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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Linking proactive behavior and constructive deviance to affective commitment and turnover intention: the mediating role of idea championing

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Abstract
This paper explores how proactive behavior and constructive deviance relate to affective organizational commitment and turnover intention through idea championing. Based on a two-wave study ($N = 310$), structural equation model analyses revealed that constructive deviance had an inhibitory effect and proactive behavior a facilitatory effect on idea championing. In turn, idea championing was related to increased affective commitment and reduced turnover intention. The analyses of indirect effects further indicated that proactive behavior and constructive deviance had opposite indirect effects on affective commitment and turnover intention. This research underlines the importance of acting proactively upstream rather than deviating from the norm to promote innovation and build employee loyalty to the organization. Finally, this study also indicates that proactive and constructive deviant behaviors are conceptually different and exert opposite effects despite their similar orientation toward innovation and change.

Key words: Innovation; idea championing; proactive behavior; constructive deviance; affective commitment; turnover intention

Over the past three decades, innovative work behavior has become a mandatory strategy for companies' competitiveness, growth, and development (Anderson, Potočnik, & Zhou, 2014). Among different approaches to innovative work behavior (e.g., Anderson et al., 2014; Janssen, 2000), a four-phase model consisting of idea generation, idea elaboration, idea championing,[1] and idea implementation emerged (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Unfortunately, most of the research on innovation has focused on idea generation and implementation phases (Howell & Higgins, 1990) rather than on the idea elaborating and championing phases (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). Moreover, some research suggested the existence of a single implementation factor integrating the promotion phase (e.g., Anderson et al., 2014). This has resulted in a dearth of studies that looked at the role of idea championing (Howell & Boies, 2004).

Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017) reported that, among the 22 articles they reviewed, only five dealt (implicitly yet) with the promotion phase. The decline of the study of idea championing could be explained by interest in the generation and implementation phases, which are often considered more important, and by the difficulty of studying idea championing in an organizational context (Battistelli, 2014). However, 'most ideas need to be promoted as they often do not match what is already used in their work group or organization' (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010, p. 24).

[1]In this paper, idea championing and idea promotion will be used interchangeably (for more information, see Anderson, et al., 2014; Janssen, 2000; Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017).

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Without championing, a successful idea could remain dormant and hinder idea implementation (Frost & Egri, 1991). It is, thus, useful to determine the facilitators and inhibitors of idea championing and its consequences.

Drawing upon social exchange theory (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001, 2005), and the change and innovation literature (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016), this study examines the effect of proactive behavior and constructive deviance as antecedents to idea championing, and their relationship with commitment and turnover intention. Change and innovation may result from previous strategic development (Howell & Boies, 2004) and deviation from organizational norms (Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011) that challenge the status quo (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004). Social cognitive theory states that a behavior that feeds the perception of self-efficacy leads to the emergence of other behaviors (Bandura, 2005). Moreover, as individuals interact with their environment, they may influence the environment and vice versa (Bandura, 2001). Individuals would, thus, develop the ability to self-regulate their behaviors through intentionality, foresight, and purpose seeking, and their goal-directed behaviors would produce new behaviors and change over time (Bandura, 2001). Furthermore, the proactive (e.g., integrated, gathering, and preventive) and deviant (e.g., non-normative) relationship of individuals with the environment should influence the idea championing component of innovation in different ways. The inclusion of proactive work behavior (PWB; Parker & Collins, 2010) and constructive deviant work behavior (CDWB; Déprez, Battistelli, Boudrias, & Cangialosi, 2020) as antecedents should allow determining the most appropriate behavioral approaches for the championing phase of innovation. In this study, PWB is operationalized through voice and taking charge whereas CDWB encompasses prosocial rule-breaking efficiency and constructive deviant behavior. As the championing phase involves seeking help and support to realize the generated ideas, it should be related to the champion's commitment and willingness to remain in the organization. Moreover, as CDWB engenders weaker social ties compared to PWB, the consequences of the interaction between the champion and his/her organization may differ (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017).

Our study makes several contributions to the innovation literature. First, it extends this literature by zooming on idea championing, a phase of the innovative process that has been understudied so far. Second, this research examines the effect of PWB and CDWB on idea championing, providing a deeper understanding of the antecedents by which idea championing emerges. Third, this study investigates how idea championing acts as a mechanism that fosters individuals' psychological attachment to the organization, an issue that remains unaddressed in the literature. We argue that idea championing constitutes an intervening factor between PWB and CDWB on one hand and organizational commitment and turnover intention on the other hand. Fourth, we introduced constructive deviance to change and advanced the innovation literature by using social cognitive theory, which is a promising framework for understanding the various processes of deviance. Results raise the question of when it is more appropriate to promote the development of deviant behaviors at work to innovate. These results should also help practitioners consider the use of organizational proactive behaviors rather than deviant behaviors to develop innovation. In this sense, we are advancing research on constructive and deviant behaviors. We show through our model that PWB and CDWB are indeed constructs whose elaboration and outcomes differ, and therefore follow different processes.

Theoretical background and hypotheses

Innovative behavior in the change and innovation literature

There has been growing interest in concepts associated with how organizations, teams, and employees bring about change and innovation (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016). These concepts target different levels and processes through approaches perceived as similar (Anderson, et al.,

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2014). Among nine concepts identified in the *change and innovation literature* (e.g., voice, taking charge, and extra-role behavior), innovative behavior emerged as a specific construct (West & Farr, 1990) composed of creative ideas (generation) as the first phase and idea implementation as the second phase (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016). Innovative behavior differs from other concepts owing to its multi-phase nature (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010) and propensity to change the status quo via new ideas (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004). Following the definition of innovative work behavior (Table 1), idea generation refers to the individual's ability to generate new ideas (Anderson et al., 2014). Idea implementation refers to the action to adopt, apply, and use innovative ideas (Janssen, 2000). Idea implementation requires a shared vision and an understanding of all actors (West & Farr, 1990) whereas idea generation requires an organizational context fostering cognitive flexibility (Janssen, 2000). However, to legitimize and implement an innovation, the champion must promote the idea first (Howell & Higgins, 1990). Idea championing occurs between the generation and the implementation phases (Janssen, 2000). It refers to the ability to find support by expressing enthusiasm and confidence in the success of innovation (Howell & Boies, 2004). According to Bandura (1986), people are interested in the tasks in which they feel effective. In this sense, idea championing follows the tenets of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2010). The creation of a new idea may cause others to be reluctant and prevent the implementation of the idea to preserve the status quo (Howell & Higgins, 1990). The championing phase is thus essential to reduce this reluctance and to help implement the generated idea (e.g., Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). This paper focuses on the championing phase of innovation.

