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KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL PREDICTORS OF VOICE BEHAVIOR: VOICE AS AN UPWARD INFLUENCE

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University

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Abstract

In recent years, there has been a growing body of research focused on improving our understanding of employee voice behavior. Yet this literature focuses mainly on factors that influence employees' decisions regarding whether to speak up (i.e., *quantity* of voice behavior), rather than factors that influence whether voice behavior turns out to be *effective*. As a result, job attitudes and personality characteristics have been identified as the major personal factors predicting voice behavior. The current study contributes to the voice literature by viewing voice from an upward influence angle, examining the influences of the quality of *content* and *delivery* of voice in predicting voice effectiveness. In addition, this study also examines the roles of knowledge and skills in increasing the quality of voice content and delivery as well as efficacy to voice. Data were collected from 467 business school students making suggestions for their instructors to improve the course in the future. Instructed rated the quality of suggestion content as well as their willingness to incorporate the suggestion in the future (i.e., voice effectiveness). Two third-party coders coded whether or not influence tactics were used in each suggestion as well as the quality of the use of tactics. Multilevel modelling results showed that content quality was the strongest predictor of voice effectiveness, compared to the use of influence tactics and voice quantity. In further, results showed that using ingratiation tactics significantly predicted voice effectiveness regardless of quality. In comparison, using rational persuasion tactics only predicted voice effectiveness when it was used in a high-quality manner. Contrary to expectation, none of the predictions of knowledge and skill variables was significant. These results together supported the value of examining the *quality* aspect of voice, as well as calling for more precision in the research of influence tactics. Towards the end, a theory of voice as an upward influence was proposed to guide future research.

Knowledge and Skill Predictors of Voice Behavior: Voice as an Upward Influence

Introduction

Employee voice behavior refers to "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (Morrison, 2011, *p*. 375). Scholars have argued that voice is important and highly valued in organizations, because top managers need information from employees at lower levels in the organization to respond appropriately to dynamic business conditions, to make good decisions, and to fix problems before they escalate (Morrison, 2011). Indeed, an organizational culture that discourages voice behavior could lead to disastrous business failures. GE's "Success Theater" culture that only welcomed positive information contributed to overoptimistic forecasts and botched strategies, and a loss of nearly ten billion dollars (Gryta, Lublin, & Benoit, 2018). Therefore, it is important to identify the antecedents of employee voice behavior. Significant progress has been made in this regard, researchers have identified important contextual factors (e.g., leadership styles, Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009; organizational structure, Glauser, 1984), individual factors (e.g., job attitudes, Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; personality, Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bourantas, 2008; status, Janssen & Gao, 2015), as well as social exchange relationships (e.g., relationship with leader) that serve as antecedents of employee voice (see Morrison, 2011, 2014 for a review).

Despite this progress, research has predominantly focused on what encourages people to speak up more, with less attention paid to whether these behaviors turn out to be *effective*. By definition, voice behavior derives from the motive to change. However, as Bashshur and Oc (2015) pointed out, changing the current state of affairs should be an important outcome of voice, but is commonly ignored in existing empirical research. Relatedly, because the focus of

most previous research has been on voice quantity, personality and motivational antecedents have received a great deal of attention as individual-level predictors of voice behavior, whereas the role of knowledge and skill predictors has been largely neglected. Similar to other types of extra-role behavior such as helping, conventional wisdom assumes that voice relies more on whether one is willing to engage in a behavior (i.e., "will do"; Borman & Penner, 2001), rather than on how well one executes the behavior (i.e., "can do"). In fact, many employees may have the motivation to speak up and do so frequently, but be unable to share their opinions in a way that leads to actual change. Empirical studies suggest that managers do not always respond in accordance with the suggestions raised by employees (Burris, 2012). Research on the relationship between voice and performance evaluations have also shown mixed results, suggesting that not all speaking-up behaviors are appreciated, and that some even backfire (e.g., Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). In other words, the effectiveness of voice behavior, or whether or not voice behavior actually leads to changes, should play an important role in models of voice but has not been explored to any great degree. As such, there is also a lack of research on what makes voice more effective, as well as on knowledge and skill predictors.

In this regard, the current paper makes two distinct contributions. First, through viewing voice behavior from an upward influence perspective, this study sheds light upon suggestion content and delivery factors that contribute to voice effectiveness, an understudied aspect of voice. An examination of these factors will help us look beyond what encourages people to speak up but to speak up more effectively, thereby generating a complete picture of the construct space of voice and its associated nomological network. Second, I identify the role of knowledge and skill predictors in making one's voice heard. Not only do certain knowledge and skills enable the voicer to make high-quality suggestions, they also improve one's efficacy to voice, which in turn

increases the frequency of voicing up. The conceptual model is presented in Figure 1. In the sections that follow, I first briefly review the current literature on employee voice behavior and argue why voice behavior should and could be studied from an upward influence perspective. Then I introduce the key factors of voice that contribute to an effective upward influence process, drawing from related literatures of communication, persuasion and influence, advice-taking, and feedback-seeking. Last, I will describe the knowledge and skills that are relevant to voice effectiveness via their effects on the upward influence process.

The "Can Do" Side: Voice as an Upward Influence Attempt

Voice is generally considered a discretionary or extra-role behavior, which goes beyond normal role expectations or job requirements but is intended to benefit the organization (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). As with other extra-role behaviors such as helping, it is traditionally assumed that voice relies more on one's willingness to engage in this behavior (i.e., "will do") and less on whether one is able to do it well (i.e., "can do"). Consequently, research on the knowledge and skill predictors of employee voice is lacking. The only exception is Grant (2013), in which emotional regulation knowledge was found to be positively related to voice quantity and to the performance evaluation one receives.

The aforementioned assumption regarding extra-role behavior has been challenged occasionally (e.g., Dudley & Cortina, 2008). Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount and Oh (2014) presented meta-analytic evidence suggesting that there is a cognitive component of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). These authors found a positive correlation ($\rho = .23$) between general mental ability and OCB, and relative weight analysis showed that general mental ability and the big-five personality factors explained a similar amount of the variance in OCB. These findings are consistent with the recent notion that citizenship can be performed ineffectively, for example,

the extent to which a help attempt from a colleague is perceived to be helpful depends on whether it fulfills the needs of the recipient (Dalal & Sheng, 2019). Though limited in number, there have been some attempts to identify knowledge and skills that are relevant to citizenship behavior. For example, in their theoretical work, Dudley and Cortina (2008) identified knowledge and skills that are relevant to the personal support dimension of OCB. Jawahar et al. (2008) found that political skills predicted both the interpersonal and organizational dimensions of OCB. This work suggests that the "can do" aspect of extra-role behavior needs to be considered.

The same arguments can be made for voice behavior. Voice was originally defined as the attempt to change a current state or affair through appealing to a higher authority (Hirschman, 1970). Even though there are differences among extant definitions of voice (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), some commonalities emerge. Specifically, voice involves a communication process, where the voicer sends a message to the recipient, usually a superior with power, with the goal of bringing about positive changes to the organization (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In particular, the definitions of voice imply that this behavior involves upward influence, or specifically, a persuasion process towards superiors to change a current objectionable state of affairs. Persuasion is "a form of social influence that involves changing others' thoughts, attitudes, or behaviors by applying rational and emotional arguments to convince them to adopt your position" (Bordens & Horowitz, 2001, *p*. 193). Persuasion is naturally involved in voice attempts, because one must make one's voice heard and heeded by people in power in order for voice behavior to lead to real changes. Just as some persuasion attempts are more effective in leading to attitude change than others, the action of speaking up as an upward influence attempt

could be helpful, unsuccessful, or harmful, depending on what one voices and how one approaches it. Research evidence has shown that speaking up could bring about favorable outcomes (e.g., Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008) as well as negative outcomes (Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001) for the individual and for the organization. These discussions, however, only focus on distal outcomes such as performance evaluation ratings or career progression outcomes. As Bashshur and Oc's (2015) systematic review pointed out, whether suggestions lead to superiors' attitude changes should be a more proximal outcome but is missing in the voice literature. We do not yet know what factors contribute to successful versus unsuccessful voice.

So, what are the factors that make some voice behaviors more effective in leading to changes than others? Drawing upon the organizational change literature, in order for a change to occur, three factors are essential: (a) a sufficient dissatisfaction with the status quo, (b) a strong attraction towards moving in the direction of the change, and (c) a well-thought out strategy to make the change happen (Dervitsiotis, 1998). More importantly, all three conditions are believed to be necessary for managers to feel the need for a particular change. The dissatisfaction with status quo factor has been widely discussed in the voice literature, but relatively little attention has been paid to employee choices about *what* to voice and *how* to voice (Morrison, 2011). If voice behavior is viewed as a type of communication, these two factors should be essential in determining communication effectiveness (Norton, 1983). Similar arguments have been made in the leadership literature in that both the content and delivery of leader vision predict leadership effectiveness (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Therefore, I argue that the *quality of the content of a suggestion* and *the quality of the delivery of a suggestion* are the two major factors determining voice effectiveness. Below I introduce these characteristics in more detail.

What to Voice?

It is straightforward that the content of a suggestion is relevant to the likelihood of a suggestion being adopted. For example, the issue-selling literature suggests that suggestions that focus on main objectives of key constituents are more likely to attract attention from the upper management (Dutton et al., 2001). In one of the few studies that looked into how suggestion content influences managerial reactions, Burris et al. (2017) found that voice related to the work unit (versus the profession) was rated more positively by supervisors because of its local relevance. As another example, Whiting et al. (2012) found that messages that included a solution are more likely to lead to positive managerial reactions (e.g., liking, performance appraisal ratings). Taking a broad view of the content of voice, I propose that the overall *quality* of the content of a suggestion is highly relevant for voice effectiveness. Drawing from related literatures on feedback and advice taking, research has shown that recipients' perceived accuracy and usefulness of feedback predict their willingness for development (Brett & Atwater, 2001), and that the quality of the advice (good or poor) is related to advice taking (Bonaccio & Dalal, 2006). Integrating research on quality of ideas in the creativity literature (Zhou & George, 2001) and quality of advice in the communication literature (Goldsmith & MacGeorge, 2000), a high-quality suggestion should have high originality, relevance, and feasibility. In addition, and perhaps more directly related to the core features of voice behavior, a good suggestion would be one that has the potential to bring about improvement over existing practices and help the organization operate more effectively. These characteristics reflecting content quality then contribute to the likelihood of a suggestion being adopted. Stated formally, I propose:

H1. The quality of the content of a suggestion (i.e., originality, relevance, feasibility, and potential for positive changes) positively predicts voice effectiveness.

How to Deliver Voice?

Having a good idea or suggestion is an important first step, but is not sufficient to make changes happen. If the voicer is unable to make a good case for their opinions or suggestions, change is unlikely to come about. As suggested by social influence theory, tactics play an important role in situations that involve an upward influence process, of which voice would be an example (Ferris, 2002). For example, research on issue crafting suggests that in order to influence, employees intentionally use language tactics to frame issues in ways that they think will be seen as more legitimate by others and will thus resonate with their audience (Sonenshein, 2006). Employees also use a variety of influence and politeness strategies when they engage in upward dissent and upward communication of bad news (Kassing, 2002; Lee, 1993). Therefore, in looking at factors relevant to the quality of the delivery of a suggestion, I in particular focus on whether influence tactics are used and whether tactics are used in a high-quality manner.

In particular, among all influence tactics I focus on rational persuasion and ingratiation, because they are commonly used and have shown to be effective for influencing superiors, as voice behavior specifically involves an upward influence process. Kipnis and colleagues identified and categorized influence tactics into two broad categories, hard and soft (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985; Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980). Hard tactics generally include "exchange," "legitimating," "pressure," and "coalition building", and soft tactics include "rational persuasion," "inspirational appeal," "consultation," "ingratiation," and "personal appeal." Compared to soft tactics, hard tactics are usually perceived as more forceful and less socially desirable (van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Because subordinates are lower in status, they usually do not have the legitimacy and power to use hard tactics (Farmer et al., 1997; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), making soft tactics more relevant to voice behavior. Among all soft tactics,

however, rational persuasion and ingratiation are more relevant to upward influence compared to others (i.e., inspirational appeal, consultation, and personal appeal). As subordinates lack formally-sanctioned powers to exert influence (Ralston, 1985), it is especially necessary to present a suggestion with rational and sound arguments (i.e., rational persuasion), as well as to use interpersonally-directed tactics such as ingratiation to offset the lack of power.

A variety of studies have supported the notion that rational persuasion is more commonly used in an upward direction and is one of the most effective tactics across all directions of influence (e.g., Bennebroek Gravenhorst & Boonstra, 1998; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Regarding ingratiation, even though some researchers argued that it should be used less often in upward influence because compliments and flattery from people with higher status and power would appear more credible (e.g., Yukl & Tracey, 1992), the opposite arguments have also been made. Specifically, it is less necessary for superiors to use ingratiation to seek subordinate compliance, rather they could use tactics associated with their position power such as assertiveness (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987). Empirical evidence has also supported the notion that ingratiation is more often used in upward influence (Bennebroek Gravenhorst & Boonstra, 1998). Research has also demonstrated the effectiveness of these two tactics in a variety of situations. For example, both tactics significantly influenced jury opinions in court trials (Chapman, 2009; Ziemke, 2009). Specific to work settings, a meta-analysis of the relations between influence tactics and work outcomes has suggested that ingratiation and rational persuasion are positively related to performance assessment and to markers of extrinsic success such as promotion (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). Below we develop hypotheses regarding each tactic.

Rational Persuasion. Rational persuasion involves using logical arguments and facts to persuade the target that a proposal or request is viable and likely to result in fulfillment of

important objectives (Yukl, 1990). Results from prior research suggest that the consequences of rational persuasion are mostly positive (e.g., Higgins et al., 2003; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Because voice involves employees expressing concerns or sharing suggestions to superiors to improve organizational functioning, the tactic of rational persuasion is particularly relevant. The issue-selling literature uses the term "presentation moves" to refer to the use of rational persuasion with numbers and charts, reliance on logical and coherent structure, and emphasis on bottom-line impact. Research has shown that presentation moves are critical to the success of proposals for change (Dutton et al., 2001). Relatedly, the issue-crafting literature suggests that issues framed in ways that are seen as legitimate by superiors are more likely to resonate with their audience and lead to positive audience reactions (Sonenshein, 2006). Research on advertising has also suggested connections between use of rational arguments and consumer satisfaction and buying behavior (O'Shaugnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2003). All this evidence suggests that the use of rational persuasion should contribute to persuasion effectiveness. Extrapolating to voice behavior, I propose:

H2a: Voicer's use of rational persuasion tactics positively predicts voice effectiveness.

Ingratiation. Ingratiation refers to the actor using "praise and flattery before or during the influence attempt to influence the target person to carry out a request or to support a proposal" (Yukl, Serfert, & Charvez, 2008, *p*. 610). Using ingratiation, the actor attempts to increase target cooperation by putting the target into a good mood and eliciting positive feelings towards the actor (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Ingratiation includes behaviors such as creating a favorable image of oneself or using flattery to form a favorable impression of the ingratiator (Jones, 1964). A variety of studies have demonstrated positive effects of subordinate ingratiation

such as higher leader-member exchange and career success (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1994).

The use of ingratiation tactics should contribute to voice effectiveness (i.e., likelihood of suggestions being adopted). Specifically, use of ingratiation tactics usually improves the target's liking for the actor, even if the ingratiation attempt is transparent (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998). Meta-analytic evidence suggests that multiple types of ingratiation (e.g., opinion conformity, flattery) are associated with targets' favorable impressions of the ingratiator (Gordon, 1996). Forming positive impressions and liking contributes to voice effective, as persuasion theory and research suggest that people are more likely to be persuaded by sources that they like (Hass, 1981). Additionally, ingratiation tactics contribute to suggestion adoption via social reciprocity. According to social exchange theory, receiving positive actions from others such as a compliment renders a desire to reciprocate with positive actions. In support of this notion, research has shown that flattery is effective in inflating performance appraisals (Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971). Therefore, H2b is proposed.

