# Amplifying Voice in Organizations

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# AMPLIFYING VOICE IN ORGANIZATIONS


## ABSTRACT

We extend the field's understanding of voice recognition by examining peer responses to voice. We investigate how employees can help peers get a status boost from voicing, while also raising their own status, by introducing the concept of *amplification*—public endorsement of another person's contribution, with attribution to that person. In two experiments and one field study, we find that amplification enhances status both for voicers and for those who amplify voice. Being amplified was equally beneficial for voicers who framed their ideas promotively (improvement-focused) and prohibitively (problem-focused; Study 1), and for men and women (Study 2). Furthermore, amplified ideas were rated as higher quality than nonamplified ideas. Amplification also helped amplifiers: participants reading experimentally manipulated meeting transcripts rated amplifiers as higher status than those who self-promoted, stayed quiet, or contributed additional ideas (Studies 1 and 2). Finally, in an intervention in a nonprofit organization, select employees trained to use amplification attained higher status in their work groups (Study 3). In all, these results increase our understanding of how social actors can capitalize on instances of voice to give a status boost to voicers who might otherwise be overlooked, and help organizations realize the potential of employees' diverse perspectives.


Keywords: Voice, status, recognition, amplification

Employee voice—speaking up to improve one's organization—has the potential to benefit both organizations (Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Detert & Trevino, 2010; Hirschman, 1970; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Morrison, 2011; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008, 2012) and voicers themselves (Burris, 2012; Burris, Detert, & Romney, 2013; Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert 2015; Weiss & Morrison, 2018). Formally, voice in organizations is "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues, with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (Morrison, 2011: 375). Employees who voice may, for example, receive better performance evaluations and be less likely to be laid off (Burris et al., 2013; Howell et al., 2015). Organizations that recognize employees' voiced contributions can take advantage of members' perspectives (Farh, Oh, Hollenbeck, Yu, Lee, & King, 2020; Morrison, 2011), foster innovation (Nijstad, Berger-Selman, & De Dreu, 2014), and increase competitive advantage (Royer, Waterhouse, Brown, & Festing, 2008), while also

benefiting employees themselves (Burris et al., 2013; Howell et al., 2015). Furthermore, research demonstrates that voice in groups can improve task performance, particularly in teams working together to complete complex tasks, such as production teams (Li, Liao, Tangirala, & Firth, 2017) and military teams (Farh et al., 2020).

However, organizations sometimes fail to recognize and reward employee voice—especially voice from employees who are low-status to begin with. Whereas employees who speak up sometimes experience the benefits mentioned above, managers may also reject their ideas as threatening (Burris, 2012; Isaakyan, Sherf, Tangirala, & Guenter, 2020), ignore them completely (Harlos, 2001; Satterstrom, Kerrissey, & DiBenigno, 2020), or give credit for the idea to someone else (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1989). These more negative outcomes may be especially likely to happen to employees belonging to low-status groups (Farh et al., 2020; Heilman & Haynes, 2005; Howell et al., 2015), whose lower status is thus further reinforced if they cannot access the potential status benefits of voicing (Azoulay, Stuart, & Wang, 2014). Employees who voice to point out problems with the status quo (a specific type of voice called *prohibitive voice*) also face difficulties, even when their contributions are valid and important (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). Given that voice can benefit both employees and organizations, researchers need to better understand how organizations can consistently recognize voice and access its positive potential.

Although prior research has identified this problem with voice, it has not yet clarified how organizations—and, especially, voicers' peers—can mitigate the problem. The existing literature on *recognition of voice* (e.g., Burris et al., 2013; Howell et al., 2015) has focused primarily on managers' recognition of subordinates' voice (Heidegren, 2004; Howell et al., 2015; Pata, Santos, & Burchert, 2015). Yet, group meetings are an integral part of organizational

life (Elsayed-Elkhouly, Lazarus, & Forsythe, 1997) and often provide the setting for voice (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; De Dreu & West, 2001; Satterstrom et al., 2020; Sherf, Sinha, Tangirala, & Awasty, 2018). By investigating the effect of peers' responses to their fellow group members' voice, the current work examines an important and largely overlooked aspect of the context in which much voice happens.

Specifically, we introduce and examine the peer behavior of *amplification*, drawing inspiration from prior research on positive and supportive behavior in organizations (e.g., Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Grant, 2007; Harvey & Kou, 2013; Lee & Farh, 2019; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). We define *amplification* as public endorsement of another person's contribution, with attribution to the original voicer. The endorsement could be explicit, such as praising the voicer's idea, or implicit, such as clarifying the idea or calling for it to be considered. For example, to amplify a fellow meeting participant's overlooked contribution, a colleague could say, "Didn't Bria's solution address this problem? Maybe we should consider her idea." Thus, amplifying voice is a type of positive recognition that ensures that the voiced contribution has been heard by the group and credited. In introducing the construct of amplification, we shed light on an organizational behavior that could mitigate or qualify effects the voice literature has previously identified, and we further propose that amplification demonstrates the understudied yet powerful effects of peer responses to voice.

We draw on the theories of status characteristics (J. C. Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972) and competitive altruism (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Willer, 2009) to understand why peer support via amplification could affect outcomes for both the voicer and the amplifier. According to status characteristics theory (as we detail further below), status hierarchies within a group are based partly on expectations about how much each person can contribute to the group—

expectations which are mutable and depend on group consensus (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). Furthermore, the social categories a person belongs to (e.g., gender) influence those expectations, even when the social categories are unrelated to actual expertise in the task at hand (J. C. Berger et al., 1972; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). Drawing on status characteristics theory, we examine how peer responses to a voiced contribution could affect group members' evaluation of voice, and hence could shift the group's expectations about the voicer's value and status. In addition, we examine how amplification could further affect the status hierarchy by changing the amplifier's status. According to competitive altruism theory, individuals can gain status within a group by behaving in ways that benefit the group (not only by behaving in overtly dominant or self-promoting ways). We expect that amplification may be the sort of self-evidently pro-group behavior that is likely to lead to status attainment according to this theory.

The current research makes several contributions to the voice literature. First, we advance theory on voice recognition by going beyond the traditional approach of examining managers' reaction to voice, and instead examine the effects of peers' responses to voice on both the ideas and the employees involved. In doing so, we offer new insights on how peers affect the way voiced contributions and voicers themselves are evaluated. Second, we contribute to both the voice and status literatures by suggesting that the voice process is not zero-sum. Employees may think that they gain social status only when they get attention for their own ideas, and that they lose out when peers' ideas are recognized. By examining conditions that facilitate status enhancement for both the voicer and responder following voice, we draw on competitive altruism theory (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Willer, 2009) to shed light on how people can leverage instances of voice to elevate their status without putting others down. Finally, we extend the voice literature by proposing a solution to the challenges posed by particularly difficult types

of voice. First, compared to promotive (i.e., improvement-focused) voice, prohibitive (i.e., problem-focused) voice is less likely to lead to positive performance evaluations (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2017) and to enhance voicers' status (McClean, Martin, Emich, & Woodruff, 2018). We also examine how amplification affects low-status voicers. For example, women, compared to men, may have a harder time getting their voices recognized (Farh et al., 2020). We use status characteristics theory (J. C. Berger et al., 1972) to generate and test competing hypotheses for the moderating effect of gender. Our work thus identifies the unexplored power of peers' reactions in mitigating these disadvantages, while increasing the likelihood that voice will achieve its functional purpose.

## THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Amplification is a novel concept describing a specific supportive behavior; it draws from related constructs in a growing literature on supportive communication and recognition. Recall that amplification is the behavior of publicly endorsing someone else's contribution while giving credit. Importantly, amplification is defined purely behaviorally, unlike related constructs that specify an underlying feeling or motive (cf. *acquiescent voice*, which involves feeling disengaged or resigned, Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003: 1373; *deference*, which involves yielding one's own opinion out of respect, Fragale, Sumanth, Tiedens, & Northcraft, 2012; and *supportive contributions*, which involve helping the group winnow its options, Harvey & Kou, 2013; Lee & Farh, 2019: 412). Furthermore, amplification of voice describes a more specific behavior than related constructs which leave out one or more of its essential elements (cf. *managerial endorsement,* which need not be public, and which also must come from a supervisor and not a peer, Burris, 2012; *supportive voice*, which supports the organizational status quo rather than a peer's contribution, Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014: 91-92; and *voice cultivation*, which

need not involve attribution to the original voicer and indeed applies even when a voicer has left the organization, Satterstrom et al., 2020). These differences are important. Anyone in a group can amplify a peer—and because amplification is by definition public, and does not require a particular underlying motivation, it is fully observable by other group members. Thus, amplification is a distinct construct.

Previous research on recognition of voice (e.g., Burris, 2012; Burris et al., 2013; Howell et al., 2015) has focused almost entirely on the employee-manager voice relationship, and specifically on managers' performance evaluations of voicers (as noted by Weiss & Morrison, 2018)—neglecting other parties and other types of reactions. For example, a large investigation of employee and manager perspectives on employees' voicing surveyed over seven thousand restaurant chain employees and over three hundred managers to test how employees' improvement-oriented voice suggestions were related to rewards from managers (e.g., better performance evaluations; Burris et al., 2013). This research, like other similar studies (e.g., Burris, 2012; Howell, et al., 2015; see Bashshur & Oc, 2014 for a review) provides important insights into how managers react to voicers, but its scope does not extend to examining the role of peer reactions. There is some research on peer reactions to voice (e.g., voice leads to status benefits for the voicer in some cases; McClean et al., 2018; Weiss & Morrison, 2018), but even this research has not examined peers' behavioral responses, such as expressions of support. Other work suggests, however, that such responses could be critical for understanding voice in organizations (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Satterstrom et al., 2020). Specifically, employees decide whether to voice or be silent based not only on their manager's responses to voice, but also on broad implicit voice theories about the risks of speaking up (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Some of these implicit voice theories focus on the relationship with the manager (e.g.,

concerns about embarrassing the manager in public), but respondents also expressed some other concerns about impression management more broadly (e.g., worries about how it would look to voice an idea without solid evidence), as well as some specifically about peer perceptions (e.g., worries that people who voice look like show-offs; Detert & Edmondson, 2011: 470). These findings suggest that peers' behaviors may play a role in the voice process. Our work thus answers recent calls to advance theory about why some voicers are overlooked or underappreciated (Morrison, 2014) by investigating a potential role for peers following voice.

