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THE SOCIAL AFTERSHOCKS OF VOICE: AN INVESTIGATION OF EMPLOYEES' AFFECTIVE AND INTERPERSONAL REACTIONS AFTER SPEAKING UP

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We draw on cognitive-motivational-relational theory to build a theoretical model that outlines how speaking up affects voicers' emotions and subsequent social behavior. Across three studies—an experimental pilot study, a daily within-person study of employee–coworker dyads, and a preregistered experiment—we test our proposal that promotive voice elicits pride due to a sense of social accomplishment, whereas prohibitive voice elicits anxiety due to a sense of social uncertainty. We demonstrate that these feelings of pride and anxiety have diverging effects on voicers' tendency to withdraw from social interaction during the rest of the day. In turn, these diverging effects on voicers' interpersonal avoidance influence voicers' daily interpersonal citizenship behaviors. We further propose that recipients of voice have the potential to "hijack" voicers' affective appraisals in a manner that can amplify or attenuate their emotional reactions and subsequent social behavior. Our results disentangle the complex experience of speaking up and provide novel insights into how voicers and organizations can maximize the benefits of voice while minimizing its harmful social side effects.

"Can I run something by you?" Every day, employees in organizations approach their supervisors with work-related ideas and problems. At its most basic level, this employee *voice* (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012) is a social dynamic that involves discretionary communication between an employee and a recipient (Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013; Morrison, 2014). As is natural in an applied field, the voice literature has primarily focused on how voice impacts recipients, outlining its numerous benefits for organizations, such as improved work processes, enhanced effectiveness, increased innovation, and crisis prevention (Lam & Mayer, 2014; Li, Liao, Tangirala, & Firth, 2017; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011; Schwartz & Wald, 2003). Digging deeper into the recipient side of this social equation, the literature has recently considered the impact of speaking up on recipients' perceptions of the voicer (Burris, 2012; McClean, Kim, & Martinez, 2022; McClean, Martin, Emich, & Woodruff, 2018; Weiss & Morrison, 2019).

As scholars have begun to take note of the voicer's side of this social equation, an unclear and conflicting picture of voicers' experience—and the resulting implications for the organization—has emerged. Voice inherently involves a tension between social rewards and risks. Speaking to the social rewards, scholars have implied that voicers should feel a sense of accomplishment for their efforts to inspire improvements (e.g., promotive voice) and to prevent problems (e.g., prohibitive voice) (Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012; Liang et al., 2012), as both types of voice ostensibly prioritize others' needs (Sherf, Parke, & Isaakyan, 2021). People generally interpret a sense of accomplishment as a signal that they are socially valued, which can facilitate future social interaction (Fredrickson, 2001; Lazarus, 1991).

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Although research has implied that both promotive and prohibitive voice will lead to a sense of accomplishment, the literature also seems to have contradicted this assumption. Both promotive and prohibitive voice are risky behaviors that might "rock the boat" (Grant, 2013; Liang et al., 2012; Morrison & Milliken, 2000), creating the potential for social censure (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Ng, Wang, Hsu, & Su, 2020). This type of threat to one's self- and social-esteem can foster a sense of anxiety (Lazarus, 1991)—a distressing emotion that leads people to cope by avoiding social interactions (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen & Fatimah, 2016; Lazarus, 1991; Outlaw, Colquitt, Baer, & Sessions, 2019). In sum, the literature has painted a conundrum wherein voice generates positive emotions that facilitate social interaction *and* negative emotions that diminish social interaction. Given that social interaction is a necessary component of desirable organizational behaviors such as interpersonal citizenship, it is critical to shed light on the affective reactions to speaking up and their downstream behavioral implications.

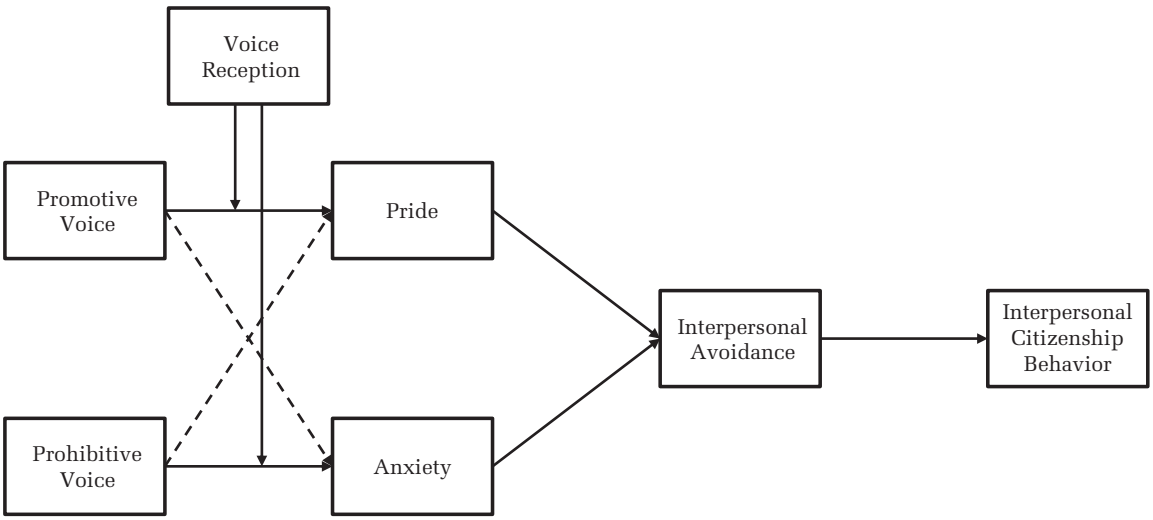
We solve this puzzle by drawing on cognitive-motivational-relational theory (Lazarus, 1991) to build a theoretical model that suggests the two types of voice—promotive and prohibitive—will be associated with distinct appraisals that branch off to generate pride *or* anxiety. We propose that employees' daily suggestions to improve work practices and procedures (i.e., *promotive voice* [Liang et al., 2012]) will primarily foster *pride*—an affective state representing a sense of personal success (Lazarus, 1991) (see Figure 1 for our conceptual model). Downstream, we theorize that the expansive action tendency associated with pride will facilitate voicers' daily social interactions and interpersonal citizenship behavior toward colleagues. In contrast, we theorize that employees' daily expressions of concern about work practices and procedures (i.e., *prohibitive voice* [Liang et al., 2012]) will primarily foster *anxiety*—an affective state representing a sense of uncertainty (Lazarus, 1991). We propose that the restrictive action tendency associated with anxiety will lead voicers to withdraw from others, thereby reducing their interpersonal citizenship behavior toward colleagues. Taken together, our theoretical model provides insight into whether the benefits of voice might be accompanied by an increase or decrease in another valuable form of extra-role behavior.

To provide a more holistic account of the affective and interpersonal impact of voice, we apply and extend cognitive-motivational-relational theory to propose that *voice reception*—recipients' reactions to voice—plays a substantial role in shaping voicers' appraisal processes and subsequent social behavior. Broadly speaking, a recipient's response can be characterized as positive (e.g., encouraging) or negative (e.g., dismissive) (Burris, Rockmann, & Kimmons, 2017). An encouraging response to voice has the potential to solidify voicers' sense that they have done something beneficial, thereby amplifying the feeling of pride that stems from promotive voice. Relatedly, an encouraging response might reduce voicers' uncertainty regarding the consequences of drawing attention to problems, thereby attenuating the feeling of anxiety that stems from prohibitive voice. In contrast, a dismissive response might have a detrimental impact on voicers' emotional states. Although it would be tempting to assume that managers should always respond positively to voice, this recommendation is likely untenable. Voice inevitably has varying degrees of quality (Ng et al., 2020), and managers may feel unable to implement every suggestion and resolve every issue (Burris et al., 2017; Sessions, Nahrgang, Newton, & Chamberlin, 2020). Our exploration provides insights into how managers might maximize the beneficial aspects of voice while minimizing the downsides.

Our research makes several contributions to the voice literature. First, the literature has provided conflicting answers to the question of whether speaking up leads to a sense of pride for making a valuable contribution to the organization or a sense of anxiety for rocking the boat. Given that pride and anxiety have opposite implications for voicers' subsequent social interaction and interpersonal citizenship, it is crucial to determine when and why voice might generate pride versus anxiety. Drawing on cognitive-motivational-relational theory, we suggest that the "in the moment" experience of voice will result in diverging affective appraisal processes that are unique to each type of voice. Prior voice research has largely focused on broad cognitive assessments of the overall rewards and risks of voicing (Burris, 2012; Morrison, 2014). Although these retrospective between-person assessments can appropriately address many research questions, they are ill-suited to capturing voicers' immediate affective and social reactions. Accordingly, we disentangle voicers' experience by building episodic, within-person theory that we test with methodologies—experience sampling methodology (ESM) and experiments—that capture employees' voice experience in the moment.

Second, our focus on the "social aftershocks" of voice reveals that voice has unanticipated relational consequences—both positive and negative—for the workplace. Although voice is an approach-oriented

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Model for the Dynamic Social Consequences of Promotive and Prohibitive Voice to the Voicer



Note. Solid lines represent hypothesized paths. Dotted lined represent paths that are not hypothesized but included in empirical tests for robustness.

behavior (Sherf et al., 2021), our theorizing suggests that it can, paradoxically, lead voicers to avoid others in the aftermath of speaking up. We demonstrate that these social consequences have daily downstream implications for voicers' interpersonal citizenship behavior—an outcome that is critical to organization effectiveness (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). If voice fosters pride, it is a generative social dynamic that promotes another valuable form of citizenship. If voice fosters anxiety, however, the ensuing social dynamics may have a costly, and unanticipated, impact on another form of citizenship. We advance the literature by demonstrating how various types of voice may enhance or diminish another type of extra-role behavior.

