ROCKING THE BOAT BUT KEEPING IT STEADY: THE ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION IN EMPLOYEE VOICE

ADAM M. GRANT
University of Pennsylvania

Intense emotions such as frustration, anger, and dissatisfaction often drive employees to speak up. Yet the very emotions that spur employees to express voice may compromise their ability to do so constructively, preventing managers from reacting favorably. I propose that to speak up frequently and constructively, employees need knowledge about effective strategies for managing emotions. Building on theories of emotion regulation, I develop a theoretical model that explains the role of managing emotions in the incidence and outcomes of voice. In a field study at a health care company, emotion regulation knowledge (1) predicted more frequent voice, (2) mediated by the emotional labor strategies of deep acting and surface acting, and (3) enhanced the contributions of voice to performance evaluations. These results did not generalize to helping behaviors, demonstrating that emotion regulation uniquely affects challenging but not affiliative interpersonal citizenship behaviors. This research introduces emotion regulation as a novel influence on voice and its consequences.

In an increasingly dynamic, competitive, and uncertain economy, organizations depend on ideas from employees (Morrison, 2011; Senge, 1990). The growing pace and complexity of work presents new challenges for leaders and managers to anticipate, identify, and respond to all of the threats and opportunities that loom on the horizon (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). As a result, leaders and managers need employees to express voice—a proactive behavior that involves speaking up with suggestions for improvement (Detert & Burris, 2007; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Organizational scholars have assembled evidence that employee voice enables organizations to learn from their mistakes, facilitating the correction and prevention of financially and socially costly errors (Edmondson, 1996, 1999); obtain creative ideas and new perspectives, increasing the likelihood of innovation (Zhou & George, 2001); foster divergent thinking, enhancing the quality of decisions and solutions (Nemeth, 1986); and discern threats and opportunities, catalyzing important changes (Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Mor-

rison & Milliken, 2000). A lack of voice from employees has been implicated in organizational disasters ranging from the explosion of the space shuttle *Challenger* (Vaughan, 1996; Whyte, 1998) to serious medical errors (Blatt, Christianson, Sutcliffe, & Rosenthal, 2006; Edmondson, 1996) to airline crashes (Gladwell, 2008; Merritt & Helmreich, 1996).

Despite its potential contributions to organizations, voice is a risky endeavor for employees, as it challenges the status quo and often threatens managers (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Burris, 2012; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Numerous studies have shown that many employees perceive managers as discouraging, penalizing, or punishing voice (e.g., Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011; Miceli & Near, 1995; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Providing evidence that these negative outcomes extend beyond perceptions, Seibert, Kraimer, and Crant (2001) found that engaging in voice behavior was negatively associated with career progression, measured by promotions and salary growth. Overall, several studies have shown mixed results for the role of voice in performance evaluations, indicating that managers do not always give employees credit for speaking up (Burris, 2012; Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). Recently, organizational scholars have demonstrated that the consequences

of voice vary among employees: some employees who speak up receive more favorable performance evaluations than others (Burris, 2012; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009).

Managers are especially unlikely to reward voice when employees experience negative emotions (Grant et al., 2009). When employees experience frustration, anger, or dissatisfaction, these negative emotions often leak into the suggestions that they express (Chiaburu, Marinova, & Van Dyne, 2008; Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009). Managers tend to view suggestions expressed with negative emotions as complaints or criticisms, rather than as constructive recommendations for improvement (Grant et al., 2009). As a result, Burris (2012: 870) argued that when employees express voice "using anger or other dominant displays of emotion," they are likely to encounter "more hostile outcomes."

Unfortunately, negative emotions are pervasive in voice decisions and expressions. The negative emotion of fear is a major factor that discourages employees from speaking up, causing them to choose silence over voice (Ashford et al., 1998; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Milliken et al., 2003; Morrison, 2011). Employees may be motivated to overcome this fear of speaking up when they experience strong negative emotions such as anger, frustration, and dissatisfaction (Chiaburu et al., 2008; Hirschman, 1970; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Withey & Cooper, 1989; Zhou & George, 2001). However, the same negative emotions that spur employees to speak up may undermine their ability to do so constructively. As Kish-Gephart et al. (2009: 182) summarized, when employees are driven to speak up by intense emotions such as anger, "they may be less thoughtful and more passionate with their language and delivery than a less angry person would be." This presents a paradox: negative emotions may increase the frequency of voice but decrease its effectiveness. Little theory and research exist to shed light on the emotional forces that motivate employees to speak up and enable them to do so in ways that are valued by managers.

In this article, I address this puzzle by introducing an emotion regulation perspective on voice. Years ago, Meyerson and Scully (1995: 587) speculated that employees can effectively speak up to challenge the status quo by being "simultaneously hot- and cool-headed. The heat fuels action and change; the coolness shapes the action and change into legitimate and viable forms." Despite the intuitive appeal of these arguments, sparse research has

theoretically developed or empirically examined how employees maintain an appropriate balance between "hot" and "cool." Building on theories of emotion regulation (Côté, 2005; Grandey, 2000, 2003; Gross, 1998), I propose that to speak up, and do so effectively, employees need emotion regulation knowledge—the awareness of constructive techniques for managing feelings (Côté, DeCelles, McCarthy, Van Kleef, & Hideg, 2011). When employees possess strong emotion regulation knowledge, they can marshal sufficient levels of frustration, anger, or dissatisfaction to speak up in the face of fear, but also temper these emotions to express their suggestions in a constructive manner. As a result, I hypothesize that emotion regulation knowledge enables employees to choose effective strategies for managing feelings, motivating them to speak up more frequently and in ways that garner more favorable evaluations from managers. I test these hypotheses in a field study using multisource, time-lagged data from an optometry company.

My research offers four key theoretical contributions to knowledge about voice. First, I introduce emotion regulation as an important but neglected influence on voice behavior. Whereas scholars have begun to emphasize the effects of experienced emotions on voice, the present research demonstrates how the knowledge and strategies that employees use to manage these emotions play a central role in voice. Second, my research reveals how voice can be shaped not only by "will-do" motivational factors, but also by "can-do" knowledge factors. Third, an emotion regulation lens offers a novel explanation of why the performance evaluation consequences of voice vary between employees. Fourth, my research shows how emotion regulation is uniquely pertinent to voice as an exemplar of a challenging interpersonal citizenship behavior, revealing that emotion regulation is less important for affiliative interpersonal citizenship behaviors such as helping. Together, these contributions enrich our understanding of the critical ways in which emotion regulation can shape the incidence and outcomes of voice.

AN EMOTION REGULATION PERSPECTIVE ON VOICE

According to emotion regulation theory, employees' actions and effectiveness are shaped not only by emotional states, but also by how they manage these states (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998). When

employees engage in emotion regulation, they are striving to "increase, maintain, or decrease one or more components of an emotion" (Côté, 2005: 510). Evidence shows that employees differ in their abilities to regulate emotions, which represent a core dimension of emotional intelligence (for a review, see Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade [2008]). Emotion regulation abilities are typically subdivided into two closely related skills: managing one's own emotions and managing others' emotions (Côté, 2005; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Some employees possess highly developed capabilities for emotion regulation, demonstrating considerable skill in generating, intensifying, prolonging, curtailing, and suppressing feelings in themselves and their interaction partners, whereas other employees tend to be less effective in their efforts to modify feelings (Côté & Hideg, 2010; Mayer et al., 2008). Emotion regulation skills are thought to be influenced in part by general mental ability, which affects capabilities to learn, reason, solve problems, and process complex information (Côté & Miners, 2006; Mayer et al., 2008). However, emotion regulation skills also develop over time through specific experiences and interests that encourage the acquisition of knowledge about how to manage emotions (Côté & Miners, 2006; Izard, Fine, Schultz, & Mostow, 2001).

Knowledge lies at the heart of emotion regulation skills and abilities (Mayer et al., 2008). Emotion regulation knowledge refers to "awareness of the most effective strategies to modify and nurture emotions in particular situations" (Côté et al., 2011: 1074). Individual differences in emotion regulation knowledge are visible as early as three years of age (Eisenberg, 2000), and longitudinal studies have shown that children who regulate emotions effectively at ages three and four are more socially competent in kindergarten (Denham, Blair, DeMulder, Levitas, Sawyer, & Auerbach-Major, 2003), adolescents with strong emotion regulation knowledge are more likely to be listed as friends by their peers (Mestre, Guil, Lopes, Salovey, & Gil-Olarte, 2006), and undergraduates with strong emotion regulation knowledge have more enjoyable and respectful interactions and are nominated by peers as more socially skilled (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schütz, Sellin, & Salovey, 2004; Lopes, Salovey, Côté, & Beers, 2005). In the workplace, several studies have shown that employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge are rated as more sociable by their coworkers and managers (Lopes, Côté, Grewal, Ka-

dis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006) and as better citizens by their managers (Côté & Miners, 2006).

Emotion regulation knowledge is likely to affect the frequency with which employees express voice. As discussed previously, fears of ego, image, and career repercussions often lead employees to withhold their ideas and suggestions (Ashford et al., 1998; Milliken et al., 2003; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Emotion regulation knowledge may enable employees to manage this fear in ways that make voice feel safer. In particular, employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge may use reactive strategies to mask their fear (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009) or proactive strategies to reappraise the act of speaking up as a challenge rather than a threat (Grandey, 2000). For example, emotion regulation knowledge may enable employees to cope more effectively with previous unsuccessful voice attempts, such as by making external attributions for negative reactions, thus preserving their confidence and efficacy (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009: 184).

