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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Work-to-Family Enrichment and Voice Behavior in China: The Role of Modernity

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Abstract There is a lack of knowledge in the literature regarding the effects of the work–family interface on employees' behaviors while taking into consideration of cultural values in developing countries. This study investigates the impact of work-to-family enrichment on employees' voice behavior by focusing on the moderating role of modernity in a Chinese setting. Results from a survey of 230 Chinese married managers indicate that work-to-family enrichment positively influences voice behavior. In addition, the enrichment-voice relationship is weaker when modernity is high rather than low. The findings are discussed in terms of their theoretical and practical implications for human resource management.

Keywords voice behavior, work-to-family enrichment, China, modernity

1 Introduction

The past decade has witnessed an increasing amount of research interest in

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work-to-family enrichment (WFE), which is defined as the extent to which experience in the work role improves the quality of life in the family role (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). There is an understanding that WFE positively affects employees' job attitude (i.e., turnover intentions and affective organizational commitment) and well-being (i.e., job, family, and life satisfaction as well as physical and mental health) (McNall, Nicklin and Masuda, 2010). Although researchers argue that work experience often enriches family domains (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) and the impact of WFE on work outcomes has captured much attention among employees and human resource management in both developed and developing countries (Karatepe and Kilic, 2009), we know little about the effects of WFE on employees' voice behavior, which is a citizenship behavior that focuses on the expression and communication of constructive challenges aimed at improving the situation (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Indeed, organizations need to be conscious of the influence of employee voice behavior as it is a reliable way of ensuring continuous improvement and competitive advantage (Botero and Van Dyne, 2009). Voice is particularly important in the Chinese context, where employees have relatively high levels of power distance orientation (Hofstede, 1980), which discourages speaking up in regard to work issues (Botero and Van Dyne, 2009). Recent research indicates that perceived transformational leadership leads to changed voice behavior in China (Liu, Zhu and Yang, 2010). Somewhat surprising is the lack of research regarding the effects of the work–family interface on voice behavior in Chinese organizations, although the work–family interface in the Chinese setting has long attracted significant attention among scholars because of China's unique family patterns (Yang, Chen, Choi and Zou, 2000). To address this research gap, the first goal of this study is to examine the impact of WFE on employees' voice behavior in China.

Another research gap is the lack of consideration of cultural values that contribute to the process of transformation in the Chinese context in WFE research. It is our assumption that cultural factors may cause WFE to be less or more important to employees, thereby having moderating effects on the relationship between WFE and voice behavior. A recent conceptual paper that reviewed the existing literature of the work–family interface found that cultural influences have not been acknowledged (Powell, Francesco and Ling, 2009). Although non-U.S. samples have been used in some research, cultural influences have not been examined in WFE studies. For instance, Kwan, Mao and Zhang (2010) used Chinese samples to investigate the antecedents of WFE. However, their study did not incorporate a scale related to cultural influences despite the fact that the authors acknowledged the importance of cultural issues.

In the current study, we examine whether modernity—an individual-level variable—moderates the relationship between WFE and voice behavior.

Modernity delineates a society where the values of egalitarianism, open-mindedness, social isolation, sexual equality, and self-reliance are widely held (Yang, Yu and Yeh, 1989). Modernity is of great importance in cultural values because it reflects changing individual and family values among people (Inkeles, 1983). In the Chinese situation, it is accepted that over the past three decades, economic reforms have led to the transformation of China from a centrally planned economy to a market-driven one while education transformation has resulted in the increasing acceptance of modern values from the West (Fu, Tsui, Liu and Li, 2010). Therefore, modernity in China reflects the substantial changes that are occurring in Chinese personal values—perceptions of the role of the family in life and the social exchange process among Chinese people—as consequences of dramatic changes in social structures in Chinese modernizations. Hence, China offers an ideal setting in which researchers can explore how modernity influences the relationship between WFE and voice behavior.

