Carriers and Barriers of Voice in Teams: An Investigation into Team Voice and the Role of Team Voice Allies and Resistors in Influencing Voice Outcomes

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Statement of Originality

I declare that the doctoral thesis I am presenting is based on my own independent research efforts, carried out under the guidance of my supervisors. There is no plagiarism, academic fraud, or any breach of ethical standards in this work. All contributors who have significantly assisted in the research are duly acknowledged in the relevant sections of the thesis.

The research involving human data included in this thesis was reviewed and approved by the University of Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). The approvals are as follows:

- Research related to Chapter 3: HREC2023/006 (Work6001) and HREC2022/172 (BUSS2000)
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Publications Related to this Thesis

This thesis contains materials that have been published or submitted for review:

Chapter 2 of this thesis is submitted for publication and is under review as "Cheng, S., Nguyen, H., Wang, K., Donald, J., & Tai, J. A Literature Review and Meta-Analysis of the Antecedents and Consequences of Team Voice and Its Promotive and Prohibitive Content" at *Group & Organization Management*.

- I led the theorisation, design, data collection and data analysis, and co-wrote the manuscript drafts. Authorship is by contribution.

Chapter 3 of this thesis draws on material published as "Cheng, S., Nguyen, H., & Wang, K. (2023). From Words to Actions: Team Voice within the Social Context. *83rd Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management (AOM) Conference 2023*, Boston, Massachusetts, USA".

- I led the theorisation, design, data collection and data analysis, and co-wrote the manuscript drafts. Authorship is by contribution.

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If every research topic has its own lifecycle, voice research has rapidly matured in recent decades, and I feel incredibly fortunate to have caught its "golden age". Scholars once viewed voice as a one-off, voicer-centred occurrence, a single dot. Later, extending voice research to dyadic relationships, considering leaders' perspectives, connected these dots into lines. Most recently, by embedding voice within broader social contexts, scholars have transformed these lines into a three-dimensional space. Each step in the evolution of voice literature has enriched its complexity, and I sincerely hope my doctoral research contributes, even modestly, to this exciting journey.

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Gen AI Attribution Statement

Generative AI tools were used to support specific aspects of this thesis. Chapters 2 to 4 were reviewed using OpenAI's ChatGPT-4o to check for grammatical consistency and typographical errors. In addition, Figure 1 (see Appendix A) was generated with the assistance of ChatGPT to visually represent the development of the literature over time, based on a tabular summary. All conceptual, analytical, and interpretive content remains the original work of the author.

Chapters 1 and 5 underwent professional copyediting by Dr. Rhonda Daniels to improve clarity, coherence, and style. No generative AI tools were used in the editing of these chapters.

Abstract

As organisations increasingly rely on teams as foundational work units, understanding how voice unfolds within workgroups and teams has become a critical research topic. Moving beyond traditional, dyadic perspectives on employee voice as the expression of ideas, concerns, feedback, or suggestions to those in higher positions, this thesis builds on more recent, emerging perspectives to investigate team voice as a multifaceted and socially embedded process involving multiple actors. In this thesis, I present three empirical studies. In Study 1, I conducted a comprehensive literature review and meta-analysis of 38 empirical studies on team voice, analysing key antecedents and consequences of team voice including both its promotive and prohibitive content. The results of this first study show that team voice is shaped by key team-level antecedents, that is, team leadership and team climate, and that team voice functions as a source of social information that influences team performance, team innovation and team viability. Study 2 uses an experimental design to investigate how team members, acting as voice allies or resistors, influence team voice and team wellbeing. The results of this second study showed that teams with voice allies (i.e., the presence of a team member who supports other team members' voice) were associated with higher team voice, team satisfaction, and team positive affect. In contrast, teams with voice resistors (i.e., the presence of a team member who opposed other team members' voice) exhibited lower team voice and this also undermined the team wellbeing. I also found that team members used different voice tactics (e.g., legitimising vs. developing or avoiding vs. opposing) which had differential effects on team functioning. In the third and final study (Study 3), I

investigated the intra-individual consequences of enacting voice allyship or resistance. The results of Study 3 suggest that there are personal resource consequences to voice allies and resistors in enacting these roles. Interestingly, engaging in voice allyship had replenishing effects on allies' own emotional resources and promoted their own future voice behaviours. Engaging in voice resistance had resource depleting effects and reduced future engagement in voice. Overall, by integrating insights across multiple analytical levels and theoretical perspectives, I provide a richer understanding of how voice unfolds within modern, interdependent teams. I shift the focus from traditional dyadic models to a social process perspective, viewing team members as active social actors who influence voice through their peer interactions. Theoretically, I extend voice scholarship by highlighting the evolving roles of team members as collective voicers, voice allies, and resistors across both voice-related and emotional dimensions. Practically, I offer actionable insights into how organisations can foster sustainable voice by recognising and supporting the social dynamics that impact team voice and member wellbeing. This thesis provides a foundation for future research into the relational, social, and contextual mechanisms that drive voice in contemporary work settings.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1. Introduction

"But he hasn't got anything on!" a little child said.

"But he hasn't got anything on!" the whole town cried out at last.

The Emperor's New Clothes

Hans Christian Andersen

In Hans Christian Andersen's tale "The Emperor's New Clothes" written in 1837, the emperor is deceived by two swindlers into believing he is wearing an exquisite cloth that is invisible to those unfit for their positions or "hopelessly stupid". Despite seeing nothing, the emperor and his ministers admire the non-existent garments. It is only when the emperor parades through the streets that a little child cries out, "But he hasn't got anything on!". This voice, once spoken, spreads across the crowd. People begin to echo and validate the statement, culminating in a collective realisation and a unanimous outcry – "He hasn't got anything on!". Although a very old tale, the moral of the story remains highly relevant in modern organisations. While research on employee voice has progressed, knowledge on the role of the voicer (in this case, the child who speaks up) as can be seen in multiple reviews and meta-analyses of employee voice (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Morrison, 2014; Ng, Feldman & Butts, 2014). Surprisingly, there remains a lack of knowledge on the role that other people play in the surrounding voice context. In particular, we know far less about the critical role of other social actors also involved in the voice process, such as those who support (i.e., voice

allies, e.g., the crowd who supports the child's voice and echoes) and/or resist voice (i.e. voice resistors, e.g., the emperor's ministers and the swindlers).

Employee voice refers to discretionary behaviour that is focused on speaking up about concerns, opinions and solutions regarding work-related problems to bring about constructive change for the organisation or the work unit (Detert & Burris, 2007). To date, the literature on employee voice has predominantly focused on the actions and consequences of the voicer (Morrison, 2011). As a form of proactive behaviour (Parker & Collins, 2010), studies have shown that engaging in voice entails interpersonal risk for the individual voicer (Milliken et al., 2003) as it can be perceived as 'rocking the boat'. For example, voice can challenge the authority of leaders, disrupt the status quo (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014), create feelings of discomfort, harm social relationships (Hsiung, 2012), and add extra work for the organisation (Milliken et al., 2003). Despite involving risks, voice is valuable and beneficial to organisations. For example, voice is associated with improved performance and productivity (Lam & Mayer, 2014), the successful implementation of new ideas (Ng & Feldman, 2012), lower employee intention to quit (Jiang & Yao, 2020) and higher trust in senior management (Rees et al., 2013). The practical significance of employee voice is particularly acute in high reliability, high safety industries such as aviation, nuclear, mining, construction and healthcare. Notably, failures in these communication processes have led to tragic outcomes with many fatalities, as exemplified by numerous catastrophes such as the Chernobyl nuclear disaster in 1986, the Space Shuttle Challenger disaster in 1986 and the Bhopal chemical leak disaster in 1984. These critical incidents and disasters highlight the need for voice and the

importance of having mechanisms to encourage and support employee voice to address potential risks and improve organisational effectiveness.

While much of the existing literature on voice assumes that employees direct their voice toward a formal leader (Li & Tangirala, 2021; Takeuchi et al., 2012; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Xu et al., 2019), this assumption does not fully reflect modern team-based work structures. Employees now often operate within lateral, interdependent teams where voice behaviours are embedded in a shared group context. As organisations increasingly rely on teams as the fundamental units of work (Chen et al., 2021) and the main vehicle by which organisations deliver their products and services (Mathieu et al., 2008), the traditional, voicer-centric or leader-centric framing of voice does not provide a complete picture of the surrounding context when voice is expressed, received and acted on.

As can be seen in more recent literature on employee voice, scholars have shifted their focus away from traditional, dyadic models of voice toward more collective and socially embedded understandings of voice within teams (Nieberle & Fladerer, 2025). This perspective recognises that voice often unfolds in a dynamic, multi-actor context shaped by interactions among team members (Brykman & Raver, 2023). Consistent with this emerging line of inquiry, this doctoral thesis advances the literature on employee voice not as an individual-level phenomenon, but as a socially situated process embedded within the everyday functioning of interdependent teams.

According to a socially embedded view of employee voice, when voice occurs within a shared context, such as within work groups or teams, it naturally involves multiple actors

who interact throughout the voice process (Satterstrom et al., 2021). This perspective differs from the traditional perspective of employee voice as mainly involving a dyadic exchange between a voicer and a voice target (often a leader), but rather is an unfolding, dynamic process shaped by ongoing interactions among team members (Liu et al., 2022).

A socially embedded perspective of voice that occurs within a team acknowledges the role that all team members play in this process. Indeed, team members not only voice, but also frequently observe, support or resist voice, playing a critical role in shaping how voice is received and acted on. This expanded understanding of team voice is illustrated in the work of Satterstrom et al. (2021) in their theorisation of the *voice cultivation process*, highlighting how team members can help initially rejected voice ideas to persist and eventually be implemented, in particular, the role of *voice allies* in sustaining and advancing voiced ideas. This thesis builds on Satterstrom et al.'s (2021) socially embedded model of voice occurring within teams to better understand the role of allies and resistors in the voice process, examining their influence on team-level dynamics and on their own individual outcomes.

Next, I review the existing literature on team voice, including what we currently know about the nature of team voice, the antecedents and outcomes of team voice, the social actors who play a role in influencing team voice, and overall, what we currently do not know but need to know about team voice as a socially embedded phenomenon. I then present three important research questions that stem from these important knowledge gaps and provide an overview of three empirical studies that form my thesis.

1.1 Literature Review

The scholarly interest in employee voice has expanded over the past several decades, evolving from a primary focus on individual voice, toward increasingly more complex considerations of employee voice within teams and its team-level and social interactional elements. Drawing on foundational work by Hirschman (1970), organisational scholars initially conceptualised voice as an individual behaviour, defined as employees proactively offering constructive suggestions or raising concerns about work-related issues to improve organisational functioning (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Early studies primarily examined individual motivations, dispositional factors and interpersonal dynamics influencing an individual employee's decision to speak up or remain silent, often based on the assumption that the individual voice is occurring within a dyadic context between employees and their direct supervisors or leaders (Morrison, 2014).

With the increasing prevalence of team-based organisational structures in contemporary workplaces, research attention has progressively shifted from individual to shared or group contexts, such as within work units and the team context. A timeline of the maturation of employee voice literature, in Figure 1, shows that since the early 2000s, a growing number of scholars have examined team voice as a collective or aggregate of voicers with mixed approaches to operationalising the construct at the group level. Some studies define team voice as the average of individual voice behaviours within a group or team (e.g., Detert et al., 2013; Erez et al., 2002; Lam & Mayer, 2014), while others conceptualise it as more than individual aggregates but as shared beliefs or perceptions about speaking up. This variation in

approaches, ranging from aggregating individual voicing behaviours to capturing shared team-level voicing behaviours (often through the use of a team referent-shifted approach, Chan, 1998), has led to inconsistencies in how team voice is measured and understood. These different operational approaches are further complicated by differences in the team contexts and types of voice content being studied. As a result, a key challenge in the current literature on team voice is the lack of conceptual and empirical clarity. To address this, Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive literature review and meta-analysis to integrate these disparate perspectives to advance a more coherent understanding of team voice.

As shown in the timeline, the most recent developments in team voice research have moved beyond viewing voice merely as an aggregation of individual acts. Emerging scholarship increasingly emphasises the social context in which voice is embedded within teams. This evolving perspective highlights the dynamic and ongoing interactions among team members, which collectively shape whether voiced ideas are supported, sustained or resisted.

1.1.1 The Nature of Team Voice

The dominant view of team voice conceptualises the phenomenon as the collective voicing behaviours of team members to share their concerns, opinions or constructive suggestions for team improvement (Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Guzman & Espejo, 2018). Similar to the individual voice literature, team voice scholars have also acknowledged differences in the content of team voice, namely its promotive or prohibitive content (Zhao et al., 2020). Team promotive voice refers to team members' expressions of ideas to enhance

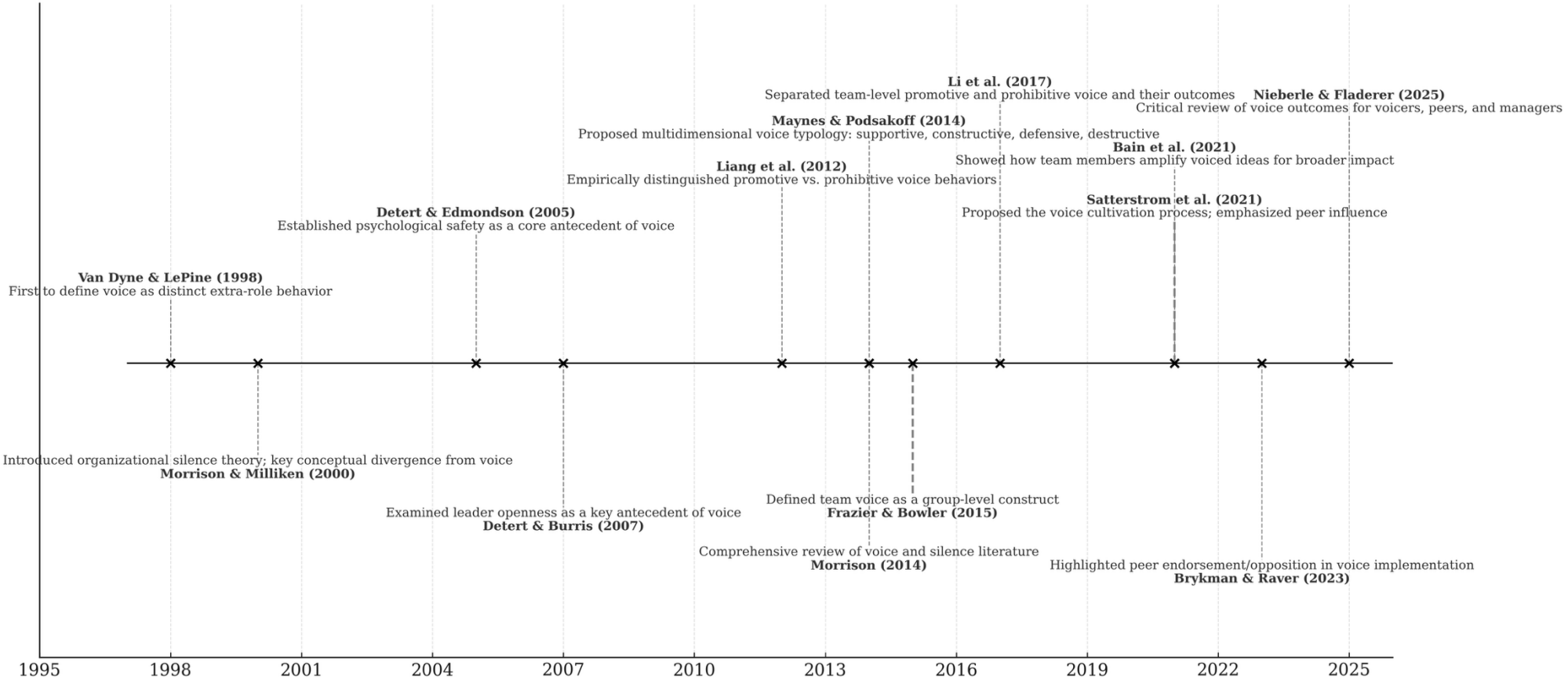

Figure 1. Timeline of voice literature in the last 30 years (see Appendix A; figure generated with the assistance of ChatGPT-4o from a tabular summary).

existing work protocols for the collective benefit of the team or organisation (Li & Tangirala, 2022). Studies on team promotive voice have found it is associated with team innovation (Liang et al., 2019), team productivity performance gains (Li et al., 2017), management innovation (Guzman & Espejo, 2018) and reduced supervisor emotional exhaustion (Sessions et al., 2020). On the other hand, team prohibitive voice refers to team members voicing concerns and issues regarding practices that could potentially harm the team or organisation (Li & Tangirala, 2022). Empirical findings suggest that team prohibitive voice can lead to mixed outcomes, including team safety performance gains (Li et al., 2017) but also increased supervisor emotional exhaustion (Sessions et al., 2020), and potential team performance losses (Li & Tangirala, 2022). Rather than framing prohibitive voice as inherently detrimental, team voice scholarship emphasises distinct mechanisms underlying team promotive and prohibitive content of voice. For example, Liang et al. (2019) argue that team promotive voice facilitates the integration of varied perspectives and the absorption of diverse thought processes, whereas team prohibitive voice enhances the vigilance of the team and prompts a collective revaluation of prevailing assumptions and methodologies. Similarly, Li et al. (2017) found differential pathways for these two contents of voice, where team promotive voice contributes to productivity performance through team innovation while team prohibitive voice enhances team safety performance via improved team monitoring. These findings show the importance of contextualising voice content within the team setting, where different content of team voice may activate different team-level processes and contribute to different types of outcomes.

Another feature of team voice literature relates to the direction and target of voice. To date, research on individual-level voice has predominantly focused on upward voice, which is voice aimed at organisational leaders or those in authority positions. However, this upward voice behaviour carries inherent risks as well-intentioned employees who speak up may inadvertently be perceived as challenging authority, disrupting harmony or engaging in unproductive activities (Detert et al., 2013). Compared to individual voice, the direction of voice within teams is more multifaceted and has been examined in terms of upward team voice, where teams voice concerns or suggestions to leaders (Khan et al., 2022; Sessions et al., 2020), lateral team voice, where team members speak up to one another (Liu et al., 2017), and a combination of both (Ye et al., 2019). Some studies have not specified a clear target for team voice (e.g., Guzman & Espejo, 2018). The plurality of team voice directions or targets carries important implications for how risk is distributed. Specifically, upward team voice, directed toward higher levels of authority, often entails greater collective risk, as it may be perceived by upper management as a challenge to their authority or as a sign of internal dysfunction. In contrast, lateral or horizontal team voice, which occurs between peers, typically involves lower and more individualised risk, as it is less likely to disrupt formal power hierarchies. Consequently, the direction or target of team voice significantly influences how it is interpreted, received and acted on within teams and organisations.