**Status characteristics theory**

Status characteristic theory (SCT) provides a framework for understanding how peers can affect voice outcomes. According to SCT, group members form *performance expectations* of other members by assessing their socially significant attributes, or status characteristics (e.g., gender). Performance expectations are beliefs about someone's skills and abilities for completing a task (J. C. Berger et al., 1972). In turn, performance expectations affect the status hierarchy in the group (J. C. Berger et al., 1972; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006; Fişek, Berger, & Norman, 1991). For example, group members who possess a more valued state of a status characteristic (e.g., they are male) are expected to make better contributions, and as a result have an easier time breaking into the conversation and have more influence on the group than those who possess a different status characteristic state (e.g., they are female)—all because of others' initial performance expectations. Conversely, if a group member about whom others have low performance expectations (e.g., a woman) attempts to contribute by voicing, group members might ignore or dismiss her contribution (J. C. Berger et al., 1972).

Whether or not group members have shared, common performance expectations can impact the mutability of the status hierarchy among the group members. If group members share

a consensus about performance expectations (e.g., that male group members are more likely to make valuable contributions than female group members), the status hierarchy becomes clear and members behave in ways that perpetuate it (e.g., deferring if they are low-status; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986; Troyer & Younts, 1997). Often, however, performance expectations are not so widely shared or set in stone, leaving room for group members to influence each other's expectations and hence the status hierarchy. Prior work has shown that, as status characteristics develop, the status associated with different characteristic states can change depending on group members' behavior (Ridgeway & Correll, 2006; Ridgeway & Erickson, 2000; Troyer & Younts, 1997). Thus, for example, if a group member is beginning to believe that a particular group is high-status, but then that person sees someone they had stereotyped as high-status being challenged by others, this challenge may weaken the observer's stereotype of how the relevant characteristic relates to status (see Ridgeway & Correll, 2006; Ridgeway & Erickson, 2000). In one study (Ridgeway & Correll, 2006), participants listened to a conversation between two discussants, one of whom supposedly represented the "S2 personal response style" and the other of whom represented "Q2 personal response style" (in actuality, these were meaningless, arbitrary categories). When the "S2" discussant spoke more confidently and assertively than the "Q2" discussant, participants listening to the discussion rated S2 as a higher-status group with more leadership potential; however, this effect was weaker when an ostensibly neutral third party disagreed with the confident S2 representative. Thus, people look to others to understand the status-related stereotypes of different characteristics, and others' challenging behavior can reduce the performance expectations associated with a given group. Although this work deals with the initial development and formation of status-related stereotypes, it suggests that peers in a group could play a role in changing beliefs about status characteristics in general—and hence,

perhaps, the hierarchy within a given group in particular. Our research contributes to this literature by testing this possibility—i.e., whether peer behavior can affect a given group member's status within the group.

***Effects of amplification on voicers and their ideas.*** Our first hypothesis concerns how amplification affects evaluations of the voiced idea. Specifically, we predict that amplification will increase observers' perceptions of the quality of the voiced idea. One could imagine that amplification simply draws attention to the idea, making its quality more evident, and hence making perceptions of quality more precise but not necessarily more positive; however, we contend that there are compelling reasons to think amplifying will make the idea appear higher quality. Although people may amplify even without preferring an idea or feeling sure of its merits (e.g., bringing it up to ask clarifying questions or raise issues), amplification nonetheless suggests at least a weak endorsement (e.g., the idea must at least be worthy of consideration), and thus amplification may make the idea seem better to others. Knowing that a group member felt the idea was worth effort and attention could provide social proof of the idea's quality (Cialdini, 2001; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), winning over others who initially overlooked the idea. Peers do not react uniformly to voice, nor with complete certainty—creating space for their evaluations to improve if they see their peers responding positively. In short, we predict:

> *Hypothesis 1: Observers will rate amplified ideas as higher quality than non-amplified ideas.*

We then examine how responses to voice behavior affect *status attainment* in groups. By *status*, we mean the extent to which an individual is respected or admired by others or seen as prominent or influential (e.g., Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001; J.C. Berger et al., 1972; Fiske, 1993; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Although attaining status may not be the primary goal

motivating group members to voice (but see Wei, Zhang, & Chen, 2015), attaining and maintaining status in groups is a fundamental human motive (Anderson, Hildreth, & Howland, 2015), and having higher status predicts important employee outcomes such as morale (C. J. Berger & Cummings, 1979) and opportunity to advance (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), all of which makes status an important outcome to study.

Group members' status depends on how much respect and admiration other group members subjectively confer upon them (Blader & Chen, 2014), and people typically grant status to those who they believe are most likely to benefit the group (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; J.C. Berger et al., 1972; Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011). When groups correctly identify more valuable group members (e.g., those with relevant expertise) and confer status accordingly, they perform better (e.g., complete more work or operate more efficiently; Bunderson, 2003). Crucially, however, beliefs are based on imperfect guesses; it is often difficult to accurately identify an individual's value to the group, and judgments may be influenced by irrelevant factors (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Anderson & Willer, 2014; J. C. Berger et al., 1972; Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993; Tenney, Meikle, Hunsaker, Moore, & Anderson, 2019). People may ignore or dismiss a particular voice act if they believe the contributor does not resemble a prototypical good contributor, as reviewed above (i.e., status characteristics theory: J. C. Berger et al., 1972; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006), or if they find the voice threatening and hence feel defensive (Burris, 2012; Isaakyan et al., 2020; Seiber, Kramer, & Crant, 2001). If people's beliefs about the values of others' contributions are reinforced over time, this can reify the status hierarchy (J. C. Berger et al., 1972; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986); yet, at the same time, this same process is susceptible to influence from peers.

Because group members can use so many subjective considerations as they assess a given voicer's potential to contribute to the group, they may look to the responses of others who observed the voice. Peer responses could therefore influence, not only the perceived quality of the idea (see Hypothesis 1), but also the degree of status attainment that voicers experience from speaking up. Just as social factors generally have an important influence on people's beliefs about others' status within their groups (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Anderson & Willer, 2014; J. C. Berger et al., 1972; Driskell et al., 1993), amplification could be one such factor. By publicly endorsing a fellow employee's contribution via amplification, the amplifier signals that they believe the voicer has a good idea, worthy of influencing the group; and, hence, signals a conferral of status upon that voicer. Because status-related expectations are socially shaped and status rankings are consensual, other group members may look to the responder when determining the quality of the voicer's contribution, and, in turn, their status (Ridgeway & Correll, 2006). Thus, we predict:

> *Hypothesis 2: Being amplified by others increases a voicer's status within the group, compared to not being amplified by others.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of idea quality will mediate the relationship between amplification and a voicer's status within the group.*

***Effects of amplification on responders.*** Even if amplification benefits the person being amplified, people thinking of amplifying peers may face a dilemma. Opportunities to speak up in a group may come rarely (Báles, Strodtbeck, Mills, & Roseborough, 1951). If employees do decide to speak up, should they use their time in the spotlight to offer new ideas; should they promote their own previous ideas (Hartog, De Hoogh, & Belachak, in press; Helgesen & Goldsmith, 2018; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Sandberg & Scovell, 2013); or, instead, should they amplify and shine the light on others? Group members may perceive themselves to be in a zero-

sum status competition with fellow group members, leading at the extreme to behaviors such as destructive intrateam power struggles (Greer & Dannals, 2017). When they recognize that someone else has an opportunity to gain status, some individuals feel motivated to preserve their own position in the hierarchy, even at a cost to the group's interests (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Case & Maner, 2014; Groysberg, Polzer, & Elfenbein, 2011; Kilduff, Willer, & Anderson, 2016; Maner & Mead, 2010; Porath, Overbeck, & Pearson, 2008). This concern for their own position in the hierarchy may make some group members hesitate to draw attention to a peer's contributions. If these employees are right, and their peers' status gain is their own status loss, then we might expect to see amplifiers lose status when they call attention to a peer.

However, an alternative theoretical perspective, competitive altruism (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Willer, 2009), suggests that amplifiers may actually benefit from amplifying others: this perspective supports the general notion that people can rise to the top of group hierarchies by building others up, not just by putting others down (Cheng, Tracy, Fousham, Kingstone, & Henrich, 2013; Hurwitz & Kluger, 2017; Ridgeway, 1978, 1987; Willer, 2009). Research suggests that people value those who put the group's well-being above their own (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Willer, 2009), and confer more status upon those who are generous or who give more help than they request (Flynn, 2003; Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006). Therefore, we hypothesize that people can benefit from responding to voice in a prosocial and pro-group way, rather than only by winning a head-to-head, zero-sum competition for the chance to speak. Amplification should seem generous and group-oriented, because the person amplifying ostensibly puts the good of the group above their own interests by sacrificing an opportunity to draw the group's attention to their own ideas. Amplification should also seem helpful to the voicer, particularly when that person was previously dismissed or ignored. In turn,

we predict that this act of apparent prosociality, generosity, and helpfulness will increase the status of peers who respond to voice by amplifying.

We empirically compare amplification with three alternative behaviors a responder could choose to engage in following a peer's contribution. We argue that amplification is more unambiguously prosocial than these three alternative behaviors, and hence will lead to greater status attainment. First, the responder could choose *not* to respond—that is, to stay quiet. Under most circumstances, a group member who stays quiet will not be perceived as more group-oriented than they did a moment before, and perhaps less so (for failing to do anything to contribute to the group). Second, the responder could choose to promote one of their own ideas, instead of promoting someone else's. Although this behavior is an assertive act that would give their own idea a second hearing, it may not signal that they value the group's well-being over their own, and could signal self-interest (Scopelliti, Lowenstein, & Vosgerau, 2015). Third, the responder could choose to contribute another new idea. A group member who voices an idea can gain status (Weiss & Morrison, 2018), and employees who voice more often are evaluated more positively (Howell et al., 2015). Yet, particularly for a group member who has already contributed a good idea, the added benefit of contributing a second new idea may be low (see Tenney, Cleary, & Spellman, 2009). In contrast, amplifying a fellow group member is a different form of contributing to the group discussion, one that unambiguously directs the spotlight towards another group member. As the most clearly prosocial response, amplification should increase responders' status the most:

> *Hypothesis 4: Amplifying others increases the responder's status within the group more than staying quiet, self-promoting, and voicing a new idea of equal merit.*

***Amplifying voices the group may not hear.*** As we discussed above, prior research has focused on managers' responses to voice—but considering peers' responses can illuminate one important way that voice episodes could change status allocations in groups. Even voicers who have valid and high-quality contributions may be ignored and marginalized, whether because of the type of voice (e.g., prohibitive, pointing out problems; Liang, et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2019; McClean et al., 2018; Whiting et al., 2012), or because of voicers' broad status characteristics (e.g., female; J.C. Berger et al., 1972; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006; Farh et al., 2020; McClean et al., 2018). Such voicers may benefit less than their peers from speaking up—even though their contributions are equally valid and valuable—which in turn can perpetuate inequitable status assignments. By taking a broader view of the voice process that looks beyond voice itself and managers' immediate responses, we examine how peers' responses to voice can affect the way others perceive that voice, and, potentially, help voice be received more equitably. Across our studies, we therefore tested whether amplification helped those voicers and amplifiers who would be less likely to be recognized and valued.