H2b: Voicer's use of ingratiation tactics positively predicts voice effectiveness.

High-quality delivery of suggestions not only requires choosing the right influence tactics but also deploying these tactics in a high-quality manner. Even though rational persuasion and ingratiation are generally found to be positively related to influence effectiveness, there are also many examples of nonsignificant relationships between use of tactics and influence effectiveness (e.g., Brennan, Miller, & Seltzer, 1993), indicating that even the most advantageous influence tactics do not always function in a way as intended. Using rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics may in fact result in more negative reactions from the target than would doing nothing. A politician offering a position but backing it up with flimsy arguments may find that he has

achieved even lower levels of trust from the audience. A car dealer might intend to engage in ingratiation towards customers to make a sale but appear insincere. As a result, the likelihood of the customer walking away might be increased by the ham-handed attempt at ingratiation. As such, in addition to whether rational persuasion and ingratiation are used, the quality of use of these two tactics should also be considered.

Research supports the notion that rational persuasion could be carried out with varying levels of quality. Experimental studies have demonstrated that some arguments are stronger than others, and that subjects generate more favorable thoughts in response to strong arguments as opposed to weak ones (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984). Moreover, these authors found that argument quality matters more than argument quantity in predicting persuasion effectiveness (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984). Similarly, a broad stream of social psychology research has suggested that ingratiation tactics will not increase target's liking of the agent unless the target perceives that the influence agent has good intentions (e.g., Broll, Gross & Piliavin, 1974; Greenberg & Frisch, 1972). As a result, ingratiation attempts towards the supervisor results in lower performance ratings when conducted poorly (Liu et al., 2014).

These findings from social psychology and persuasion research could be extrapolated to the domain of voice behavior. As argued above, presenting a plan regarding how to accomplish the desired change is an indispensable part of the organizational change process (Dervitsiotis, 1998). Part of the purpose of such a plan is persuasion. Because voice behavior aims at bringing about organizational change, it is more likely to appeal to superiors if the voicer can make a sound case for why these suggestions would bring positive changes to the organization. Interviews of managers also reveal that when people present an issue with reasons or with a logical and coherent structure, the proposal is more likely to be successful (Dutton et al., 2001).

Similarly, when a lower status individual attempts to ingratiate someone of higher status, the target may suspect that the ingratiator has a hidden agenda (Gurevitch, 1984). Researchers argue that ingratiation attempts can only be successful when the target perceives them to be sincere (Liden & Mitchell, 1988), with the intention to benefit others rather than themselves (Jones, 1990). Similarly, Liu et al. (2014) also argues that the effectiveness of ingratiation depends on the actor's ability to present ingratiation as a genuine expression of thoughts and feelings, instead of as a transparent attempt to influence. On the other hand, ingratiation leads to negative supervisor ratings if supervisors view subordinates' ingratiation behavior as manipulative (Treadway et al., 2007). Relatedly, effective ingratiation also requires that flattery and praise be used at an appropriate level. Excessive praise is more likely to make the target respond negatively as a result of not believing that the ingratiator really meant the praise (Buss, 1980).

In summary, I propose that to successfully voice, both the choice of appropriate influence tactics and high-quality deployment of these tactics are required. Stated formally:

H3a: The quality of use of rational persuasion tactics positively predicts voice effectiveness.

H3b: The quality of use of ingratiation tactics positively predicts voice effectiveness.

Knowledge and Skills Relevant to Influence Effectiveness

The extent to which persuasion efforts are effective depends on whether persuaders possess certain knowledge and skills. According to the Yale Communication Model (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953), the communicator, the message, the audience, and the context are all major factors influencing the effectiveness of persuasion attempts. In particular, the knowledge and skills of the communicator play an important role in determining persuasion effectiveness—persuasion is more effective when the communicator is able to tailor the message to and relate to

a specific audience. Similarly, knowledge and skills that are relevant for exerting influence successfully should make a difference in determining how likely it is that voice behavior brings about the changes that one intends.

Research on persuasion and social influence has recognized the importance of knowledge and skills, albeit mostly from a leadership perspective. The ability to influence remains a central part of the definition of leadership (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Leadership researchers have pointed out that negotiation and persuasion skills are important for leaders across all organizational levels (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). It has also been suggested that successful leaders possess two types of social intelligence—social perceptiveness and behavioral flexibility—which enable leaders to ascertain the demands of organizational scenarios and to tailor their responses accordingly (Zaccaro et al., 1991). Relatedly, political skill, which is defined as the ability to understand others at work and to use such knowledge to convince others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives, enables leaders to execute influence behaviors more effectively (Treadway et al., 2004). All in all, it is widely recognized in the leadership literature that knowledge and skills are essential for leaders to exert their influence.

Unlike leadership, which involves *downward* persuasion, the typical voice behavior is a type of *upward* persuasion—the party with less power (i.e., the subordinate) brings up suggestions, ideas, issues, or concerns to the party with more power (i.e., the supervisor). Just as knowledge and skills are essential for downward and lateral influence, so should they be essential for effective voice behavior. Although the specific objectives may be different, many of the same influence tactics are involved in both upward and downward social influence (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). More importantly, it is easier for leaders to exert influence because they possess

position power (French & Raven, 1959). Knowledge and skills should be even more important for upward influence activities such as voice, because the actor seeks to change the attitudes and behavior of others *without* the benefit of position power.

The importance of knowledge and skills for effective voice can also be extrapolated from related areas of inquiry. Issue selling, which is a subset of voice that specifically focuses on communicating information about organizational strategic issues or opportunities, requires the use of tactics in order to sell one's suggestions to top management successfully (Dutton et al., 2001). Specifically, choices regarding how one presents and bundles the issue, whether and how one involves others, and the formality and timing of communication are driven by relational, normative, and strategic knowledge (Dutton et al., 2001). Similarly, in the consumer behavior literature, researchers have proposed the Persuasion Knowledge Model to explain how people develop persuasion knowledge, how persuasion knowledge is used in various types of persuasion episodes, and how changes in that knowledge alter what occurs in agent-consumer interactions (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Three knowledge structures in particular, interact to shape and determine the outcomes of persuasion attempts, including persuasion knowledge (i.e., knowledge to recognize, analyze, interpret, evaluate, and remember persuasion attempts and to select and execute tactics believed to be effective and appropriate), agent knowledge (i.e., beliefs about the traits, competencies, and goals of the persuasion agent), and topic knowledge (i.e., beliefs about the topic of the message; Friestad & Wright, 1994). Just as knowledge and skills serve a key function in successfully selling an issue to upper management or a product to customers, so are they relevant to making one's voice heard and to influencing authority.

Knowledge and Skills: A Brief Summary

The term "knowledge" usually refers to *declarative* knowledge, which is defined as knowledge about facts, rules, principles, or procedures (Campbell, 1990; Motowildo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Skill, also referred to as *procedural* knowledge, refers to knowledge necessary to perform certain activities (Campbell, 1990). Skills differ from declarative knowledge in that they pertain to the processes underlying behaviors, or in other words, knowing how to do something. Some examples of skills include psychomotor skill, cognitive skill, and interpersonal skill. Motowildo et al. (1997) categorized knowledge and skills into two broad categories—task-related and contextual. Specifically, task knowledge is knowledge of facts and principles related to functions of the organization's technical core (Motowildo et al., 1997; p. 80). Contextual knowledge is knowledge of facts, principles, and procedures for effective action in situations that call for contextual performance such as helping and coordinating with others, supporting organizational objectives, etc. (Motowildo et al., 1997; p. 80). Task skill is skill in actually using technical information, performing technical procedures, handling information, making judgments, solving problems, and making decisions related to core technical functions (Motowildo et al. 1997; p. 81). Contextual skill is skill in actually carrying out actions known to be effective for handling situations that call for certain contextual performance (e.g., helping and coordinating with others, supporting organizational objectives; Motowildo et al. 1997; p. 81).

We argue that task-related knowledge makes a voicer more likely to bring up suggestions that are high in content quality (i.e., what to voice), while contextual knowledge and skills help one deliver the suggestion in a high-quality manner (i.e., how to voice). Whiting et al. (2012) argued that when the employee speaks up on an issue on which he or she has expertise, the observer is more likely to perceive the voicer as credible and the suggestion as constructive.

However, this argument is largely based on findings in the communication literature, which focuses on the observer's perspective only. In other words, it is the expertise of the communicator *as perceived by the observer* that drives the observer's credibility judgment, which then contributes to persuasion effectiveness (Brodsky, Griffin, & Cramer, 2010). We argue that regardless of the observer's perceptions, the voicer's task-related knowledge helps the voicer bring up suggestions with high-quality content. First of all, expert knowledge facilitates accurate problem recognition (Glaser, 1999). Employees who have a good grasp of facts and operations that are relevant to performing jobs well are more likely to identify issues that are important to address. Second, both resource allocation theory (Becker, 1965) and attention capacity theory (Kahneman, 1973) suggest that personal resources are finite. Both performing a task and voicing up require resource inputs, and individuals need to make a "trade-off" in the resources that can be applied to performing a task or engaging in extra-role behaviors such as voicing up (Bergeron, 2007). People who have task-related knowledge and skills have a higher capacity to perform their tasks well. As a result, they have more additional resources to be devoted to thinking of ways to make the organization better, which gives them more capacity to raise valuable and high-quality suggestions. Therefore, we propose:

H4: Task-related knowledge positively predicts voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion content.

With regards to contextual knowledge, Dudley and Cortina (2008) proposed a taxonomy of knowledge and skills that are relevant for voice behavior. We focus on a subset that is most likely to be relevant for upward influence. We argue that when employees possess such knowledge and skills, they are more likely to choose the right tactics and to use them appropriately when they voice up to their superiors. In other words, these knowledge and skills

lead to high-quality delivery of suggestions, which in turn increases voice effectiveness. Below we introduce these knowledges and skills one by one.

Trait and Strategy Richness

To select and use influence tactics effectively, it is beneficial to have a rich repertoire of knowledge regarding characteristics of people. According to the personal construct psychology of Kelly (1955), features of the world are apprehended through "personal constructs", or "templates that a person creates and then attempts to fit over the realities of which the world is composed" (p. 9). Trait richness refers to the breadth of knowledge concerning personality traits, beliefs, attitudes, preferences, and personal histories of others, while strategy richness refers to the breadth of knowledge concerning strategies for dealing with varying interpersonal interaction situations (Bettencourt et al., 2001). Trait and strategy richness can facilitate perspective-taking, which fosters accurate assessment of the type of behavior that is appropriate for a given situation, as well as proper execution of the behavior (Kenny, 1994; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Research has associated variants of trait and strategy richness with delivering person-centered messages, structuring conversational interactions, and facilitating communication effectiveness (e.g., Burleson & Samter, 1990; Clark & Delia, 1979; Ellis, Hamilton, & Aho, 1983). Trait and strategy richness are also positively related to the effective delivery of some types of extra-role behavior such as helping behavior and emotional support (Burleson, 1985).

People with higher levels of trait and strategy richness should be more likely to choose the influence tactics that will be effective in a given context. Research has demonstrated that trait and strategy richness is relevant for effectiveness in situations that involve persuasion such as customer service (e.g., Bettencourt et al., 2001). Specifically, customer service representatives who have a richer understanding of customer traits and of strategies for dealing with different

people are more effective at classifying customers into appropriate categories (Leigh & McGraw, 1989; Szymanski, 1988). For example, a salesman with broader knowledge of customers could categorize buyers depending on whether they are task-oriented or relationship-oriented, then choose a selling approach that is most like to be effective (Sheth, 1975). Tactics such as rational persuasion would be more appealing to task-oriented customers while interpersonal tactics such as ingratiation would work more effectively for relationship-oriented customers. With high trait and strategy richness, customer service representatives are better in choosing influence tactics that are appropriate to a given customer category, resulting in better service performance.

Similarly, voicers with a breadth of knowledge concerning people characteristics are more likely to understand their supervisors accurately and are therefore able to choose effective influence tactics when voicing their suggestions. As we argue below, a variety of supervisor attributes should determine which influence tactics are likely to be effective. Subordinates high in trait and strategy richness would therefore know whether they should use rational persuasion, ingratiation, or a combination of both, depending on who they are voicing to. For example, using rational persuasion alone will be more effective on a supervisor with a rational decision-making style and high core self-evaluation, but a combination of rational persuasion and ingratiation may be better if the supervisor has a rational decision-making style but low core self-evaluation. In sum, the higher a subordinate is in trait and strategy richness, the more accurate they will be in understanding their supervisors and choosing influence tactics accordingly.

A rich knowledge of people traits and interpersonal strategies should also enable a voicer to deploy influence tactics in a high-quality manner. When an employee understands different types of people and is aware of the specific needs of the target relative to the situation, he/she is more effective in social interactions and the building of connections (Bettencourt & Gwinner,

1996). Specific to the persuasion process, agents with more breadth of interpersonal knowledge are more likely to be perceived as "credible" and "trustworthy" by the target (Clark & Goldsmith, 2006), which is a key determinant of ingratiation effectiveness (Jones, 1990; Liden & Mitchell, 1988). In addition, variants of trait and strategy richness (e.g., interpersonal cognitive complexity) have been widely associated with the ability to produce persuasive and informative messages that are audience-adapted (e.g., Burleson, 1985), rendering more effective rational persuasion. To sum up, voicers with higher trait and strategy richness are more likely to choose the right influence tactics and use them in a high-quality manner. As a result, they would be more effective in persuading their supervisors to take their suggestions. Therefore, I propose:

> *H5: Trait and strategy richness positively predict voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; the quality of use of these two tactics).*

Knowledge of the Target

In addition to knowledge of a wide range of people characteristics, the voicer also benefits from knowledge of the specific influence target. A broad breadth of interpersonal knowledge allows a voicer to choose tactics and to use them effectively regardless of whom they voice up to, whereas knowledge of a particular target will make a voicer more effective in influencing that particular person. The "know-your-audience" effect has been widely established in multiple research literatures. Linguistic research has highlighted the importance of "audience design", arguing that communicators need to adjust their speech in response to the type of audience they face (Bell, 1984). Specifically, the communicator collects characteristics of the audience, such as background, interest, or area of expertise, in order to determine the aspects of messages to be emphasized and the manner of their presentation (Isaacs & Clark, 1987). In the

communication literature, Siedner et al. (2015) found that patient-centered communication resulted in higher rates of patient response to requested return to care. Scholars have also pointed out that cross-cultural competence, which includes knowledge of and skills in dealing with other cultures, is critical in predicting cross-cultural communication effectiveness and international business success (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006; Sue & Torino, 2005). The feedback literature also suggests that because characteristics of the target determine how effective each type of feedback is (Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004), knowledge of target can make the difference between feedback that is taken on board and feedback that is ignored.

Similarly, to make an effective attempt at upward influence, voicers need to know their audience and choose influence tactics accordingly. Cable and Judge (2003) found that subordinates' choices of influence tactics in interacting with their supervisor depends on their supervisor's leadership style. I have hypothesized above that use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics, as well as the quality of use of these two tactics, contribute to voice effectiveness. Depending on the characteristics of the influence target, however, one tactic may be more effective than the other. Some managers, for example those of a more analytical bent, would be more prone to the rational persuasion tactic, while ingratiation might work better for those that rely heavily on external affirmation.

Even if the optimal tactic is chosen, it can be used in different ways, resulting in different reactions. For example, research has shown that Americans are more receptive to direct forms of praise, while Japanese prefer more indirect forms of praise. In fact, direct praise often makes Japanese feel uncomfortable (Barnlund & Araki, 1985). A voicer who knows this would avoid direct ingratiation with a Japanese supervisor as this would be an ineffective usage of the tactic. In other words, knowing one's supervisor, especially knowing the characteristics that determine

his/her responsiveness to one sort of tactic or another helps the voicer decide what influence tactics to use and how to use them. Below I describe target characteristics that are relevant the effectiveness of use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics. Knowing these characteristics of the target will help the voicer choose influence tactics and use them in a high-quality manner.