Building on this notion, Gundlach, Martinko, and Douglas (2003: 234) suggested that employees can "generate the causal attributions that are least damaging to their self-efficacy beliefs through regulating the emotions these attributions might produce." In contrast, when employees lack strong emotion regulation knowledge, they may doubt their abilities to feel and express the emotions necessary to voice safely, which will discourage them from speaking up. By reducing the fear that they feel and express, emotion regulation knowledge will enhance employees' conviction that they can speak up safely by communicating their ideas clearly, confidently, and constructively (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). In this way, strong emotion regulation knowledge may help employees overcome "fear's naturally pessimistic and cautious lens, which emphasizes and exaggerates the risks of speaking up" (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009: 172), reducing the tendency to form "exaggerated conclusions about the dangers of voice" (Milliken et al., 2003: 1469). I therefore expect that emotion regulation knowledge will be positively related to the incidence of voice behavior. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 1. Emotion regulation knowledge is positively related to voice.

The Mediating Role of Emotional Labor Strategies

To provide a richer explanation of why emotion regulation knowledge contributes to voice, I draw

on theories of emotional labor. In her seminal work, Hochschild (1983) identified two different emotional labor strategies that employees use to regulate emotions: deep acting and surface acting. *Deep acting* refers to modifying emotions that one actually *experiences or feels* to produce a desired result, and *surface acting* refers to modifying the emotions that one *expresses or displays* to produce this result (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Grandey, 2003). I predict that these emotional labor strategies will each partially mediate the relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and voice.

Emotion regulation knowledge is likely to enhance the degree to which employees engage in both deep and surface acting. As Hochschild (1983: 36) explained, "feelings do not erupt spontaneously or automatically in either deep acting or surface acting. In both cases the actor has learned to intervene—either in creating the inner shape of a feeling or in shaping the outward appearance of one." Emotion regulation knowledge can accelerate this learning process and the expertise that employees develop in deep and surface acting. Kilduff, Chiaburu, and Menges (2010: 136) suggested that emotion regulation knowledge facilitates both deep and surface acting and that employees with high emotion regulation knowledge "have the abilities to control or disguise their own anger, competitiveness, pride, anxiety, and other emotions."

Emotion regulation knowledge has relevance to modifying both internal emotional experiences and external emotional expressions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). To engage in deep acting, employees need the capability to control, manage, and modify their inner feelings (Hochschild, 1983). When employees plan voice well in advance, they are likely to use emotion regulation knowledge in service of deep acting, utilizing proactive strategies to produce desirable emotions in themselves and their audiences. These deep acting efforts can be facilitated by emotion regulation knowledge that enables employees to reappraise events or deploy their attention to other events that trigger the desired emotions (Grandey, 2000). In line with this logic, a recent study showed that emotional intelligence was positively associated with deep acting (Peng, Wong, & Che, 2010). I thereby predict that emotion regulation knowledge will be associated with a higher tendency to engage in deep acting.

Although many acts of voice are planned, employees sometimes choose to speak up spontaneously without extensive preparation (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). In

these situations, lacking the planning necessary to engage in proactive strategies for deep acting, employees are likely to use emotion regulation knowledge in service of surface acting, using reactive strategies to adjust their emotional displays "in the moment." To engage in surface acting, employees need the capability to control, manage, and modify their facial feedback, body language, and vocal tone (Hochschild, 1983). In particular, surface acting can be facilitated by emotion regulation knowledge that enables employees to modulate their observable responses to events (Grandey, 2000). In developing the concept of surface acting, Hochschild (1983: 20) speculated that employees may possess different levels of "skill in such managed expression." Strong emotion regulation knowledge may facilitate employees' efforts to mask counterproductive negative emotions and strategically express both negative and positive emotions in ways that appear authentic rather than disingenuous, customizing their emotional displays to their audiences (Kilduff et al., 2010: 139). Thus, I predict that emotion regulation knowledge will be associated with higher tendencies to engage in both deep and surface acting.

Hypothesis 2. Emotion regulation knowledge is positively related to the emotional labor strategies of (a) deep acting and (b) surface acting.

In turn, I expect that deep acting and surface acting will independently contribute to voice. Research indicates that employees are most likely to speak up with ideas and suggestions for improvement when they perceive the costs as low and the benefits as high (Ashford et al., 1998; Morrison & Milliken, 2000)—in other words, that voice is safer and more worthwhile (Detert & Burris, 2007). In general, deliberate practice is one of the strongest predictors of the development of expertise (Ericsson & Charness, 1994), and past experience is known to build self-efficacy and skill (Bandura, 1977). By developing expertise and building self-efficacy, engaging in deep and surface acting may render the prospect of voice safer and more worthwhile.

When employees engage in deep acting, they gain confidence in their ability to *experience and feel* the emotions appropriate to speaking up effectively. Deep acting enables employees to genuinely experience relevant emotions, causing voice to feel safer and more worthwhile. For example, fear is a prevention-focused emotion that typically leads to avoidance and withdrawal behaviors (Carver, 2001; Frijda, 1986), favoring silence over voice (Kish-

Gephart et al., 2009). By engaging in deep acting, employees can reduce their fear or replace it with promotion-focused emotions that typically drive approach behaviors, such as determination and anger (Harmon-Jones, Schmeichel, Mennitt, & Harmon-Jones, 2011).

For example, employees may engage in deep acting to cultivate promotion-focused, approach-related positive emotions such as determination, passion, and enthusiasm. Deep acting may enable employees to feel these positive emotions through the use of techniques such as reappraising threats as opportunities (Grandey, 2000) or deploying attention to the exciting potential for their suggestions to improve the work and lives of others (Grant & Sonnentag, 2010). When deep acting facilitates these positive emotions, research suggests that they can undo negative emotions (Fredrickson, Mancuso, Branigan, & Tugade, 2000) and strengthen employees' confidence that their efforts will yield favorable results (Erez & Isen, 2002). As another example, deep acting may enable employees to channel constructive levels of anger (Kilduff et al., 2010), which encourage more optimistic assessments of risks and probabilities of success (Lerner & Keltner, 2001) and motivate confrontation (Tamir, 2009), and may thereby reduce the perceived risks of engaging in voice as a challenging behavior (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). Employees may marshal appropriate anger through deep acting, using proactive techniques such as deploying their attention to situations in which a coworker's good idea was unjustly ignored (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). The resulting genuine feelings of anger can override fear-laden pessimistic assessments of high costs and low benefits, enabling more optimistic judgments that speaking up is safe and worthwhile (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Lerner & Keltner, 2001). These examples illustrate how deep acting can facilitate voice by strengthening employees' confidence that voice will be safe and worthwhile.

When employees engage in surface acting, they gain confidence in their ability to *express* and *display* the appropriate emotions for speaking up effectively. In support of this notion, research suggests that the more frequently employees engage in surface acting, the higher the self-efficacy they experience for displaying appropriate emotions (Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2011). Surface acting can strengthen employees' confidence that they are able to alter their expressions of strong emotions that arise in the moment, rendering voice safer and more worthwhile.

Indeed, although considerable research has shown that surface acting is often related to higher stress, strain, and emotional exhaustion, several recent studies have shown that in emotionally demanding situations, surface acting can facilitate effective action (for a review, see Chi, Grandey, Diamond, and Krimmel [2011]). First, in an experience-sampling study with cheerleading camp instructors, Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, and Green (2006) found that instructors who felt negative emotions received higher emotional performance ratings when they engaged in surface acting. This evidence suggests that surface acting can be a productive strategy for managing negative emotions and engaging in effective interpersonal behavior. Second, in a field study of restaurant servers, Chi et al. (2011) found that surface acting was associated with significantly higher tips for extraverted servers, presumably because extraversion enables employees to derive greater benefits from their emotion regulation knowledge (Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). Third, in a laboratory experiment in which participants played the roles of university tour guides and debt collectors, Bono and Vey (2007: 188) found that after accounting for stress, surface acting predicted higher independent performance ratings: "Surface acting is negatively associated with emotional performance *only* to the extent that it causes stress. Once we control for stress, all types of acting may aid in effective emotional performance."

Applying this evidence to voice in the emotionally challenging context of speaking up with suggestions that challenge the status quo, surface acting may reduce employees' fears and enable them to feel more comfortable speaking up. Employees who frequently engage in surface acting are likely to feel confident that they can mask their fear, and express the negative and positive emotions necessary to speak up constructively and effectively. Thus, both deep and surface acting are likely to increase employees' beliefs that it is safe and worthwhile to speak up, enhancing the probability that they will do so. In tandem, these arguments suggest that deep and surface acting will contribute to voice and mediate the relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and voice.

Hypothesis 3. The emotional labor strategies of (a) deep acting and (b) surface acting are positively related to voice.

Hypothesis 4. The positive relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and voice

is partially mediated by (a) deep acting and (b) surface acting.

Emotion Regulation and the Performance Evaluation Consequences of Voice

Along with encouraging employees to raise suggestions more often, emotion regulation knowledge is likely to influence how managers react to their suggestions. More specifically, I propose that voice is more likely to elicit favorable performance evaluations from managers when employees have strong emotion regulation knowledge. When employees possess information about effective strategies for regulating emotions, they can express suggestions in a more constructive manner. One major barrier to receiving credit for voice is fear: even after employees decide to speak up, a face-to-face confrontation with a manager renders the personal risks of speaking up more salient and dire. The defining action tendency associated with fear is flight or withdrawal (for a review, see Kish-Gephart et al. [2009]). When voice is tinged by fear, employees are likely to speak with less conviction, avoid eye contact, and display facial and bodily cues of anxiety. These cues can signal a lack of confidence or competence (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009), thereby undermining the persuasiveness of the suggestions that employees voice.