Methodologically, there are different approaches to operationalising team voice in the existing team voice literature. The team referent-shift approach focuses on the collective aspect of voice, capturing the perceptions about speaking up (as can be seen in studies that

use team referent-shifted questions such as “In this team, we openly share our thoughts, ideas, opinions etc.”), often prompted by shared beliefs or perceptions about the encouragement of speaking up within the team (i.e., team climate for voice, Frazier & Bowler, 2015). The additive composition method quantifies team voice by aggregating individual-level voice contributions, either by averaging or summing the expressions of voice from all team members (e.g., Guzman & Espejo, 2018). Although both approaches aim to represent team voice, they capture different aspects of the phenomenon and address different research questions. The team referent-shift approach has the advantage in terms of providing a better reflection of the collective atmosphere of voice safety and efficacy within the team whereas the additive composition method reflects the actual voice behaviour within the team more accurately (Zhao et al., 2020). However, this approach relies on sufficient within-team agreement (typically assessed via Intraclass Correlation Coefficient; Bliese, 2000) to justify team-level inference and may not fully account for within-team divergence in voice behaviour. The aggregate approach, potentially introducing noise from individual-level variability, but has the advantage of capturing heterogeneity in team members’ voice behaviours (e.g., it is possible to capture who in the team is voicing more or less, the range and outliers).

In summary, team voice is a multifaceted construct that varies in content (team promotive voice versus team prohibitive voice), directionality (upward versus lateral or horizontal) and methodological operationalisation (team referent-shift approach versus additive composition approach). These distinctions have important theoretical and practical

implications for understanding how team voice functions, how it can be effectively fostered and what outcomes it can generate.

1.1.2 Antecedents of Team Voice

Existing literature on team voice predominantly focuses on identifying factors that influence team voice. Understanding these antecedents is essential, as it enables us to identify the predictors that motivate teams to engage in voice behaviours, as well as the barriers that deter teams from speaking up. To date, several key team-level antecedents of team voice have been studied, which I will review in the next section.

1.1.2.1 Leader-related factors

Leaders play a critical role in this evaluation, serving as primary cues for determining the safety of voice expression (Detert & Burris, 2007). Consequently, studies on team-level voice consistently highlight leaders as a significant source of influence. Given the influence of leadership on team voice, the following section is organised by leadership styles, leader personality traits, and leadership behaviours.

Leadership style has received considerable attention in the academic literature. Recent studies, for example, have demonstrated a positive correlation between inclusive leadership and team voice. Such leadership fosters openness, mutual respect and interpersonal trust, thereby making team members feel secure enough to propose new ideas and point out issues (Chen et al., 2021). This relationship was similarly confirmed by Ye et al. (2019), who noted that inclusive leaders not only encourage individuals to express themselves but also facilitate a norm of openness across the team through their modelling effects, which allow other team

members to express their ideas and opinions. Moreover, ethical leadership significantly impacts collective voice. Ethical leaders actively involve their followers in decision-making processes that concern them and are attentive to their suggestions and ideas (Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). The practice of seeking and valuing employee input is foundational to fostering an environment where discretionary voice behaviours are more likely, as employees tend to speak up with suggestions and concerns when they perceive their leaders as receptive (Walumbwa et al., 2012). Additionally, authentic leadership has a positive correlation with team voice. Authentic leaders openly acknowledge their limitations and not only welcome but also encourage their team members to offer ideas and challenge existing viewpoints, thereby enhancing the team's overall communicative dynamics (Zheng et al., 2022).

One important factor that shapes team voice is the personality of the team leader. Diverse leader traits have varying influences on team voice. For example, a study by Zhou et al. (2021) illustrates how narcissistic traits can negatively impact team voice. These leaders are not willing to solicit input, signalling to team members that speaking up carries risks and is generally discouraged (Hunton et al., 1998). This lack of encouragement results in a diminished voice climate within the team, where members feel that voicing their opinions is inappropriate and unwelcome, which discourages voice behaviour altogether (Frazier & Bowler, 2015). Conversely, Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) demonstrated that positive personality traits such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism can indirectly foster a more robust team voice. They achieve this through the mediating effects of ethical

leadership, which enhances team members' psychological safety, thereby encouraging them to engage more freely in voice behaviours (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

Team voice can be shaped by the specific behaviours of leaders that signal the voice is encouraged or discouraged. Lin et al. (2019) and Li et al. (2021) illustrated that humble behaviour is positively linked to team voice. Li et al. (2021) explained that humble leader behaviours prioritise learning and growth, which signals teachability, and a proactive "can-do" attitude among team members towards voice activities. Second, such behaviour reflects a high level of self-awareness and a secure self-concept in leaders, which creates a "reason-to" mechanism where team members tend to initiate and engage in voice due to their discretion and intrinsic motivation (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). Third, by demonstrating humility, leaders acknowledge and value their team members' strengths and contributions, thereby energising them for collective participation in voice activities (Wang et al., 2018). Additionally, research by Chen et al. (2022) suggests that leaders who engage in paradoxical thinking further enhance team voice. These leaders excel at proactively managing contradictions and conflicts (Giessner & Schubert, 2007), fostering an environment where team members feel supported in their complexities and contradictions. This understanding and acceptance of team dynamics, including mistakes and failures, cultivates a supportive atmosphere that promotes open communication and discussion, and team members are more likely to reciprocate this positive environment by actively offering their advice and feedback, thereby strengthening the voice within the team (Chen et al., 2022).

1.1.2.2 Organisational climate and culture

Considerable research has explored the influence of organisational culture and collective beliefs on team voice. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) demonstrated that psychological safety is a key factor in promoting team voice, and this concept extends beyond mere interpersonal trust to encompass a work environment characterised by mutual respect, where individuals feel comfortable openly expressing themselves. This viewpoint is supported by Chen et al. (2021), who regard psychological safety as a dynamic mediator. When psychological safety is elevated, team members experience less risk in voicing their thoughts, suggestions, and concerns, thereby enhancing the collective voice directed towards management. Similarly, Zhou et al. (2021) reported that voice climate affected voice. A robust voice climate within a team suggests a shared belief among members that they can openly express doubts or concerns about the status quo without repercussions, ensuring that their contributions are taken seriously and valued, thus amplifying team voice. Additionally, Frazier and Bowler (2015) indicate that collective-level beliefs, such as group perceptions of supervisory undermining, defined as behaviours perceived collectively by the team as detrimental to individual success (Duffy et al., 2006), can adversely affect team voice by negatively impacting the voice climate.

1.1.2.3 Internal Team Dynamics

Team emergent state or team process may also encourage or discourage team voice. For example, Chen et al. (2022) found that team cooperation is positively associated with team voice, and this is because cooperation fosters frequent interactions and communication among team members, creating an environment conducive to proactive expression that

supports organisational objectives. In a similar vein, Khan et al. (2022) observed in their study of a large private telecom firm in southern India that effective team communication enhances team voice, enabling more open exchanges of ideas and concerns. Furthermore, Jiang (2017), in a study conducted within the manufacturing department of a solar energy corporation in Mainland China, noted that team task reflexivity is instrumental in promoting team voice because it allows team members to engage collectively in reflecting on their strategies, tasks and decisions, thereby enabling them to provide constructive feedback and suggest modifications to their leaders.

To summarise, studies have investigated a range of team-level antecedents of team voice, including leadership characteristics and behaviours, organisational climate and culture, and internal team dynamics. While leader-related factors remain the most extensively examined antecedents, which reflects the traditional top-down assumptions about voice behaviour, emerging research increasingly highlights the significance of organisational and team-level conditions. This shift shows the multifaceted nature of team voice and suggests that fostering collective voice requires a more holistic understanding of structural, cultural, and interpersonal environments in which teams operate.

1.1.3 Outcomes of Team Voice

Research into the outcomes of team voice has primarily explored how voiced ideas and concerns within teams translate into tangible effects on team outcomes, such as team performance, team innovation, team learning, team satisfaction, and team conflict.

In terms of team performance, studies have shown that voice behaviours, which often include suggestions for improvements, can lead to enhanced procedures and processes that improve overall group performance in the long term (Frazier & Bowler, 2015). For example, For example, He et al. (2021) surveyed 78 team leaders and 441 team members from Chinese banks and found that team voice was positively associated with team learning and subsequent team performance. Additionally, teams with a high level of voice are more prone to identify and address problems that could impede their performance, allowing for timely resolutions and superior outcomes (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Walumbwa et al., 2012). For example, a study conducted within a support service management company that provides environmental and food services to hospitals demonstrated that team voice positively correlates with hospital-level service performance (Lam & Mayer, 2014).

Team voice can also lead to innovation. By focusing on critical operational issues, averting premature consensus, and fostering a re-evaluation of established norms, team voice prompts members to reconsider and reflect on their views and explore previously overlooked factors, significantly boosting the team's innovative output (Ye et al., 2019). Further, team voice encourages members to engage in divergent thinking, propose a broader array of strategic alternatives, and thoroughly assess the viability of these options (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Morrison, 2011), thereby facilitating the successful implementation of innovations. Supporting the link between team voice and innovation, Li et al. (2021) found that team voice leads to the development of alternative implementation strategies, the identification of potential issues in processes, and the sharing of practical advice to refine

these processes, ultimately enhancing the effective and committed use of innovations by targeted employees. This positive correlation between team voice and innovation has also been validated by a study focused on top management teams (Wang et al., 2022).

Research has identified other outcomes associated with team voice, such as team conflict, team satisfaction, and team learning. Brykman and O'Neill (2021) observed that team voice positively correlates with task conflict whereas it negatively correlates with relationship conflict. As team voice increases, it not only enlarges the amount of information, viewpoints, and ideas for discussion but also fosters a culture encouraging members to express diverse opinions, leading to more task conflict (Brykman & O'Neill, 2021). In contrast, increasing team voice has a negative relationship with relationship conflict, as teams with higher levels of voice get better at handling different viewpoints, which makes them more resistant to negative comments and boosts team harmony (Brykman & O'Neill, 2021). He et al. (2021) also noted that increased team voice leads to better team learning. This is because a high level of team voice brings out valuable insights such as new ideas and important issues related to team tasks (Van Dyne et al., 2003), providing an environment conducive to learning. As a result, team members are more likely to participate in learning activities like group reflection and feedback sharing, encouraged by the valuable information provided by team voice (He et al., 2021).

To summarise, team voice has been linked to a range of positive outcomes, including better team performance, team innovation, improved learning, and team satisfaction. These outcomes show the importance of team voice in shaping not only what teams do, but also

how they think and interact. Compared to the outcomes of individual voice, which primarily focused on personal consequences such as personal satisfaction and decreased stress (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986; Parker, 1993), positive attitudes (Morrison & Milliken, 2000), and damaged public image (Milliken et al., 2003; Pinder & Harlos, 2001), team voice outcomes tend to emphasise collective gains and relational dynamics within the team context. In particular, team voice fosters shared understanding and collaborative innovation that can only be fully realised at the team level. These unique outcomes highlight the value of team voice as a team-level phenomenon that enables teams to learn and perform more effectively. Figure 2 provides a summary of the key antecedents and outcomes of team voice based on the existing literature.

1.1.4 Theories on Team Voice

Research on team voice draws from a rich array of theoretical frameworks. Scholars have applied social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), social information processing (SIP) theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and others to explain why and when team members voice their ideas or concerns, or how collective voice makes an impact. This diversity of perspectives ranges from interpersonal relationship models to motivation and personality frameworks.

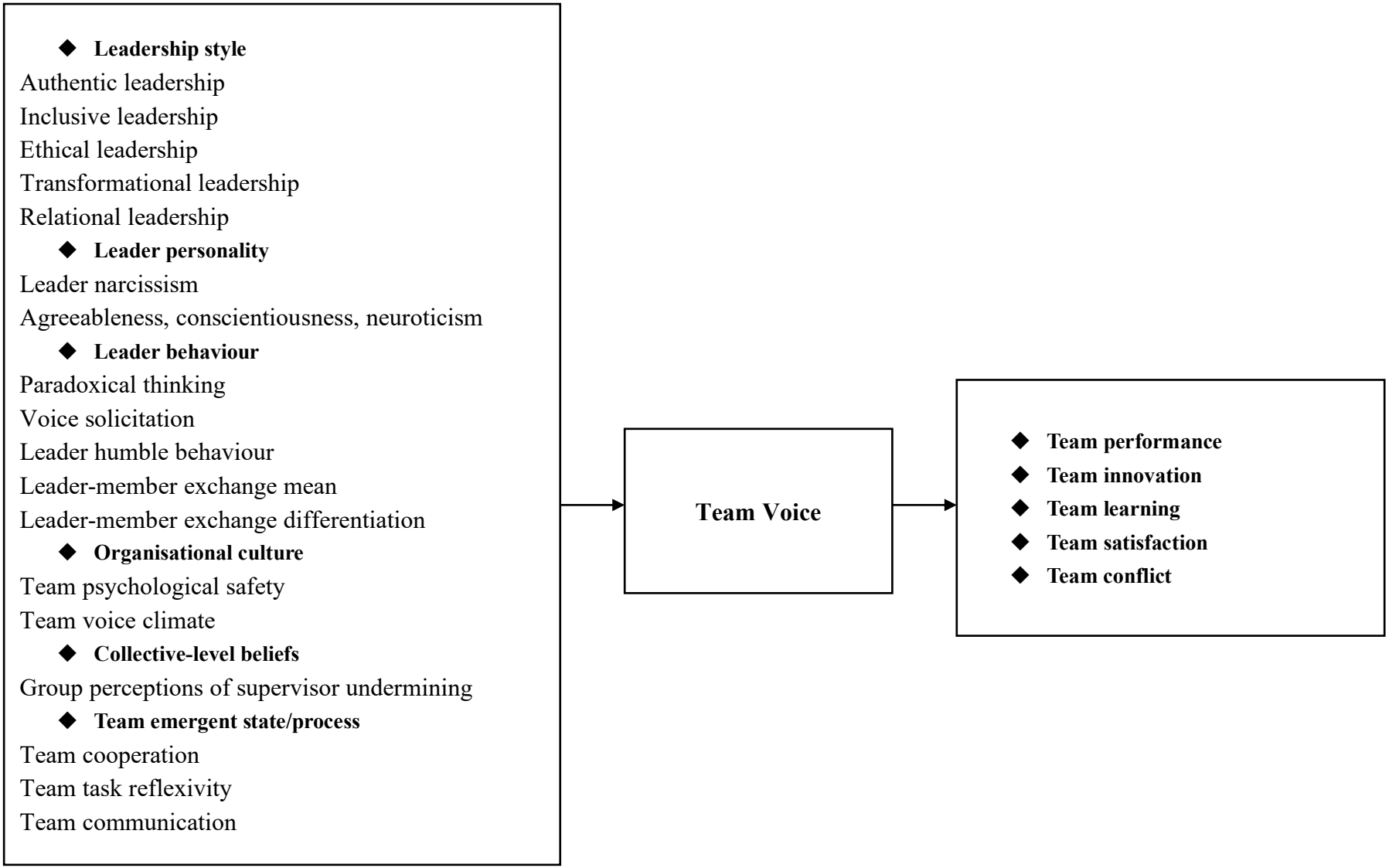

Figure 2. Antecedents and outcomes of team voice from existing literature.

Each theoretical framework frames different antecedents, processes or outcomes of team voice. Relational and social-context theories like social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), SIP theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) focus on the interpersonal antecedents and processes that shape voice. These perspectives posit that team voice emerges from the social context. Here, voice behaviour is often viewed as a reciprocal response to positive social treatment (e.g., fair leadership or organisational support), consistent with social exchange principles (e.g., Chen et al., 2022; Jiang, 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2012). Similarly, SIP theory suggests that employees gauge the acceptability and risk of speaking up by processing cues in their environment. A climate where others frequently voice sends the signal that speaking up is valued and low risk, thereby increasing collective voice (e.g., Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Zhou et al., 2021). Likewise, social learning theory suggests that leaders influence team voice by serving as moral exemplars whose behaviours are observed and emulated by team members. For example, ethical leaders demonstrate voice-supportive behaviours such as openness, fairness, and receptiveness to feedback, which show acceptable norms and help shape collective team conduct. Through vicarious learning, enactive mastery, and verbal persuasion, such leaders cultivate team members' moral efficacy, which in turn promotes ethical voice and prosocial behaviours within the team (e.g., Kim & Vandenberghe, 2020).

In addition to socially grounded theories, some studies draw on motivational theories and individual differences to explain the drivers or consequences of team voice. Drawing on regulatory focus theory, Li et al. (2017) demonstrated that team promotive and prohibitive

voice each lead to distinct collective outcomes: team promotive voice was associated with team productivity performance gains, whereas team prohibitive voice was linked to team safety performance gains. Regulatory focus theory posits two motivational orientations: promotion focus and prevention focus (Higgins, 1997). At the team level, this theory suggests that team members can orient their teams towards either aspirational goals or prevention of harm through their collective actions and communication. COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) offers another motivational perspective, framing voice as a behaviour that consumes personal resources. For example, a study by Guzman and Espejo (2018) demonstrated that the availability of resources within a team significantly shaped the effectiveness of team promotive voice. When resources were abundant, team members were more willing to invest in voicing suggestions, perceiving the act as less risky and more worthwhile.

To summarise, the literature review of empirical team voice studies shows that socially grounded theories are especially common. The frequency of theories applied in team voice literature is summarised in Figure 3. Based on my literature review, I found that from the 38 empirical studies on team voice, 21 studies did not apply a specific voice-based theory to explain the influence of team voice. Among the remaining studies that did incorporate theory to explain team voice, SIP theory and social exchange theory were the most commonly used, followed by social learning theory, COR theory, regulatory focus theory, social cognitive theory, and transactional theory of stress. The prevalence of social exchange theory, social learning theory and SIP theory across studies highlights the central role of social context and interpersonal dynamics in shaping team voice. Speaking up is not just an individual decision,

but also is enabled or constrained by the surrounding social environment, such as the quality of leader-member relationships, the norms modelled by others, and the shared climate of psychological safety.

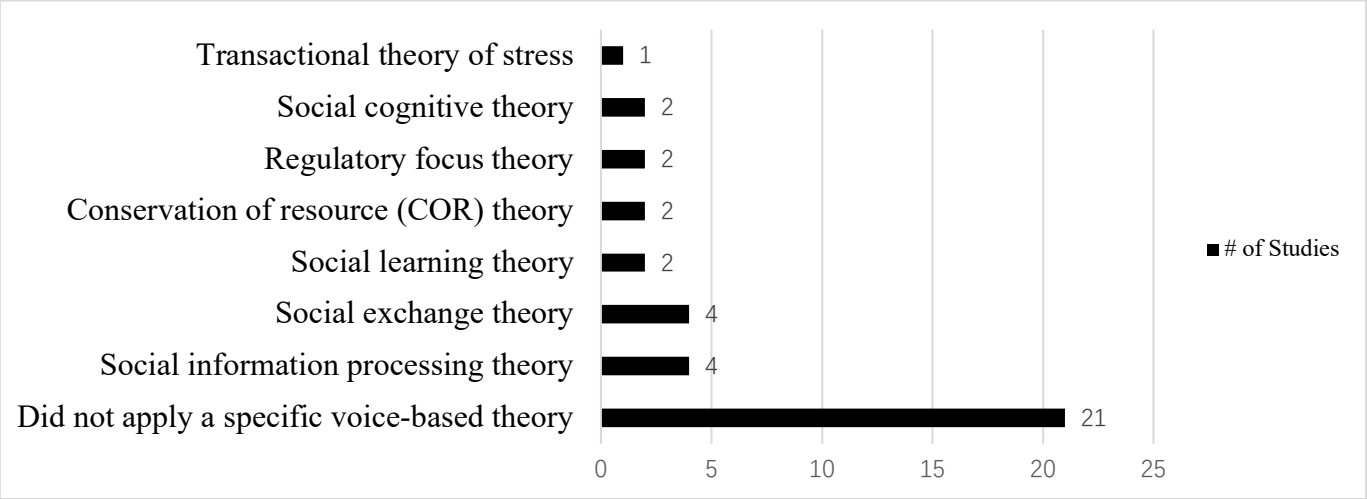

Figure 3. The frequency of theories applied in team voice literature.