First, we examined whether voice type moderated the effects of amplification. Employees can voice in different ways, including *promotive voice,* pointing out potential improvements in work processes and policies (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and *prohibitive voice*, pointing out current problems and negative outcomes to be prevented (Liang et al., 2012). Compared to promotive voice, prohibitive voice is more likely to be perceived as threatening and provoke backlash (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Liang, et al., 2012; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995)—even though prohibitive contributions are often just as important and valuable as promotive ones (Li et al., 2017). What happens, then, when a prohibitive contribution is amplified? On the one hand, perhaps amplifying prohibitive voice draws the group's attention to the criticism implied in

the contribution, and hence increases the group's defensiveness. If so, then the group is unlikely to accord greater status to either the voicer or the amplifier. On the other hand, perhaps amplifying prohibitive voice could lower the group's defensiveness and hostility by signaling that at least one person believes the group can benefit by considering the suggestion. Group members who can move beyond defensiveness to evaluate the merit of an idea may be more willing to grant status to those involved in the voice process. These opposing logical arguments lead us to formulate competing alternative hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 5a: Amplifying, compared to staying quiet, self-promoting, and voicing a new idea of equal merit, increases the voicer's and responder's status when the voicer uses promotive, but not prohibitive, voice.*
>
> *Hypothesis 5b: Amplifying, compared to staying quiet, self-promoting, and voicing a new idea of equal merit, increases the voicer's and responder's status, whether the voicer uses prohibitive voice or promotive voice.*

Second, we examined whether initial status moderated the effects of amplification. On the one hand, perhaps amplification would help marginalized group members less than nonmarginalized members, or not help them at all. Research on status characteristics has shown that marginalized or low-status people are often ignored (Ridgeway, 2011) or held to higher standards and criticized more harshly than higher-status people (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997; Brescoll, 2012; Lyness & Heilman, 2006). Therefore, it is possible that being amplified invites scrutiny and uncharitable responses, and hence provides no (or less) increase in status. On the other hand, a low-status voicer might benefit from amplification because the amplification could provide social proof that their ideas are worth considering in spite of their low-status characteristic state. Similar logic can lead to competing predictions for the amplifier as well, based on their gender: on the one hand, a marginalized member who amplifies a colleague may be seen as violating expectations regarding who has valid ideas, and hence may fail to influence

the group; or, on the other hand, a low-status amplifier might benefit from appearing to be group-oriented and a team player. Again, we propose competing alternative hypotheses to test the moderating effects of initial status on amplification:

> *Hypothesis 6a: Amplifying, compared to staying quiet, self-promoting, and voicing a new idea of equal merit, increases the voicer's [responder's] status more when the voicer [responder] is initially higher-status (e.g., male) than when that person is initially lower-status (e.g., female).*
>
> *Hypothesis 6b: Amplifying, compared to staying quiet, self-promoting, and voicing a new idea of equal merit, increases the voicer's [responder's] status whether the voicer [responder] is initially higher-status (e.g., male) or lower-status (e.g., female).*

**The Current Research**

We predict that peer responses to voice—specifically, amplification—can affect status attainment, both for the voicers being amplified and for those who amplify them. We test a potential mechanism by which amplifying a voicer may improve the voicer's status: by making the voiced idea seem better. Furthermore, we test whether the effects of amplification are robust to varying voice types and status characteristics. To investigate these hypotheses about amplification, we conducted three studies: two online experiments and a field study in an organization. We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions (if any), all manipulations, and all measures. All data, materials, code, pre-analysis plans, preregistrations, and supplemental analyses can be found on the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/v6abf/?view_only=85d0c284e3bf4ee5aefb5f06ea82a2bc).

## STUDY 1: AMPLIFICATION AND VOICE TYPE

We designed this experiment to examine whether the peer response of amplification makes the voiced idea seem better, whether it leads to status attainment for the voicer and the responder, and whether those benefits extend to voicers who use promotive and prohibitive forms of voice.

## Method

***Participants.*** We targeted $n$ = 200 working adults per cell and recruited 1197 participants from Prolific, excluding duplicate IP and/or worker IDs, who participated in exchange for $1.10. Of these, 1189 passed attention checks. We excluded 1 participant who did not write relevant or coherent responses to an open-ended question about study materials (including this person did not affect results). Our final sample size was 1188 (48.3% female, 0.8% nonbinary, 0.3% prefer not to say; mean age = 33.59, *SD* = 11.29; 73.4% white). Participants worked in a variety of industries, including sales, education, government, health, and entertainment, and 43% had at least one person directly reporting to them. About half (54.0%) had worked at their current job for 3 years or less, and most (72.1%) attended at least one meeting a week.

***Design and procedure.*** We used a 2 (voice type: promotive vs. prohibitive) x 3 (response: amplification vs. additional voice vs. staying quiet)[1] between-participants design. We asked participants to imagine that they were members of an insurance company's sales team, and informed them that sales performance had been poor lately (materials adapted from McClean et al., 2018) and that the team was meeting to discuss the performance decline.

Participants then read a transcript of a sales team meeting. The transcript began with an idea[2] from a team member (whom we refer to as *the responder* because of their opportunity to respond later, e.g. by amplification, to the voicer's contribution). Next, a different team member (*the voicer*) voiced an idea[3] about the team's sales protocol. The ideas were framed using

[1] This study does not include a self-promotion condition, which we include in Study 2.

[2] For generalizability, we pilot tested the perceived quality of nine ideas (exact wording for one idea was taken from McClean et al., 2018; see Supplemental Materials) and used ideas from this pilot test in Studies 1-2. We counterbalanced the promotive idea from McClean et al. and two other promotive ideas rated as similarly high quality. We also counterbalanced the prohibitive idea from McClean et al. and prohibitive counterparts to our other promotive ideas, following the style of McClean et al.'s prohibitive idea (McClean et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2012).

[3] We used one of the two remaining ideas within the same voice type as the first idea (e.g., if the responder voiced a promotive idea, the voicer also contributed a promotive idea) and counterbalanced the voiced ideas.

promotive or prohibitive language, depending on voice type condition. An example of *promotive voice* is:

> I think that we should streamline our documentation in order to give us more time to call and help customers going forward. My idea is to create one online system where we could enter all the relevant data about our sales calls and the customers so we can save time and spend more of our day meeting customers' needs. I think a new, streamlined system will help us all supercharge our work.

And an example of *prohibitive voice* is:

> I think that we should get rid of the ineffective documentation system because it has limited our time to call and help customers in the past. My concern is that this documentation system makes it much harder to quickly enter relevant data about our sales calls and is harming our ability to meet customers' needs. I think getting rid of the old documentation system will fix the harm done.

A third team member actively ignored the voiced idea, asking about lunch. In the *amplification* condition, the responder then responded by amplifying the voicer's idea—by using the voicer's name, reiterating the idea, and adding, "I think we should consider this idea." In the *additional voice* condition, the responder offered a third idea (another promotive or prohibitive idea, depending on condition; ideas were counterbalanced within condition). In the *staying quiet* condition, the responder said nothing in response. Then all participants read they had to leave the meeting due to a phone call. Participants answered a manipulation check question ("Did any of the team members (not including you) endorse another group member's idea (e.g., by restating it?)"; 93.6% passed) and then read a meeting synopsis before completing measures.

***Measures.***[4] We measured participants' perceptions of idea quality with six items as in Dooley & Fryxell (1999; e.g., "The idea makes sense based on this sales team's current

[4] We also measured perceptions of the responders' and voicers' communality and agency and analyzed the data using MANOVAs. The results did not meaningfully change when these measures were included. We report these results in the Supplemental Analyses.

situation"; $\alpha$s = .90), on a seven-point scale from 1 = *Definitely no* to 7 = *Definitely yes*. We measured each team member's status in the group using five items as in Weiss and Morrison (2018; respect, status, prestige, admiration, influence; $\alpha$s > .89), on five-point scales from 1 = *None/Not at all* to 5 = *A lot/Very*.[5]

Participants evaluated the voicer's idea, as well as the responder's idea (they did not rate the responder's second idea, which was presented only in the additional voice condition), and they rated the voicer, responder, and the third team member's status. By including measures of the responder's idea and the third group member's status, we were able to test whether the positive effects of amplification were due to an increase in positive feelings towards the entire group versus just those directly involved in amplification.

**Results**

Means, standard deviations, and correlations between study variables are in Table 1. Descriptive statistics by condition are in Table 2.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

***Perceptions of voiced idea.*** To test our first hypothesis, we performed a two-way ANOVA predicting evaluation of the voicer's idea with voice type, response, and their interaction. Supporting Hypothesis 1, there was a significant main effect of response, $F(2, 1182) = 8.78$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .015$: planned comparisons using Tukey's HSD indicated that the voicer's

[5] We conducted confirmatory factor analyses on the key measures in this study: evaluation of the voicer's idea, voicer status, and responder status. The three-factor model was a good fit ($\chi^2[206] = 8340.84$; SRMR = .054; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .18) and a better fit than alternative models in which voicer and responder status were collapsed onto a single factor, ($\chi^2[208] = 9503.70$; SRMR = .064; CFI = .82; RMSEA =.19; $\chi^2_{diff}[2] = 1162.90$, $p < .001$); evaluation of the voicer's idea and voicer status were collapsed onto a single factor, ($\chi^2[208] = 13373.79$; SRMR=.21; CFI = .80; RMSEA =.23; $\chi^2_{diff}[2] = 5032.90$, $p<.001$); and all items were collapsed onto a single latent factor ($\chi^2[209] = 1682.89$; SRMR = .24; CFI = .68; RMSEA = .26; $\chi^2_{diff}[3] = 8480.00$, $p<.001$).

idea was rated as higher quality in the amplification condition than in the additional voice or staying quiet conditions (*p*s < .012). Supporting the efficacy of amplification for making both prohibitive and promotive contributions appear higher quality, we did not find a significant main effect of promotive vs. prohibitive voice type, $F(1, 1182) = .63$, $p = .429$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$, or an interaction, $F(1, 1182) = .60$, $p = .324$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Amplification did not affect the perceived quality of the responder's initial idea, $F(2, 1182) = 1.06$, $p = .348$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, indicating that amplification had targeted effects rather than making all voiced ideas seem better.

[Insert Table 2 about here]

***Perceptions of voicer.*** We next focused on status perceptions of the *voicer* depending on whether their idea was amplified or not. Supporting Hypothesis 2, there was a significant main effect of response, $F(2, 1182) = 27.20$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .044$: planned comparisons using Tukey's HSD indicated the voicer's status was higher in the amplification than the additional voice and staying quiet conditions (*p*s < .001). Voicer status was also significantly higher in the promotive than the prohibitive condition, $F(1, 1182) = 4.66$, $p = .031$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. Supporting the efficacy of amplification for bolstering the status of both promotive and prohibitive voicers (Hypothesis 5b), the interaction of response and voice type was not significant, $F(2,1182) = .76$, $p = .466$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$.