Strong emotion regulation knowledge can help employees overcome these risks. Employees can reduce their fear through deep acting strategies such as reappraising threats as opportunities and refocusing their attention to the rewards of speaking up (Grandey, 2000) or to an injustice that has occurred (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). They can also mask their fear through surface acting strategies, such as displaying expressions of enthusiasm or anger. By applying their emotion regulation knowledge in these ways, employees can engage the attention of managers and convince them that their suggestions matter. When employees are able to feel and display positive emotions such as interest and excitement, they are likely to elicit favorable reactions from managers by communicating their ideas and suggestions in a more enthusiastic, supportive, or communal manner (Forgas & George, 2001; Fragale, 2006; Grant et al., 2009). When employees succeed in marshaling anger, they send signals of competence and status (Tiedens, 2001), which may motivate managers to take their ideas more seriously and ultimately benefit from implementing them.

Emotion regulation knowledge is likely to be similarly useful when employees approach voice without fear. As discussed previously, approach-related negative emotions such as frustration and anger often spur employees to throw caution to the wind and voice their suggestions in an aggressive manner (Chiaburu et al., 2008; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009), leading managers to feel threatened by criticisms rather than receptive to constructive suggestions for improvement (Burris, 2012; Grant et al., 2009). Employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge can use deep acting strategies such as reappraisal and refocusing to quell their anger and frustration, enhance feelings of calm and serenity, or convert anger about the status quo into passion for change. They can also use surface acting to mask their feelings of anger and frustration, hiding them behind expressions of other emotions or suppressing them altogether. In keeping with this logic, Kish-Gephart et al. (2009: 183) suggested that to speak up effectively, "employees may need to engage in 'expressive suppression' . . . speaking up to authority in a controlled manner . . . will be more likely to channel anger's passion and energy into a successful or positive experience." As a result, employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge are likely to channel anger and frustration into nonthreatening, constructive suggestions that managers can appreciate and value.

Emotion regulation knowledge may also help employees optimize the timing of voice. Research indicates that managers react more favorably to proactive efforts that challenge the status quo when they are delivered at appropriate times (Chan, 2006). For example, employees may incur more favorable reactions to their inquiries, ideas, and suggestions if they wait until managers are in a good mood (Ang, Cummings, Straub, & Earley, 1993; Morrison & Bies, 1991). In addition, voice is often less threatening to managers if it is expressed in private rather than in public (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Dutton & Ashford, 1993).

Whether employees succeed in capitalizing on this strategic timing is likely to depend on their knowledge about managing emotions. Grant and Ashford (2008: 22) proposed that "intense affective experiences may be more likely to motivate employees to seize any opportunity . . . regardless of strategic timing." In the absence of strong emotion regulation knowledge, employees may be spurred by anger or frustration to speak up with ideas and suggestions at the first opportunity, disregarding managers' affective states or whether the setting is

appropriate. Poor timing may lead employees to "be perceived by their coworkers and supervisors as employees or colleagues who actively engage in unconstructive criticism, cynical comments, unproductive protests, unjustified complaints, tactless disagreements, or other forms of insensitive, inconsiderate, and ineffective actions. . . . These individuals are more likely to be evaluated negatively by their supervisors" (Chan, 2006: 476).

Employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge may time their suggestions more effectively. As Kilduff et al. (2010: 137) proposed, employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge may engage in deep acting, "preparing themselves emotionally for expected encounters in order to make such encounters facilitate their goals of building their reputations and progressing in their careers." When plans to speak up go awry, such as when employees notice that a manager is in a bad mood, strong emotion regulation knowledge may enable employees to engage in surface acting to hide their emotions and exercise discipline and restraint to express voice at appropriate and strategic times. As a result, emotion regulation knowledge may enable employees to express voice with better timing, leading managers to view the ideas and suggestions more favorably and grant higher performance evaluations as a result. Taken together, these arguments suggest that emotion regulation knowledge will strengthen the relationship between voice and manager performance evaluations.

Hypothesis 5. Emotion regulation knowledge moderates the relationship between voice and performance evaluations: the stronger an employee's emotion regulation knowledge, the more positive the relationship.

My hypotheses are summarized visually in Figure 1.

METHOD

To test these hypotheses, I conducted a field study using multisource data from a health care company. Employees completed a situational judgment test in which expert scores were used to evaluate emotion regulation knowledge, and a self-report survey that indicated their levels of deep and surface acting as well as their personality traits. Three human resources (HR) managers provided lagged ratings of employees' voice, helping, and performance.

Sample and Procedures

The sample consisted of 100 employees at an optometry company headquartered in the southeastern United States. I selected optometry because it is a "high-touch," customer-service-intensive business in which emotion regulation knowledge is particularly relevant (Joseph & Newman, 2010). At the time of the survey, the spring of 2009, the company had 209 full-time employees on staff. I

FIGURE 1
An Emotion Regulation Model of Voice
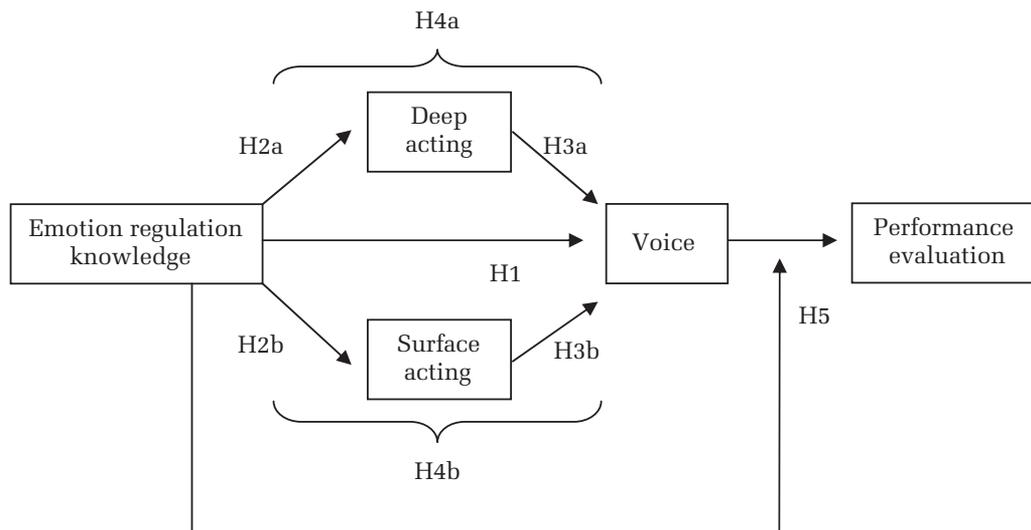
sent e-mails to all employees, announcing a study of work experiences and providing a link to an initial survey containing self-report measures of emotional labor strategies and personality traits. To increase the response rate and trust in confidentiality procedures (Mayer & Gavin, 2005), the e-mails also included a link to a short video of me explaining the purpose and procedures involved in the study. The initial survey was completed by 123 employees, for a response rate of 58.9 percent. After they finished this survey, I sent them a link to an online assessment of emotion regulation knowledge, and 101 provided complete responses, yielding an effective response rate of 48.3 percent. On average, employees completed this survey three weeks later, reducing the risk of response bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Two months after the initial survey was completed, three HR managers rated the voice, helping, and performance of 100 of these 101 employees (the managers indicated that one was too newly hired to be evaluated accurately).

The final sample of 100 employees worked as managers (25%), patient services representatives (19%), optical consultants and sales representatives (18%), technicians (17%), doctors (14%), and administrative staff (7%). Seventy-six percent of the sample were female, and average tenure in the organization was 4.21 years (s.d. = 4.08) and in their current jobs of 3.95 years (s.d. = 4.52). They reported an average age of 33.10 years (s.d. = 9.84) and worked an average of 39.80 hours per week (s.d. = 6.01). The majority was married (60%), and the remaining employees were single (31%), or divorced or separated (9%). The majority had attended college (71%), and the remaining employees had attended high school (14%) or graduate school (15%).[1]

---

[1] To assess possible response biases, I used three of the techniques recommended by Rogelberg and Stanton (2007): archival analysis, interest-level analysis, and wave analysis. First, in an archival analysis, respondents did not differ significantly in terms of tenure (mean = 3.95 years, s.d. = 4.52) from the population (mean = 3.85 years, s.d. = 4.08; t = 0.19, n.s.), nor did they differ in terms of sex (both the sample and the population contained 76 percent female). Second, I conducted a version of an interest-level analysis by correlating the average amount of time per survey item with the key study variables, assuming that more interested employees would complete the survey items more thoughtfully. Average time per survey item did not correlate signifi-

Measures

Emotion regulation knowledge. I measured employees' emotion regulation knowledge using the Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM; MacCann & Roberts, 2008). The STEM consists of 44 multiple choice items using a situational judgment test format, asking respondents to indicate appropriate emotional responses to different situations. An important feature of the STEM is that it avoids self-reporting biases by scoring the effectiveness of employees' emotion regulation responses according to the extent to which they match consensus ratings from experts. In general, studies have shown that ability measures of emotion regulation have high test-retest and split-half reliabilities, appropriate convergent and discriminant validity with related constructs, and excellent correspondence between expert and general consensus scoring methods (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; MacCann & Roberts, 2008; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

