynamics of their interactions with the organization. In particular, nurturing OBSE has been shown to have benefits both at the personal level, as well as at the organizational level, through the exhibition of citizenship behaviors (Pierce and Gardner, 2004). Thus, in the context of this study, OBSE is expected to be an important enabler of the citizenship behavior of employee voice (Lu and Lu, 2019).

2.5. Employee voice

Employee voice is a term used to describe constructively challenging the status quo by making suggestions or comments that aid organizational performance (Morrison, 2014). It is often seen as proactive and volitional, requiring employee motivation given the potential risks and benefits associated with speaking out (Weiss and Morrison, 2019). While the intent of promoting employee voice is to advance organizational efforts, the important work of Van Dyne et al. (2003) suggests that not all words spoken are underpinned by good intent or will be to the benefit of the organization, given that motives drive behavior. Such a distinction is deemed important given that employee voice is advanced as an important contributor to organizational success in both the strategic marketing and management literature. As voice behavior is not technically part of one's job and to do so implies the potential for material and social risk to the individual (Raub and Robert, 2013), considering motivational drivers is deemed necessary when relying on employee voice to inform organizational actions. Employee voice can be active or passive, constructive or destructive (Gorden, 1988), informed by employee motives of being other-oriented, defensive or disengaged (Van Dyne et al., 2003). While research has focused on identifying factors that influence voice behavior, it has predominantly been from an altruistic, other-oriented perspective, with limited consideration given to influencing the motives that drive less productive voice behaviors.

Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) multidimensional conceptualization of voice is based on the motives of other-oriented, defensive and disengaged. Firstly, in recognition that voice behavior (speaking up and making suggestions) has been examined under different terms such as civic virtue (Organ, 1988) and advocacy participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994; Van Dyne et al. (2003, p. 1370) noted that in essence, the collective examination of voice behavior, regardless of label, has been unidimensional and can be referred to as the "verbal expression of ideas, information, and opinions with the positive motive of making cooperative contributions to the organization." This perspective suggests that this type of voice behavior is positive, proactive and motivated by an orientation towards others, and thus is labeled prosocial voice. As OBSE has been linked to employees' exhibition of citizenship behavior (Pierce and Gardner, 2004), such as prosocial voice, we hypothesize that:

H2a. Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is positively related to Prosocial Voice

While organizations may covet prosocial voice, Van Dyne et al. (2003) highlights that not all voice behavior may be good, suggesting that individuals can express ideas, information and opinions, but their motives to do so may render the content of the behavior meaningless at best, harmful at worst (Lee et al., 2014). While prosocial voice is considered to be motivated by being other oriented based on cooperation, Van Dyne et al. (2003) also suggest that people can be motivated to speak up based on fear and a motive for self-protection, known as defensive voice, or based on resignation and a motive of disengagement, known as acquiescent voice.

Defensive voice is the exhibition of ideas, information and opinions regarding work or the organization that are expressed to protect oneself, which is contrasted to prosocial voice that is altruistic (Van Dyne et al.,

2003). Self-protective behavior that is reflected in defensive voice includes communication of excuses, justifications and disclaimers as well as blaming others or shifting attention away from oneself (Lee et al., 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003). In essence, defensive voice is about "protecting one's own agenda rather than advancing the greater good" (Lee et al., 2014, p. 27). Lee et al.'s (2014) assertion that the motivation for defensive voice is driven by an agenda that is different to others and that agenda is underpinned by a desire to not draw attention to one's self, suggests that within that organization, the individual's sense of self-worth and being of value to the organization is limited. It is on this basis that we hypothesize:

H2b. Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is negatively related to Defensive Voice.

Prosocial and defensive voice are characterized by an active intent on behalf of the individual to communicate passionately their perspective. In contrast, acquiescent voice is described as a less proactive behavior (Van Dyne et al., 2003). Van Dyne et al. (2003) suggest the motivation of disengagement reflected in acquiescent voice is the result of feeling an inability to make a difference, (i.e., low self-esteem). With the motive of disengagement being based on resignation and low self-efficacy, we hypothesize that:

H2c. Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is negatively related to Acquiescent Voice

OBSE has been promoted as a requirement for invoking volitional, and often risky, voice behavior that has the potential to enhance organizational performance (Lu and Lu, 2019). In recognition that not all employee voice motives are positive, the utility of OBSE as an important antecedent is further illuminated through its ability to potentially dissuade less productive voice behaviors that have rarely been considered. Ultimately though, the benefits of employee voice is a unit level phenomenon. Therefore, to assess the effectiveness of such efforts, examination at the unit level is necessary.

2.6. Organizational benefits of unit level employee voice

Employees possess organizational intelligence that can be leveraged for organizational benefit. However, Ployhart and Moliterno (2011) assert that there is very little understanding of *how* such human capital manifests from the individual level to the organization/unit level. At a micro-level, human capital research focuses on measurement of individual differences which are subsequently linked to individual level outcomes. In contrast, macro-level human capital research focuses on unit level analysis often measured by management self-reports or the use of proxy measures (Ployhart and Moliterno, 2011). Such single level measurement, while informative, does not illustrate from a micro level perspective, for example, how individuals' knowledge, skills and abilities lead to organizational performance, nor from a macro level, where the organization/unit level human capital originates. Both insights are believed necessary if practitioners are to be able to derive any meaningful and practical insights from such research. To address these shortcomings, we adopt the thinking of Ployhart and Moliterno (2011) that creating value at the unit level is a result of cumulative employee attributes; it is the accumulation of all employee voice behavior at the unit level that contributes to the hospitality organization's marketing capabilities and, for the benefit of sustained effort, a participative organizational climate.

The cumulative effect that employee voice is expected to have on a work group's performance, specifically as it relates to influencing the organization's marketing capabilities, is facilitated by group learning that comes from sharing suggestions and ideas to improve the function of the work unit (Walumbwa et al., 2012). However, while organizational learning mechanisms, such as employee voice, have been proven to shape hospitality organization's capabilities and performance (Ali et al., 2019; Nieves and Diaz-Meneses, 2016), we understand that not all voice behavior is created equal. Thus, in contrast to unit level prosocial voice, we expect unit level voice motivated by self-protection or disengagement (i.e., defensive and acquiescent voice) will not have a positive impact on the organization's marketing capabilities.

Further, as unit level employee voice manifests through social interaction, we expect that it also contributes to the creation of an organizational climate that shapes employee perceptions as to the extent to which they are encouraged to speak up. As voice behavior carries considerable personal risk (Morrison and Milliken, 2000), the creation of a climate that encourages employee contributions is paramount to sustainability, where proactive employee voice behavior is coveted for organizational success (Frazier and Bowler, 2015). According to Hansen et al. (2005), providing an environment whereby employees are encouraged to cooperate, facilitates more productive interactions. Wanting employees to participate in activities that are outside of the norm and are a deviation from their traditional role, such as expressing ideas, information and opinions, necessitates an environment whereby employees feel supported in these extra role behaviors (Menguc et al., 2013; Morrison and Milliken, 2000). Such an environment is reflective of a participative organizational climate where employees collectively perceive that sharing new ideas, suggestions, and even dissenting views are encouraged by management (Huang et al., 2005). Participative climate, as a unit level phenomenon, has been shown to contribute directly to individual level voice behaviors (e.g., Lee et al., 2014). As organizational climates are derived from social interactions and collective sense-making within the workplace (Morrison et al., 2011; Morrison and Milliken, 2000), it is also reasonable to expect that unit level voice behavior, that is socially constructed, will be an important antecedent of a participative climate. Lee et al. (2014) found that prosocial voice was positively associated with a participative climate, while both defensive and acquiescent voice had negative associations. As it has been established that groups with more voice behavior will perform better than groups with less voice behavior (Walumbwa et al., 2012) because of the climate that is created, we hypothesize that:

H3. Unit level Prosocial Voice (UPRO) is positively related to (a) the Organization's Marketing Capabilities (MKTCAP) and (b) a Participative Climate (CLIM).

H4. Unit level Defensive Voice (UDEF) is negatively related to (a) the Organization's Marketing Capabilities (MKTCAP) and (b) a Participative Climate (CLIM).

H5. Unit level Acquiescent Voice (ACQ) is negatively related to (a) the Organization's Marketing Capabilities (MKTCAP) and (b) a Participative Climate (CLIM).

H6. Participative Climate (CLIM) is positively related to the Organization's Marketing Capabilities (MKTCAP).

In seeking to understand how employees contribute to a hospitality organization's marketing capabilities, it is suggested that employee-organization goal alignment, which enhances their organizational self-efficacy (i.e., OBSE), promotes the exhibition of productive voice behavior and discourages other, less productive, voice behavior. As a result, the cumulative effect of employees' exhibition of prosocial voice creates not only an organizational climate that champions such efforts (e.g., participative climate) but also has a direct impact on the organization's marketing capabilities. In contrast, employee voice at the unit level that can be described as motivated by defensive or acquiescent intent, does not enhance a participative climate nor an organization's marketing capabilities (see Fig. 1).