***Perceived idea quality as a mediator.*** We used indirect effect tests based on 5,000 bootstrap samples to explore the perceived quality of the voicer's idea as a mediator of this effect on status—that is, whether voicers seemed higher status because their ideas seemed better. Supporting Hypothesis 3, the indirect effects of the evaluation of the voicer's idea on voicer status were significant when comparing amplification to both additional voice, $b = -.11$, $CI_{95\%} = [-.17, -.05]$, and staying quiet, $b = -.07$, $CI_{95\%} = [-.11, -.02]$.

***Perceptions of responder.*** We next focused on the status of the responder—that is, the person who either amplified the voicer's idea, or not. Supporting Hypothesis 4, there was a significant main effect of response on responder status, $F(2, 1182) = 13.65$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .023$: planned comparisons using Tukey's HSD indicated the responder's status was higher in the amplification than the additional voice and staying quiet conditions ($p$s < .001). Supporting the efficacy of amplification for making responders to both prohibitive and promotive contributions appear higher status (Hypothesis 5b), we did not find a significant main effect of promotive vs. prohibitive voice type, $F(1, 1182) = 2.33$, $p = .127$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, or an interaction, $F(2, 1182) = .31$, $p = .731$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$. Amplification did not affect the status of the third group member, $F(2, 1185) = .39$, $p = .677$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$, indicating that amplification had targeted effects, rather than raising the status of all group members.

**Discussion**

Study 1 provided initial support for our hypotheses: as we predicted, amplified ideas were perceived as higher quality (Hypothesis 1), voicers were perceived as higher status when a peer amplified their voice (Hypothesis 2), and the idea's perceived quality mediated the relationship between amplification and voicer status (Hypothesis 3). Also, as we predicted, responders—peers with an opportunity to respond to the voiced contribution—boosted their own status by amplifying rather than voicing an additional idea or staying quiet (Hypothesis 4). We did not find evidence that amplification improved the status of the group member who was uninvolved in amplification, or that amplification improved the perceived quality of a voiced idea that was not amplified (i.e., the responder's idea); thus, it seems unlikely that our results are due to a general increase in positive perceptions of the group. These results support our assertion that amplification is a behavior that can lead to status attainment for both parties involved.

Study 1 also established that amplification worked as predicted across different types of voice, including both more threatening prohibitive voice and more positive promotive voice, supporting Hypothesis 5b over the competing Hypothesis 5a. Although voicers were rated lower in terms of status when they used prohibitive voice (cf. Chamberlin et al., 2017; Liang, et al., 2012; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), they still benefited from being amplified, and responders benefited from amplifying both types of voice. These results support the efficacy of amplification across different types of voice, including voice that may be especially risky even as it offers value to the group.

## STUDY 2: EXPERIMENTALLY EXAMINING AMPLIFICATION AND GENDER

Study 2 was an online experiment testing whether amplification leads to status attainment for group members with varying status characteristics—here, gender. This study also pitted amplification against the two responses to a voiced contribution from Study 1 (staying quiet and voicing a new idea) and an additional response (self-promoting).

### Method

***Participants.*** We targeted 100 per cell and recruited 1610 participants from MTurk, excluding duplicate IP and/or worker IDs, who participated in exchange for $0.70. Of these, 1585 passed attention checks and a sound capability check, but 52 left the study before completing dependent measures. Per our preregistration, we excluded 32 participants who did not write relevant or coherent responses to an open-ended question about study materials. Our final sample size was 1501 (59.8% female; 0.5% nonbinary; mean age = 34.07, *SD* = 10.86; 73.4% white).

***Design and procedure.*** We used a 2 (voicer gender: female vs. male) x 2 (responder gender: female vs. male) x 4 (response: amplification vs. self-promotion vs. additional voice vs.

staying quiet) between-participants design. We introduced the study vignette as in Study 1. Unlike Study 1, we added background information about sales team members. To keep the team's overall gender composition consistent across conditions, we provided names of ten team members (always four female, three male, and three ambiguous). We also provided photographs and performance reviews of three team members who spoke during the meeting. Gender was operationalized via names, photographs, pronouns, and audio recorded voices.[6]

As in Study 1, the responder (who later responded to the voicer) spoke first and made a substantive voice contribution.[7] Next, the voicer also voiced an idea. Then, the third team member actively ignored the ideas and asked about lunch. Participants listened to an audio clip for each of these lines instead of reading a transcript.

Next came our response manipulation. In the amplification condition, the responder publicly endorsed the voicer's idea while giving the voicer credit (e.g., "Erica just suggested we create a new and improved script that will give us more flexibility to better meet the needs of customers and help us all perform better. I think we should consider this idea"). In the self-promotion condition, the responder publicly endorsed his or her own idea, via the same language as the amplification condition but replacing the voicer's name with "I." In the additional voice condition, the responder suggested a new idea. In the staying quiet condition, there was no fourth

[6] Depending on condition, we randomly presented one of twenty-four photos (twelve female and twelve male), one of twelve performance reviews (six for females and six for males), and one of six audio recordings (three female and three male) for the voicer and responder. Performance reviews were adapted from comments made by evaluators in Malmström, Johansson, and Wincent (2017). We used reviews of men in the Malmström et al. sample for performance reviews of our male team members, and reviews of women for our female team members, in order to reinforce our status manipulation using realistic, gendered materials. We counterbalanced the gender of the third team member, using one set of stimuli for a man and one set for a woman.

[7] We used the same three promotive ideas as in Study 1, counterbalanced in the vignette (the responder's first idea, the voicer's idea, and the responder's second idea in the additional voice condition).

audio clip. Finally, participants read a summary of the meeting and rated the three group members, as well as the quality of the responder's (first) idea and the voicer's idea.

***Measures.*** Status and idea quality scales were the same as Study 1 (all $\alpha$s > .87), and the manipulation check was similar (87.3% passed).

**Results**

We conducted a two-way ANOVA predicting the voicer's status using voicer gender (female vs. male), response (amplification, staying quiet, self-promotion, and additional voice), and their interaction. We used a similar model predicting the status of the responder.[8] Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables are in Table 3.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

***Perceptions of voiced idea.*** We tested whether amplification affected evaluation of the voicer's idea using a two-way ANOVA. As in Study 1, and in support of Hypothesis 1, there was a significant main effect of response, $F(3,1491) = 16.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .032$; planned comparisons using Tukey's HSD tests revealed the voicer's idea appeared higher quality when amplified compared to when responders stayed quiet, voiced a different idea, or promoted their own idea, all $p$s < .001. There was a significant effect of voicer gender on perceived idea quality, $F(1, 1491) = 5.94$, $p = .015$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$, such that ideas voiced by women were perceived as higher quality. The interaction of voicer gender and response was not significant, $F(3, 1491) = .42$, $p = .742$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$. Thus, amplification improved perceptions of voicers' ideas, and it did so for male and female voicers similarly, supporting Hypothesis 6b.

[8] We also analyzed the data from Study 2 using MANOVAs that included status and the additional measures of communality and agency for the responder and the voicer; results were consistent with those reported here. We report these results, along with expanded interaction models for these measures, in the Supplement.

Consistent with Study 1, we did not find strong evidence that amplification created a general increase in positivity. We found a marginally significant main effect of response on the responder's idea $F(3, 1495) = 2.57$, $p = .053$, $\eta_p^2 = .005$. Tukey's HSD tests revealed that the responder's idea was evaluated more positively in the amplification vs. self-promotion conditions, $p = .035$, but not vs. the other two ($p$s > .767).

***Perceptions of voicer.*** We examined whether amplification increased voicer status (Hypothesis 2) compared to not being amplified, and whether amplification benefited both male and female voicers (Hypotheses 6a & 6b). ANOVA results and descriptive statistics are in Table 4. As predicted, response affected voicer status, $F(3, 1493) = 80.00$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .141$, such that amplified voicers were rated higher than voicers in any other condition (Tukey HSD $p$s < .001). Ratings of voicers were consistent with gender stereotypes: male voicers had higher status than female voicers, $F(1, 1493) = 35.14$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .023$. The interaction between response and voicer gender was not significant, $F(3, 1493) = .37$, $p = .774$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Thus, amplification improved perceptions of voicer status, and it did so for male and female voicers similarly (Hypothesis 6b).

[Insert Table 4 about here]

***Perceived idea quality as a mediator.*** We used indirect effect tests based on 5,000 bootstrap samples to explore the perceived quality of the voicer's idea as a mediator of this effect on status. Supporting Hypothesis 3, the indirect effects of the evaluation of the voicer's idea on voicer status were significant when comparing amplification to self-promotion, $b = -.10$, $CI_{95\%} = [-.14, -.06]$, additional voice, $b = -.11$, $CI_{95\%} = [-.15, -.07]$, and staying quiet, $b = -.10$, $CI_{95\%} = [-.14, -.06]$.

***Perceptions of responder.*** We next examined whether amplifying others increased responders' status (Hypothesis 4), and whether male and female responders benefited similarly (Hypotheses 6a & 6b). As predicted, amplifying helped responders: response had a significant main effect, $F(3, 1493) = 52.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .096$, and responders who amplified were rated higher status than responders in any other condition (Tukey HSD $p$s $< .001$). Again confirming gender stereotypes, gender had a significant main effect, such that male responders were seen as higher status than female responders, $F(1, 1493) = 32.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .021$. The interaction between response and responder gender was not significant, $F(3, 1493) = .88$, $p = .454$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Thus, amplifying affected perceptions of responder status for both male and female responders, further supporting Hypothesis 6b. Consistent with Study 1, the status of the other group member was not affected by response, $F(3, 1497) = 1.49$, $p = .215$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$.

**Discussion**

In Study 2, we extended our previous results by contrasting amplification with an additional comparison condition (self-promoting), and by examining the effects of amplification on group members with low vs. high initial status (here, women vs. men). Consistent with our hypotheses and with Study 1, amplification led to status attainment for both voicers (Hypothesis 1) and responders (Hypothesis 4). In addition, this study demonstrated that men and women benefited equally from being amplified and from amplifying others (Hypothesis 6b). Thus, amplification appears to be a viable way for people to improve their standing in a group, even if they belong to a lower-status social category. Figures 1 and 2 show the consistent benefits of amplification for voicers and responders found in Studies 1 and 2.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

## STUDY 3: USING AMPLIFICATION IN WORK GROUPS

In our final study, we conducted an intervention in a real organization. We tested whether employees could be trained to use amplification with their work teams, and whether they would benefit from doing so. We also extended the findings of Study 2 by focusing on employees whose low status was not necessarily due to their gender. In a pre-/post- design, employees working in teams rated all of their team members before and after specific, initially low-status team members were trained to use amplification. Given our previous results, we expected amplification to help, even with naturalistic variation in voice type and employees' status characteristics.