1.1.5 Team Voice as a Socially Embedded Phenomenon

The above section reviewed the extant literature on team voice in terms of what we currently know about its nature (content, directionality and different approaches to the measurement of team voice), antecedents and outcomes. The following section focuses on an emerging perspective on team voice based on its broader conceptualisation as a socially embedded process involving complex interactions between team members to influence voice outcomes (Nieberle & Fladerer, 2025; Satterstrom et al., 2021).

As mentioned, to date, the existing literature on team voice has primarily focused on the roles of voicers and leaders within team contexts. Leaders are often viewed as key sources of social information due to their authority over performance evaluations and rewards, and their

ability to endorse or suppress voice (Morrison, 2011). However, this dynamic unfolds within a broader social context that includes other team members, who also play a significant role in shaping voice processes and outcomes (Satterstrom et al., 2021). In contemporary teams, decision-making is increasingly collective, with responsibility for implementing voiced ideas often shared across members. As such, the influence of coworkers is particularly salient. Unlike leaders, team members hold equivalent ranks and interact frequently, giving them ample opportunity to observe each other's behaviours, including expressions of voice (Liu et al., 2022). This raises a critical question: Does the presence of peers encourage individuals to speak up, or does it suppress voice?

There is accumulating evidence that the presence of team members can inhibit speaking up. For example, one stream of research examines the role of team members as bystanders and identifies a "voice bystander effect", where the dissemination of information among team members is inversely correlated with individual accountability for speaking up on issues to management (Hussain et al., 2019). In other words, when everyone knows about an issue, each team member assumes someone else will speak up. This diffusion of responsibility, as outlined by Bickman (1972), is posited to decrease the propensity of employees to speak up about concerns regarding workplace issues. Hussain et al. (2019) found evidence for this phenomenon in both field and experimental studies conducted within the India branch of an electronics company and undergraduate students of a business school in the United States, here employees were significantly less likely to voice a concern that others were also aware of, especially when another team member was perceived to have a close relationship with the

manager (thus offering a direct line for raising issues). In such cases, coworkers function as passive bystanders where their presence paradoxically leads to silence, not because they actively silence others, but because each person believes that “someone else will speak up”.

Another emerging stream of research shows that team members can also actively facilitate and cultivate voice. Here, voice in teams is conceptualised as a collective and dynamic process (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Satterstrom et al. (2021) introduced the concept of voice cultivation, observing how team members serve as allies who assist in the development of voiced ideas to ensure implementation. In their 31-month ethnographic study of a healthcare team, Satterstrom and colleagues highlighted multiple cultivation pathways where the coordinated efforts and presence of team members helped turn initially dismissed voices into implemented changes.

Recent research has further expanded the voice cultivation process by examining how peer responses (i.e., voice amplification) can shape voice outcomes. Voice amplification occurs when a colleague publicly endorses and credits a voiced idea or suggestion, thereby boosting the signal of that voice (Bain et al., 2021). Experimental evidence shows that voice amplification has tangible benefits. Ideas that were amplified by a coworker were perceived by observers as higher in quality than the same ideas without amplification, and both the original voicer and the coworker who amplified the idea gained higher status in the group as a result of this exchange (Bain et al., 2019). Furthermore, Brykman and Raver (2023) extended the social perspective by examining how peer endorsement and peer opposition on digital platforms influence managerial enactment of voice. They found that high-quality voice

messages were more likely to receive peer endorsement, and in turn, these endorsements acted as persuasive cues for managers to implement the ideas (Brykman & Raver, 2023). Moreover, the relationship between peer endorsement and voice enactment was moderated by peer opposition; messages that received both high endorsement and low opposition were most likely to be enacted (Brykman & Raver, 2023).

These perspectives illustrate that the impact of other team members on voice is two-sided. The mere presence of colleagues can be a double-edged sword. If those team members remain passive or assume someone else will raise concerns, the voice bystander effect may set in, and important issues go unvoiced (Hussain et al., 2019). On the other hand, if team members actively engage with the issue by showing support, repeating and building on the idea, they can dramatically increase the chances that the voice is heard and leads to change (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Thus, whether the presence of others is "good or bad" for voice depends on other team members. This highlights the need to continue to advance knowledge on the interactive and collective processes in shaping voice outcomes and the participative aspect of team members in the voice process, which extends the traditional focus solely on initial voicers or authority figures.

1.2 Overview of Thesis

Despite growing recognition of the inherently social nature of team voice, the existing literature on team voice is largely theoretically fragmented and empirically narrow. As evident from the literature review (Section 1.1), there is a need to extend knowledge on voice

beyond voice as a series of isolated individual acts influenced by formal authority, toward a more complex and holistic understanding of voice as a dynamic, socially embedded process. The overall aim of this thesis is to offer new insights and to contribute to a deeper, socially grounded understanding of team voice as not merely an individual act but a collective process shaped by the actions, reactions and relationships among team members. There are three key research questions:

Research Question 1: Do promotive and prohibitive forms of team voice differentially impact team outcomes?

The aim of Study 1, reported in Chapter 2, is to provide the first meta-analysis of team voice to deepen our understanding of whether there are differential effects associated with prohibitive and promotive team voice on team outcomes and their precursors. In this study, I build on Chamberlin et al.'s (2017) meta-analytic review of employee voice at the individual level to extend knowledge on how team promotive and team prohibitive voice might differentially influence team outcomes. At the individual level, Chamberlin and colleagues reported a positive correlation between individual promotive voice and job performance and a negative correlation between individual prohibitive voice and job performance. Given that the risks associated with prohibitive and promotive team voice are diffused across team members within groups/teams (which differs from the individual-level risks), the patterns of team prohibitive versus promotive voice on team performance might differ from individual-level findings. However, while research has documented differential patterns of findings for promotive and prohibitive voice at the individual level, it remains unclear and untested

whether patterns relating to prohibitive and promotive voice will replicate or diverge in team contexts. By meta-analysing both the antecedents and outcomes of team voice and its prohibitive and promotive content, I aim to synthesize current knowledge on team voice using a social framework and examine nuances in its conceptualisation and operationalisation across the diverse approaches, such as voice content (e.g., prohibitive, promotive), direction (e.g., upward, horizontal), method of measurement (e.g., referent shift, additive composition), and source of rating (e.g., team member ratings, leader ratings). Theoretically, in Chapter 2, I draw on Social Information Process (SIP) theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) to meta-analytically test an integrative theoretical model of team voice (differentiating between its promotive and prohibitive forms) as a key mechanism transferring the influence of team social context on team outcomes.

Research Question 2: How do voice allies and resistors influence the team voice and team outcomes?

In Chapter 2, I present Study 2 which is a deeper investigation into the context of teams and how team members can play different roles to influence team voice and team outcomes. Specifically, I integrated SIP theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and Satterstrom et al.'s (2021) theory on the voice cultivation process to better understand how voice allies and resistors influence team voice and team wellbeing outcomes. I also investigated the specific tactics used by team members when engaging in allyship or resistance (e.g., legitimising, developing, avoiding and opposing). To achieve this, I designed an experimental study involving 692 participants working across 128 teams. Participants were divided into three

experimental conditions (i.e., voice allyship groups, voice resistance groups, and control groups) to systematically evaluate the effects of these roles on team voice outcomes, such as team voice, team silence, voice resilience, team satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect. This study's findings highlight the different roles team members play and the various tactics used to encourage or hinder overall voice and how these behaviours shape the team's collective experience in cultivating and sustaining voice.

Research Question 3: What is the influence of enacting voice allyship and resistance on allies' and resistors' emotional wellbeing and future voice behaviour?

In Chapter 4, I present my third and final empirical study to investigate how being a voice ally or resistor affects the person in that role. Drawing on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), this study examines the potential personal costs or benefits of engaging in voice allyship or voice resistance. COR theory suggests that individuals have finite emotional and cognitive resources and choose how to invest those resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Supporting or opposing a voiced idea can impact one's own wellbeing and future capacity to act. In Study 3, I surveyed employees based in the United Kingdom and the United States, recruited via Prolific, about their experiences acting as allies or resistors in their teams and measured two key outcomes for allies and resistors, that is, their emotional exhaustion and willingness to engage in future voice. The findings from this study contribute new insights on the resource implications of supporting or resisting others' voices, such as whether engaging these behaviours can deplete (or replenish) an individual's emotional resources as well as their future willingness to speak up.

Overall, this thesis aims to advance understanding of team voice from a socially embedded perspective. It comprises three studies: a meta-analysis of team voice (Study 1), an experimental investigation of the effects of voice allies and resistors on team outcomes (Study 2), and a study examining the personal consequences for individuals who support or resist voice (Study 3). Collectively, these studies contribute to a deeper understanding of how voice emerges, is shaped by social interactions, and is sustained within team contexts. While previous research has largely emphasised the influence of leaders, this work shifts focus to the role of peers. It moves beyond simply assessing whether team members endorse or oppose voiced suggestions to examine how they actively shape the emergence, expression, and evolution of voice within the team. Furthermore, it explores how taking on roles as voice allies or resistors impacts individuals' own experiences and wellbeing. By moving beyond the traditional dyadic lens that centres on interactions between employees and formal leaders, this thesis seeks to provide a more holistic and socially grounded account of team voice as a dynamic, relational process embedded in everyday team interactions. Figure 4 presents the overarching conceptual framework.

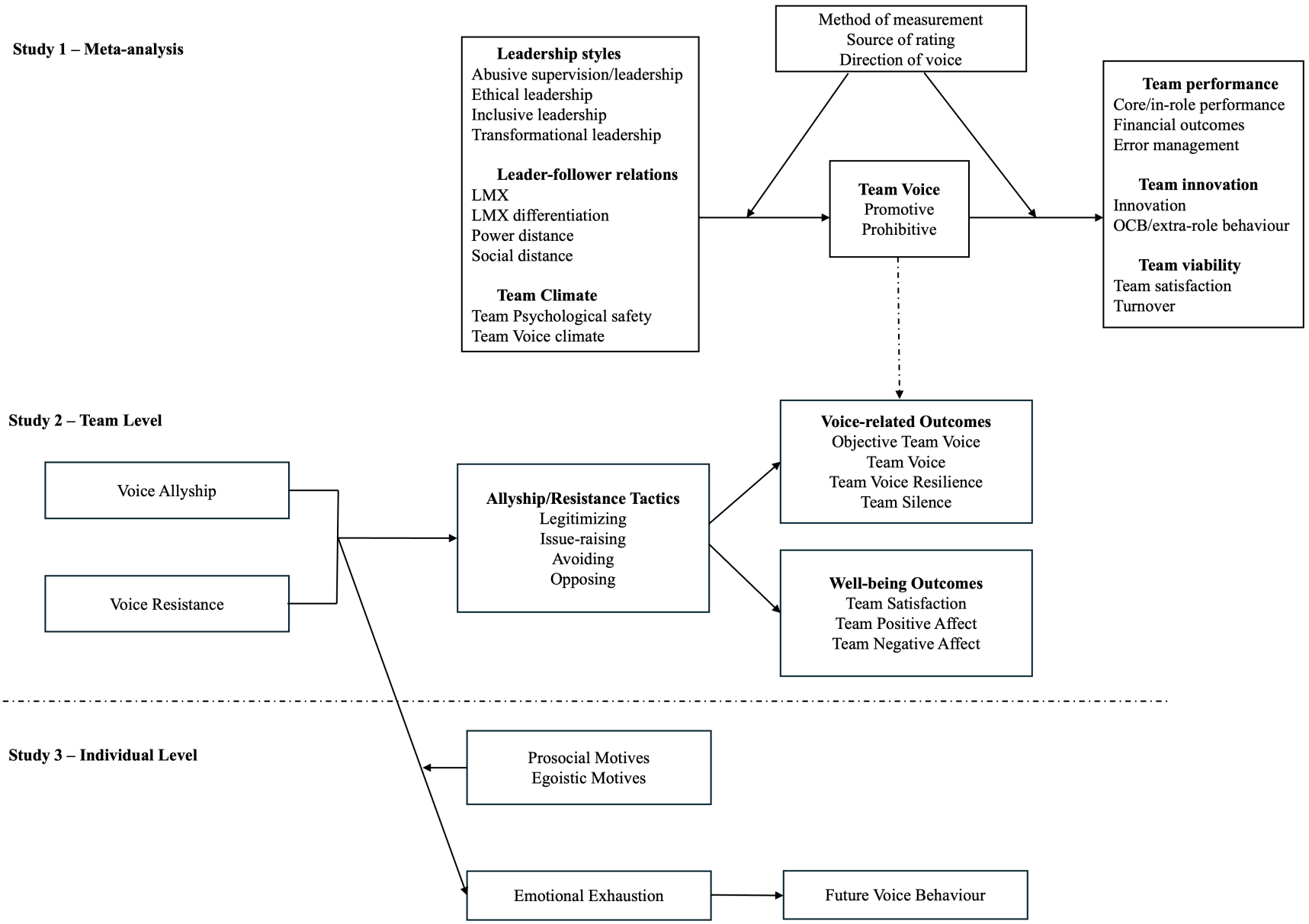

Figure 4. Conceptual framework integrating Studies 1-3.

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Appendix A. AI-Assisted Visualisation

The table below outlines selected milestones in the evolution of voice research, used as the basis for Figure 1.

Figure 1 was generated with the assistance of OpenAI's ChatGPT-4o, which was used to convert the tabular data into a timeline-style visualization with the prompt "Please generate a timeline figure with a horizontal time axis based on the following table, showing key developments in the voice literature, including authors, years, and main contributions".

Year	Author(s)	Contribution
1998	Van Dyne & LePine	First to define voice as distinct extra-role behaviour
2000	Morrison & Milliken	Introduced organisational silence theory; key conceptual divergence from voice
2005	Detert & Edmondson	Established psychological safety as a core antecedent of voice
2007	Detert & Burris	Examined leader openness as a key antecedent of voice
2012	Liang et al.	Empirically distinguished promotive vs. prohibitive voice behaviours
2014	Maynes & Podsakoff	Proposed multidimensional voice typology: supportive, constructive, defensive, destructive
2014	Morrison	Comprehensive review of voice and silence literature
2015	Frazier & Bowler	Defined team voice as a group-level construct
2017	Li et al.	Separated team-level promotive and prohibitive voice and their outcomes
2021	Bain et al.	Showed how team members amplify voiced ideas for broader impact
2021	Satterstrom et al.	Proposed the voice cultivation process; emphasized peer influence
2023	Brykman & Raver	Highlighted peer endorsement/opposition in voice implementation
2025	Nieberle & Fladerer	Critical review of voice outcomes for voicers, peers, and managers

Chapter 2. A Literature Review and Meta-Analysis of the Antecedents and Consequences of Team Voice and Its Promotive and Prohibitive Content

Abstract

As organisations increasingly rely on flatter, team-based structures, there is a need to understand how team voice – team members' willingness to speak up with ideas, concerns, or suggestions – can help to drive team success. In this literature review and meta-analysis, I advance knowledge on team voice by investigating how its promotive and prohibitive forms relate to team outcomes. Meta-analytic evidence from empirical studies of team voice shows that both promotive and prohibitive team voice positively contribute to team performance, while promotive voice also enhances team innovation. These team-level findings diverge from individual-level voice meta-analytic results, which show that only promotive voice is positively associated with job performance. I also found meta-analytic evidence for distinctly team-level antecedents of team voice, including leadership styles, leader-follower relations, and team climate as key antecedents to team voice. As part of our integrative team voice model, I also test and find mediating effects of team voice as a critical team process and highlight the moderating influence of methodological approaches (e.g., different rating sources of team voice). By synthesising the extant literature on team voice with its diverse methodologies and conceptual approaches, I offer an initial roadmap for future team voice research to bridge theoretical gaps and enhance methodological rigour in this rapidly evolving field.

Keywords: team voice, meta-analysis, leadership, team climate, team performance

2.1 Introduction

Management scholars have become increasingly interested in employee voice over the last 50 years (Morrison, 2014). The extant body of research, including a number of meta-analyses on individual employee voice (e.g., Chamberlin et al., 2017; Ng & Feldman, 2012) shows that employee voice can enhance performance and productivity (Lam & Mayer, 2014), improve the implementation of innovative ideas (Ng & Feldman, 2012), reduce turnover intentions (Jiang & Yao, 2020), strengthen supervisor-subordinate relationships (Kwon et al., 2016), and increase trust in senior management (Rees et al., 2013). The contemporary nature of work, however, has become increasingly dominated by team structures, and likewise, this shift has been reflected in the voice literature.

Team voice[1] captures collective constructive suggestions for improvement, the sharing of new ideas, and speaking up about existing or potential issues at the group level (Chen et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022; see Table 1 for a summary of team voice definitions). As scholars have argued, team voice is phenomenologically distinct from individual employee voice, which focuses on individual-level expressions, suggestions, or concerns (Detert & Burris, 2007). Numerous studies on team voice have argued and found support suggesting that when groups/teams do not speak up and make suggestions for improvement to processes or procedures, valuable information that could impact organisational effectiveness and performance is lost (e.g., Erez et al. 2002; Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Milliken & Lam, 2009).

[1] Note. within the voice literature, the terms “team voice”, “group voice”, and “unit-level voice” are often used interchangeably. I use team voice in the current meta-analysis.

There is growing evidence that team voice plays a vital role in enabling organisations to harness collaborative units and team-based structures, enhancing team innovation (Li et al., 2017), team satisfaction (Brykman & O'Neill, 2021), and team performance (Walumbwa et al., 2012).

Since the first publication that measured team voice in 2001 (Erez et al., 2002), the field has developed rapidly. However, as numerous scholars have noted, the literature is becoming increasingly fragmented, plagued with substantial conceptual and methodological inconsistencies (Bashshur & Oc, 2015). These discrepancies hinder cumulative knowledge on both the drivers and outcomes of team voice and highlight the need for a synthesised, coherent, evidence-based understanding of team voice. To address this need, this study combines a literature review with a meta-analysis to first examine how team voice is defined and conceptualised within the existing literature. As part of our literature review, I delineate the development of research on team voice, offering a clearer overview of the current body of literature in this domain. In doing so, I clarify what constitutes the content of team voice and unpack the influence of different voice contents, their intended recipients, and the direction it takes within group structures. As part of the meta-analysis, I investigate how different forms of team voice (i.e., promotive vs. prohibitive) relate to team outcomes (e.g., core performance, innovation, Liang et al., 2019; Li & Tangirala, 2022) and synthesise existing knowledge and refine our understanding of the key team-level antecedents that shape team voice. I also evaluate the various methodologies used to measure team voice, including the different sources of rating and aggregation approaches.

