

Chapter 4

**SHOULD I DO IT OR NOT?
AN INITIAL MODEL OF COGNITIVE PROCESSES
PREDICTING VOICE BEHAVIORS**

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ABSTRACT

In this chapter, we advance the idea that organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are discretionary and, as a result, employees engage in decisional processes before acting. Emphasizing conceptual differences in affiliative OCBs, such as helping, compared to challenging OCBs, such as voice, we propose that voice is a function of more elaborate cognitive processes than helping. Extending this idea, our primary objective is to develop a conceptual model that explicates cognitive processes as antecedents to employee voice behavior. We draw on work in social psychology with an emphasis on dual process decision-making theories (e.g., systematic vs. heuristic processing: see Smith and DeCoster, 2000, for a review) to guide our model. We aim to stimulate research on voice and other comparatively neglected forms of challenging OCB (e.g., personal initiative, taking charge) as well as research on decision processes that should enhance our ability to predict and encourage these important citizenship behaviors.

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INTRODUCTION

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Domain

Interest in discretionary employee behaviors started as early as the 1940's with Barnard's (1938) discussion of the important functions of the business executive and later continued with Katz's (1964) discussion of prosocial employee behaviors. One of the key issues that Katz discussed was the importance of engendering cooperation to enhance organizational adaptability and consequently, organizational effectiveness. Since then, organizational researchers have witnessed a proliferation of research articles examining antecedents and outcomes of beneficial employee behaviors beyond the call of duty, which came to be labeled by Organ (1988) as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). The growing momentum of OCB research has also generated great interest in defining the domain. Academics have started asking questions such as: What types of behaviors comprise OCBs? Is there a comprehensive framework for defining and assessing all discretionary behaviors that contribute to organizational effectiveness? Do the different types of behaviors warrant attention as separate and unique behavioral phenomena, contributing uniquely to individual, group and organizational effectiveness?

There are several notable answers with respect to these questions. Recently, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) identified at least seven common behavioral themes including helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty and compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. One way to organize them is based on the framework proposed by Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean Parks (1995). One critical distinction lies in the nature of the behavior as affiliative versus challenging. They also reasoned that behaviors can be promotive or protective, a dimension that intersects with affiliative and challenging to produce four types of behaviors: (1) affiliative-promotive (e.g., helping coworkers), (2) affiliative-protective (e.g., stewardship), (3) challenging-promotive (e.g., voice), and (4) challenging-protective (whistle blowing). In this chapter, we focus on promotive behaviors in general, and on one specific type of challenging-promotive behavior in particular, that is voice. In general, *affiliative-promotive* behaviors such as helping tend to be cooperative and interpersonal (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), while *challenging-promotive* behaviors such as voicing one's opinions to bring about positive change or taking personal initiative are often intended to challenge the status-quo (Chiaburu and Baker, 2006; Fuller, Marler, and Hester, 2006; Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero, 2003).

Consistent with understanding affiliative-promotive behaviors such as helping and cooperation, extensive research has been conducted on the premises of a social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), according to which employees may develop high quality relationships and engage in beneficial behaviors to reciprocate favorable treatment by the organization or by agents of the organization such as leaders (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Zellars and Tepper, 2003) or work group peers (Kamdar and Van Dyne, 2007). Antecedents such as perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002), fairness (Ball, Treviño, and Sims, 1994; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor, 2000), and leader-member

exchange (Settoon, Bennett, and Liden, 1996) have been explored using a social exchange framework.

We recognize the importance of a social exchange relational perspective to enhancing our understanding of organizational processes underlying *affiliative-promotive behaviors*, but our focus is consistent with recognition of the growing role that *challenging-promotive behaviors* are likely to play in an increasingly dynamic business environment (e.g., Crant, 2000; Grant and Ashford, 2007). For example, Moon, Van Dyne and Wrobel's (2005) review of the citizenship behavior literature suggested that we know more about the affiliative aspects of OCBs whereas the more challenging aspects have been comparatively less studied. We aim to redress the balance and, as a result, we explore the antecedents of voice behavior through a cognitive lens. Specifically, given the more challenging "rocking-the-boat" nature of voice behaviors, they may have both positive consequences as well as negative repercussions for the employees who engage in behaviors that may challenge the status-quo (Morrison and Phelps, 1999). This foreshadows the theoretical relevance of a more calculative perspective, in which cognitive and decision-making processes are prominent, to attempt to map the dynamic decision of "should I do it or not?" that employees are likely to make with respect to challenging-promotive behaviors.

Given the growing importance of challenging-promotive and various types of proactive behaviors (Grant and Ashford, 2007), we turn our attention to the unique processes likely to underlie these behaviors. Specifically, we begin by comparing them to a more traditional type of affiliative-promotive behavior such as helping (Organ, 1988; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Then, we examine the relevance of dual-process decision-making to explicate the cognitive processes likely to trigger systematic and heuristic voice processing (Petty and Wegener, 1999). Our overall objective is to open the black box of decision-making with respect to voice behaviors and to integrate it with extant literatures on predictors of voice behaviors as well as to propose new directions. We start out by reviewing some of the existing literature on challenging-promotive behaviors to outline what the main findings have been. Finally we propose an integrative model of cognitive decision-making and challenging-promotive behavior (with a focus on voice) to extend the current literature.

What We Know and What We Don't Know About Challenging-Promotive OCBs

We have witnessed a growing number of studies examining the domain of challenging-promotive behavior in the past decade. For instance, LePine and Van Dyne (1998) examined group characteristics (e.g. group size) as well as individual characteristics (e.g. self-esteem, satisfaction) as predictors of voice. Other research has looked into job and supervisory characteristics (Frese, Teng, and Wijnen, 1999; Morrison and Phelps, 1999) as predictors of making suggestions. Another line of research has examined the role of felt responsibility and the development of role-based self-efficacy as predictors of engaging in change-oriented behaviors (Fuller et al., 2006; Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Parker, 1998). Our understanding of challenging-promotive behavior antecedents has, thus, been enriched. However, we still lack an overarching cognitive perspective that would capture more precisely the decision-making process that employees engage in. Such a perspective is important because it can uncover important mechanisms that would explain and refine current models of voice. Below

we provide an overview of dual process models of decision-making and then we apply them to the prediction of challenging-promotive behaviors (with an emphasis on voice) in the workplace.