### Method

***Setting.*** We implemented this study in a non-profit educational organization serving people with developmental disabilities. Each of the school's ten classrooms has a team of employees working together to help students, with team meetings at least once a week. Each team comprises 1-2 teachers and 4-6 para-educators, working together for an academic year, and sometimes behavior technicians who work in each classroom for several weeks.

***Participants.*** All employees were invited via email to participate in two surveys (pre- and post-intervention), in exchange for $5 per survey plus a chance to win a $50 gift card if they completed both. Seventy-seven employees (90% of current employees; 65% female; $M_{age} = 30$) completed the pre-intervention survey, and 75 (77% of current employees;[9] 69% female; $M_{age} = 29$) completed the post-intervention survey. Employees reported working together closely ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.70$, from 1 = *Not closely at all,* to 5 = *Very closely*).

[9] During the study, the organization experienced some turnover. Two employees took the survey at Time 1 then left the organization, and 6 new employees who were hired after Time 1 took the survey at Time 2. We ran analyses with and without these 8 employees and found no substantial differences. We report the analyses excluding no one.

The school director and other employees believed that not all staff members at the school had an equal chance to be heard. However, in the feminine-gendered environment of a school, female employees were unlikely to be at a status disadvantage (Howell et al., 2015; Ridgeway, 2011). Thus, we took advantage of the director's knowledge of the idiosyncratic status hierarchy within this particular organization (cf. Howell et al., 2015). The director (who was not involved in designing or analyzing the study) identified 26 employees, spread across classrooms, who, in her view, lacked due influence on fellow employees. These employees had been at the organization for an average of 5 months (vs. 1 year on average for unselected employees), and most held low-status positions in the organization (i.e., para-educator or behavior technician).[10] In a meeting we held for these employees, we provided an overview of amplification, and we invited them to participate in training to use amplification in exchange for an additional $30. Twenty-two employees (85%) agreed to participate as amplifiers (59% female; $M_{age}$ = 28; 20 para-educators, one teacher, and one behavior technician; eight classrooms had two amplifiers, and two classrooms had three). Other employees at the organization were not informed that any training was going on, and we asked the amplifiers not to talk with other employees about the training; however, we have no data to speak directly to these requests. All of the amplifiers completed the pre-intervention survey, and 19 (86%) completed post-intervention surveys. No amplifiers left the organization during the study.[11]

***Amplification training procedure.*** We trained amplifiers using an interactive, 17-minute online training. Amplifiers read, "'Amplification' is repeating or calling attention to the

[10] The selected employees were similar to other participants in age, gender, race, and ethnicity.

[11] Average classroom team size in our sample was 8.5 people (min = 7, max = 10). Adding team size as a control did not change the results. See Supplemental Analyses.

contributions of another group member while giving credit to the original speaker," and then they defined amplification in their own words to solidify the idea (Wittrock, 1990). They also reported how willing they were to use the technique, and how difficult and satisfying they expected it to be. Next, they watched a video recording of actors in a fictional meeting. The video was divided into five short clips ($M$ = 48s), each with 1-2 instances of amplification. To make this part of the training interactive, we asked amplifiers to view the clips a second time and identify instances of amplification in each clip, and then compare their answers to our answer key (e.g., "In this clip, Maggie amplifies Alex by repeating his idea to hire an additional employee. She begins by explicitly stating that Alex had previously suggested the idea and gestures toward him several times to make sure he gets credit for the idea"). Finally, participants viewed two more short video examples of amplification occurring in a different fictional meeting, with a description of amplification, and some tips for using amplification.

***Study procedure***. We emailed pre-intervention surveys to all employees at the same time as we sent the amplification training to amplifiers. We described the pre-intervention survey as data collection to assess group processes and work culture. The pre-intervention survey included questions about each team member's status in the team and tangential questions.[12] We gave employees two weeks to complete the survey. Then the school was closed for one week; next, the amplification period comprised the two weeks after employees returned to work. Every work day during the amplification period, we emailed amplifiers a reminder to amplify, and a survey inviting them to recount instances of amplification from the day before.[13] Finally, after the

[12] To save space, we report these in the Supplement. Ten items at the group level were about perceptions of overall group climate and five items were about perceptions of individuals. We did not measure frequency of voice, but in hindsight it would have been interesting to do so.

[13] Amplifiers completed a total of 69 daily surveys, with no financial incentive (31% response rate; 16 amplifiers completed one or more; $M$ = 4.3 surveys) over the two weeks of the intervention. We asked how frequently they

amplification period (five weeks after receiving the first survey), we invited all employees to complete post-intervention ratings of the same items as in pre-intervention surveys. We asked amplifiers to complete an additional survey about their experiences with amplification (see Supplement). Employees had one week to complete post-intervention surveys.

***Measures.*** Respondents rated the status of each other employee on their team using two items adapted from Kilduff and Galinsky (2013): "How much influence does each person have during team meetings?" (1 = *None*, 5 = *A lot*); "How would you characterize the level of respect you have for each of the following people?" (1 = *Very low,* 5 = *Very high;* Spearman-Brown $r$ = .74).

We used two items at the group level as a manipulation check that the amplification group had actually implemented the technique. These were, "How much do people [in this group] **promote** each other's ideas," and "How much do people **support** each other's ideas," (bold in original), from 1 = *Not at all* to 5 = *A lot* (Spearman-Brown $r$ = .86).

**Results**

Because individuals provided multiple data points and were nested within teams, we performed a mixed model analysis in R (lme4 and lmerTest packages; Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015; Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen, 2017), using a fixed effect for amplification and random intercepts for individuals nested within teams. We calculated adjusted intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) using the sjstats package (Lüdecke, 2019). To ensure that results were not due only to amplifiers rating fellow amplifiers more highly, we performed analyses including only ratings from employees who did not receive training; all results were the

amplified and were amplified, and how it felt to amplify and be amplified. Participants reported amplifying 1.19 times per day and being amplified 0.76 times per day on average. We report additional results in the Supplement.

same when we included ratings from amplifiers (see Supplement). Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables are in Table 5. Regression results are in Table 6.

[Insert Table 5 about here]

[Insert Table 6 about here]

***Manipulation check.*** Supporting the success of our intervention in training amplification, group members who had not been part of the training believed that there was more amplification in the group after the intervention ($M$ = 3.94, $SD$ = .78) than before ($M$ = 3.67, $SD$ = .89), $b$ = .25, $t(49.65) = 2.39$, $p = .021$.

***Main analyses.*** Consistent with Hypothesis 4, employees in the amplification group were rated as having higher status post-intervention ($M$ = 4.09, $SD$ = .80) than pre-intervention ($M$ = 3.78, $SD$ = 1.00), $b$ = .37, $t(880.86) = 3.38$, $p < .001$. This was a larger increase than for employees outside the amplification group, who did not experience a significant change in status during the same time period ($M_{pre}$ = 3.89, $SD_{pre}$ = .99; $M_{post}$ = 3.92, $SD_{post}$ = 1.02), $b$ = .09, $t(904.43) = 1.27$, $p = .204$; interaction $b$ = .28, $t(856.07) = -2.28$, $p = .023$, $ICC_{adj} = .32$; see Figure 3.

[Insert Figure 3 about here]

**Discussion**

In Study 3, we succeeded in training and encouraging low-status employees to amplify each other in their work teams via a brief program; subsequently, their group members perceived more amplification behavior in their groups, and, over the same period, these employees' status increased. In contrast, employees who were not trained to use amplification experienced no change in status. Thus, employees can be trained to use amplification, and they can reap benefits in their real organizational work teams.

This study has three limitations worth noting. First, we used a pre/post design, comparing post-intervention ratings of the employees with baseline ratings. With this design, we cannot rule out the possibility that ratings changed due to events between the two administrations of the survey, independent of our intervention. However, to provide an alternative explanation for our status results, such events would have had to selectively affect the status of the amplifiers, but not the other employees. A second limitation is that we were able to select which employees amplified others, but not which voicers got amplified. Hence, some of the amplification group's increase in status likely occurred because they were more likely to be amplified by each other, although this too would be consistent with our theory and hypotheses. Third, participants were not randomly assigned to be in the amplification group, but were selected by the manager. In spite of these limitations, our study tests a realistic way in which managers might use amplification: to intervene specifically to increase the influence of employees they believe are not currently being heard enough. This study suggests that using amplification should help increase the status of such individuals, even in longstanding work teams.

## GENERAL DISCUSSION

Previous research has examined supervisors' recognition of voice, while focusing less on the role of peers' responses to voice. In this research, drawing on theories of status characteristics (J. C. Berger, et al., 1972) and competitive altruism (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Willer, 2009), we investigated how peers' behavioral responses affected voicers' and peers' status in the group. We experimentally compared amplifying others to not speaking up, voicing an additional idea, and the often-recommended strategy of promoting one's own ideas, and our three multi-method studies together supported our theoretical predictions. When a peer amplified a voiced idea, the idea was perceived as higher in quality, and the voicer and responder attained

higher status. The increase in perceived idea quality mediated the effect of amplification on the voicer's status. We tested the effects of amplification under both favorable and unfavorable conditions for voice being heard: Whether the voice was promotive or prohibitive, or the status of the voicer or amplifier was high or low, peers who amplified increased voicers' status while giving themselves a boost. These findings offer important implications for research on recognition and voice in organizations.

**Theoretical Contributions**

With these findings, we make three key contributions to the literature on voice in organizations. First, whereas most prior work on voice recognition has focused on supervisors' evaluative recall of employees' long-term voice patterns, we demonstrate how peer recognition of voice in group settings can affect important outcomes—specifically, idea evaluation and status allocation. Recent research shows that when employees voice in a group, managers may experience a threat to their self-image of being a capable leader, and as a result they may be unwilling to endorse the voiced idea (Isaakyan et al., 2020). However, our work shows that peers can step in (e.g., using amplification) to reshape how voiced ideas and voicers are perceived. Perhaps peers could make the idea seem too good to ignore, or lend legitimacy to the voicer, which could help the group recognize and act on voiced ideas. Thus, by conceptualizing voice as a process that unfolds in the broader context of a meeting or organization, rather than a dyadic exchange between voicer and manager, we show how additional actors—here, peers—can influence its outcomes.