Table 1. Summary of Team Voice Definition

Study	Definition	Source
In a team forgiveness climate, the influence of paradoxical thinking of leaders on the team voice behaviour: Mediated by team cooperation (Chen et al., 2022)	Team voice behaviour refers to a concentrated expression of the suggestion behaviour of team members.	Frazier & Bowler, 2015
Higher-quality leader-member exchange (LMX), higher-level voice? The impact of LMX differentiation and LMX mean on promotive and prohibitive team voice (Zhao et al., 2020)	Team voice refers to the extent to which members of a team contribute their concerns, opinions, or constructive suggestions for team improvement.	Guzman and Espejo 2018; Liang et al. 2019
The content of the message matters: The differential effects of promotive and prohibitive team voice on team productivity and safety performance gains (Li et al., 2017)	Team voice refers to communication that members initiate toward one another within the team.	Self
How and when top manager authentic leadership influences team voice: A moderated mediation model (Zheng et al., 2022)	Team voice refers to the extent to which team members as a whole share their concerns, ideas, opinions, and suggestions about work-related issues.	Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Morrison et al., 2011
Beyond aggregation: How voice disparity relates to team conflict, satisfaction, and performance (Brykman & O'Neill, 2021)	The total amount of voice expressed by the team.	Self
Leadership and follower voice: The role of inclusive leadership and group faultlines in promoting collective voice behaviour (Chen et al., 2021)	Group voice is a collective upward expression (i.e., collective voice behaviour in this paper).	Self
Inclusive leadership and team innovation: The role of team voice and performance pressure (Ye et al., 2019)	Team voice is defined as the extent to which members of a team make constructive suggestions for improvement, share new ideas, and discuss problems or potential problems.	Walumbwa et al., 2012
Ethical leadership and group in-role performance: The mediating roles of group conscientiousness and group voice (Walumbwa et al., 2012)	The extent to which members of a workgroup make constructive suggestions for improvement, share new ideas, and speak up about problems or potential problems.	Frazier, 2009
Mean leader-member exchange and team voice: Roles of team task reflexivity and perspective taking (Jiang, 2017)	Work group members making constructive suggestions for improvement to their direct supervisor.	Frazier & Bowler, 2015

Voice climate, supervisor undermining, and work outcomes: A group-level examination (Frazier & Bowler, 2015)	A work group making suggestions for improvement to its direct supervisor.	Frazier & Bowler, 2015
Introducing changes at work: How voice behaviour relates to management innovation (Guzman & Espejo, 2018)	The aggregate level of voice within the unit.	Self
How leader narcissism links to team voice behaviour: The mediating mechanisms of leader voice solicitation and team voice climate (Zhou et al., 2021)	A team's efforts to speak up to challenge the status quo and thereby promote constructive change.	Self
How team voice contributes to team performance: An empirical investigation (He et al., 2021)	The extent to which team members as a whole expressing suggestions, concerns, and ideas about work-related issues.	Li, Liao, Tangirala, & Firth, 2017
Are positive teams more proactive in performing voice behaviour? Influence of core self-evaluations on collective voice (Wang & Hu, 2018)	Collective voice represents a context that is determined by individual voice behaviour and is helpful for team effectiveness.	Self
Empirical analysis of shared leadership promotion and team creativity: An adaptive leadership perspective (Ali et al., 2020)	A type of proactive yet challenging behaviour that involves team members' expression of constructive and innovative suggestions intended to bring about change in the current team situation.	LePine & Van Dyne, 1998
Team-oriented human resource management practices and team voice: A social construction process view (Jeong, 2023)	Team voice, which is the proactive behaviour of team members that generates various valuable ideas and opinions to bring about positive change and development in the organisation.	LePine & Van Dyne, 1998
Slacking off in comfort: A dual-pathway model for psychological safety climate (Deng et al., 2019)	Group voice is a collective risk-taking behaviour from group members to challenge the status quo with the intent of improving a situation.	Detert & Burris, 2007
Managing relationship conflict and the effectiveness of organisational teams (De Dreu & Van Vianen, 2021)	The extent to which members express views and opinions and search for new and alternative methods and strategies to perform the task.	Self
Appreciation that inspires: The impact of leader trait gratitude on team innovation (Li et al., 2021)	Team members' collective engagement in making constructive suggestions or expressing ideas and concerns about work-related issues.	MacKenzie et al., 2011

Since the first publication that measured team voice in 2001 (Erez et al., 2002), the field has developed rapidly. However, as numerous scholars have noted, the literature is becoming increasingly fragmented, plagued with substantial conceptual and methodological inconsistencies (Bashshur & Oc, 2015). These discrepancies hinder cumulative knowledge on both the drivers and outcomes of team voice and highlight the need for a synthesised, coherent, evidence-based understanding of team voice. To address this need, this study combines a literature review with a meta-analysis to first examine how team voice is defined and conceptualised within the existing literature. As part of our literature review, I delineate the development of research on team voice, offering a clearer overview of the current body of literature in this domain. In doing so, I clarify what constitutes the content of team voice and unpack the influence of different voice contents, their intended recipients, and the direction it takes within group structures. As part of the meta-analysis, I investigate how different forms of team voice (i.e., promotive vs. prohibitive) relate to team outcomes (e.g., core performance, innovation, Liang et al., 2019; Li & Tangirala, 2022) and synthesise existing knowledge and refine our understanding of the key team-level antecedents that shape team voice. I also evaluate the various methodologies used to measure team voice, including the different sources of rating and aggregation approaches.

This study makes several important contributions. First and foremost, I build on Chamberlin et al.'s (2017) meta-analytic review of employee voice at the individual level to extend knowledge on how team promotive and team prohibitive voice might differentially influence team outcomes (Guzman & Espejo, 2018; Li et al., 2017; Li & Tangirala, 2022;

Liang et al., 2019; Sessions et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2022). Team prohibitive voice content involves the collective challenging of existing problems or issues about harmful situations, risks, or wrongdoings that need to be addressed (Zhao et al., 2020). It is arguably riskier than team promotive voice, which involves collective voice content to innovate and progress (Zhao et al., 2020). To date, much of what we know about prohibitive versus promotive voice content has been based at the individual level of voice (Chamberlin et al., 2017). At the individual level, Chamberlin and colleagues reported a positive correlation between individual promotive voice and job performance and a negative correlation between individual prohibitive voice and job performance. I suggest that at the team level, because the risks associated with prohibitive and promotive team voice are diffused across team members within groups/teams (which differs from the individual-level risks), patterns of team prohibitive versus promotive voice on team performance might differ from individual-level findings. However, while research has documented differential patterns of findings for promotive and prohibitive voice at the individual level, it remains unclear and untested whether patterns relating to prohibitive and promotive voice will replicate or diverge as I hypothesise in team contexts. I argue that one cannot just extrapolate (lift and shift) from individual voice meta-analyses findings to transfer understanding to team voice and its prohibitive versus promotive forms. Indeed, there is ample evidence that shared beliefs have incremental predictive value *beyond* individual-level perceptions (e.g., Liao & Rupp, 2005; Morrison et al., 2011) and that group-level effects can *differ* from those associated with an individual's perception of the phenomena (Gibson, 2001).

As a second important contribution of this study, I synthesise and critically evaluate the diverse methodologies and conceptual approaches to investigating team voice, offering a roadmap for future research to bridge theoretical gaps and enhance methodological rigour in this evolving field. As part of this meta-analysis, I evaluate how different conceptualizations of team voice, such as voice content (e.g., promotive, prohibitive), direction (e.g., upward, horizontal), method of measurement (e.g., additive composition, referent shift), and source of rating (e.g., team member ratings, leader ratings).

A final contribution that this study makes is in providing an integrative, organising framework for understanding the antecedents and consequences of team voice (see Figure 5). Building on theoretical perspectives that the social context provides cues that guide employees on appropriate attitudes to adopt and behaviours that are socially expected and accepted (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Zhou et al., 2021), I propose social factors (leadership styles, leader-follower relations, and team climate) in the team context function as signals to team members about whether voice is necessary and welcomed within those teams, therefore influencing the extent to which team members engage in voice. As the act of voicing within the team is a social and contextual cue (Salancik et al., 1978), I propose, as part of our integrative conceptual model, that team voice, in turn, influences the adoption of collective actions that impact team outcomes.

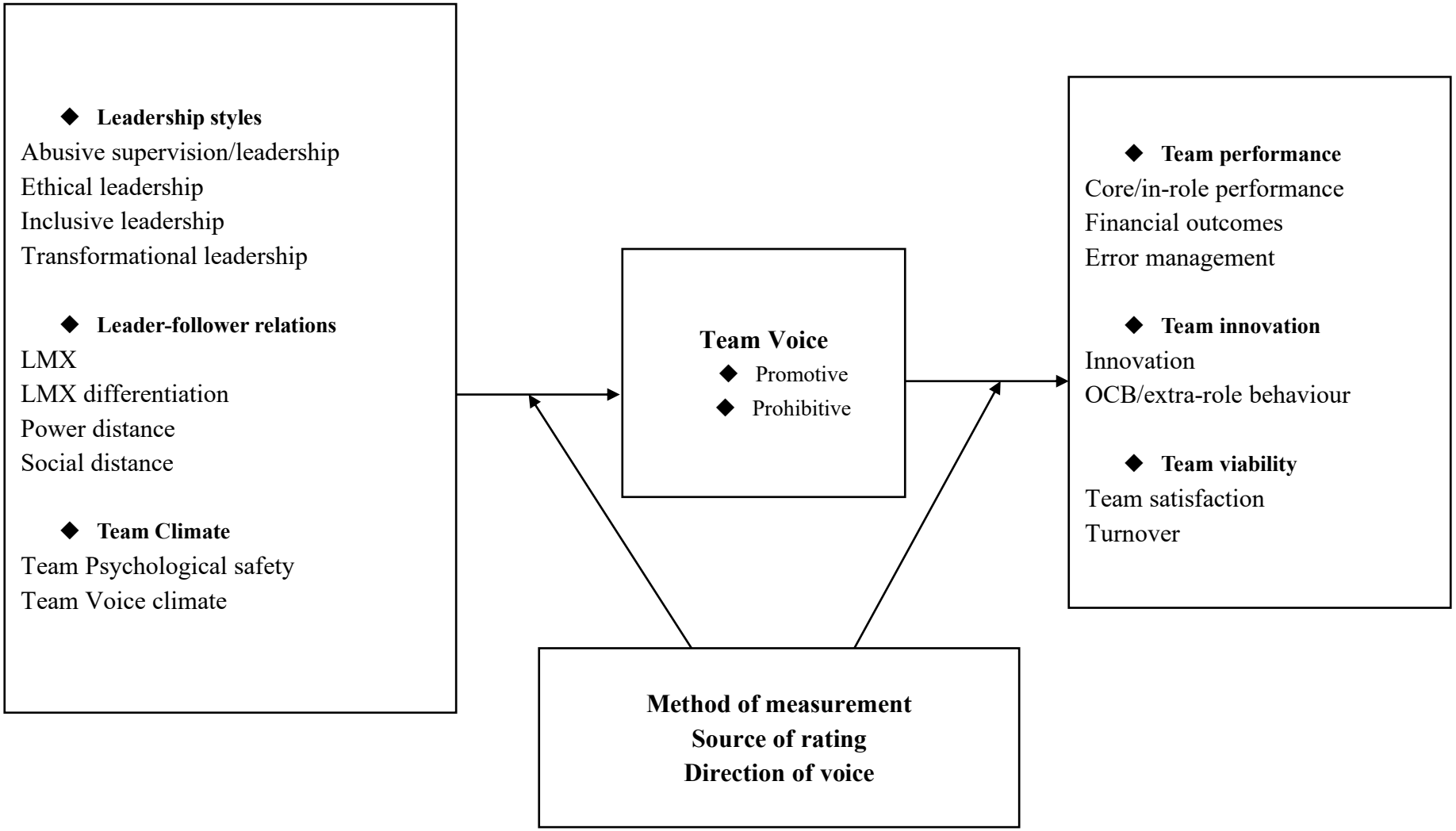

Figure 5. Theoretical model of team voice.

2.2 Theoretical Background of Team Voice

The development of the team voice literature is rooted in the individual voice literature and emphasises the expression of ideas, suggestions, thoughts, opinions, and inputs by team members. (Liang et al., 2019). As shown in Table 2, prior meta-analytic reviews of employee voice have only focused on individual voice. Unlike individual voice, team voice occurs at a group level, which is a shared feature across common definitions of team voice. There are, however, variations in the definition and labelling of the construct, with terms including "team voice", "group voice", and "unit-level voice" used in the literature. The distinct nature of team voice, rooted in its team-level dynamics, diverse targets, and collective aggregation, necessitates a theoretical framework beyond individual-level paradigms.

As summarised in Table 3, studies on team voice vary in their approach to aggregation. Dome studies adopt an additive composition approach by aggregating individual-level ratings (e.g., from team members or leaders), while others use a referent-shift approach that treats voice as a collective team-level construct. These studies also differ in the source of voice ratings, including team members and team leaders.

Conceptualisations of team voice also differ in the content of the voice specified. While most studies have conceptualised team voice as a generalised concept reflecting the extent to which team members as a whole share their concerns, ideas, opinions, and suggestions (e.g., Grant et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2015), others have differentiated between different *content* of team voice, such as team promotive and prohibitive voice (e.g., Guzman et al.,

Table 2. Summary of Existing Employee Voice Meta-analyses

Author	Title	Topic	Level
Ng & Feldman, 2012	Employee voice behaviour: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources framework	This study takes a conservation of resources perspective to examine the relationships among workplace stress, voice behaviour, and job performance.	Individual-level voice studies
Chamberlin et al., 2017	A meta-analysis of voice and its promotive and prohibitive forms: Identifications of key associations, distinctions, and future research directions	The study draws on Morrison's (2014) theoretical framework to specify associations among voice and a full array of voice correlates studied by scholars over the last several decades and conducts meta-analyses of existing primary research to explore these associations.	Individual-level voice studies
Zare & Flinchbaugh, 2019	Voice, creativity, and big five personality traits: A meta-analysis	The authors use a meta-analytic approach to examine the antecedents (personality) of voice and creativity and to test potential boundary conditions that might exist in these relationships.	Include one team-level voice (Walumbwa et al., 2012)
Chamberlin et al., 2018	A meta-analysis of empowerment and voice as transmitters of high-performance managerial practices to job performance	Drawing on social cognitive theory, the study proposes that high-performance managerial practices also influence performance because these practices encourage employees to engage in voice. Additionally, the study suggests that empowerment and voice together provide a more complete explanation for why high-performance managerial practices and job performance are linked.	Individual-level voice studies
Ruan & Chen, 2021	Relationship between organizational identification and employee voice: A meta-analysis	The study conducts a meta-analysis of 40 empirical studies associated with organisational identification and employee voice, and also analyses cultural context, education level, common method variance, and the measurement scale used in each study as moderators of the relationship between organisational identification and employee voice.	Individual-level voice studies
Zhao & Luan, 2022	Could transformational leadership predict employee voice behaviour? Evidence from a meta-analysis	This meta-analysis aims to clarify the relationship between transformational leadership and voice behaviour.	Individual-level voice studies
Zhao & Wu, 2022	The relationship between leadership styles and employee voice behaviour: A meta-analysis based on random-effects model	This meta-analysis synthesises research on the relation between leadership styles (Including transformational, transactional, ethical, authentic, charismatic, servant and inclusive) and employee voice behaviour.	Didn't provide study references

Table 3. Literature Matrix of Method of Measurement and Source of Rating

		Method of measurement	
		Additive composition approach	Team referent shift approach
Source of rating	Team members	Brykman & O'Neill, 2021; Detert et al., 2013; Erez et al., 2002; Guzman & Espejo, 2018; He et al., 2021; Jeong, 2023; Khan et al., 2022; Lam & Mayer, 2014; Li & Tangirala, 2022; Li et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2019; Sessions et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2020	Ali et al., 2020; Babalola et al., 2021; Li et al., 2017; Podsakoff et al., 2015; Walumbwa et al., 2012; Wang & Hu, 2018
	Team leaders	Feng et al., 2023; Jiang, 2017; Liu et al., 2017; McClean et al., 2013; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009; Zhao et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021	Babalola et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022; De Dreu & Van Vianen, 2001; Deng et al., 2019; Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Huang & Paterson, 2017; Kim & Vandenberghe, 2020; MacKenzie et al., 2011; Ye et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2022

2018; Sessions et al., 2020). In the team context, *team promotive voice* captures team members expressing ideas to enhance existing work protocols for the collective benefit of the team or organisation. Team promotive voice is promotion-focused, with the potential to inspire other team members to explore new possibilities and innovations that have not been previously considered (Liang et al., 2012). When more team members engage in promotive voice, the team collectively becomes more energised, fostering an aspirational drive to achieve higher standards of excellence, maximize potential gains, and avoid missed opportunities (Lin & Johnson, 2015). On the other hand, *team prohibitive voice* involves team members voicing concerns and issues regarding practices that could potentially harm the team or organisation (Liang et al., 2012; Sessions et al., 2020). Team prohibitive voice is prevention-focused, as team members aim to prevent harmful consequences and safeguard the team stability and long-term performance.

In this study, I extend Chamberlin et al. (2017) and Morrison et al. (2011)'s foundational insights into voice at the individual level to the team context to better understand the socially embedded processes governing team voice. Specifically, I draw on Social Information Processing (SIP) theory as an overarching framework to understand how shared interpretations of norms, risks, and opportunities shape individual perceptions and behaviours (Salancik et al., 1978).

2.3 Consequences of Team Promotive and Prohibitive Voice on Team Outcomes

According to SIP, team voice not only emerges in response to social group cues, but also serves as a cue itself, directing attention and influencing collective action (He et al., 2021). I argue that when teams engage in voice, they legitimise the voiced ideas and direct the team's collective focus toward the issues raised. This increases the likelihood that these ideas are not only heard but also enacted (Festinger, 1957; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Over time, these patterns result in refined processes that strengthen the team's commitment to act on voiced suggestions aligned with improvement and problem-solving (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). In contrast, as argued by Frazier and Bowler (2015), "when groups do not speak up and make suggestions for improvement to processes or procedures, valuable information that could impact organisational effectiveness is lost (p. 849). This process helps explain the positive link between team voice and a range of important team outcomes, including team performance, team innovation and team viability.

2.3.1 Team Performance

In terms of the link between team voice and team performance, in general, I argue that teams marked by higher levels of voice can gain more information and insights, as well as different perspectives. Information stemming from higher levels of team voice can be used to enhance existing processes or tackle work-related challenges to improve team performance (He et al., 2021; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Team voice can, therefore, generally enhance performance by fostering an environment where feedback and ideas are freely exchanged,

leading to optimised problem-solving and decision-making processes. Moreover, in environments where team voice is prevalent, issues that could impede performance are more readily identified and addressed through communication, facilitating timely resolutions and fostering high performance (He et al., 2021).