Even though interest in the challenging-promotive area has greatly increased over the past decade (for reviews and propositions, see Crant, 2000 and Grant and Ashford, 2007), the cognitive decision-making processes underlying engaging in these behaviors has remained relatively unexplored. For example, although it is recognized that “the decision to take charge will be affected by two judgments” (likely success and likely consequences), Morrison and Phelps (1999) recognize that “we did not assess the two proposed judgments in this study,” despite the fact that, as the authors recognized, they were used as a theoretical justification (p. 405-406). This shows the need to unpack how employees make decisions when taking charge or when engaging in voicing their suggestions for change.

Dual Process Decision-Making Models

Dual process decision-making models describe the distinction between “heuristic” and “systematic” processing in information processing and persuasion contexts (Chaiken, Liberman, and Eagly, 1989; Petty and Wegener, 1999). Although a variety of dual process models exist (for reviews and critiques, see Kruglanski and Orehek, 2007, and Smith and DeCoster, 2000), we build our framework on the elaboration likelihood model (ELM; Petty and Wegener, 1999) for several reasons. First, it covers the full continuum of cognition from heuristic to systematic, a range necessary for capturing the way decisions are made about engagement in behaviors that one has discretion on. Second, our framework is selected based on demonstrated applications of ELM to various decision-making situations in organizations, such as job seekers’ decision processes (Jones, Shultz, and Chapman, 2006) and ethical decision making (Street, Douglas, Geiger and Martinko, 2001).

Concretely, the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) posits that in making a decision about a communicated message, individuals engage in the two distinct modes of decision-making processing — heuristic or systematic (as outlined above). In this way, individuals may engage in more heuristic processing (using a peripheral information processing route) that does not require as much time and effort and might, therefore, involve more surface than deep-level processes. On the other hand, under certain circumstances such as increased personal relevance, individuals tend to engage in more systematic processing (using a central information processing route), which increases the extent to which the alternatives of a decision are carefully scrutinized.

Further, the model specifies that individuals differ in the amount of *cognitive elaboration* (the extent to which individuals rely on information processing to decide on target objects or potential actions (Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith, 1995). This forms the core of the model, for which we use terms consistent with various applications of ELM, such as elaboration likelihood (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), cognitive expenditure (Street et al., 2001), and depth of processing (Zalesny and Ford, 1990). Consistent with the original model and its applications, we emphasize that elaboration likelihood is a *continuum* ranging from low elaboration (heuristic mode or peripheral information processing route) to high elaboration (systematic mode or central route processing route; Petty and Cacioppo, 1986; Street et al., 2001). For simplicity purposes, we formulate propositions around the central concept

(cognitive elaboration and its synonyms), with arguments based on extreme values (low vs. high; heuristic vs. systematic; peripheral processing vs. central processing) to clarify our points.

DUAL PROCESS DECISION-MAKING MODELS AND CHALLENGING-PROMOTIVE OCBS

As discussed earlier, challenging-promotive citizenship behaviors, and especially voice, entail potential threats to the status-quo. A prerequisite to behavioral action will require more than minimal cognitive elaboration: employees will have to figure out which issues to voice, when, and to whom (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, and Dutton, 1998; Dutton, Ashford, Wierba, O'Neill, and Hayes, 1997). Based on dual-process models, cognitive elaboration or likelihood to elaborate mentally may be subject to both situational and individual opportunities and constraints. It is our objective to enrich the current literature on voice by examining situational and personal factors within an ELM framework to predict voice in the workplace. Figure 1 presents our model, organized using facilitating and impeding factors predicting cognitive elaboration that further leads to voice behaviors. These relationships are modified by contingent elements (i.e., scripts, schemas, modes of self-regulation) that help to complete our overarching framework and refine our main propositions, due to their consistency with our cognitive anchoring of the model. The influence of cognitive elaboration on behaviors is a function of individuals' repertoires of organized structures (or schemas; Fiske, 1995), and we capture these aspects using cognitive-based boundary conditions.

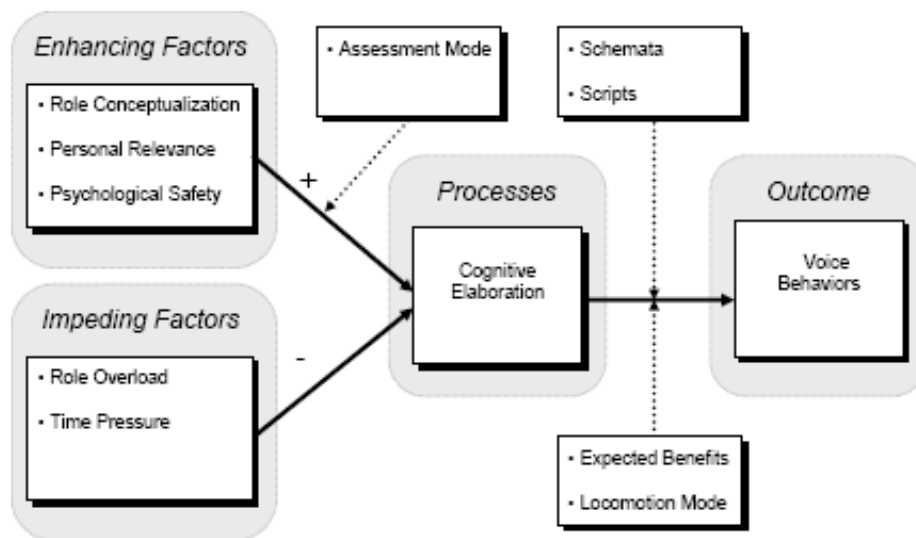


Figure 1. Model of proposed relationships.

The Road Ahead: Predictors, Processes and Voice Behaviors

Consistent with our intention to predict cognitive elaboration pertaining to voice and voice behaviors, we present a number of factors that can enhance and inhibit these mental processes. Our mode of presentation maps closely with the logic of elaboration likelihood models, where various components (e.g., personal relevance, quality of cues) can enhance or impede elaboration likelihood (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986). We also maintain congruence with the ELM principles and postulates (e.g., individuals do not intend to be intentionally biased, they vary on the amount of cognitive elaboration, etc.; Petty and Wegener, 1999).

Our propositions are organized in the following way. First, we provide theoretical arguments for the relationship between cognitive elaboration and the two promotive discretionary behaviors described above (affiliative and challenging; Van Dyne et al., 1995; Proposition 1). We further present two categories of predictors of cognitive elaboration as distal antecedents, one facilitating and one impeding elaboration. To present a more focused framework beyond this point, our model is limited to predicting *voice*, defined as a “constructive challenge intended to improve rather than to merely criticize” (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998, p. 109) as one particular type of challenging-promotive behavior.