Finally, we extend cognitive-motivational-relational theory by identifying managers' role in shaping these affective and social reactions to voice. Research employing cognitive-motivational-relational theory has typically portrayed the appraisal process as an uninterrupted process that progresses from event to discrete emotion. Somewhat surprisingly, the literature has generally overlooked the role other parties might play in the decision-tree progression of these appraisal processes. We suggest that managers can "hijack" the appraisal in a manner that attenuates or amplifies the dominant appraisal. Taken together, our theoretical model—which we test across an experimental pilot study, an ESM with employee–coworker dyads, and a preregistered experiment—highlights the inherently social nature of voice and provide organizations with actionable recommendations for curtailing the negative effects of prohibitive voice on voicers. An informed consideration of the unanticipated social consequences of voice should enable organizations to continue harnessing the many benefits of voice while minimizing its harmful side effects.

THEORY DEVELOPMENT

Cognitive-motivational-relational theory describes the subjective appraisal process that generates affective reactions (Lazarus, 1991). This appraisal process begins with a coarse assessment—the "cognitive" portion of the theory—of whether the experience is a benefit or a threat. Events that help a person achieve their goals or desires are perceived as benefits that lead to positively-valenced affective states; events that hinder goal achievement are perceived as threats that trigger negatively-valenced affective states. The interplay (or "relationship") between these events and a person's goals (or "motivations") represents the "relational" and "motivational" aspects of the theory. The appraisal process can also involve a fine-grained assessment of the specific goals or desires that are affected, attributions of responsibility, coping options, and future expectancies, which jointly determine the affective states that are elicited. These detailed appraisal patterns for specific affective states are accompanied by action tendencies that inform the person's subsequent behavior. Thus, cognitive-motivational-relational theory provides a lens

for identifying the affective states elicited by promotive and prohibitive voice, as well as voicers' subsequent social behavior.

The appraisal patterns and action tendencies outlined by cognitive-motivational-relational theory suggest pride and anxiety as a natural pairing for our investigation. Pride and anxiety occupy mirrored positions on the affect circumplex, which characterizes emotions by their level of activation (the degree of energy or arousal) and their valence (the degree of pleasantness) (Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1998). Pride is an emotion with high activation and a positive valence; anxiety is an emotion with high activation and a negative valence. Scholars have suggested that pride and anxiety are highly relevant to social interactions, in that both can stem from a person's appraisal of how others perceive them (Lazarus, 1991; Leary, 2004, 2007). Our pairing of pride and anxiety allows us to explore voicers' appraisal that speaking up has either improved or threatened their social esteem. In the sections that follow, we outline the appraisal processes stemming from voice that contribute to pride and anxiety, as well as their subsequent social outcomes.

According to cognitive-motivational-relational-theory, the affective appraisal process is akin to a decision tree, with the first branch depending on whether the given situation is beneficial or detrimental. For a person to experience both pride and anxiety, they would have to take both branches *at the same time*. This would require voicers, in the moment, to appraise that their voice and, by extension, they themself are valued by the recipients while also simultaneously appraising that recipients may think poorly of them for voicing. Although it is feasible that a voicer could hold these contrasting appraisals, we suggest it is unlikely that a particular form of voice would foster both pride and anxiety. In support of our proposal, scholars have observed that mirrored emotions like pride and anxiety rarely move in the same direction (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Larsen & McGraw, 2014; Watson & Stanton, 2017). Indeed, prior research pairing pride and anxiety has consistently found that they are negatively correlated and have oppositely signed relationships with the other variables in the data (Pekrun, Goetz, Perry, Kramer, Hochstadt, & Molfenter, 2004; Stupnisky, Hall, & Pekrun, 2019; Trigwell, 2012; Watson & Stanton, 2017). Accordingly, we draw on cognitive-motivational-relational theory to argue that promotive voice will primarily lead to pride whereas prohibitive voice will primarily lead to anxiety. Nonetheless, we acknowledge the potential for both pride and anxiety to be induced by both types of voice by including "cross paths" from promotive and prohibitive voice to both emotions (see Figure 1). In Study 2, we apply and extend cognitive-motivational-relational theory to build theory outlining how voice recipients might alter these appraisal patterns.

Promotive Voice and Pride

Pride is an activated positive affective state that stems from taking credit for a socially valued outcome or being a socially valued person (Lazarus, 1991; Leary, 2007; Tracy & Robins, 2007). There are several reasons to suspect that promotive voice will contribute to a feeling of pride during that day. The primary appraisal process leading to pride consists of circumstances being deemed important to the appraiser and beneficial to the appraiser's well-being (Lazarus, 1991). Promotive voice is focused on expressing potential improvements to the workplace. The time and energy devoted to developing and articulating these recommendations indicates that promotive voice typically has personal relevance to the voicer (Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Liang et al., 2012). Indeed, suggestions that do not possess direct or indirect relevance for an employee are less likely to be voiced (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Similarly, the potential for promotive voice to lead to workplace improvements suggests that, in the moment, voicers will appraise promotive voice as favorable to their well-being. According to cognitive-motivational-relational theory, this beneficial primary appraisal branches the affective decision tree toward positively-valenced emotions.

Whether this initial appraisal subsequently leads to pride is dependent on a secondary appraisal. The secondary appraisal that distinguishes pride from other positive affective states involves an attribution of credit to oneself for the beneficial event (Lazarus, 1991). Cognitive-motivational-relational theory outlines that, "For pride to occur as opposed to happiness and relief, we must receive or take credit for the positive event and experience ego-enhancement" (Lazarus, 1991: 271). Promotive voice is generally considered a discretionary behavior rather than a formal job requirement (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Likewise, voice usually involves the communication of voicers' own ideas and opinions (Edmondson, 2003), suggesting that they will feel ownership for their suggestions (Baer & Brown, 2012). When viewed through the lens of cognitive-motivational-relational theory, the personal relevance and potential social benefit of promotive voice, coupled with the likelihood that

voicers will take credit for their idea, suggest that promotive voice will lead to pride.

Hypothesis 1. Promotive voice has a positive relationship with pride.

Prohibitive Voice and Anxiety

Anxiety is an activated negative affective state that results from an appraisal that circumstances contain a potential threat (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Although threats can lead to a variety of negative affective states, cognitive-motivational-relational theory outlines that each negative affective state is a reaction to a specific type of threat. Anxiety is uniquely associated with uncertain threats to an individual's well-being and sense of self (Frijda, Kuipers, & ter Schure, 1989). Whereas negative affective states such as anger and fright are reactions to acute threats, anxiety is a sense of being "nagged by abstract, ambiguous, and symbolic threats to our ego-identity" (Lazarus, 1991: 235). In a social environment, such as an organization, these threats are often related to a person's social perception and standing, reflecting a person's worry that others may not see them in a positive light (Leary, 2007). This appraisal pattern suggests that anxiety will be elicited when an event is personally relevant, there is a possibility of harm, and the outcome is uncertain (Lazarus, 1991).

Guided by cognitive-motivational-relational theory, we argue there are several reasons to anticipate that prohibitive voice will contribute to a sense of anxiety that day. There is substantial evidence that employees view speaking up about problems to be a risky behavior. This is largely due to the potential for prohibitive voice to introduce conflict or disrupt harmonious social relations (Liang et al., 2012). Voicers may also worry about reporting problems that could threaten or embarrass their supervisor (Bies, 2013; Detert & Edmondson, 2011), diminish perceptions of their effectiveness (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2017), make them look bad in front of others (McClean et al., 2018; Milliken et al., 2003), or lead to formal sanctions (Rehg, Miceli, Near, & Van Scotter, 2008). A person's concern that others will perceive them negatively is a fundamental component of the appraisal process that leads to anxiety in a social context (Lazarus, 1991; Leary, 2004, 2007). Given the substantial social uncertainties associated with bringing problems to light, it is likely that prohibitive voice will generate anxiety.

Hypothesis 2. Prohibitive voice has a positive relationship with anxiety.

Social Consequences of Pride and Anxiety

We suggest that the affective states elicited by voice are theoretically and practically important because of how they impact voicers' subsequent social interactions. More specifically, we propose that both pride and anxiety will influence employee's daily *interpersonal avoidance*—a state propensity to withdraw from others (McCullough, Rachal, Sandage, Worthington, Brown, & Hight, 1998). According to cognitive-motivational-relational theory, each affective state has associated action tendencies that provide a framework for understanding their behavioral implications. Turning first to pride, cognitive-motivational-relational theory proposes that its corresponding action tendencies facilitate social interaction (Lazarus, 1991). Pride is a broadening affective state that prompts interaction and sharing with others (Fredrickson, 2001); it is associated with a sense of social expansiveness—a desire to be open and communicative—that "is in striking contrast to the impulse to hide" (Lazarus, 1991: 272). This expansiveness stems from pride's role as a social barometer that informs people of their value to the social group (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). A sense of achievement reinforces that the person should continue acting in ways that maintain their social standing, rather than socially retreating (Fredrickson, 2001; Lazarus, 1991; Tracy & Robins, 2007).