However, studies have shown that the pattern of relationships between voice and job performance varies depending on the content of the voice. In a meta-analysis of individual promotive versus prohibitive voice, Chamberlin et al (2017) found a positive correlation between promotive voice and job performance and a *negative* correlation with prohibitive voice at the individual level. As prohibitive voice content typically highlights existing or potential harmful situations, risks, or wrongdoings within the organisation that need to be addressed to prevent costs and mitigate further problems (Li et al., 2017), the voicing of prohibitive content is likely to create interpersonal tension and be perceived as criticism rather than constructive input which can then negatively relate to job performance (Chamberlin et al., 2017).

At the team level, I propose that the pattern of relationships between team promotive and team prohibitive voice on team performance might differ from individual-level findings. As numerous scholars have noted, when prohibitive issues or concerns are expressed collectively, the diffusion of responsibility can reduce the likelihood that any single individual will be held accountable (Wallach et al., 1964). By virtue of having more 'safety in numbers' (Palley, 1995), there is inherently less interpersonal risk associated with the identification of problems and concerns by a group/team, as individuals themselves are less

susceptible to being scapegoated for raising concerns. Prior research has shown that individuals are more reluctant to voice concerns when they feel individually isolated or unsupported in doing so (Milliken et al., 2003). Shared voice may alleviate fear of negative consequences. The 'power in numbers' arguments suggest it may be more difficult to ignore the collective expression of concerns and issues, which can prompt leaders to consider these voiced more seriously (Chen et al., 2021; Walumbwa et al., 2012). Team prohibitive voice can also be seen as a preventative signal that prompts ongoing identification and rectification of issues within the team. This is consistent with theorising that team prohibitive voice exerts its influence via team reflexivity by enabling members to critically evaluate current work processes and solve problems (Liang et al., 2019). By focusing on risk prevention and the rectification of problems, I argue that both team promotive and prohibitive voice contribute to enhancing team performance, especially in safety and risk management, as documented by Li et al. (2017). Therefore, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Team promotive and prohibitive voice are positively related to team performance.

2.3.2 Team Innovation

In terms of team innovation, defined as the generation and implementation of ideas, processes, products or procedures that are novel to the team and intended to enhance its functioning and effectiveness (Van der Voet & Steijn, 2021), I propose that team promotive voice is particularly important as it is future-oriented and generally positive tone. When team members express ideas and suggestions through promotive voice, teams in turn are likely to

interpret the team promotive voice as a signal to pursue new possibilities and innovations. In support, Guzman and Espejo (2018) found a positive relationship between team promotive voice and management innovation. Promotive voice content not only enhances the sharing of new knowledge and ideas among team members (Ye et al., 2019) but also fosters a fertile environment for creativity and novel solutions by enabling members to consider new factors and integrate different perspectives to innovate (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2001; Ye et al., 2019). As theorised by Liang et al. (2019), team promotive voice operates through the mechanism of team knowledge utilisation, which involves members suggesting new ideas to improve their team's work, helping to explore how different types of knowledge can be integrated to boost innovation (Liang et al., 2019). Such forward-looking proposals represent a form of exploratory knowledge creation, and by introducing heterogeneous information into the team context, this type of voice activates cognitive diversity and encourages members to transcend the constraints of local optima. This type of promotive voice content differs from the influence of prohibitive voice; the latter is underpinned by team reflexivity, which functions more as a negative feedback mechanism in the innovation process, with the potential to convert potential risks into opportunities for process refinement and organisational learning. I propose that while both team promotive and prohibitive voice can contribute to innovation, team promotive voice is likely to have a stronger impact, as it initiates the ideation and forward thinking more directly relevant to creative breakthroughs. Therefore, I propose the following.

Hypothesis 2: Team promotive and prohibitive voice are positively related to team innovation; however, team promotive voice has a stronger positive relationship with team innovation than team prohibitive voice.

2.3.3 Team Viability

Team viability, which encompasses team members' satisfaction, participation, and willingness to continue working together (Sundstrom et al., 1990), is critically enhanced by team voice. Higher team voice is characterised by open and honest communication across team members. As such, soliciting diverse perspectives allows team members to develop team alignment and cohesion. Team voice can improve engagement and satisfaction within the team by facilitating constructive conflict resolution with members actively engaging and participating in information-sharing and decision-making processes (Brykman & O'Neill, 2021). By promoting an environment where team voice is encouraged and valued, team members engage with processes and develop a mutual understanding among team members, to enhance satisfaction, long-term viability, and success. Specifically, team promotive voice enhances team viability by fostering psychological safety and collective efficacy. When team members proactively offer innovative ideas, such as optimising workflows or suggesting new strategies, this open exchange strengthens their sense of belonging and shared purpose. Team prohibitive voice also contributes to team viability by preventing potential crises. When members raise concerns, such as ethical risks or inefficiencies, this form of critical feedback helps reduce the accumulation of negative emotions. Although prohibitive voice may initially trigger discomfort or tension, when handled appropriately, it can ultimately reinforce the

confidence of the entire team in problem-solving and its capacity to adapt. Therefore, I propose the following.

Hypothesis 3: Team promotive and prohibitive voice are positively related to team viability.

2.4 Leadership and Team Climate as Key Antecedents of Team Voice

As noted above, one of the key aims of this study is to extend Chamberlin et al. (2017) and Morrison et al. (2011)'s foundational insights into voice at the individual level to the team context to better understand the socially embedded processes governing team voice. I also draw on SIP theory as an overarching framework to understand the social and contextual antecedents of team voice. Central to the SIP perspective is the idea that team members rely on cues from their environment, including interpersonal interactions, observed behaviours, and collective responses, to interpret the appropriateness and potential consequences of speaking up. Within teams and groups, there are two potent sources of social cues: the first relates to leadership (including positive and negative leadership styles; Chen et al., 2021; Walumbwa et al., 2012, and leader-follower relations; Ali et al., 2020; Babalola et al., 2021), and the second relates to the team climate (including the voice climate; Zhou et al., 2021; and team psychological safety; Deng et al., 2019).

2.4.1 Leadership

Leadership plays a critical role as a prominent source of social information (Priesemuth et al., 2014). With over 90% of employees indicating that leaders play a role in influencing

their voice (Detert & Trevino, 2010), leaders are instrumental in shaping the workplace environment as "climate engineers" (Zhou et al., 2021, p.3). Leaders provide strong signals and cues to employees about the appropriateness and consequences of voice (Detert & Trevino, 2010), thus influencing the extent to which members engage in team voice. This is reflected across studies examining relational leadership (Wang et al., 2022), ethical leadership (Huang & Paterson, 2017), abusive supervision (Feng et al., 2023), leader agreeableness, conscientiousness and neuroticism (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), leader narcissism (Liu et al., 2017) and leader's humble behaviour (Li et al., 2021).

2.4.1.1 Leadership styles

Consistent with Schermuly et al. (2022), I use the term "leadership styles" as an umbrella term to include both positive leadership styles (e.g., ethical leadership, transformational leadership, and inclusive leadership) and negative leadership styles (e.g., abusive supervision). Leaders are a critical source of information about voice-related behaviours in teams. In the case of abusive leadership, which captures normatively inappropriate behaviour that contradicts moral standards and the social norms of fair treatment (Babalola et al., 2021), leaders' actions likely signal that voice is risky and discouraged, thus leading to the suppression of team voice. These low-quality social interactions can inhibit open communication and reduce the frequency of voice behaviours, as team members may feel disconnected from leaders. On the other hand, high-quality social interactions between leaders and team members are characteristic of positive forms of leadership styles such as ethical (demonstrated through leaders' actions and interactions; Brown et al., 2005; Huang &

Paterson, 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2012), transformational (which involves inspiring and motivating the team with a compelling vision; Bass et al., 2003; Schaubroeck et al., 2007; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2012;), and inclusive leadership (focused on openness, accessibility, and availability in interactions with team members, Chen et al., 2021). Positive leadership serves as a salient social cue that supports and emphasises the value of team member voice. These high-quality social interactions likely promote an environment where employees feel more comfortable and are encouraged to share their thoughts and ideas, leading team members to engage in more voice behaviours. Therefore, I propose the following.

Hypothesis 4: Leadership styles (positive and negative leadership styles) are significantly related to team voice.

2.4.1.2 Leader-follower relations

Leader-follower relations refer to the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers, emphasising the significance of both parties within the dynamic (Einola & Alvesson, 2019). Social information within organisations is often structured not only around individual categories but also significantly through relationships (Fiske, 1991). The perceptions, emotions, and actions of individuals are profoundly shaped by their interactions and relationships with others (Campbell et al., 2008). The study discusses three main types of leader-follower relations: leader-member exchange (LMX), social distance, and power distance.

LMX is conceptualised as the relationship quality that a team leader develops with the team as a whole (Jiang, 2017; Nishii & Mayer, 2009), ranging from high-quality to low-quality exchanges. In teams with high-quality LMX relationships, leaders foster strong social bonds and meet the needs of team members, creating a psychologically safe environment with minimal social stress (Epitropaki et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2020). In contrast, in teams with low-quality LMX relationships, leaders and members often lack trust and support, leading to a stressful environment with poor communication.

Social distance, which is captured as social interactions, is perceived to relate to closeness and connectedness between leaders and team members (Babalola et al., 2021). When social interactions are high, subordinates feel a greater sense of intimacy and understanding of their leaders. These frequent interactions promote an environment where employees feel more comfortable and are encouraged to share their thoughts and ideas. Conversely, few social interactions might inhibit open communications and reduce the frequency of voice behaviours, as team members may feel disconnected from leaders, particularly in more structured/rigid hierarchical setups.

Power distance refers to the degree of inequality in power between a less powerful individual and a more powerful other (Kim & Vandenberghe, 2020). In a high-power distance culture, the authority of leaders is considered legitimate, and the ability of leaders to influence subordinates might be stronger than in a low-power distance culture (Kim & Vandenberghe, 2020). In other words, in a culture with high power distance, team members are less likely to challenge authority and more likely to accept decisions from the top without

questioning. According to SIP theory, in low power distance and intimate environments, where equality is emphasised and hierarchical boundaries are less pronounced, employees receive signals that encourage sharing opinions and challenging the status quo without fear of reprisal. However, in a team with more unequal power and less intimate relationships, team members perceive the environment as risky and inappropriate to speak up against a higher authority. Therefore, I propose the following.

Hypothesis 5: Leader-follower relations (LMX, social distance, and power distance) are significantly related to team voice.

2.4.2 Team Climate

Team climate refers to the shared perceptions among team members about which behaviours are expected, supported, and rewarded within the team context (Anderson & West, 1998; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). Team climate emerges from repeated social interactions and sensemaking processes in which members exchange information about how voice-related behaviours are interpreted and responded to (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). This shared understanding becomes embedded in the team's climate and, over time, shapes both the frequency and quality of voice behaviours. In this way, climate acts as a conduit for social information, reinforcing norms and shaping collective behaviour (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Zhou et al., 2021). In this study, I focus on team psychological safety climate and voice climate as both reflect shared beliefs that the team is safe for interpersonal risk-taking behaviours, such as voice (Chen et al., 2021; Edmondson, 1999). This collective perception of reduced risk in taking interpersonal risks can reduce the team's fear of speaking up.

According to SIP, shared perceptions of psychological safety signal the relative safety of voice-related behaviours within the team, thereby encouraging team voice (Deng et al., 2019). Voice climate captures shared perceptions and norms about speaking up at work (Frazier & Bowler, 2015). According to SIP, teams with strong voice climates likely signal to team members that voice behaviour is expected, supported, and rewarded in the workplace (Lovelace et al., 2001; Morrison, 2014; Zhou et al., 2021). This, consequently, sets the norms regarding voice-related behaviours in the team, leading to higher levels of team voice. Therefore, I propose the following.

Hypothesis 6: Team climate is significantly related to team voice

2.5 Exploration of an Integrative Model of Team Voice and Boundary Conditions

As part of our integrative theoretical model, I test the potential role of team voice as a mediator in the relationships between the team antecedents (leadership and team climate) and team outcomes. According to SIP theory, individuals in a team context rely heavily on cues from their immediate social surroundings to interpret events, ascertain expected behaviours, and align their actions with what is socially endorsed (Lam & Mayer, 2014; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Furthermore, the team not only shapes perceptions of voice, which affects how much members choose to speak up, but also guides evaluations and decisions that arise from those voiced contributions (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Accordingly, the social context that influences voice also influences the consequences associated with the voiced ideas. This

theoretical framework suggests that team voice might mediate between team antecedents (i.e., leadership and team climate) and team consequences (i.e., team performance, team innovation, and team viability). This leads to our first research question.

Research question 1: Does team voice mediate the relationships between antecedents and consequences of team voice?

In the present meta-analysis, I also explore three potential boundary conditions for the effects of team voice. The first relates to the target of team voice. As discussed, studies of team voice have included different targets for the expression of team voice, such as whether the team voice is primarily directed towards team leaders (upward team voice), directed to other team members (lateral team voice) or to the whole team inclusive of the team leader (combining upward and lateral team voice). When voice is directed primarily towards team leaders, it can reinforce hierarchical structures within the team, emphasising the role of leaders in decision-making and problem-solving processes (Pfrombeck et al., 2022). Conversely, when team voice is shared among the entire team, including both leaders and members, it can promote a more inclusive and democratic form of communication (Satterstrom et al., 2021). This flow facilitates a sense of collective responsibility and empowerment, as all members are encouraged to contribute ideas and feedback.

The second potential moderator relates to the measurement approach used. In the additive composition approach, survey items are crafted with the individual as the focal point of action. An example item might be, “I developed and made recommendations concerning issues that affect this work team.” Responses from individual team members are then

aggregated, either by averaging or summing, to gauge the overall team voice. This method captures the average level of individual voice within teams to understand team voice (Zhao et al., 2020). However, it may not fully capture the synergistic qualities or emergent phenomena of team voice that arise from the unique interactions and dynamics of the team collectively. In contrast, in the team referent shift approach, survey items are structured with the entire team as the subject of action. For example, "The team speaks up with ideas for new projects." This method is beneficial for understanding how team voice is perceived at the team level (Zhao et al., 2020). However, this approach overlooks the frequency of contributions and how each team member's voice contributes to overall team dynamics. In this meta-analysis, I considered whether meta-analytic effects differed in terms of the way team voice was measured and posed the following research question.

Finally, I examine whether meta-analytic effects varied as a function of the "rater" of team voice. Team voice can be assessed through self-ratings by team members or by evaluations by team leaders. Assessments via team members provide an insider's perspective of interactions and communication within the team, and internal perceptions of team voice behaviour. However, self-ratings may be influenced by personal biases, leading individuals to possibly overestimate their own or the team's overall contribution due to factors such as social desirability or a lack of objectivity (Podsakoff et al, 2015). On the other hand, assessments through team leaders offer an overall assessment of team voice from a broader perspective. While leaders can provide more comprehensive evaluations of the team's collective voice, leaders are often not privy to all aspects of team interactions and can miss

significant aspects of voice only apparent to team members. Therefore, both sources of rating are valuable. In support of this, meta-analytic findings demonstrated that the overlap between self- and other ratings is moderate and positive (Lee & Carpenter, 2018), indicating that both rating sources provide unique information (Kass et al., 2024).

Overall, in considering the potential moderating role of three conditions: (i) the target of team voice, (ii) the method of measurement of team voice, and (iii) the source of rating of team voice, I pose our final research question.

Research question 2: Does the target of team voice, method of measurement and source of rating moderate the relationships between team voice and its antecedents or consequences?

2.6 Method

2.6.1 Eligibility Criteria

In conducting this review, I used the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement as a guide (http://www.prismastatement.org/; Moher et al., 2009). Quantitative studies were eligible for inclusion in this review if they 1) included team voice or related constructs (e.g., communication as a focal variable; 2) reported sample sizes and correlations, or sufficient statistical results to calculate a correlation coefficient or effect size, linking team voice with an antecedent and/or consequence variable; 3) were written in English.

2.6.2 Literature Search and Screening

I conducted a systematic literature review of the literature on the topic of team voice, including studies and datasets up to 2023. To capture team voice as well as related constructs, I used a variety of keywords. These keywords included “employee”, “member”, “team”, “group”, “leader”, “follower”, “co-worker”, “peer”, “supervisor”, “bystander”, “staff”, “subordinates”, “speak up”, and “voice”. Our search spanned multiple relevant databases, including Web of Science, Business Source Ultimate, ABI/INFORM, and PsycINFO. I also searched for relevant unpublished studies in the Academy of Management Proceedings. Our literature search resulted in 51,347 articles that potentially met our criteria for inclusion in the meta-analysis.

I then used the Covidence software (www.covidence.org) to screen papers in two stages. First, following PRISMA guidelines (Moher et al., 2009), two screeners independently assessed paper titles and abstracts. In this phase, I retained articles that involved voice behaviour-related constructs, as indicated by the title and abstract, and that were in English. This title and abstract screening phase reduced the potentially relevant number of articles to 1,739.

Next, I conducted the full-text screening phase. Here, two screeners independently screened studies against our inclusion criteria, namely, whether they included an employee or professional sample, and reported sample size data, correlations, or sufficient statistical results to calculate a correlation coefficient or effect size linking team voice with its antecedent or consequence. Papers describing conceptual models and theoretical propositions

were excluded. To resolve conflicts between coders, the two coders reached a consensus following a discussion. Following the second phase of screening, a total of 37 articles met our inclusion criteria. In addition, following a manual search of papers from the 2023 Academy of Management Annual Meeting, one additional paper met the above criteria and was included in the review.

Consequently, this meta-analysis comprises 38 papers. Due to some papers including multiple studies, there were a total of 43 studies included. The industries covered in the sample are diverse, ranging from investment firms, chemistry firms, e-commerce companies, and retail companies. The entire literature search and screening process is presented in Figure 6.