Decision-making Style. Cognitive style theory proposes that people exhibit differences in their habitual patterns of processing and making sense of information (e.g., Robey & Taggart 1981; Lord & Maher, 1990). It is generally believed that cognitive styles represent one's habitual modes and preferences of information processing, rather than cognitive capacity or level of information processing, and are quite stable (Payne, 1987). Of particular interest here is the fact that people differ in terms of how much they rely on rational versus intuitive approaches to decision making. A rational decision-making style encompasses thinking and decision-making patterns that are objective, sequential, convergent, logical and detailed (Sadler-Smith, 2004). People with a rational decision-making style make decisions through information search and logical evaluation of alternatives (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2012). An intuitive decision-making style, on the other hand, encompasses thinking and decision-making patterns that are divergent, simultaneous, feeling-dependent and holistic (Sadler-Smith, 2004). People with an intuitive decision-making style are usually described as relying on "gut feelings" or "hunches" (Curşeu & Schruijer, 2012). Research has also proven that these two decision-making styles are quite stable and have considerable between-person variance (Driver, 1979; Harren, 1979).

A manager with a rational decision-making style will focus more on rationality and logic when considering whether a suggested change should be approved or not. Thus, rational persuasion tactics should be more influential when voicing up to this type of manager. In order to increase the likelihood of idea adoption by such managers, voicers could provide supporting

facts and evidence to strengthen the legitimacy of their positions (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). Managers with rational styles should prefer that voicers bolster their arguments with relevant numbers and charts and to present them in a logical and coherent manner. On the other hand, managers with an intuitive decision-making style tend to make affectively charged judgments that are based on rapid, nonconscious, and holistic associations (Dane & Pratt, 2007). This decision-making style helps managers make decisions quickly under time pressure (e.g., Eisenhardt, 1989), especially when there is a high level of uncertainty in the environment (Khatri & Ng, 2000). Managers with an intuitive decision-making style would show less interest in the details and logic underlying a suggestion. Instead, the success of voice would depend on whether or not the voicer elicits positive feelings from the target (Reber, 1993). For this type of manager, ingratiation tactics in general should work more effectively than rational persuasion because the positive feelings elicited by ingratiation would play an important role in their decision-making process. Insofar as rational persuasion is likely to work for such targets, voicing through presenting a big picture and painting a vision is more likely to cultivate positive feelings than would numbers and details. Tying suggestions to high-level strategic goals such as profitability, organizational image, or concerns of key constituents would therefore be more likely to succeed. To sum up, knowing the manager's decision-making style helps the voicer decide whether rational persuasion or ingratiation tactics should be used, as well as the best approach to use these tactics. As a result, the target is more likely to be persuaded by and adopt the voicer's suggestions. Therefore, I propose:

> *H6: Knowledge of superiors' decision-making style positively predicts voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; the quality of use of these two tactics).*

Core self-evaluation. Core self-evaluation is a general dispositional factor that represents the fundamental, bottom-line appraisals that individuals hold about themselves (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). According to Judge et al.'s (1997) conceptualization, core self-evaluation is comprised of four core personality traits that are strongly related to each other—self-esteem, the overall evaluation of one's self-worth or value; generalized self-efficacy, the belief about one's capabilities of performing well across contexts; neuroticism, the dispositional tendency to be anxious and emotional; and locus of control, the belief about whether causes of events in one's life are internal or external. High levels of core self-evaluation are manifested in high levels of self-esteem, emotional stability, and general self-efficacy, and an internal locus of control. An individual high on core self-evaluation has positive self-regard and tends to be well-adjusted, positive, self-confident, and efficacious, *and* believes in his or her own agency (Judge et al., 2003). These deep and fundamental self-appraisals then influence the evaluation of one's surrounding environment, which play an important role in forming attitudes and behavior at work (Judge & Bono, 2001). Just as how decision-making style influences the likelihood that rational persuasion or ingratiation will be effective, the elements underlying a supervisor's core self-evaluation should play an important role in determining how well he or she reacts to rational persuasion or ingratiation tactics. As a result, knowing where one's supervisor stands in terms of core self-evaluation helps the voicer decide which tactics are more appropriate.

Rational persuasion tactics should be more suitable for individuals with high core self-evaluation. The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion proposes that influence targets vary in their propensity to engage in effortful endeavors to elaborate information (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Specifically, people with higher levels of competence and self-efficacy are predisposed to activate the *central* route to persuasion, which involves careful examination of information and

issue-relevant thinking (White, 1959; Cacioppo et al., 1986). For this type of supervisor, persuasion effectiveness should be highly dependent on whether and how well rational persuasion is used. In addition, research has found that people who are low on neuroticism are more likely to activate and rely on their rational cognition systems, as well as having a stronger preference for others' use of rational persuasion on them (Marks et al., 2008; Pacini & Epstein, 1999). People with internal locus of control are also more likely to require more information regarding an influence request than do those with external locus of control, indicating a higher need for rationality (Phares, 1976). All of this evidence suggests that rational persuasion tactics should be preferred by managers with a high level of core self-evaluation.

On the other hand, individuals with low core self-evaluation have more negative self-images. As a result, they are more likely to have an ego-defensive tendency and to take actions to enhance their self-concept (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). For these managers, voicers should attempt to minimize potential threats to self-esteem, instead aiming to allow their supervisors to "save face". Using ingratiation tactics ensures that managers' perception of self-competence remains unthreatened by speaking up behavior from their subordinates, making the suggestions better received. Offering some initial support for these arguments, Cho and Fast (2012) found that gratitude expression has self-affirming effects for insecure supervisors and ameliorates threatened supervisors' self-defensive tendencies. Relatedly, because neuroticism represents one's predisposition to react strongly to emotion-producing stimuli (Eysenck, 1975), emotion-inducting tactics such as ingratiation are more likely to work for people who are high on neuroticism. In addition, Wheeless, Barraclough, and Stewart (1983) argued that externals have a greater need for belonging and esteem than do internals, making them more responsive to influence tactics like ingratiation that help with relationship building. To sum up, if one knows

whether their manager is high versus low in core self-evaluation, they would have a better idea of what influence tactics to use and how to deploy tactics in an effective manner. Therefore, we propose Hypothesis 7.

H7: Knowledge of superior's core self-evaluation positively predicts voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; the quality of use of these two tactics).

Narcissism. Narcissism, usually included as one of the dark triad, is characterized by grandiosity, entitlement, dominance, and a sense of superiority (Raskin & Hall, 1979). Narcissists are highly motivated to gain the admiration of others, and their self-concept relies on continuous external affirmation through others' admiration (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Narcissism is also a common "syndrome" in managers (Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990), especially those at high organizational levels such as CEOs (Padilla et al., 2007). In general, narcissistic individuals prefer interacting with individuals who can enhance their positive self-image, and they tend to reward those who reinforce their narcissism and punish those who do not (Chatterjee & Pollock, 2017). To maintain positive relationships with narcissistic leaders, subordinates must constantly feed their grandiosity, and narcissistic leaders do not trust people who refuse to flatter them (Hogan & Hogan, 2002). Narcissistic leaders are more likely to reward subordinates' ingratiation behavior (Westphal & Stern, 2007), and research has proved ingratiation tactics effective for coping with leader narcissism and its associated outcomes (e.g., abusive supervison; Harvey et al., 2007). Because of a high level of focus on themselves, narcissistic leaders are likely to react positively to ingratiation tactics but demonstrate less interest in rational persuasion tactics. Narcissism has been found to relate negatively to rational thinking (Watson & Morris, 1990). Researchers have pointed out that narcissistic leaders'

overconfidence and "fantasies" about themselves lead to higher levels of irrationality and inflexibility (Glad, 2002), because they are unwilling or unable to consider information to the contrary (Conger, 1997). All this evidence suggests that a knowledge of the supervisor's narcissism helps the voicer choose and use appropriate influence tactics, such that ingratiation tactics should be preferred for high narcissism leaders while rational persuasion tactics preferred for the rest. Therefore, we propose H8.

> *H8: Knowledge of supervisors' narcissism positively predicts voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; the quality of use of these two tactics).*

Perspective Taking Skill

Even though perspective taking is sometimes referred to as a disposition (e.g., Davis, 1983), researchers have also pointed out that it contains a skill component (e.g., Hogan & Hogan, 2002). Perspective taking skill refers to the skill that allows one to put oneself in another's place and evaluate the other's (i.e., the target's) perspective accurately (Hogan & Hogan, 2002). Researchers have argued that the capacity to assume and maintain another's point of view serves a basic social cognitive component in communication (Hale & Delia, 1976). Perspective taking has been shown to predict both effective communication and career success (Sypher & Bostrom, 1989). More importantly, research has demonstrated an association between perspective taking skill and both the quantity and quality of prosocial behavior. Specifically, perspective taking leads to a higher frequency of engaging in prosocial behavior (Iannotti, 1985; Vaish, Carpenter & Tomasello, 2009). Employees' perspective-taking is also associated with higher leader ratings of contextual performance (Parker & Axtell, 2001). People who lack perspective taking skills

have an inaccurate understanding of what others need or want. As a result, their prosocial attempts are often viewed as ineffective (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

When voicing up, perspective taking skill allows the voicer to choose the influence tactics that are most appropriate to a given target. Voicing up is comparable to a negotiation process, during which an adequate understanding of one's negotiation opponent has been shown to relate to negotiation success and to maximizing joint gain (Thompson & Hrebec, 1996). By putting oneself in the shoes of the target, the voicer can minimize self-centered biases (Lord, Lepper, & Preston, 1984) and consider how an influence tactic would be viewed from their superior's perspective before using it. As a result, those high in perspective taking are more likely to choose an influence tactic that will be well-received. A study of deployed military personnel found that perspective taking predicts the choice of influence tactics that result in cross-cultural influence success (Wolfe & Arrow, 2013). On the other hand, a lack of understanding of the other party leads to unwise influence attempts and results in unfavorable outcomes across multiple contexts (e.g., Galinsky & Mussweiler, 2001).

Perspective taking skills are also relevant for the high-quality deployment of influence tactics. Perspective taking skills enhance the voicer's capacity to understand the target's point of view, therefore enabling the voicer to tailor his or her influence tactics in a way that is consistent with the target's expectations (Davis et al., 1996). Research has shown that perspective-taking enables one to select persuasive messages that fit the audience (Clark & Delia, 1977). As a result, people with perspective taking skills are more likely to compel their targets to take the action being advocated (Hung & Wyer, 2009).

To sum up, perspective taking skills enable the voicer to understand the target, therefore the voicer is more likely to voice effectively through choosing appropriate tactics and use tactics in a high-quality manner. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 is proposed.

H9: Perspective taking skill positively predicts voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; the quality of use of these two tactics).

Political Skill

Political skill is "a social cognitive construct that combines social astuteness with the capacity to adjust behavior to changing situational demands in a manner that appears to be sincere, inspires support and trust, and effectively influences and controls responses of others" (Ferris et al., 2005; p. 128). People with high levels of political skill have the ability to understand others and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives (Ferris et al., 2005; Perrewé et al., 2004). Research has linked political skill to contextual performance in general. For example, Jawahar et al. (2008) found that political skill was more strongly related to contextual performance than to task performance. Treadway et al. (2007) found that political skill is positively related to interpersonal facilitation (i.e., the degree to which employees are helpful, considerate, and cooperative in their relations to others in the workplace).

Research has found that political skill positively predicts the effectiveness of upward influence in organizations (e.g., Harris et al., 2007). Political skill facilitates understanding of social cues, allowing one to tailor his or her influence tactics to their supervisors (Harris et al., 2007). Ferris et al. (2000) noted that "people high in political skill not only know precisely what to do in different social situations at work, but also know exactly how to do it in a sincere

manner that disguises any potentially manipulative motives and renders the influence attempt successful" (pp. 30-31). This reasoning is also consistent with Heider's balance theory of attitude change, which suggests that the likelihood of attitude change depends on whether or not an influence attempt is perceived as sincere or authentic by the target (Alessio, 1990). Because politically skilled people are more likely to instill in others perceptions of altruistic intent and genuineness (Riggio, Tucker, & Throckmorton, 1987) and to inspire the trust of the target (Mintzberg, 1983), their influence attempts are better received. Although not examined in the context of voice behavior, empirical research has supported the notion that subordinates' political skill is a decisive factor in determining supervisors' reactions to subordinates' use of influence tactics (Treadway et al., 2007). Politically skilled subordinates also receive higher supervisor evaluations of performance when they engage in impression management behavior (Harris et al., 2007).

Political skill is also important for use of ingratiation tactics, of which effectiveness depends greatly on whether the influencer's motives are perceived as genuine. As argued previously, ingratiation may not be executed successfully. Ingratiation efforts that are not carried out appropriately lead to lower supervisor ratings because the supervisor would make negative attributions of the ingratiation attempt (Treadway et al., 2007). In other words, if the target of ingratiation perceives a hidden agenda, or if the voicer cannot make their compliments appear credible, then it is more likely that ingratiation attempts will backfire (Jones, 1964). Researchers also argue that, compared to other directions of influence, upward influence such as voicing up is particularly dependent upon political skill because the persuader lacks power (Ferris et al., 2000). In sum, political skill enables a voicer to choose appropriate tactics as well as to carry out

influence tactics effectively. As a result, highly politically skilled individuals are more likely to persuade their supervisors to take their suggestions. Therefore, I propose:

H10: Political skill positively predicts voice effectiveness through the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; the quality of use of these two tactics).

Knowledge and Skills Predicting Voice Quantity

In addition to the discussions above, consideration of voice-relevant knowledge and skills will also improve our understanding of the reasons that people are unwilling to speak up. The voice literature has pointed out that perceived efficacy, or the perception of whether or not speaking up is likely to be effective, is a key factor that motivates one to speak up (Morrison, 2011). Research suggests that when the voicer has a feeling of control over the outcome of their behavior, the individual will have a stronger expectancy that voice will be effective and therefore will engage in more frequent voice behavior (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). According to expectancy theory, people are more motivated to put in effort when they believe that their effort will lead to desired outcomes (Vroom, 1964). Self-efficacy theory also posits that one's belief about one's capability in a specific domain influences one's motivation to engage in behaviors in that domain (Bandura, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). All of these theories suggest a positive relationship between perceived efficacy to voice and frequency of voice behavior.

Situational factors that contribute to a good voice climate, in which supervisors or top management teams are willing to listen to employees' suggestions, are indeed essential for employee voice efficacy (Ashford et al., 1998; Miceli & Near, 1992; Withey & Cooper, 1989). From the voicer's perspective, however, having contextual knowledge and skills that are relevant to voice should also increase one's judgment of the likelihood that one can voice effectively. By

definition, people who believe that they have the skills to perform well on a certain task have high levels of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). I have developed hypotheses above regarding the knowledge and skills that are required to voice effectively. These knowledge and skills enable the voicer to present their suggestions and concerns in a persuasive and effective manner, which increases the voicer's perceived efficacy to voice. Furthermore, these aforementioned knowledge and skills should generally be associated with successful voice behavior and higher likelihood of managerial endorsement of suggestions. Past success should further strengthen one's self-efficacy to voice, as information regarding past performance provides the basis to judge the likelihood to succeed in the future (Ackerman, Kanfer, & Goff, 1995).

To sum up, voicers equipped with the aforementioned knowledge and skills will have higher perceived efficacy for speaking up, and as a result will voice up more frequently. Therefore, we propose Hypothesis 11.