Champions of innovation activate different networks, at the appropriate moment, that help transform ideas into implemented constructs (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). Idea championing requires behaviors well-adjusted to the organizational context (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010), unlike idea generation and implementation that aim to challenge the status quo (Anderson et al., 2004). Indeed, as idea championing seeks to gain social approval, hence funding, to realize the idea the champion incurs a high risk of rejection (Howell & Higgins, 1990). To overcome this difficulty, individuals draw on their sense of self-efficacy (Zhou & Woodman, 2003) and set goals that correspond to their expectations of innovation (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). To get through idea implementation, the champion must build legitimacy (Cattani & Ferriani, 2008) and influence (Howell & Higgins, 1990) toward his/her network during the championing phase (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). For example, an employee is more likely to find support to change job characteristics if he/she proactively proposes ideas instead of imposing change without even considering colleagues' and supervisors' opinions.

Innovation, proactivity, and constructive deviance

Innovative behaviors follow a temporal sequence that involves interactions with individuals, environment, and organization (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Warren, 2003). Even if they are named differently, they share similarities and partly overlap, and are sometimes identified through similar or opposite labels (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016). For example, voice and taking charge are presented as change and innovation-oriented behaviors that are linked to both proactivity (Parker & Collins, 2010) and constructive deviance (Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013). To reduce conceptual ambiguity, Déprez et al. (2020) examined the relationship between behaviors included both in the literature on constructive deviance (Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013) and change and innovation (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016). Their results support the existence of two higher-order factors, both oriented toward change and innovation: PWB, reflecting proactivity, and CDWB, reflecting constructive deviance. Due to their contribution to innovation (Galperin, 2002; Tornau & Frese, 2013), PWB and CDWB should be related to innovative work behavior. However, the extent to which PWB and CDWB are related to idea championing needs to be assessed.

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Table 1. Constructs, dimensions, and definitions

Variable	Relevant authors	Dimensions	Definitions	Higher-order dimension
Constructive deviance behavior	Galperin (2002), Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004), Warren (2003)	• Interpersonal[a] • Organizational[a]	'Voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in doing so contributes to the well-being of an organization, its members, or both' (Galperin, 2003, p. 158)	CDWB
Prosocial rule breaking	Dahling et al., (2012), Morrison (2006)	• Efficiency[a] • Co-worker aid • Customer help	'Intentional violation of a formal organizational policy, regulation, or prohibition with the primary intention of promoting the welfare of the organization or one of its stakeholders' (Morrison, 2006, pp. 7–8)	CDWB
Taking charge	Morrison and Phelps (1998), Chiaburu and Baker (2006)	• Taking charge[a]	'Voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations' (Morrison & Phelps, 1998, p. 403)	PWB
Voice	Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), Van Dyne and LePine (1998)	• Constructive[a] • Supportive • Defensive • Destructive	'Individual's voluntary and open communication directed toward individuals within the organization that is focused on influencing the context of the work environment' (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014, p. 88)	PWB
Innovative work behavior	Janssen (2000), West and Farr (1990)	• Generation • Promotion/ Championing[a] • Realization	'Intentional creation, introduction and application of new ideas within a work role, group or organization, in order to benefit role performance, the group, or the organization' (Janssen, 2000, p. 288)	–
Affective commitment	Bentein et al., (2005), Allen and Meyer (1990)	• Affective[a]	'Represents the idea that one's commitment to the organization is driven by an emotional attachment to the organization' (Bentein et al., 2005, p. 469)	–
Turnover intention	Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000)	• Turnover intention[a]	'Intentions to quit as the immediate precursor to actual turnover behavior' (Bentein et al., 2005, p. 469)	–

[a]Dimensions used in confirmatory factor and SEM analyses.

PWB is a second-order factor defined as 'taking control of, and bringing about change within, the internal organizational environment' (Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 637). It encompasses four proactive behaviors: voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1998), individual innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994), and problem prevention (Parker & Collins, 2010). *Voice* involves sharing opinions by communicating one's own 'views about work issues to others in the workplace, even if views differ, and others disagree' (Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 637). It refers to behaviors expressed through promotive means that imply acting proactively and thinking about issues in advance to communicate an adapted method of action (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). *Taking charge* has a more active elaboration and means trying 'to bring about improved procedures in the workplace' (Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 637). It refers to the effort made to make changes in the execution of work tasks and involves autonomy (Morrison & Phelps, 1998). Thus, voice and taking charge capture employees' effort to improve work methods and promote new ideas (Ng, Hsu, & Parker, 2019). Moreover, voice and taking charge are different from idea championing, as the latter aims to bring together the main actors who can help the promoted idea to be realized (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016). The action (i.e., taking charge) and discussion (i.e., voice) phases are, thus, preliminary to this phase of gathering and funding around the defended idea. They should be related to idea championing, which requires committed actors to obtain support (e.g., Howell & Higgins, 1990). *Individual innovation* and *problem prevention* behaviors should be more related to the generation of ideas through the search for new ways of thinking and identification of 'the root causes of things that go wrong' (Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 637). Therefore, our focus is on voice and taking charge as components of PWB and key elements in the process of idea championing.

CDWB is defined as bringing about change by breaking rules in the organization (Déprez et al., 2020) and as such reflect positive deviance, namely 'intentional behaviors that depart from the norms of a referent group in honorable ways' (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). CDWB is characterized by an innovative intent that seeks non-conventional procedures to help the organization (Galperin, 2002) and influence the change process (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012). CDWB encompasses two forms of behaviors: constructive deviant behavior and prosocial rule-breaking behavior (Déprez et al., 2020). Such behaviors dismiss established norms without harming the organization. *Constructive deviance behavior* contains an innovation-oriented component that is found in each of its dimensions (i.e., interpersonal and organizational), all of which are expressed in counter-normative ways (Galperin, 2002). *Prosocial rule breaking* implies behaving against formal rules, which goes beyond non-normative actions (Morrison, 2006), and aims at seeking efficiency, providing better services to customers, or helping co-workers perform better. The search for efficiency through breaking rules contains a component oriented toward change and self-development (Dahling et al., 2012). Thus, constructive deviance and prosocial rules breaking for efficiency should be related to idea championing that implies efforts to bring about change by dealing with established norms and rules (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). The other two constructs of prosocial rule-breaking (i.e., customer service and helping colleagues) should be more related to idea implementation since they are immediate and do not require the acceptance of the organization (Morrison, 2006). In this paper, we focus on Galperin's constructive deviant behavior and on the efficiency component of prosocial rule breaking because the other two prosocial rule-breaking aspects appear less relevant to idea championing.

The innovative process may require acting in advance (Tornau & Frese, 2013) and influencing others (Howell & Boies, 2004). Proactive behaviors, when successful, imply the replication or development of new behaviors (Tornau & Frese, 2013). Innovation is also likely an outcome of proactive behaviors (Tornau & Frese, 2013) requiring individuals to challenge the status quo by moving away from norms and rules (Anderson et al., 2004). Constructive deviance behaviors aim to bring about organizational change and the generation of new organizational behaviors (Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013). Thus, PWB, because it is self-initiated (Potočnik & Anderson,

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2016), and CDWB, as it brings change in non-normative ways (Galperin, 2012), may be related to innovation. However, their role may differ. CDWB is reactive and goes against the norms (Morrison, 2006), whereas PWB reflects anticipatory actions (Grant & Ashford, 2008). CDWB may be perceived as conflicting with the organization's goals, thereby threatening the well-being of both the organization and employees (Morrison, 2006). On the contrary, PWB is more mundane and less conflicting (Parker & Collins, 2010). Finally, CDWB is mostly disruptive for personal relationships (Galperin, 2012), which is not the case of PWB as it takes more discretionary and conventional forms (Anderson et al., 2014).