2.6.3 Coding

Following PRISMA guidelines (Moher et al., 2009), two researchers independently reviewed and coded a range of variables from studies that were included in the meta-analysis. This process began with coding basic study information, including the title, authors, journal, year, study design, industry, and sample size. We then coded the antecedents and consequences of team voice, as well as key statistical measures, namely the mean, reliability, standard deviation, and interrater consistency for each variable. Within included studies, team voice was measured using at least one of four distinct methods: self-ratings, leader ratings, expert ratings of output, and objective metrics. Our researchers independently coded the definition, scale source, mean, reliability, standard deviation, interrater consistency, and the

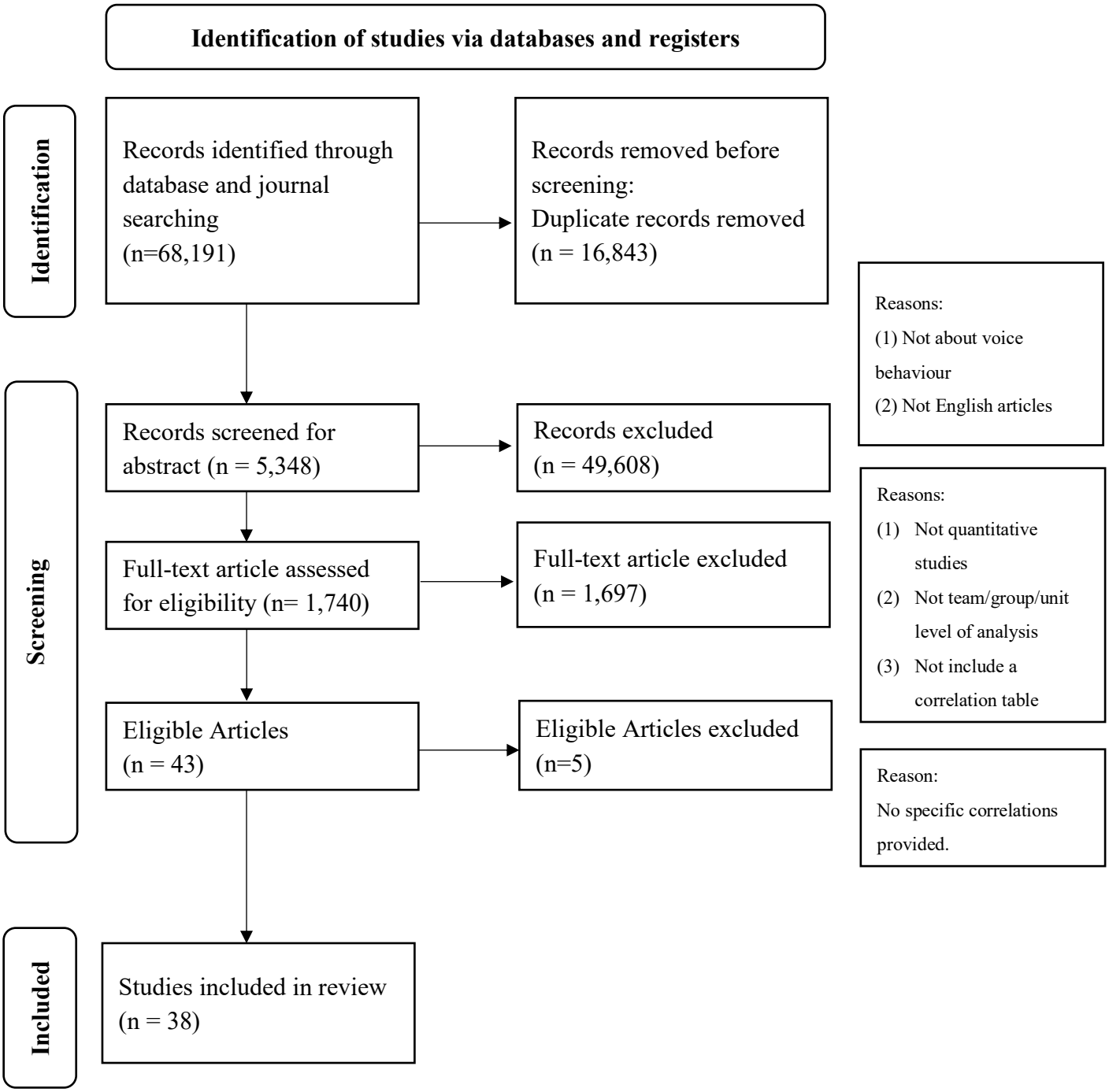

Figure 6. PRISMA flowchart of the study search and screen process.

content of team voice (e.g., team promotive voice or team prohibitive voice), direction of voice (e.g., horizontal or upward voice), source of rating (e.g., leader-rated or team member-rated), and method of measurement (e.g., team referent shift approach, additive composition approach). In instances of discrepancies between the coders, conflicts were resolved via discussions among the research team.

2.6.4 Meta-Analytic Procedures

To calculate meta-analytic effects, I used random effects models, following guidance provided by Cheung (2015). Random effects models enable each study within the meta-analysis to have its own population effect size, rather than assuming the population effect size to be equal across all studies, as is the case in univariate fixed effects models (Cheung, 2015). I used the restricted maximum likelihood estimation (REML) to estimate parameters within our random effects models (Cheung, 2015). The REML approach has been found to display a good balance between unbiasedness and estimation efficiency (Viechtbauer, 2005). The analysis was carried out in RStudio version 2023.12.0+56, specifically the package "metafor" developed by Viechtbauer (2010).

2.6.4.1 Antecedents and consequences analysis

I examined the primary relationships between team voice and its antecedents, and then between team voice and its consequences (i.e., Hypotheses 1-6 and Research Question 1). I extracted Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) as the primary metric from each study to assess the relationships between focal variables and team voice. These values were sourced directly from the correlation matrices reported in the primary studies, ensuring that all effect sizes

reflected bivariate associations. The consistent use of Pearson's r across studies allowed me to conduct a direct synthesis without the need to convert from standardised regression coefficients. This approach aligns with meta-analytic best practices (Peterson & Brown, 2005), as using consistent and directly reported effect sizes enhances both the transparency and comparability of results while minimising the risk of introducing error through conversion procedures. To ensure consistency in the directionality of effect sizes across all types of leadership in our statistical analysis, the effect sizes of negative leadership were reverse coded. Similarly, the "leader-follower relations" and "team climate" are treated in the same manner, with negative aspects reverse coded to preserve the consistency of effect size direction across all studied variables. For antecedents and consequences of team voice, I included the cumulative number of studies (*k*), total number of participants (*N*), the weighted sample size correlation (*r*) and its standard deviation (*SD*r), the weighted sample size correlation (ρ), and its standard deviation (*SD*ρ), along with their respective 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the statistical significance of correlations and 80% credibility intervals (CV) for the generalizability of effects (Schmidt & Hunter, 1997). To evaluate the heterogeneity in effect sizes across studies, I used the I^2 statistic, a metric that is robust against variation in the number of studies (Cheung, 2015). Generally, $I^2 = .25$ is considered low, $I^2 = .50$ is considered moderate, and $I^2 = .75$ is considered a high amount of heterogeneity (Higgins et al., 2003). In the presence of moderate-to-high heterogeneity, it becomes pertinent to examine how effect sizes may differ by relevant moderators (Cheung, 2015).

2.6.4.2 Moderation analysis

Meta-analytic moderation analysis helps to assess whether the primary relationships under investigation vary by relevant moderating variables (Higgins et al., 2003) (i.e., Research Questions 3-5). The moderators I examined included the "method of measurement" of team voice (i.e., additive composition approach versus team referent shift approach), the "source of rating" of team voice (i.e., team member-rated versus leader-rated team voice), and the "direction of the voice" (i.e., upward voice versus horizontal voice). For the "method of measurement" variable, I coded this based on whether the effect size was based on the "additive composition approach (0)" or the "team referent shift approach (1)". For "source of rating", I coded effects as either "team member rated (0)" or "team leader rated (1)". For voice direction, I coded effects as either "upward voice (0)" or "horizontal voice (1)".

In certain instances, there were missing values among the moderators. For example, team voice was manipulated but not assessed using either the additive composition approach or the team referent shift approach. I utilised pairwise deletion to alter the dataset, also known as available-case analysis, and this method attempted to keep as much data as possible by deleting missing data on an analysis-by-analysis basis (Cheung, 2015).

2.6.4.3 Mediation analysis

Following a univariate meta-analysis of both antecedents and consequences of team voice (and associated moderation analysis), I ran a combined mediation model to examine the degree to which team voice serves as a mediating link between relevant antecedents and consequence variables (i.e., Research Question 2). Using the methods outlined by Cheung

(2015), I applied the two-stage structural equation modelling (TSSEM) approach within the "metaSEM" package to do this. This approach involves extracting correlation matrices from each study. In the first stage, this list of matrices was pooled using a random-effects model. In the second stage, the pooled correlation matrix was treated as a covariance matrix in order to test a single, multivariate model. To test the significance of specific mediated (i.e., indirect) paths, following similar approaches elsewhere (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Meijerink et al., 2021; Miao et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014), I ran the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) within the "metafor" package.

2.7 Results

2.7.1 Primary Analyses

Figure 7 provides an overview of the studies included in this meta-analysis, in terms of content of voice, direction of voice, method of measurement, source of rating, and study design. The percentages shown in the figure are the proportion of each study type within the present meta-analysis. Specifically, in the category of voice content, most studies (89.74%) focus on general aspects of team voice, while only 10.26% examine the specific team promotive and prohibitive voice. Regarding voice direction, 57.89% of research is on horizontal communication, compared to 42.11% on upward voice directed towards leaders. For measurement methods, 57.89% of studies captured by this meta-analysis use the additive composition approach, aggregating individual inputs to gauge team voice, while 42.11% use the team referent shift approach, focusing on the collective perspective. Regarding the source of ratings, 55.26% of studies use internal evaluations by team members, and 44.74% rely on

ratings by team leaders. Finally, 97.37% of the studies use surveys to capture voice, significantly more than 2.63% using observation, indicating a strong preference for survey-based research methodologies in this area. To assess the extent of publication bias among studies, I used fail-safe *N* (see Table 4).

2.7.2 Consequences of Team Voice and Its Promotive and Prohibitive Contents

The consequences of team voice were grouped into three categories: team performance (e.g., core/in-role performance, financial outcomes, and error management), team innovation (e.g., innovation and OCB/extra-role behaviour), and team viability (e.g., team satisfaction and turnover) (see Table 5).

Team performance. Team voice demonstrated a significant relationship with overall team performance (r = .24, ρ = .31, 95%CI [.18, .29]). Hypothesis 4 is supported. Specifically, it was positively associated with core/in-role performance (r = .25, ρ = .33, 95%CI [.19, .31]). A positive correlation was also observed with financial outcomes (r = .23, ρ = .25, 95%CI [.16, .30]). However, team voice had a nonsignificant relationship with error management (r = .13, ρ = .26, 95%CI [-.04, .30]).

Team innovation. Team voice demonstrated a significant relationship with overall team innovation (r = .28, ρ = .40, 95%CI [.18, .39]). Hypothesis 5 is supported. Specifically, the team voice had a strong positive relationship with team innovation (r = .18, ρ = .23, 95%CI [.08, .29]). A large positive association was found between general team voice and OCB/extra-role behaviour (r = .53, ρ = .57, 95%CI [.39, .67]).

Team viability. There was a significant relationship between team voice and team viability (r = .15, ρ = .19, 95% CI [.04, .26]). In particular, team voice was positively related to team satisfaction (r = .20, ρ = .29, 95%CI [.03, .37]) but had a non-significant relationship with turnover (r = -.09, ρ = -.09, 95%CI [-.18, .00]).

Further analysis was conducted on the consequences of both team promotive voice and team prohibitive voice (see Table 6). Team promotive voice (r = .17, ρ = .18, 95%CI [.11, .24]) and team prohibitive voice (r = .19, ρ = .23, 95%CI [.11, .28]) both positively influenced team performance. Hypothesis 1 is supported. However, only team promotive voice showed a significant relationship with team innovation (r = .25, ρ = .30, 95%CI [.10, .39]), whereas the relationship between team prohibitive voice and team innovation was not significant (r = .08, ρ = .12, 95%CI [-.05, .21]). Hypothesis 2 is not supported. Meta-analytic results for team viability were not reported due to an insufficient number of effect sizes linking it with team promotive and prohibitive voice.

2.7.3 Antecedents of Team Voice

The antecedents of team voice were categorized into three groups: leadership styles (e.g., abusive supervision/leadership, ethical leadership, inclusive leadership, and transformational leadership), leader-follower relations (e.g., LMX, power distance, and social distance), and team climate (e,g., psychological safety and voice climate) (see Table 7).

Leadership styles. To quantify general positive leadership styles, I reverse coded indices of abusive supervision/leadership and combined this with indicators of positive leadership (i.e., transformational, ethical, and inclusive leadership), following similar approaches

elsewhere (e.g., Hoch et al., 2018). Leadership styles exhibited a very strong positive correlation with team voice (r = .34, ρ = .35, 95%CI [.25, .43]). Hypothesis 4 is supported. Specifically, abusive supervision/leadership was negatively related to team voice (r = -.22, ρ = -.21, 95%CI [-.37, -.06]). Ethical leadership showed a positive association with team voice (r = .24, ρ = .35, 95%CI [.02, .46]). Inclusive leadership was positively associated with team voice (r = .37, ρ = .40, 95%CI [.23, .51]). Transformational leadership had a stronger positive relationship with team voice (r = .33, ρ = .41, 95%CI [.02, .05]).

Leader-follower relations. To accurately measure positive leader-follower relations, I reverse coded indices of power distance and combined this with indicators of other leader-follower relations (i.e., LMX, social distance). There was a significant relationship between overall leader-follower relations and team voice (r = .25, ρ = .27, 95%CI [.14, .36]). Hypothesis 5 is supported. Specifically, LMX positively correlated with team voice (r = .22, ρ = .20, 95%CI [.01, .43]) whereas LMX differentiation negatively associated with team voice (r = -.28, ρ = -.31, 95%CI [-.39, -.16]). Power distance (r = -.27, ρ = -.33, 95%CI [-.53, -.01]) and social distance (r = -.21, ρ = -.22, 95%CI [-.26, -.16]) had significantly negative relationships with team voice.

Team climate. Overall team climate was positively related to team voice (r = .30, ρ = .48, 95%CI [.09, .51]). Hypothesis 6 is supported. Specifically, the relationship between psychological safety and team voice was found to be not significant (r = .17, ρ = .42, 95%CI[-.16, .50]). Voice climate, however, had a positive relationship with team voice (r = .47, ρ = .55, 95%CI[.31, .63]).

2.7.4 Mediating Effects

I next generated a single meta-analytic mediation model, including both antecedents and consequences of team voice. Due to insufficient effect sizes in some paths to enable an omnibus path model, I conducted several mediation models linking antecedents and consequences of team voice. I found that team voice significantly mediated the relationship between leadership styles and team performance (r = .04, SD = .02, z = 2.74, p < .001). However, leader-follower relations showed a non-significant indirect effect on team performance through team voice (r = .03, SD = .03, z = 1.02, p = .31). Similarly, team climate displayed non-significant indirect effects on both team performance (r = .03, SD = .04, z = -.13, p = .90) and team viability (r = .01, SD = .01, z = -.18, p = .86) through team voice. The TSSEM results are presented in Figure 8, and the indirect effects results (Sobel test) are summarised in Table 8.

2.7.5 Moderating Effects

To investigate the heterogeneity in effect sizes reported above, I conducted a moderation analysis. As discussed, I examined three moderating variables: method of measurement (i.e., additive versus the team referent shift approach), source of ratings (i.e., team member ratings versus leader ratings), and the direction of team voice (i.e., horizontal versus upward). All the results are presented in Table 9.

It was found that only the source of rating had a moderating effect on the relationship between team voice and leadership styles (r = -.23, SE = .09, z = -2.61, p < .01), team climate (r = .66, SE = .26, z = 2.55, p < .05), team innovation (r = .43, SE = .07, z = 6.07, p < .01),

and team viability (r = -.23, SE = .10, z = 2.42, p < .05). Specifically, leadership styles had a greater effect on team voice when rated by team members (r = .51, SE = .11, z = 4.76, 95% CI [.30, .72]) than when rated by team leaders (r = .28, SE = .04, z = 7.41, 95% CI [.21, .35]).

The effect size of team climate on team voice for team member ratings (r = -.28, SE = .17, z = -1.65, 95%CI [-.61, .05]) was smaller than for team leader ratings (r = .38, SE = .08, z = 4.64, 95%CI [.22, .55]). Team voice on team innovation for team member ratings (r = .16, SE = .05, z = 2.99, 95% CI [.05, .26]) had a weaker effect than for team leader ratings (r = .59, SE = .04, z = 15.65, 95% CI [.52, .67]), However, team voice on team viability for team member ratings (r = .29, SE = .10, z = 3.03, 95% CI [.10, .48]) had a stronger effect than for team leader ratings (r = .09, SE = .05, z = 1.93, 95% CI [-.00, .18]). The subset analysis results are presented in Table 10. There was no evidence that the method of measurement and the direction of voice moderated the association of team voice with its antecedents or consequence.

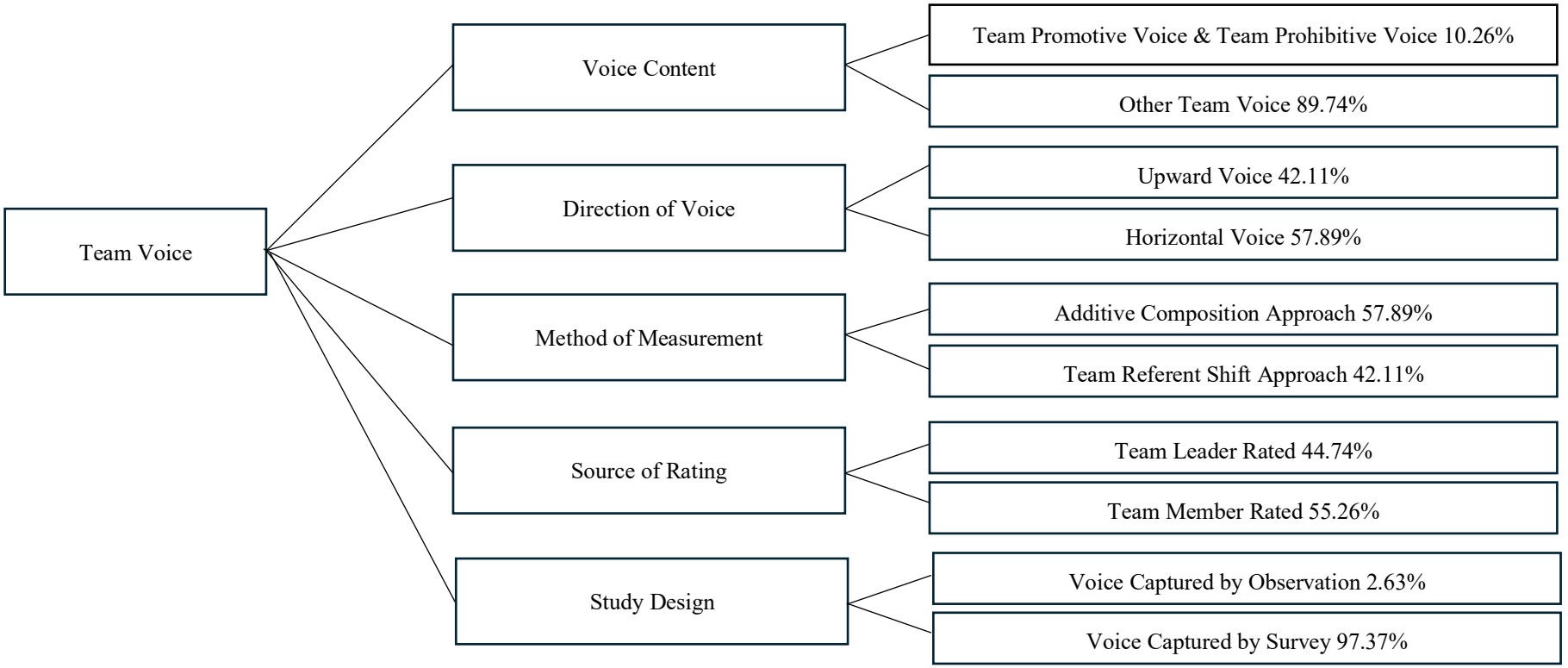

Figure 7. The overview of team voice research attributes with ratios.