Following Figure 1, we propose that broad role conceptualizations, personal relevance, and psychological safety (a set of predictors typically examined in relationship to discretionary behaviors such as OCBs and voice) stimulate cognitive elaboration (Propositions 2 to 4). If mental processes are to be accounted for, time becomes an essential component, and our framework captures it by focusing on role overload and time pressure (Propositions 5 and 6) which will act as constraining factors. The main relationships are modified by other components congruent with our cognitive approach to predicting voice behaviors. Specifically, we theorize that two types of schemas (self-construal, Proposition 7) and event schemas (or scripts, Proposition 8), cost-benefit analyses (Proposition 9) and two types of self-regulation (assessment, Proposition 10 and locomotion, Proposition 11) enhance or attenuate the main relationships.

Cognitive Elaboration, Affiliative- and Challenging-Promotive Behaviors

In addition to task performance behaviors, which allow less procedural or outcome-related latitude, employees have discretion to engage in or refrain from a variety of work behaviors, such as helping colleagues with their workload or suggesting ways to improve procedures. According to Van Dyne and colleagues (1995), extra-role behaviors aimed at supporting the organization (promotive behaviors) can be classified as either affiliative or challenging. Although our focus in this chapter is on one particular challenging-promotive behavior (i.e., voice), future integration of our propositions across the entire discretionary behavior spectrum can be facilitated if, before delving deeper in our area of interest, we explore the extent to which cognitive elaboration is present across these two behavioral domains and why.

Affiliative and challenging behavior are similar along a number of dimensions (e.g., both are based on an overall affective state of satisfaction), and they also present important differences. For affiliative behaviors, employees exhibit primary allegiance to proximal relationships, are present oriented, and view the current situation in the organization as

acceptable. Challenging behaviors are based on being committed to high standards of performance, future orientation, and a belief in the possibility to improve the current organizational or work situation (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Logically, based on these conceptual differences, employees should use more cognitive processing when deciding to engage in challenging-promotive behaviors. An orientation toward the future requires information processing, as does the need to uphold a high standard of performance and the desire to improve the current state of things. In addition, voicing ideas for improvement has the likelihood to challenge and even upset the status quo (Detert and Burris, 2007), is associated with perceptions of risk (Milliken and Morrison, 2000), and brings additional uncertainties related to how the behavior will be perceived by supervisors or peers (Van Dyne et al., 2003).

In contrast to affiliative behaviors (such as helping or supporting the company through prosocial behaviors) that require significantly less cognitive effort and mental elaboration, we suggest that employees will engage in more cognitive elaboration before deciding to voice issues. First, the definitions and terminology for affiliative behaviors argue for and are indicative of less elaboration. Although behaviors such as *organizational spontaneity* (protecting the organization, developing oneself, spreading goodwill; George and Brief, 1992) are not impulse- but volition-based (George and Jones, 1997), they may require only a fraction of the cognitive elaboration, analyses, and ruminations related to challenging behaviors (Edmondson, 1999; Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Withey and Cooper, 1989). Second, voice behaviors are sometimes described as “speaking up,” to capture the directionality of voice: subordinates typically voice their concerns, ideas, and suggestions to managers who are situated at a higher hierarchical level, and who might be responsible for creating or implementing the procedures challenged by the employees. Higher-ups also control formal reward and punishment systems and manage less formal resource allocation (opportunities for training and development, rotations to other positions in the organization). As a result, employees are more likely to pause and mentally elaborate before speaking up, taking charge, or otherwise prior to engaging in any type of challenging behavior. Current research also shows that due to such pronounced asymmetries between voice and helping, employees may also prefer to remain silent in a defensive or prosocial stance (Van Dyne et al., 2003), in addition to thinking longer and harder before irreversibly committing to positions that have potentially negative personal consequences.

Proposition 1: Employees will rely more on cognitive elaboration before engaging in challenging-promotive (e.g., voice) behaviors than before engaging in affiliative-promotive (e.g., helping) citizenship behaviors.

Factors Enhancing Cognitive Elaboration

Role Conceptualization

Role conceptualization is the degree to which employees view specific behaviors as an expected part of their role (Kamdar, McAllister, and Turban, 2006; McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, and Turban, 2007). In general, we propose that when employees view their roles broadly (Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, and Purcell, 2004; Morrison, 1994) and conceptualize OCB as an expected part of the job (Kamdar et al., 2006), this should enhance cognitive elaboration

relative to voice. There is growing recognition that even though OCBs may go beyond the formally-prescribed job description, employees differ in the extent to which they view these behaviors as IRB (in-role) or ERB (extra-role) (Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne et al., 1995). In addition, an increasing amount of empirical research demonstrates that role conceptualizations influence attitudes and behavior at work (Chiaburu, 2007; Kamdar et al., 2006; Morrison, 1994; Tepper, Lockhart, and Hoobler, 2001; Tepper and Taylor, 2003).

In this work, broader role definitions have, in part, been attributed to justice perceptions leading to a role enlargement effect and, in part, to individual differences such as empathy and perspective-taking. Moreover, research examining specifically the more “active” components of employee behavior, consistent with our focus, has found that *flexible role orientation*, a construct similar to a broad role definition was positively related to proactive work behavior (Parker, Williams, and Turner, 2006). As Parker and colleagues (2006) reasoned, broader role definitions enable employees to engage in behaviors beyond their strictly in-role *task performance*: “Individuals with flexible role orientation define their roles broadly and, as such, feel ownership of goals and problems beyond their immediate set of technical tasks, seeing them as “my job” rather as “not my job” (Parker et al., 2006, p. 639).

How does role definition impact the decision-making process regarding engaging in challenging-promotive behaviors? If employees perceive that providing suggestions for improvement is part of their role, they would likely increase the systematic processing with respect to this type of voice engagement. Given that systematic processing is more effortful than heuristic processing and that it often requires a state of heightened motivation and personal involvement (Chaiken et al., 1989), employees can be expected to engage in more careful cognitive and effortful processing of voice engagement only to the extent to which they view it as part of their role.

Proposition 2: Employees with broad role conceptualizations will engage in more cognitive elaboration with respect to voice behavior (compared to those with more narrow role conceptualizations).

Personal Relevance

The focus of voice behavior can vary from something that directly concerns the focal employee to changes that have less direct personal relevance. The definition of voice in the organizational behavior literature incorporates the idea that employees speak up on existing issues with suggestions for improvement (i.e. they “constructively challenge the status quo”: Van Dyne and LePine, 1998, p. 109). As pointed out in proposition 1, voice behaviors due to their challenging nature are likely to require more deliberation and more cognitive processing than other promotive behaviors such as helping. Directly related to personal relevance is the concept of “felt responsibility”, which has already received some attention in the literature (Fuller et al., 2006; Morrison and Phelps, 1999), and results show it predicts change-oriented behavior. Extending past research, we suggest that incorporating personal relevance will further add to our understanding of motivational factors that cause employees to deliberate and engage in voice.