H11: Trait and strategy richness, knowledge of the target, perspective taking skill, and political skill positively predict perceived efficacy to voice, which in turn predicts voice quantity and voice effectiveness.

Methods

Participants and Procedure

The sample came from business school instructors and undergraduate students from four public universities. Instructors who agreed to participate were asked to send a recruiting flyer to their students to invite them to participate in exchange for course credit. A Qualtrics survey was created for students to provide anonymous suggestions for their class. Specifically, students were instructed to provide suggestions that could improve their learning experience in the course or to make the course better in the future. To give students enough familiarity with the course to

provide relevant suggestions, the survey for soliciting student suggestions was open from the middle of the semester through the end of the semester. Students were told that they could provide as many suggestions as they liked, at any time while the online channel was open. If a student was involved in multiple courses or sections from which data were collected, he or she was able to choose only one course section for which to provide suggestions.

Students in these classes were then invited to respond to questionnaires measuring trait and strategy richness, perspective taking skill, political skill, and perceived efficacy to voice. Items measuring trait and strategy richness and perceived efficacy to voice were adapted to reflect the classroom setting. Students also responded to items measuring perceived characteristics of their instructors (i.e., instructors' decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism). Questionnaires also included measures of personality variables that are commonly used as predictors of voice behavior (i.e., proactive personality, extraversion, and conscientiousness). They were included as alternative predictors of voice to be compared with the effects of the knowledge and skill variables. Instructors were also invited to respond to questionnaires measuring their decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism. All survey items are presented in Appendix A.

At the end of the semester, student suggestions were collected and sent to the corresponding instructor after identity information was removed. Instructors were asked to rate (1) the quality of each suggestion and (2) the likelihood that they would incorporate the suggestion in the future. The survey measuring content quality was sent two weeks before the survey measuring willingness to incorporate suggestions. Each suggestion was also independently coded by two trained coders who were blind to the purpose of the study. Coders first coded whether rational persuasion or ingratiation tactics were used. If any influence tactic

was used, the quality of the use of the tactic was also coded according to a pre-developed coding scheme (presented in Appendix B). Initial coding agreement was 85.5%, and disagreement was resolved through discussion.

A total of 511 students and eight instructors participated in the study, providing a total of 482 suggestions. After removing cases that failed data quality checks, the final sample contained a total of 467 students from eight class sections, providing a total of 416 suggestions. Specifically, 152 students did not provide any suggestions, 240 students provided 1 suggestion, 55 students provided 2 suggestions, 15 students provided 3 suggestions, 4 students provided 4 suggestions, and 1 student provided 5 suggestions. In the final sample, participants were mainly White/Caucasians (n = 222, 47.5%) and female (n = 255, 54.6%). Most participants were in their third year of college (n = 161, 34.5%). The average participant age was 21.4 with a range of 18 to 49 (SD = 3.9).

Measures

Trait and Strategy Richness. Measures for trait and strategy richness were adapted from Bettencourt et al.'s (2001) 5-item trait and strategy richness scale (2 items for trait richness and 3 items for strategy richness). Because the original scale was developed with a customer service representative sample, I adapted the wording to reflect the classroom setting. Pilot data were collected through MTurk (N = 215) to validate the adapted scale. Results showed that the two trait richness items correlated .50 ($p < 0.01$). In addition, the negatively worded item in the strategy richness scale ("I only use one or two strategies to make an influence on others") failed to load significantly onto the corresponding factor. This item was therefore removed. To make up for the lost item, I wrote two new items for the strategy richness scale[1] ("I can tailor my

[1] Two new items were written for the trait richness scale as well. CFA results showed that they failed to load significantly onto the trait richness factor, therefore these two new items were not included in the analysis.

strategy to make it effective in influencing different people" and "When I try to influence others, I am good at making my strategy appropriate to the situation"). Another pilot sample (N = 230) was collected to validate the scale with newly written items. CFA results revealed that the two-factor structure fit the data well, χ^2 (df = 8) = 16.70, CFI = .974, TLI = .951, RMSEA = .069, SRMR = .033. This model also fit significantly better than a one-factor model (χ^2 [df = 9] = 42.60, CFI = .900, TLI = .833, RMSEA = .064, SRMR = .127), $\Delta\chi^2$ [df = 1] = 25.90, p < .001.

These six items were retained for the student sample. A sample item for trait richness is "Because I have a good knowledge of different people characteristics, it is easy for me to identify individual differences," and a sample item for strategy richness is "I can use a different strategy for dealing with almost every situation when I try to influence others." Similar to the first pilot sample, in the student sample the two trait richness items correlated .49. Cronbach's α was .83 for strategy richness. As was true in Bettencourt et al. (2001), trait and strategy richness were highly correlated in the current sample (r = .46, p < .01). Thus, I combined these two variables into one predictor in subsequent analysis. Cronbach's α for the combined trait and strategy scale was .83.

Students' Knowledge of the Instructor. Instructors responded to questionnaires measuring their own decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism. Students responded to the same questionnaires, but were instructed to indicate how accurately each item describes their instructor. Decision-making style was measured with an 8-item scale developed by Scott and Bruce (1995). Cronbach's α = .78 for the student rated scale and Cronbach's α = .73 for the instructor rated scale. Core self-evaluation was measured with Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen's (2003) 12-item scale. One item was removed because the internal consistency reliability for the instructor rated scale was below conventional cutoffs. After removing the one

item, Cronbach's α for the student rated scale was .83 and for the instructor rated scale was .78. Narcissism was measured with the NPI-16 scale developed by Ames, Rose, and Anderson (2006). Again, three items were removed because of low correlations with other items. Cronbach's α for the final scale was .71 for student ratings and .76 for instructor ratings[2]. The averages of each scale were calculated. Higher levels of knowledge were reflected by higher congruence between student ratings and instructor ratings on the same scale.

Perspective-taking Skill. Perspective-taking skill was measured using a 5-item scale adapted from Davis (1980). This is the most commonly used scale to measure perspective-taking and has been widely used in management research (e.g., Axtell et al., 2007; Grant & Berry, 2011). Items were modified to measure one's *skill* instead of *willingness* or *belief* regarding perspective-taking, and two items were removed because they could not be modified to measure skill ("If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments." and "I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision."). A sample item for the modified scale is "I am good at imagining how I would feel if I were in another person's place." A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was used.

Because adaptations were made, a pilot sample was collected from MTurk (N = 215) to verify the measurement properties of the modified scale. Results showed that a one-factor model fit the data well, χ^2 (df = 5) = 9.56, RMSEA = .066, CFI = .979, TLI = .957, SRMR = .034, however, Cronbach's α was below conventional cutoffs (.61), and the negatively worded item did not load strongly onto the factor. After removing the negatively worded item, the fit of the one-factor model improved (χ^2 [df = 2] = 0.456, RMSEA = 0.000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.023,

[2] Ames et al. (2006) also reported low reliabilities for the NPI-16 scale in several samples, however, their study showed that shortened scale was highly correlated with the full NPI-40 scale across samples.

SRMR = .007), and Cronbach's α is above conventional levels (Cronbach's α = .74). This 4-item scale was then used for the student sample (Cronbach's α = .78).

Political Skill. Political skill was measured with Ahearn et al.'s (2004) short 6-item scale, which was based on Ferris et al. (1999). Students indicated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) their levels of agreement with each statement. A sample item is "I always seem to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others." Cronbach's α = .80 for this scale.

Knowledge of Course Material. Students rated perceptions of their own mastery level of course material on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = very limited to 5 = expert[3].

Perceived Efficacy to Voice. Perceived efficacy to voice was measured with the 6-item scale developed by Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar (2011). Frame of reference was slightly modified to refer to the classroom setting instead of a work team setting. Students responded on a 5-point scale (1 = definitely not capable, 5 = definitely capable) about the degree to which they felt they were capable of voicing suggestions. A sample item is "effectively speaking up in this class with ideas for changes in procedures." Cronbach's α = .84 for this scale.

Suggestion Content Quality. A 4-item scale was developed according to our definition of the quality of suggestion content. The four items are: (1) This suggestion is relevant to the content of this class; (2) This suggestion is feasible to implement in this class; (3) This suggestion will help reach the learning objectives of this class; (4) This suggestion offers new practices that are not currently used in this class. A pilot sample was collected from MTurk (N = 215) to validate the measurement properties of this scale. Three student suggestions were used as examples in the pilot data collection. Respondents completed the 4-item scale for each of the

[3] This measure was add based on suggestions from the proposal defense.

three suggestions. Course descriptions were provided to participants as reference. CFA results showed that a 1-factor model fit well for all three suggestions. χ^2 (*df* = 2) = 1.52, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.011, SRMR = .015; χ^2 (*df* = 2) = 0.76, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.012, SRMR = .007; χ^2 (*df* = 2) = 4.91, RMSEA = .083, CFI = .975, TLI = .924, SRMR = .029; respectively. Cronbach's αs were .74, .87, and .73, respectively.

At the end of the semester, student's suggestions were collected and sent to the corresponding instructor after removing any identifiers. Instructors then rated each suggestion's quality using the four items described above. One-factor CFA results showed that the last item ("This suggestion offers new practices that are not currently used in this class") did not load strongly onto the factor and was weakly correlated with the other three items. This indicated that instructors might consider a suggestion to be of high quality even though it did not contain anything that went beyond current practices. Therefore, the three-item scale was retained for all subsequent analyses. Cronbach's α was .67 for this scale.

Use of Influence Tactic and Effectiveness of Suggestion Delivery. The effectiveness of suggestion delivery was evaluated by two third-party coders, who were blind to the purpose of the study. Coders independently reviewed each suggestion on whether an ingratiation or a rational persuasion tactic was used (1 = yes, 0 = no). If a given tactic was used, the suggestion was then judged on the extent to which the tactic was deployed effectively (1 = ineffective, 2 = somewhat effective, 3 = very effective). According to Yukl et al.'s (2008) definition, rational persuasion refers to presenting facts, evidence, or arguments as reasons to support why a suggestion is feasible and relevant. Effective use of this tactic means that there is a strong, logical connection between the reason that was given and the suggestion itself, and that it is clearly stated why the suggested change should lead to potential improvement. Effective

ingratiation involves using positive comments in a sincere way and at an appropriate level. An initial coding scheme was developed accordingly.

Using the initial coding scheme as a guide, both raters went through several training sessions to become familiarized with the coding scheme. Definitions as well as examples for each tactic were provided as a guide for coders. The pair of coders first coded 20 suggestions independently, then came together with the researcher in a group discussion to reach consensus. Updates were made to the coding scheme to provide clarity in an iterative process until no further issues were identified. Coders then used the final coding scheme to code all suggestions. The final coding scheme is presented in Appendix B.

Voice Quantity. Voice quantity was measured simply by a count of the distinct suggestions each student provided.

Voice Effectiveness. Voice effectiveness was measured by instructor ratings. Instructors rated suggestions with regard to their willingness to adopt each suggestion with a 4-item scale adapted from Burris (2012) and Fast et al. (2014). A sample item is "How likely is it that you will take this suggestion in the future? 1 = 'very unlikely', 5 = 'very likely'. Because this scale was adapted, a pilot sample was again collected (N = 215 from MTurk) to establish measurement properties using the same three suggestions mentioned above. Participants were asked to respond to these questions as if they were the instructor of the class (with course descriptions provided). For each suggestion, I ran a one-factor CFA with the 4 items. Model fit was generally good across all example suggestions. Suggestion 1: χ^2 (df = 2) = 8.81, RMSEA = .127, CFI = .986, TLI = .959, SRMR = .019; Suggestion 2: χ^2 (df = 2) = 4.63, RMSEA = .079, CFI = .995, TLI = .985, SRMR = .012; Suggestion 3: χ^2 (df = 2) = 6.28, RMSEA = .101, CFI = .986, TLI = .959,

SRMR = .022. Cronbach's αs were .89, .90, and .82 for these three scenarios, respectively. This 4-item scale was then used for instructor ratings. Cronbach's α was .88 for this scale.

Variables for Supplementary Analysis. Proactive personality, extraversion, and conscientiousness were measured as alternative predictors of voice behavior. These variables were chosen as previous research has demonstrated them to be major dispositional antecedents of voice behavior (Crant, Kim, & Wang, 2011). Proactive personality was measured with the 6-item shortened version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) proactive personality scale (Parker, 1998). Respondents indicated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) their levels of agreement that each statement accurately describes themselves. A sample item is "I'm constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life." Cronbach's α = .78 for this scale. Extraversion and conscientiousness were each measured with 8 items from Saucer's (1994) mini-markers. Respondents indicated on a 9-point scale (1 = extremely inaccurate to 9 = extremely accurate) how accurately each trait describes themselves. A sample trait for conscientiousness is "organized", and a sample trait for extraversion is "talkative". Cronbach's α = .84 for both extraversion and conscientiousness.

Analytical Strategy

Data for the current study involve two levels of analysis. Specifically, knowledge and skill variables (i.e., knowledge of course material, trait and strategy richness, knowledge of instructor's decision-making style, knowledge of instructor's core self-evaluation, knowledge of instructor's narcissism, perspective taking skill, political skill), efficacy to voice, and voice quantity (i.e., number of suggestions) are at the person-level; whereas suggestion content quality, use of influence tactics (i.e., whether or not rational persuasion and ingratiation was used), quality of use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics, and voice effectiveness (i.e.,

instructor's willingness to incorporate suggestions) are at the suggestion-level, with suggestions nested within persons.

In terms of hypothesis testing[4], I first tested Hypotheses 1-3b, which proposed that the quality of suggestion content, voicer's use of rational persuasion tactic, use of ingratiation tactic, quality of the use of rational persuasion tactic, and quality of the use of ingratiation tactic positively predict voice effectiveness. After identifying factors that contributed to voice effectiveness, I then tested Hypotheses 4, 5, 9, and 10, which proposed that task-related knowledge positively predicts the quality of suggestion content, while trait and strategy richness, perspective taking skill, and political skill positively predict quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics; quality of use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics). These hypotheses were all tested with multiple regression in Mplus 8.0 while taking into account the nested nature of the data. Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 proposed that knowledge of instructor's decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism positively predict the quality of suggestion delivery. Because predictors in these hypotheses involve a form of "fit", they were tested using cross-level polynomial regressions following Edwards and Perry's (1993) suggested procedures.

Hypothesis 11 proposed that contextual knowledge and skills (i.e., trait and strategy richness, knowledge of the instructor, perspective taking skill, and political skill) positively predict perceived efficacy to voice, which further contributed to voice quantity[5] and in turn voice effectiveness. Because all predictors are person-level constructs and will only explain between-

[4] Students' age, gender and number of years in college were entered as control variables in all regression analyses.
[5] Because the number of suggestions followed a skewed distribution, I also ran alternative logistic regressions with voice quantity operationalized as whether or not a suggestion was proposed (0 = no, 1 = yes). Results showed that neither the proposed knowledge and skill variables nor efficacy to voice significantly predicted voice quantity. Therefore, research conclusions remained unchanged.

person variance, the outcome variable (i.e., voice effectiveness) should also be treated as a person-level variable. In particular, the more suggestions one proposes, the more likely that *at least one* suggestion will be incorporated. This means that the outcome variable should be best operationalized as the *maximum* value among instructor's ratings for all suggestions. To fully utilize the person-level variance (i.e., to also include people who did not make any suggestions), this hypothesis was tested with path analysis using the person-level data. As with hypotheses 6-8, because knowledge of instructor's decision-making style, knowledge of instructor's core self-evaluation, and knowledge of instructor's narcissism represent the extent to which student and instructor ratings correspond, polynomial regressions were used for the analyses that involve these three variables.