When voicers experience a sense of pride, their appraisal process has indicated that the risks associated with voice have paid off with positive social approval. The voicer's subsequent behavior that day should reflect pride's action tendency to be present and socially engaged (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Additionally, interpersonal avoidance is typically considered a negative social behavior that harms the workplace (Geller & Bamberger, 2009; Kahn, 2019). Scholars have argued that pride guides people "to do things that are socially valued and to avoid doing things that lead to social approbation" (Tracy & Robins, 2007: 275). When experiencing pride, employees should feel less of a desire to pull back from social interactions that day (Gable, Reis, Impett, & Asher, 2004; Williams & DeSteno, 2009). In line with this action tendency, we suggest that promotive voice will reduce interpersonal avoidance via pride.

Hypothesis 3. Promotive voice has a negative indirect effect on interpersonal avoidance, through pride.

In contrast, the social dynamics related to anxiety typically increase interpersonal avoidance. When faced with an uncertain threat, the action tendency

is "avoidance or escape … an effort to get away without anything specific to get away from" (Lazarus, 1991: 238). Anxiety performs a biological function as part of a defense system that prompts people to protect themselves by retreating from threats (Freeman, Garety, Kuipers, Fowler, & Bebbington, 2002; Frijda, 1986; Marks & Nesse, 1994). Cognitive-motivational-relational theory suggests that the desire to "get away" prompts people to socially withdraw in a manner that distances themselves not just from the source of the anxiety, but also from interactions with others (Lazarus, 1991). As Porter and Steers (1973: 166) noted, employees who "exhibit high anxiety tend to withdraw."

Drawing on this action tendency, we expect that prohibitive voice will increase voicers' interpersonal avoidance via anxiety. To illustrate, consider an employee who engages in prohibitive voice to bring attention to a newly uncovered problem. After pointing out the problem, the employee may wonder whether publicizing the problem will lead to social disfavor (e.g., Liang et al., 2012). Such worries and potential threats will likely feed the anxiety experienced by the employee on that day. As a result, the employee may seek shelter from those threats (Lazarus, 1991)—whether consciously or unconsciously—by "hiding away" and avoiding colleagues. In support of our proposal, research has suggested that anxious people tend to create physical distance between themselves and others (Rinck, Rörtgen, Lange, Dotsch, Wigboldus, & Becker, 2010). In sum, the anxiety elicited by speaking up prohibitively may lead the voicer to socially retreat from others later that day.

Hypothesis 4. Prohibitive voice has a positive indirect effect on interpersonal avoidance, through anxiety.

Downstream Effects on Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior

Our focus on the social consequences of voice, through interpersonal avoidance, naturally suggests that we turn our attention to a terminal behavioral outcome that is dependent on social interaction and has a meaningful impact on the social fabric of the organization. These criteria led us to focus on voicers' *interpersonal citizenship behavior*—beneficial discretionary behavior directed toward other individuals in the workplace (Bowler & Brass, 2006; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). In contrast to an outcome like task performance—which does not inherently depend on social interaction—interpersonal citizenship behavior *requires* interaction with colleagues, such as helping, demonstrating support, and including others in activities (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Our exploration of interpersonal citizenship behavior provides insight into how one type of extra-role behavior (i.e., voice) impacts another type of extra-role behavior, thereby extending the nomological network of voice.

We propose that on days when voicers' interpersonal avoidance is higher, there will be a reduction in their interpersonal citizenship behavior. When employees avoid their colleagues, they are less "present" and involved in their workplace (Geller & Bamberger, 2009). That lack of availability has implications for spontaneous interpersonal citizenship behavior. Employees who avoid their colleagues should have fewer opportunities to observe coworkers who need help. Interpersonal citizenship behavior also includes behaviors such as defending colleagues' opinions, speaking highly of them, and including them in conversations. All these behaviors require some form of interaction with a colleague, suggesting that avoidance on a given day will reduce their occurrence. Similarly, if employees are not around, it is unlikely that their colleagues will have the opportunity to request their help. As such, employees who avoid their colleagues are less likely to notice or have opportunities to engage in interpersonal citizenship behavior. Providing support for our proposal, between-person research has indicated that employees with a tendency to avoid social interaction are less responsive to others' needs and are less likely to be approached for assistance (Collins & Feeney, 2000; Feeney & Collins, 2001; Geller & Bamberger, 2009).

Hypothesis 5. Interpersonal avoidance has a negative relationship with interpersonal citizenship behavior.

The Role of Voice Reception

Given that voice is a social interaction between a voicer and recipient (Detert et al., 2013; Morrison, 2014), investigating recipients' responses to voice may be critical to understanding its social consequences. Specifically, we examine the impact that *positive voice reception*—favorable reactions to voice in which recipients are encouraging and supportive (Burris et al., 2017; Lebel, 2016)—can have on the appraisal processes associated with voice. We build this component of our theoretical model by comparing the impact of positive voice reception to *no voice reception*—situations in which voicers do not receive a response to their voice—and to *negative voice reception*—unfavorable reactions to voice in which recipients are

discouraging and dismissive (Burris et al., 2017; Detert & Edmondson, 2011).

Turning first to pride, cognitive-motivational-relational theory (Lazarus, 1991) suggests that pride results from taking credit for a "socially valued good outcome" (Fredrickson, 2013: 6). When recipients respond positively to a voicer's promotive idea, they reinforce the notion that a positive event has occurred. In the absence of that feedback—no voice reception—voicers may be less certain they have done something beneficial. Positive voice reception conveys to the voicer that their promotive suggestion has been beneficial, which should enhance the likelihood that the voicer mentally takes credit for the "win." In contrast, when promotive voice incurs a negative voice reception, the voicer is receiving at least one signal that their voice has not made a positive contribution. Accordingly, negative reception injects an element of doubt into the appraisal process that may attenuate the extent to which promotive voice leads to pride.[1]

Turning next to anxiety, positive voice reception may weaken the feelings of anxiety that stem from prohibitive voice. Prohibitive voice is inherently tinged with uncertainty. When there is no response to this type of voice, the voicer may tend to assume the worst. Positive voice reception, however, is a salient signal that the voicer will not incur social disapproval for their efforts to draw attention to organizational problems. This favorable response should temper voicers' concern that the organization will retaliate or otherwise devalue their input. In other words, positive voice reception "hijacks" the voicer's appraisal process, reducing the possibility that the voicer's path through the affective decision tree terminates in anxiety. In contrast, negative voice reception solidifies the voicer's concern that their criticisms *might* be poorly received into a concrete and salient reality. In sum, positive voice reception has the potential to nullify the anxiety-inducing aspects of prohibitive voice that are likely to exist in situations with no response or negative reception.

Hypothesis 6. Promotive voice that receives positive voice reception will lead to higher levels of pride than promotive voice that receives (a) no voice reception or (b) negative voice reception.

Hypothesis 7. Prohibitive voice that receives positive voice reception will lead to lower levels of anxiety than prohibitive voice that receives (a) no voice reception or (b) negative voice reception.

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We used a multimethod approach to test our hypothesized model. We first conducted an experimental pilot study to provide initial causal evidence of the effects of promotive voice on pride and prohibitive voice on anxiety. Building on these findings, we conducted an experience sampling study to examine the daily social consequences of speaking up within an organization (Study 1). Drawing on a sample of employee–coworker dyads, our field results replicated the experimental effects of promotive voice on pride and prohibitive voice on anxiety. Finally, we conducted a preregistered experiment to provide a controlled test of our hypotheses and explore how recipients' responses to voice influence voicers' emotional reactions (Study 2). Our package of studies highlights the social consequences of speaking up promotively versus prohibitively while addressing alternative explanations and potential limitations.

PILOT STUDY

Sample and Procedure

The sample for the experiment comprised 219 undergraduate students at a university in the Midwestern United States; they received course credit for their participation. Participants were 54.8% female with an average age of 22.2 years (SD = 4.1); they were 68.9% Caucasian, 7.7% Asian American, 5.4% Hispanic, 4.1% African American, and 13.9% other. We employed an experimental design that prompted participants to speak up regarding a personally relevant matter. They were instructed that their actual professor—in a current course that semester—had requested their feedback. The experiment occurred in the middle of the semester, rather than at the end, to distinguish it from typical course ratings and avoid content overlap. Participants were told that their professor would be looking closely at their responses and considered their feedback to be very important. To reflect the nonanonymous nature of voice in organizations, participants were told that their feedback would be paired with their names when submitted to their professor.

We created two conditions by manipulating the type of voice in which the participants engaged. Participants were randomly assigned to either the promotive

[1] In Study 1, we did not hypothesize a main effect of prohibitive voice on pride (supplemental analyses revealed a nonsignificant effect); in Study 2, we did not preregister a prediction that a prohibitive voice × positive voice reception interaction might impact pride. Given the potential for that interaction to exist, however, we considered this possibility in supplemental analyses for Study 2.

voice condition or the prohibitive voice condition and then given an opportunity to speak up. Our manipulation was based directly on Liang et al.'s (2012) conceptualization of promotive and prohibitive voice. Participants in the promotive voice condition were told that their professor was counting on them "to express ideas or solutions about practices and procedures that could be used to improve [their class]." Participants were then asked to "provide [their] professor with several sentences of detailed feedback expressing practices and procedures that could be used to improve [their class]." Participants in the prohibitive voice condition were told that their professor was counting on them "to express problems or concerns about practices and procedures that are harmful to [their class]." Participants were then asked to "provide [their] professor with several sentences of detailed feedback expressing practices and procedures that are harmful to [their class]." After providing their voice, participants reported their current levels of pride and anxiety and, as a manipulation check, completed measures of promotive and prohibitive voice. Finally, participants were asked to provide demographic information and were then debriefed.