According to elaboration likelihood research, personal relevance is a motivational factor that increases the likelihood of systematic processing to reach the best decision (Petty and Wegener, 1999; Tesser and Shaffer, 1990). For instance, a persuasion study by Petty and Cacioppo (1984) demonstrated that personal relevance (involvement) led to greater

consideration of the quality rather than mere quantity of persuasion arguments – providing a more cognitively-engaged and systematic path of processing. Further, a meta-analysis by Johnson and Eagly (1989) confirmed the importance of considering personal involvement or relevance by showing that outcomes depend on type of involvement: value-relevant, outcome-relevant, and impression-relevant. Value-relevant involvement is a psychological state “created by the activation of attitudes that are linked to important values” (Johnson and Eagly, 1989). Outcome-relevant involvement is prompted by increasing the relevance by linking a decision to a valued outcome. Lastly, impression-relevant involvement has to do with the psychological state induced by the social context and expectations of others. As suggested by the persuasion literature, personal relevance increases involvement and the use of the more engaged systematic processing route. Applying this to work contexts, we argue that personal relevance will have a motivational effect by energizing employees to engage in more cognitive processing with respect to challenging-promotive behavior such as voice. Employees who feel that an issue of importance to them is at stake are more likely to deliberate and engage in voice.

Proposition 3: The higher the personal relevance of the issue, the more the cognitive elaboration with respect to voice.

Psychological Safety

Psychological safety captures the extent to which individuals feel free and safe to express thoughts and ideas at work (Kahn, 1990; May, Gilson and Harter, 2004). Psychological safety has been linked to engagement at work (May et al., 2004) as well as to team learning (Edmondson, 1999), and employee voice (Detert and Burris, 2007). Systematic processing from an ELM perspective requires a careful examination of the issues at hand (Petty and Wegener, 1999). Since voice behavior may challenge the status-quo, employees must experience a sense of psychological safety in order to engage in careful consideration of voice alternatives. For instance, Detert and Burris (2007) argued that “in keeping with the argument that employees estimate perceived costs prior to speaking up, psychological safety (the belief that engaging in risky behaviors like voice will not lead to personal harm) has been described as a key *affect-laden cognition* influencing voice” (p. 871, italics ours).

In the absence of psychological safety in the workplace, employees may deliberately choose to withhold voice behaviors, thus, engaging in what has been referred to as defensive or acquiescent silence (Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero, 2003). If psychological safety is present, on the other hand, employees should feel empowered to consider voice behaviors, which would increase their cognitive engagement and the extent of systematic processing with respect to challenging-promotive behaviors such as voice.

Proposition 4: The higher the psychological safety, the more the cognitive elaboration with respect to voice.

Factors Impeding Cognitive Elaboration

Role Overload

Employees might feel that excessive activities are expected from them, given the existing amount of time, their abilities, and other organizational constraints; in other words, they experience role overload (Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman, 1970) which will likely decrease cognitive elaboration. For instance, role overload has been linked to a range of negative consequences such as decreased perceptions of safety climate and safety consciousness on jobs that require attention to safety (Barling, Loughlin, and Kelloway, 2002), decreased spontaneous helping behavior due to the increased emphasis placed on task performance (Wright, George, Farnsworth, and McMahan, 1993), decreased positive influence of organizational resources on self-efficacy, which makes the relationships for self-efficacy and goal level with performance insignificant (Brown, Jones and Leigh, 2005).

Further, Deckop, Mangel and Cirka (1999) hypothesized that strong pay-for-performance linkages (i.e. link between incentives for task performance) decrease OCB in the presence of low employee commitment. This is based on the idea that setting high expectations in the job performance domain by emphasizing pay-for-performance decreases the willingness of employees to engage in non-task behaviors, especially if they are not highly committed to the company. Further, research on goal-setting by Schweitzer and colleagues has suggested that unmet goals can have negative effects by prompting individuals to engage in unethical behavior (Schweitzer, Ordóñez, and Douma, 2004). Thus, the desire to fulfill job requirements in the presence of job overload may focus cognitive resources on job task performance. Applied to voice behaviors, feelings of role overload should detract from cognitive elaboration and enhance heuristic processing with respect to voice behavior.

Proposition 5: The higher the role overload, the less the cognitive elaboration with respect to voice.

Time Pressure

Using similar arguments, we also propose that when employees experience a sense of time pressure – pressure to accomplish more in shorter periods of time - they will engage in less cognitive elaboration relative to voice. For instance, the literature on negotiation has shown that time pressure tends to lead to quicker negotiations often leading to sub-optimal outcomes (Carnevale and Lawler, 1986; Ross and Wieland, 1996). Carnevale and Lawler (1986) demonstrated that time pressure combined with an individualistic orientation decreased the extent of information exchange between negotiating parties. Further, under high time pressure negotiators sent more pressing and less inaction messages (at later rounds in the negotiation), providing an indication of their desire to settle the negotiations quickly regardless of the extent to which outcomes are optimal (Ross and Wieland, 1996). In addition, time pressure may cause more mismatching in negotiation (Smith, Pruitt, and Carnevale, 1982).

On the basis of the negotiation studies, we can infer that time pressure reduces the ability to process information systematically, thus, leading to more heuristic processing. Moreover, the literature on creativity also suggests that time pressure may have a role in the process of generating creative ideas. For instance, Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, and Herron (1996) argued that workload pressures (including time pressure) would serve as impediments to a creative environment. Even though they did not find direct empirical evidence for the negative effect of workload pressures, their theory suggested that indeed, in some cases time

pressure may be detrimental to creativity. Baer and Oldham (1996) found a negative linear relationship between time pressure and creative performance. They further hypothesized and found a more complex relationship such that when support for creativity was high, the relationship between intermediate time pressure and creativity was positive whereas under high time pressure, the relationship became negative. Under time pressure, employees need to focus on speedy processing. To meet goals, they are likely to take short cuts and use heuristics. Thus, an emphasis on speed and rapid processing as indicated by time pressure should enhance heuristic processing with respect to voice. This is because time pressure reduces the time for cognitive elaboration.

Proposition 6: The higher the time pressure, the less the cognitive elaboration with respect to voice.