3. Method

3.1. Research context and data collection

To test the proposed hypotheses, we used data from two large

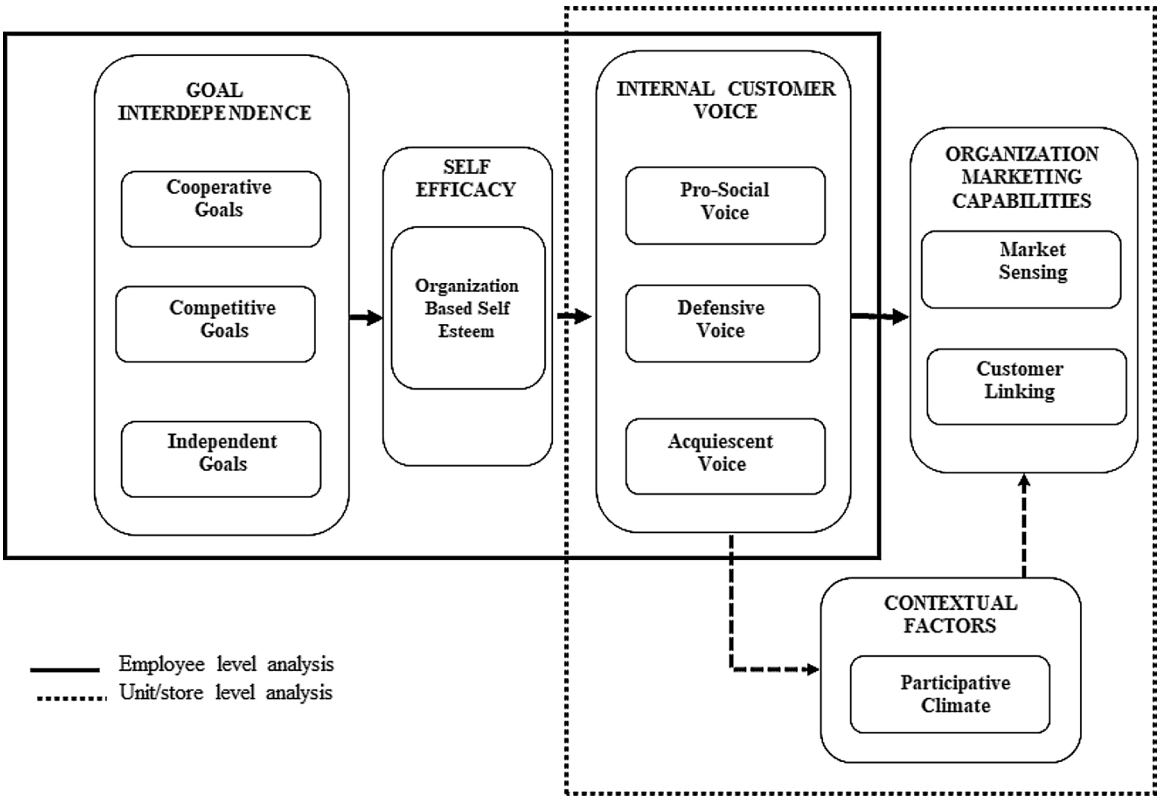

Fig. 1. Conceptual Model.

national chain restaurants across 75 locations in the southern United States. In order to examine how hospitality employees' exhibition of voice contributes to the operations marketing capabilities, we collected data from employees and managers/supervisors from each location. The employee level model was first examined using the data gathered at the individual employee level with the employee as the unit of analysis. To link the employee variables to the unit/organization variables, we used the employee and manager/supervisor level data, matched and aggregated at the restaurant level, for subsequent model estimation. In order to link information from the two important stakeholders involved in the model, examine cross-level linkages among the constructs contained in the model, and reduce common method bias, we developed two separate self-administered online surveys to collected information from the two different sources of data within each location (i.e., FLE and managers/supervisors). Specifically, the employee survey included items related to all constructs in the model with the exception of the organization's marketing capabilities construct, namely market sensing and customer linking. These items were included on the manager/supervisor survey. The use of such a multilevel data collection strategy to gather data from employees and managers or customers and subsequently make data aggregation at the team or restaurant level for model estimation has been adopted in previous tourism and hospitality research (Lin et al., 2017) as well as the organization behavior (Liao et al., 2009; Morrison et al., 2011) and marketing literature (Lichtenstein et al., 2010) and therefore was considered appropriate.

Before collecting the main survey data, we conducted two pre-tests of the surveys with two employees and two managers in order to assess respondent comprehension and interpretation of the survey questions. The research team gathered the feedback and comments and further refined the wording of several items to achieve enhanced clarity. As the suggested changes were minor, the use of four participants was considered sufficient. After refining the two separate surveys, two survey links (one for the employee survey and the other for the manager survey) were provided to each of the two restaurant companies for internal distribution. The potential respondents for each survey were invited to participate in their respective online survey. In order to perform dyadic matching between employees and their corresponding managers, all respondents in the two surveys were asked to indicate the restaurant in which they work. To minimize the effect of social desirability on the data, potential respondents were assured that no identifying information would be used when reporting the findings, that the data that they provide to the researcher would be confidential and at no point would they be referred to by name. All responses given in the questionnaire would remain confidential and be presented in aggregate format. They were also informed that participation was completely voluntary, and anonymity was guaranteed. A four-week data collection period resulted in completion of 426 employee surveys and 153 manager surveys. Preliminary screening of the data eliminated 9 cases from the employee survey and 23 from the manager survey as a result of incomplete responses. A final sample of 417 employees and 130 managers were retained for data analysis. Given that a forced response function was adopted, there were no missing data.

3.2. *Measurement instrument*

To measure the constructs included in the model, we adopted existing measurement scales. Goal interdependence, OBSE, voice behaviors, and participative climate are reflective of the internal environment as perceived by the FLE and thus they were measured at the employee level. Consistent with Morrison et al. (2011), this study focuses on climate as a shared/group level phenomenon. As such, we asked employees to report their perceptions of how new ideas, suggestions, and even opposing views are encouraged by the management of their workplace. Given that marketing capabilities are an organizational attribute that management would have insight on, data pertaining to this were captured at the supervisor/manager level. To measure the theoretical concept of goal interdependence based on employees' perceptions of the internal environment of the restaurant in which they

work, we measured cooperative goals (COOP – six items), competitive goals (COMP – five items) and independent goals (INDP – four items) using items that were adapted from Alper et al. (1998). (2005). Given the length of the original scale, only items that related to the organization's goals, in contrast to managers, were retained. The measurement items, capturing different perspectives, reflect the conceptual domain of their respective construct. To measure OBSE, nine items from Lau et al. (2014) were used. All three voice behavior constructs were measured by scales adapted from Lee et al. (2014), with 10 items used to measure the constructs - prosocial voice (three items), defensive voice (three items) and acquiescent voice (four items). Participative climate was measured with four items from Huang et al. (2005). Marketing capabilities were measured from Fang et al.'s (2014) four item market sensing capability scale and four items from Hooley et al.'s (2005) customer linking scale, following Foley and Fahey's (2009) conceptualization.

3.3. Results

The employee sample was approximately 54% females, and 66% of the sample were 29 years old or younger, 18% between age 30 and 39, with 16% over the age of 40. About 42% of the sample were single or never married, with 48% married or partnered. In terms of annual personal income, 59% of the sample indicated an income level of under $20,000, 27% earned between $20,000 and $60,000, 1% earned over $60,000. For the highest education level attained, 7% of the respondents received undergraduate degrees, 1% received graduate degrees, 43% received some college education or had associate degrees, 38% received high-school education, and 11% had primary school education.

3.3.1. Partial least squares path modeling (PLS-PM)

The research data were analyzed using partial least squares path modeling (PLS-PM). Unlike covariance-based structural equation

Table 1
Results for the Outer Model.

Latent Variable and Indicators	Loadings	S. E.	C.R.	Indicators Reliability	CR/ Alpha	AVE	Discriminant Validity?
ACQ					.93/.90	.76	Yes
ACQ1. I passively support the ideas of others because I am disengaged (i.e. not interested).	.90	.01	61.15	.81			
ACQ2. I passively express agreement and rarely offer a new idea.	.89	.01	65.77	.80			
ACQ3. I agree and go along with the group, based on resignation (i.e. it doesn't matter what I say).	.90	.02	59.16	.81			
ACQ4. I passively agree with others about solutions to problems.	.79	.03	23.56	.62			
COMP					.96/.95	.82	Yes
COMP1. My restaurant seems to get in the way of my growth and development.	.91	.01	70.30	.83			
COMP2. My restaurant withholds important information from me.	.90	.02	58.26	.80			
COMP3. My restaurant restricts my attempts for improvements; they hold me back.	.92	.01	77.09	.85			
COMP4. My restaurant structures things in ways that favor their goals rather than mine	.90	.02	52.31	.80			
COMP5. My restaurant gives high priority to the things they want to accomplish and low priority to the things I want to accomplish.	.91	.01	66.78	.82			
COOP					.98/.97	.88	Yes
COOP1. My restaurant shows as much concern for what I want to accomplish as to what they want to accomplish.	.93	.01	77.39	.86			
COOP2. My restaurant gives high priority to the things I want to accomplish.	.95	.01	138.38	.90			
COOP3. My restaurant helps me grow and develop on the job.	.95	.01	136.45	.91			
COOP4. My restaurant shares their ideas and resources with me.	.94	.01	106.47	.88			
COOP5. My restaurant structures things so that their goals and my goals can be achieved.	.94	.01	105.08	.89			
COOP6. My restaurant helps me do a good job.	.94	.01	79.16	.88			
DEF					.93/.88	.81	Yes
DEF1. I don't express much except agreement with the group, because I am scared.	.90	.02	43.75	.81			
DEF2. I go along and communicate support for the group, based on self-protection (i.e. to protect myself).	.86	.03	28.61	.73			
DEF3. I usually express agreement with the group, because I am scared.	.94	.01	105.32	.88			
IND					.93/.90	.77	Yes
IND1. Employees in my restaurant prefer to work alone.	.74	.04	20.64	.55			
IND2. My restaurant shows much more concern for what they want to accomplish than for what I want to accomplish.	.93	.01	98.12	.86			
IND3. My restaurant is uninterested in the things I want to accomplish.	.93	.01	102.57	.86			
IND4. My restaurant is uninterested in the flow of information.	.89	.01	63.06	.79			
OBSE					.94/.92	.66	Yes
OBSE1. I count at work.	.70	.05	15.30	.49			
OBSE2. I am taken seriously at work.	.83	.02	42.98	.70			
OBSE3. I am trusted at work.	.79	.04	19.80	.62			
OBSE4. I can make a difference at work.	.86	.02	38.89	.73			
OBSE5. I am valuable at work.	.87	.03	27.58	.75			
OBSE6. I am helpful at work.	.85	.03	30.94	.72			
OBSE7. I am efficient at work.	.80	.04	21.21	.64			
OBSE8. I am cooperative at work.	.78	.03	23.06	.60			
PRO					.93/.89	.82	Yes
PRO1. I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the restaurant.	.89	.02	48.90	.79			
PRO2. I speak up with ideas for new projects that might benefit the restaurant.	.92	.01	64.79	.85			
PRO3. I suggest ideas for change, based on constructive concern for the restaurant (i.e., I want to help the restaurant).	.90	.02	41.71	.81			