Results

Intercorrelations and internal consistency reliabilities are presented in Table 1. As shown above the diagonal of Table 1, quality of suggestion content was positively correlated with willingness to incorporate suggestion, $r = .41$, $p < .01$. Use of ingratiation tactic was positively correlated with willingness to incorporate suggestion, $r = .17$, $p < .01$, but use of rational persuasion tactic was not significantly correlated with willingness to incorporate suggestion, $r = .05$, $p = .29$. The correlation between quality of use of rational persuasion and willingness to incorporate suggestion approached significance, $r = .12$, $p = .05$, but quality of use of ingratiation tactic was not significantly correlated with willingness to incorporate suggestion, $r = .06$, $p = .51$.

Looking at below-diagonal values (person-level and cross-level correlations), trait and strategy richness, perspective taking skill and political skill were all positively correlated with efficacy to voice ($r = .24$, .32, .21, and .34, respectively, $p < .01$ for all). Contrary to expectation, efficacy to voice was not significantly correlated with voice quantity, $r = .02$, $p = 0.71$. Also

contrary to expectation, none of the contextual knowledge and skill variables (i.e., trait richness, strategy richness, perspective taking skill, and political skill) significantly correlated with either the use of the two tactics or the quality of use of these tactics. Knowledge of course material did not significantly correlate with suggestion content quality either (r = -.03, p = 0.63).

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses 1-3b proposed that the quality of suggestion content (H1), the use of rational persuasion tactics (H2a), the use of ingratiation tactics (H2b), the quality of the use of rational persuasion tactics (H3a) and the quality of the use of ingratiation tactics (H3b) positively predict voice effectiveness (i.e., instructors' willingness to incorporate suggestion). Results showed that quality of suggestion content positively predicted voice effectiveness, B = .46, p < .01. Hypothesis 1 was therefore supported. Whether or not rational persuasion was used did not significantly predict voice effectiveness, B = .08, p = .21. Hypothesis 2a was therefore not supported. The use of ingratiation significantly predicted voice effectiveness, B = .32, p < .01. Hypothesis 2b was therefore supported. The quality of use of rational persuasion significantly and positively predicted voice effectiveness, B = .13, p = .04. Hypothesis 3a was therefore supported. The quality of use of ingratiation did not significantly predict voice effectiveness, B = .02, p = .40. Hypothesis 3b was therefore not supported.

To further explore how the use of rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics influenced voice effectiveness, I used GLMs to compare group means in SPSS. Results are presented in Figures 2a and 2b. Specifically, post-hoc group comparisons showed that using rational persuasion only increased instructor's willingness to incorporate the suggestion when the tactic was used in a high-quality manner (see Figure 2a). There was no significant difference between groups that did not use this tactic, used this tactic but did so ineffectively, or used this tactic

somewhat effectively. On the other hand, instructor's willingness to incorporate suggestion was significantly higher when the rational persuasion tactic was used effectively, compared to when this tactic was not used at all (Mean Difference = .33, p = .01), when this tactic was used but ineffectively (Mean Difference = .32, p = .02), or when this tactic was used somewhat effectively (Mean Difference = .29, p = .02).

In comparison, results showed that using the ingratiation tactic was better than not using it at all regardless of the quality of the use of the tactic[6]. In other words, whereas instructors were inclined to change behavior in response to rational persuasion only if it was done well, ingratiation seems to work regardless of its quality. As shown in Figure 2b, using the ingratiation tactic "ineffectively" (M = 3.09), "somewhat effectively" (M = 3.13), or "effectively" (M = 3.21) all resulted in higher instructor ratings of willingness to incorporate suggestion, compared to when this tactic was not used (M = 2.84). Even though the mean difference between willing ratings for the "ineffective use" and the "did not use" group was nonsignificant, (Mean Difference = .26, p = .07), the average rating was still higher in the "ineffective use" group than the "did not use" group. This non-significance of mean differences is likely due to the large standard error stemming from the small number of suggestions that were rated as ineffective use of ingratiation (N = 16). Mean differences between the "did not use" group and the other two groups (i.e., using the tactic "somewhat effectively" and "effectively") were all significant (Mean Difference = .29, p = .01; Mean Difference = .37, p < .01; respectively). In addition, there was no significant difference in willingness ratings across the three groups (i.e., using the ingratiation tactic ineffectively, somewhat effectively, or effectively).

[6] Following a committee member's suggestion, I tested whether there was significant difference between use of ingratiation towards the instructor, towards the class, or a combination of both. One-way ANOVA results showed that there was no significant difference between the three groups, F (2, 121) = .64, p = .53. This result suggested that the type of ingratiation did not influence voice effectiveness.

In order to better understand whether the relation between tactic use and suggestion endorsement depends on the target, I asked instructors to rate their preferences regarding type of tactic in general. This preference was measured by adapting the Yukl, Seifert and Chavez (2008) scale, with instructors indicating their preference for, rather than frequency of, others' using rational persuasion and ingratiation tactics in interacting with them. Instructor ratings are presented in Table 3. Results showed that all instructors expressed a strong preference for the rational persuasion tactic (ranging from 4.5 to 5, M = 4.88, SD = 0.19), while instructors' preference for the ingratiation tactic varied (ranging from 2 to 4.75, M = 2.72, SD = 1.00). I then ran several multiple regression models to test whether instructor's self-reported preference for ingratiation tactics moderated the relation between the use of the two tactics and instructor's willingness to incorporate a suggestion[7]. Results showed that none of the moderating effects was significant. Once again, results showed a significant main effect for whether or not ingratiation was used ($B = .32$, $p < .01$) and a significant main effect for the quality of the use of rational persuasion tactic ($B = .16$, $p = .02$). Thus, it seems that, regardless of instructor preference, rational persuasion works only if it is done well, and ingratiation works regardless.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that one's task-related knowledge positively predicts the quality of suggestion content, which in turn contributes to voice. Hypotheses 5, 9, and 10 proposed that one's trait and strategy richness, perspective taking skill, and political skill positively predict voice effectiveness through the use of influence tactics and the quality of use of influence tactics. As shown in the previous section, the quality of rational persuasion tactics was relevant for predicting instructor's willingness to incorporate of suggestions. On the other hand, use of ingratiation was relevant regardless of quality. Based on these results, I chose to focus on the

[7] Instructor's preference for using the rational persuasion tactic was not included as a moderator because it had limited variance.

quality of use of rational persuasion and whether or not ingratiation tactics were used as outcomes of the proposed knowledge and skill variables. Hypothesis 4, 5, 9, and 10 were then tested using multilevel regressions.

Results for these analyses are presented in Table 4. Results showed that task-related knowledge (i.e., knowledge of course material) did not significantly predict the quality of suggestion content, B = -.01, p = .45, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. Trait and strategy richness did not significantly predict either quality of rational persuasion (B = .02, p = .43) or use of ingratiation (B = .03, p = .28). Hypothesis 5 was not supported. Perspective taking skill did not significantly predict either quality of rational persuasion (B = -.06, p = .19) or use of ingratiation (B = .06, p = .08). Hypothesis 9 was therefore not supported. Similarly, political skill did not significantly predict either quality of rational persuasion (B = .01, p = .44) or use of ingratiation (B = .05, p = .16). Hypothesis 10 was therefore not supported. When combined with the previous finding that ingratiation works regardless of how well it is executed, these results suggest that anyone can make their voices heard regardless of their knowledge and skills as even those whose use of ingratiation is ham-handed are likely to influence superiors.

Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8 proposed that knowledge of instructor's decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism positively predict voice effectiveness through the use of influence tactics and the quality of use of influence tactics. Similar to above, these hypotheses were tested with the quality of use of rational persuasion and whether or not ingratiation tactics were used as the outcomes of focus. These three hypotheses were tested using polynomial regression as recommended by Edwards & Parry (1993). Specifically, these hypotheses predict that the more knowledge a student has of the instructor's characteristic, the more congruence there should be between student ratings and instructor ratings. These hypotheses would be

supported if the congruence between the two parties' ratings significantly and positively predicted outcomes (as represented by the incongruence line curvature values presented in the bottom row of Table 5). Results showed that none of the effects was significant. In other words, students' knowledge of the instructor's decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism did not contribute to delivering suggestions in a way that contributed to voice effectiveness. Therefore Hypothesis 6, 7, and 8 were not supported. Thus, it appears that one need not know very much about the target in order to influence the target provided that ingratiation is used.

Hypothesis 11 proposed that trait and strategy richness, knowledge of the target, perspective taking skill, and political skill positively predict perceived efficacy to voice, which in turn predict voice quantity and voice effectiveness. Multiple regressions at the person-level were used to test these effects of trait and strategy richness, perspective taking skill, and political skill on voice efficacy, the effect of voice efficacy on voice quantity, and the effect of voice quantity on voice effectiveness. Polynomial regressions were used to test the effects of knowledge of instructor's decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism on voice efficacy. The effect of each knowledge and skill predictor was tested separately to avoid multicollinearity.

Results are presented in Table 6 and Table 7. Specifically, trait and strategy richness (B = .43, p < .01), perspective taking skill (B = .24, p < .01), and political skill (B = .43, p < .01) all significantly predicted efficacy to voice. Contrary to expectation, voice efficacy did not significantly predict the number of suggestions one brought up (i.e., voice quantity; B = .03, p = .34). The number of suggestions one makes significantly predicted the likelihood that at least one suggestion would be incorporated (B = .35, p < .01). Further, polynomial regression results showed that knowledge of instructor's decision-making style, core self-evaluation and narcissism

did not significantly predict efficacy to voice (presented in the bottom row of Table 7). In sum, some contextual knowledge and skill variables (trait and strategy richness, political skill, and perspective taking skill) positively predicted voice efficacy, even though voice efficacy was not relevant to how many suggestions one brought up. In addition, voice quantity significantly predicted the likelihood of at least one suggestion being adopted. Hypothesis 11 was therefore only partially supported.

Supplementary Analyses

As an alternative explanation, in the current study setting students can make anonymous suggestions. In such cases it is relatively less risky to bring up a suggestion to one's superior compared to when speaking up is not anonymous. When voice behavior is less risky, it is arguable that the extent to which one voices up more likely depends on "will do" factors (i.e., whether or not one is inclined to contribute) compared to "can do" factors (i.e., whether one feels they are capable to contribute). To test this possibility, three personality variables (extraversion, conscientiousness, and proactive personality) that have commonly been used as predictors of voice behavior in previous research were entered as predictors of voice quantity and in turn effectiveness. Results showed that conscientiousness significantly predicted voice quantity, $B = .08$, $p = .02$, supporting the argument that in the current setting voice quantity can be predicted by personalities rather than voice efficacy.

Discussion

Using multisource, multilevel data, the purpose of this study was to explore factors other than voice quantity that contribute to voice effectiveness (i.e., likelihood of suggestions being adopted by superior). Specifically, I focused on two major aspects of voice behavior, *what* to voice (i.e., content quality) and *how* to voice (i.e., use of influence tactics and quality of use of

influence tactics), both of which are understudied in the voice literature (Morrison, 2011). Results showed that voice quantity (i.e., the number of suggestions one raised) strongly and positively predicted voice effectiveness. In other words, the more frequently a student voices up, the more likely that at least one of their suggestions will be adopted by the instructor. More importantly, content quality was shown to be a strong predictor of voice effectiveness, even more so than was the case for voice quantity, use of influence tactics, and quality of use of influence tactics (I discuss results for the latter two in detail below). These results together support the value of looking at the content of a suggestion and how a suggestion is delivered, because of their important role in influencing the extent to which superiors adopt the suggestion.

Regarding how to voice, I focused on two influence tactics, rational persuasion and ingratiation, both of which are commonly used tactics in upward influence processes like voice. Results suggested interesting patterns of how these two influence tactics were used by participants in our sample, as well as how the use of these two influence tactics influenced voice effectiveness. First, results indicated that people have different approaches to the use of these two tactics. Even though the rational persuasion tactic was used by the majority of participants (280 out of 413 suggestions, 68%), it was relatively uncommon for this tactic to be used in a way that is judged to be effective (64 out of 280, 23%). In comparison, the ingratiation tactic was not as commonly used (123 out of 413 suggestions, 30%). When it was used, however, it was more likely rated as being used effectively. Very few people used the ingratiation tactic in a way that was judged to be ineffective (16 out of 123, 13%), whereas about a quarter of the suggestions using rational persuasion (74 out of 280, 26%) were judged to be ineffective. Examples of suggestions that represent these categories are presented in Appendix B. Second, these two tactics have different patterns of influence on instructor's willingness to incorporate a

suggestion. Results showed that rational persuasion only increased the likelihood of suggestion endorsement when this tactic was used in a high-quality manner. In comparison, using the ingratiation tactic to any extent in a suggestion, compared to when this tactic was not used at all, resulted in higher instructor-rated likelihood to endorse a suggestion. In summary, when using influence tactics to voice, rational persuasion was more commonly used but difficult to execute in a high-quality manner, even though this tactic had to be high quality in order to influence superior's likelihood to endorse a suggestion. In contrast, the ingratiation tactic was not as commonly used, but when it was used, it is easier to use this tactic well. In addition, using the ingratiation tactic can be quite powerful in making one's suggestion heard by a superior, regardless of quality.

These results contribute to the social influence literature by providing more precision in terms of the effects of influence tactics on upward influence effectiveness. The divergent patterns of rational persuasion and ingratiation suggest that not all influence tactics should be treated as equal. Most research on influence tactics, however, only looks at the frequency of tactic use (e.g., Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Gross et al., in press). Even though there is evidence suggesting that rational persuasion can positively influence superiors (e.g., Yukl & Tracey, 1992), our study suggested that research on rational persuasion should look beyond frequency to also assess how effectively this tactic is used. In addition, our study is consistent with previous findings that have shown positive effects of ingratiation on building relationship with leaders (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Zhao & Liden, 2011). Adding to this line of research, our study found that when voicing up to superiors, the use of ingratiation can be so powerful that even the simplest of applications (e.g., "class is great") resulted in higher likelihood of a suggestion being adopted. Even though some prior research suggests that compliments and flattery from people with lower status and

power may lack credibility (e.g., Yukl & Tracey, 1992), results from this study did not support this notion. Rather, findings from this study suggested that people who are willing to voice up should be aware that the use of ingratiation can positively affect how their suggestions will be received by their supervisors, and hence, whether their suggestions will be implemented.

Further, I also found that instructor's stated preferences did not moderate the relationships between tactic use and voice effectiveness. In other words, contrary to previous research highlighting the "audience" factor in interpersonal influence (e.g., Sonenshein, 2006), results showed that whether instructors report they like (or dislike) ingratiation tactics during interpersonal interactions did not influence the main conclusions. This lack of moderating effect suggested that the main effects for whether or not the ingratiation tactic was used or the effectiveness of use of rational persuasion generalize across targets to some extent.

Another purpose of the current study was to test whether knowledge and skill variables contribute to voice effectiveness through their effects on the quality of suggestion content and delivery. Specifically, we proposed that task-related knowledge (i.e., knowledge about the course) influences the quality of the content of suggestions, and that contextual knowledge and skills (i.e., trait and strategy richness, knowledge of the instructor, perspective taking skill, and political skill) influence the quality of suggestion delivery (i.e., whether rational persuasion/ingratiation is used; the quality of the use of rational persuasion/ingratiation). Contrary to expectation, none of these knowledge and skills was significant in predicting either suggestion content quality or the factors reflecting the quality of delivery of suggestions. In addition, we found that although some knowledge and skills (i.e., trait and strategy richness, perspective taking skill, and political skill) significantly predicted one's efficacy to voice, voice efficacy failed to predict the number of suggestions one raised. These findings run counter to the

voice literature that argues for efficacy as a key determinant of one's decision to engage in voice (Morrison, 2014; Ashford et al., 1998).