In sum, this paper intends to make three contributions. First, we extend both the work–family interface and employee behavior literature to connect WFE and voice behavior in a cultural setting. Second, we consider the moderating effects of modernity on the WFE–voice relationship by building linkages among work–family issues, work behaviors, and cultural values. Finally, we examine these hypothesized relationships among employees in China, thereby making a further contribution to the work–family interface literature, in which the Western samples predominate (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood and Lambert, 2007). We argue that an understanding of work–family mechanisms through which employees reciprocate voice behavior to the organization across cultures may offer beneficial implications for multinational firms seeking to propel voice levels of their culturally diverse employees. Before presenting specific hypotheses, we will firstly discuss Chinese family characteristics as well as the expansion theory and social exchange theory, each of which provides theoretical foundations for the hypotheses.

2 Chinese Family Characteristics

Unlike the notion of family in the United States (Rothausen, 1999), the common understanding of family in China is an extended family that includes grandparents, unmarried brothers and sisters, and uncles and aunts with nephews and nieces (Tsui, 1989). Given the constant scarcity of resources throughout China's history, such a concept of an extended family encourages the family to protect personal resources and fulfill members' various needs (Fukuyama, 1995). Therefore, Chinese people hold the belief that individuals should not seek to promote personal interests at the family's expense (Shenkar and Ronen, 1987). Today, this familial belief has enabled Chinese firms to achieve business success

through strong family ties and complex networks of ownership (Ren, Au and Birtch, 2009).

Chinese people also experience different patterns of the work–family interface. Although Chinese are family-oriented, scholars have found that managers in the mainland of China, Hong Kong, Taiwan of China, and Singapore consistently assign low importance to personal and family time (Shenkar and Ronen, 1987). These surprising findings are attributable to the fact that the Chinese tradition regards work as more important than leisure. Work is perceived as a contributor—not a competitor—to family benefit (Shenkar and Ronen, 1987). Research suggests that working beyond official hours or on weekends is a sacrifice that individuals make for the welfare of the Chinese family in the long term rather than a selfish pursuit of one's own success in the short term (Redding, 1990). Based on these family characteristics, we argue that understanding the impact of WFE is particularly important to Chinese people because they shed light on how work can enrich their family lives.

3 Expansion Theory

Over the past three decades, research has focused on two competing models for work–family spillover. From the perspective of scarcity, individuals are assumed to have scarce personal resources. Long work hours and inflexible work schedule cause employees to reduce the time and energy available to meet the requirements to play an active role in the family and finally resulting in work-to-family conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Conversely, the theory of expansion asserts that human resources are flexible and therefore, multiple roles are beneficial to people through accumulated personal resources when the use of time is flexible and individuals increase satisfaction and subjective energy levels during and after being able to perform multiple roles (Marks, 1977).

Since cultural norms and roles in the family and organization have changed dramatically, increased attention to expansion theory has led researchers to rethink the positive relationship between work and family roles, and the two competing approaches. Research has suggested that work–family conflict and enrichment can occur simultaneously, depending on the process by which experiences of one role affect the performance of another domain (Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). A review of past work–family studies has demonstrated that the relationship between work–family conflict and enrichment is not necessarily negative (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Indeed, resources derived from work can contribute to the high performance of a family role directly by applying relevant resources to perform family duties through the instrumental path or indirectly by enhancing positive affect in the workplace, which then promotes the family performance through the affective path (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006).

For example, employees who enhance their personal skills through mentoring relationships at work can apply those skills to comfort and motivate their family members (Kwan et al., 2010). In addition, employees' positive affect can be exported to the family directly, thereby resulting in their positive affect at home. Hence, WFE represents an important work–family benefit to delineate how work resources acquired in the workplace enrich employee family lives.

In China, there are two main types of enterprises, private and state-owned. Private enterprises have generally adopted Western human resources practices, such as performance-based reward systems, on-the-job training, as well as termination of labor contracts, whereas state-owned enterprises have been subjected to tight government control and have tended to provide internal stability as well as security (Wong, Wong, Ngo and Lui, 2005). However, due to the low efficiency of state-owned enterprises, the Chinese government has carried out many reforms over the past two decades and now state-owned enterprises tend to have similar human resource practices to private enterprises. In addition, past research indicates that WFE can occur at any industry or job position (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Hence, we believe that affective and instrumental paths can be utilized by employees in both private and state-owned enterprises.