Second, our findings contribute to the voice literature by showing how employees' gains from episodes of voice in a group are not necessarily zero-sum. In other words, one group member's high-quality voiced contribution is not necessarily a loss for other group members; in

fact, it presents an opportunity for others to gain status through other routes. Group members gain status by demonstrating their value to the group (Bendersky & Pai, 2018; Cheng et al., 2013; Maner, 2017), but contributing viable solutions to problems is only one way of demonstrating value. Valuable group members are those with skills, competence, or knowledge, but also those who are willing to put the well-being of the group above their own interests (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006). Strikingly, we find that people confer even more status on those who respond to voice by amplifying, than to those who respond by speaking up with a further contribution of their own—which should be a clear high-status behavior (e.g. Weiss & Morrison, 2018). Thus, people evidently believe that both making one's own contributions and recognizing others' contributions are valid ways of providing value to the group and hence gaining status. This finding highlights that each employee can demonstrate prestige (Cheng et al., 2013) in multiple ways, and hence that a single interaction can increase the status of multiple employees for different reasons. Whereas prior work linking voice and status has focused on the status outcomes for the voicer (Weiss & Morrison, 2018), our work extends the field's understanding of voice as a potential opportunity for status attainment for multiple parties.

Third, our work contributes to research on voice and status by demonstrating how amplification leads to status attainment across situations in which voice, and voicers themselves, are relatively more or less likely to be recognized on their own. We found that peer amplification could be beneficial for both voicers and amplifiers even when the voicer used prohibitive voice or was a low-status group member. These findings are particularly important as we consider how supportive peer voice could be used to help marginalized or underrepresented groups gain influence in workplaces. Facing negative stereotypes, these individuals may find it too risky to self-promote in ways that could make them seem too self-interested or dominant (Ridgeway,

1978; Rudman, 1998). Amplification may therefore provide a promising avenue toward enhancing fairness and inclusion in diverse groups, and our work suggests that low-status group members attain status not only from being amplified but also from amplifying others.

**Practical Implications**

These findings have practical implications for managers and organizations striving to maximize the potential of their human resources: specifically, teaching employees to amplify peers may help employees attain status, with no apparent cost to amplifiers. In particular, low-status group members, and others with valuable but overlooked contributions, may be able to use amplification to increase their status—especially, perhaps, when they amplify each other, thus reaping the status benefits of both amplifying and being amplified. Furthermore, if a low-status voicer is amplified by a high-status peer, even if the amplifier attains higher status, the voicer may both attain higher status *and* have their idea be evaluated more positively and perhaps become more likely to be adopted by the group (Lee & Farh, 2019; Satterstrom et al., 2020). Managers leading groups with harmful or unjust status disparities can train employees to amplify those with low status, and we would expect status allocation to become more equitable as a result. Our findings can also provide reassurance to individual employees facing a choice between asserting their own perspectives and amplifying their colleagues': they can amplify their peers without lowering their own standing in the group. Perhaps, if more organizations or employees adopt amplification as a practice, more voices can be heard as a result.

**Limitations and Future Directions**

Each of our studies has limitations worth noting. First, Studies 1 and 2 use experimental vignette methods. Studies using such methods allow researchers to manipulate multiple variables in a controlled setting, thus creating high internal validity (Singleton & Straits, 2010);

furthermore, we tried to enhance realism by using images and audio recordings (Study 2), and we used current best practices in quantitative management research, such as posting data and materials and pre-registering analysis plans (Banks et al., 2019; Nosek, Alter, Banks, Borsboom, Bowman, & Breckler, 2015; Tenney, Costa, Allard, & Vazire, 2021). Even so, vignette studies have inherent limitations (Campbell & Stanley, 2015; Levitt & List, 2007). Because these studies lack some of the information present in real-world settings, participants must rely entirely on information provided by researchers, which can alter effect sizes compared to those that would occur in natural settings and compromise external validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). In view of these issues, we complemented our two vignette studies with a field intervention (Study 3), but this study too had limitations. For example, we allowed the manager to select employees to receive the training and could not control who the trained employees amplified. Furthermore, the sample for Study 3 consisted of employees at a single, small organization; thus, future studies that examine amplification with larger samples could further validate the results reported here. Despite these limitations, we believe that our multi-method set of studies, taken together, provide a solid base from which future research can build.

Our research presents several intriguing questions for future research. One question meriting future study concerns the circumstances under which amplification and other supportive peer responses to voice have stronger versus weaker effects on perceived idea quality and status. Although the effects of amplification were robust in our studies' settings, including both promotive and prohibitive voice (Study 1) and pre-existing status differences (Studies 2 and 3), we can imagine situations in which it might not work as well, and we suggest that future research should further explore context variables that could moderate the effects of recognizing peers' voice. For example, although we found that amplification increases the perceived quality of an

idea, perhaps if the amplified idea was the only one under consideration—rather than being one of several ideas, as in our studies—amplification would not make as much of a difference to perceived idea quality, with no comparison available (Bazerman, Moore, Tenbrunsel, Wade-Benzoni, and Blount, 1999; Hsee, Loewenstein, Blount, & Bazerman, 1999). Or, turning to its effects on status, perhaps amplification could fail or even backfire in a group with strong faultlines (Lau & Murnighan, 1998) or a history of competition between subgroups. In such a situation, intra-subgroup amplification could perhaps increase animosity from the opposing subgroup because it would seem competitive on behalf of the subgroup (not communal or group-oriented). In short, our studies demonstrate robust benefits of amplification, but they also suggest rich possibilities for future study of this behavior and related forms of voice recognition.

A second direction for future research would be to further explore the durability of our status attainment effects over time as a group continues to work together and implement (or not) voiced ideas. Relevant recent work (Satterstrom et al., 2020) highlights the impact of peer behavior in group discussion and decision-making, in ways that complement our studies here. In an ethnographic study of a multi-disciplinary team, managers sometimes rejected team members' ideas. However, when peers repeated the ideas in future interactions, they increased the chance that managers would eventually implement the idea (Satterstrom et al., 2020). This work demonstrates how peer behavior can affect the fate of a voiced idea, but, unlike our work, it does not focus on voicers' and peers' status attainment as an outcome of peer endorsement. Furthermore, this study suggests that there is room for improvement in giving due credit to voicers: the original voicers in the team sometimes failed to receive credit, and were often forgotten as the original contributors by the time their ideas were revisited. In light of this finding—as well as prior findings that low-status or marginalized group members are more likely

to have their contributions misattributed to higher-status members (Heilman & Haynes, 2005)—it is especially important to understand not only which ideas rise to the top, but also which contributors attain status through their contributions. Thus, future work could look at a longer time frame to test whether explicitly attributing credit to the original voicer (amplification) leads to greater voicer recognition and status over the longer term than merely repeating the idea without giving credit.

A third potentially fruitful future direction would be to examine consequences of peer responses to voice at the level of the team or organization. We focused the current investigation on the individual consequences for the voicer and responder. However, organizations as a whole likely stand to benefit from supportive peer responses, such as amplification, as well. Most obviously, peer responses could affect a group's performance and decision quality. For example, if an idea is truly bad, what are the short- and long-term consequences of amplifying it and thus drawing further attention to it? Perhaps amplification will distort the meritocratic adoption of ideas and allocation of status, causing groups to adopt suboptimal ideas or confer status to members who are not the most able to help the group, thereby leading to poor group performance. Or perhaps amplification actually makes groups more meritocratic, by subjecting ideas and contributors to even more scrutiny and evaluation, and thus overcoming the influence of irrelevant broad status characteristics that could bias expectations about a contributor's ability (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). Beyond performance, amplification could also affect other group-level outcomes, such as employees' willingness to voice in the future (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Sherf et al., 2021) and their psychological safety (Edmondson, 2003). Future research could explore these and other possibilities.

Finally, one of our unpredicted, exploratory findings may raise interesting questions

about status and gender—specifically, how perceived idea quality and status are related for male versus female contributors. In Study 2, we found that observers rated men as higher status, but they rated a given idea as higher quality when that idea came from a woman. Yet, at the same time, perceived idea quality was (as we would expect) positively related to status. We urge caution in interpreting this unpredicted set of findings, but, if it reflects a real pattern, it suggests that perceived idea quality may have different relationships to status for men compared to women. Perhaps, for example, women's ideas benefited from a contrast with stereotypes, such that people saw the ideas as surprisingly good given that they came from women, but people also did not grant women an overall more favorable perception of ability (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997). This and other intriguing possibilities could merit replication and further study.

## CONCLUSION

In theory, when employees voice suggestions for organizational improvement, they should not only contribute to organizational success but also gain status. In practice, however, voicers can go unrecognized and underutilized. Previous research has largely looked to voicer-supervisor relationships to explain and rectify this issue. Our research demonstrates that peers may be an overlooked resource: voicers attain higher status when a peer amplifies their voice. Furthermore, our mediation results suggest that this happens because voicers' contributions are perceived to be higher quality when the contributions are amplified. Importantly, amplifiers benefit as well, attaining higher status than if they stayed quiet, promoted their own ideas, or even suggested new ideas. These results are the first to show that peers can respond to a group member's voice in ways that positively affect both their own social outcomes and those of the voicer, thus demonstrating how voice can pave the way for non-zero-sum gains. By

demonstrating how peer responses can shape the way voice affects status in groups, our findings extend the voice literature and demonstrate the promise of amplification.

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**TABLE 1 Study 1: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics**

| | Variable | Mean | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | Voicer Idea Evaluation[a] | 5.73 | 1.01 | (.92) | | | | | | |
| **2** | Responder Idea Evaluation[a] | 5.66 | .98 | .59*** | (.91) | | | | | |
| **3** | Voicer Status[b] | 3.65 | .77 | .46*** | .37*** | (.92) | | | | |
| **4** | Responder Status[b] | 3.77 | .74 | .41*** | .47*** | .70*** | (.90) | | | |
| **5** | Other's Status[b] | 1.92 | .77 | -.21*** | -.16*** | -.14*** | -.14*** | (.92) | | |
| **6** | Voice Type[c] | .49 | .50 | .02 | .05 | .04* | .04 | -.02 | — | |
| **7** | Response 1[d] | .34 | .47 | .12*** | .01 | .20*** | .15*** | < .01 | < .01 | — |
| **8** | Response 2[e] | .34 | .47 | -.09** | -.04 | -.16*** | -.06* | -.02 | -.02 | -.51*** |

*Notes*: $N = 1188$. $\alpha$ reliabilities appear along the diagonal.