Table 4. Publication Bias Analyses of General Team Voice Antecedents and Consequences

Constructs	*k*	Fail-safe *N*
Leadership styles	20	225
Abusive supervision/leadership	6	8
Ethical leadership	7	3
Inclusive leadership	3	4
Transformational leadership	6	3
Leader-follower relation	22	78
LMX	7	2
LMX differentiation	4	7
Power distance	7	2
Social distance	4	5
Team climate	7	5
Psychological safety	4	0
Voice climate	3	4
Team performance	47	729
Core/in-role performance	36	425
Financial outcomes	5	11
Error management	6	0
Team innovation	27	134
Innovation	20	29
OCB/extra-role behaviour	7	47
Team viability	7	4
Team satisfaction	5	2
Turnover	3	0

Note. *k* = number of studies; Fail-Safe *k* = robustness against potential publication bias.

Table 5. Summary of Meta-Analytic Relationships: Consequences of General Team Voice

Constructs	*k*	*N*	*r*	*SD*r	*ρ*	*SD*ρ	80%CV	95%CI	I^2
Team performance	47	4906	.24	.14	.31	.00	[.05, .42]	[.18, .29]	70.23%
Core/in-role performance	36	3578	.25	.16	.33	.00	[.05, .45]	[.19, .31]	73.26%
Financial outcomes	5	872	.23	.00	.25	.00	[.23, .23]	[.16, .30]	.14%
Error management	6	456	.13	.15	.26	.00	[-.06, .33]	[-.04, .30]	62.53%
Team innovation	27	3000	.28	.25	.40	.00	[-.04, .61]	[.18, .39]	89.65%
Innovation	20	1627	.18	.21	.23	.00	[-.10, .46]	[.08, .29]	79.75%
OCB/extra-role behaviour	7	1373	.53	.17	.57	.00	[.31, .75]	[.39, .67]	89.16%
Team viability	8	952	.15	.13	.19	.00	[-.01, .31]	[.04, .26]	64.07%
Team satisfaction	5	472	.20	.15	.29	.00	[.01, .39]	[.03, .37]	66.74%
Turnover	3	480	-.09	.00	-.09	.00	[-.09, -.09]	[-.18, .00]	.00%

Note. Team performance includes core/in-role performance, financial outcomes and error management; Team innovation includes innovation and OCB/extra-role behaviour; Team viability includes team satisfaction and turnover.

k = number of studies; *N* = total sample size in the meta-analysis; *r* = uncorrected effect size; *SD*r = standard deviation of the uncorrected effect size; *ρ* = corrected effect size; *SD*ρ = standard deviation of the corrected effect size; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; I^2= percentage of total variation across studies.

Table 6. Summary of Meta-Analytic Relationships: Consequences of Team Promotive Voice and Team Prohibitive Voice

Constructs		*k*	*N*	*r*	*SD*r	*ρ*	*SD*ρ	80%CV	95%CI	I^2
Team promotive voice	Team performance	11	836	.17	.00	.18	.00	[.17, .17]	[.11, .24]	.00%
	Team innovation	6	516	.25	.13	.30	.00	[.08, .41]	[.10, .39]	57.38%
Team prohibitive voice	Team performance	11	836	.19	.08	.23	.00	[.10, .29]	[.11, .28]	3.94%
	Team innovation	5	428	.08	.09	.12	.00	[-.03, .19]	[-.05, .21]	34.80%

Note. Team performance includes core/in-role performance and error management; Team innovation includes innovation.
k = number of studies; *N* = total sample size in the meta-analysis; *r* = uncorrected effect size; *SD*r = standard deviation of the uncorrected effect size; ρ = corrected effect size; *SD*ρ = standard deviation of the corrected effect size; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; I^2= percentage of total variation across studies.

Table 7. Summary of Meta-analytic Relationships: Antecedents of General Team Voice

Constructs	*k*	*N*	*r*	*SD*r	*ρ*	*SD*ρ	80%CV	95%CI	I^2
Leadership styles	20	2483	.34	.18	.35	.00	[.11,.56]	[.25, .43]	82.03%
Abusive supervision/leadership	6	857	-.22	.12	-.21	.00	[-.37, -.06]	[-.33, -.10]	68.98%
Ethical leadership	7	1116	.24	.29	.35	.00	[-.13, .61]	[.02, .46]	93.95%
Inclusive leadership	3	174	.37	.00	.40	.01	[.37, .37]	[.23, .51]	.00%
Transformational leadership	6	392	.33	.33	.41	.00	[-.08, .75]	[.02, .05]	9.38%
Leader-follower relations	22	2167	.25	.24	.27	.00	[-.05, .55]	[.14, .36]	86.23%
LMX	7	682	.22	.26	.20	.00	[-.12, .55]	[.01, .43]	87.3%
LMX differentiation	4	282	-.28	.00	-.31	.00	[-.28, -.28]	[-.39, -.16]	.00%
Power distance	7	743	-.27	.34	-.33	.00	[-.71, .17]	[-.53, -.01]	94.13%
Social distance	4	460	-.21	.04	-.22	.00	[-.26, -.16]	[-.31, -.11]	15.41%
Team climate	7	715	.30	.27	.48	.00	[-.04, .64]	[.09, .51]	89.56%
Psychological safety	4	403	.17	.32	.42	.00	[-.23, .58]	[-.16, .50]	9.49%
Voice climate	3	312	.47	.11	.55	.00	[.33, .60]	[.31, .63]	56.88%

Note. Leadership styles include abusive supervision/leadership, ethical leadership, inclusive leadership, and transformational leadership; Leader-follower relations include LMX, LMX differentiation, power distance, and social distance; Team climate includes psychological safety and voice climate.

k = number of studies; *N* = total sample size in the meta-analysis; *r* = uncorrected effect size; *SD*r = standard deviation of the uncorrected effect size; *ρ* = corrected effect size; *SD*ρ = standard deviation of the corrected effect size; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; I^2= percentage of total variation across studies.

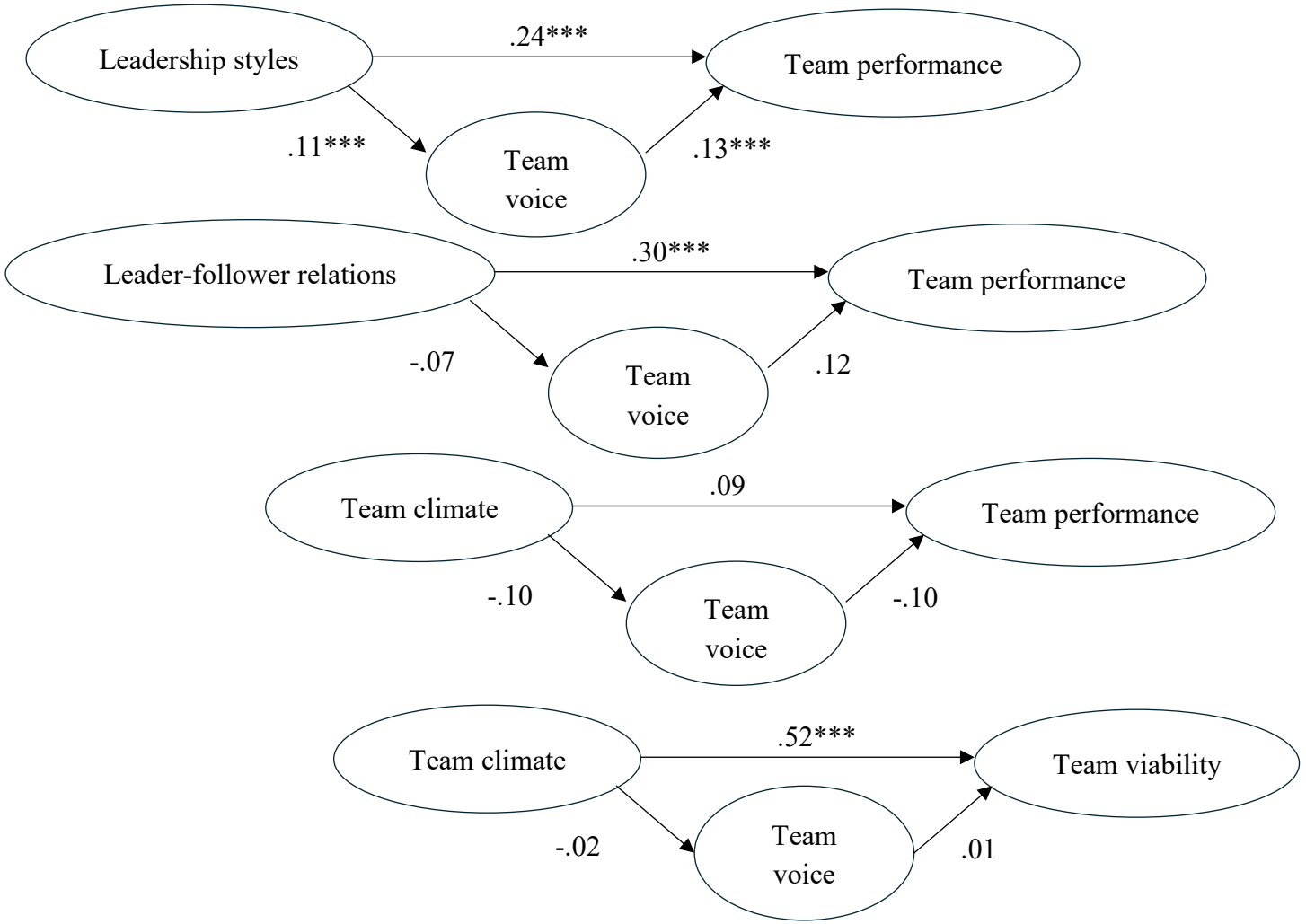

Figure 8. TSSEM results of leadership styles-team voice-team performance, leader-follower relations-team voice-team performance, team climate-team voice-team performance, and team climate-team voice-team viability.

Table 8. Indirect Effect of Team Voice

Variable	*r*	*SD*r	*Z* value	Sig.
Leadership styles → Team performance	.04	.02	2.74	.00***
Leadership-follower relations → Team performance	.03	.03	1.02	.31
Team climate → Team performance	-.01	.04	-.13	.90
Team climate → Team viability	-.00	.01	-.18	.86

Note. *r* = estimated indirect effect; *SD*r = standard error of indirect effect.

****P* < .001*

Table 9. Moderating effects of the method of measurement, source of rating, and direction of voice

		Leadership styles → Team voice	Leader-follower relation → Team voice	Team climate → Team voice	Team voice → Team performance	Team voice → Team innovation	Team voice → Team viability
Method of measurement	*k*	20	22	7	35	21	7
	Intercept	.39***	.24***	.32*	.21***	.27**	.19**
	Method of measurement	-.07	.01	-.03	.08	.11	-.13
	Residual *Q*	118.36***	184.22***	34.03***	145.20***	215.36***	17.78***
Source of rating	*k*	20	22	7	35	21	7
	Intercept	.51***	.33***	-.28	.26***	.16***	.31***
	Source of rating	-.23***	-.15	.66**	.01	.43***	-.23**
	Residual *Q*	83.29***	153.86***	2.83***	160.60***	64.81***	7.54
Direction of voice	*k*	20	22	7	41	27	7
	Intercept	.28***	.27***	.27**	.24***	.18**	.10
	Direction of voice	.09	-.04	.17	.01	-.25	.12
	Residual *Q*	119.02***	177.28***	36.37***	176.27***	211.34***	14.42**

Note. Method of measurement was coded as "additive composition approach 0" and "team referent shift approach 1"; the source of rating was coded as "team member rated 0" and "te am leader rated 1"; the Direction of voice was coded as "upward voice 0" and "horizontal voice 1".
k = number of studies; Residual *Q* = the amount of heterogeneity that remains unexplained after accounting for the moderators.
***p* < .01; ****p* < .001

Table 10. Subset Analysis of Moderating Effects

		r	*SE*	*Z* value	*95%CI*
Team member rated	Leadership styles → Team voice	.51	.11	4.76	[.30, .72]
Team leader rated	Leadership styles → Team voice	.28	.04	7.41	[.21, .35]
Team member rated	Team climate → Team voice	-.28	.17	-1.65	[-.61, .05]
Team leader rated	Team climate → Team voice	.38	.08	4.64	[.22, .55]
Team member rated	Team voice → Team innovation	.16	.05	2.99	[.05, .26]
Team leader rated	Team voice → Team innovation	.59	.04	15.65	[.52, .67]
Team member rated	Team voice → Team viability	.29	.10	3.03	[.10, .48]
Team leader rated	Team voice → Team viability	.09	.05	1.93	[-.00, .18]

Note. *r* = uncorrected effect size; *SE* = standard error; *CI* = confidence interval.

2.8 Discussion

The aim of this study was to advance the field by synthesising how team voice has been conceptualised across existing research and by empirically examining its antecedents and consequences, including both promotive and prohibitive forms. Drawing on SIP theory, I develop and test an integrative theoretical model of team voice (see Figure 1), emphasising how it is shaped by the team's social context. Through a meta-analysis of the antecedents and outcomes of team voice and its two forms, I demonstrate how variations in conceptualisation, such as differences in direction, measurement, and source, have shaped the literature to date, and I offer a clearer path forward for cumulative knowledge building.

2.8.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings from this study have important theoretical implications based on social information processing perspectives on how the social conditions that precipitate team voice influence both how voice is received and the outcomes of team voice. Firstly, consistent with SIP theory, I provide the first meta-analytic evidence that team voice, as a social and communicative act, functions as a source of social information that guides future behaviour and group-level outcomes. Team voice positively influences a range of team outcomes, including team performance, innovation, and satisfaction. These findings align with prior research on group/team-level learning and innovation (Erez et al., 2002; Farh & Chen, 2014), confirming that when teams collectively share ideas and concerns, they transmit valuable information that enhances collective decision-making and organisational effectiveness. These effects mirror earlier findings at the individual level (Ng & Feldman, 2012), but our results

extend these insights by demonstrating that voice also has powerful effects when it occurs at the team level, where it is shaped and interpreted through shared norms and expectations. Importantly, this study reveals that team promotive and prohibitive voice, while both positively related to team performance, have distinct impacts on different types of team outcomes, underscoring the importance of voice content. Specifically, promotive voice, which focused on constructive suggestions and forward-looking improvements, was positively associated with both team productivity and innovation. This suggests that promotive voice serves as a catalyst for exploratory processes such as idea generation, knowledge integration, and goal setting, which are essential for innovation and continuous improvement (Liang et al., 2019).

In contrast, prohibitive voice, centred on identifying potential risks or harmful behaviours, was not significantly associated with innovation but was positively related to team performance. This distinction supports the idea that prohibitive voice triggers different underlying mechanisms, such as team reflexivity and risk mitigation, which help teams prevent errors and enhance reliability rather than spark innovation. These findings challenge prior assumptions rooted in individual-level research (e.g., Chamberlin et al., 2017), where prohibitive voice was often viewed negatively due to its association with criticism or conflict. At the team level, however, the social risk of prohibitive voice is diffused, allowing its constructive potential to emerge through shared reflection and process improvement. These findings support theorisation on how team voice content serves as a form of social information that initiates distinct behavioural and cognitive processes within teams (Li et al.,

2017). Promotive voice supports knowledge utilisation and learning-oriented team processes (Liang et al., 2019), while prohibitive voice fosters reflexivity and cautious, prevention-focused behaviours (Liang et al., 2019). These differentiated pathways highlight how the content of voice contributes not only to what teams discuss but also to how they enact. In this way, this study offers a refined, SIP-based understanding of team voice as a socially embedded and outcome-relevant behaviour. Our results highlight the value of distinguishing between promotive and prohibitive voice and demonstrate how voice functions not just as input but as a differential social signal that guides team performance, innovation and viability. Future research should seek to directly test how different voice content activates distinct team processes and how the temporal unfolding of voice episodes shapes long-term team outcomes and effectiveness. This is consistent with Morrison's (2023) recent call to consider temporal dynamics in voice research, especially how initial social cues can evolve over time as teams make sense of voice episodes and adjust their behaviour accordingly.

The findings from this study also have important theoretical implications by advancing our understanding of the social-contextual antecedents of team voice through the lens of SIP theory. SIP theory posits that individuals and teams do not operate in a vacuum; rather, they rely on social cues from their environment to shape attitudes and behaviours. Interestingly, our results suggest that both promotive and prohibitive team voice are shaped by similar team-level antecedents, contrary to the common belief that prohibitive voice uniquely depends on psychological safety due to its confrontational nature. Consistent with SIP theory, leadership emerged as a powerful driver of team voice (regardless of content). Team

members look to leaders for cues about acceptable and valued behaviour, and our results show that leadership styles such as transformational, inclusive, ethical, and abusive supervision are significantly associated with team voice. These leadership behaviours convey important social signals that shape team members' interpretations of whether voice is welcomed or discouraged. For example, inclusive and ethical leaders are more likely to promote psychological availability and trust, reinforcing voice norms and legitimising speaking up. Conversely, abusive supervision sends negative social cues that suppress voice behaviours, consistent with past individual-level findings that social stressors dampen the willingness to speak up (Ng & Feldman, 2012). These results demonstrate that leadership not only initiates the tone for voice behaviour but also functions as a critical channel for social information that shapes team-wide attitudes and behavioural norms.

The finding that team voice was a significant mediator between leadership styles and team performance also highlights the importance of leadership behaviour as a potent social cue for teams. In line with SIP, leaders who exhibit behaviours that welcome team voice expression reinforce positive team voice behaviour, and likewise for dismissing expression and reducing team voice behaviour. Subsequently, if teams recognise positive social cues that leaders exhibit as role models for communication behaviour, there might be an increased likelihood for teams to express high-quality ideas and feedback. Furthermore, the involvement of a leader could increase levels of accountability to prioritise team performance. Given that sources of information come from immediate social environments

and past activities, leadership styles offer consistency in the general environment in which teams function.

I also found evidence that the nature of leader-follower relationships also contributes to the social information environment of teams. Constructs such as leader-member exchange (LMX), LMX differentiation, and social/power distance reflect the relational infrastructure through which voice-related cues are interpreted. Our findings show that positive, high-quality relationships between leaders and team members facilitate team voice, likely because they provide clarity, trust, and confidence that speaking up will be met with support rather than reprisal. At the team level, these relational dynamics create shared understandings of whether voicing ideas or concerns is effective, appropriate, or safe, reinforcing SIP theory's emphasis on the importance of socially constructed meaning.