4 Social Exchange Theory

Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), WFE may act as a vehicle to facilitate employee voice behavior, a special type of citizenship behavior that creates changes that can potentially improve organizational functioning, ultimately enhancing organizational effectiveness (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). The main principle of social exchange theory stresses that, apart from economic exchange, individuals also practice social exchange on a routine basis in society. The basic difference between social exchange and economic exchange is that social exchange relates to unspecified obligations. It refers to "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (Blau, 1964). There are three main points for this definition. First, the actions are voluntary. As the obligations are unspecified, trust is necessary for individuals to take voluntary actions. Second, returns are expected. A person invests his or her energy or time to do a favor for others. This favor, however, is instrumental. Without the expectation of return, a person does not offer personal resources to others. Third, the return may come from a third party. For example, an employee helps his or her colleagues who face work overload due to the expectation that other colleagues would do the same thing for him or her.

In contrast, economic exchange is a traditional concept that takes place in the

market where the buyer and the seller meet. A typical example of economic exchange is an action outlined in a contract that indicates the amount of exchange and the responsibility of both employer and employee. When an employer obtains service from an employee, the employer should pay the exact amount of money to the employee at a given time. Anyone who does not carry out the contract could be sued for such action. Based on the above discussion, the application of social exchange is much broader than that of economic exchange in the real world. Indeed, social exchange has become an important topic in organizational behavior research.

5 Hypotheses

5.1 Work-to-Family Enrichment as a Vehicle for Voice Behavior

In an organization, much of social exchange is governed by the norm of reciprocity. Thus, it appears to be based on social norms that assume internal sanctions will motivate individuals to reciprocate in a social exchange scenario. Organ (1977), the first scholar to link social exchange theory to citizenship behavior, argued that employees who are inequitably over-rewarded are likely to display citizenship behavior. In fact, WFE can be regarded as a privilege by employees as they can export work resources to enrich their family life, thereby improving their family performance (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Moreover, WFE is facilitated by the social support of the organization, supervisor, and peers (Bhargava and Baral, 2009; Witt and Carlson, 2006). High levels of WFE may represent the fulfillment of employee expectations as employees expect their organizations to be responsible for providing a suitable environment for personal growth and development. All these sources of job social support lead employees to perceive their relationships with the organization and colleagues in terms of social rather than economic exchanges.

One way in which employees reciprocate for such beneficial support from the organization is to demonstrate voice behavior (Walumbwa and Schaubroeck, 2009). It is thus likely that employees who benefit from WFE may reciprocate through voice behavior. Past research has provided evidence that perceived transformational leadership (Liu et al., 2010), ethical leadership (Walumbwa and Schaubroeck, 2009), and change-oriented leadership (Detert and Burris, 2007) as well as leader-member exchange (Van Dyne, Kamdar and Joireman, 2008) influence voice behavior. The present study extends the existing voice literature to include WFE as an important predictor of voice. WFE can influence voice in at least two paths. First, WFE relates to positive affect. Past research has contended that positive affect is associated with attention to the external environment and intention to bring about changes to the status quo (Greenhaus

and Powell, 2006). Second, WFE directs employees to apply what they learn from the workplace into their home. Such transferred learning skills may lead individuals to think how to improve the work environment, and in turn, create ideas to promote organizational effectiveness. Conversely, employees who have low levels of WFE may suffer from poor family performance, blaming it on the lack of job social support. Unlike in-role job behaviors that employees need to maintain a certain level to secure their jobs, citizenship behavior is discretionary, such that employees have the freedom to adjust their performance without taking risks in their job security situation (Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998). The external factors, such as a performance appraisal system, seemed not to influence the levels of citizenship behavior performed by individuals (Organ, 1988). More importantly, speaking up may have led employees to experience negative effects including the loss of trust, respect, promotion or other career opportunities, because their suggestions may harm the benefits of and give offence to other people (Milliken, Morrison and Hewlin, 2003). When individuals lack work–family benefits, they may lose their motivation to go the extra mile (e.g., voice behavior) and avoid unnecessary personal costs. Consistent with these arguments, past studies have found a significant relationship between WFE and citizenship behavior (Balmforth and Gardner, 2006; Bhargava and Baral, 2009). Based on the foregoing discussion, we propose

H1 Work-to-family enrichment positively relates to employee voice behavior.