Note: All estimates were produced based on bootstrapping with 5000 subsamples. ACQ = acquiescent voice; COMP = competitive goals; COOP = cooperative goals; DEF = defensive voice; IND = independent goals; OBSE = organizational based self-esteem; PRO = prosocial voice; S.E. = standard error; C.R. = critical ratio; CR = composite reliability; Alpha = Cronbach's Alpha.

modeling, which is used for theory testing and comparison of alternative theories (Hair et al., 2013), PLS-PM maximizes the variance explained in the latent variables and its strength lies in prediction (Hair et al., 2013). PLS-PM does not necessitate a large sample size as required in other analytical techniques (Arnett et al., 2003). Given that this study seeks to test a series of predictive relationships, PLS-PM was considered the appropriate analytical method for this study. Our analysis followed a two-step process (Hair et al., 2013).

3.3.2. Measurement model

We first assessed the construct validity and measurement reliability (Hair et al., 2013). Of the 53 items, four items were dropped due to poor factor loadings. The results of the final measurement of the employee level model shown in Table 1 show all indicators had loadings reaching or exceeding .70 (Hair et al., 2006). The bootstrap critical ratios of the items are statistically significant ($p < .001$), and AVEs also exceeded .50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), supporting convergent validity.

The outer loadings of all indicators on their respective constructs are greater than the loadings on other constructs. As Table 2 indicates, no measurement items cross-loaded highly on another construct, supporting discriminant validity. Further, the square root of the AVE exceeded the inter-correlations between constructs, indicating that the factors were discriminant (Chin, 1998). Table 3 presents the results.

Table 1 indicates that the factors achieved the ideal level of reliability (> .70) based on their estimates for Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (Hair et al., 2006), and all indicator reliability well exceeded .50. Overall the results demonstrate sound psychometric properties of the measurement scales.

Unlike the restaurant level model estimation, which relies on data from multiple sources, the employee data were gathered via the same method (i.e., self-administered online surveys) from the same data source, thus common method variance could have affected the relationships among the constructs under investigation. We conducted Harman's one-factor test through an exploratory factor analysis using an unrotated principal components factor analysis. We forced the analysis to extract one factor and the factor merged accounted for less than 50% of the variance (i.e., 36.39%), therefore a general factor was not evident (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The results suggest that common method variance was not a major issue.

Table 2
Discriminant Validity Analysis based on Cross-loadings.

	ACQ	COMP	COOP	DEF	IND	OBSE	PRO
ACQ1	**.90**	.36	−.17	.73	.41	−.35	−.32
ACQ2	**.89**	.23	−.08	.73	.29	−.29	−.37
ACQ3	**.90**	.42	−.18	.69	.49	−.39	−.24
ACQ4	**.79**	.23	−.04	.63	.26	−.20	−.19
COMP1	.34	**.91**	−.33	.29	.70	−.43	−.07
COMP2	.34	**.90**	−.35	.32	.70	−.42	−.09
COMP3	.33	**.92**	−.34	.28	.68	−.46	−.02
COMP4	.32	**.90**	−.33	.24	.71	−.37	−.05
COMP5	.35	**.91**	−.36	.27	.73	−.39	−.11
COOP1	−.15	−.34	**.94**	−.08	−.37	.34	.14
COOP2	−.14	−.34	**.93**	−.07	−.38	.34	.14
COOP3	−.13	−.39	**.95**	−.06	−.44	.35	.16
COOP4	−.15	−.37	**.95**	−.10	−.40	.36	.13
COOP5	−.16	−.34	**.94**	−.12	−.37	.37	.18
COOP6	−.11	−.35	**.94**	−.08	−.39	.30	.12
DEF1	.69	.27	−.08	**.90**	.31	−.24	−.22
DEF2	.71	.28	−.07	**.86**	.34	−.20	−.22
DEF3	.76	.29	−.10	**.94**	.35	−.26	−.27
IND1	.35	.51	−.23	.30	**.75**	−.33	−.12
IND2	.37	.74	−.37	.29	**.93**	−.45	−.12
IND3	.38	.73	−.43	.30	**.93**	−.49	−.14
IND4	.41	.70	−.40	.41	**.89**	−.50	−.16
OBSE1	−.21	−.47	.35	−.15	−.51	**.70**	.14
OBSE2	−.32	−.52	.42	−.22	−.56	**.83**	.23
OBSE3	−.25	−.33	.30	−.15	−.37	**.79**	.22
OBSE4	−.36	−.41	.33	−.22	−.46	**.86**	.28
OBSE5	−.30	−.41	.33	−.20	−.45	**.87**	.27
OBSE6	−.29	−.28	.22	−.28	−.32	**.85**	.31
OBSE7	−.32	−.24	.18	−.26	−.28	**.80**	.34
OBSE8	−.29	−.26	.20	−.21	−.31	**.78**	.33
PRO1	−.29	−.05	.12	−.23	−.13	.29	**.89**
PRO2	−.29	−.05	.17	−.23	−.13	.31	**.92**
PRO3	−.30	−.10	.13	−.26	−.16	.29	**.90**

Note: ACQ = acquiescent voice; COMP = competitive goals; COOP = cooperative goals; DEF = defensive voice; IND = independent goals; OBSE = organizational-based self-esteem; PRO = prosocial voice.

Table 3
Discriminant Validity Analysis based on Fornell-Larcker Criterion.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. ACQ	**.87**						
2. COMP	.37	**.91**					
3. COOP	−.15	−.38	**.94**				
4. DEF	.80	.31	−.09	**.90**			
5. IND	.43	.77	−.42	.37	**.88**		
6. OBSE	−.37	−.46	.37	−.26	−.51	**.81**	
7. PRO	−.32	−.07	.16	−.26	−.15	.33	**.90**

Note: ACQ = acquiescent voice; COMP = competitive goals; COOP = cooperative goals; DEF = defensive voice; IND = independent goals; OBSE = organizational-based self-esteem; PRO = prosocial voice.

3.3.3. Structural model

To test the hypothesized relationships between latent constructs, the employee level inner model was assessed. First, we assessed the significance of the proposed paths. According to Kock (2015), when testing relationships in PLS-PM, a one-tailed test is recommended if the coefficient is assumed to have a known or expected directionality (positive or negative). Based on our review of the literature, we relied on a one-tailed test to assess each of the relationships. Using bootstrapping with 5000 subsamples, the results show that except for one (i.e., COMP → OBSE), all six hypothesized paths in the employee level model had bootstrap critical ratios exceeding the absolute value of 1.645. Thus, the results provide support for all hypotheses, with the exception of Hypothesis 1b. Specifically, the results show that COOP (H1a: $\beta = .18$, $t = 3.71$, $p < .001$) and IND (H1c: $\beta = -.34$, $t = 3.87$, $p < .001$) significantly predict OBSE, which in turn, significantly explains PRO (H2a: $\beta = .33$, $t = 6.55$, $p < .001$), DEF (H2b: $\beta = -.27$, $t = 5.59$, $p < .001$), and ACQ (H2c: $\beta = -.37$, $t = 9.87$, $p < .001$). The path from COMP to OBSE is however only significant at $\alpha = .10$ (H1b: $\beta = -.13$, $t = 1.43$, $p < .10$). Table 4 presents the results.

Second, except for one (i.e., DEF = .069), the R^2 values for all endogenous variables are greater than the suggested level of .10 (Falk and Miller, 1992), providing evidence for predictive power of the model. To evaluate the f^2 effect size, we followed Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Table 4 also shows that all significant paths produced effect sizes that ranged from small to large. Third, we tested the predictive validity of the exogenous latent variables using the blindfolding procedure. The Q^2 values of the endogenous latent constructs were well above zero, ranging from .051 for DEF to .173 for OBSE, indicating predictive relevance. The results support the conceptual model. Fig. 2 provides a graphical depiction of the model results.