The championing phase requires that actors perceive the creators' ability and efficacy positively, allowing them to 'fill' structural holes and defend new ideas (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). In the case of PWB, the creator's ability and self-efficacy perception should reinforce his or her sense of being able to successfully rally others around his/her ideas (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). On the contrary, the deviant actor sees him/herself as deviant because he/she perceives him/herself as being at odds with his/her organizational environment (e.g., management) (Galperin, 2002). This does not necessarily prevent individuals from creating and attempting to implement ideas (Galperin, 2002), but it does not encourage them either. According to the tenets of social network theory (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004), to promote an idea employees must occupy a central position in their networks (Cangialosi, Odoardi, Battistelli, & Baldaccini, 2021). This requires social and professional recognition within the organization, which is not the case for deviant individuals (e.g., Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). Over time, individuals who do not conform to their network and environment may feel less able to gather and convince others of the validity of their ideas, which may reduce their propensity to defend their ideas. Thus, ideas perceived by deviant actors as being unwelcome by their peers and the organization (Morrison, 2006) are less likely to be defended. Through its breaking rule component and reactive nature, negatively impacting on the champion's legitimacy (Galperin, 2002), CDWB should thus undermine the championing phase, whereas PWB, through its constructive and planned nature, should have the opposite effect. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 1a. PWB will be positively related to idea championing.

Hypothesis 1b. CDWB will be negatively related to idea championing.

Idea championing, affective commitment, and turnover intention

Few studies have examined the outcomes of proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008), deviant behaviors (Galperin, 2002), and innovative work behavior (e.g., Montani, Odoardi, & Battistelli, 2014). As idea championing remains understudied, the factors involved in the championing phase and their effects need to be explored, particularly their effects on psychological attachment (e.g., affective commitment and turnover intention). The failure of promoting innovation could weaken the ties of the champion to the organization and its social network, leading him/her to seek support from a newly created social network (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). In contrast, successful idea championing should strengthen the champion's ties to the organizational environment, making it possible to make change happen (Baer, 2012). As 'psychological attachment is a stabilizing force that binds individuals to organizations' (Ng, 2015, p. 155), this paper investigates the relationship between idea championing and two outcome variables: affective commitment and turnover intention.

Affective commitment

Organizational commitment encompasses three mindsets, namely affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment is driven by cost and normative commitment is driven by moral obligations (Powell & Meyer, 2004), while affective

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commitment is based on 'identification to' and 'involvement in' the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This study focuses on affective commitment, which has been found to be positively related to high-quality exchange relationships with the organization (Ng, 2015) and innovative work behavior (e.g., Vinarski-Peretz, Binyamin, & Carmeli, 2011). Decision-makers are more likely to support champions they consider legitimate and competent (Cattani & Ferriani, 2008). Thus, successful idea championing should be related to the champions' feeling of being tied to the organization (Elsbach & Kramer, 2003) and social network. Due to its emotional nature, affective commitment is the dimension most likely to be influenced by idea championing. Championing ideas puts the actor in a situation where he/she feels part of his/her organization and sees that his/her expectations of innovation are shared by others (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). Following the tenets of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1991), this process should strengthen the innovative actor's attachment to his or her organizational environment (Bandura, 1991). In addition, the perception of a friendly context to innovation should facilitate using idea championing (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). This situation should not only develop the employee's feeling of confidence in disseminating new ideas, but also his/her commitment.

Hypothesis 2. Idea championing is positively related to affective commitment.

Whatever behavior has been put in place (i.e., PWB or CDWB), successfully promoting ideas would be interpreted by the champion as an endorsement of that behavior by peers and the organization (Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013). Idea championing may, thus, play a key role in the relationship between PWB, CDWB, and affective commitment. For instance, champions using PWB would both feel tied to their organization and find it legitimate to promote their ideas (Bandura, 1997, 2001). A positive relationship between proactivity and affective commitment has been reported (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007). Two components of PWB (i.e., voice and taking charge) have also been found to be positively related to affective commitment (Tornau & Frese, 2013). Indeed, individuals who engage emotionally with their organization may exert more effort on its behalf (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007). Concerning CDWB, it has been found to be negatively related to affective commitment (Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2016). CDWB implies a detachment from the norms and values of the organization (Warren, 2003) that potentially weakens the employee's affective commitment. It could suggest an inability to identify with the organization (Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2016) and to create a positive bond with it (Yıldız, Alpkan, Ateş, & Sezen, 2015). As per the tenets of social network theory (Brass et al., 2004), the failure to identify and be part of one's network should make individuals feel that they do not belong to their organization. As a result, deviant actors could become emotionally disengaged, particularly if they fail to promote the ideas intended to bring about organizational change. For these reasons, the following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 3a. PWB is positively related to affective commitment through idea championing.

Hypothesis 3b. CDWB is negatively related to affective commitment through idea championing.

Turnover intention

In some cases, the reasons that lead an employee to leave an organization may be positive (e.g., low-performing employees), but in many cases turnover is related to negative exchange relationships with the organization (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Turnover intention has been found to positively predict turnover behavior (Ng, 2015) and to be negatively related to affective commitment (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Employees who are not emotionally attached to their organization are likely to leave (Ng, 2015). Thus, as innovation lowers turnover intention (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2017), idea championing should be negatively related to turnover intention.

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Hypothesis 4. Idea championing is negatively related to turnover intention.

Therefore, idea championing should play a mediating role in the relationship between PWB, CDWB, and turnover intention. Crant (2000) suggested that proactive employees are more likely to leave the organization rather than to passively adapt to unintended situations due to their confidence in their ability to obtain job opportunities. However, regardless of the behaviors (i.e., PWB or CDWB), champions seek to make change happen in the organization. They could perceive the idea championing phase as an achievement of their risk taking and investment in their search for change (Anderson et al., 2004). It is, thus, unlikely that these employees will primary consider leaving. Constructive voice and taking charge imply some personal involvement in the organizational network due to the promotive character of these behaviors (Parker & Collins, 2010). Thus, idea championing should negatively mediate the relationship between PWB and turnover intention. In contrast, the non-normative nature of CDWB would be unwelcome, especially in a context reluctant to challenging the status quo (Choi, Anderson, & Veillette, 2009). Indeed, constructive deviance and prosocial rule-breaking efficiency (i.e., two components of CDWB), by their non-conforming approach to bringing about change (Galperin, 2012), imply efforts to radically modify organizational norms (Dahling & Gutworth, 2017). Acting counter-normatively in a context that requires other actors to support the idea should reduce the likelihood that innovation expectations will be met (Déprez et al., 2020). This could weaken the individual's sense of self-efficacy and relationship with the environment (Bandura, 2001, 2005) or network (Brass et al., 2004), and thus increase turnover intention. The above reasoning suggests the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 5a. PWB will be negatively related to turnover intention through idea championing.