5.2 The Moderating Role of Modernity

As Chinese societies are being modernized, the values of Chinese people are influenced by Western culture (Fu et al., 2010). This social shift has been referred to as the influence of modernity, an individual-level construct (Inkeles and Smith, 1974). According to Yang et al. (1989), in the Chinese context, modernity includes egalitarianism, open-mindedness, social isolation, self-reliance, optimism, affect hedonism, and sexual equality. Modern societies emphasize egalitarianism and freedom of expression and encourage people to feel free to express their opinions and pursue their personal goals (Farh, Earley and Lin, 1997). These values are based on the understanding that everyone has fundamental human rights and equal opportunities to gain rewards according to his or her individual contributions. Hence, people with high levels of modernity are likely to focus on economic exchange based on the underlying rules of equity while downplaying social exchange based on social reciprocation. Moreover, modernity directs people to become independent and free themselves from social obligations to pursue personal goals (Farh et al., 1997). Such independence, with its attendant reduction in a feeling of social obligation makes people downplay the importance of family and instead choose to be independent from parents and

relatives. Individuals with high modernity are likely to base their behavior on personal preferences rather than on family members' choice, putting their own benefits ahead of those of their family members (Inkeles, 1983).

There are two reasons why modernity acts as a moderator between WFE and voice behavior. First, people with high modernity tend to emphasize economic exchange and have less reciprocity in a social exchange. Hence, their level of voice behavior will be independent of the social exchange involved in WFE. In contrast, employees with low levels of modernity are deeply influenced by the norm of interdependence and feel obligated to reciprocate benefits to others, including a third party. When they receive work–family benefits, they are highly motivated to reciprocate their contributions to the organization. As voice behavior is an effective way to enhance organizational effectiveness and competitive advantages, low modernity employees who perceive WFE will be more likely to perform voice behavior than high ones.

The second reason is that high modernity people downplay the importance of their family. Although WFE can improve individual performance at home, employees who do not have significant concerns for their family are inclined to ignore this work–family benefit. Consequently, employees are less likely to consider reciprocating to the organization through voice behavior. Conversely, people low in modernity focus on social connection including family. When they perceive work–family benefits, they regard these benefits to be important to their lives. Hence, they increase their voice behavior to reciprocate their contributions to the organization. In light of the above discussion, we propose:

H2 Modernity moderates the relationship between work-to-family enrichment and voice behavior such that the relationship is weaker for employees with high—as opposed to low—levels of modernity.

6 Methods

6.1 Sample

Rather than using a single case empirical study, in order to represent more modern Chinese organizations, we selected our samples from small-medium-sized, state-owned, and private-owned (four organizations each) manufacturing enterprises located in two provinces that largely typify most businesses in contemporary Chinese societies. Table 1 provides more details about these eight enterprises. Fifty middle-level managers were randomly selected in each organization, totaling 400 managers as the target respondents. A packet containing copies of our questionnaire, cover letters, and return envelopes were hand-delivered by the research team to each of the eight enterprises. All participants were given their survey packets by a member of their company's HR

Table 1 The Company Profiles

Organizations	Name	Location	Number of employees	Main products	Establishment Year	Capital (million Yuan)	Market share
POE1	Heilongjiang Yanglin Soybean Group	Heilongjiang	1 100	Soybean products	1996	401	Top 3 nationally
POE2	Harbin Tongyitang Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.	Heilongjiang	300	Pharmaceuticals	1995	80	Middle locally
POE3	Harbin Shengtai Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.	Heilongjiang	1 100	Pharmaceuticals	1996	400	Significant locally
POE4	Shandong Wanda Mechano-Electronic Co., Ltd	Shandong	1 000	Cables & electronics	1988	780	Significant nationally
SOE1	Daqing Longyang Antisepticised Materials Co., Ltd.	Heilongjiang	300	Antisepticised tubes	1956	50	Significant locally
SOE2	Qingdao Haiyang Chemical Co., Ltd.	Shandong	1 200	Silica gel	1999	320	Top 3 nationally
SOE3	Qingdao Sodium Silicate Co., Ltd.	Shandong	500	Silicon compound	1943	183	Top 3 nationally
SOE4	Harbin No.1 Tool Manufacture Co., Ltd.	Heilongjiang	1 900	Measurement tools	1959	410	Top 4 nationally

Source: Zhang, Cone, Everett, and Elkin. Aesthetic leadership in Chinese business: A philosophical perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, in press.