Boundary Conditions: Modifying the Relationship between Cognitive Elaboration and Voice Behaviors

Schemas: Building Blocks for Thinking

While cognitive elaboration captures the extent to which employees engage in thinking, the concept is silent about the presence or absence of knowledge structures that might impede or facilitate the process. Knowledge structures, such as schemata, can illuminate the connection between cognitive elaboration and behavior. As noted by philosophers (Kant, 1957) and later by social psychologists (Bartlett, 1938; Bruner, 1957), schemata are fundamental cognitive structures. Concretely, “schemata ... lie at the foundation of our perceptions. The schema of a triangle can exist nowhere else than in thought and it indicates a rule of the synthesis of the imagination in regard to figures in space” (Kant, 1957). Closer to the organizational world, and in more general terms, schemas are preconceptions of theories applied to the social world (Fiske, 1995). These knowledge structures include self, person, role, and event schemas (Fiske and Taylor, 1984; Taylor and Crocker, 1981) and should enhance our understanding of the connection between cognitive elaboration and voice. Extending this, we focus below on the role of self-construal.

From the possible ways of self-construal (e.g., schematics vs. aschematics; Markus, 1977; Markus and Wurf, 1987; ideal and pragmatic, Kivetz and Tyler, 2007) the independent – interdependent continuum of self-perception has the most relevance from a decision making perspective. In general, individuals can engage in individual, relational, or collective types of self-construal (Brewer and Gardner, 1996), and each of these has unique correlates. Individual self-construal relies on comparisons with others, leading to a sense of uniqueness derived from comparisons and a focus on self-interest. Relational construal focuses on the individual in dyadic relationships, while collective self-construal involves identification with the group (see Brewer and Gardner, 1996; also, for a more detailed discussion of how self-construal relates to frames of references, goals and motives, see Flynn, 2005).

As for empirical studies, self-construal has been studied in relationship to organizational outcomes such as fairness, commitment, and discretionary behaviors (e.g., Johnson and Chang, 2006; Johnson, Selenta, and Lord, 2006). Individuals with collective self-concepts tend to have high levels of affective organizational commitment whereas those who construe themselves in individual terms tend to focus on inter-individual comparisons that emphasize

uniqueness and distinctiveness in these relationships (Johnson and Chang, 2006). Extending these conceptual arguments and findings, we suggest that employees with collective self-construal will adopt a frame of reference involving the group and will engage in exchanges that involve less immediate reciprocation.

Given that voice can be viewed, especially in the short run, as risky since others may not appreciate suggestions for change (Nemeth and Staw, 1989), we propose that collective self-construal schemas will strengthen the relationship between cognitive elaboration and voice. In other words, those who define themselves in terms of their group affiliations and identity will be more willing to act upon their ideas and take the risk of speaking up. Thus, collective self-construal should enhance the elaboration – voice link (compared to individual or relational self-construal).

Proposition 7: Employee self-construal schemas will moderate the relationship between cognitive elaboration and voice behavior, such that having a strong collective self-construal schema will strengthen the positive relationship between elaboration and voice.

Scripts: Building Blocks for Doing

Scripts (or event schemas) depict appropriate sequences of events in social situations (Fiske, 1995; Schank and Abelson, 1977). For example, an employee may have ideas for ways to improve existing procedures but may not have a cognitive script for understanding how to express these ideas for change appropriately and effectively in a particular context. Scripts help employees make sense of potential ways micro-sequences of actions can unfold. They also help employees anticipate specific consequences that are likely to occur as a function of specific behaviors. Thus, cognitive elaboration is a precursor of action (Fiske, 1995) in the presence of scripts, such that employees will be more likely to speak up and engage in voice when they have scripts that allow them to engage efficiently and productively in the behavior (e.g., voice). Two types of scripts have relevance to voice: weak versus strong and low versus high situational specificity. Weak scripts organize expectations about events or behaviors without clarity of specifying more detailed aspects such as sequences or substitutability of behaviors. In contrast, strong scripts stipulate both event expectations and more detailed aspects, including sequences, variations of scripts or tracks (Abelson, 1981). Likewise, situational scripts can vary from low to high in specificity to a particular context such as sequences of events for specific situations or planning scripts consisting of particular plans for action (Schank and Abelson, 1977).

Applying these ideas to our focus on factors predicting voice, we suggest that the existence of strong scripts (outlining sequences of events) and of scripts with high situational specificity (Lord and Kernan, 1987) will strengthen the positive relationship between cognitive elaboration and voice. In other words, having knowledge of behavior sequences viewed as appropriate in a particular situation will make it more likely that employees will go beyond elaboration and speak up by voicing their ideas and suggestions for change. In contrast, in the absence of strong scripts detailing successful voice behaviors or in the presence of scripts wherein sequences are uncertain or the components of the terms for the required “performance” are unclear (Gioia and Poole, 1984), employees will be less likely to express their ideas, concerns, and suggestions even if they have engaged in cognitive elaboration.

Proposition 8: Strong scripts and situation-specific scripts will moderate the relationship between cognitive elaboration and voice such that strong scripts (from past behavioral episodes) and situation-specific scripts (from prior experience and/or observation in the situation) will strengthen the positive relationship.

Expected Benefits Based on Cost-Benefit Analyses

From a decision-making standpoint, rational decision-makers tend to engage in behaviors which they think will increase positive outcomes and minimize negative ones (Connolly, Arkes, and Hammond, 2000; Tesser and Shaffer, 1990). Since voice at work involves taking risks and is not always viewed favorably (Milliken, Morrison, and Hewlin, 2003), the link between elaboration and voice should also be influenced by assessment of expected costs and benefits. In decision-making, rational decision-makers estimate probabilities for desired and undesired outcomes based on their behaviors and tend to select the decision or behavior with the highest utility. Similarly, in the motivation literature, the valence-instrumentality-expectancy framework (Parker et al., 2006; Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Vroom, 1964) identifies three elements to motivation: valence is expected desirability of an outcome, instrumentality is extent to which a behavior is expected to produce a desired outcome, and expectancy is the personal belief that one can engage in the behavior.

We suggest that cost-benefit analysis captures judgments of valence and instrumentality, which have not been extensively tested with respect to voice behaviors. Higher expected benefits and lower expected costs should increase judgments of valence and instrumentality. Parker and colleagues (2006), for instance described taking charge (Morrison and Phelps, 1999) as involving “a *calculated* decision process in which individuals assess the likelihood that they will be successful as well as the likely consequences of their action, such as whether the risks outweigh the benefits” (p. 638, italics ours). Applied to our model, we suggest that cognitive elaboration will be more strongly related to voice when expected benefits are high (and relative costs low). Thus, based on rational decision-making analysis and cognitive evaluation of costs and benefits of voice, we propose an interaction wherein expected benefits will enhance the cognitive elaboration – voice relationship.