For the STEM, MacCann and Roberts (2008) generated situations using a combination of semistructured interviews and content analysis and created response options by asking a separate sample of individuals to indicate the ideal response and how they would respond. They then enlisted experts in emotional intelligence research, professional psychology, and counseling and coaching to develop a response key, observing high agreement between these sources and demonstrated appropriate levels of convergent and discriminant validity with vocabulary, university grades, age, and personality traits. A subsequent study established test-retest reliability (MacCann, 2010). In the present study,

---

cantly with emotion regulation knowledge (r = .04, n.s.), deep acting (r = −.07, n.s.), surface acting (r = .08, n.s.), performance evaluations (r = .18, n.s.), voice (r = .19, n.s.), or helping (r = .17, n.s.). Third, I conducted a wave analysis by examining whether scores on the key variables differed as a function of whether employees responded to the initial survey in the first wave (initial deadline), the second wave (second deadline), or the third wave (final reminder). A multivariate analysis of variance showed no significant differences by wave for emotion regulation knowledge ($F[2, 97]$ = 0.81, n.s.), deep acting ($F[2, 97]$ = 1.56, n.s.), surface acting [$F[2, 97]$ = 1.17, n.s.), performance evaluations ($F[2, 97]$ = 1.65, n.s.), voice ($F[2, 97]$ = 2.73, n.s.), or helping ($F[2, 97]$ = .99, n.s.). Together, these findings suggest that the sample is reasonably representative of the employee population and reduce concerns about nonresponse bias.

after employees completed the test, I applied Mac-Cann and Roberts's (2008) mean expert ratings for each response option, and then calculated the reliability of employees' responses for all 44 items ($\alpha = .73$).

Emotional labor strategies: Deep and surface acting. Employees completed measures of deep and surface acting using the scales developed by Brotheridge and Lee (2003) and Grandey, Dickter, and Sin (2004). The survey asked employees to indicate their agreement with a series of statements about how they respond to a disappointing or frustrating interaction at work (1 = "disagree strongly" and 7 = "agree strongly"). The deep acting scale consisted of five items, including "I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display" and "I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show" ($\alpha = .65$). The surface acting scale consisted of four items, including "I pretend to have emotions that I don't really have" and "I put on a 'mask' in order to display the emotions I needed to for my job" ($\alpha = .72$).

Voice and performance evaluations. Three HR managers provided ratings of the voice behavior and performance of all respondents. The managers had access to voice behavior because they led initiatives in which they interacted with each employee, such as small group training sessions and career trajectory discussions. They were knowledgeable about performance because they were responsible for reviewing each employee's goals and performance metrics, met with each employee's direct manager quarterly, and participated in performance evaluations. Because the three HR managers were rating all 100 respondents, to minimize fatigue, I used single items to measure each variable, calculating interrater reliability and agreement among the three managers. The managers completed their ratings on a frequency scale (1 = "never," 2 = "once in a while," 3 = "sometimes," 4 = "fairly many times," 5 = "often," 6 = "constantly," 7 = "always").

I assessed interrater reliability using intraclass correlation coefficients, and interrater agreement using average deviation (AD), which "estimates agreement in the metric of the original scale of the item" (LeBreton & Senter, 2008: 820), whereby AD values below 1.2 indicate high agreement for seven-point scales (Burke & Dunlap, 2002). For voice, I adapted the definition from measures used by Detert and Burris (2007): the HR managers rated how frequently an employee speaks up to offer constructive ideas and suggestions ($ICC2 = .70$, $p < .001$, $AD_{mean} = .91$, $AD_{median} = .89$). For performance evaluations, the definition was adapted from Ashford and Black's (1996) measure: the HR managers rated each employee's overall effectiveness in meeting expectations ($ICC2 = .61$, $p < .001$, $AD_{mean} = .67$, $AD_{median} = .67$).

Helping. Voice has been conceptualized as a form of interpersonal citizenship behavior, or discretionary actions that contribute to the social and psychological context of work (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). To assess whether my hypotheses were unique to voice rather than applicable to other interpersonal citizenship behaviors, I measured helping behavior—giving assistance, consideration, and support to others (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). I selected helping behavior because it contrasts with voice along the key dimension of affiliative versus challenging interpersonal citizenship (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). Whereas voice is typically a challenging form of interpersonal citizenship that changes, threatens, or disrupts the status quo (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), helping is an exemplar of an affiliative form of interpersonal citizenship, as it supports and maintains the status quo (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

So that I could test whether the results extended to helping, when the three HR managers completed their performance evaluations and their voice ratings, they also rated each employee's helping behavior. Collecting the helping and voice measures from the same sources as the performance evaluations was important, given that raters can only account for acts of voice and helping in their performance evaluations if they are aware of them. I adapted the definition of helping from measures developed by Anderson and Williams (1996): the HR managers rated how frequently an employee assisted coworkers and patients ($ICC1 = .43$, $ICC2 = .69$; $p < .001$, $AD_{mean} = .67$, $AD_{median} = .67$).

Extraversion. Using data from the self-report survey that employees completed, I controlled for the personality trait of extraversion, as it is a potential common cause of multiple variables in the model. Studies have shown that extraversion is related positively to emotion regulation knowledge (Joseph & Newman, 2010), positively to deep acting, negatively to surface acting (Chi et al., 2011), and positively to voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). To assess the unique role of emotion regulation knowledge and emotional labor in voice, in the

analyses testing the mediation, I controlled for extraversion. Employees reported their extraversion levels using the scale developed by Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, and Lucas (2006), which includes items such as "I keep in the background" (reverse-scored) and "I am the life of the party" ($\alpha = .85$).

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 1. I tested my hypotheses using hierarchical linear regression analyses and structural equation modeling.

Emotion Regulation and Voice

Table 1 shows a significant bivariate relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and voice. As displayed in Table 2, this relationship was robust even after helping and extraversion were accounted for. Thus, in support of Hypothesis 1, emotion regulation knowledge significantly predicted voice.

To test whether emotional labor strategies mediated this relationship, I followed the procedures specified by MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007). I began by examining whether emotion regulation knowledge was related to the mediators of deep and surface acting. As displayed in the first two columns of Table 2, in support of Hypothesis 2, parts a and b, emotion regulation knowledge significantly predicted both deep and surface acting. Next, I tested whether these two mediators predicted voice after controlling for emotion regulation knowledge. As displayed in the fourth column of Table 2 and in keeping with Hypothesis 3, parts

a and b, deep and surface acting were significant independent predictors of voice, and the coefficient for emotion regulation knowledge decreased to nonsignificance.

To examine whether this result was a significant decrease, I calculated the indirect effects of emotion regulation knowledge on voice through deep and surface acting. I used a bootstrapping procedure to construct bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects, drawing 1,000 random samples with replacement from the full sample (Stine, 1989). Mediation is present when the confidence intervals exclude 0 (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), and the confidence intervals excluded 0 for the indirect effects through both deep acting ($0 <$ indirect effect of $.01 < .02$) and surface acting ($0 <$ indirect effect of $.01 < .02$). Thus, in support of Hypothesis 4, parts a and b, deep and surface acting each partially mediated the relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and voice.

Performance Evaluations

To investigate Hypothesis 5, I followed the moderated regression procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991; see also Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). I standardized the emotion regulation knowledge and voice variables, multiplied them to create an interaction term, and predicted performance evaluations from the three variables. The results of this analysis, displayed in Table 3, show a statistically significant interaction between voice and emotion regulation knowledge in predicting performance evaluations.

I interpreted the form of the significant interaction by plotting the relationship between voice and

TABLE 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations[a]

Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Performance evaluations	5.77	0.67	(.61)						
2. Voice	4.39	1.14	.49***	(.70)					
3. Helping	5.58	0.80	.59***	.43***	(.69)				
4. Emotion regulation knowledge	4.50	0.17	.08	.21*	−.03	(.73)			
5. Deep acting	5.01	0.87	.24*	.30**	.10	.23*	(.65)		
6. Surface acting	3.42	1.21	.06	.19*	.06	.19*	−.05	(.72)	
7. Extraversion	4.52	1.40	.06	.14	.04	.20*	.21*	−.32**	(.85)

[a] Coefficient alphas appear on the diagonal in parentheses. For emotion regulation knowledge, the average employee received 92.02 percent of the total possible points (s.d. = 3.51%).
  * $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

TABLE 2
Results of Mediation Analyses for Emotional Labor Strategies[a]

| | Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Surface Acting | | | | Deep Acting | | | | Voice, Step 1 | | | | Voice, Step 2 | | | |
Variables	*b*	s.e.	*β*	*t*	*b*	s.e.	*β*	*t*	*b*	s.e.	*β*	*t*	*b*	s.e.	*β*	*t*
Helping	.12	.14	.08	0.85	.11	.11	.10	1.01	.62	.13	.44	4.9***	.57	.12	.40	4.65***
Extraversion	−.32	.08	−.37	−3.83***	.09	.07	.15	1.40	.07	.07	.08	0.92	.10	.08	.12	1.27
Emotion regulation knowledge	**.04**	**.02**	**.27**	**2.81****	**.02**	**.01**	**.21**	**2.00***	**.03**	**.01**	**.19**	**2.14***	.02	.01	.10	1.07
Deep acting	−.06	.14	−.05	−0.47									**.29**	**.12**	**.22**	**2.46***
Surface acting					−.04	.08	−.05	−0.47					**.19**	**.09**	**.20**	**2.12***
R^2		.18***				.08*				.24***				.32***		
$F(2, 94)$														5.04		
$F(3, 96)$						2.85				10.26						
$F(4, 95)$		5.13														
ΔR^2		.18***				.08*				.24***				.08**		