Note: POE stands for private-owned enterprise; SOE stands for state-owned enterprises. Of these respondents, 102 (44.3%) were female. Age was rated by categories [1 = “below 26” (3.5%); 2 = “26–30” (13.9%); 3 = “31–35” (20.0%); 4 = “36–40” (19.6%); 5 = “41–45” (15.7%); 6 = “46–50” (14.8%); 7 = “51–55” (8.3%); 8 = “56–60” (2.6%); 9 = “above 60” (1.7%)]. Education level was coded [1 = “high school or below” (30.0%); 2 = “junior college” (44.8%); 3 = “bachelor’s degree” (21.7%); 4 = “master’s degree” (2.2%); 5 = “doctor’s degree” (1.3%)]. The average of organizational tenure was 12.8 years (*SD* = 9.12).

department during work hours and were asked to personally complete and return their questionnaires to the HR department. In total, we received 393 completed and anonymous surveys from the eight organizations (four private enterprises and four state-owned enterprises), in sealed envelopes, resulting in a survey response rate of 98.25%. We then followed the conventional approach to include only those married participants (Casper et al., 2007), excluding manager who were single or who did not report their marital status. Ultimately, 230 questionnaires were retained.

6.2 Measures

All questionnaire items followed a closed response format, in which the participants were asked to choose one value that most closely applied to them. A seven-point Likert-type scale was utilized for all constructs, ranging from 1 (Totally Disagree) to 7 (Totally Agree).

Work-to-family enrichment. WFE was measured using nine items representing three dimensions (i.e., development, affect, and capital) developed by Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne and Grzywacz (2006). The first dimension (development) is defined as when involvement in work results in the acquisition or refinement of skills, knowledge, and behaviors. The second (affect) is defined as when involvement in work leads to a positive emotional state or attitude, whereas the third (capital) is defined as when involvement in work promotes levels of psychosocial resources. We applied the Chinese version translated by Kwan et al. (2010). Representative items are "My involvement in my work helps me gain knowledge, and this helps me be a better family member" (development), "My involvement puts me in a good mood, and this helps me be a better family member" (affect), and "My involvement helps me feel personally fulfilled, and this helps me be a better family member" (capital). Cronbach's alphas for development, affect, and capital were 0.80, 0.89, and 0.89, respectively. We conducted a first-order analysis and a second-order factor analysis as well as obtained a good model fit, with $\chi^2(24) = 61.28$, RMSEA = 0.078, and CFI = 0.99 for both models. Because our main focus is the construct rather than the dimensions and studies in this study, we have regarded WFE as a single composite factor (e.g., Kwan et al., 2010), we aggregated the scores for the three dimensions to form an overall composite measure of WFE. Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.92.

Modernity. Modernity was assessed using a five-item scale originally developed by Yang et al. (1989) in Chinese contexts and applied by Farh et al. (1997). A sample item is, "To pursue advanced study or better employment opportunity, it is okay for someone to leave his home and family." Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.71.

Voice behavior. Voice behavior was measured using six items originally developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). We adopted the Chinese version by Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004). A representative item is, "I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect this department." Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.79.

Control variables. We controlled for employees' demographic variables, including age, gender, education, organizational tenure (years) (Ng and Feldman, 2008), as well as perceived transformational leadership (Liu et al., 2010) due to their potential effects on voice behavior. Transformational leadership was measured with fifteen items using a scale developed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004). Cronbach's alpha for this measure was 0.93. As the data were from eight companies, we created and controlled for seven company dummy variables.

7 Results

Table 2 displays the means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables included in this study. The correlation analyses indicated that WFE is positively related to voice behavior ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$), providing initial support for H1.