3.3.4. Aggregate Data for Restaurant Level Model

The next step involves the examination of the restaurant level model through aggregation of employee level data on PRO, DEF, and ACQ to form measurement at the unit level. Following LeBreton and Senter (2008) and Morrison et al. (2011), we conducted a series of tests before aggregating. An analysis of variance indicated significantly more variance across groups than within: PRO, $F(30, 187) = 2.09$, $p < .01$; DEF, $F(30, 187) = 1.66$, $p < .05$; and ACQ, $F(30, 187) = 1.81$, $p < .01$. The intra-class correlation values were .067 for PRO, .095 for DEF, and ACQ for .089, indicating small to medium effects (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton and Senter, 2008). As these results support the appropriation of treating PRO, DEF, and ACQ as unit level constructs, we averaged the employee

Table 4
Results of the Employee Level Inner Model Path Coefficients.

Hypothesis and Path	Path Coefficients	Standard Errors	Critical Ratios	p Values	f^2	90% Confidence Intervals
Direct effects						
COMP -> OBSE	−.13	.09	1.43	.076	.01	[−.276, .016]
COOP -> OBSE	.18	.05	3.71	.000	.04	[.100, .259]
IND -> OBSE	−.34	.09	3.87	.000	.06	[−.481, −.189]
OBSE -> ACQ	−.37	.04	9.87	.000	.16	[−.425, −.301]
OBSE -> DEF	−.27	.05	5.59	.000	.07	[−.335, −.182]
OBSE -> PRO	.33	.05	6.55	.000	.12	[.237, .402]
Indirect effects						
COMP -> OBSE -> ACQ	.05	.03	1.42	.078	NA	[−.006, .101]
COOP -> OBSE -> ACQ	−.07	.02	3.47	.000	NA	[−.098, −.037]
IND -> OBSE -> ACQ	.13	.04	3.33	.000	NA	[.066, .189]
COMP -> OBSE -> DEF	.03	.02	1.36	.086	NA	[−.004, .076]
COOP -> OBSE -> DEF	−.05	.01	3.19	.001	NA	[−.072, −.025]
IND -> OBSE -> DEF	.09	.03	2.96	.002	NA	[.044, .144]
COMP -> OBSE -> PRO	−.04	.03	1.39	.082	NA	[−.093, .006]
COOP -> OBSE -> PRO	.06	.02	3.07	.001	NA	[.030, .092]
IND -> OBSE -> PRO	−.11	.03	3.34	.000	NA	[−.169, −.061]

Note: ACQ = acquiescent voice; COMP = competitive goals; COOP = cooperative goals; DEF = defensive voice; IND = independent goals; OBSE = organizational-based self-esteem; PRO = prosocial voice.

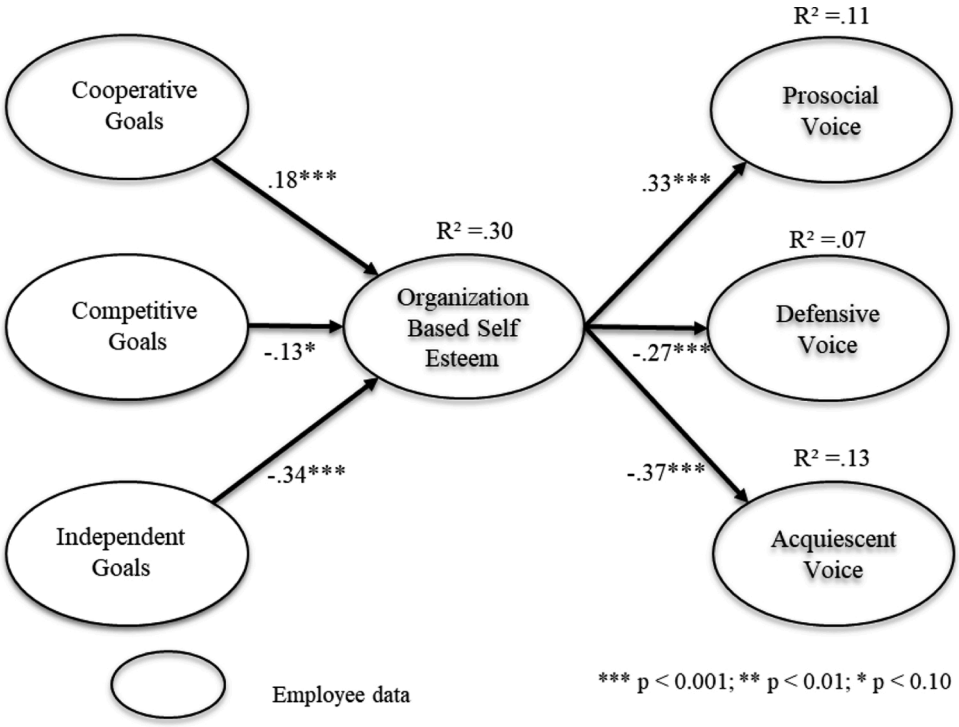

Fig. 2. Employee Level Results.

level score for each item within each group to create the aggregated unit level measure, which we used in all of our subsequent analyses. Units/restaurants with one observation at the employee level were removed from our data analysis, resulting in a total of 51 usable cases at the group level.

The aggregated constructs were subsequently used to predict unit level participative climate (example item - People in my department are encouraged to come up with innovative solutions to work-related problems) and marketing capabilities which were measured using aggregated data gathered from restaurant level managers. As the minimum sample size should be 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair et al., 2013), the sample size of 51 at the restaurant level was considered sufficient. Having checked the scale reliability through Cronbach's alpha and unidimensionality through factor analysis, a composite variable was created for customer linking (example item - Relative to our competitors we are good at understanding what customer needs and requirements are) and for market sensing (example item - Our organization is good at identifying and understanding market trends) respectively, to form the two indicators of marketing capabilities. Following the similar procedure and assessment criteria as the employee level model (Hair et al., 2013), the measurement model was evaluated. The results indicate that all factor loadings exceeded .70 (Hair et al., 2006). The bootstrap critical ratios of the indicators were also significant ($p <$ .001), and all AVEs were above .50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), supporting convergent validity.

Discriminant validity was also supported as no measurement items cross-loaded highly on another construct. Furthermore, the square root

of the AVE was higher than the inter-correlations between constructs. Finally, all factors achieved the ideal level of reliability (> .70) based on Cronbach's Alpha values (i.e., ACQ = .92, DEF = .90, PRO = .89, CLIM = 90, and MKTCAP = .91) and composite reliability estimates (i.e., ACQ = .95, DEF = .92, PRO = .95, CLIM = 93, and MKTCAP = .96) (Hair et al., 2006), and all indicator reliability well exceeded .50. The results show that the scales were valid and reliable.

3.3.5. Restaurant level structural model

The aggregate restaurant level inner model was subsequently tested. Based on the results generated using bootstrapping with 5000 subsamples, of the seven relationships tested, three were found to be statistically significant. Specifically, the results presented in Table 5 show that UPRO significantly predicts CLIM (H3b $\beta = .41$, $t = 3.14$, $p < .01$), while both UDEF (H5a: $\beta = .43$, $t = 1.86$, $p < .05$) and CLIM (H6: $\beta = .29$, $t = 1.74$, $p < .05$) contribute significantly to MKTCAP. The paths ACQ to CLIM (H5b: $\beta = -.35$, $t = 1.55$, $p < .10$) and UDEF to CLIM (H4b: $\beta = .32$, $t = 1.34$, $p < .10$) are significant at $\alpha = .10$. Fig. 3 presents the graphical depiction of the results.

The R^2 values for endogenous variables, CLIM and MKTCAP were .291 and .242, respectively. As they exceeded suggested minimum level of .10 (Falk and Miller, 1992), the model indicated appropriate predictive power. All exogenous latent constructs produced effect sizes ranging from small to medium. The predictive relevance Q^2 values ranged from .074 for MKTCAP and .143 for CLIM, again supporting model's predictive relevance. In sum, the results provide strong evidence for the proposed model.

4. Discussion

In 2010, the Marketing Science Institute (MSI) identified the development of marketing capabilities to be a priority. Specifically, they noted that "research is needed concerning effective ways to develop a customer-focused organization through the motivation, engagement, management, and appraisal of teams of employees working in collaborative environments." (Marketing Science Institute, 2010, p. 5). Despite evidence to suggest that such a skill set drives organizational performance, Delmulle et al. (2015) note that many are still unaware or unwilling to invest in these strategic assets [employees], in favor of investing in in more "tactical efforts given their propensity to deliver quick and visible results" (p. 1). In seeking to address the call of the MSI and the paucity of research as evidenced in the literature review, the results of this study illuminate how employees can be motivated to take on the role of part-time marketer, as manifest in employee voice, and in turn, how such actions can enhance the hospitality organization's marketing capabilities.

Specifically, the present study makes two primary contributions. First, in advancing employee voice as the mechanism that facilitates the FLE role as part-time marketers, we illuminated the importance of distinguishing the motives that drive such behavior. In an effort to enhance employee engagement in productive versus less productive voice behaviors we demonstrated that employee motives can be encouraged/discouraged through employee-organization goal alignment, supported by the theory of cooperation and competition. Second, by adopting multi-level modelling, we validated the conceptual link promoted in the service marketing and internal brand management literature with regard to individual level employee actions and the organization's unit level marketing capabilities.