[a] Statistics in bold represent tests of hypotheses.
    * $p < .05$
   ** $p < .01$
  *** $p < .001$

performance evaluations at one standard deviation above and below the mean of emotion regulation knowledge. A visual inspection of the simple slopes (see Figure 2) suggests that the relationship between voice and performance evaluations is more strongly positive for employees with high
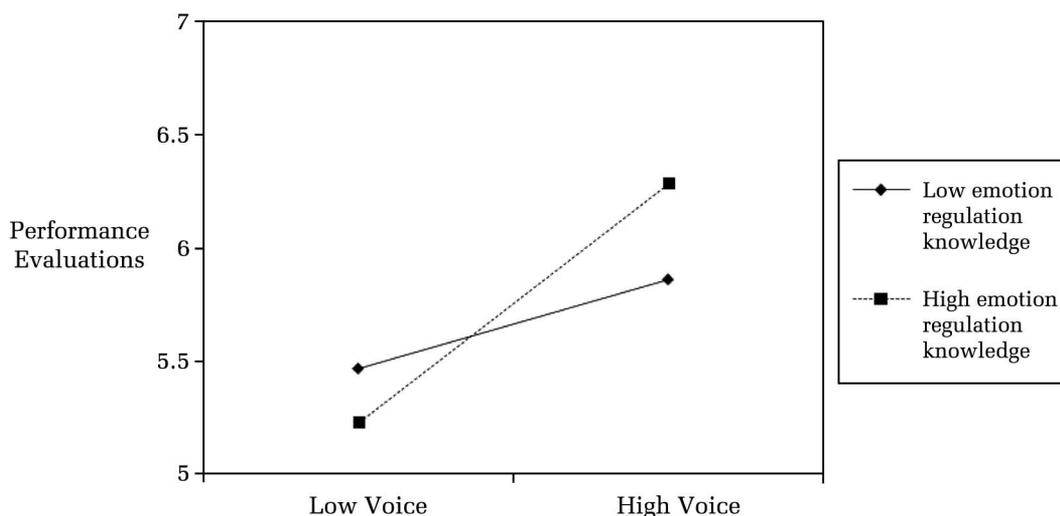
rather than low emotion regulation knowledge. To test this interpretation statistically, I compared each of the two simple slopes to zero. For employees with high emotion regulation knowledge, voice was positively related to performance evaluations ($b = .53$, s.e. $= .09$, $\beta = .72$, $t = 5.72$, $p < .001$). For

TABLE 3
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses Predicting Performance Evaluations[a]

| | Step 1 | | | | Step 2 | | | |
Variables	*b*	s.e.	*β*	*t*	*b*	s.e.	*β*	*t*
Voice related								
Voice	.36	.07	.50	5.49***	.37	.06	.50	5.69***
Emotion regulation knowledge	−.02	.06	−.03	−0.28	.05	.07	.07	0.70
Voice × emotion regulation knowledge					**.17**	**.06**	**.24**	**2.62***
R^2		.24***				.29***		
$F(1, 96)$						6.88		
$F(2, 97)$		15.45				0.05*		
ΔR^2		.24***				.05*		
Helping related								
Helping	.40	.05	.59	7.29***	.40	.05	.60	7.33***
Emotion regulation knowledge	.05	.05	.08	.98	.08	.06	.12	1.26
Helping × emotion regulation knowledge					−.05	.06	−.08	−0.82
R^2		.36***				.36***		
$F(1, 96)$						.67		
$F(2, 97)$		27.07						
ΔR^2		.36***				.00		

[a] Statistics in bold show tests of hypotheses.
    * $p < .05$
  *** $p < .001$

FIGURE 2
Simple Slopes for Emotion Regulation Knowledge Moderating the Relationship between Voice and Performance Evaluations

employees with low emotion regulation knowledge, voice was less strongly but still positively related to performance evaluations ($b = .21$, s.e. = .09, $\beta = .28$, $t = 2.31$, $p = .02$). These results support Hypothesis 5 by showing that emotion regulation knowledge strengthened the relationship between voice and performance evaluations.

Structural Equation Modeling

One limitation of the above analyses is that they adopt a piecemeal approach, which raises questions about the fit of the overall model when the paths are estimated simultaneously. To test the full model, I constructed a structural equation model using EQS software version 6.1 (Bentler, 1995) with maximum likelihood procedures and partially latent variables. Because the sample size and number of indicators did not allow for the modeling of fully latent variables, I used partially latent variables, with each latent variable indicated by the mean score of the items, fixing the error variance for each latent variable to the quantity of one minus the reliability, multiplied by the indicator's variance (Kline, 1998). I computed the reliability of the interaction term using the formula specified by Edwards (2008). Along with paths representing Hypotheses 1–4, drawing on the prior results, I modeled extraversion as a control variable predicting surface and deep acting. The model achieved adequate fit with the data ($\chi^2[11] = 29.12$, CFI = .99, SRMR = .11).

As displayed in Figure 3, the analysis supported the full model. Emotion regulation knowledge predicted voice (Hypothesis 1), deep acting (Hypothesis 2a), and surface acting (Hypothesis 2b); voice, in turn, was predicted independently by deep acting (Hypothesis 3a) and surface acting (Hypothesis 3b); and the relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and voice dropped from significance to nonsignificance after inclusion of the paths from deep acting and surface acting to voice. In support of mediation (Hypotheses 4a and 4b), model fit was poorer without these paths ($\chi^2[13] = 40.19$, CFI = .98, SRMR = .13), and a chi-square difference test showed that this was a significant decrease ($\chi^2[2] = 11.07$, $p < .01$). Finally, emotion regulation knowledge interacted positively with voice to predict performance evaluations (Hypothesis 5).

Comparison of Voice and Helping

Finally, I tested whether the hypotheses were unique to voice by conducting parallel analyses for helping behavior. The moderated regression analyses in Table 3 show that emotion regulation knowledge significantly interacted with voice but not helping to predict performance evaluations. To examine whether the interaction coefficients differed significantly from each other, I used Cohen and Cohen's (1983) procedures for comparing regression coefficients. Emotion regulation knowledge

FIGURE 3
Structural Equation Modeling Analysis
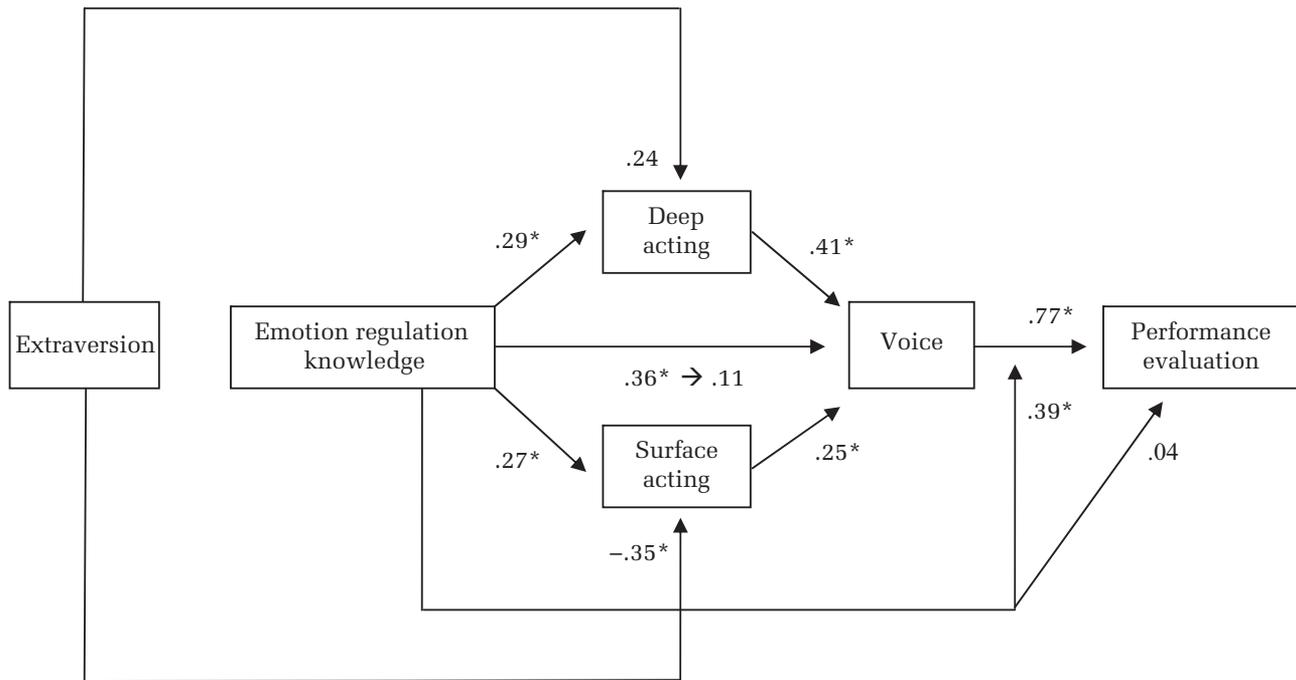
* $p < .05$

had a significantly stronger moderating effect on the relationship between voice and performance evaluations than between helping and performance evaluations $b = .22$, s.e. $= .10$, $p = .02$). Similarly, the correlation coefficients in Table 1 and the regression coefficients in Table 2 indicate that emotion regulation knowledge, deep acting, and surface acting were significantly related to voice but not to helping. Emotion regulation knowledge was a significantly stronger predictor of voice than helping ($b = .24$, s.e. $= .14$, $p = .04$). Deep acting was a significantly stronger predictor of voice than helping ($b = .27$, s.e. $= .14$, $p = .02$), and surface acting was a marginally stronger predictor of voice than helping ($b = .18$, s.e. $= .11$, $p < .09$). Together, these results indicate that emotion regulation knowledge and strategies have greater relevance to voice than to helping.