Hypothesis 5b. CDWB will be positively related to turnover intention through idea championing.

Method

Sample and procedure

We used a two-wave design with a sample of full-time French workers recruited through social media (i.e., Facebook and LinkedIn). Links to an anonymous survey were shared with groups of people affiliated with specific professions (e.g., hospital staff, salespeople, social workers, and employees from insurance companies). A message described the study and invited people to participate in the project. It contained a hyperlink to access a Limesurvey questionnaire. Participation in the study was made on a voluntary basis and followed a snowball sampling method. Participants were to have salaried employment, hold French citizenship, work a minimum of 35 h per week, and be affiliated with a small- or medium-sized company (i.e., 50–500 employees). To ensure the anonymity of responses, information regarding the type of company or geographical region was not requested. The first survey (time 1) measured CDWB, PWB, and control variables (gender, age, tenure, and managerial status), and collected participants' email addresses. Six months later, time 1 respondents were sent an email requesting completion of the time 2 survey. Prospective participants were ensured of the confidentiality of their responses. The time 1 sample comprised of 515 employees affiliated with a variety of organizations. Among them, 350 provided useful responses at time 2. Excluding 40 surveys with a large proportion of missing data, there remained 310 responses (M_{age} = 35 years, SD = 11; 84% female; 52% private organizations workers) that could be matched across time. Most respondents (79.4%) were employed for 1 year or more in their organization, 36.1% were managers, and the remainder were nonsupervisory employees. Respondents worked in a variety of industries including health care (25.5%), social services (22.3%), finance and insurance (19.4%), trade (17.7%), and education (15.1%).

All variables were measured through self-reports. Although the use of supervisor ratings helps provide an external assessment of employee behavior, hence reduces common method variance

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(CMV; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), some research has suggested that self-reported measures remain valid (e.g., Conway & Lance, 2010), particularly when the behaviors under study are hardly accessible to supervisors (e.g., innovative behavior, PWB, or CDWB). In this study, the recruitment of participants through social media made it difficult to obtain supervisor ratings of employee behavior.

Measures

CDWB was measured at time 1 with the French-adapted version (Déprez et al., 2020) of constructive deviant behavior scale (Galperin, 2012) and the prosocial rule-breaking efficiency scale (Dahling et al., 2012). The constructive deviant behavior scale comprises two subscales: interpersonal (3 items; ω = .74) and organizational (4 items; ω = .83). Typical items are 'Did not follow the instructions of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures' and 'Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem,' respectively. Of the three prosocial rule-breaking dimensions, only efficiency has been retained as it focused on introducing change that increases performance (Morrison, 2006). An example item is 'I ignore organizational rules to "cut the red tape" and be a more effective worker' (4 items; ω = .76). Items were assessed using a 5-point scale (1 = *never*; 5 = *always*).

PWB was evaluated at time 1 through the scales of taking charge and voice. Taking charge was measured by using a 10-item scale (Morrison & Phelps, 1998) (e.g., 'I often try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures'; ω = .91). Voice behavior was assessed using the French version (Déprez, Battistelli, & Peña Jimenez, 2019) of the 5-item constructive voice scale of Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) (e.g., 'Frequently makes suggestions about how to improve work methods or practices'; ω = .89). All items were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Idea championing was measured at time 2 with the 3-item promotion scale (Janssen, 2000) (e.g., 'Acquiring approval for innovative ideas'; ω = .79). This scale was chosen as it was found to display strong psychometric properties in French-speaking samples (e.g., Montani, Odoardi, & Battistelli, 2014). Items were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = *never*; 5 = *always*).

Affective commitment was assessed at time 2 using Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, and Stinglhamber's (2005) French-adapted version of Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) scale (e.g., 'I am proud to belong to this organization'; ω = .89). Items were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Turnover intention was measured at time 2 with a 3-item French-adapted version (Bentein et al., 2005) of Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) scale (e.g., 'I often think about quitting the organization'; ω = .93). Items were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Control variables. We controlled for gender, age, tenure, and managerial status (i.e., supervisory vs. nonsupervisory responsibilities) as these variables have been shown to be related to affective commitment and/or turnover intention (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006; Thanacoody, Newman, & Fuchs, 2014). However, based on the results of the analysis of variance and multiple regression, only managerial status was found to be significantly related to the outcome variables. Therefore, managerial status was included as a control predicting affective commitment and turnover intention in our structural equations modeling (SEM) analyses.

Results

First, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using maximum likelihood with robust standard errors (MLR) through Mplus 8.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2017) was performed to examine the viability of our eight first-order CFA model (Table 2: M7). This model yielded a good fit, $\chi^2(600) = 917.51$, $p < .01$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .04, comparative fit index (CFI) = .94, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = .93, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .06, Akaike information criterion (AIC) = 27,898.70, and Bayesian information criterion (BIC)

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Table 2. Fit indices for CFA and structural models

Model	Model description	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	AIC	BIC	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)
Second order factor measurement model (MLR)										
M1	2 second-order factors (PSRB, CDI, and CDO, vs. CV and TC)	926.72	613	.04	.94	.94	.06	27882.02	28,356.57	M1 vs.
M2	2 second-order factors (PSRB, CDI and CDO, vs. CV, TC and IC)	957.65	616	.04	.94	.93	.06	27,909.63	28,372.96	$\chi^2(3) = 128.69^{**}$
M3	2 second-order factors (PSRB, CDI, CDO and IC, vs. CV and TC)	1,028.54	616	.04	.92	.92	.10	27,987.56	28,450.90	$\chi^2(3) = 220.04^{**}$
M4	1 second-order factor (PSRB, CDI, CDO, CV and TC)	1,153.67	617	.05	.90	.89	.14	28,122.94	28,582.54	$\chi^2(4) = 387.52^{**}$
M5	1 second-order factor (PSRB, CDI, CDO, CV, TC and IC)	1,200.97	619	.05	.89	.89	.15	28,170.39	28,622.52	$\chi^2(6) = 435.79^{**}$
M6	1 second-order factor combining all variables	1,301.83	620	.06	.88	.87	.16	28,278.04	28,726.43	$\chi^2(7) = 609.20^{**}$
First-order factor measurement model (MLR)										
M7	8-model factor	917.51	600	.04	.94	.93	.06	27,898.70	28,421.82	M7 vs.
M8	7-model factor (combining IC and AC)	1,160.10	607	.05	.90	.89	.08	28,152.37	28,649.33	$\chi^2(7) = 336.30^{**}$
M9	7-model factor (combining CV and TC)	1,212.72	607	.05	.89	.88	.06	28,211.28	28,708.25	$\chi^2(7) = 372.87^{**}$
M10	7-model factor (combining IC and TI)	1,236.07	607	.05	.89	.88	.09	28,238.03	28,735.00	$\chi^2(7) = 373.64^{**}$
M11	7-model factor (combining AC and TI)	1,376.86	607	.06	.86	.85	.06	28,399.91	28,896.88	$\chi^2(7) = 383.77^{**}$
M12	6-model factor (combining PSRB, CDI and CDO)	1,067.42	613	.05	.92	.91	.06	28,042.09	28,516.63	$\chi^2(13) = 208.29^{**}$
M13	6-model factor (combining IC, CV and TC)	1,412.19	613	.06	.86	.84	.07	28,419.76	28,894.31	$\chi^2(13) = 573.83^{**}$
M14	6-model factor (combining IC, AC and TI)	1,621.37	613	.07	.82	.80	.08	28,659.45	29,133.99	$\chi^2(13) = 644.22^{**}$
M15	5-model factor (combining PSRB, CDI and CDO; and CV and TC)	1,361.02	618	.06	.87	.86	.06	28,358.52	28,815.38	$\chi^2(18) = 473.05^{**}$
M16	5-model factor (combining IC, PSRB, CDI and CDO)	2,609.79	625	.10	.65	.63	.12	29,740.12	30,169.82	$\chi^2(25) = 1,513.70^{**}$
M17	4-model factor (combining PSRB, CDI and CDO; and CV and TC; and AC and TI)	1,815.97	622	.07	.79	.77	.07	28,865.03	29,305.95	$\chi^2(22) = 801.50^{**}$
M18	4-model factor (combining PSRB, CDI, CDO, CV and TC)	2,410.42	622	.09	.68	.66	.12	29,523.83	29,590.74	$\chi^2(22) = 1,322.50^{**}$
M19	3-model factor (combining PSRB, CDI, CDO, CV and TC; and AC and TI)	2,857.43	625	.10	.61	.58	.12	30,031.77	30,461.47	$\chi^2(25) = 1,568.60^{**}$
M20	2-factor model (combining PSRB, CDI, CDO, CV and TC; and IC, AC and TI)	3,092.04	627	.11	.57	.54	.13	30,290.42	30,712.66	$\chi^2(27) = 1,779.60^{**}$