Overall, the current research provides support for considering FLE as more than just the providers of service, demonstrating the connectivity between organizational-employee goal alignment, employee voice and organizational capability. Without alignment, or goal interdependence, it is suggested that employee behavior, in this case voice behavior, is not productive and is potentially destructive. The results highlight that when employee attitudes are organizationally aligned (i.e., cooperative goals), in contrast to perceiving they are at odds or irrelevant to the organization's intent (i.e., competitive or independent goals), they are able to build organizational self-efficacy (i.e., OBSE), which is necessary to overcome concerns of exhibiting risky voice behavior. Thus, prosocial voice prevails, while dissuading defensive and acquiescent voice.

Ultimately, organizational benefits of employee voice, an individual level phenomenon, is realized at the restaurant level through collective voice impacting the organization's marketing capabilities. In recognition that employee actions are influenced by both explicit and implicit organizational cues, the results of the restaurant level model reflect the importance of creating an organizational environment that is conducive to voicing behavior (i.e., participative climate). While at an individual level, employees may share the same goals as the organization, their actual behaviors may be modified as a result of how those behaviors are perceived by others. As voice behavior is inherently social, with the exhibition of such behaviors being enacted in the presence of others (Lee et al., 2014), it comes with considerable personal risk (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). Therefore, acknowledging that speaking up may impact personal relationships and inhibit proactive behaviors, Frazier (2013) advocates for the creation of a climate "where employees feel they are encouraged to speak up and make suggestions" (p. 205). The results show that a participative climate is an important antecedent for an organization realizing its marketing capability potential via an employee mechanism.

The results of this study highlight the need for strategic marketing practices to deliberately integrate employees into its planning. Such a proactive strategy is expected to bode well for enhancing the restaurant's competitive position (Alonso-Almeida et al., 2015). Without this information resource, market response may lag, which could be to the detriment of the restaurant's long-term sustainability. Furthermore, the paper highlights that not all voice is created equal and that goal alignment, therefore, is critical. Through a conscious effort to positively influence the motives that inform employee voice behavior, organizations

Table 5
Results of the Unit Level Inner Model Path Coefficients.

Hypothesis and Path	Path Coefficients	Standard Errors	Critical Ratios	p Values	f^2	90% Confidence Intervals
Direct effects						
ACQ -> MKTCAP	−.29	.251	1.23	.108	.07	[−.677, .138]
ACQ -> CLIM	−.35	.240	1.55	.060	.09	[−826., −.027]
DEF -> MKTCAP	.43	.238	1.86	.031	.12	[−.079, .737]
DEF -> CLIM	.32	.257	1.34	.090	.09	[−.031, .801]
CLIM -> MKTCAP	.29	.150	1.74	.041	.10	[−.024, .473]
PRO -> MKTCAP	−.15	.188	.83	.203	.05	[−.468, .147]
PRO -> CLIM	.41	.130	3.14	.001	.25	[.168, .595]
Indirect effects						
ACQ -> CLIM -> MKTCAP	−.10	.099	.99	.162	NA	[−.359, −.004]
DEF -> CLIM -> MKTCAP	.09	.102	.88	.189	NA	[−.007, .356]
PRO -> CLIM -> MKTCAP	.12	.081	1.32	.094	NA	[.002, .249]

Note: ACQ = acquiescent voice; DEF = defensive voice; PRO = prosocial voice; CLIM = participative climate; MKTCAP = marketing capabilities.

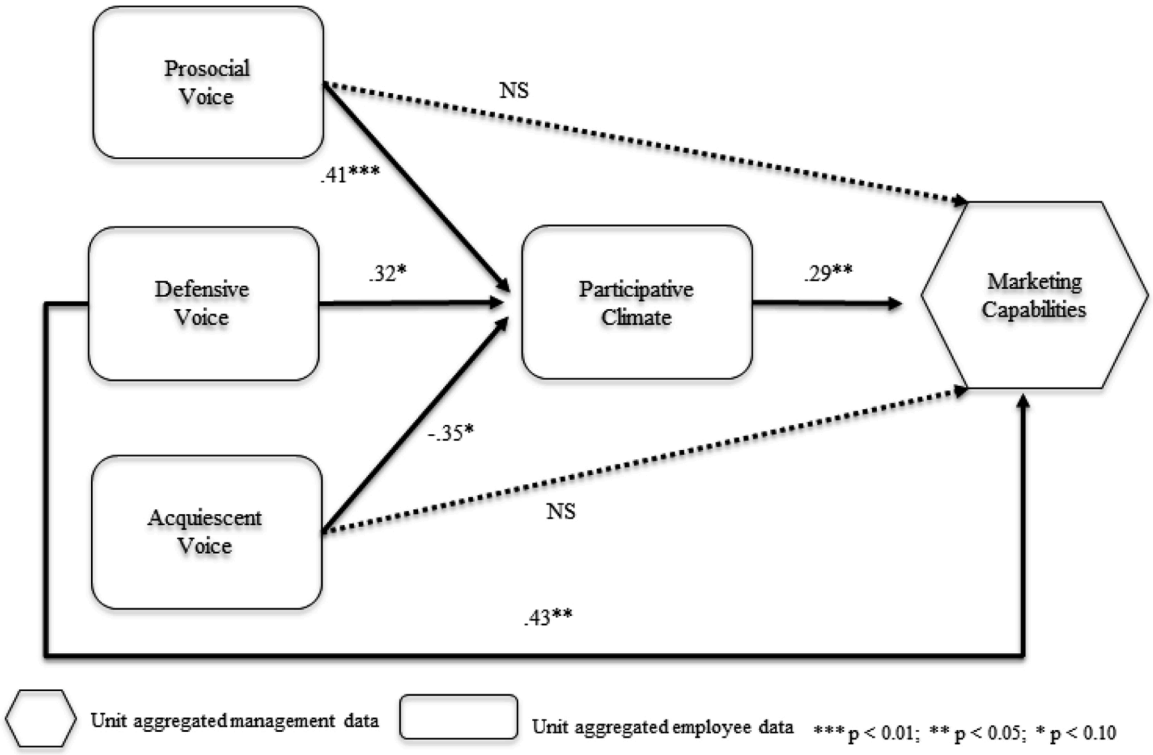

Fig. 3. Unit/Restaurant Level Results.

can be assured that such behavior will elicit insight that affords greater organizational decision making.

4.1. Theoretical implications

Karpen et al. (2012), in adopting a capabilities lens, suggest that as the strategic orientation of organizations shifts towards value co-creation, communication and valuable interaction experiences between firms, customers and other market actors, such as employees, become a priority (Karpen et al., 2012). Such a proposition necessitates a multi-disciplinary (i.e., strategy, marketing and management) approach which is rarely undertaken, yet this study affords. The theoretical basis (i.e., theory of cooperation and competition) to nurture employee voice, a construct that is examined in the HRM/OB literature, was drawn from the strategic management literature. Collectively, these literatures informed how we addressed a problem that is advanced in both the strategic management and marketing literatures, but traditionally only ever examined through constructs that reside within their respective domains. Further, the adoption of multilevel modeling empirically validated the connection between employee voice as a HRM/OB construct and marketing capabilities as a marketing construct. To the best of the authors' knowledge, despite this well conceptualized connection, this study represents the first attempt to empirically validate it. Additionally, the results enhanced our understanding of how to nurture an individual level attribute (i.e., employee voice) as well as appreciate its impact at the unit level, bridging the human capital research that straddles the HRM/OB and strategy literature, an initiative that is rarely undertaken. Having been informed through a strong interdisciplinary lens, the contributions of this study are not only illuminated, but reinforce the value of interdisciplinary research to enhance capabilities as promoted by Foley and Fahy (2009).

The adoption of an interdisciplinary approach also informed the examination of employee voice from a more nuanced, underexplored perspective. In a desire to enhance organizational marketing capabilities, it was important to acknowledge that employees who exhibit voice behavior are not always driven by a desire to benefit the organization. With the intent of this study being to understand how employee voice can be nurtured and subsequently influence organization marketing capabilities, employee motivation was key. In contrast to voice research that focuses on *the content* of voice behavior (e.g., "the voluntary expression of opposition to changing an organization's policies, procedures, programs, practices, etc., even when the proposed changes have merit or making changes necessary" (Maynes and Podsakoff, 2014, p. 93)), this research focused on employee *motives to voice* (e.g., "more or less passive versus proactive and the extent that the proactive behavior is self-protective or other oriented" (Van Dyne et al. (2003, p. 1363)). From this perspective the assumption is that all voice behavior is positive and for the organization's benefit, however the motives that underpin it are not.

On the surface, employee voice may be seen as being driven from a strong volitional desire to make a difference (i.e., prosocial), but in reality it may be driven from motives that are not organizationally aligned (i.e., self-protection/defensive or disengagement/acquiescent) (Van Dyne et al., 2003). Notwithstanding employee voice motives that are informed from defensive or disengaged perspectives reflect a poor work environment, they also limit the organization's ability to harness important market intelligence that resides within employees. Furthermore, prevention of organizational damage as a result of these misguided voice behaviors relies on the exhibition of a significant preponderance of authentic prosocial voice behaviors by others, because defensive and acquiescent voice are, essentially, just a reflection of what others are saying.