Proposition 9: Expected benefits based on cost-benefit analysis will moderate the relationship between cognitive elaboration and voice, such that high expected benefits will strengthen the positive relationship.

Self-Regulatory Modes: Preference for Assessment Versus Locomotion

Voice behavior can also be considered from a goal pursuit and self-regulatory perspectives. Based on self-regulation theories (e.g., Carver and Scheier, 1990; Higgins, 1989), Kruglanski, Thompson, Higgins, Atash, Pierro, Shah and Spiegel (2000) conceptualized goal pursuit as a function of two self-regulatory modes: assessment and locomotion. Employees with a proclivity for *assessment* (“do the right thing”) focus on evaluating goals and the means to reach end states (Higgins, Kruglanski, and Pierro, 2003). They emphasize comparison of alternatives and searching for new options before engaging in action. For example, Avnet and Higgins (2003) demonstrated that individuals with preferences for assessment compare all the options on all existing attribute dimensions when choosing among a set of alternatives. In contrast, employees with a preference for *locomotion* (“just do it”) focus on goal attainment (i.e., the movement from the current to the desired end

state). They are proactive and tend to take action, with less concern about carefully considering options. For example, Avnet and Higgins (2003) showed that those with a preference for locomotion eliminated the worst option at each step and made decisions faster. They were quicker to act. Applying these individual difference tendencies to our model of cognitive elaboration and voice, we suggest that self-regulatory modes, conceptualized as preference for assessment versus preference for locomotion, will function as moderators in our model.

Specifically, we propose that the self-regulatory preference for assessment will strengthen the relationships between facilitating factors (role conceptualization, personal relevance, and psychological safety; presented in propositions 2 to 4) and cognitive elaboration. For example, the positive relationship between role conceptualization (viewing voice as a role expectation by employees) and cognitive elaboration will be especially strong for those with a preference for assessment. Likewise, personal relevance will be more strongly related to cognitive elaboration for those high in preference for assessment. Similarly, the psychological safety – cognitive elaboration link will be strengthened for those with this self-regulation tendency. In each of these instance of moderation, the factors that enhance cognitive elaboration will be further strengthened because a preference for assessment inclines employees to be thorough in their analysis and consideration of alternatives in an effort to “do the right thing” (Higgins et al., 2003; Kruglanski, Pierro, Higgins, and Capozza, 2007), and thus should further enhance the underlying positive relationship.

Proposition 10: Preference for assessment will moderate (strengthen) the relationships between enhancing factors such as (a) role conceptualization, (b) personal relevance, and (c) psychological safety and cognitive elaboration with respect to voice.

In contrast, and consistent with the action orientation of employees with a preference for locomotion, we propose that this second self-regulatory mode is more relevant to the connection between cognitive elaboration and voice - that it will positively moderate this relationship. Assessment and locomotion are theoretically (and empirically) independent (e.g., correlations of -.14 to .13 across four samples; Kruglanski et al., 2007), and individuals can be “high on both assessment and locomotion” (Kruglanski et al., 2000, p. 794). As used in our framework, assessment operates primarily in pre-decision stages (more cognitive) and locomotion in post-decision stages (implementation-related). This positioning is consistent with the complex patterns presented by Kruglanski and colleagues (2000, p. 804-805), demonstrating that assessment is negatively and locomotion is positively related to action initiation. In other words, individuals in assessment modes prefer to dwell (and even ruminate) on decisions, engage in evaluations, social comparisons, and look for validation. Less concerned about these issues, their locomotion-based counterparts are more likely to focus on getting to action. Importantly, locomotion modes are also associated with a high need for cognitive closure. Once cognitive elaboration ends, those who are proactive and prefer to “just to do it” versus “doing the right thing” (Higgins et al., 2003) will emphasize movement toward goals, and this will strengthen the cognitive elaboration to voice relationship.

Proposition 11: Preference for locomotion will moderate (strengthen) the positive relationship between cognitive elaboration and voice.

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, we focus on cognitive processes that influence voice behavior as a unique type of OCB. Since voice is discretionary, it is surprising that prior research has not considered more elaborate models that explicate cognitive processes. We set out by delineating how challenging-promotive behaviors are distinct from affiliative-promotive behaviors. Our research is driven by the assumption that the distinctly change-oriented nature of voice sets it apart as a unique behavior, which is likely to require more cognitive attention than other forms of citizenship behavior. For example, although Konovsky and Organ (1996) contrasted affective and cognitive components as antecedents of OCB, little research has expanded upon their initial ideas. Given the rich literature on elaboration and decision making, this gap is unfortunate. This chapter is a first step toward expanding our understanding of antecedents of voice by going beyond social exchange, personality, individual differences, and situational predictors (LePine and Van Dyne, 2001; Detert and Burris 2007) to focus more specifically on cognitive decision making predictors of voice.

Thus, we aimed to redress the balance and propose that voice can stem from cognitive elaboration. Our emphasis on cognition is consistent with studies on voice or issue-selling, which include general aspects of decision making such as context evaluation (Dutton and Ashford, 1993), sensemaking (Dutton et al., 1997), and calculations (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). At the same time, we advance beyond broad concepts included in prior studies by providing a more detailed model based on specific cognitive processes that should have special relevance to voice.

Because its versatility in capturing a continuum of decision making and cognitive elaboration, the ELM model has inspired theoretical and empirical applications to organizational issues including marketing segmentation decisions (Eckert and Goldsby, 1997), interviewers' and job seekers' decision processes (Forret and Turban, 1996; Jones et al., 2006), and ethical decision-making (Street et al., 2001), among others. In this chapter, we integrated elaboration likelihood principles with the existing literature on voice to build a framework focused on predicting voice behavior at work. We focused on both sides of the predictor space, by presenting factors that can enhance (e.g., role conceptualization) or detract from (e.g., role overload) cognitive elaboration, and by proposing ways these relationships are strengthened or attenuated by moderators. One key contribution of this chapter is that it complements existing frameworks explaining citizenship behaviors in general and voice in particular, which use as predictors individual differences (e.g., LePine and Van Dyne, 2001), social exchange (Masterson et al., 2000; Settoon et al., 1996), leadership influences (e.g., Detert and Burris, 2007), and contextual factors (e.g., Ashford et al., 1998) with a focus of underlying cognitive processes.