DISCUSSION

This study provided support for a theoretical model of emotion regulation and voice. Emotion regulation knowledge directly predicted voice, and the emotional labor strategies of deep and surface

acting accounted for this relationship. Emotion regulation knowledge also strengthened the relationship between voice and manager performance evaluations. These relationships were unique to voice and did not hold for helping. This research extends understanding of voice and emotion regulation.

Theoretical Implications

The present research offers four central implications for theory and research on voice. First, my study presents a novel perspective on the role of emotion in voice. Although the majority of research has used a cognitive lens to predict voice, scholars have begun to suggest that voice is influenced by felt emotions such as fear, frustration, and anger (Ashford et al., 1998; Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Milliken et al., 2003). However, scholars have not theoretically developed or empirically tested the notion that how employees regulate and manage their felt emotions influences voice. My research takes a step toward filling this gap by demonstrating that emotion regulation knowledge and strategies play

an important role in shaping the incidence of voice. I show that employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge speak up more frequently and that their greater use of surface acting strategies to modify their displayed emotions and deep acting strategies to modify their felt emotions explains this relationship. This research thereby introduces emotion regulation as a new influence on voice.

Second, my research reveals the role of knowledge, skills, and abilities in voice. Dominant models of the individual antecedents of voice have focused on personality traits and motivations. For example, research has linked voice to the personality traits of extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001) and to prosocial and pro-organizational motives emphasizing concern for other people and an organization (Grant & Mayer, 2009). This perspective assumes that voice is a "will do" decision shaped by employees' preferences and desires, providing little insight into the role of "can do" knowledge, skill, and ability factors. One of the few studies to adopt an ability perspective showed that general cognitive ability was unrelated to voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). The present research suggests that the relationship between ability and voice may depend on the type of ability under consideration. Since voice consists of interpersonal communications that may evoke strong emotional reactions in both speaker and audience, emotion regulation knowledge plays a key role in whether employees speak up and how others react. These findings underscore that voice is influenced by knowledge—not only personality traits and motivations—answering calls for more research on how knowledge, skills, and abilities affect voice and other proactive and citizenship behaviors (Dudley & Cortina, 2008; Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Third, an emotion regulation perspective provides a fresh window onto why the consequences of voice vary between employees and studies. As discussed previously, existing studies have returned conflicting results about whether voice has a positive, negative, or null relationship with manager performance evaluations and related outcomes (Burris, 2012; Grant et al., 2009; Seibert et al., 2001; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting et al., 2008). My research takes a step toward resolving some of these conflicting findings by documenting how emotion regulation knowledge is a critical moderator of the relationship between voice and performance evaluations. This finding extends scholars'

view of the contingency factors that shape the consequences of voice.

Fourth, my research advances understanding of how the factors that influence voice differ from those that affect other citizenship and proactive behaviors, which, if researchers wish to understand how these related behaviors are distinct, is a critical question (Grant & Ashford, 2008; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Whiting et al., 2008). My results indicate that emotion regulation knowledge and strategies are more strongly related to the incidence and performance evaluation consequences of voice than of helping. This is likely because helping does not frequently evoke intense affective reactions that need to be managed. As Van Dyne and LePine (1998: 109) noted, "helping is cooperative behavior that is noncontroversial. It is directly and obviously affiliative; it builds and preserves relationships; and it emphasizes interpersonal harmony."

Since helping is less likely than voice to evoke strong emotions that need to be managed, employees may not utilize their emotion regulation knowledge very often in the context of helping. According to trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000), employees selectively deploy their abilities when they become salient and relevant in particular situations. Because emotion regulation has little applicability in situations with low emotional demands (Joseph & Newman, 2010), it is not surprising that emotion regulation knowledge and strategies did not predict helping behavior. In addition, because the vast majority of helping behaviors occur in response to direct requests from others (Anderson & Williams, 1996), employees who help may be viewed favorably regardless of their emotion regulation knowledge. Indeed, numerous studies have shown that helping is consistently related to more positive reputations and performance evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2009; see also Flynn [2003] and Hardy and Van Vugt [2006]). This evidence suggests that emotion regulation is not equally important for all forms of citizenship behavior, but rather may be more consequential for challenging behaviors such as voice than for affiliative behaviors such as helping. Such evidence takes a step toward demonstrating that although different citizenship and proactive behaviors often reflect a common underlying construct (e.g., Grant et al., 2009; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002), from an emotion regulation perspective, there is value in examining the knowledge and strategies that pertain to challenging versus affiliative behaviors.

Although its central contributions are to the voice literature, the present research also extends knowledge about emotion regulation in three ways. First, to the best of my knowledge, this is the first study that links emotional intelligence to proactive behaviors. Although previous studies have shown that emotion regulation knowledge is relevant to task performance and cooperative, affiliative citizenship behaviors (e.g., Côté & Miners, 2006; Joseph & Newman, 2010), the present research shows that this knowledge also influences employees' efforts to challenge the status quo and the impressions they make in doing so. Second, my research provides the strongest evidence to date that emotion regulation knowledge is related to emotional labor strategies. Several scholars have speculated that emotion regulation knowledge may facilitate deep and surface acting (e.g., Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Kilduff et al., 2010), but existing studies have relied on self-report measures of emotional intelligence (Austin, Dore, & O'Donovan, 2008; Cheung & Tang, 2009; Liu, Prati, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2008), raising questions about whether the observed relationships are driven by personality traits or knowledge, skills, and abilities (Joseph & Newman, 2010). My study shows that emotion regulation knowledge, measured through a situational judgment test, is associated with higher levels of both deep and surface acting.

Third, my research offers a new contingency perspective on the relationship between emotional abilities and performance. Instead of assuming that emotion regulation knowledge contributes directly to performance evaluations, I proposed and found that this knowledge interacts with voice to predict performance. Whereas existing contingency perspectives have focused on how the relationship between emotional abilities and performance depends on cognitive ability (Côté & Miners, 2006) and emotional labor demands (Joseph & Newman, 2010), my study introduces voice behavior as an important factor that interacts with emotion regulation knowledge to shape performance. This evidence highlights the value of examining how emotional knowledge interacts with behaviors—not only abilities and contextual variables—to affect performance.

Limitations and Future Directions

The contributions of this study should be qualified in light of its limitations, several of which point to productive directions for future research.

Although my theoretical model implies causal effects of emotion regulation knowledge and strategies on voice and performance, my data are correlational, making it difficult to rule out alternative explanations for the observed relationships. For instance, by request of the participating organization, I measured emotion regulation knowledge after employees completed the survey assessing emotional labor strategies. This measurement order is a potential threat to the causal order implied in the model, whereby emotion regulation knowledge influences emotional labor strategies. However, research suggests that emotion regulation knowledge has traitlike stability, making it unlikely that emotional labor strategies influenced emotion regulation knowledge over the period of a few weeks. The test-retest reliability of the STEM is estimated at .55 (MacCann, 2010), which is comparable to the test-retest reliability of personality traits (Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000; see also Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann [2003] and Rammstedt and John [2007]). Nevertheless, future studies should vary measurement order to rule out this issue of reverse causality.

As another example, cognitive ability may influence the relationship between emotion regulation knowledge and outcomes (Côté & Miners, 2006; MacCann & Roberts, 2008). To address these issues, future research should use experimental methods or longitudinal data with additional control variables to facilitate stronger causal inferences. Researchers may also use different methods to measure emotion regulation abilities, as a situational judgment test relies heavily on knowledge and is thus more likely to overlap with cognitive ability than are measures that assess the behavioral skills with which employees actually manage their own and others' emotions. In addition, relying on HR managers for ratings raises questions about whether emotion regulation knowledge and strategies lead employees to speak up more frequently or simply make them comfortable doing so more visibly. It will be valuable for researchers to triangulate data from HR managers with ratings from direct managers and coworkers, and perhaps obtain independent ratings of voice from expert observers and critical incident interviews (e.g., Blatt et al., 2006; Edmondson, 1996), especially since some of the ratings from the HR managers had marginal reliability. In addition, it remains to be seen whether the results can be replicated in more demographically, occupationally, and organizationally diverse samples, and whether they generalize from improvement-oriented voice to other types of voice

behavior, such as blowing the whistle on major legal or ethical violations (Miceli & Near, 1995) or complaining about problems without offering constructive solutions (Kowalski, 1996; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Organ, 1988).