When establishing implications from this study, it is important to acknowledge that many of the discussions surrounding voice in the literature have conceptual problems that contribute to confusion as to what the phenomenon encompasses (Maynes and Podsakoff, 2014). For example, while much discussion around Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) defensive voice creates a cloud of negative perceptions such that defensive voice is suggested to be reflected in complaining, criticizing and blaming others, the original and intentional conceptualization was simply to depict employee voice behavior that was motivated by self-protection. As such, Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) voice behavior, as

reflected in this study, is not necessarily negative but rather directed toward more of a group think mentality so as to not 'rock the boat' or to protect oneself from a perceived threat. The implications of such is that from an outcome perspective, defensive voice behavior may appear the same as prosocial voice behavior albeit driven by different motives. As such, while not expected, the results of this study infer that defensive voice can have a positive impact on marketing capabilities. This, however, is different to those that voice in an acquiescent manner. Such voicers do not care and are passive in their approach, so the results reflect that their behavior, while negatively correlated as expected, with participative climate and marketing capabilities, ultimately have no significant impact. Also as expected, albeit it with contrasted results, prosocial voice is shown to impact marketing capabilities, but indirectly through its strong impact on the creation of a participative climate.

Lastly, in adopting the theory of cooperation and competition, this study contributes to the limited body of literature that applies this theory in an organizational context. Despite its utility with regard to providing insight as it relates to constructive and destructive conflict processes, Garcia et al. (2016) note that the theory has had limited application in an organizational context. Like the few authors that have applied the theory to organizations prior to this study (e.g., Tjosvold et al., 2004; Wong et al., 2005), our application and subsequent results, demonstrate not only its relevance, but insightfulness with respect to one aspect of how organizations can operate effectively. We further extend this limited body of knowledge, and subsequently the theory, by establishing the psychological mechanism that explains how cooperative, versus competitive goals, influence outcomes. Previous organizational research that adopted this theoretical lens examined relationship/interaction oriented outcomes of goal alignment (e.g., opportunism – Wong et al. (2005); constructive controversy – Alper et al. (1998); open minded discussion – Tjosvold et al. (2019)). While informative, an explicit explanation as to why employees respond in that manner was not provided. By empirically validating the impact that employee – organization goal alignment has on an employee's OBSE, the results of this study empirically validate an internally oriented psychological mechanism that underscores the premise of the theory as applied in an organizational context. That is, OBSE explains how goal interdependence affects employee actions, a phenomena not previously considered.

4.2. Practical implications

Overall, the practical implications that can be derived from this study center on the value of seeing FLE as more than just providers of service. Such a notion may seem overly simplistic, but as Baum (2019, p. 8) notes "the fairly authoritarian and top-down management culture which characterizes many traditional service organizations….in order to achieve conformity to a rigid employer-benefitting model of work in sectors such as hospitality" may be at odds with such a proposition. One only has to look at the way multi-site hospitality brands obsess over compliance with brand standards to ensure a consistent guest experience to wonder whether employee contributions of market intelligence are acted upon, if not at least welcomed. Herein lies where the practical significance of this study may be more nuanced in its implications. In larger corporate hospitality enterprises, there may not be as greater need for FLE to be more than providers of excellent branded service experiences, because the organization's marketing resources, particularly as it relates to market research and the gathering of market intelligence, may be extremely robust. This is contrasted, however, with smaller hospitality operations that have limited marketing resources. In this situation, FLE as generators and disseminators of market intelligence, may in fact be a necessity for the smaller operation to remain viable.

To that end, the results strongly reinforce for those hospitality organizations that don't have a formal marketing intelligence arsenal, the importance of aligning employee goals with the organization's intent to build OBSE. This provides the necessary confidence that enhances prosocial voice while minimizing defensive and acquiescent voice. Such a finding is extremely important considering that employee motives are often hidden but lead to both positive and negative consequences. Hospitality organizations are strongly encouraged to develop both formal and informal mechanisms that enable organizational and employee relevant information to be shared on a regular basis. In larger organizations, practices such as internal newsletters, formal or informal training programs, town hall meetings or daily shift briefings, facilitate knowledge sharing that aligns employees with the organization and motivates them to exhibit extra role behavior for the benefit of the organization (Xiong and King, 2018). In smaller hospitality operations, it may be a conscious effort to have regular shift briefings or one-on-one conversations between managers/supervisors and FLE that derives the same outcomes. Furthermore, hiring people that fit with the culture or values of the organization is another viable strategy to ensure prosocial voice, given that perceived organizational fit has been shown to have a positive impact on organizationally directed employee outcomes (Astakhova, 2016).

A more micro level implication of this study that can be applied to both large and small hospitality operations, concerns the role of the supervisor. In validating the importance of goal alignment at the individual level, and a collaborative work environment at the unit level, influencing the organization's marketing capabilities, the study's results suggest that the hospitality organization can only truly benefit from such positive motives if they provide an environment that supports employee input. It is essential that the organization signals to employees, both implicitly and explicitly, that the sharing of knowledge is dyadic (King and Lee, 2016). All organizational mechanisms that are designed to share information with employees should also include back channels that allow employee input. Furthermore, the work environment must openly encourage and act on this input if it is to be sustained in a productive manner. Too often, organizations seek employee input but fail to do anything with it, or have cultural norms that discourage employee efforts. Such practices, intended or not, have the potential to create a cynical workforce that overtime becomes disengaged.

Supervisors, given their role as gatekeepers between organizational intent and employee experience, are uniquely positioned to enact practices that can manifest in positive or negative response from employees (Kwon et al., 2016). As supervisors have been associated with resisting employee input for reasons such as job security concerns or increased work load (Tesluk et al., 1999), it is imperative that senior management champion the importance of FLE voice. In addition to sending signals to supervisors as to what is important and valued, senior management should actively seek to understand and address supervisors concerns for facilitating such practices. Providing resources to help supervisors in collecting employee insights (e.g., survey, focus group training) as well as rewarding and recognizing supervisor efforts (e.g., shift briefings, employee one on one chats, openly encouraging dialogue) that actively develop employee voice, is an important requirement to realizing employee voice benefits.

A more complex implication for supervisors as a result of this study, is the potential for ambiguity and misdirected interpretation of employee voice behavior that is informed from different motivations. Is the employee voice truly being driven by a desire to help the organization (i.e., prosocial voice) thereby warranting investment/reward, or is it merely to deflect attention or simply a sign of apathy (i.e., defensive or acquiescent voice). In their conceptualization, Van Dyne et al. (2003) advanced the potential for misattributions of employee motives leading to unpredictable feedback, poor quality relationships and low trust. For example, a supervisor may interpret an employee's prosocial voice behavior as being defensive, particularly if sharing negative information. The supervisor may attribute this to an attempt to hide something from them resulting in negative consequences and feedback that is at odds with the employee's intent. The long term effect may be the reshaping of the employee's motives to be in line with the supervisors' expectations (i.e. defensive voice).

In a fast paced operational environment where the supervisor to employee ratio is high, it becomes a challenge for supervisors to have the time or personal insight with respect to each employee and their motives to ensure that they are not questioning the authenticity of the employee's voicing behavior. Notwithstanding, efforts to enhance supervisor emotional intelligence may be a necessary precursor to realizing the benefits promoted from this study, as such a competency informs leadership effectiveness as perceived by the supervisor's employees (Kerr et al., 2006). Specifically, employees view "supervisors who are adept at perceiving emotions as more effective in their supervisory role" (p. 273). Initiatives such as workplace training, effective supervisor mentoring and regular evaluation of supervisor development of emotional intelligence is, therefore, encouraged.

5. Limitations and future research

Notwithstanding the significant theoretical and practical implications that can be derived from this study, there are several limitations that provide opportunities for future research. First, the data was collected from chain affiliated quick service restaurants. As a result of this profile, it is unclear whether the results would hold in similar size operations that are independently run or franchised or in larger, multinational operations, where there is an imbalance of resource allocation compared to the sample study here. In addition, the type of service (e.g., quick service, casual dining, fine dining) may increase or decrease reliance on employee involvement. As such, the results can only be generalized to hospitality operations with a similar profile. Future research is encouraged to examine the moderating effect of operation size, access to marketing resources, as well as service type, to extend the generalizability of the results. Furthermore, the sample was drawn from a U.S. population, therefore the findings may not be generalizable to employees in different cultures. While it has been suggested that high power distance cultures do not value employee participation in decision making, a participative climate, as advanced in this study, has been shown to attenuate such a cultural context (Kwon et al., 2016). Therefore, future research should consider whether this holistic model has the ability to transcend such contextual barriers for the ultimate benefit of employee performance. As this study involved employees evaluation of the organization, social desirability may have affected the research findings despite anonymous participation being guaranteed. Future research could consider controlling for social desirability by explicitly including such a measure in the survey instrument. Lastly, with the market continuing to evolve, new capabilities beyond market sensing and customer linking, may emerge as being critical for organizations to realize a competitive advantage, and thus warrant examination. For example, Day's (2011) more recent marketing capabilities work advocates that in addition to the dynamic capabilities of market sensing and customer linking, marketing capabilities may need to expand to reflect adaptive practices that anticipate market shifts through experimental learning.

6. Conclusion

Through multi-level data, this study has demonstrated the influential role that hospitality employees can have on a restaurant's marketing capabilities. With a rapidly changing consumer market coupled with budget and time constraints making market research often unattainable for many hospitality organizations, the study provides a road map for managers to leverage employee contributions to aid in the enhancement of their marketing capabilities. Too often marketing literature, and in practice, fail to consider the dual perspective (i.e., internal and external) it must adopt for service organization success. Through a sample drawn from 75 chain restaurant locations, the results reveal that employee – organization goal alignment is rewarded with greater employee OBSE which is necessary to exhibit risky voice behavior that helps advance the organization. At the restaurant level such behavior was shown to have a positive impact on the organization's marketing capabilities through the support of a positive and participatory organizational climate.