Another contribution of the current research is in directing researchers' attention to a variety of intervening factors that modify how cognitive processing influences behavior. In addition to their position as moderators in our model, the mechanisms we present (i.e., schemas, scripts, self-regulation modes) are important but neglected correlates or precursors of voice. For example, the existence of appropriate schemas to determine voice originators (e.g., which employees, based on their self and role schemas), targets (based on person schemas), and favorable media for the action (based on situational schemas) remain scarcely

theorized upon in current models and, as a result, under-investigated. Our propositions can provide impetus to more theoretical development in this direction. Similarly, we have suggested that self-regulation modes, including preferences for assessment and locomotion are additional factors that influence elaboration (assessment) and voice (locomotion). (e.g., Benjamin and Flynn, 2006; Kruglanski et al., 2007).

Theoretical Implications

The model and the propositions provide several theoretical contributions. First, our focus on cognitive factors leading to challenging behaviors in the form of voice opens a new area of inquiry, which is different from existing models of voice. Cognitive elaboration is central to the framework, and provides information in terms of processes (elaboration extent) consistent with elaboration likelihood principles and postulates (Petty and Wegener, 1999). In addition, in an effort to illuminate the dynamics of the decision process, we introduce content-related cognitive aspects, in the forms of schemas and scripts. These predictors are not only typically unexamined in the current voice literature, but they can also inform research designs and should have practical implications for managers and employees.

As a second contribution, our model recognizes a continuum from low elaboration (heuristic processing) to high elaboration, with low elaboration (heuristic mode) requiring relatively less effort while high elaboration (systematic mode) entailing the expenditure of more cognitive resources. Since organizations are arenas where specific goals have to be accomplished, they provide limited resources, as well as time and resource constraints (Amabile et al., 1996; Baer and Oldham, 2006). Thus, factors in the organization as they pertain to the individual motivation can lead to routinization and/or mindlessness (Ashforth and Fried, 1988) as well as intentional change and alertness (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). Therefore, both the constraints and enhancing factors in the context and in the motivational orientations of employees should be recognized as central to cognitive elaboration. We incorporate both aspects in our model, in an effort to encompass a broader spectrum of cognitive processes. A similar integrative trend has emerged, for example, in the organizational justice literature, where researchers proposed that fairness-related judgments can incorporate both systematic and heuristic aspects with equity theory (Adams, 1965) representing more systematic processing, and fairness heuristic theory (Lind, Kray, and Thompson, 2001) representing more heuristic processing (see the review by Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, and Rupp, 2001).

Our development of the nomological network around this basic cognitive structure, accounts for both positive (enhancing) and negative (constraining) cognitive elaboration preconditions. Although research on voice has attempted to incorporate these polarities in more specific forms (e.g., the influence of leaders' supportive and abusive behaviors on voice; Burris, Detert, and Chiaburu, 2008), simultaneous consideration of both positive and negative antecedents is promising, especially when cognitive aspects are involved. We suggest that discretionary behaviors, especially those that are challenging and change-oriented such as voice, can benefit from models that acknowledge both enhancing and constraining influences, rather than in isolation. In addition, since positive and negative influences are not necessarily balanced or symmetrical (e.g., Baumeister, Bratslavsky,

Finkenauer, and Vohs, 2001), including both in the same model can enhance predictive power, provide insights, and spur new directions of investigation.

Finally, we hope that our propositions will stimulate further research, including additional conceptual development as well as empirical testing related to the cognitive nature of voice. One of the strengths of the model is its testability. To date, most voice behavior research has used field designs and questionnaires. In contrast, our propositions are amenable to laboratory experiments which can address causality. For example, schemas and scripts can be embedded in conditions (scenarios, task framing) and tested in experimental settings where researchers vary role conceptualizations, personal relevance, psychological safety, role overload, and time pressure. In addition, locomotion and assessment modes of self-regulation have been successfully manipulated with subjects in laboratory conditions (Avnet and Higgins, 2003) and could also be included in an experimental study.

Implications for Practice

If, as surmised above, voice is a function of cognitive elaboration, which can be influenced in various ways (e.g., by direct leaders or by features of the organizational context, such as role overload), there are implications for those who want to encourage and those who want to engage in voice. From a vertical and hierarchical perspective, leaders can facilitate employee voice by influencing role conceptualizations, emphasizing personal relevance, and creating psychologically safe work environments. They also can reduce role overload and time pressure. This is consistent with research that demonstrates the importance of leaders and leadership for voice and issue selling (e.g., Ashford et al., 1998; Burris, Detert, and Chiaburu, 2008; Detert and Burris, 2007; Parker et al., 2006). Focusing on more concrete applications, leaders can influence the distal predictors of our framework in ways that should enhance cognitive elaboration and increase voice. Leaders in organizations can also institute practices such as formally setting aside time for employees to engage in contemplation of voice behaviors, a practice which has precedent in the high-tech world at companies such as Google (Warner, 2002).

For employees, our model highlights factors that should facilitate or constrain cognitive elaboration and actual voice. Knowing that role overload is likely to reduce cognitive elaboration can provide helpful insights for employees who value voice. For example, they may want to set aside blocks of time devoted to thinking about suggestions for changes to work processes – when they ignore other role demands in an attempt to reduce feelings of role overload or time pressure.

In our propositions above, we proposed that schemas, scripts, and self-regulatory modes of assessment and locomotion change the basic relationships in our model. From a practical perspective, these relationships offer important possibilities for creating opportunities for voice. According to situated cognition theories, scripts are not exclusively internal to an individual and can be influenced by the organizational context (e.g., Elsbach, Barr, and Hargadon, 2005; Lant, 2002). In contexts where this is possible, managers can purposefully design and reinforce schemas consistent with speaking up. They can also highlight particular scripts so subordinates can set aside time for elaboration and understand how to express voice effectively in that context. These practical suggestions hinge on several preconditions,

including empirical research that supports our model and predictions as well as generalizability of the findings to practitioner settings.

Future Research

Some notable limitations, determined by the boundaries of the model have to be mentioned before presenting ideas for future research. Our focus on cognitive processes based on application of the elaboration likelihood model (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986) can be enriched with other aspects of dual process models. For example, viewing issues through the lens of heuristic and systematic models (HSM; Chaiken, 1980; see Chen and Chaiken, 1999 for a recent review) should facilitate understanding voice decisions based on a multiple-motive framework. Individuals may consider whether or not to speak up based on motives such as accuracy, defense, and/or impression management (Chen and Chaiken, 1999) since research links motivational orientations with proactive behaviors (e.g., Chiaburu, Marinova, and Lim, 2007). In more general terms, the framework can also be enriched by incorporating emotion and affect (e.g., George and Brief, 1992) at various stages of the model. For example, in parallel to the low cognitive elaboration predicted as a consequence of impeding factors, employees can experience a variety of negative emotions (from frustration to anger), resulting from a context-constrained inability to speak up. Thus, cognitive elaboration colored by negative emotions (e.g., anger, fear, frustration) can affect the types of voice employees engage in and the resulting organizational actions, in the light of studies showing that only appropriate expression is accepted in organizations (depending on gender, status, or form of expression; Geddes and Callister, 2007; Tiedens, 2000).