We applied structural equation modeling with LISREL 8.54 to test our measurement model including WFE, modernity, and voice behavior. For the WFE construct, we aggregated item scores to the dimensional level and treated each dimension as an indicator of the latent WFE factor. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) yielded an acceptable fit to the data, with $\chi^2(74) = 163.64$, $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.066; CFI = 0.94. In addition, all factor loadings were significant, demonstrating convergent validity. To ensure sufficient discriminant validity among all constructs, we examined a two-factor CFA model by combining WFE and voice behavior. WFE and voice behavior were combined because their correlation was the highest among the three factors. The model yielded a poor fit to the data: $\chi^2(76) = 400.57$, $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.142; CFI = 0.77. Furthermore, we ran a one-factor model, yielding an unacceptable fit, with $\chi^2(77) = 561.36$, $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.182; CFI = 0.65. Hence, discriminant validity was supported. Because all variables were measured by the same source, we calculated the variance explained by the method factor (22.1%); the result was lower than the 25% suggested by Williams, Cote and Buckley (1989). We also conducted Harman's one factor test and the largest factor accounted for only 28.4% (eigenvalue: 3.95) of the variance. Hence, common method variance is not likely to be a pervasive problem in this study. Given these results, all proposed constructs were applied in further analyses.

Hierarchical regression was used to test H1 and H2 (shown in Table 3). H1 states that WFE is associated with voice behavior. Model 2 of Table 3 indicates

Table 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	4.31	1.83											
2. Gender	1.44	0.50	–0.18**										
3. Education level	2.01	0.90	–0.17*	0.26**									
4. Organizational tenure	12.81	9.12	0.59**	–0.21**	–0.08								
5. Transformational leadership	4.59	0.90	0.02	0.03	–0.04	0.04	(0.93)						
6. WFE (composite)	5.09	0.84	–0.02	0.03	–0.06	–0.19**	0.24**	(0.92)					
7. WFE (development)	5.09	0.83	–0.04	–0.04	–0.04	–0.10	0.25**	0.85**	(0.80)				
8. WFE (affect)	5.08	1.02	0.03	0.03	–0.13*	–0.19**	0.13*	0.89**	0.63**	(0.89)			
9. WFE (capital)	5.10	1.02	–0.04	0.07	0.02	–0.20**	0.24**	0.89**	0.63**	0.66**	(0.89)		
10. Modernity	5.11	0.82	–0.05	–0.08	0.13	–0.09	0.04	0.24**	0.25**	0.14*	0.24**	(0.71)	
11. Voice behavior	4.70	0.81	0.05	0.03	0.06	–0.10	0.15*	0.30**	0.29**	0.22**	0.30**	0.23**	(0.79)

Note: 1. $N = 230$. The Cronbach's alpha values were reported along the diagonal. * denotes $p < 0.05$; ** denotes $p < 0.01$.

2. Age was coded as 1 = "below 26," 2 = "26–30," 3 = "31–35," 4 = "36–40," 5 = "41–45;" 6 = "46–50," 7 = "51–55," 8 = "56–60," 9 = "above 60."

3. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female.

4. Education was coded as 1 = "high school or below," 2 = "junior college," 3 = "bachelor's degree," 4 = "master's degree," 5 = "doctor's degree."

5. WFE = Work-to-family enrichment.

that—consistent with our prediction—even after we included the control variables, WFE was positively related to voice ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$), providing support for H1.

Table 3 Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Voice Behavior

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Control variable				
Age	0.26**	0.23*	0.21*	0.22*
Gender	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.03
Education level	0.08	0.11	0.08	0.08
Organizational tenure	–0.18	–0.11	–0.08	–0.04
Transformational leadership	0.19**	0.11	0.11	0.10
Dummy 1	0.10	0.04	0.03	0.07
Dummy 2	0.11	0.10	0.11	0.15
Dummy 3	0.27**	0.26**	0.25**	0.26**
Dummy 4	0.09	0.12	0.14	0.17*
Dummy 5	0.17	0.13	0.12	0.14
Dummy 6	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.05
Dummy 7	0.24**	0.22*	0.20*	0.21*
Independent variable				
WFE		0.27***	0.24**	0.28***
Moderator				
Modernity			0.15*	0.16*
Interaction				
WFE × Modernity				–0.16*
F-value	2.41**	3.60***	3.77***	3.99***
R^2	0.12	0.18	0.20	0.22
ΔR^2		0.06***	0.02*	0.02*

Note: 1. $N = 230$.
2. WFE = Work-to-family enrichment.
3. * denotes $p < 0.05$; ** denotes $p < 0.01$; *** denotes $p < 0.001$.