Measures

Pride. We used Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, and Larkin's (2003) 3-item measure of pride. Participants were given the following lead-in: "Right now, I feel…" On a 5-point scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*), participants rated the extent to which they felt "proud," "confident," and "self-assured" ($\alpha = .90$).

Anxiety. We used Warr's (1990) 3-item measure of anxiety, with the lead-in and anchors above. Participants rated the extent to which they felt "tense," "uneasy," and "worried" ($\alpha = .92$).

Pilot Study Results

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities are reported in Table 1. Using measures from Liang et al. (2012) that were adapted to the context, participants rated 3-item manipulation checks for promotive and prohibitive voice (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*).[2] Participants in the promotive voice condition reported higher levels of promotive voice ($M = 4.47$, $SD = 0.59$) than did participants in the prohibitive voice condition ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.35$; $t[217] = 11.31$, $p < .001$). Moreover, participants in the prohibitive voice condition reported higher levels of prohibitive voice ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 0.65$) than did participants in the promotive voice condition ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.26$; $t[217] = 8.69$, $p < .001$).[3]

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities (Pilot Study)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*
1. Voice condition	0.47	0.50			
2. Pride	3.59	0.84	.16*	(.90)	
3. Anxiety	2.27	1.06	–.18*	–.58*	(.92)

Note: Promotive voice condition coded as "1" and prohibitive voice condition coded as "0." Coefficient alphas are presented along the diagonal.
* $p < .05$

In support of Hypothesis 1, results of a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that those who spoke up with promotive voice reported higher levels of pride ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .77$) than did those who spoke up with prohibitive voice ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .89$, $F[1, 117] = 5.71$, $p = .02$). In support of Hypothesis 2, a MANOVA indicated that those who spoke up with prohibitive voice reported higher

[2] For the manipulation check, participants were given the following lead-in: "On this task, I was specifically asked to provide feedback that involved..." The promotive manipulation check items were "expressing ways to help improve my class," "voicing ideas that would be beneficial to my class," and "raising solutions to make my class better" ($\alpha = .97$). The prohibitive voice manipulation check items were "expressing concerns related to my class," "identifying problems associated with my class," and "pointing out procedures that are potentially harmful to my class" ($\alpha = .91$).

[3] To ensure our manipulation captured promotive and prohibitive voice, we provided two research assistants—who were blind to our hypotheses—with definitions of promotive and prohibitive voice based on Liang et al.'s (2012) conceptualization. The research assistants rated the correspondence of each response to the promotive and prohibitive voice definitions ranging from 1 (*not at all captured by the definition*) to 5 (*completely captured by the definition*) (Hinkin & Tracey, 1999). Agreement was high between the research assistants' ratings ($k = 0.80$). The average rating of promotive voice responses ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.12$) was significantly higher than prohibitive voice responses ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 1.19$, $t[217] = 11.77$, $p < .001$) in the promotive voice condition. The average rating of prohibitive voice responses ($M = 4.15$, $SD = .89$) was significantly higher than promotive voice responses ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 1.07$, $t[217] = 12.18$, $p < .001$) in the prohibitive voice condition.

levels of anxiety (M = 2.48, SD = 1.14) than did those who spoke up with promotive voice (M = 2.09, SD = .96, $F[1, 102] = 7.52$, p = .01).

The results of the pilot study provide preliminary evidence of the effects of promotive voice on pride and prohibitive voice on anxiety. Given that organizational environments include a variety of factors that might shape voicer reactions, we employed an experimental design to help rule out alternative explanations, clearly differentiate the two types of voice, and capture participants' affective states immediately after voicing. Although we designed a context in which speaking up would have personal relevance to participants, it is possible that the effects of eliciting voice in this manner might differ from discretionary voice in an organizational setting. Additionally, this study does not consider the downstream social implications of voicers' affective reactions. Thus, Study 1 builds on the pilot study in several important ways. First, we utilize ESM to capture employee voice events and the transient affective states that follow within an organizational environment. Second, we explore the subsequent social consequences of voice on interpersonal avoidance. Third, we investigate the downstream outcomes of voice using coworkers' ratings of voicers' interpersonal citizenship behavior. Fourth, by controlling for previous-day assessments when predicting pride, anxiety, interpersonal avoidance, and interpersonal citizenship behavior, our results can be interpreted as a change in the level of these variables from the prior assessment, thereby providing additional evidence of causality (Beal, 2015). An added benefit of ESM is that it controls for between-person variables, such as individual differences (Fisher & To, 2012) and response set tendencies (Reis & Gable, 2000) that might influence the results.

STUDY 1

Sample and Procedure

To examine our hypothesized model, we recruited a sample of employee–coworker dyads from various organizations. We used a referral-based sampling technique to recruit participants (e.g., De Cremer, Van Dijke, & Mayer, 2010; Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016). Students at a large university in the Midwestern United States provided the names and contact information for full-time employees who might be interested in participating in our study. We contacted those employees and explained that we were conducting a study on "speaking up" in the workplace. To participate, employees had to be 18 years or older, work in a job that offered opportunities to speak up, and have a coworker with whom they interacted on a frequent basis and was willing to participate. We emailed employees a link to a registration survey that provided study information, collected demographic data, and asked for their coworker's contact information. We collected completed registration surveys from 301 employees. Next, we emailed coworkers of the employees and asked them to complete a similar registration survey. In total, we received complete registration surveys for 198 employee–coworker dyads. The study was structured such that employees were asked to complete two surveys each day; coworkers were asked to complete one survey each day. Employees received $2 per completed survey in addition to a $5 bonus for completing all surveys—a maximum compensation of $65. Coworkers also received $2 per completed survey plus a $5 bonus for completing all surveys—a maximum compensation of $35.

Employees and coworkers were sent daily surveys—Monday through Friday—for three consecutive work weeks. We selected a three-week timeframe to provide adequate opportunity to observe daily variance in employee voice and its outcomes. Employees received two surveys each day. The first employee survey, sent at 12:00 pm each day, contained measures of promotive and prohibitive voice. Although employees had two hours to complete the first survey (2:00 pm deadline), their average completion time was 12:52 pm. The second employee survey, sent at 4:30 pm each day, contained measures of pride, anxiety, and interpersonal avoidance. We captured the affective states later in the day for several reasons. First, the pilot study revealed that affective reactions were associated with voice immediately after speaking up, but the nature of the design did not provide insight into whether these reactions had a lasting impact. Temporally separating the measurement of voice and the resulting affective states provides evidence of causality (i.e., that voice precedes affect, rather than the reverse) and demonstrates the enduring affective consequences of voice events. Finally, this temporal separation reduces the possibility that our results are biased by common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). As with the first survey, employees had two hours to complete this second survey. On average, they completed the survey at 5:26 pm each day. Coworkers received one survey each day, at 4:30 pm, on which they rated the employee's interpersonal citizenship behavior that day. On average, coworkers completed the survey at 5:33 pm each day.

Following best practices (da Motta Veiga & Gabriel, 2016; Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal, 2014), we

required that employees and coworkers have at least three completed "dyad-days" of data to be included in the final sample. A complete dyad-day of data connotes that, on a given day, the employee completed both daily surveys and the coworker completed their single survey. An additional inclusion criterion for each dyad-day required that the coworker worked with the employee for at least one hour that day. This ensured the coworker had sufficient time to observe the employee's interpersonal citizenship behavior on that day (Gabriel et al., 2019; Scott, Matta, & Koopman, 2018). Applying these criteria yielded a final sample size of 179 employee–coworker dyads, who provided a total of 2,103 completed survey responses over 15 days (an average of 11.75 days per dyad). The majority of employees (64.8%) were female, with an average age of 37.6 years (SD = 10.9) and an organizational tenure of 7.6 years (SD = 6.5). The majority of coworkers (56.6%) were female, with an average age of 37.3 years (SD = 10.8) and an organizational tenure of 6.1 years (SD = 4.8). Employees were 73.1% Caucasian, 10.3% Asian, 7.7% African American, and 6.3% Hispanic. Coworkers were 69.7% Caucasian, 8.2% African American, 8.0% Hispanic, and 7.7% Asian. Participants represented a broad range of industries, including computers or information systems; education, training, or library; finance, insurance, real estate, or public policy; and healthcare.

Study 1 Within-Person Measures

Promotive voice. Employees rated their promotive voice each day with Liang et al.'s (2012) 5-item scale (1 = *Not at all* to 5 = *A great deal*). Items were: "Today, I raised suggestions to improve the unit's working performance," "Today, I proactively voiced out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals," "Today, I made constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation," "Today, I proactively developed and made suggestions for issues that may influence the work unit," and "Today, I proactively suggested new projects which are beneficial to the work unit." Across days, the average coefficient α was .97.

Prohibitive voice. Employees rated their prohibitive voice each day with Liang et al.'s (2012) 5-item scale. Items were: "Today, I advised other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance," "Today, I spoke up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit," "Today, I dared to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit," "Today, I proactively reported coordination problems in the workplace to management," and "Today, I dared to point out problems when they appeared in the unit." Across days, the average coefficient α was .96.

Pride and anxiety. We used the same measures from the pilot study to rate pride and anxiety. Across days, the average coefficient α was .95 for pride and .90 for anxiety.

Interpersonal avoidance. We used three items from McCullough et al. (1998) to capture employee's interpersonal avoidance (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*). Items were: "This afternoon, I have withdrawn from others," "This afternoon, I have avoided others," and "This afternoon, I have kept as much distance between myself and others as possible." Across days, the average coefficient α was .95.