I argue that this inconsistency or lack of findings may be due to several study limitations, which I discuss below. The study setting differs from voice behavior in organizations in a few ways. First, in the current study setting, students made anonymous suggestions to instructors. Even though this type of design has been used in previous research on voice behavior (e.g., Crant et al., 2011), the risks associated with speaking up are lessened when suggestions are anonymous. Second, as each student in the sample only took the class for one semester, students will not directly benefit even their suggestions are implemented in future classes. In this situation, it requires a genuine interest to help future students for anyone to engage in voice behavior. I also acknowledge that, in the current study setting, voice behavior is being solicited, therefore the predictors for which may differ from self-initiated, unsolicited voice.

For these reasons, when raising suggestions students might not exert their best effort to try to influence their instructors. In other words, the lack of use of influence tactics or the low-quality of use of influence tactics in a student's suggestions does not necessarily mean that the student is *unable* to execute it effectively. Previous research has suggested that "can do" factors like knowledge and skills would be most likely to predict maximal performance rather than typical performance (DuBois et al., 1993; Klehe & Anderson, 2005). When one does not exert one's best effort in trying to make voice behavior effective, dispositional factors may play a more important role. In support of this notion, supplementary analyses showed that conscientiousness significantly predicted the number of suggestions one raised. In other words, even if students equipped with knowledges and skills relevant to interpersonal influence are more confident to speak up, they may not choose to do so without the motive to contribute. As

such, one should be cautious in generalizing findings from this study to other contexts of voice behavior where voice is associated with higher risks and direct benefits to voicers themselves, such as employees voicing up to supervisors in organizations.

Further, there are several potential measurement limitations that may have influenced the results of this study. As students only interact with their instructor over several months, compared to supervisor-subordinate dyads in organizations, students are not as familiar with their instructor's characteristics such as decision-making style, core self-evaluation, and narcissism. Results did indicate that most students' ratings differ largely from instructors' self-ratings. Therefore, these knowledge variables may have differential predictions in an organizational setting where subordinates have more opportunities to observe their supevisor. Another limitation is that content knowledge (or knowledge of course material) was assessed by students' self-report. Although self-report measures of job knowledge have been used in previous studies (e.g., Miller, Madsen, & John, 2006), social desirability bias is a potential concern. Due to privacy reasons, we were not able to obtain more objective measures of content knowledge such as quiz or exam scores. Job or task knowledge has also been measured by tests that were specific to a task (e.g., Devine, 1999) or specific to an organization or industry (e.g., Hunter, 1986). In replicating this study using a field sample, future studies could consider using these alternative measures of job knowledge or proxies such as performance ratings, as they are more objective than self-reported knowledge.

The lack of moderating effect of instructor's preference for influence tactics also needs to be interpreted with caution due to some study limitations. First, we were not able to test whether the preference of rational persuasion tactic mattered, as all instructors indicated a high preference for rational persuasion. Second, the general attitude one indicates may diverge from one's

behavioral intentions. As shown by prior research, the more specific measures one uses in assessing attitudes, the better they can predict behaviors (Davidson & Jaccard, 1979). In this sense, future research could further extend findings of this study to include a wider range of audience with varying levels of preference for influence tactics, or to assess one's attitudes towards a specific use case of influence tactics (more feasible with lab studies).

In sum, this study contributes to the voice literature by discovering the influences of suggestion content (i.e., what to voice) and delivery (i.e., how to voice) factors on voice effectiveness (i.e., likelihood of a suggestion being adopted). In particular, a suggestion is more likely to be adopted by superiors if it has good content quality and involves high-quality use of rational persuasion. In comparison, use of ingratiation increases voice effectiveness regardless of quality. Although the lack of findings regarding knowledge and skill factors makes it impossible to draw any conclusion regarding their contribution in this process, this study is a first step towards more attention paid to knowledge and skill factors in voice behavior research.

Towards a Theory of Voice as Upward Influence

Although no overarching theory exists to discuss voice from the angle of upward social influence or shed light upon the "can do" side of this behavior, this study demonstrates the importance of developing such theories. This endeavor is also in correspondence with Morrison's (2011) call for more theory building regarding how people choose tactics for voicing and the implications of these choices for the effectiveness and riskiness of voice. As discussed in preceding text, research has been well-developed regarding how employees think about the issue of speaking up with ideas, suggestions, or concerns, as well as the individual and contextual factors that encourage or stifle employee voice. What is missing from the voice literature is whether or not voice can be successful in exerting influence. The literature of persuasion and

communication has described influence behavior such as voice as a "can do" activity, during which influence tactics *and* knowledge and skills play an important role. Drawing upon research on organizational change (Dervitsiotis, 1998), communication (Norton, 1983), and interpersonal influence (e.g., leadership, Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; persuasion, O'Keefe, 2016), I posit that a theory that looks at voice from an upward social influence angle will include an expanded construct space of voice to incorporate voice content and voice delivery as two important factors, in addition to voice frequency. This theory also specifies "can-do" factors such as knowledge and skills as important antecedents of voice, especially regarding their roles in predicting voice content and voice delivery. Such a theory will also inform us regarding the immediate outcomes of voice including suggestion adoption and attitude change, thereby completing the criteria domain of voice behavior. The theoretical framework is presented in Figure 3.

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Table 1. *Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables*

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1. Age	21.35	3.92	-	-.10*	.22**	-.07	.02	.01	.07	-.05	-.03	.01	.07	-.11**	-.09*	-.16**	-.07	-.06	.09*	.07	.07	.09	-.02	.07	-.02	.16**
2. Sex	1.56	.51	-.06	-	.05	-.07	.10*	-.16**	-.20**	-.05	-.09*	.02	.08	-.14**	-.14**	.09*	.12**	.00	-.11**	-.02	-.04	-.02	.16**	.04	.08	.07
3. Year	2.55	1.05	.23**	.04	-	-.13**	-.01	-.03	.00	-.05	-.07	-.04	.01	-.12**	-.24**	-.22**	-.13**	-.11**	-.05	.08*	.05	-.02	.01	-.11	-.01	.04
4. Ext.	5.73	1.40	-.08	-.08	-.12*	(.84)	.10*	.36**	.17**	.31**	.16**	.16**	-.12**	.11*	.14**	.03	.08	.37**	.33**	-.11**	-.06	.05	-.05	.10	.02	-.02
5. Consc.	6.67	1.21	.03	.11*	-.04	.10*	(.84)	.27**	.13**	.19**	.08	.21**	-.04	-.03	-.03	-.09*	.12**	.21**	.18**	.12**	.04	.03	.08	-.07	-.03	-.01
6. Proac.	3.84	.58	.01	-.14**	-.07	.38**	.29**	(.78)	.09*	.42**	.23**	.21**	-.16**	.18**	.04	-.03	.24**	.40**	.43**	.03	-.04	.05	-.11	.01	-.05	-.06
7. Know.	3.40	.70	.08	-.20**	-.01	.15**	.08	.07	-	.13**	.10*	.09*	.07	-.02	.20**	-.16**	-.01	.07	.25**	.02	.07	.13*	-.03	.05	-.02	-.03
8. TSR	3.89	.54	-.05	-.06	-.05	.32**	.19**	.43**	.15**	(.83)	.21**	.13**	-.10*	.15**	.06	-.09*	.37**	.52**	.38**	.03	-.01	.03	.01	.04	.02	-.08
9. S-DM	3.89	.52	-.03	-.06	-.07	.15**	.07	.21**	.13**	.21**	(.78)	.28**	.06	.84**	.10*	-.04	.28**	.33**	.18**	-.02	-.10*	.08	.01	.06	-.02	-.04
10. S-CSE	3.85	.53	.03	-.01	-.05	.16**	.21**	.22**	.12*	.12*	.27**	(.83)	-.05	.15**	.12**	-.11**	.18**	.27**	.14**	.00	-.04	.09	.11	.17	.00	.06
11. S-Nar	1.57	.22	.07	.07	.00	-.14**	-.02	-.15**	.04	-.08	.08	-.02	(.71)	-.04	.07	-.12**	-.09*	-.08	-.04	.02	.00	-.02	.03	.22*	.06	.13*
12. I-DM	4.02	.41	-.12*	-.10*	-.11*	.13**	-.02	.17**	.03	.18**	.85**	.15**	-.02	(.73)	.24**	-.06	.21**	.27**	.10*	-.08	-.12*	.04	-.02	.10	-.01	-.17**
13. I-CSE	3.16	.51	-.13**	-.15**	-.26**	.14**	-.02	.06	.20**	.06	.09	.16**	.03	.24**	(.78)	-.29**	.02	.02	.14**	-.16**	-.06	.09	-.04	.26**	.12*	-.23**
14. I-Nar	1.84	.16	-.15**	.09*	-.23**	.02	-.10*	-.03	-.15**	-.07	-.02	-.13**	-.11*	-.06	-.26**	(.76)	.04	.03	-.07	-.21**	-.10	-.05	-.03	-.13	-.05	.02
15. PT	4.12	.61	-.07	.11*	-.12**	.07	.14**	.24**	.03	.36**	.25**	.18**	-.06	.20**	.01	.04	(.78)	.57**	.21**	-.04	-.05	.07	-.04	.00	-.03	.02
16. PS	4.05	.51	-.06	-.01	-.10*	.37**	.24**	.42**	.09	.52**	.30**	.26**	-.06	.25**	.02	.01	.54**	(.80)	.35**	.01	-.09	.05	.01	.03	-.02	.00
17. Voice Efficacy	3.55	.66	.10*	-.10*	-.06	.31**	.19**	.41**	.22**	.34**	.13**	.14**	-.06	.07	.14**	-.06	.21**	.34**	(.84)	.02	.00	.06	.06	.02	.06	-.03
18. Quantity	0.89	.82	.10*	-.01	.07	-.04	.11*	.04	.00	.01	-.05	.02	.01	-.10*	-.16**	-.17**	-.05	.02	.02	-	.02	-.12*	-.11	-.23**	.04	.00
19. RP Use	0.90	.74	.04	-.05	.06	-.09	.06	-.03	.09	-.02	-.09	-.04	.02	-.12*	-.07	-.14*	-.06	-.10	-.02	.62**	-	.09	[a]	-.06	.07	.05
20. IG Use	0.39	.56	.08	-.03	-.01	.03	.05	.05	.16**	.02	.08	.10	-.01	.03	.08	-.09	.07	.04	.05	.18**	.26**	-	.06	[a]	.00	.17**
21. RP Quality	1.98	.68	.01	.14*	.00	-.11	.09	-.13*	-.02	-.01	.01	.07	.04	-.01	-.03	-.04	-.04	-.01	.04	-.10	-.06	.04	-	.14	.08	.12
22. IG Quality	2.23	.67	-.03	.05	-.18	.08	-.05	.06	.03	.02	.12	.16	.14	.19*	.23*	-.13	.02	.02	.00	-.21*	-.18	-.12	.14	-	.10	.06
23. Content Quality	3.52	.75	.00	.11*	.03	.05	.00	-.03	-.03	.02	-.03	.00	.06	-.03	.10	-.05	-.03	-.03	.08	.05	.06	.04	.11	.03	(.67)	.41**
24. Voice Effectiveness	2.92	.83	.16**	.09	.08	-.04	.00	-.02	-.06	-.07	-.03	.06	.14*	-.18**	-.28**	.04	.02	.01	-.02	.01	.05	.20**	.13	-.04	.37**	(.88)

Note: Correlations at the person level are presented below the diagonal (N = 113-467), correlation at the suggestion level are presented above the diagonal (N = 121-568). Cronbach's αs are presented on the diagonal. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (all two-tailed).

Ext.: extraversion, Consc.: conscientiousness, Proac.: proactive personality, Know.: knowledge of class material, TSR: trait and strategy richness, S-DM: student rated instructor's decision-making style, S-CSE: student rated instructor's core self-evaluation, S-Nar: student rated instructor's narcissism, I-DM: instructor self-rated decision-making style, I-CSE: instructor self-rated core self-evaluation, I-Nar: instructor self-rated narcissism, PT: perspective taking skill, PS: political skill, Effi.: efficacy to voice, Quant.: number of suggestions (i.e., voice quantity), RP Use: use of rational persuasion tactic (1 = yes, 0 = no), IG Use = use of ingratiation tactic (1 = yes, 0 = no), RP Quality: Quality of use of rational persuasion tactic (1 = ineffective, 2 = somewhat effective, 3 = effective), IG Quality: Quality of use of ingratiation tactic (1 = ineffective, 2 = somewhat effective, 3 = effective).

a. These two correlations cannot be computed because quality of use of rational persuasion (or ingratiation) was only rated when the corresponding tactic was used in the first place. In other words, the RP Use (IG use) variable is constant when correlating with the corresponding quality variable.

Table 2. *Effects of suggestion content quality, influence tactic use, and quality of influence tactic use on voice effectiveness*

Variables	Voice Effectiveness		
	B	*SE*	*Beta*
Controls			
Age	.03**	.01	.17**
Sex	.09	.09	.05
Year	.02	.04	.03
Predictors			
Content quality	.46**	.05	.41**
Use of rational persuasion	.08	.10	.04
Use of ingratiation	.32**	.08	.16**
Quality of use of rational persuasion	.13*	.08	.10*
Quality of use of ingratiation	.02	.09	.02

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (all tests one-tailed).

Table 3. *Instructor ratings of preference for influence tactics*

Instructor ID	Preference for Rational Persuasion	Preference for Ingratiation
1	4.5	2.5
2	5	4.75
3	4.75	1.75
4	5	2
5	4.75	3
6	5	3.5
7	5	2
8	5	2.25
Mean	4.88	2.72
SD	0.19	1.00

Note: 1 = very undesirable, 2 = undesirable, 3 = neutral, 4 = desirable, 5 = very desirable

Table 4. M*ultilevel path analysis results: Effects of knowledge and skills predicting voice content quality, quality of use of rational persuasion, and use of ingratiation*

	Content Quality			RP Quality			IG Use		
	B	*SE*	*Beta*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*
Controls									
Age	-.00	.01	-.01	-.00	.01	-.01	.03*	.01	.12*
Sex	.12	.08	.08	.21*	.08	.16*	.00	.09	.00
Year	-.01	.05	-.02	-.01	.04	-.01	-.04	.05	-.04
Predictors									
Knowledge of Course Material	-.01	.05	-.01						
Trait & Strategy Richness				.02	.09	.01	.03	.05	.04
Perspective Taking Skill				-.06	.06	-.05	.06	.04	.08
Political Skill				.01	.08	.01	.05	.05	.06

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (all tests one-tailed)
RP: rational persuasion; IG: Ingratiation.

Table 5. *Cross-Level polynomial regression results of student-rating and instructor-rating congruence predicting use of ingratiation and quality of rational persuasion use*

Predictors	Predictor: DM		Predictor: CSE		Predictor: Nar.	
	Outcome : RP Quality	Outcome : IG Use	Outcome : RP Quality	Outcome : IG Use	Outcome : RP Quality	Outcome : IG Use
Constant	1.63**	.14**	1.56**	.08**	1.57**	.14**
Student ratings (S)	-.04	.19*	.15*	.07	.12	-.10
Instructor ratings (I)	-.03	-.17	-.08	.09	-.22	-.33
S^2	-.26*	.03	-.24	.08	1.05	-.25
S X I	.47	.16	-.05	-.01	-.89	-1.10
I^2	-.43	-.21	.27	-.01	-.34	-1.03
Congruence (S = I) line						
Slope	-.07	.02	.07	.16**	-.10	-.43
Curvature	-.21	-.01	-.02	.06	-.18	-2.38
Incongruence (S = -I) line						
Slope	-.01	.36	.22	-.02	.34	.23
Curvature	-1.16	-.34	.07	.08	1.60	-.18

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (all tests one-tailed).
DM: decision-making style; CSE: core self-evaluation; Nar.: Narcissism; RP: rational persuasion; IG: Ingratiation.