References

Ali, S., Peters, L.D., Khan, I.U., Ali, W., Saif, N., 2019. Organizational learning and hotel performance: the role of capabilities' hierarchy. Int. J. Hosp. Manage. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.102349.

Alonso-Almeida, M.D.M., Bremser, K., Llach, J., 2015. Proactive and reactive strategies deployed by restaurants in times of crisis: effects on capabilities, organization and competitive advantage. Int. J. Contemp. Hosp. Manage. 27 (7), 1641–1661.

Alper, S., Tjosvold, D., Law, K.S., 1998. Interdependence and controversy in group decision making: antecedents to effective self-managing teams. Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Process. 74 (1), 33–52.

Ambrosini, V., Bowman, C., 2009. What are dynamic capabilities and are they a useful construct in strategic management? Int. J. Manage. Rev. 11 (1), 29–49.

Arnett, D.B., Laverie, D.A., Meiers, A., 2003. Developing parsimonious retailer equity indexes using partial least squares analysis: a method and applications. J. Retail. 79 (3), 161–170.

Astakhova, M.N., 2016. Explaining the effects of perceived person-supervisor fit and person-organization fit on organizational commitment in the US and Japan. J. Bus. Res. 69 (2), 956–963.

Bao, G., Xu, B., Zhang, Z., 2016. Employees' trust and their knowledge sharing and integration: the mediating roles of organizational identification and organization-based self-esteem. Knowl. Manage. Res. Pract. 14 (3), 362–375.

Baum, T., 2019. A changing world of work. What can we learn from the service sector about employing Millennials (and Gen Z)? Organ. Dyn. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2019.04.001.

Bharadwaj, N., Dong, Y., 2014. Toward further understanding the market-sensing capability–value creation relationship. J. Product Innovation Manage. 31 (4), 799–813.

Bharadwaj, N., Nevin, J.R., Wallman, J.P., 2012. Explicating hearing the voice of the customer as a manifestation of customer focus and assessing its consequences. J. Product Innovation Manage. 29 (6), 1012–1030.

Bliese, P.D., 2000. Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: implications for data aggregation and analysis. In: Klein, K.J., Kozlowski, S.W.J. (Eds.), Multilevel Theory, Research, and Methods in Organizations: Foundations, Extensions, and New Directions. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA, US, pp. 349–381.

Burmann, C., Zeplin, S., 2005. Building brand commitment: a behavioural approach to internal brand management. J. Brand Manage. 12 (4), 279–300.

Chin, W.W., 1998. The partial least squares approach to structural equation modelling. In: Marcoulides, G.A. (Ed.), Modern Methods for Business Research. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 295–336.

Cohen, J., 1988. Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences, 2 ed. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Hillsdale, NJ.

Day, G.S., 1994. The capabilities of market-driven organizations. J. Marketing 37–52.

Day, G.S., 2011. Closing the marketing capabilities gap. J. Marketing 75 (4), 183–195.

Delmulle, B., Grehan, B., Sagar, V., 2015. March), Building marketing and sales capabilities to beat the market. McKinsey Q. Retrieved from http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/marketing_sales/building_marketing_and_sales_capabilities_to_beat_the_market.

Deutsch, M., 1949. A theory of cooperation and competition. Hum. Relations 2 (3), 129–151.

Deutsch, M., 2011. A theory of cooperation–competition and beyond. In: Van Lange, P.A. M., Kruglanski, A.W., Higgins, E.T. (Eds.), Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology: Volume Two. SAGE Publications Ltd., Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 275–294.

Dormann, C., Zapf, D., 2004. Customer-related social stressors and burnout. J. Occup. Health Psychol. 9 (1), 61.

Falk, R.F., Miller, N.B., 1992. A Primer for Soft Modeling. University of Akron Press, Akron, Ohio.

Fang, S., Chang, E., Ou, C., Chou, C., 2014. Internal market orientation, market capabilities and learning orientation. Eur. J. Mark. 48 (1/2), 170–192.

Ferris, D.L., Brown, D.J., Heller, D., 2009. Organizational supports and organizational deviance: the mediating role of organization-based self-esteem. Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Processes 108 (2), 279–286.

Foley, A., Fahy, J., 2009. Seeing market orientation through a capabilities lens. Eur. J. Mark. 43 (1/2), 13–20.

Fornell, C., Larcker, D.F., 1981. Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. J. Mark. Res. 18 (1), 39–50.

Frazier, M.L., 2013. Voice climate in organizations: creating a context for speaking up at work. In: Burke, R.J., Cooper, C.L. (Eds.), Voice and Whistleblowing in Organizations: Overcoming Fear, Fostering Courage and Unleashing Candour. Edward Elgar Publishing, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 205–223.

Frazier, M.L., Bowler, W.M., 2015. Voice climate, supervisor undermining, and work outcomes: a group-level examination. J. Manage. 41 (3), 841–863.

Garcia, A., Pender, E., Elgoibar, P., 2016. The State of art: trust and conflict management in organizational industrial relations. Building Trust and Constructive Conflict Management in Organizations. Springer, Switzerland, pp. 29–52.

George, W.R., 1990. Internal marketing and organizational behavior: a partnership in developing customer-conscious employees at every level. J. Bus. Res. 20 (1), 63–70.

Gorden, W.I., 1988. Range of employee voice. Employee Responsibilities Rights J. 1 (4), 283–299.

Grönroos, C., 1993. An applied service marketing theory. Eur. J. Mark. 16 (7), 30–41.

Grönroos, C., 2006. Adopting a service logic for marketing. Mark. Theory 6 (3), 317–333.