I was also unable to measure contextual factors that may alter the impact of emotion regulation knowledge and strategies. It may be the case that emotion regulation knowledge is more important for facilitating voice and enhancing its contributions to performance evaluations in jobs with high emotional labor requirements and display rules (Joseph & Newman, 2010) or in psychologically unsafe environments (Edmondson, 1999). It will be worthwhile to investigate how these contextual factors influence felt emotions and interact with emotion regulation knowledge to influence voice and performance evaluations. It is worth noting, too, that in focusing on emotion regulation knowledge, I overlooked other dimensions of emotional intelligence, such as the abilities to perceive emotions and understand the causes of emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Future research should examine whether these emotional skills also have relevance to the incidence and consequences of voice.

Further, I emphasized how a speaker's emotion regulation knowledge would affect voice and its consequences, but an audience's emotion regulation knowledge may also have an impact. For instance, I hope to see studies examine whether managers with strong emotion regulation knowledge encourage more frequent voice and grant employees more credit for expressing it. Finally, I did not measure the micromediators (Cook & Campbell, 1979) of the relationships among emotion regulation knowledge, emotional labor strategies, voice, and performance evaluations. It will be useful to develop and test more systematic theory about how emotion regulation knowledge influences the timing and tactics that employees use to speak up, which could shed light on the mechanisms through which emotion regulation knowledge facilitates voice. From a dramaturgical perspective, how do employees use emotion regulation knowledge to choreograph where they set the stage, how they compose the script, and whom they invite as their cast members and audiences, as well as how they improvise?

Practical Implications and Conclusion

This research has meaningful implications for leaders, managers, and employees. For leaders and managers, my results suggest that employees with weak emotion regulation knowledge tend to be evaluated less favorably than their emotionally knowledgeable counterparts when they speak up. Since Nemeth (1986) found that even poorly articulated or wrong solutions can improve decision making and problem solving by fostering divergent thinking, to ensure that ideas from employees with weak emotion regulation knowledge are not suppressed over time, it may be important for leaders and managers to grant "idiosyncrasy credits" to these employees (Hollander, 1958).

For employees, my findings point to novel strategies for increasing the incidence and improving the performance evaluation contributions of voice. To gain confidence and effectiveness in speaking up, employees may find it useful to develop their emotion regulation knowledge. In the meantime, employees with weak emotion regulation knowledge may find it useful to separate the generation and communication of ideas: they may seek out peers with high emotion regulation knowledge to help them voice their ideas and suggestions in a constructive manner. Employees with strong emotion regulation knowledge may also recognize that since they tend to be evaluated more favorably when they speak up, it may be fruitful to leverage their emotional competencies in service of challenging the status quo more often.

In conclusion, scholars have often assumed that voice rocks the boat (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). My research qualifies this assumption, demonstrating how emotion regulation can enable employees to rock the boat more often—without tipping it over.

REFERENCES

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. 1991. *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Anderson, C., & Kilduff, G. J. 2009. Why do dominant personalities attain influence in face-to-face groups? The competence-signaling effects of trait dominance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 96: 491–503.

Anderson, S. E., & Williams, L. J. 1996. Interpersonal, job, and individual factors related to helping processes at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 81: 282–296.

Ang, S., Cummings, L. L., Straub, D. W., & Earley, P. C. 1993. The effects of information technology and the perceived mood of the feedback giver on feedback

seeking. *Information Systems Research,* 4: 240–261.

Ashford, S. J., & Black, J. S. 1996. Proactivity during organizational entry: Antecedents, tactics, and outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 81: 199–214.

Ashford, S. J., Rothbard, N. P., Piderit, S. K., & Dutton, J. E. 1998. Out on a limb: The role of context and impression management in selling gender-equity issues. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 43: 23–57.

Austin, E. J., Dore, T. C. P., & O'Donovan, K. M. 2008. Associations of personality and emotional intelligence with display rule perceptions and emotional labour. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 44: 679–688.

Bandura, A. 1977. Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review,* 84: 191–215.

Beal, D. J., Trougakos, J. P., Weiss, H. M., & Green, S. G. 2006. Episodic processes in emotional labor: Perceptions of affective delivery and regulation strategies. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 91: 1053–1065.

Bentler, P. M. 1995. *EQS structural equations program manual.* Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.

Blatt, R., Christianson, M. K., Sutcliffe, K. M., & Rosenthal, M. M. 2006. A sensemaking lens on reliability. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 27: 897–917.

Bono, J. E., & Vey, M. A. 2007. Personality and emotional performance: Extraversion, neuroticism, and self-monitoring. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 12: 177–192.

Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. 2003. Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 29: 1147–1158.

Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. 2003. Development and validation of the Emotional Labour Scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 76: 365–379.

Burke, M. J., & Dunlap, W. P. 2002. Estimating inter-rater agreement with the average deviation index: A user's guide. *Organizational Research Methods,* 5: 159–172.

Burris, E. R., Detert, J. R., & Chiaburu, D. S. 2008. Quitting before leaving: The mediating effects of psychological attachment and detachment on voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 93: 912–922.

Burris, E. R. 2012. The risks and rewards of speaking up: Managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal,* 55: 851–875.

Carver, C. S. 2001. Affect and the functional bases of

behavior: On the dimensional structure of affective experience. *Personality and Social Psychology Review,* 5: 345–356.

Chan, D. 2006. Interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 91: 475–481.

Cheung, F. Y., & Tang, C. S. 2009. The influence of emotional intelligence and affectivity on emotional labor strategies at work. *Journal of Individual Differences,* 30: 75–86.

Chi, N.-W., Grandey, A. A., Diamond, J. A., & Krimmel, K. R. 2011. Want a tip? Service performance as a function of emotion regulation and extraversion. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 96: 1337–1346.

Chiaburu, D. S., Marinova, S. V., & Van Dyne, L. 2008. Should I do it or not? An initial model of cognitive processes predicting voice behaviors. In L. T. Kane & M. R. Poweller (Eds.), *Citizenship in the 21st century:* 127–153. New York: Nova Science.

Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. 1983. *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. 2003. *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. 1979. *Quasi-experimentation: Design and analysis issues for field settings.* Chicago: Rand McNally.

Côté, S. 2005. A social interaction model of the effects of emotion regulation on work strain. *Academy of Management Review,* 30: 509–530.

Côté, S., DeCelles, K. A., McCarthy, J. M., Van Kleef, G. A., & Hideg, I. 2011. The Jekyll and Hyde of emotional intelligence: Emotion-regulation knowledge facilitates both prosocial and interpersonally deviant behavior. *Psychological Science,* 22: 1073–1080.

Côté, S., & Hideg, I. 2010. The ability to influence others via emotional displays: A new dimension of emotional intelligence. *Organizational Psychology Review,* 1: 53–71.

Côté, S., & Miners, C. T. H. 2006. Emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 51: 1–28.

Denham, S. A., Blair, K. A., DeMulder, E., Levitas, J., Sawyer, K., and Auerbach-Major, S., Queenan, P. 2003. Preschool emotional competence: Pathway to social competence? *Child Development,* 74: 238–256.

Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. 2007. Leadership behavior

and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal,* 50: 869–884.

Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. 2011. Implicit voice theories: Taken-for-granted rules of self-censorship at work. *Academy of Management Journal,* 54: 461–488.

Diefendorff, J. M., Croyle, M. H., & Gosserand, R. H. 2005. The dimensionality and antecedents of emotional labor strategies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 66: 339–357.

Donnellan, M. B., Oswald, F. L., Baird, B. M., & Lucas, R. E. 2006. The mini-IPIP scales: Tiny-yet-effective measures of the Big Five factors of personality. *Psychological Assessment,* 18: 192–203.

Dudley, N. M., & Cortina, J. M. 2008. Knowledge and skills that facilitate the personal support dimension of citizenship. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 93: 1249–1270.

Dutton, J. E., & Ashford, S. J. 1993. Selling issues to top management. *Academy of Management Review,* 18: 397–428.

Edmondson, A. C. 1996. Learning from mistakes is easier said than done: Group and organizational influences on the detection and correction of human error. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 32: 5–28.

Edmondson, A. 1999. Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 44: 350–383.

Edwards, J. R. 2008. Seven deadly myths of testing moderation in organizational research. In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends: Received doctrine, verity, and fable in the organizational and social sciences:* 145–166. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Eisenberg, N. 2000. Emotion, regulation, and moral development. In S. T. Fiske, D. L. Schacter, & C. Zahn-Waxler (Eds.), *Annual review of psychology,* vol. 51: 665–697. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.

Erez, A., & Isen, A. M. 2002. The influence of positive affect on the components of expectancy motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 87: 1055–1067.

Ericsson, K. A., & Charness, N. 1994. Expert performance: Its structure and acquisition. *American Psychologist,* 49: 725–747.

Flynn, F. J. 2003. How much should I give and how often? The effects of generosity and frequency of favor exchange on social status and productivity. *Academy of Management Journal,* 46: 539–553.

Forgas, J. P., & George, J. M. 2001. Affective influences on judgments and behavior in organizations: An information processing perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 86: 3–34.

Fragale, A. R. 2006. The power of powerless speech: The effects of speech style and task interdependence on status conferral. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 101: 243–261.

Fredrickson, B. L., Mancuso, R. A., Branigan, C., & Tugade, M. M. 2000. The undoing effect of positive emotions. *Motivation and Emotion,* 24: 237–258.

Frijda, N. H. 1986. *The emotions.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gladwell, M. 2008. *Outliers: The story of success.* New York: Little, Brown.

Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann, W. B., Jr. 2003. A very brief measure of the Big Five personality domains. *Journal of Research in Personality,* 37: 504–528.

Grandey, A. A. 2000. Emotion regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 5: 95–110.