Table 6. *Effects of contextual knowledge and skills predicting voice efficacy, voice quantity and voice effectiveness*

	Voice Efficacy			**Voice Quantity**			**Voice Effectiveness**		
	B	*SE*	*Beta*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*
Controls									
Age	.02**	.01	.13**	.02*	.01	.09*	.03*	.01	.13*
Sex	-.08	.06	-.06	-.03	.08	-.02	.19*	.10	.11*
Year	-.05	.05	-.08	.03	.04	.03	.05	.05	.06
Predictors									
Trait & Strategy Richness	.43**	.06	.36**						
Perspective Taking Skill	.24**	.05	.22**						
Political Skill	.43**	.06	.33**						
Voice Efficacy				.03	.06	.02			
Voice Quantity							.35**	.07	.32**

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (all tests one-tailed)

Table 7. *Polynomial regression results of student-rating and instructor-rating congruence predicting voice efficacy*

	Predictor : DM	Predictor : CSE	Predictor : Nar.
Constant	3.53**	3.09**	3.54**
Student ratings (S)	.43**	.15**	-.23
Instructor ratings (I)	-.37*	.02	-.65*
S^2	.22	-.02	-.55
S X I	-.23	.06	-.36
I^2	-.22	.44*	-1.79
Congruence (S = I) line			
Slope	.06	.17*	-.89*
Curvature	-.23	.48*	-2.71
Incongruence (S = -I) line			
Slope	.80**	.14	.42
Curvature	.23	.37	-1.99

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ (all tests one-tailed).
DM: decision-making style; CSE: core self-evaluation; Nar.: Narcissism; RP: rational persuasion; IG: Ingratiation.

Figure 1. The conceptual model

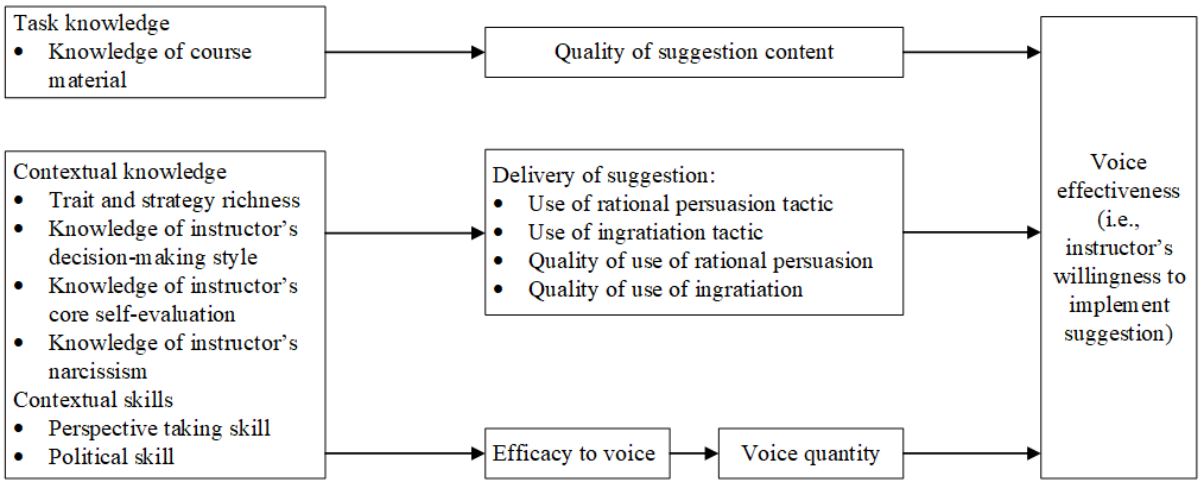


Figure 2a. Voice effectiveness compared across different groups of use of rational persuasion

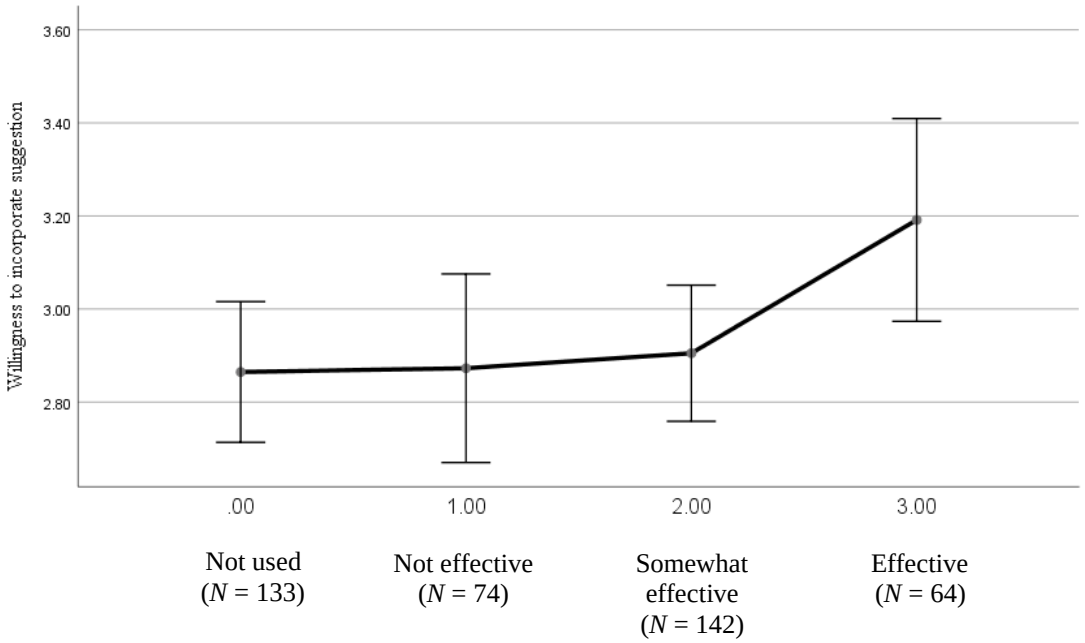


Figure 2b. Voice effectiveness compared across different groups of use of ingratiation

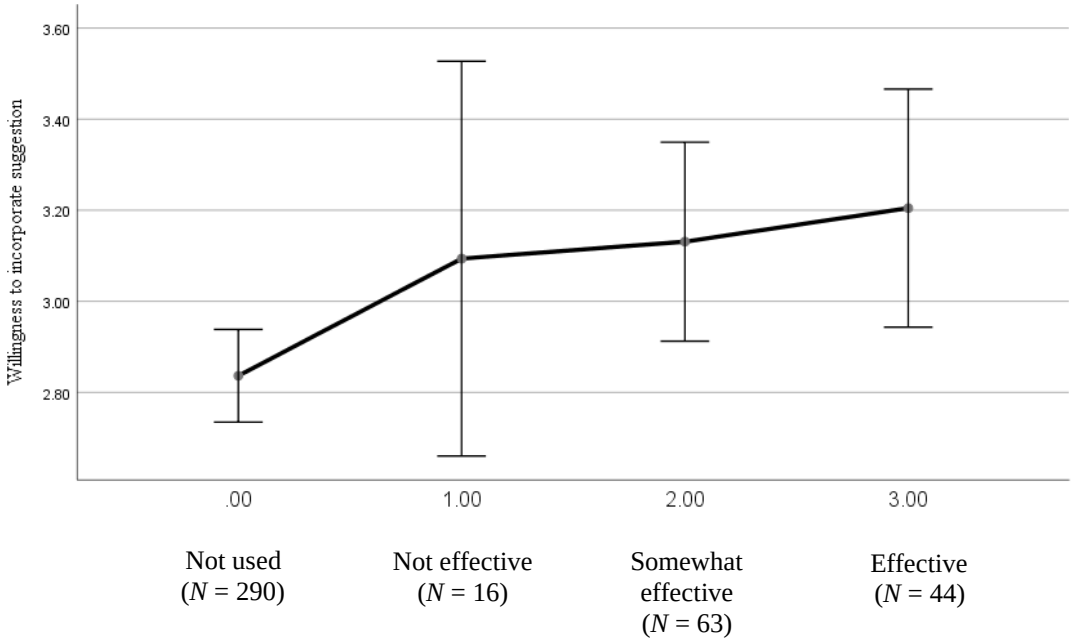
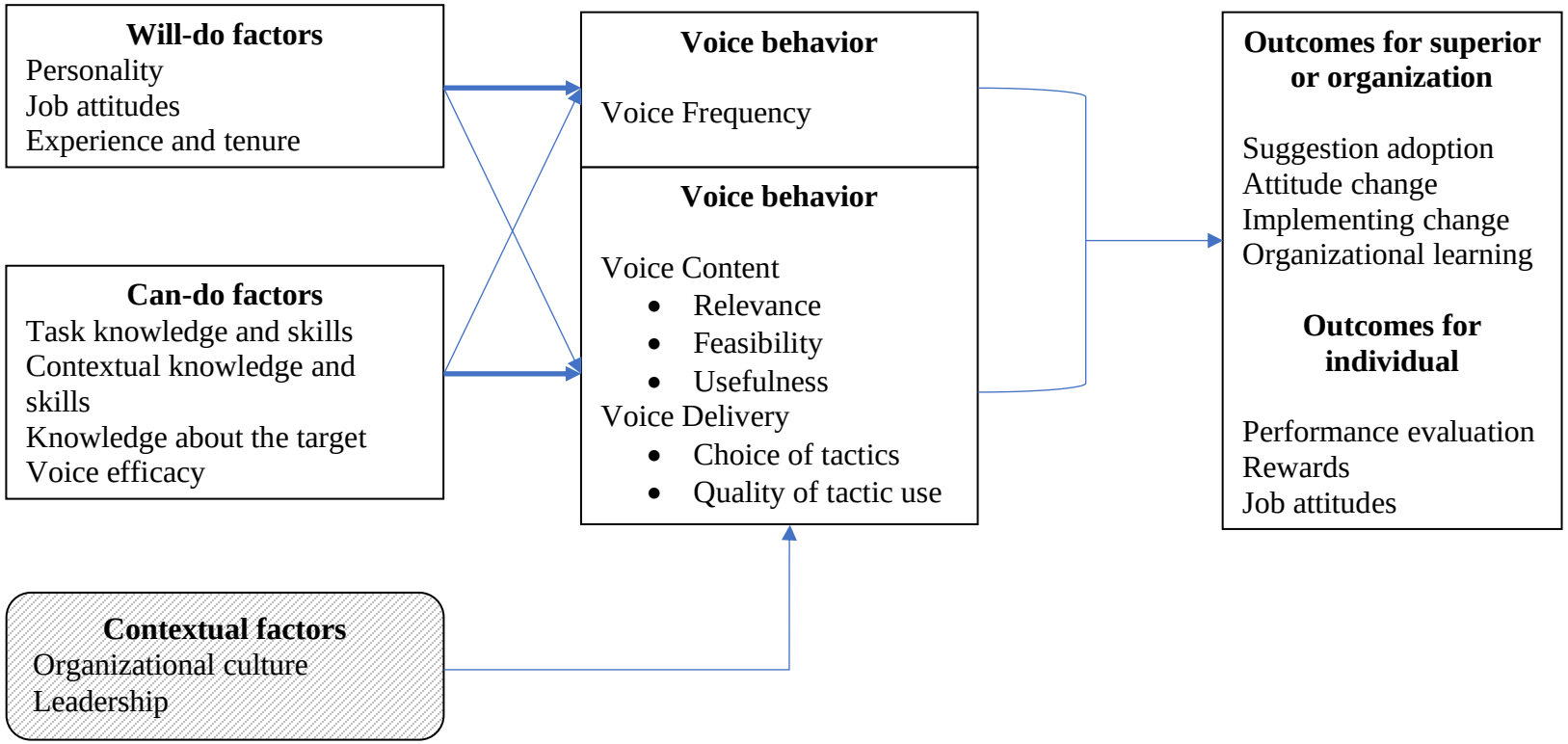


Figure 3. A theory of voice as upward social influence



Appendix A: Survey Items

Student Survey 1

Student Self-ratings

Trait and Strategy Richness

Adapted from Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter (2001) to make it more broadly applied to interpersonal influence settings in general (instead of in the customer setting only).

Bettencourt, L. A., Gwinner, K. P., & Meuter, M. L. (2001). A comparison of attitude, personality, and knowledge predictors of service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(1), 29-41.

On a 1-5 scale, please indicate the degree to which you agree that each statement accurately describes you.
1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. My knowledge of different people characteristics is very broad. (adapted from Bettencourt et al., 2001)
2. Because I have a good knowledge of different people characteristics, it is easy for me to identify individual differences. (adapted from Bettencourt et al., 2001)
3. I can use a different strategy for dealing with almost every situation when I try to influence others. (adapted from Bettencourt et al., 2001)
4. I have a number of strategies to choose from when I want to influence different people and in different situations. (adapted from Bettencourt et al., 2001)
5. I can tailor my strategy to make it effective in influencing different people. (newly written)
6. When I try to influence others, I am good at making my strategy appropriate to the situation. (newly written)

Perspective-taking Skill

Adapted from Davis (1980) to make it a measure of skill instead of willingness to take perspectives.

Davis, M. H. (1980). A Multidimensional Approach to Individual Differences in Empathy. JSAS *Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 1980, *10*, p. 85.

Please think about how you usually interact with others in you daily life, and rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. I am good at imagining how I would feel if I were in another person's place.

2. I can understand other people better by imagining how things look from their perspective.
3. I believe that there are two sides to every question, and I can easily look at them both.
4. I am good at putting myself in other people's shoes.

Political Skill

Ahearn, K. K., Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Douglas, C., & Ammeter, A. P. (2004). Leader Political Skill and Team Performance. *Journal of Management*, *30*(3), 309–327. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jm.2003.01.004

On a 1-5 scale, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. I find it easy to envision myself in the position of others.
2. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.
3. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.
4. I understand people well.
5. I am good at getting others to respond positively to me.
6. I usually try to find common ground with others.

Knowledge of Course Content

On a 1-5 scale, please rate your perception of your mastery level of course material.

1 = Very limited, 2 = Lower than average, 3 = Average, 4 = Better than average, 5- Expert

Perceived Efficacy to Voice

Morrison, E. W., Wheeler-Smith, S. L., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Speaking up in groups: a cross-level study of group voice climate and voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(1), 183-191.

On a 1-5 scale, please indicate the degree to which you agree that you are capable of effectively doing the behaviors described in each of the following statements:

1 = definitely not capable, 2 = not capable, 3 = neutral, 4 = capable, 5 = definitely capable

1. developing and making recommendations concerning issues that affect the learning experience in this class.
2. speaking up and encouraging others in this class to get involved in issues that affect the class.
3. communicating my opinions to others in this class even if my opinion is different and others disagree with me.
4. keeping myself well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to this class.
5. getting involved in issues that affect the quality of learning in this class.
6. speaking up in this class with ideas for changes in procedures.

Big Five Personality (Saucier, 1994)

Saucier, G. (1994). Mini-Markers: A Brief Version of Goldberg's Unipolar Big-Five Markers. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 63*(3), 506-516.

Please use the list of traits below to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared with other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly your same age. Before each trait, please write a number indicating how accurately that trait describes you, using the following rating scale:

1 = extremely inaccurate, 2 = very inaccurate, 3 = moderately inaccurate, 4 = slightly inaccurate, 5 = neither accurate nor inaccurate, 6 = slightly accurate, 7 = moderately accurate, 8 = very accurate, 9 = extremely accurate

Extraversion

1. Bashful (R)
2. Bold
3. Energetic
4. Extraverted
5. Quiet (R)
6. Shy (R)
7. Talkative
8. Withdrawn (R)

Conscientiousness

1. Careless (R)
2. Disorganized (R)
3. Efficient
4. Inefficient (R)
5. Organized
6. Practical
7. Sloppy (R)
8. Systematic

Proactive Personality (Parker, 1998; Shortened from Bateman & Crant, 1993)

Parker, S. K. (1998). Enhancing role breadth self-efficacy: the roles of job enrichment and other organizational interventions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 835-852.

On a 1-5 scale, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
2. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
3. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.

4. I excel at identifying opportunities.
5. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
6. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.