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M21	2-factor model (combining IC, PSRB, CDI, CDO, CV and TC; and AC and TI)	3,055.08	627	.11	.57	.55	.13	30,249.08	30,671.68	$\chi^2(27) = 1{,}748.00^{**}$
M22	One-factor model	4,114.19	628	.13	.39	.35	.16	31,438.04	31,856.53	$\chi^2(28) = 2{,}544.60^{**}$
Hypothesized and alternative structural models (bootstrap = 1,000; ML)										
HM	Hypothesized structural model	1,104.44	652	.04	.93	.92	.06	27,867.41	28,334.48	HM vs.
AM1	Alternative model with paths from PWB and CDWB to TI and AC	1,098.24	648	.04	.93	.92	.06	27,869.21	28,351.23	$\chi^2(4) = 3.07$
AM2	Alternative model with AC and TI as mediators, and IC as outcome	1,273.14	652	.05	.90	.90	.10	28,036.12	28,503.19	–

RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; CFI, comparative fit index; TLI, Tucker–Lewis index; SRMR, standardized root mean square residual; AIC, Akaike information criterion; BIC, Bayesian information criterion; IC, idea championing; PSRB, prosocial rule breaking; CDI, constructive deviance, interpersonal; CDO, constructive deviance, organizational; CV, constructive voice; TC, taking charge; AC, affective commitment; TI, turnover intention; PWB, proactive work behavior; CDWB, constructive deviant work behavior; M, model; ML, maximum likelihood; HM, hypothesized model; AM, alternative model.
Note: $N = 310$.
$^{**}p < .01$.

= 28,421.82. As shown in Table 2, the eight-factor model (M7) outperformed any more parsimonious model that merged two or more factors, such as a seven-factor model that combined affective commitment and turnover intention (M11), $\Delta\chi^2(7) = 383.77$, $p < .01$; a six-factor model combining prosocial rule-breaking efficiency, and interpersonal and organizational constructive deviance (M12), $\Delta\chi^2(13) = 208.29$, $p < .01$; a four-factor model that combined (a) prosocial rule-breaking efficiency, and interpersonal and organizational constructive deviance, (b) constructive voice and taking charge, and (c) affective commitment and turnover intention (M17), $\Delta\chi^2(22) = 801.50$, $p < .01$; and a one-factor model (M22), $\Delta\chi^2(28) = 2{,}544.60$, $p < .01$. Thus, our a priori eight-factor model (M7) was retained as the best model.

We then examined the viability of a second-order CFA model where (a) prosocial rule-breaking efficiency, and interpersonal and organizational constructive deviance were first-order factors defining CDWB as a second-order factor, and (b) constructive voice and taking charge were first-order factors defining PWB as a second-order factor. This model yielded a good fit, $\chi^2(613) = 926.722$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .94, TLI = .94, SRMR = .06, AIC = 27,882.029, BIC = 28,356.57, and improved over the corresponding first-order CFA model (M7), $\chi^2(13) = 98.69$, $p < .01$, ΔTLI = .01, ΔAIC = 16.68, ΔBIC = 65.25. This model also yielded a better fit compared to other second-order CFA models (Table 2), such as a second-order factor model including CDWB versus PWB first-order factors combined with idea championing as second-order factors (M2), $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 128.69$, $p < .01$; a second-order factor model including CDWB first-order factors and idea championing versus PWB as second-order factors (M3), $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 220.04$, $p < .01$; a second-order factor model including CDWB and PWB first-order factors grouped within a single second-order factor (M4), $\Delta\chi^2(4) = 387.52$, $p < .01$; a second-order factor model grouping CDWB and PWB first-order factors along with idea championing as a single second-order factor (M5), $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 435.79$, $p < .01$; and a second-order factor model grouping all factors within a single second-order factor (M6), $\Delta\chi^2(7) = 609.20$, $p < .01$. These results suggest our theorized second-order factor model (M1) was the best model. It was used to examine our hypotheses.

Table 3 reports descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables. The internal consistency of our variables was tested using the omega (ω) coefficient (Peters, 2014). As can be seen, reliabilities were high for all variables (ω .74). The two constructive deviant behavior dimensions were highly correlated with one another ($r = .78$, $p < .01$), as were constructive voice and taking charge ($r = .64$, $p < .01$), thus supporting viewing them as reflections of two second-order factors (i.e., CDWB and PWB). Idea championing was positively related to affective commitment ($r = .41$, $p < .01$) and PWB dimensions ($r_s = .42$ to .43, $p_s < .01$). Affective commitment was positively related to PWB dimensions ($r_s = .24$ to .25, $p_s < .01$) and negatively related to organizational constructive deviance ($r = -.11$, $p < .05$). Finally, turnover intention was negatively related to idea championing ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = -.52$, $p < .01$).