Interpersonal citizenship behavior. Coworkers rated the employee's interpersonal citizenship behavior using Dalal et al.'s (2009) 6-item scale of interpersonal citizenship behavior (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*). Items were: "Today, [employee name] has tried to help others," "Today, [employee name] has gone out of [his/her] way to include others in conversations," "Today, [employee name] has tried to be available for others," "Today, [employee name] has gone out of [his/her] way to be nice to others," "Today, [employee name] has spoken highly of others," and "Today, [employee name] has defended others' opinions or suggestions." Across days, the average coefficient α was .91.

Controls. We controlled for previous-day ratings of pride, anxiety, interpersonal avoidance, and interpersonal citizenship behavior. These controls enable us to interpret our findings as a change in our outcomes, thereby strengthening our ability to make causal inferences (see Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016; Scott & Barnes, 2011).

Study 1 Analytic Approach

We conducted multilevel path analysis using Mplus 7.4 (Muthén and Muthén, 2015) to account for the nonindependence stemming from our nested data (i.e., days within people). We specified the daily within-person variables at Level 1 using random slopes (e.g., Koopman et al., 2016; Wang, Liu, Liao, Gong, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Shi, 2013). We group-mean centered our Level-1 variables, which removes the between-person variance from the Level-1 predictors (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000). To assess the multilevel variance of our model, we tested null models for each of our variables (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

TABLE 2
Variance Decomposition of Null Models for Daily Variables (Study 1)

Variable	Within-Person Variance (ρ^2)	Between-Person Variance (τ_{00})	Percentage of Total Within-Person Variance
Promotive voice	.48	1.13	30
Prohibitive voice	.43	0.89	33
Pride	.48	1.09	31
Anxiety	.15	0.26	37
Interpersonal avoidance	.31	0.43	41
Interpersonal citizenship behavior	.17	0.36	32

Note: Percentage of within-person variance was computed as $\rho^2 / (\rho^2 + \tau_{00})$.

As reported in Table 2, the percentage of within-person variance ranged from 30 to 41%.

We tested our indirect effect hypotheses using parametric bootstrapping (Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006; Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010). Specifically, we used the RMediation package within R software (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011) to calculate the indirect effects and create Monte Carlo confidence intervals that correct for potential nonnormality that can stem from multiplying path coefficients (Lanaj, Johnson, & Barnes, 2014; Lim, Ilies, Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2018; Preacher et al., 2010). In accordance with best practices for testing indirect effects, we also modeled the direct effects of promotive and prohibitive voice on interpersonal avoidance and interpersonal citizenship behavior (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Study 1 Results

We first performed a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) to examine the distinctiveness of our variables. Results from that MFCA reveal that our six-factor model demonstrated sufficient fit to the data: χ^2 (520) = 1,203.27, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.97; RMSEA = 0.03; and SRMR = 0.03. To further explore the discriminant validity of our constructs, we conducted a series of Wald tests in which we constrained the relationships between each pair of our latent variables to unity (1). If constraining the relationship worsens fit, the Wald test will be significant. The Wald test for each of these 15 alternative models was significant (all $p < .001$), indicating that our six-factor model was the best fit to the data.

Table 3 reports the means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of our study variables.[4]

In support of Hypothesis 1, promotive voice was positively associated with pride ($\gamma = .19$, $p < .001$) (see Table 4). In support of Hypothesis 2, prohibitive voice was positively associated with anxiety ($\gamma = .05$, $p = .01$). Although we did not hypothesize the "cross paths" from promotive voice to anxiety or prohibitive voice to pride, we did include those paths in our analyses to conduct a more robust test. As seen in Table 4, the path from promotive voice to anxiety was nonsignificant ($\gamma = -.02$, $p = .21$); the path from prohibitive voice to pride was also nonsignificant ($\gamma = .05$, $p = .18$).

Hypothesis 3 predicted a negative indirect effect of promotive voice on interpersonal avoidance through pride. In support of Hypothesis 3, the indirect effect was significant (–.02; 95% CI = −.031, −.007). Hypothesis 4 predicted a positive indirect effect of prohibitive voice on interpersonal avoidance through anxiety. In support of Hypothesis 4, the indirect effect was significant (.01; 95% CI = .003, .020). Hypothesis 5 predicted a negative association between interpersonal

[4] The zero-order correlations in our ESM are generally smaller in magnitude than the zero-order correlations in our experimental studies. One potential explanation for these differences is that our laboratory designs maximize the differences between conditions to ensure more variance (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000), whereas daily measurements in an ESM tend to exhibit comparatively more range restriction—which can attenuate the size of zero-order correlations (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990). Additionally, in our experiments, voicers rated their emotions immediately following the voice events. In the ESM, we included a time lag between the ratings of voice and voicers' emotions; this design choice reduces the potential for common method variance and provides evidence of temporal precedence. Consequently, there was a comparatively longer time lag between the voice event and when voicers rated their emotions. The zero-order magnitude differences between our studies are consistent with prior research, which has shown that laboratory studies tend to exhibit larger effect sizes compared to field research (for a meta-analysis of these differences, see Vanhove & Harms, 2015).

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities (Study 1)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
1. Promotive voice (midday)	2.52	0.66	(.97)									
2. Prohibitive voice (midday)	2.01	0.63	.43*	(.96)								
3. Pride (afternoon)	3.11	0.66	.19*	.10*	(.95)							
4. Anxiety (afternoon)	1.31	0.37	.01	.07*	.00	(.90)						
5. Interpersonal avoidance (afternoon)	1.62	0.53	–.07*	–.02	–.13*	.14*	(.95)					
6. Interpersonal citizenship (afternoon)	3.69	0.40	.07*	.01	.07*	.01	–.06*	(.91)				
7. Pride (previous day)	3.12	0.71	.04	.07*	.04	–.05	–.01	–.00	(.95)			
8. Anxiety (previous day)	1.32	0.39	.05	.05	.00	.00	–.02	.02	–.01	(.89)		
9. Interpersonal avoidance (previous day)	1.62	0.54	.02	.03	–.03	–.05	.01	.02	–.13*	.17*	(.94)	
10. Interpersonal citizenship (previous day)	3.67	0.43	.05*	.04	.03	.04	.01	.06	.08*	.02	–.05	(.92)

Notes: Level 1 n = 2,103. Level 2 n = 179. Coefficient alphas are presented along the diagonal.
* $p < .05$

TABLE 4
Effects of Daily Promotive Voice and Prohibitive Voice on Daily Voicer Pride and Anxiety (Study 1)

Variables	**Pride (γ)**	**Anxiety (γ)**	**Interpersonal Avoidance (γ)**	**Interpersonal Citizenship (γ)**
Intercept	.00	.00	.00	.00
Pride (previous day)	.01	–.03	.01	.00
Anxiety (previous day)	.00	–.00	–.02	–.00
Promotive voice	**.19***	–.02	–.03	.04*
Prohibitive voice	.05	**.05***	.00	–.02
Interpersonal avoidance (previous day)			.02	.02
Pride			**–.10***	.04*
Anxiety			**.20***	.00
Interpersonal citizenship (previous day)				.03
Interpersonal avoidance				**–.04***
Pseudo R^2 (%)	13.6	12.9	15.8	20.9

Notes: Level 1 n = 2,103. Level 2 n = 179. Coefficients for hypothesized paths are bolded.
* $p < .05$

avoidance and interpersonal citizenship behavior. We found support for this hypothesis ($\gamma = -.04$, $p = .01$). As depicted in Table 5, analyses indicated that both promotive voice and prohibitive voice had significant serial indirect effects on interpersonal citizenship behavior.

Supplemental analyses. We explored depletion as an alternative explanation using the 5-item measure from Johnson et al. (2014).[5] At the helpful suggestion of anonymous reviewers, we also explored the possibility that evening emotions predicted next-day voice. Including evening pride as a predictor of midday promotive voice and evening anxiety as a predictor of midday prohibitive voice did not alter the effect sizes or significance levels of our focal model paths.

Taken together, our findings suggest that speaking up can lead voicers to engage in both beneficial and detrimental social behavior. On days when participants engaged in more promotive voice than their average, they experienced higher levels of pride that reduced interpersonal avoidance that day. On days when employees engaged in more prohibitive voice than their average, they experienced higher levels of anxiety that increased interpersonal avoidance that day. Importantly for organizations, these effects on interpersonal avoidance subsequently influenced employees' daily interpersonal citizenship behavior.

[5] We also probed the extent to which our model was robust to changes in time by controlling for the day of the week and its potential fluctuation (i.e., sine and cosine [Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Beal & Weiss, 2003]). Adding these controls did not alter the significance levels or magnitude of the hypothesized parameters, which provides greater confidence that our model is robust to fluctuations that might occur across a work week. These ineffectual controls were not included in the final model.

TABLE 5
Indirect Effects of Promotive and Prohibitive Voice on Interpersonal Avoidance and Interpersonal Citizenship

	Coefficient	95% CI
Study 1:		
Promotive voice → Pride → Interpersonal avoidance	–.02	–.031, –.007
Prohibitive voice → Anxiety → Interpersonal avoidance	.01	.003, .020
Promotive voice → Pride → Interpersonal avoidance → Interpersonal citizenship	.001	.0001, .002
Prohibitive voice → Anxiety → Interpersonal avoidance → Interpersonal citizenship	–.0004	–.001, –.00003
Study 2:		
Promotive voice → Pride → Interpersonal avoidance	–.20	–.39, –.02
Prohibitive voice → Anxiety → Interpersonal avoidance	.29	.16, .46
Promotive voice → Pride → Interpersonal avoidance → Interpersonal citizenship	.05	.01, .13
Prohibitive voice → Anxiety → Interpersonal avoidance → Interpersonal citizenship	–.06	–.11, –.02

Note: Unstandardized indirect effects are reported with 95% confidence intervals.