Grönroos, C., 2017. Relationship marketing readiness: theoretical background and measurement directions. J. Serv. Mark. 31 (3), 218–225.
Gummesson, E., 1991. Marketing-orientation revisited: the crucial role of the part-time marketer. Eur. J. Mark. 25 (2), 60–75.
Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., 2006. Multivariate Data Analysis, 6 ed. Pearson Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
Hair, J.F., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle, C., Sarstedt, M., 2013. A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (pls-sem). Sage Publications, Incorporated, Thousand Oaks, CA.
Hansen, M.T., Mors, M.L., Løvås, B., 2005. Knowledge sharing in organizations: multiple networks, multiple phases. Acad. Manage. J. 48 (5), 776–793.
Hooley, G.J., Greenley, G.E., Cadogan, J.W., Fahy, J., 2005. The performance impact of marketing resources. J. Bus. Res. 58 (1), 18–27.
Huang, X., Vliert, E.V.D., Vegt, G.V.D., 2005. Breaking the silence culture: stimulation of participation and employee opinion withholding cross-nationally. Manage. Organ. Rev. 1 (3), 459–482.
Huber, G.P., 1991. Organizational learning: the contributing processes and the literatures. Organ. Sci. 2 (1), 88–115.
Ind, N., 2001. Living the Brand: How to Transform Every Member of Your Organization Into a Brand Champion. Kogan Page Publishers, London, UK.
Karlsson, J., Skålén, P., 2015. Exploring front-line employee contributions to service innovation. Eur. J. Mark. 49 (9/10), 1346–1365.
Karpen, I.O., Bove, L.L., Lukas, B.A., 2012. Linking service-dominant logic and strategic business practice: a conceptual model of a service-dominant orientation. J. Serv. Res. 15 (1), 21–38.
Kerr, R., Garvin, J., Heaton, N., Boyle, E., 2006. Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 27 (4), 265–279.
King, C., Grace, D., 2010. Building and measuring employee-based brand equity. Eur. J. Mark. 44 (7/8), 938–971.
King, C., Lee, H., 2016. Enhancing internal communication to build social capital amongst hospitality employees – the role of social media. Int. J. Contemp. Hospitality Manage. 28 (12), 2675–2695.
Kock, N., 2015. One-tailed or two-tailed p values in pls-sem? Int. J. e-Collab. (IJeC) 11 (2), 1–7.
Kohli, A.K., Jaworski, B.J., 1990. Market orientation: the construct, research propositions, and managerial implications. J. Mark. 54 (2), 1–18.
Korman, A.K., 1970. Toward an hypothesis of work behavior. J. Appl. Psychol. 54 (1p1), 31.
Kwon, B., Farndale, E., Park, J.G., 2016. Employee voice and work engagement: macro, meso, and micro-level drivers of convergence? Hum. Resource Manage. Rev. 26 (4), 327–337.
Lages, C.R., Piercy, N.F., 2012. Key drivers of frontline employee generation of ideas for customer service improvement. J. Serv. Res. 15 (2), 215–230.
Lau, D.C., Lam, L.W., Wen, S.S., 2014. Examining the effects of feeling trusted by supervisors in the workplace: a self-evaluative perspective. J. Organ. Behav. 35 (1), 112–127.
LeBreton, J.M., Senter, J.L., 2008. Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and interrater agreement. Organ. Res. Methods 11 (4), 815–852.
Lee, G.L., Diefendorff, J.M., Kim, T.Y., Bian, L., 2014. Personality and participative climate: antecedents of distinct voice behaviors. Hum. Perform. 27 (1), 25–43.
Liang, S.G., 2017. Linking leader authentic personality to employee voice behaviour: a multilevel mediation model of authentic leadership development. Eur. J. Work Organ. Psychol. 26 (3), 434–443.
Liao, H., Toya, K., Lepak, D.P., Hong, Y., 2009. Do they see eye to eye? Management and employee perspectives of high-performance work systems and influence processes on service quality. J. Appl. Psychol. 94 (2), 371–391.
Lichtenstein, D.R., Netemeyer, R.G., Maxham III, J.G., 2010. The relationships among manager-, employee-, and customer-company identification: implications for retail store financial performance. J. Retailing 86 (1), 85–93.
Lin, M., Wu, X., Ling, Q., 2017. Assessing the effectiveness of empowerment on service quality: a multi-level study of Chinese tourism firms. Tourism Manage. 61, 411–425.
Lin, N., Jang, J., Roberts, K.R., 2018a. Are employees with higher organization-based self-esteem less likely to quit? A moderated mediation model. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. 73, 116–124.
Lin, X.S., Chen, Z.X., Ashford, S.J., Lee, C., Qian, J., 2018b. A self-consistency motivation analysis of employee reactions to job insecurity: the roles of organization-based self-esteem and proactive personality. J. Bus. Res. 92, 168–178.
Lindblom, A., Olkkonen, R., Kajalo, S., Mitronen, L., 2008. Market-sensing capability and business performance of retail entrepreneurs. Contemp. Manage. Res. 4 (3), 219–236.
Lu, A.C.C., Lu, L., 2019. Drivers of hotel employee's voice behavior: a moderated mediation model. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.102340.
Lusch, R.F., Vargo, S.L., O'Brien, M., 2007. Competing through service: insights from service-dominant logic. J. Retailing 83 (1), 5–18.
Marketing Science Institute, 2010. Research Priorities. Marketing Science Institute, Boston, MA.
Marketing Science Institute, 2018. 2018-2020 Research Priorities. Marketing Science Institute, Boston, MA.
Martelo Landroguez, S., Barroso Castro, C., Cepeda-Carrión, G., 2011. Creating dynamic capabilities to increase customer value. Manage. Decis. 49 (7), 1141–1159.
Maynes, T.D., Podsakoff, P.M., 2014. Speaking more broadly: an examination of the nature, antecedents, and consequences of an expanded set of employee voice behaviors. J. Appl. Psychol. 99 (1), 87.
Menguc, B., Auh, S., Uslu, A., 2013. Customer knowledge creation capability and performance in sales teams. J. Acad. Mark. Sci 41 (1), 19–39.
Morgan, N.A., Vorhies, D.W., Mason, C.H., 2009. Market orientation, marketing capabilities, and firm performance. Strategic Manage. J. 30 (8), 909–920.
Morrison, E.W., 2014. Employee voice and silence. Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav. 1 (1), 173–197.
Morrison, E.W., Milliken, F.J., 2000. Organizational silence: a barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. Acad. Manage. Rev. 25 (4), 706–725.
Morrison, E.W., Wheeler-Smith, S.L., Kamdar, D., 2011. Speaking up in groups: a cross-level study of group voice climate and voice. J. Appl. Psychol. 96 (1), 183.
Naus, F., van Iterson, A., Roe, R.A., 2007. Value incongruence, job autonomy, and organization-based self-esteem: a self-based perspective on organizational cynicism. Eur. J. Work Organ. Psychol. 16 (2), 195–219.
Nieves, J., Diaz-Meneses, G., 2016. Antecedents and outcomes of marketing innovation: an empirical analysis in the hotel industry. Int. J. Contemp. Hospitality Manage. 28 (8), 1554–1576.
Organ, D.W., 1988. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: the Good Soldier Syndrome. Lexington Books, Lexington, MA.
Orr, L.M., Bush, V.D., Vorhies, D.W., 2011. Leveraging firm-level marketing capabilities with marketing employee development. J. Bus. Res. 64 (10), 1074–1081.
Park, J., Kim, H.J., 2020. Customer mistreatment and service performance: a self-consistency perspective. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. 86, 1–7.
Park, J.H., Tran, T.B.H., 2018. Internal marketing, employee customer-oriented behaviors, and customer behavioral responses. Psychol. Mark. 35 (6), 412–426.
Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., 2004. Self-esteem within the work and organizational context: a review of the organization-based self-esteem literature. J. Manage. 30 (5), 591–622.
Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., Cummings, L.L., Dunham, R.B., 1989. Organization-based self-esteem: construct definition, measurement, and validation. Acad. Manage. J. 32 (3), 622–648.
Ployhart, R.E., Moliterno, T.P., 2011. Emergence of the human capital resource: a multilevel model. Acad. Manage. Rev. 36 (1), 127–150.
Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J.-Y., Podsakoff, N.P., 2003. Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. J. Appl. Psychol. 88 (5), 879–903.
Rafiq, M., Ahmed, P.K., 2000. Advances in the internal marketing concept: definition, synthesis and extension. J. Serv. Mark. 14 (6), 449–462.
Rapp, A., Trainor, K.J., Agnihotri, R., 2010. Performance implications of customer-linking capabilities: examining the complementary role of customer orientation and CRM technology. J. Bus. Res. 63 (11), 1229–1236.
Raub, S., Robert, C., 2013. Empowerment, organizational commitment, and voice behavior in the hospitality industry evidence from a multinational sample. Cornell Hospitality Q. 54 (2), 136–148.
Riordan, C.M., Weatherly, E.W., Vandenberg, R.J., Self, R.M., 2001. The effects of pre-entry experiences and socialization tactics on newcomer attitudes and turnover. J. Managerial Issues 159–176.
Sirianni, N.J., Bitner, M.J., Brown, S.W., Mandel, N., 2013. Branded service encounters: strategically aligning employee behavior with the brand positioning. J. Mark. 77 (6), 108–123.
Srivastava, R.K., Fahey, L., Christensen, H.K., 2001. The resource-based view and marketing: the role of market-based assets in gaining competitive advantage. J. Manage. 27 (6), 777–802.
Tang, T.W., 2014. Becoming an ambidextrous hotel: the role of customer orientation. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. 39, 1–10.
Tesluk, P.E., Vance, R.J., Mathieu, J.E., 1999. Examining employee involvement in the context of participative work environments. Group Organ. Manage. 24 (3), 271–299.
Tjosvold, D., 1984. Cooperation theory and organizations. Hum. Relations 37 (9), 743–767.
Tjosvold, D., Tang, M.M., West, M., 2004. Reflexivity for team innovation in China: the contribution of goal interdependence. Group Organ. Manage. 29 (5), 540–559.
Tjosvold, D., Zhang, X., Li, W., Chen, Y., Zhang, H., 2019. Open-minded discussion: a meta-analytic evaluation of cooperation and competition theory. In: Academy of Management Proceedings, vol. 2019. Academy of Management, Briarcliff Manor, NY. No. 1, July, p. 16186.
Tracey, J.B., Tews, M.J., 2004. An empirical investigation of the relationships among climate, capabilities, and unit performance. J. Hospitality Tourism Res. 28 (3), 298–312.
Van de Berg, W.E., Verbeke, W., Bagozzi, R.P., Worm, L., Jong, A.A., Nijssen, E., 2014. Salespersons as internal knowledge brokers and new products selling: discovering the link to genetic makeup. J. Product Innov. Manage. 31 (4), 695–709.
Van der Heijden, G.A., Schepers, J.J., Nijssen, E.J., Ordanini, A., 2013. Don't just fix it, make it better! Using frontline service employees to improve recovery performance. J. Acad. Mark. Sci. 41 (5), 515–530.
Van Dyne, L., Graham, J.W., Dienesch, R.M., 1994. Organizational citizenship behavior: construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. Acad. Manage. J. 37 (4), 765–802.
Van Dyne, L.V., Ang, S., Botero, I.C., 2003. Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. J. Manage. Stud. 40 (6), 1359–1392.
Vargo, S.L., Lusch, R.F., 2004. Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. J. Market. 68 (1), 1–17.
Walumbwa, F.O., Morrison, E.W., Christensen, A.L., 2012. Ethical leadership and group in-role performance: the mediating roles of group conscientiousness and group voice. Leadersh. Q. 23 (5), 953–964.
Wang, M.L., 2015. Learning climate and customer-oriented behaviors: the mediation of customer knowledge. J. Managerial Psychol. 30 (8), 955–969.
Wang, C.H., Chen, K.Y., Chen, S.C., 2012. Total quality management, market orientation and hotel performance: the moderating effects of external environmental factors. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. 31 (1), 119–129.

Weiss, M., Morrison, E.W., 2019. Speaking up and moving up: how voice can enhance employees' social status. J. Organ. Behav. 40, 5–19.
Woisetschläger, D.M., Hanning, D., Backhaus, C., 2016. Why frontline employees engage as idea collectors: an assessment of underlying motives and critical success factors. Ind. Mark. Manage. 52, 109–116.
Wong, A., Tjosvold, D., Yu, Z.Y., 2005. Organizational partnerships in China: self-interest, goal interdependence, and opportunism. J. Appl. Psychol. 90 (4), 782.
Xiong, L., King, C., 2018. Too much of a good thing? Examining how proactive personality affects employee brand performance under formal and informal organizational support. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. 68, 12–22.
Xiong, L., So, K.K.F., Wu, L., King, C., 2019. Speaking up because it's my brand: examining employee brand psychological ownership and voice behavior in hospitality organizations. Int. J. Hospitality Manage. 83, 274–282.