While testing hypotheses within our SEM model, we applied Shrout and Bolger's (2002) conditions for mediation: (1) the relationship between independent variables and mediator is significant (hypotheses 1a and 1b); (2) the relationship between the mediator and dependent variables is significant (hypotheses 2 and 4); (3) the indirect paths between independent variable and dependent variables through the mediator are significant (Table 4); and (4) the direct relationship between independent and dependent variables is non-significant when the mediator included in the model (Table 4). Analyses were conducted using SEM within Mplus with bootstrapping (1,000 resamples) and the maximum likelihood estimator. The hypothesized model fitted the data well (Table 2: HM), $\chi^2(652) = 1{,}104.44$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06, AIC = 27,867.41, BIC = 28,334.48 (see the Appendix for item loadings). To determine whether this model was the best model, alternative models were examined (Table 2).[2]

[2]Upon request from a reviewer, we examined the issue of endogeneity using the instrumental variable approach (e.g., Shaver, 2005). The instrument was managerial status, which was used to predict idea championing. This model yielded a

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Table 3. Means, standard deviations, average variance extracted, composite reliabilities, and correlations for the study variables

	M	SD	AVE	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Managerial status	–	–	–	–	–										
2. CDWB	2.57	.86	.76	.90	.11	(.86)									
3. Constructive deviance organizational	2.58	.83	.55	.82	.12*	.88**	(.83)								
4. Constructive deviance interpersonal	2.49	.81	.52	.74	.06	.83**	.78**	(.74)							
5. Prosocial rule-breaking efficiency	2.63	.95	.45	.76	.10	.80**	.48**	.43**	(.76)						
6. PWB	3.63	.72	.72	.84	.22**	.24**	.19**	.26**	.17**	(.92)					
7. Constructive voice	3.40	.82	.61	.89	.22**	.23**	.21**	.25**	.15**	.85**	(.89)				
8. Taking charge	3.74	.69	.50	.90	.22**	.21**	.15*	.23**	.16**	.95**	.64**	(.91)			
9. Idea championing	3.18	.81	.55	.79	.15**	−.01	.00	.01	−.03	.46**	.43**	.42**	(.79)		
10. Affective commitment	3.19	.93	.63	.89	.26**	−.04	−.11*	−.04	.04	.27**	.24**	.25**	.41**	(.89)	
11. Turnover intention	2.71	1.46	.80	.92	−.14*	.03	−.06	−.06	−.02	−.09	−.09	−.08	−.22**	−.52**	(.93)

CDWB, constructive deviant work behavior; PWB, proactive work behavior; AVE, average variance extracted; CR, composite reliabilities.
Note. $N = 310$. For managerial status: nonsupervisory position = 0, supervisory position = 1. Internal consistency reliabilities, as reported in parentheses, are evaluated through the McDonald's omega (ω) coefficient.
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Table 4. Bootstrapping analyses for the mediation model and indirect path estimates

Effect	Estimates	Standard errors	95% CI		Hypotheses
			Low	High	
Control variables					
Managerial status → Affective commitment	.21**	.05	.10	.31	–
Managerial status → Turnover intention	.11*	.05	−.22	−.01	–
Estimates for path model					
PWB → Idea championing	.62**	.06	.49	.74	1a
CDWB → Idea championing	−.20**	.06	−.33	−.07	1b
Idea championing → Affective commitment	.43**	.06	.34	.57	2
Idea championing → Turnover intention	−.22**	.06	−.37	−.12	4
Estimates for indirect path					
PWB → Idea championing → Affective commitment	.27**	.05	.17	.37	3a
CDWB → Idea championing → Affective commitment	−.09*	.03	−.15	−.02	3b
PWB → Idea championing → Turnover intention	−.14**	.04	−.23	−.05	5a
CDWB → Idea championing → Turnover intention	.05*	.02	.01	.10	5b
R^2					
Idea championing	.37**	.07	–	–	–
Affective commitment	.23**	.05	–	–	–
Turnover intention	.06*	.03	–	–	–

CDWB, constructive deviant work behavior; PWB, proactive work behavior.
Note. $N = 310$.
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Alternative model 1 (AM1), which added a direct path from PWB and CDWB to affective commitment and turnover intention, did not improve over the hypothesized model, $\Delta\chi^2(4) = 6.20$, *ns*. Alternative model 2 (AM2) reversed the mediator and outcome variables, thereby testing whether affective commitment and turnover intention mediated the relationship between CDWB and PWB and idea championing. While displaying a good fit, $\chi^2(652) = 1{,}273.14$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .90, TLI = .90, SRMR = .10, AIC = 28,036.12, BIC = 28,503.19, this model yielded a less optimal fit than the hypothesized model (ΔCFI = .03, ΔTLI = .02, ΔAIC = 168.71, ΔBIC = 168.71). Moreover, turnover intention was unrelated to CDWB (β = .12, *ns*) and idea championing (β = .00, *ns*) in that model. The hypothesized SEM model (HM) was thus retained,[3] namely meeting Shrout and Bolger's (2002) condition (4). Standardized path coefficients for this model are reported in Figure 1 and standardized indirect effects and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) are reported in Table 4.

level of fit that was similar to the fit of the theoretical model, $\chi^2(647) = 1{,}097.764$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06, AIC = 27,870.73, BIC = 28,356.49. Yet, the significance of the indirect path estimates remained essentially unchanged whether they have been tested using the theoretical model (HM) as reported in Table 4 versus the theoretical model with managerial status as instrument. The results of this analysis are available upon request from the authors.

[3]We also tested the hypothesized model (HM) while excluding managerial status. The model fitted the data well, $\chi^2(617) = 1{,}027.31$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .93, TLI = .93, SRMR = .06, AIC = 27,878.28, BIC = 28,337.88, but the significance of the path coefficients linking substantive variables remained unchanged as compared to the model including managerial status.

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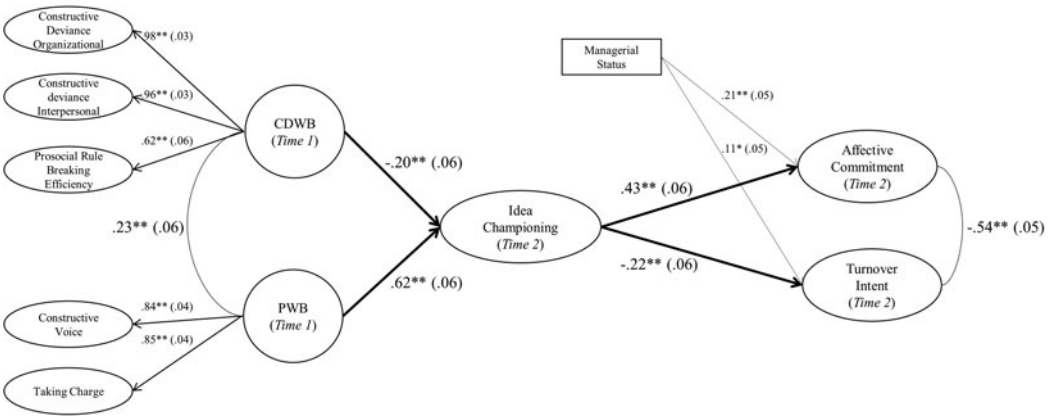


Fig. 1. Standardized loading and path coefficients for the hypothesized model ($N = 310$). Standard errors are reported in parentheses. PWB: proactive work behavior; CDWB = constructive deviant work behavior. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