Although Study 1 provides evidence of the daily impact of voice on voicers' affective reactions and social behavior within organizations, field methodology is unable to establish causality. Accordingly, we conducted a preregistered experiment to provide further support for our proposals in a controlled setting. This experiment also allowed us to test our hypothesized effects of positive voice reception on employees' affective reactions to voice.

STUDY 2

Sample and Procedure

Study 2 was an experimental study with preregistered hypotheses and methods.[6] The study lasted about 10 minutes and participants received $2 for their participation. We used the prescreening options available through Prolific to recruit a sample of 420 full-time employees in the United States who spoke English and had an approval rate of at least 99%. As noted in our preregistration materials, prior to data analysis we screened out participants who did not complete the study or did not pass an instructed response item (i.e., "For this question, please select 'Strongly agree'"; Meade & Craig, 2012). These criteria yielded a final sample of 358 participants. Participants were 43% female and, on average, were 35.03 years old (SD = 9.80) with 14.70 years of full-time work experience (SD = 10.35).

The study used a 2 (promotive voice, prohibitive voice) × 3 (positive voice reception, negative voice reception, no voice reception) design; we also included a baseline control condition that did not involve voice or voice reception. Participants were randomly assigned to one of these seven conditions and then provided with a managerial scenario that we adapted from previous experimental studies in the voice literature (Burris, 2012; Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014; Weiss & Morrison, 2019). The scenario involved a commuter airline facing organizational challenges such as overbooked flights, rude flight attendants, and customer complaints. Whereas prior research using this task has generally referenced a third-party speaking up about these issues, our adapted version placed participants in the voicer role. This design allowed us to manipulate promotive versus prohibitive voice and how voice was received by a supervisor (see full text in Appendix A). Following the voice and voice reception manipulations, participants completed the survey measures, manipulation checks, and demographic information.

Study 2 Manipulations and Measures

Voice manipulation. After describing participants' role as an employee and the challenges facing their organization, we manipulated promotive versus prohibitive voice. Participants in both conditions were instructed to put themselves "in the shoes" of the employee who spoke up to their supervisor. In the promotive voice condition, participants were told that they voiced a plan designed to improve the airline, such as suggesting innovative ways to reduce overbooking on flights and improve logistics. In the prohibitive voice condition, participants were first shown a plan that was developed by management. The manipulation then described the participants prohibitively speaking up about problems with the plan that might cause harm to the airline. Participants were then provided with a text box and asked to describe in detail what they were told that they said. We also included a baseline control condition in

[6] The preregistration link for Study 2 can be found at: https://aspredicted.org/blind.php?x=h49cr8.

which participants read the directions for the study and then rated their pride and anxiety.

Voice reception manipulation. Following the manipulation of promotive versus prohibitive voice, participants were informed how their voice was received by their supervisor. In the positive voice reception condition, participants were told that their comments were well-received by their supervisor. The manipulation then described their supervisor's positive reaction. In the negative voice reception condition, participants were told that their comments were not well-received by their supervisor. The manipulation then described their supervisor's negative reaction. In the no voice reception condition, participants were told that they did not receive any information about how their voice was received.

Pride and anxiety. Participants were asked to report their pride and anxiety after speaking up with the same 3-item measures used in Study 1 (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*; pride $\alpha = .93$, anxiety $\alpha = .96$).

Interpersonal avoidance. Participants rated their interpersonal avoidance after speaking up using the same 3-item measure used in Study 1. The lead-in was, "Based on how I felt after speaking up, I would be inclined to … " (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*; $\alpha = .97$).

Interpersonal citizenship behavior. After completing measures of pride, anxiety, and interpersonal avoidance, participants were presented with an opportunity to engage in interpersonal citizenship behavior toward a coworker. Specifically, participants were informed that a colleague had stopped them near the end of the workday to ask for assistance with an upcoming presentation. Participants were asked to indicate how many minutes they would be willing to spend helping their coworker, using scale anchors with 10-minute intervals (1 = *0 minutes* to 7 = *60 minutes*).

Study 2 Results

The descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations are shown in Table 6.

We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the scale measures (i.e., pride, anxiety, and interpersonal avoidance) in our experiment. Results from that CFA (χ^2 [24] = 46.10, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = 0.05; and SRMR = 0.03) suggest that our measures are distinct. As in Study 1, we conducted a series of Wald tests in which we constrained the relationships between each pair of our latent variables to unity to examine the discriminant validity of our constructs. The Wald test for each of those three alternative models was significant (all $p < .001$), indicating that our 3-factor model was the best fit to the data.

A manipulation check using Liang et al.'s (2012) 5-item measures of promotive and prohibitive voice revealed that promotive voice was significantly higher in the promotive voice condition ($M = 6.28$, $SD = .65$) than in the prohibitive voice condition ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.43$, $t[312] = 12.52$, $p < .001$). Similarly, prohibitive voice was significantly higher in the prohibitive voice condition ($M = 5.61$, $SD = .86$) than in the promotive voice condition ($M = 4.03$, $SD = 1.53$, $t[312] = 11.24$, $p < .001$). Using a 3-item manipulation check of positive voice reception, we found that positive voice reception was higher in the positive voice reception condition ($M = 6.36$, $SD = .94$) compared to the negative voice reception condition ($M = 1.28$, $SD = .80$, $t[200] = 41.43$, $p < .001$) and the no voice reception condition ($M = 4.26$, $SD = .96$, $t[207] = 15.90$, $p < .001$). Using a 3-item manipulation check of negative voice reception, we found that negative voice reception was higher in the negative voice reception condition ($M = 6.67$, $SD = .88$) compared to the positive voice reception condition ($M = 1.52$, $SD = .92$, $t[200] = 40.80$, $p < .001$) and the no voice reception condition ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.10$, $t[215] = 25.05$, $p < .001$).[7] These results suggest that our manipulations worked as intended.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that promotive voice would have a positive relationship with pride. Supporting Hypothesis 1, results of a MANOVA demonstrated that pride was significantly higher in the promotive voice, no reception condition ($M = 6.01$, $SD = .68$) than in the control condition ($M = 4.28$, $SD = 1.49$, $F[1, 99] = 59.76$, $p < .001$) or the prohibitive voice, no reception condition ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.22$, $F[1, 111] = 45.74$, $p < .001$). Hypothesis 2 predicted that prohibitive voice would have a positive relationship with anxiety. Supporting Hypothesis 2, results of a MANOVA demonstrated that anxiety was significantly higher in the prohibitive voice, no reception condition ($M = 4.83$, $SD = 1.53$) than in the control condition ($M =$

[7] The manipulation check items for positive voice reception were: "My ideas were favorably received by my manager," "What I said was well-received by my manager," and "My manager reacted positively to my comments." The manipulation check items for negative voice reception were: "My ideas were not favorably received by my manager," "What I said was not well-received by my manager," and "My manager reacted negatively to my comments."

TABLE 6
Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities (Study 2)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. Voice condition[a]	.51	.50							
2. Positive voice reception[b]	.46	.50	.03						
3. Negative voice reception[c]	.48	.50	.01	–					
4. Pride	4.92	1.69	.12*	.28*	–.48*	(.93)			
5. Anxiety	3.78	1.95	–.26*	–.31*	.33*	–.62*	(.96)		
6. Interpersonal avoidance	2.88	1.68	–.16*	–.14*	.48*	–.72*	.63*	(.97)	
7. Interpersonal citizenship	3.47	1.27	.01	.07	–.29*	.16*	–.09	–.21*	–

Notes: n = 358 unless noted otherwise. Scale reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal in parentheses.
[a] Promotive voice condition coded as "1" and prohibitive voice condition coded as "0" (n = 314).
[b] Positive voice reception condition coded as "1" and no voice reception condition coded as "0" (n = 209).
[c] Negative voice reception condition coded as "1" and no voice reception condition coded as "0" (n = 217).
* $p < .05$, two-tailed

2.80, SD = 1.64, $F[1, 99] = 40.59$, $p < .001$) or the promotive voice, no reception condition (M = 2.89, SD = 1.48, $F[1, 111] = 46.14$, $p < .001$).

As depicted in Table 5, we examined the indirect effects of voice on interpersonal avoidance through pride and anxiety with Model 4 in the SPSS PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) using bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples and 95% confidence intervals. Supporting Hypothesis 3, promotive voice had a negative indirect effect on interpersonal avoidance through pride (b = −.20, SE = .10, 95% CI [–.39, −.02]). Supporting Hypothesis 4, prohibitive voice had a positive indirect effect on interpersonal avoidance through anxiety (b = .29, SE = .08, 95% CI [.16, .46]). Using Model 6 in the SPSS PROCESS macro, we found a significant positive serial indirect effect of promotive voice on interpersonal citizenship behavior via pride and interpersonal avoidance (b = .05, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .13]), and a significant negative serial indirect effect of prohibitive voice on interpersonal citizenship behavior via anxiety and interpersonal avoidance (b = −.06, SE = .02, 95% CI [–.11, −.02]). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

To test Hypotheses 6 and 7, we considered the effect of voice reception on pride and anxiety with *post hoc* pairwise comparisons using the Šidák adjustment, which corrects for the familywise error rate associated with multiple comparisons (Keppel & Wickens, 2004; Šidák, 1967) (see Figures 2 and 3 for a visual depiction). When participants engaged in promotive voice, positive voice reception contributed to significantly higher levels of pride (M = 6.21, SD = .79) in comparison to negative voice reception (M = 3.42, SD = 1.84, $F[2, 159] = 86.89$, M_{diff} = 2.79, $p < .001$), but not in comparison to no voice reception (M = 6.01, SD = .68, M_{diff} = .20, p = .77). Negative voice reception contributed to significantly lower levels of pride than no voice reception (M_{diff} = −2.59, $p < .001$). Overall, these findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 6. When participants engaged in prohibitive voice, positive voice reception contributed to significantly lower levels of anxiety (M = 3.22, SD = 1.84) than negative voice reception (M = 5.12, SD = 1.71, $F[2, 153] = 17.69$, M_{diff} = −1.90, $p < .001$) and no voice reception (M = 4.83, SD = 1.54, M_{diff} = −1.61, $p < .001$). Negative voice reception did not contribute to significantly higher levels of anxiety than no voice reception (M_{diff} = .29, p = .76). In sum, these findings support Hypothesis 7.