Second, some of the issues presented in this chapter in their simplest form (e.g., such as the emphasis on “inside-the-head schemas and scripts” and dispositional modes of self-regulation (locomotion and assessment) can be further expanded. As a first step, we contrasted collective with individual and relational schemas, but further distinctions are possible. Indeed, individuals with both relational and individual schemas can speak up, although their motivational bases, venues for voicing issues, and expected outcomes could be different. For instance, a person with an individual self-construal may be prompted to speak up when voice would benefit their individual standing in the group whereas a person with a collective self-construal may experience enhanced motivation to engage in voice when voice would benefit the collective. Further, schemas and scripts can be specific to the individual and measured as such (e.g., independent and interdependent self-construals: Singelis, 1994), or activated externally, as explored in various models of situated cognition (e.g., Lant, 2002). Thus, a more detailed elaboration can be offered on how schemas and scripts are created and maintained (Ashforth and Fried, 1988), become available and accessible at a specific point in time or in an event sequence, as well as what their unique impact may be on decisions and behaviors. Similarly, assessment and locomotion, the two self-regulation modes presented above can be measured as dispositions (Benjamin and Flynn, 2006) and also activated by specific contexts. We did not explore the activation potential of available knowledge structures (termed accessibility; Higgins, 1996) in this chapter. This is, however, a fruitful area of investigation. Similar to energy cells, knowledge units such as schemas exist in long-term memory and become accessible and are subsequently used for judgment and decision making when charged with energy (e.g., Higgins, Bargh, and Lombardi, 1985).

Looking at specifics of the model, we did not discuss at length the interplay between elaboration and other types of individual differences – which are central to the elaboration likelihood model because of the postulate that elaboration is a function of the individuals' motivation and ability (Petty and Wegener, 1999) – and how this might modify relationships in our model. For example, individuals differ in the extent to which they prefer simple, structured, and predictable actions; they also vary in the extent to which they like to think, handle arguments and make decisions; finally, while some people need firm answers to questions, others are more tolerant of uncertainties and ambiguities. These cognitive factors, termed need for structure (Neuberg and Newsom, 1993), need for cognition (Cacioppo and Petty, 1982; Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, and Jarvis, 1996), and need for closure (Kruglanski, 1989) are central to cognitive models and can be incorporated (both as direct influences and intervening mechanisms) in future models of voice. Overall, researchers can refine and extend the proposed relationships to extend and build upon the preliminary model we have presented in this chapter.

One of our main objectives was to provide a testable model and, as a result, we recommend that future research should test the relationships we have proposed. For some of the constructs (e.g., psychological safety, role overload, role definitions), measurement instruments are readily available (e.g., Edmondson, 1999; Tepper et al., 2001; Thiagarajan, Chakrabarty, and Taylor, 2006). Others, including our central construct, cognitive elaboration and its two extremes (heuristic and systematic processing), need thoughtful design to capture the extent to which employees think about engaging in voice and how this situates them on a continuum from low to high elaboration (for examples of designs, see Petty and Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann, 1983).

In a field study, for example, researchers could measure distal and intermediate constructs at two different times, with voice measured later. Alternatively, laboratory experiments could capture, with higher precision, the modes of cognitive processing such as collecting information on the extent of elaboration, both in terms of degree of elaboration (heuristic or systematic) and content (existing schemas and scripts). Researchers could also examine the extent to which assignment to high versus low role overload influences cognitive elaboration and voice. Ideally, combinations or studies executed in both field and laboratory settings can increase the validity of the inferences.

An additional avenue for future research could consider quality of voice behaviors following cognitive elaboration. For instance, we do not explicitly address more distal consequences of voice in light of more or less cognitive elaboration prior to voice. Specifically, does more cognitive elaboration lead to higher quality of voice behaviors? Are there situations in which triggering a more heuristic process of voice behavior may be beneficial? Are voice behaviors based on more cognitive elaboration viewed more positively by leaders or peers in the organization? All of these questions go beyond our current model, which takes a first step at recognizing the importance of cognitive decision-making processes involved in voice behavior.

Finally, future research can also address boundaries of our model. To maintain parsimony, we focused on one particular type of challenging-promotive behavior, voice. It is reasonable, however, to ask whether the model has to be substantially modified for other behaviors from the challenging-promotive (Van Dyne et al., 1995) or proactive (Grant and Ashford, 2007) behavioral sets. Based on similarities between voice and taking charge as well as personal initiative such as an emphasis on changing the existing order of things and

challenging the status-quo, some parts of the model may operate similarly for other promotive challenging behaviors. For instance, taking charge involves changing how one's job is executed (Morrison and Phelps, 1999) and personal initiative is based on proactive behavior (Fay and Frese, 2001). At the same time, other parts of the model may not apply to other promotive-challenging behaviors. For example, taking charge and personal initiative assume that employees have the latitude to engage in changes, possibly because some of these behaviors are required by their roles (Grant and Ashford, 2007). Conversely, voice behaviors are more risky, and involve the intermediate step of speaking up (often to one's supervisor) before engaging in changes. Thus, cognitive elaboration and the content of the thoughts likely differs for voice ("should I do it or not?") versus initiative or proactivity ("how can I do this better?"). Consequently, it is possible that psychological safety is less important for cognitive decisions related to taking charge or initiative compared to voice.

CONCLUSION

We started this chapter with several objectives. Namely, we wanted to emphasize the unique nature of voice behavior as a form of challenging-promotive behaviors that is distinct from affiliative-promotive behaviors such as helping. Specifically, we built upon the idea that promotive-challenging behaviors such as voice entail constructively *challenging* the status-quo and therefore, are likely to require a higher level of cognitive engagement on the part of employees. Building on the ELM model of persuasion as well as extending existing research on different forms of proactive behaviors with an emphasis on voice in particular, we advanced a model of factors that influence cognitive engagement of employees with respect to voice behaviors and their subsequent voice behavior. Further, we refined our model by proposing that schemas, scripts, locomotion/assessment mode, and cost-benefit analysis moderate relationships in the model. We hope this chapter stimulates additional theory and empirical research on employee voice.

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