[a] Scale was 1-7

[b] Scale was 1-5

[c] 0 = Prohibitive voice; 1 = Promotive voice

[d] Response 1 was dummy coded: 0 = Stays Quiet, Additional Voice; 1 = Amplification
[e] Response 2 was dummy coded: 0 = Stays Quiet, Amplification; 1 = Additional Voice
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

**TABLE 2 Study 1: Amplification and Voice Type**

| | Perceptions by Voice Type | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Promotive (*n* = 588) | | Prohibitive (*n* = 600) | |
| **Variable** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | 5.75[a] | 1.05 | 5.70[a] | .98 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | 5.71[a] | .98 | 5.62[a] | .98 |
| Voicer Status | 3.70[a] | .80 | 3.60[b] | .74 |
| Responder Status | 3.80[a] | .75 | 3.74[a] | .72 |
| Other's Status | 1.90[a] | .76 | 1.93[a] | .79 |

| | Perceptions by Response Condition | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amplification (*n* = 398) | | Staying Quiet (*n* = 389) | | Additional Voice (*n* = 401) | |
| **Variable** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | 5.89[a] | .97 | 5.69[b] | .97 | 5.60[b] | 1.07 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | 5.68[a] | .98 | 5.70[a] | .92 | 5.61[a] | 1.03 |
| Voicer Status | 3.87[a] | .75 | 3.60[b] | .72 | 3.48[c] | .79 |
| Responder Status | 3.93[a] | .68 | 3.68[b] | .70 | 3.71[b] | .80 |
| Other's Status | 1.91[a] | .75 | 1.94[a] | .75 | 1.89[a] | .82 |

| | Perceptions by Voice Type and Response Condition | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amplification | | | | Staying Quiet | | | | Additional Voice | | | |
| | Promotive (*n* = 198) | | Prohibitive (*n* = 200) | | Promotive (*n* = 198) | | Prohibitive (*n* = 191) | | Promotive (*n* = 192) | | Prohibitive (*n* = 209) | |
| **Variable** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | 5.95[a] | 1.01 | 5.84[ab] | .92 | 5.72[bc] | .96 | 5.65[c] | .98 | 5.58[c] | 1.14 | 5.62[c] | 1.01 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | 5.72[a] | .96 | 5.65[a] | 1.01 | 5.76[a] | .93 | 5.64[a] | .91 | 5.65[a] | 1.03 | 5.57[a] | 1.02 |
| Voicer Status | 3.95[a] | .76 | 3.78[b] | .74 | 3.65[bc] | .73 | 3.56[cd] | .71 | 3.50[cd] | .85 | 3.46[d] | .74 |
| Responder Status | 3.97[a] | .71 | 3.88[a] | .65 | 3.72[b] | .70 | 3.64[b] | .71 | 3.72[b] | .82 | 3.70[b] | .77 |
| Other's Status | 1.78[a] | .70 | 2.04[b] | .78 | 1.99[bc] | .78 | 1.89[ac] | .72 | 1.93[bc] | .78 | 1.86[ac] | .85 |

*Notes:* $N = 1188$. The scale for idea evaluation was 1-7; the scales for voicer, responder, and other's status were 1-5.
Means within the same row that share a superscript do not differ significantly at $p<.05$.

**TABLE 3 Study 2: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics**

| | Variable | Mean | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | Voicer Idea Evaluation[a] | 5.46[c] | 1.13[c] | (.93) | | | | | | | | |
| **2** | Responder Idea Evaluation[a] | 5.58[c] | 1.07[c] | .29*** | (.90) | | | | | | | |
| **3** | Voicer Status[b] | 3.46 | .83 | .33*** | .20*** | (.91) | | | | | | |
| **4** | Responder Status[b] | 3.44 | .79 | .23*** | .32*** | .65*** | (.88) | | | | | |
| **5** | Other's Status[b] | 1.87 | .83 | -.06* | -.05* | .12*** | .10*** | (.93) | | | | |
| **6** | Voicer Gender[d] | .50 | .50 | -.07* | .02 | .13*** | .01 | -.04 | — | | | |
| **7** | Responder Gender[d] | .51 | .50 | .06* | -.01 | < -.01 | .14*** | -.04 | .03 | — | | |
| **8** | Response 1[e] | .25 | .43 | .18*** | .05 | .35*** | .28*** | .03 | -.02 | < .01 | — | |
| **9** | Response 2[f] | .24 | .43 | -.08** | -.07* | -.21*** | -.21*** | -.03 | < .01 | .01 | -.33*** | — |
| **10** | Response 3[g] | .25 | .44 | -.06* | .01 | -.10*** | -.04 | -.03 | .09*** | .02 | -.34*** | -.33*** |

*Notes:* $N = 1501$. $\alpha$ reliabilities appear along the diagonal.
[a] Scale was 1 – 7
[b] Scale was 1 – 5
[c] $n = 1499$ due to incomplete responses for this measure.
[d] 0 = Female; 1 = Male
[e] Response 1 was dummy coded: 0 = Stays Quiet, Self-promotes, Additional Voice; 1 = Amplification
[g] Response 2 was dummy coded: 0 = Stays Quiet, Additional Voice, Amplification; 1 = Self-promotes
[h] Response 3 was dummy coded: 0 = Stays Quiet, Self-promotes, Amplification; 1 = Additional Voice
* $p < .05$; ** $p < 01$; ***$p < .001$

## TABLE 4 Study 2: Amplification and Gender

| | Perceptions by Voicer Gender | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male (*n* = 753) | | Female (*n* = 748) | |
| **Variable** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | 5.39[a] | 1.13 | 5.54[b] | 1.13 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | 5.59[a] | 1.01 | 5.56[a] | 1.12 |
| Voicer Status | 3.57[a] | .81 | 3.35[b] | .83 |
| Responder Status | 3.45[a] | .77 | 3.44[a] | .81 |
| Other Status | 1.84[a] | .81 | 1.91[a] | .86 |
| | **Perceptions by Responder Gender** | | | |
| | Male (*n* = 770) | | Female (*n* = 731) | |
| **Variable** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | 5.53[a] | 1.10 | 5.40[b] | 1.16 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | 5.56[a] | 1.09 | 5.59[a] | 1.05 |
| Voicer Status | 3.46[a] | .81 | 3.46[a] | .85 |
| Responder Status | 3.55[a] | .77 | 3.33[b] | .80 |
| Other Status | 1.84[a] | .83 | 1.91[a] | .84 |

| | Perceptions by Response Condition | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amplification (*n* = 378) | | Staying Quiet (*n* = 381) | | Self-Promoting (*n* = 360) | | Additional Voice (*n* = 382) | |
| **Variable** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** | **Mean** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | 5.81[a] | 1.02 | 5.39[b] | 1.08 | 5.30[b] | 1.22 | 5.35[b] | 1.13 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | 5.66[a] | 1.08 | 5.60[ab] | 1.02 | 5.45[b] | 1.13 | 5.59[ab] | 1.04 |
| Voicer Status | 3.97[a] | .71 | 3.38[b] | .76 | 3.15[c] | .77 | 3.32[b] | .85 |
| Responder Status | 3.82[a] | .67 | 3.40[b] | .73 | 3.15[c] | .77 | 3.39[b] | .82 |
| Other's Status | 1.91[a] | .88 | 1.93[a] | .83 | 1.83[a] | .80 | 1.83[a] | .82 |

| | Perceptions by Voicer Gender and Response Condition | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amplification | | | | Staying Quiet | | | | Self-Promoting | | | | Additional Voice | | | |
| | Male ($n$ = 184) | | Female ($n$ = 194) | | Male ($n$ = 166) | | Female ($n$ = 215) | | Male ($n$ = 183) | | Female ($n$ = 177) | | Male ($n$ = 220) | | Female ($n$ = 162) | |
| **Variable** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | $5.74^{a}$ | .97 | $5.87^{a}$ | 1.07 | $5.27^{b}$ | 1.06 | $5.49^{b}$ | 1.10 | $5.28^{b}$ | 1.22 | $5.32^{b}$ | 1.22 | $5.28^{b}$ | 1.18 | $5.45^{b}$ | 1.06 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | $5.66^{a}$ | .92 | $5.67^{ab}$ | 1.21 | $5.54^{abc}$ | .98 | $5.64^{ab}$ | 1.05 | $5.53^{ab}$ | 1.12 | $5.37^{c}$ | 1.13 | $5.63^{ab}$ | 1.02 | $5.53^{ab}$ | 1.08 |
| Voicer Status | $4.06^{a}$ | .69 | $3.88^{b}$ | .72 | $3.51^{c}$ | .71 | $3.27^{d}$ | .78 | $3.27^{d}$ | .80 | $3.03^{e}$ | .71 | $3.45^{c}$ | .83 | $3.16^{de}$ | .86 |
| Responder Status | $3.83^{a}$ | .65 | $3.81^{a}$ | .69 | $3.41^{b}$ | .67 | $3.39^{b}$ | .77 | $3.17^{c}$ | .80 | $3.14^{c}$ | .75 | $3.40^{b}$ | .79 | $3.38^{b}$ | .88 |
| Other's Status | $1.86^{a}$ | .83 | $1.96^{ab}$ | .93 | $1.90^{ab}$ | .82 | $1.95^{ab}$ | .84 | $1.75^{ac}$ | .74 | $1.91^{abc}$ | .86 | $1.85^{abc}$ | .84 | $1.81^{abc}$ | .80 |
| | Perceptions by Responder Gender and Response Condition | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Amplification | | | | Staying Quiet | | | | Self-Promoting | | | | Additional Voice | | | |
| | Male ($n$ = 192) | | Female ($n$ = 186) | | Male ($n$ = 186) | | Female ($n$ = 195) | | Male ($n$ = 189) | | Female ($n$ = 171) | | Male ($n$ = 203) | | Female ($n$ = 179) | |
| **Variable** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** |
| Voicer Idea Evaluation | $5.81^{a}$ | 1.00 | $5.81^{a}$ | 1.05 | $5.43^{b}$ | 1.05 | $5.35^{bc}$ | 1.12 | $5.42^{bcd}$ | 1.20 | $5.16^{c}$ | 1.22 | $5.44^{bcd}$ | 1.10 | $5.26^{bcd}$ | 1.15 |
| Responder Idea Evaluation | $5.61^{a}$ | 1.02 | $5.72^{ab}$ | 1.14 | $5.63^{ab}$ | 1.04 | $5.57^{abc}$ | 1.00 | $5.40^{ac}$ | 1.17 | $5.50^{abc}$ | 1.08 | $5.61^{abc}$ | 1.10 | $5.56^{abc}$ | .97 |
| Voicer Status | $3.96^{a}$ | .69 | $3.98^{a}$ | .73 | $3.34^{b}$ | .74 | $3.41^{bc}$ | .78 | $3.20^{bd}$ | .73 | $3.10^{d}$ | .80 | $3.33^{bcd}$ | .86 | $3.31^{bcd}$ | .84 |
| Responder Status | $3.93^{a}$ | .63 | $3.70^{b}$ | .70 | $3.56^{bc}$ | .71 | $3.25^{d}$ | .71 | $3.22^{de}$ | .74 | $3.08^{ef}$ | .80 | $3.48^{c}$ | .80 | $3.28^{de}$ | .84 |
| Other's Status | $1.88^{a}$ | .88 | $1.94^{a}$ | .89 | $1.87^{a}$ | .83 | $1.99^{ab}$ | .82 | $1.82^{ac}$ | .79 | $1.83^{abc}$ | .82 | $1.81^{ac}$ | .81 | $1.86^{abc}$ | .84 |

*Notes:* $N$ = 1501; $N$ = 1499 for idea evaluation due to incomplete responses. The scale for idea evaluation was 1-7; the scales for voicer, responder, and other's status were 1-5. Means within the same row that share a superscript do not differ significantly at $p < .05$.