Given that we did not hypothesize the cross paths in our model (promotive voice → anxiety; prohibitive voice → pride), we did not formally hypothesize how voice reception might influence those relationships.

FIGURE 2
Interactive Effect of Voice Reception on the Relationship Between Voice and Pride (Study 2)

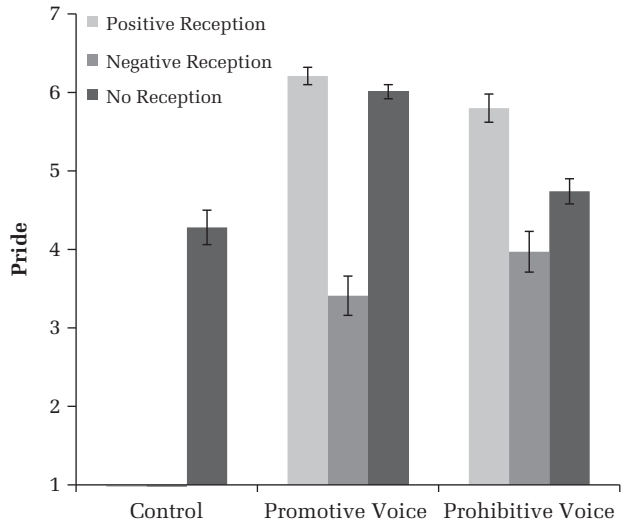
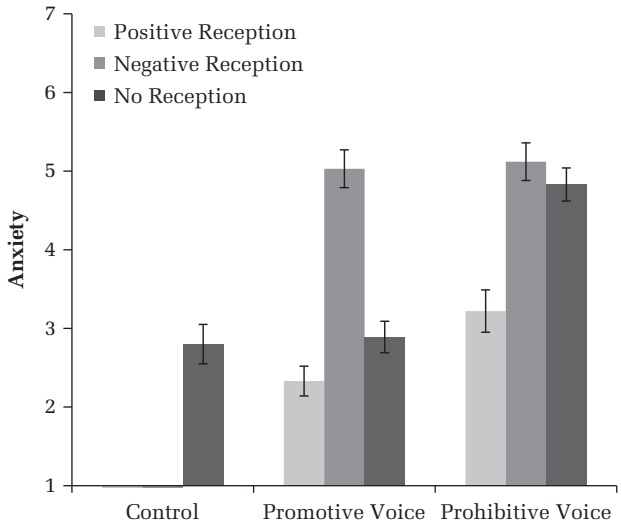


FIGURE 3
Interactive Effect of Voice Reception on the Relationship Between Voice and Anxiety (Study 2)



For robustness, however, we conducted an exploratory test of these relationships. When participants engaged in promotive voice, positive voice reception contributed to significantly lower levels of anxiety (M = 2.33, SD = 1.37) in comparison to negative voice reception (M = 5.03, SD = 1.73, F[2, 159] = 45.16, $M_{\text{diff}} = -2.69$, $p < .001$), but not in comparison to no voice reception (M = 2.89, SD = 1.48, $M_{\text{diff}} = -.56$, p = .17). Negative voice reception contributed to significantly higher levels of anxiety than no voice reception (M_{diff} = 2.13, $p < .001$). When participants engaged in prohibitive voice, positive voice reception contributed to significantly higher levels of pride (M = 5.80, SD = 1.19) than negative voice reception (M = 3.97, SD = 1.85, F[2, 153] = 19.16, M_{diff} = 1.82, $p < .001$) and no voice reception (M = 4.74, SD = 1.22, M_{diff} = 1.05, p = .001). Negative voice reception contributed to significantly lower levels of pride than no voice reception ($M_{\text{diff}} = -.77$ p = .02).

DISCUSSION

From the organization's perspective, the information communicated through employee voice is clearly beneficial (Detert et al., 2013; Lam & Mayer, 2014; Li et al., 2017; MacKenzie et al., 2011). From the voicer's perspective, the experience is decidedly more uncertain. Although scholars have suggested that voice has the potential for risks and rewards, the literature has provided an unclear picture of the affective and behavioral consequences for voicers. By considering the divergent appraisal processes associated with two distinct forms of voice, our findings shed light on the affective and social aftershocks of voicing. We found that promotive voice elicited pride, which reduced subsequent interpersonal avoidance, whereas prohibitive voice elicited anxiety, which increased subsequent interpersonal avoidance. Additionally, we found that interpersonal avoidance decreased interpersonal citizenship behavior—an outcome organizations highly value (Organ, 1988). Finally, we considered the critical role of voice reception in shaping these appraisal processes and associated social dynamics in both helpful and harmful ways. These findings have theoretical and practical implications that could not be extrapolated from the literature.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

Our manuscript makes several theoretical contributions. First, we delve into the inherently social nature of voice to reveal novel and potentially unexpected interpersonal effects of voice for voicers. Our theorizing identifies a critical, unresolved tension within the voice literature. The positive contributions that flow from voice suggest that it may lead to a sense of personal accomplishment, whereas the risky nature of voice suggests that it may lead to a sense of uncertainty. To address this tension, we built on cognitive-motivational-relational theory to construct a model of the unique affective processes associated with promotive versus prohibitive voice. Prior theory and empirics—largely built on broad retrospective assessments of the voice experience—had implied that both types of voice are a mixed affective experience for voicers, inducing both pride and anxiety. In contrast, we proposed and found that the two types of voice are generally associated with branching affective appraisals that terminate in distinct emotions. Subsequently, the distinct action tendencies of pride and anxiety led to diverging social consequences for promotive versus prohibitive voice. Taken together, our integration and extension of theory provides insight into how voice shapes subsequent social dynamics within the organization from the oft-overlooked perspective of the voicer.

Second, although promotive and prohibitive voice are both constructive in nature and have the potential to benefit organizations (Liang et al., 2012), our findings suggest that there can also be negative organizational consequences of speaking up. We found that engaging in one form of discretionary behavior

(i.e., prohibitive voice) can inhibit another discretionary behavior (i.e., interpersonal citizenship behavior)—a result that would be difficult to anticipate from existing scholarship. Voicers who engaged in higher levels of prohibitive voice on a given day tended to experience more anxiety throughout the rest of the workday. This anxiety led employees to withdraw from their coworkers in ways that inhibited them from engaging in interpersonal citizenship behavior later that day. Given the value of interpersonal citizenship behavior to organizations (Organ, 1988), it is important to consider how organizations can foster the expression of prohibitive voice—a necessary form of voice that helps avoid problems—without fostering a sense of anxiety that causes employees to withdraw from their coworkers.

Third, our research reveals how the social consequences of voice are influenced not only by the type of voice but also by the recipient. Specifically, voice reception shapes the voicer's affective appraisals in ways that ultimately guide their interpersonal citizenship. The literature has generally treated the affective appraisal process as an intraindividual progression from an event to an elicited emotion. According to cognitive-motivational-relational-theory, the appraisal process is akin to a decision tree that progresses from branch to branch to arrive at a discrete emotion. Our theoretical model proposes that voice reception is a relational lever that allows managers to influence the appraisal process as it unfolds. Specifically, our results indicate that the recipient can amplify or attenuate the dominant appraisal, and, in some instances, send the appraisal down a branching path that elicits the opposing emotion. Our theorizing and findings extend cognitive-motivational-relational theory by highlighting the importance of relational influences during the appraisal process.

Finally, our contributions are shaped by a methodological approach that captures the immediate, episodic impact of various types of voice on voicers' affect and subsequent social behavior. Our theoretical perspective involves appraisal processes and social behaviors that are temporary. Accordingly, conventional between-person approaches to voice, which rely on a static assessment of voice over a period of time, would be unlikely to detect our hypothesized dynamics. To more fully understand how voicers are affected by speaking up, it is essential to consider the affective and behavioral aftermath immediately following a voice event. Our within-person field study of employee–coworker dyads used an experience sampling methodology approach to capture voicers' affective and behavioral responses later that same day. Our preregistered experiment built on these findings by further considering the role of voice reception in shaping how voicers feel and behave following a specific voice event. Thus, our inquiry speaks directly to recent calls from voice scholars to consider the episodic, within-person nature of voice (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Liu, Song, Li, & Liao, 2017).

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Our findings have several practical implications. Whereas the literature has suggested that promotive voice has the potential to disrupt social relationships (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), we found that promotive voice helped to facilitate subsequent social interaction. Our research demonstrates additional organizational benefits of voice—in the form of interpersonal citizenship behavior. It appears that organizations benefit directly from the ideas communicated by voicers and indirectly via an increase in voicers' interpersonal citizenship behavior after speaking up. Given that presenting an idea often represents the first step on a long road to voice enactment (Satterstrom, Kerrissey, & DiBenigno, 2021), organizations should be encouraged by these more immediate benefits that stem from promotive voice.