To test H2, which suggests that modernity moderates the relationship between WFE and voice behavior, we introduced interaction terms into our regression model. Model 4 in Table 3 presents the results. Modernity had significant moderating effects on the relationship between WFE and voice behavior ($\beta = –0.16$, $p < 0.05$). The nature of the significant interaction was examined by

plotting values plus and minus one standard deviation from the means of WFE and modernity. Fig. 1 demonstrates that, as expected, when levels of modernity were high, WFE was not related to voice behavior. In contrast, when levels of modernity were low, WFE was positively related to voice behavior. Taken as a whole, H2 was supported.

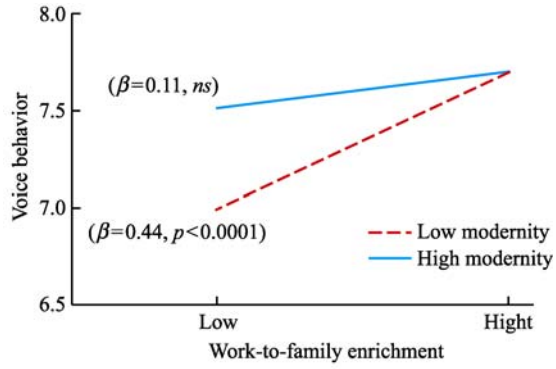

Fig. 1 Interaction of Work-to-Family Enrichment and Modernity on Voice Behavior

6.2 Post-Hoc Analyses

To explore the empirical effects of private and state-owned enterprises, we conducted two tests as post-hoc analyses. We first compared the means of WFE. The results indicated that the means between private (mean = 5.22; S.D. = 0.73) and stated-owned (mean = 5.00; S.D. = 0.90) enterprises did not have a significant difference. Moreover, we tested the moderating effect of firm nature and did not find any significant results. Furthermore, recent research has shown that private and state-owned enterprises do not influence findings in terms of employees' social exchange (Liu, Kwan, Wu and Wu, 2010). Taken together, our model is robust in both private and state-owned enterprises in China. However, in Table 3, two organizations seem to present a significant relationship with voice behavior. Therefore, there is a need to understand what specific characteristics of these two organizations are responsible for such impact. Future research should include organizational climates, such as organizational politics, to figure out potential organizational effects.

7 Discussion

Integrating the work–family interface, citizenship behavior, and cultural values, the present study found that WFE positively influences employee voice behavior in China. In addition, modernity moderated the relationship between WFE and voice behavior such that the relationship was weaker when modernity was high

rather than low. The theoretical and managerial implications in terms of Chinese human resource management are discussed below.

7.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study extend the existing literature regarding the work–family interface, citizenship behavior, and cultural values in two important ways. First, we built and empirically tested a social exchange model integrating WFE with voice behavior in China. Controlling for demographic variables and transformational leadership, our study empirically demonstrated for the first time that WFE effectively facilitates Chinese employee voice behavior. In addition, we responded to the call from Casper et al. (2007) to use non-Western samples for work–family research. Despite the increasing number of Chinese work–family studies, our understanding of the effects of work–family issues on employees in Eastern settings remains limited. The generalizability of findings in Western contexts to Chinese contexts has raised concerns among work–family researchers because Chinese people have unique perspectives and values toward family and thus constitute unique family patterns, which cannot be fully captured by Western settings. Although work–family scholars have conceptually mentioned the importance of cultural values on WFE research (Powell et al., 2009), the present study contributes to generalizing the important effect of the work–family interface on citizenship behavior for Chinese workers. As an initial effort, this study built an empirical connection between WFE and voice behavior in Chinese contexts. Our findings indicate that WFE is important for enhancing voice behavior in Chinese settings, providing evidence to generalize social exchange theory from the West to transitional economies and collectivist societies.