As can been seen from Figure 1, hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported as PWB was positively related ($\beta = .62$, $p < .01$) and CDWB negatively related ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$) to idea championing, which is consistent with Shrout and Bolger's (2002) condition (1). As predicted by hypotheses 2 and 4, idea championing was also positively related to affective commitment ($\beta = .43$, $p < .01$) and negatively related to turnover intention ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$), which is consistent with Shrout and Bolger's condition (2). Holding a supervisory position was associated with enhanced affective commitment ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$) and decreased turnover intention ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, as shown in Table 4, the indirect effect of PWB on affective commitment via idea championing was positive (.27, 95% CI = .17, .37) whereas the indirect effect of CDWB on affective commitment via idea championing was negative (−.09, 95% CI = −.15, −.02). Hypotheses 3a and 3b are thus supported. Finally, the indirect effect of PWB on turnover intention through idea championing was negative (−.14, 95% CI = −.23, −.05) whereas the indirect effect of CDWB on turnover intention through idea championing was positive (.05, 95% CI = .01, .10). Hypotheses 5a and 5b are thus supported. These results are consistent with Shrout and Bolger's condition (3), providing confirmation of the mediating role of idea championing.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore (a) the relationship between behaviors oriented to change and innovation (i.e., PWB and CDWB) and idea championing, and (b) the mediating role of idea championing between PWB, CDWB, and affective commitment and turnover intention. SEM analyses conducted on data from a two-wave study confirmed our hypothesized model (Figure 1). Theoretical and practical implications of this study are outlined below.

Theoretical and managerial implications

Prior research suggests that people engaged in proactive, or deviant behaviors, are inclined to initiate innovative processes (Galperin, 2012; Tornau & Frese, 2013). However, it remains unclear that such behaviors could benefit idea championing and influence commitment and turnover intention. Our study sheds new light on this issue by demonstrating that PWB and CDWB were linked in opposite ways to affective commitment and turnover intention through idea championing. These results are theoretically and practically relevant. From a theoretical perspective, our study was one of the first to support the mediating role of idea championing between

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behaviors supporting innovation and organizational attachment. Results also show a difference between PWB and CDWB, with PWB being proactive and preventive and CDWB violating norms and breaking rules. Thus, despite their common objectives, behaviors related to change and innovation may have opposite consequences.

First, as predicted, we found a negative relationship between CDWB and idea championing. Indeed, employees engaged in the process of championing innovation are exposed to others' judgments and possible stigmatization, which may dampen their efforts to engage in idea championing (Anderson et al., 2014). The price to pay by employees engaged in constructive deviance (e.g., stigmatization), perceived as too costly (Galperin, 2002), may prompt them to try to implement ideas without championing them as a way to demonstrate self-efficacy and see their expectations realized (Bandura, 2001). Our results showed that reduced idea championing undermines affective commitment and enhances the intention to leave. This may cause psychological discomfort in the champion that would lead him/her to disengage from the organization and search for a job elsewhere (Dahling & Gutworth, 2017). The activation of an adequate social network will be essential for a constructive deviant innovator and will help communicate his/her ideas and implement them.

Second, the positive link between PWB and idea championing is consistent with prior research (Tornau & Frese, 2013). Our results highlight the positive contribution of proactive behaviors and the key role played by idea championing as a facilitator of psychological attachment. Successfully transforming proactive behaviors into idea championing would increase the champion's perception of being supported in his/her efforts (Elsbach & Kramer, 2003), thereby contributing to organizational commitment. However, some negative effects of proactive behaviors have been observed in the past (Spychala & Sonnentag, 2011), due to investment costs and organizational pressures (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Championing an idea should be perceived by the proactive employee as a recognition of his/her efforts and thus offset the cost of PWB. Such recognition and success may be important since PWB may be a response to management expectations, a professional requirement, or an organizational demand. Future research should explore whether support from the organization moderates the relationship between PWB and the phases of innovative work behavior.

Third, idea championing fostered affective commitment and reduced turnover intention. This suggests that idea championing was worth exploring as a construct independently from the other phases of innovation. The positive relationship between idea championing and affective commitment suggests it may play a role in the implementation of innovative ideas. Indeed, champions are more likely to explore, promote, and implement new ideas to help the organization reach its goals (Vinarski-Peretz, Binyamin, & Carmeli, 2011). Furthermore, it has been shown that there is a positive link between affective commitment and innovation implementation (Montani, Odoardi, & Battistelli, 2014). Other results indicate that affective commitment moderates the relationship between subjective relational experiences and innovative behaviors (Vinarski-Peretz, Binyamin, & Carmeli, 2011). However, a worker who strongly identifies with his/her organization should be reluctant to change (Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011). This reluctance should decrease if the individual feels involved in the championing process and perceives that the innovation action is being carried out for the good of the organization (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). Thus, an employee who promotes innovative ideas, and experiences positive affect (Ng, 2015), will not only be committed to the organization, but will also feel engaged in the innovative process and encouraged to participate in idea implementation (George & Zhou, 2007).

From a practical perspective, our findings suggest that a company with a focus on innovation should develop an open environment that supports and enables idea championing. Therefore, the organizational environment must allow innovating individuals to create and maintain social networks that support them during each phase of the innovation process (Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). A consequence of such strategy would be that idea championing would have more chances to contribute to affective commitment and reduce turnover intention. Ultimately, this may foster

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organizational performance (Wang & Wu, 2012). Therefore, it may be worthwhile for companies to invest in training programs aimed at developing proactive behaviors and networking skills among their employees. Such programs would help foster the development of PWB instead of CDWB, and in cases where constructive deviance would be more appropriate, to develop a network that could convey the championed ideas (Baer, 2012).

Human resource practices that promote proactivity (Lee, Pak, Kim, & Li, 2019) and innovation (Shipton, Sparrow, Budhwar, & Brown, 2017) rather than 'counter-normative' behaviors (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009) should be prioritized. It would be useful to focus on leadership styles that are conducive to creativity and innovation (e.g., transformational, empowering, and service-oriented leadership), particularly idea championing (Hughes, Lee, Tian, Newman, & Legood, 2018). Our results indicate that the inability of employees to use constructive deviance to promote innovative ideas may increase the likelihood of leaving the organization. The inability of companies to take advantage of innovators' ideas may prevent them from growing and making profits. It is necessary for organizations to target employees considered to be deviant and build up a collaborative environment where innovative ideas with strong potential can be expressed and attended to. However, during the championing phase it is necessary for the generated ideas to be promoted by the supervisor while involving the constructive deviant employee in the process to build the ideas' legitimacy. In addition, the use of appropriate leadership (Hughes et al., 2018; Thau et al., 2009) and the involvement of the constructive deviant employee in the innovation process should reduce his/her willingness to leave and strengthen his/her affective commitment. Future research should explore how management can contribute to encourage employees initially perceived as constructive deviants to engage in PWB rather than CDWB.