Grandey, A. A. 2003. When "the show must go on": Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal,* 46: 86–96.

Grandey, A. A., Dickter, D. N., & Sin, H. P. 2004. The customer is not always right: Customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 25: 397–418.

Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. 2008. The dynamics of proactivity at work. In B. Staw (Ed.) *Research in organizational behavior,* vol. 28: 3–34. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Grant, A. M., Gino, F., & Hofmann, D. A. 2011. Reversing the extraverted leadership advantage: The role of employee proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal,* 54: 528–550.

Grant, A. M., & Mayer, D. M. 2009. Good soldiers and good actors: Prosocial and impression management motives as interactive predictors of affiliative citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 94: 900–912.

Grant, A. M., Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. 2009. Getting credit for proactive behavior: Supervisor reactions depend on what you value and how you feel. *Personnel Psychology,* 62: 31–55.

Grant, A. M., & Sonnentag, S. 2010. Doing good buffers against feeling bad: Prosocial impact compensates for negative task and self-evaluations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 111: 13–22.

Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. 2007. A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal,* 50: 327–347.

Gross, J. J. 1998. The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology,* 2: 271–299.

Gundlach, M. J., Martinko, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. 2003. Emotional intelligence, causal reasoning, and the self-efficacy development process. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis,* 11: 229–246.

Hardy, C. L., & Van Vugt, M. 2006. Nice guys finish first: The competitive altruism hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 32: 1402–1413.

Harmon-Jones, C., Schmeichel, B. J., Mennitt, E., & Harmon-Jones, E. 2011. The expression of determination: Similarities between anger and approach-related positive affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 100: 172–181.

Hirschman, A. O. 1970. *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hochschild, A. R. 1983. *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Hollander, E. P. 1958. Conformity, status, and idiosyncrasy credit. *Psychological Review,* 65: 117–127.

Izard, C., Fine, S., Schultz, D., Mostow, A. J., Ackerman, B., & Youngstrom, E. 2001. Emotion knowledge as a predictor of social behavior and academic competence in children at risk. *Psychological Science,* 12: 18–23.

Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. 2010. Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 95: 54–78.

Kilduff, M., Chiaburu, D. S., & Menges, J. I. 2010. Strategic use of emotional intelligence in organizational settings: Exploring the dark side. In B. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior,* vol. 30: 129–152. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Kish-Gephart, J. J., Detert, J. R., Treviño, L. K., & Edmondson, A. C. 2009. Silenced by fear: The nature, sources, and consequences of fear at work. In B. M. Staw & A. P. Brief (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior,* vol. 29: 163–193. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Kline, R. B. 1998. *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling.* New York: Guilford.

Kowalski, R. M. 1996. Complaints and complaining: Functions, antecedents, and consequences. *Psychological Bulletin,* 119: 179–196.

LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. 2008. Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods,* 11: 815–852.

LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. 2002. The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 87: 52–65.

LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. 1998. Predicting voice behavior in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 83: 853–868.

LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. 2001. Voice and cooperative behavior as contrasting forms of contextual performance: Evidence of differential relationships with Big Five personality characteristics and cognitive ability. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86: 325–336.

Lerner, J. S., & Keltner, D. 2001. Fear, anger, and risk. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 81: 146–159.

Liu, Y., Prati, L. M., Perrewé, P. L., & Ferris, G. R. 2008. The relationship between emotional resources and emotional labor: An exploratory study. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology,* 38: 2410–2439.

Lopes, P. N., Brackett, M. A., Nezlek, J. B., Schütz, A., Sellin, I., & Salovey, P. 2004. Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 30: 1018–1034.

Lopes, P. N., Côté, S., Grewal, D., Kadis, J., Gall, M., & Salovey, P. 2006. Emotional intelligence and positive work outcomes. *Psichothema,* 18(supplement): 132–138.

Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., Côté, S., & Beers, M. 2005. Emotion regulation abilities and the quality of social interaction. *Emotion,* 5: 113–118.

MacCann, C. 2010. Further examination of emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence: A latent variable analysis of fluid intelligence, crystallized intelligence, and emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 49: 490–496.

MacCann, C., & Roberts, R. D. 2008. New paradigms for assessing emotional intelligence: Theory and data. *Emotion,* 8: 540–551.

MacKinnon, D. P., Fairchild, A. J., & Fritz, M. S. 2007. Mediation analysis. In S. T. Fiske, A. E. Kazdin, & D. L. Schacter (Eds.), *Annual review of psychology,* vol. 58: 593–614. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.

Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. 2008. Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. In S. T. Fiske, D. L. Schacter, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *Annual review of psychology,* vol. 59: 507–536. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. 1997. What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications:* 3–31. New York: Basic.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. 2003. Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. *Emotion,* 3: 97–105.

Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. 2005. Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal,* 48: 874–888.

Merritt, A. C., & Helmreich, R. L. 1996. Human factors on the flight deck: The influence of national culture. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 27: 5–24.

Mestre, J. M., Guil, R., Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., & Gil-Olarte, P. 2006. Emotional intelligence and social and academic adaptation to school. *Psicothema,* 18(supplement): 112–117.

Meyerson, D. E., & Scully, M. A. 1995. Tempered radicalism and the politics of ambivalence and change. *Organization Science,* 6: 585–600.

Miceli, M., & Near, J. 1995. Effective whistle-blowing. *Academy of Management Review,* 20: 679–708.

Milliken, F. J., Morrison, E. W., & Hewlin, P. F. 2003. An exploratory study of employee silence: Issues that employees don't communicate upward and why. *Journal of Management Studies,* 40: 1453–1476.

Morrison, E. W. 2011. Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. In J. P. Walsh & A. P. Brief (Eds.), *Academy of Management annals,* vol. 5: 373–412. Essex, UK: Routledge.

Morrison, E. W., & Bies, R. J. 1991. Impression management in the feedback-seeking process: A literature review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Review,* 16: 522–541.

Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. 2000. Organizational silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review,* 25: 706–731.

Nemeth, C. J. 1986. Differential contributions of majority and minority influence. *Psychological Review,* 93: 23–32.

Organ, D. W. 1988. *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. 2010. Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management,* 36: 827–856.

Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. 2010. Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of Management,* 36: 633–662.

Peng, K. Z., Wong, C.-S., & Che, H.-S. 2010. The missing link between emotional demands and exhaustion. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* 25: 777–798.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. 2009. Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 94: 122–141.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. 2003. Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 88: 879–903.

Pugh, S. D., Groth, M., & Hennig-Thurau, T. 2011. Willing and able to fake emotions: A closer examination of the link between emotional dissonance and employee well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 96: 377–390.

Rammstedt, B., & John, O. P. 2007. Measuring personality in one minute or less: A 10-item short version of the Big Five Inventory in English and German. *Journal of Research in Personality,* 41: 203–212.

Roberts, B. W., & DelVecchio, W. F. 2000. The rank-order consistency of personality traits from childhood to old age: A quantitative review of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin,* 126: 3–25.

Rogelberg, S. G., & Stanton, J. M. 2007. Introduction: Understanding and dealing with organizational survey nonresponse. *Organizational Research Methods,* 10: 195–209.

Rubin, R. S., Munz, D. C., & Bommer, W. H. 2005. Leading from within: The effects of emotion recognition and personality on transformational leadership behavior. *Academy of Management Journal,* 48: 845–858.

Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. 2001. What do proactive people do? A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel Psychology,* 54: 845–874.

Senge, P. M. 1990. *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization.* New York: Doubleday.

Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. 2002. Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods,* 7: 422–445.

Stine, R. 1989. An introduction to bootstrap methods. *Sociological Methods and Research,* 18: 243–291.

Tamir, M. 2009. What do people want to feel and why? Pleasure and utility in emotion regulation. *Current Directions in Psychological Science,* 18: 101–105.

Tett, R. P., & Burnett, D. D. 2003. A personality trait-based interactionist model of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 88: 500–517.

Tett, R. P., & Guterman, H. A. 2000. Situation trait relevance, trait expression, and cross-situational consistency: Testing a principle of trait-activation. *Journal of Research in Personality,* 34: 397–423.

Thomas, J. P., Whitman, D. S., & Viswesvaran, C. 2010. Employee proactivity in organizations: A comparative meta-analysis of emergent proactive constructs.

Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83: 275–300.

Tiedens, L. Z. 2001. Anger and advancement versus sadness and subjugation: The effect of negative emotion expressions on social status conferral. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 80: 86–94.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Botero, I. C. 2003. Conceptualizing employee silence and voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies,* 40: 1359–1392.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & McLean Parks, J. 1995. Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior,* vol. 17: 215–285. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. A. 1998. Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal,* 41: 108–119.

Vaughan, D. 1996. *The Challenger launch decision: Risky technology, culture, and deviance at NASA.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. 2008. Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 93: 125–139.

Whyte, G. 1998. Recasting Janis's groupthink model: The key role of collective efficacy in decision fiascoes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 73: 185–209.

Withey, M. J., & Cooper, W. H. 1989. Predicting exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 34: 521–539.

Zhou, J., & George, J. M. 2001. When job dissatisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management Journal,* 44: 682–696.

―――――――――⋀⋀―――――――

Adam M. Grant (grantad@wharton.upenn.edu) is a professor of management and the Class of 1965 Chair at The Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania. He received his Ph.D. in organizational psychology from the University of Michigan. His research focuses on work motivation, job design, prosocial helping and giving behaviors, and proactive behaviors.

―――――――――⋀⋀―――――――