Second, we found that the generalizability of social exchange theory has a cultural boundary such that modernity plays the role of a moderator between WFE and voice behavior. Previous studies of WFE have applied to Chinese samples, but they did not consider any cultural factors (e.g., Kwan et al., 2010). Modernity is suitable for consideration in Chinese work–family research because China is experiencing both economic and educational transformations. Our study contributes to the work–family interface and citizenship behavior literature by indicating a cultural boundary in which modernity is an important moderator for the WFE–voice relationship. The results from the present study may encourage future scholars to address the moderating effects of other cultural values on the relationship between the work–family interface and work behavior.

7.2 Limitations

The contributions of this study must be considered in light of its limitations. First,

the data was based on self-reporting measures collected at a single time, which may create common method bias. To examine this bias, we checked the variance explained by the method factor, which was below the cut-off point suggested by Williams et al. (1989). Additionally, research argues that common method variance is unlikely to cause spurious interactions (Evans, 1985). Indeed, past research has provided evidence that the presence of common method variance does not necessarily influence results or conclusions (Spector, 2006). Hence, contamination of the findings by common method bias was not likely. Second, this study design is cross-sectional. We recognize that the inference of causation between WFE and voice behavior should be explained with caution. It is possible that employees who hold higher levels of voice behavior are more likely to experience WFE. However, this speculation may not stand because our hypothesis development is based on social exchange theory, which has long been used to explain antecedents of voice behavior (Liu et al., 2010). Nevertheless, additional longitudinal studies are needed to fully understand the causal relationship between WFE and voice behavior. Third, our respondents were managers, yet the main component of the Chinese workforce is blue-collar employees. The nature of our sample thus limits the generalizability of the results. Future studies should include Chinese blue-collar employees in their samples. Finally, some important work–family variables, such as work-to-family conflict, were excluded in this study. It is possible that work-to-family conflict leads to increased pressures and reduced resources, thereby leading employees to decreased citizenship behavior, such as voice. In fact, past research has applied the pressure perspective to explain work-to-family conflict and citizenship behavior (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino and Rosner, 2005). However, it is difficult to apply work-to-family conflict in the expansion and social exchange perspectives. As enrichment and conflict are involved in different conceptual frames, it is more suitable not to include both in the social exchange framework. Nevertheless, it is critical to explore the effect of work-to-family conflict on voice behavior in future research.

7.3 Managerial Implications

Despite these limitations, our empirical results have rich practical implications for human resource management. As Chinese companies are in a dynamic and transforming environment (Fu et al., 2010), voice behavior is particularly important for them to promote competitive advantage. It is critical for organizations to remember that WFE can promote employee voice behavior through social exchange mechanisms. Research has evidenced that job social support (Bhargava and Baral, 2009; Witt and Carlson, 2006) and mentoring functions (Kwan et al., 2010) can facilitate WFE. Hence, human resource

management should provide social support through work–family balance policies and mentoring programs to propel employee WFE, which in turn, enhances voice behavior.

Moreover, the moderating role of modernity also provides evidence that organizations need to keep in mind that modernity can depress employees' voice behavior from WFE. Hence, the WFE function may not be effective for high modernity employees. Research indicates that distributive justice is particularly effective for promoting the citizenship behavior of high modernity employees in Chinese contexts (Farh et al., 1997). Hence, organizations should consider employees' expectations and foster a fair and friendly work climate through human resource practices when their employees display high levels of behaviors congruent with modernity. Conversely, employees with low modernity are sensitive to work–family benefits. In this situation, organizations should emphasize job social support and mentoring functions that can facilitate WFE.

Furthermore, the moderating pattern shows that voice behavior is higher among people who are high in modernity regardless of the extent to which they perceive high or low WFE. These people may adjust better to the needs of the organization and contribute higher levels of voice behavior even if they do not expect WFE. Therefore, they may be more proactive in bringing ideas and suggestions on how to improve the organization without feeling the necessity to participate in a social exchange.

7.4 Conclusion

The present study has addressed several important issues regarding the work–family interface, citizenship behavior, and cultural values, suggesting that modernity plays an important moderating role between WFE and voice behavior in China. Our results provide great implications for human resource management, as facilitating WFE constitutes an important component to successful human resource strategy in global organizations. We hope that our study will provide a springboard for researchers to conduct research in non-Western settings considering the impact of cultural values.

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