**TABLE 5 Study 3: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics**

| | Variable | Mean | *SD* | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | Employees' Status[a] | 3.92 | .98 | (.74) | |
| **2** | Training[b] | .26 | .44 | .01 | — |
| **3** | Time[c] | .01 | .50 | .05 | .01 |

*Notes:* $N = 952$. Spearman-Brown reliability is in parentheses.
[a] Scale was 1-5; $N = 924$ due to missing data
[b] Training was dummy coded: 0 = Non-amplifiers; 1 = Amplifiers
[c] Time was dummy coded: 0 = Pre-intervention; 1 = Post-intervention

**TABLE 6 Study 3: Regression Results Predicting Employee Status**

| | *b* | *SE* |
|---|---|---|
| Intercept | 3.91*** | .11 |
| Time[a] | 0.23*** | .07 |
| Amplifier[b] | -0.02 | .06 |
| Time × Amplifier | 0.28* | .12 |

*Notes:* Number of observations = 924.
[a] -.5 = Pre-intervention; .5 = Post-intervention.
[b] -.5 = Non-amplifiers; .5 = Amplifiers.
*$p < .05$; ***$p < .001$

**FIGURE 1 Perceived Quality of Voicers' Ideas in Studies 1-2.**

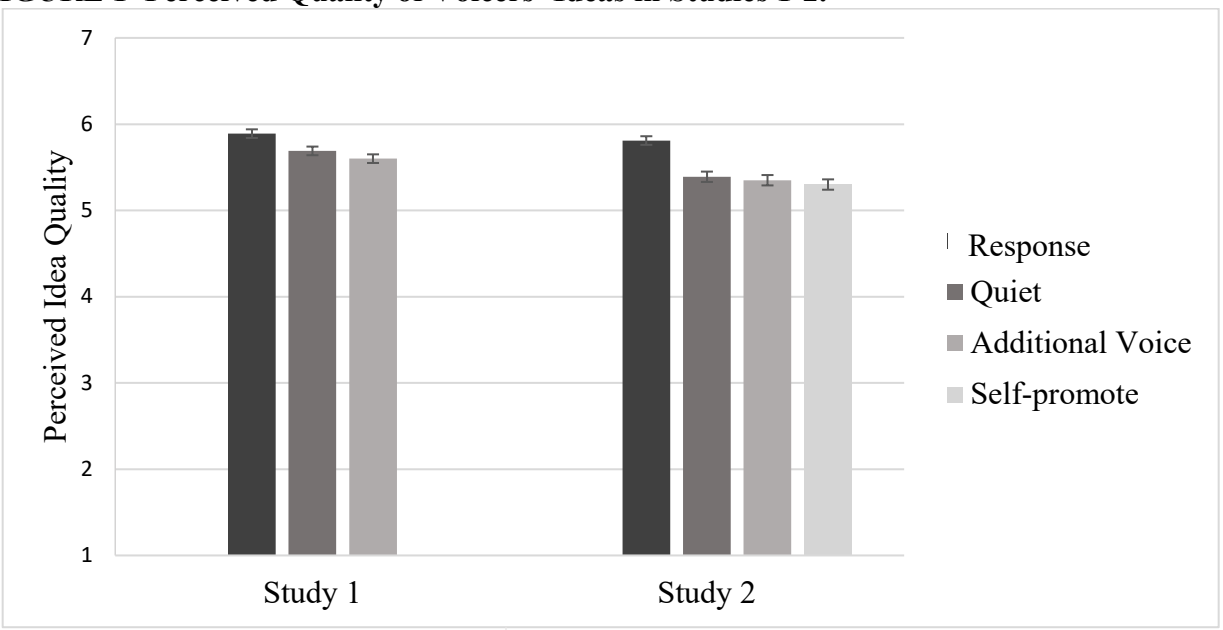


**FIGURE 2 Perceptions of Voicers' and Responders' Status by Response in Studies 1-2.**

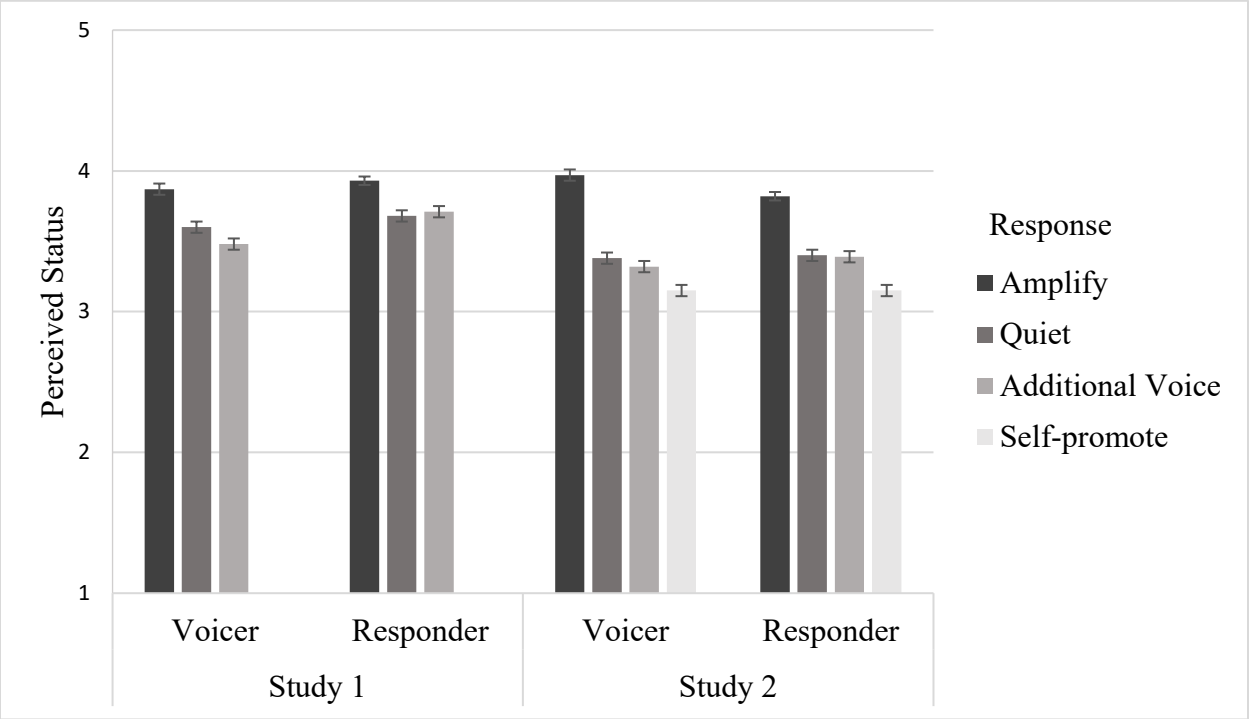
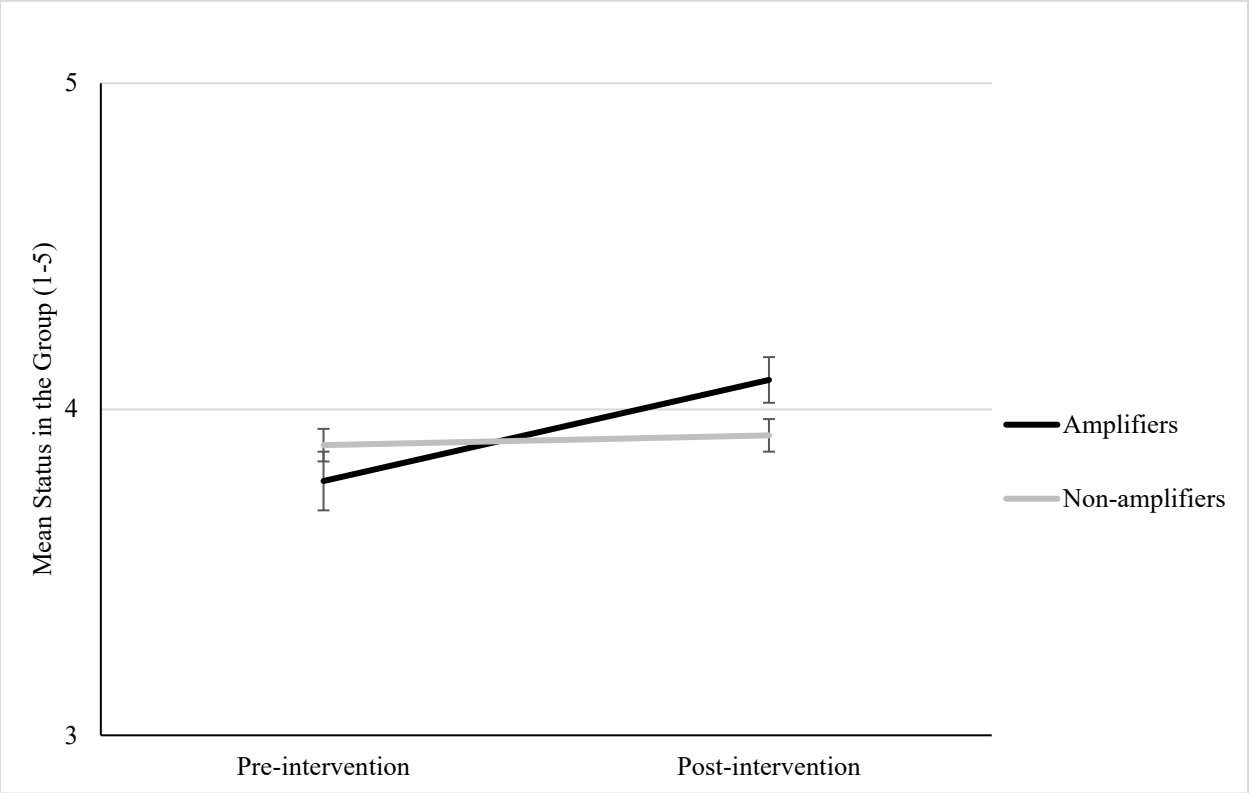


**FIGURE 3 Mean Ratings by Non-amplifiers of Fellow Team Members' Status in the Group Pre- and Post-intervention, Study 3.**



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