Students' ratings of instructors

Perception of Instructor's Decision-making Style

Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1995). Decision-Making Style: The Development and Assessment of a New Measure. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 55*(5), 818–831.

Listed below are statements describing how individuals go about making important decisions. Please indicate the degree to which you feel that each statement accurately describes how your instructor makes decisions. When responding to these items please note that we do not expect you to know exactly how he/she actually responds to these things, and your instructor will not see your responses to these questions in any way. Rather we are only asking which option best represents **your perceptions** of him/her.
1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. He/she double-checks his/her information sources to be sure that he/she has the right facts before making decisions.
2. He/she makes decisions in a logical and systematic way.
3. His/her decision-making requires careful thought.
4. When making a decision, he/she considers various options in terms of a specific goal.
5. When making decisions, he/she relies on instincts.
6. When making decisions, he/she tends to rely on intuition.
7. He/she generally makes decisions that feel right to him/her.
8. When making a decision, it is more important for him/her to feel the decision is right than to have a rational reason for it.
9. When he/she makes a decision, he/she trusts his/her inner feelings and reactions.

Perception of Instructor's core self-evaluation

Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology*, *56*(2), 303-331.

Listed below are statements describing how individuals perceive themselves. Please indicate the degree to which you feel that each statement accurately describes how **your instructor thinks about him/herself**. Likewise, when responding to these items please note that we do not expect you to know exactly how he/she thinks about him/herself in reality, rather we are only asking which option best represents **your perceptions** of him/her. Your instructor will not see your responses to these questions in any way.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. He/she is confident that he/she gets the success he/she deserves in life.
2. Sometimes he/she feels depressed. (R)

3. He/she believes that when he/she tries, he/she generally can succeed.
4. Sometimes when he/she fails, he/she feels worthless. (R)
5. He/she believes that he/she can complete tasks successfully.
6. Sometimes, he/she does not feel in control of his/her work. (R)
7. Overall, he/she is satisfied with himself/herself.
8. He/she is filled with doubts about his/her competence. (R)
9. He/she believes that he/she determines what will happen in his/her life.
10. He/she does not feel in control of his/her success in his/her career. (R)
11. He/she feels capable of coping with most of his/her problems.
12. There could be times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to him/her. (R)

Perception of Instructor's Narcissism

Ames, D. R., Rose, P., & Anderson, C. P. (2006). The NPI-16 as a short measure of narcissism. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *40*(4), 440-450.

Instructions: Below are several pairs of statements describing how one feels about oneself in general. Within each pair, please pick the one that you feel more closely describes your instructor. Likewise, when responding to these items please note that we do not expect you to know exactly how he/she feels about him/herself in reality, rather we are only asking which option best represents **your perceptions** of him/her. Your instructor will not see your responses to these questions in any way.

		Narcissistic response = 1	**Non-narcissistic response = 0**
	1	He/she knows that he/she is good because everybody keeps saying so	When people compliment him/her, he/she sometimes gets embarrassed
	2	He/she likes to be the center of attention	He/she prefers to blend in with the crowd
	3	He/she thinks he/she is a special person	He/she does not think he/she is better or worse than most people
	4	He/she likes having authority over people	He/she doesn't mind following orders
	5	He/she finds it easy to manipulate people	He/she doesn't like manipulating people
	6	He/she insists upon getting the respect that he/she deserves	He/she usually gets the respect that he/she deserves
	7	He/she is apt to show off if he/she gets the chance	He/she tries not to be a showoff
	8	He/she always knows what he/she is doing	Sometimes he/she is not sure of what he/she is doing
	9	He/she thinks that everybody likes to hear their stories	He/she feels that sometimes he/she tells good stories
	10	He/she expects a great deal from other people	He/she likes to do things for other people
	11	He/she really likes to be the center of attention	It makes him/her uncomfortable to be the center of attention
	12	He/she believes that people always recognize his/her authority	Being an authority doesn't mean that much to him/her

	13	He/she believes that he/she is going to be a great person	He/she hopes that he/she will be successful
	14	He/she believes that they can make anybody believe anything they want them to	He/she believes that people only sometimes believe what he/she tells them
	15	He/she believes that he/she is more capable than other people	He/she believes that there is a lot he/she can learn from other people
	16	He/she believes that he/she is an extraordinary person	He/she believes that he/she is much like everybody else

Demographic information

1. What is your age (in years)?
2. What is your biological sex?
3. What is your race? (White/Caucasian, Hispanic/Latino, Black/African American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Middle Eastern/Arab, Native American, Other-please specify)
4. What year is this for you at your university? (First/Second/Third/Fourth/Fifth or more)
5. Are you an international student (i.e., not born in the US)?
6. For the purpose of granting you extra credits, we ask that you provide your Student ID number. Please click [this link] to leave your Student ID Number. Your Student ID number will be kept confidential and will not link back to your data.

Student Survey 2

First, thank you for providing suggestions to improve the course you are enrolled in. You could provide as many suggestions as you would like to. This survey will be open until the last day of this semester as specified by your school's academic calendar (different dates possible depending on the school's academic calendar). You can provide suggestions anytime you want within the timeframe, and you are more than welcome to come back and add more suggestions at any time.

When you are writing down suggestions, please make sure that your input can indeed make the course better. At the end of the semester, the instructor will review all suggestions (with all identifiers removed) and decide whether or not each suggestion will be implemented in future classes. Your voice will really make an impact!

- Please select from the list below which course/section you are providing suggestions for. (If you are enrolled in more than one course in the list, please only choose one course to provide your suggestions).
- What is your Student ID number? (This question is asked for matching purpose only, and will be removed after responses are matched. Your instructor will not see who provide which suggestions.)
- Please write your suggestions below. If you have more than one suggestion, please enter each one in a separate paragraph. Because we want the instructors to review anonymous responses, when writing your suggestions please do not include any information that could be used to identify you.

Instructor Survey 1

Please write down the course number of the course(s) that you are currently teaching (this question is asked for matching purpose only).

Instructor Self-ratings

Decision-making Style (Scott & Bruce, 1995)

Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1995). Decision-Making Style: The Development and Assessment of a New Measure. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 55*(5), 818–831.

Listed below are statements describing how individuals go about making important decisions. Please indicate the degree to which you agree that each statement accurately describes you.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. I double-check my information sources to be sure I have the right facts before making decisions.
2. I make decisions in a logical and systematic way.
3. My decision-making requires careful thought.
4. When making a decision, I consider various options in terms of a specific goal.
5. When making decisions, I rely on my instincts.
6. When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.
7. I generally make decisions that feel right to me.
8. When I make a decision, it is more important for me to feel the decision is right than to have a rational reason for it.
9. When I make a decision, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.

Core self-evaluation (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003)

Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology*, *56*(2), 303-331.

Instructions: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item with the scale provided.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
2. Sometimes I feel depressed. (R)
3. When I try, I generally succeed.
4. Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. (R)
5. I complete tasks successfully.
6. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. (R)
7. Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I am filled with doubts about my competence. (R)

9. I determine what will happen in my life.
10. I do not feel in control of my success in my career. (R)
11. I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
12. There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (R)

Narcissism (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006)

Ames, D. R., Rose, P., & Anderson, C. P. (2006). The NPI-16 as a short measure of narcissism. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *40*(4), 440-450.

Instructions: Below are several pairs of statements describing how you feel about yourself. Within each pair, please pick the one that you feel more closely describes your perceptions about yourself.

		Narcissistic response = 1	**Non-narcissistic response = 0**
	1	I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so	When people compliment me, I sometimes get embarrassed
	2	I like to be the center of attention	I prefer to blend in with the crowd
	3	I think I am a special person	I am no better or worse than most people
	4	I like having authority over people	I don't mind following orders
	5	I find it easy to manipulate people	I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people
	6	I insist upon getting the respect that is due me	I usually get the respect that I deserve
	7	I am apt to show off if I get the chance	I try not to be a show off
	8	I always know what I am doing	Sometimes I am not sure of what I am doing
	9	Everybody likes to hear my stories	Sometimes I tell good stories
	10	I expect a great deal from other people	I like to do things for other people
	11	I really like to be the center of attention	It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention
	12	People always seem to recognize my authority	Being an authority doesn't mean that much to me
	13	I am going to be a great person	I hope I am going to be successful
	14	I can make anybody believe anything I want them to	People sometimes believe what I tell them
	15	I am more capable than other people	There is a lot that I can learn from other people
	16	I am an extraordinary person	I am much like everybody else

Preference for Influence Tactics (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008)

Adapted from: Yukl, G., Seifert, C. F., & Chavez, C. (2008). Validation of the extended influence behavior questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(5), 609-621.

The items below describe different ways people try to influence each other. Please describe how desirable it is for you when each type of behavior is used by other people in an effort to influence you. For each behavior item, select one response choice that best describes your evaluations.
1 = very undesirable, 2 = undesirable, 3 = neutral, 4 = desirable, 5 = very desirable

Rational persuasion

1. Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
2. Explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.
3. Explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.
4. Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.

Ingratiation

5. Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.
6. Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.
7. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.
8. Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to do.

Instructor Survey 2

Quality of Suggestion Content (self-developed)

Below you will see a list of student suggestions. For each suggestion, please rate the extent to which you agree with the following items.
1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. This suggestion is relevant to the content of this class.
2. This suggestion is feasible to implement in this class.
3. This suggestion will help reach the learning objectives of this class.
4. This suggestion offers new practices that are not currently used in this class.

Willingness to Adopt Suggestions (Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014)

Burris, E. R. (2012). The Risks and Rewards of Speaking Up: Managerial Responses to Employee Voice. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(4), 851–875.

Fast, N. J., Burris, E. R., & Bartel, C. A. (2014). Managing to Stay in the Dark: Managerial Self-Efficacy, Ego Defensiveness, and the Aversion to Employee Voice. Academy of Management Journal, 57(4), 1013–1034.

Below you will see a list of student suggestions, for each suggestion, please indicate:

1. How likely is it that you will take this suggestion in your future classes? (1 = very unlikely, 2 = unlikely, 3 = neutral, 4 = likely, 5 = very likely)
2. I think this suggestion should be implemented. (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)
3. I would make changes to my class to incorporate this suggestion. (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)
4. This suggestion causes me to have second thoughts about how I design my class. (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)

Appendix B: Coding Instructions for SMEs

You will review suggestions brought up by undergraduate students to improve a management course. For each suggestion, you will first evaluate whether the rational persuasion tactic was used and whether the ingratiation tactic was used. Below are definitions of each tactic for you to use as a guide when rating:

- Rational Persuasion: Present facts and arguments as reasons to support why their suggestion should be adopted.
    - A suggestion would be coded "yes" if the person mentioned at least one reason why their suggested change should be implemented. E.g., "I think we should have more team-based assignment so that we can acquire leadership skills through experience in class." This suggestion would be coded "yes" because the person provided a reason (i.e., so that they can acquire leadership skills through in class experience).
    - A suggestion would be coded "no" if no reason was provided. E.g., "Take five minutes at the beginning of class to talk about thoughts/ideas we had on the topics discussed in the previous lecture." This suggestion would be coded "no" because the person did not mention why reviewing material from the previous class would be beneficial.
    - Note that a suggestion should be coded "yes" if any reason is provided, regardless of whether the reason is legitimate or not.

- Ingratiation: Say good things about the instructor or about the class; attempt to put the instructor in a good mood or to make the instructor think well of the person making the suggestion.
    - A suggestion would be coded "yes" if any positive comments about the instructor or about the class was involved. E.g., "I love your positive attitude during class and you seem like you really enjoy teaching. Could you make some classes more interactive with group work or activities? Thank you!" This suggestion would be coded "yes" because the person made positive comments about the instructor (i.e., his/her positive attitude) and showed appreciation (i.e., said "thank you") while making the suggestion.
    - A suggestion would be coded "no" if the person provided a suggestion without any positive comment about the instructor or the class. A suggestion would also be coded "no" if only negative comments were provided. E.g., "Incorporating more practice questions for students to complete and go over at the end of chapter/lecture." This suggestion would be coded "no" because there was no mention of the instructor or the class. E.g., "Change class assignments. The assignments we have had so far did not prepare us for exam questions." This suggestion would be coded "no" because criticism rather than positive comments was provided.
    - Note that a suggestion should be coded "yes" if there is any attempt to make positive comments, regardless of how well the attempt was made.

If a suggestion is coded yes on a given tactic, please then use the coding scheme below to evaluate the quality of use of the tactic. You don't need to evaluate its quality if a suggestion is coded "no" on a given tactic.

Important Note:

- Please be aware that just because a response is longer, it doesn't mean that it should be rated higher on quality.
- Ratings of quality should also be independent of grammar or spelling errors.

Ingratiation: Says good things about the instructor or about the class (praise, flattery, etc) attempting to put the instructor in a good mood or to make the instructor think positively of the speaker.

Definition		Examples
Comments are presented in a very positive way, such as involving strong positive emotion words, high appraisal of the class or of the instructor, or details to make it sincere. Expression of appreciation or praise is made specific to the class or the instructor rather than generic positive appraisals. It is very likely that the comment will elicit positive emotional reactions from the reader.	3 Effective	One suggestion I would have is to share more of your own ideas. I found that I retained more information about the topic at hand when you mentioned your own stories, instead of you reading the PowerPoint. But overall this class was amazing and I learned a variety of different skills that will be very useful for incoming students, like group projects and accountability.
Used general positive adjective(s), it is clear that the person's general evaluation of the course is positive. They might follow up with a suggestion, but the suggestion is more about ways to improve above and beyond what's already good, rather than complaining.	2 Somewhat Effective	Everything went well in this course. Although, one thing I can suggest is giving out more materials to help with exams such as PowerPoint notes, study guides, practice exams, etc.
Used general positive adjective(s) to describe the class or the instructor (e.g., "good"), however, one can't tell whether the expression was intended to praise the course or not. For example, the person may only say some good things to make their follow up complaints less intrusive.	1 Not effective	I think you are a good professor, but I do think you should make the quizzes half pop quizzes and half not pop quizzes, it feels really unfair.

Rational Persuasion: Present facts, evidence, and/or arguments as reasons to support why their suggestion is feasible and relevant. When coding on this item, make sure to focus on the logical connection between the reason/justification and the suggestion (e.g., elaboration on the suggestion itself doesn't count).

Definitions		Examples
There is a strong, logical connection between the reason that was given and the suggestion itself. The person illustrated the reason with details to make a persuasive case and clearly stated why implementing the suggested change will contribute to learning effectiveness.	3 Effective (3 = clear logic + clear improvement)	A suggestion would be to decrease the volume of words on the power points. As it is now, the students can get distracted because they subconsciously have to figure out if they need to be reading the power points or listening to the professor. I think it would be smore valuable to have the main point on the slides with a relevant picture than all the lecture material typed. Students will probably give more full attention to the professor that way. I realize that students use the power points to study for exams, so I suggest the words that are already on the slides be moved to the "notes" section under the slide itself.
A reason was provided, and the reason makes some sense. However, either the logic between reason and suggestion was not clear, or it was not clear why implementing the suggestion will improve learning effectiveness.	2 Somewhat effective (2 = either logic or improvement unclear)	Make the class more interactive with videos and other tools. I have a hard time even showing up to the class because the material is so dry. If you could spice it up a little bit I feel that attendance and ratings would go up a lot. Class is great, possibly more hands on experimental activities in class to really understand the experimental material.
A reason was (sort of) provided, but the logic and/or facts used are very weak. For example: • The reason was very vague and barely a reason (e.g., you don't have X so you should have X) • Can't tell how the reason was related to the suggestion that was raised • The reason makes no sense (e.g., because I don't like it)	1 Not effective (1 = ok, but why?)	Sometimes the lecture slides are confusing, so my suggestion would be to make the power point slides not confusing. I think a condensed Professor written document to accompany the slides would help. I dislike group projects because I like being in control of all of my own work.