Although it might be tempting to discourage prohibitive voice in order to reduce anxiety and interpersonal avoidance, doing so would reduce the communication of potentially critical problems or concerns. In some instances, the suppression of prohibitive voice has led to serious errors and disasters (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009; Milliken et al., 2003). Instead of restricting prohibitive voice, it is essential for organizations to consider other avenues—such as responding to voice in constructive ways—to address the anxiety associated with prohibitive voice.

Our findings highlight the critical role voice reception plays in shaping the appraisal processes associated with both promotive and prohibitive voice. It is notable that in the absence of information about how employee voice was received, those who spoke up promotively assumed that they had made a valuable contribution and felt pride. In contrast, those who spoke up prohibitively tended to "assume the worst" and felt anxiety. These results suggest that it is particularly important for managers to communicate a positively framed response to prohibitive voice. Promotive voice has varying degrees of quality (Brykman & Raver, 2021) and managers are unable, and

often unwilling, to implement every new idea (Fast et al., 2014; Sherf, Tangirala, & Venkataramani, 2019). Consequently, there are occasions when managers might need to "shoot down" voicers' ideas. Our results suggest that whereas negative reception converted promotive voice into a negative experience, both positive reception *and* no reception facilitated voicer pride. Both of those responses were more beneficial than negative reception and there was not a significant difference between the pride induced in the positive reception and no reception conditions. This finding suggests that managers interested in fostering pride may not have to "force" a positive reception to a poor-quality promotive idea. Although no reception to promotive voice did induce slightly more anxiety than positive reception did, our results suggest that managers primarily need to avoid a negative reception to promotive voice; they likely do not need to respond enthusiastically to every new idea for improvement.

Our findings also provide insights to employees who are hesitant to speak up. If employees were aware of the cumulative positive daily affective and social outcomes of promotive voice, they might be more likely to share their ideas and opinions. Employees often worry about "rocking the boat" (Grant, 2013) when challenging the status quo with promotive voice. Our findings provide some reassurance that promotive voice is generally a positive affective experience for voicers, particularly when positively received. Our findings related to prohibitive voice may also provide employees with insights that they can use when speaking up about problems. In some instances, employees may be able to frame their prohibitive voice more promotively (Chamberlin et al., 2017), such as focusing on the good in the situation (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). In other instances, voicers might look for ways to engage in prohibitive voice that are less anxiety-inducing. For example, an employee might be able to offset the anxiety associated with voicing a worrisome problem by packaging it with promotive ideas and solutions. In addition to benefitting the recipients, this reframing may transform the experience for voicers.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Our research has several strengths, including a multimethod approach that addresses causality and alternative explanations in the pilot study, separates measures across time and source in Study 1, assesses the change in mediators and dependent variables by controlling for the previous day in Study 1, and includes a preregistered experiment that probes boundary conditions and further demonstrates causality (Study 2). Nonetheless, our research has limitations that may prompt opportunities for future research. First, we focused on constructive voice in the form of promotive and prohibitive voice—a conceptualization introduced by Liang and colleagues (2012) and examined in a growing number of studies (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Huang, Xu, Huang, & Liu, 2018; Kakkar, Tangirala, Srivastava, & Kamdar, 2016; Li et al., 2017; Sessions et al., 2020). However, other forms of speaking up, such as supportive, defensive, and destructive voice (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014), might elicit distinct appraisal processes. Employees who engage in supportive voice by standing up for organizational policies may feel pride as they speak out in favor of the organization. Employees who engage in destructive voice by making derogatory comments about how work is structured may feel anxiety as they worry about their comments being poorly received. Similarly, employees who engage in defensive voice by arguing against change may worry that they will be seen as stubborn or insubordinate. We encourage future research to utilize the affective framework outlined in our theoretical model to examine how other types of voice impact voicers in the workplace.

Future research might also consider how the process of generating voice affects voicers. Our theoretical framework (cognitive-motivational-relational theory) is explicitly geared toward outlining the impact of events rather than the anticipation of those events or the processes that lead to events. Whereas our goal was to shed light on the affective and behavioral social consequences for voicers after speaking up, it would be interesting to consider potential consequences for voicers that occur before speaking up (Andrews & Borkovec, 1988; Bies, 2013). It is possible that the anticipation of voice generates patterns of affect that diverge from the patterns generated by the event. For example, when thinking about prohibitive voice, the potential risks may be overshadowed by the potential gains, thereby leading to a sense of anticipatory pride. When "the rubber hits the road" through the event itself, however, the risk may come to the forefront, leading to anxiety. A focus on the prevoice experience might also benefit from a consideration of hope—an emotion that is inherently connected to the anticipation of future events (Lazarus, 1991).

Finally, research is also needed to explore how discrete voice events affect employees' overall propensity to voice. An employee who speaks up with promotive voice on a particular day may experience

feelings of pride that generate a positive upward cycle and, over time, give the voicer greater confidence to speak up more often (e.g., Li & Tangirala, 2021). Similarly, an employee who speaks up with prohibitive voice may avoid coworkers in the short term, but then engage in self-correcting behavior. Future research might employ growth models or similar analytic techniques to examine the trends in voice over time and the potential overlap between avoidance and silence. This research may reveal that seemingly transient affective reactions to voice have a deep and lasting impact on voicers. Overall, a better understanding of these long-term effects could help organizations foster higher levels of voice.

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APPENDIX A

Study 2 Scenario

TravelAir is a small commuter airline that serves the Pacific Northwest, California, Nevada, and Arizona. TravelAir has served this market for the past 15 years. You have been an employee at TravelAir for about two years now, and work as part of a division with 65 employees overseeing 45 daily routes, primarily in California.

You took the position in your work group with the charge of increasing profits within a three-year period. Given your interest in moving up in the company, taking this position was a perfect opportunity to impress your superiors with your problem-solving skills. To date, things are working out just as you had planned. During the last two years, profits have grown and employee morale has improved. Your supervisors have recognized that you are a highly competent employee.

One thing you have recently noticed is that, within the past year, there have been increasing complaints among the customers in your area. The complaints center on two areas. First, the planes are overbooked during the morning and evening rush hours. Consequently, some passengers are "bumped" from the plane and have to wait for other planes with available seating. Second, some of the flight attendants have been described as rude. They often yell at customers to hurry up or find a seat. When you have confronted

the flight attendants about this, they simply tell you that they are instructing the passengers to sit down so that they can keep on schedule.

Promotive Voice Manipulation

Management at TravelAir would like to establish a plan to address these issues. You have "done your homework" on a potential plan you created and are confident your new ideas could help the company reach its goals.

During an important meeting with your manager and workgroup, you raise your hand to speak up. You have developed a plan to address these issues as part of your assessment of general operations in your area. You propose that the routes should be restructured in an innovative new way. A sizable number of the travelers are required to switch planes during their trip. You suggest that the company could increase efficiency by creating four new direct routes between popular destinations. By moving five planes from existing routes to serve the new direct flights, TravelAir could operate with one less plane while resolving all of the current complaints. The new routes you propose will better meet the demands of customers during the rush hours. Specifically, the plan should reduce overbooking during rush hours and make it easier for flight attendants to stay on schedule without "rushing" the customers. If implemented, you believe that your plan will lead to significant financial gains for TravelAir over the next three years. In sum, you spoke up with your new ideas and solutions to improve TravelAir.

Prohibitive Voice Manipulation

Management at TravelAir has developed a plan to address these issues. They have concluded that the routes and schedules should be restructured. A sizable number of the travelers are required to switch planes during their trip. They suggest that the company could increase efficiency by creating four new direct routes between popular destinations. By moving five planes from existing routes to serve the new direct flights, TravelAir could operate with one less plane while resolving all of the current complaints. They argue that the new proposed routes will better meet the demands of customers during the rush hours. If implemented, top executives believe that the changes will lead to significant financial gains for TravelAir over the next three years.

During an important meeting with your manager and work group, you raise your hand to speak up. You have done your own research related to this plan as part of your assessment of general operations in your area. You are very concerned that the new plan will not solve the two primary problems: overbooking and rude flight attendants. Although the new routes might make travel more convenient by reducing layovers and plane changes, they don't increase the number of passengers that can be carried each day. Consequently, travelers will continue to be bumped from their flights. Additionally, the new plan is troubling to you because it doesn't address the pressure on flight attendants to stay on schedule. Therefore, they will likely continue to be rude to customers. Taken together, you think management's plan ignores the root of the problem, which will result in significant financial losses for TravelAir over the next three years. In sum, you spoke up with your concerns about the plan, which you believe will harm TravelAir.

Positive Voice Reception Manipulation

In general during your time at the company, when you have spoken up you have found your manager to be supportive in some instances and less supportive in other instances. In this instance, your comments were well-received. Specifically, your manager reacted very positively to your comments after you spoke up. Your manager went on to thank you for your ideas and expressed great appreciation for your suggestion. In sum, when you spoke up your input was very positively received.

Negative Voice Reception Manipulation

In general during your time at the company, when you have spoken up you have found your manager to be supportive in some instances and less supportive in other instances. In this instance, your comments were NOT well-received. Specifically, your manager reacted very negatively to your comments after you spoke up. Your manager went on to criticize you for your ideas and expressed disapproval of your suggestion. In sum, when you spoke up your input was very negatively received.

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