Limitations and future research directions

This study has limitations. First, the use of self-reports to measure the core variables of our model (Podsakoff et al., 2003) including second-order factors (Johnson, Rosen, & Djurdjevic, 2011) of PWB and CDWB may be subject to CMV. To circumvent this problem, a temporal separation has been set between the predictor and outcome variables.[4] In addition, the use of self-reported measures of job attitudes and perceptions remains the best way to capture the individual processes underlying our hypothesized model. Nonetheless, future studies may extend this research by adopting multi-level longitudinal designs where the process of innovation and the role of PWB and CDWB in team-level innovation can be examined. Second, another limitation relates to the relatively small sample for the study, which limits the generalizability of the findings. For example, a larger and more diversified sample would allow examining differences across occupations, industries, and gender in the antecedents and effects of the idea championing phase of innovation (Jin, Chua, & Bledow, 2018).

Third, according to Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017), future research should also investigate which type of social network is appropriate for each phase of innovation, depending on engagement in PWB or CDWB. A limitation of the current study is that the success versus failure of idea championing was not measured. The measurement scales and methodology used do not examine

[4]Based on experts' recommendations (Johnson, Rosen, & Djurdjevic, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003), we conducted a post-analysis to examine the extent to which our data were affected by common bias. We added an orthogonal latent common method variance (CMV) factor to our retained CFA model on which all items displayed an additional loading. This model yielded a better fit than the hypothesized model, $\Delta\chi^2(35) = 75.56$, $p < .01$; ΔCFI = .01; ΔSRMR = .01; ΔAIC = 67.52; ΔBIC = 71.53. However, the CMV factor accounted for only 22.81% of the total variance, which is less than the average of 25% of method variance generally observed in behavioral research (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). Similarly, we tested our theoretical SEM model while including a CMV factor. This model yielded a better fit than the HM model: $\Delta\chi^2(35) = 148.35$, $p < .01$; ΔCFI = .01; ΔSRMR = .01; ΔAIC = −79.34; ΔBIC = −51.43. However, in that model, path coefficients, although somewhat lower in magnitude, remained significant. Therefore, method bias does not appear to affect the significance of the structural relations in our model.

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the actual success of the idea promotion behavior, but rather the perception of having promoted the idea. Thus, future research would benefit from examining the processes of successful implementation of idea promotion through experimental designs. Future studies should also examine through longitudinal methods the extent to which the success of idea promotion over time is influenced by PWB or CDWB. Indeed, the constructive deviant individual should initially attempt to bring about change and promote his or her ideas (Galperin, 2002; Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013). However, we argue that previous successes versus failures in promoting one's ideas will increase versus decrease, respectively, the use of idea promotion for implementing the ideas without prior agreement from managers or peers (see Chung, Choi, & Du, 2017).

Moreover, according to social cognitive theory, future research should also integrate the analysis of self-efficacy, intentionality, and expectations to evaluate how PWB and CDWB influence innovative work behavior. Finally, a last limitation relates to the organizational context. The sample was composed of multiple organizations, which precludes identification of the role of context pertaining to specific organizations or industries (Potočnik & Anderson, 2016). Moreover, our study does not allow understanding how some organizational factors and management practices alter the relationship between PWB, CDWB, and the promotion of innovation. Future research needs to be conducted to identify which organizational (e.g., culture, climate, and trust in the supervisor) and psychological (e.g., perspective taking, goal orientation, and motivation) factors facilitate versus hamper the use of idea championing, depending on one's adoption of proactivity versus constructive deviance.

Conclusion

To conclude, our study aimed at exploring the extent to which idea championing represents a mechanism through which PWB and CDWB affect psychological attachment. The results showed that idea championing mediated (a) a positive relationship between PWB and affective commitment and between CDWB and turnover intention, and (b) a negative relationship between PWB and turnover intention and between CDWB and affective commitment. Our study suggests that idea championing warrants being further studied at the same level as the generation or implementation phases of innovation, as it helps employees to build loyalty to their organization. The results also showed that a distinction should be made between the implementation of proactive and deviant behaviors. Unlike PWB, CDWB would have a negative influence on psychological attachment processes. We hope the current study will encourage further research on the psychological and social costs of CDWB versus PWB. Finally, our results suggest that organizations aiming to develop idea championing should implement management practices that support an environment conducive to PWB rather than CDWB.

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Appendix

Table A1. Items, factors loading scores, and standard errors

Item	AVE	CR	α	F.S.	SE
CDWB	.76	.90	.86		
Constructive deviance organizational	*.55*	*.82*	*.82*	*.98*	*.03*
Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job.				.69	.04
Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem.				.83	.02
Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs.				.64	.04
Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem.				.77	.02
Constructive deviance interpersonal	*.52*	*.74*	*.69*	*.96*	*.03*
Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change.				.34	.06

(*Continued*)

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Table A1. (*Continued.*)

Item	AVE	CR	α	F.S.	SE
Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures.				.86	.02
Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently.				.84	.02
Prosocial rule-breaking efficiency	*.45*	*.76*	*.74*	*.62*	*.06*
When another employee needs my help, I disobey organizational policies to help him/her.				.52	.05
I ignore organizational rules to 'cut the red tape' and be a more effective worker.				.71	.04
When organizational rules interfere with my job duties, I break those rules.				.77	.04
I disobey company regulations that result in inefficiency for the organization.				.65	.04
PWB	.72	.84	.92		
Taking charge	*.50*	*.90*	*.90*	*.85*	*.04*
Adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job.				.56	.04
Change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective.				.55	.04
Bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department.				.76	.03
Institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.				.83	.02
Try to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.				.73	.03
Make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.				.80	.03
Try to correct a faulty procedure or practice.				.72	.03
Try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.				.63	.04
Try to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.				.71	.03
Try to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.				.67	.03
Voice	*.61*	*.89*	*.88*	*.84*	*.04*
Frequently makes suggestions about how to do things in new or more effective ways at work.				.78	.02
Often suggests changes to work projects in order to make them better.				.77	.02
Often speaks up with recommendations about how to fix work-related problems				.64	.04
Frequently makes suggestions about how to improve work methods or practices.				.86	.02
Regularly proposes ideas for new or more effective work methods.				.87	.02
Innovative work behavior					
Idea championing	*.55*	*.79*	*.78*		
Mobilizing support for innovative ideas				.78	.03
Acquiring approval for innovative ideas				.78	.03
Making important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas				.66	.04
Psychological attachment					
Turnover intention	*.80*	*.92*	*.92*		
I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year.				.86	.02

(*Continued*)

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Table A1. (*Continued.*)

Item	AVE	CR	α	F.S.	SE
I often think about quitting the organization.				.91	.01
I wish to leave my organization in the near future.				.90	.02
Affective commitment	*.63*	*.86*	*.88*		
I really feel a sense of belonging to my organization.				.87	.02
I feel like I am 'part of the family' in my organization.				.85	.02
I am proud to belong to this organization.				.89	.01
My organization means a lot to me.				.81	.03
I really feel the problems in my organization as if they were my own.				.48	.05

F.S., factor scores; SE, standard error. Contact the corresponding author for French translations. AVE, average variance extracted; CR, composite reliabilities; α, Cronbach's alpha.

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