Beyond leadership, SIP theory also highlights that team members themselves are vital sources of social information. Through repeated interactions, team members co-construct norms and expectations about voice, which culminate in team climates that either support or discourage speaking up. Indeed, our results emphasise the significance of voice climate as a central antecedent to team voice. This reinforces prior research suggesting that voice is a collective sensemaking process, whereby teams build a shared lens through which voice events are evaluated and internalised. Surprisingly, psychological safety, long considered a foundational antecedent of voice at the individual level, was not significantly associated with team voice. This finding is likely reflective of the phenomenological differences between individual and team voice regarding perceived risk and suggests important theoretical

nuances between individual and team voice processes. Whereas individuals may withhold voice due to fears of negative repercussions, teams may be more buffered by collective dynamics and shared responsibility, which reduces the need for a heightened sense of safety. This reduces the necessity for, and dependence on, psychological safety within the context of team voice, unlike its pronounced importance in individual voice settings. This divergence implies that antecedents traditionally emphasised in individual-level models of voice, such as psychological safety, instrumentality, or efficacy, may operate differently, or less critically, at the collective level.

2.8.2 Methodological Implications

In synthesising the diverse methodologies and conceptual approaches to investigating team voice, I found several productive avenues for future research to further advance the field methodologically and empirically. In terms of voice direction, I also found that most studies did not specify the intended recipients of team voice. When measuring team voice, most studies continue to use an additive composition approach whereby team members assess their own voice before being aggregated to the team level. However, the referent shift consensus method is becoming more prominent to evaluate the overall level of the team voice. I suggest that referent shift methods can be more useful in understanding emergent, shared team climates and cultures in comparison to additive composition approaches. By focusing on team-level perceptions and aligning more closely with team-level constructs, the value of team dynamics and norms in influencing team voice behaviour is emphasised. Furthermore,

clearly specifying intended recipients (e.g., leader, team member) could improve the precision of measurements.

The source of ratings notably influenced the relationships between antecedents, such as leadership styles and team climate, and team voice, as well as the relationships between team voice and consequences, including team innovation and team viability. Specifically, when team members, rather than team leaders, assessed team voice, the relationship between leadership styles and team voice was notably stronger. This pattern was also observed in the relationship between team voice and team viability. Conversely, leader-rated team voice resulted in stronger relationships between team climate and team voice, as well as enhanced connections between team voice and team innovation. I suggest that the perspectives and social cues detected by team members and team leaders differ, even within the same social environment. The social cues that leaders detect are focused on a team consisting of multiple members, as opposed to team members detecting social cues exhibited by a single leader. In sum, it is important to consider the focal entity being observed, whether as a collective entity (team) or individual entity (leader), which can influence the variety of social cues being exhibited and detected.

Interestingly, the relationships between antecedents or consequences and team voice did not greatly differ whether the study used an additive composition approach or team referent shift approach. The lack of significant difference indicates that the influence of antecedents and consequences on team voice remains stable regardless of its approach to aggregation. Furthermore, the direction of voice did not have a significant effect on the relationships

between antecedents or consequences and team voice. The consistency in the patterns of the findings, regardless of the aggregation approaches or the direction of the voice, indicates the robustness of the relationships in our model. Additionally, these findings support SIP theory and the idea that the social conditions that drive team voice also influence how that voice is received and what happens to the voice (Satterstrom et al., 2021). In other words, if the team dynamics that give rise to team voice also encourage its use, team voice may capture the holistic dynamic of team communication that is less sensitive to the specific method of aggregation or direction.

2.8.3 Practical Implications

The meta-analysis offers several practical implications for organisational management and team dynamics. First, the findings highlight the importance of leadership in fostering team voice. Each identified correlation provides a strategic point of intervention to enhance team communication. For instance, the impact of leadership styles on team voice is profound, with styles such as abusive supervision, ethical leadership, inclusive leadership, and transformational leadership playing crucial roles. As a result, organisations should consider implementing training programs aimed at cultivating positive leadership behaviours while also establishing policies to address and mitigate negative leadership practices, such as abusive supervision. Additionally, the quality of leader-follower relations emerges as a vital determinant of team voice. This suggests that organisations should invest in initiatives that enable leaders to build and maintain high-quality, positive relationships with their team members. Such efforts could include relationship development programs focused on

interpersonal skills, emotional intelligence, and effective communication strategies. Furthermore, the analysis shows the importance of a conducive team climate in promoting team voice. Organisations might explore avenues to create an environment where open communication, mutual respect, and psychological safety are prioritised. This could involve team-building activities, regular feedback sessions, and the establishment of clear norms and values that encourage speaking up and sharing ideas.

2.8.4 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Our meta-analysis has provided valuable insights into the antecedents and outcomes of team voice and its promotive and prohibitive forms, yet it is essential to recognise its limitations and opportunities for future research.

First, conceptualising team voice as a form of team input allows for a comprehensive exploration of its subsequent serial influences. The meta-analysis examines how team voice, as an intermediary, can transform the social environment of a team into tangible team outcomes, creating a structured pathway from antecedents, through team voice, to outcomes. However, viewing team voice as an initial input provides a proactive approach to influence subsequent team processes and outcomes actively. Specifically, distinct contents of team voice can trigger unique processes that distinctly contribute to team outcomes. Empirical research has found that team promotive voice facilitates team knowledge utilization (Liang et al., 2019) and fosters a willingness to discuss ideas (Guzman & Espejo, 2018), whereas team prohibitive voice enhances team reflexivity (Liang et al., 2019) and promotes team monitoring (Li et al., 2017). I expect there are other team process mechanisms influenced by

team promotive and prohibitive voice. By understanding how different voices act as inputs that trigger specific mechanisms, teams can strategically encourage certain contents of voice to optimise their effectiveness.

Second, there is a need for future research to explore additional dimensions of team voice. Our discussions have primarily been based on the conceptual framework provided by Liang et al. (2012), which categorises voice into promotive and prohibitive. However, an alternative perspective offered by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) could also be considered. This model categorizes specific voice behaviour into supportive (supporting existing processes or ideas, aiming to maintain the status quo but in a positive manner), constructive (challenging current practices by proposing improvements or innovative solutions, thereby pushing for change but with a positive focus), defensive (similar to supportive voice in its intent to preserve, but it is more about defending current practices against change, possibly out of risk aversion or satisfaction with the status quo), and destructive (criticizing or stopping current practices due to perceived faults or risks, with a challenging stance that may be seen as negative) (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014), beyond the commonly studied promotive and prohibitive voice. To the best of our knowledge, the team voice literature has not yet fully explored this framework, suggesting that scholars could significantly benefit from further investigation into these dimensions at the team level.

Third, existing team voice literature reveals a gap in exploring the direction of team voice. While individual-level voice research typically distinguishes between upward voice (directed towards leaders) and lateral voice (shared among peers), it tends to overlook the

complexity of voice directions within a team setting. This complexity includes communication that could be aimed not only at leaders or peers but also towards the team as a whole. Future research should explicitly differentiate between the voice targets within teams. By examining how voice directed at different targets affects team outcomes, scholars can uncover nuanced insights into the social structures of teams. This can involve developing new frameworks or models that account for the complexity and varied directions of team communication.

Fourth, many studies included in our analysis were based on a cross-sectional correlation design. While I had strong theoretical bases for coding variables as either antecedents or consequences in this meta-analysis, future research on team voice prioritises longitudinal designs. Longitudinal studies would help clarify whether the variables identified as antecedents in current research actually precede team voice and its consequences, or if these relationships are more complex than initially thought. Additionally, experimental designs could be employed where feasible to manipulate specific variables and directly observe the effects on team voice and related outcomes.

While this study is not without limitations, it makes a significant contribution by offering the first comprehensive, theory-driven synthesis of the literature on team voice. Through this literature review and meta-analysis, I uncover novel insights into how team voice is socially enabled, shaped, and sustained through the dynamic interplay of team leadership and team climate. Grounded in theoretical perspectives suggesting that social contexts provide cues guiding individuals' perceptions of acceptable attitudes and behaviours (Salancik & Pfeffer,

1978), I find that key social factors, such as leadership styles, the quality of leader–member relationships, and the broader team climate, serve as powerful signals to team members regarding the value and acceptability of voice within the team. These contextual cues inform whether speaking up is necessary, appropriate, and likely to be welcomed, thus influencing the degree to which individuals choose to engage in voice behaviour. Furthermore, I find meta-analytic evidence suggesting that team voice is not only shaped by the social environment but also serves as a contextual signal itself, an emergent team-level phenomenon that fosters the development of collective actions and, ultimately, influences team outcomes. Our conceptual model thus positions team voice as both a product of social context and a mechanism through which teams coordinate and enact meaningful change.

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Interlude to Chapter 3

In the previous chapter (Chapter 2), I presented a literature review and meta-analysis (Study 1) that synthesised existing findings on the antecedents and consequences of team voice, with a particular focus on promotive and prohibitive content. Grounded in SIP theory, my review provides the first meta-analytic evidence that team voice, as a social and communicative act, both functions as a source of social information that guides future behaviour and group-level outcomes and is shaped by social cues within the team environment.

In this chapter (Chapter 3), I focus on my second research question: How do voice allies and resistors influence the team voice cultivation process and team outcomes? Drawing on Social Information Processing (SIP) theory and the voice cultivation framework (Satterstrom et al., 2021), I examine how team members, through the enactment of voice roles such as allyship (supporting others' voice) and resistance (challenging others' voice), shape team voice, silence, resilience, and well-being. Study 2 shows that teams with a voice ally engaged in more voice (as objectively measured), reported higher team satisfaction, and developed a more resilient voice culture. In contrast, the presence of a voice resistor was associated with lower team voice, reduced satisfaction, and diminished positive affect. Furthermore, the effects of allyship and resistance varied depending on the specific tactics used. For example, allies who engaged in developmental tactics (showing understanding or asking questions to help clarify a voiced idea) enhanced team voice and well-being, whereas legitimising tactics (explaining why it makes sense or works, often using examples or personal experience) alone were less effective. Interestingly, opposing voice through direct, constructive disagreement

had a positive effect on team functioning, while avoiding tactics (deliberately ignoring or deflecting the conversation), consistent with theoretical expectations, undermined collective voice and team wellbeing. These findings contribute to our understanding of voice as a dynamic, collective process embedded in peer interactions rather than a one-time dyadic exchange.

Chapter 3. How Voice Allies and Resistors Influence the Team Voice Cultivation Process and Team Outcomes

Abstract

Employee voice has been predominantly studied in dyadic relationships (e.g., Burris et al., 2008; Farh et al., 2007; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). However, there is an increasing need to understand voice in teams/work groups, as many voiced ideas occur in shared group environments. In this chapter, I build and extend on the theorisation of the voice cultivation process (Satterstrom et al., 2021) and social information processing (SIP) theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) to empirically test how team members' support for (i.e., voice allyship) or hindrance against (i.e., voice resistance) voiced ideas influences team voice outcomes (i.e., team voice, team silence, team voice resilience) and team wellbeing (i.e., team satisfaction, team positive affect, team negative affect). In this chapter, I present a pilot experimental between-teams study involving 181 postgraduate students working in 42 teams (Study 2a), followed by a second, larger study involving 692 undergraduate students working in 128 teams (Study 2b). In both studies, I manipulated the presence of a voice ally versus the presence of a voice resistor versus a control condition. Three key findings emerged: (1) Teams with a voice ally exhibited more team voice behaviours (objectively measured as the number of voiced ideas by team members during the team task) compared to teams with a voice resistor. (2) Team member voice allyship was related to allyship tactics such as legitimising and developing, while team member voice resistance was associated with resistance tactics such as avoiding and opposing. (3) Among voice allyship tactics, developing, rather than legitimising, strengthened team voice, resilience, team satisfaction

and positive affect while suppressing team silence and negative affect. In contrast, teams with a voice resistor reported heightened team silence and negative affect. Interestingly, though constructive opposing tactics were associated with more team voice and positive affect. These findings extend our knowledge on voice as a collective, interactional process rather than a one-time dyadic event, and also contribute new insights on how team members can impact team voice, team voice resilience, team silence and team wellbeing outcomes through specific tactics.

Keywords*:* voice allyship, voice resistance, voice cultivation process, team voice

3.1 Introduction

Employee voice has been predominantly studied in dyadic relationships (e.g., Li & Tangirala, 2021; Liu et al., 2022), often between a voicer and authority holder such as direct leaders or managers (Detert et al., 2013). However, teams have emerged as fundamental structural units as contemporary organisations adapt to the competitive and complex market environment (Chen et al., 2022; Podsakoff et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020). As such, voice activities frequently unfold in shared team settings (such as during group/team meetings). The presence of other team members makes voice a more complex social process. Rather than a one-time dyadic event (Nieberle & Fladerer, 2025; Satterstrom et al., 2021), voice unfolds over time and is influenced by lateral interactions within the team, such as peer support (Bain et al., 2021) or peer opposition (Brykman & Raver, 2023). Despite this, scholarly inquiries into how team members' reactions towards voiced ideas influence team-level outcomes remain limited.

There is evidence that team members can influence the voice process in various ways, such as by acting as a resistor and rejecting voice, or by acting as an ally and supporting the voice of others (Satterstrom et al., 2021). For example, Satterstrom et al. (2021) detailed how voice allies employ a range of tactics, such as legitimising, developing, issue-raising, amplifying and exemplifying to support other team members' contributions. Others, such as voice resistors, use avoiding or opposing, to derail other team members' contributions (Satterstrom et al, 2021). According to Satterstrom and colleagues, both voice allyship and resistance play a critical role in the voice cultivation process. They found that team members can make an impact on the fate of voiced ideas by influencing how authority figures perceive

and evaluate these suggestions. Aside from the study published by Satterstrom and colleagues, knowledge on how voice allyship and voice resistance influence team outcomes remains limited. In this chapter, I build and extend on the theorisation of the voice cultivation process (Satterstrom et al., 2021) and social information processing (SIP) theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) to empirically test how team members' support for (i.e., voice allyship) or hindrance against (i.e., voice resistance) voiced ideas influences team voice outcomes (i.e., team voice, team silence, team voice resilience) and team wellbeing (i.e., team satisfaction, team positive affect, team negative affect). In doing so, the study enriches the voice literature in two major ways.

First, the study positions team members as central actors in the voice process, influencing team outcomes. The meta-analysis in the previous chapter (Study 1) shows that the impact of team members is relatively unexplored as a major antecedent to team voice outcomes. In this chapter, I draw upon SIP theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) to argue that voice allyship and resistance by team members influence not only what happens to the voiced idea but also affect the team as a whole in the form of shared team outcomes. SIP posits that individuals adapt their behaviour based on the social cues they receive from others in their environment, which inform them about what is acceptable or expected behaviour (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In this vein, allyship for voiced ideas serves as a prominent signal from the team that voicing is safe and encouraged, thus prompting further input from other team members. Conversely, when voiced ideas are ignored or consistently rejected by team members, this is likely interpreted as a clear social cue that voicing is perceived as unwelcome, which can deter further contributions from team members. By shifting the focus from leadership to the

lateral influences of team members, this study shows that team voice is not merely a reflection of leadership, but also a product of peer interactions within the broader social context.

Secondly, my research contributes to existing knowledge by empirically examining specific voice allyship and resistance tactics. Although these tactics have been theorised and discussed (i.e., legitimising, developing, issue-raising, amplifying, and exemplifying with voice allyship tactics; avoiding and opposing with voice resistance tactics, Satterstrom et al., 2021), the effectiveness of these tactics in influencing team outcomes has yet to be empirically tested. In my study, I focus on the four primary tactics identified by Satterstrom et al. (2021): legitimising, developing, avoiding, and opposing. Based on SIP theory, I argue that these behavioural tactics function as mediating mechanisms, translating the role of voice allyship and resistance into socially meaningful messages that shape team member perceptions and influence their behaviours accordingly. Thus, a key contribution of my research is integrating SIP theory to uncover the important role of voice allyship and resistance and their behavioural tactics to influence tangible team-level outcomes.

In this chapter, I present a pilot experimental between-teams study involving 181 postgraduate students working in 42 teams (Study 2a), followed by a second, larger study involving 692 undergraduate students working in 128 teams (Study 2b). In both studies, I manipulated the presence of a voice ally versus the presence of a voice resistor versus a control condition. I also measured voice tactics and voice outcomes (i.e., team voice, voice resilience and team silence), as well as team wellbeing (i.e., team satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect). Figure 9 presents the theoretical model.

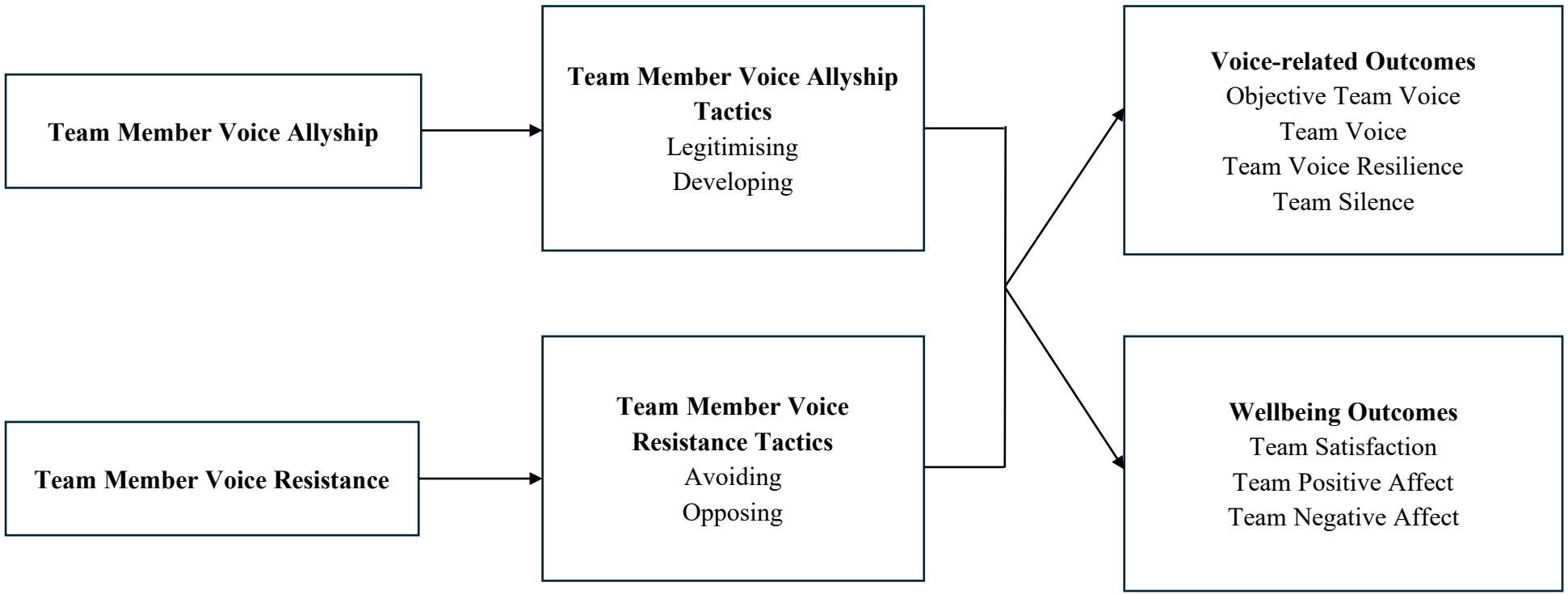

Figure 9. Theoretical model (Study 2).

3.2 Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

3.2.1 Voice Cultivation Process

The voice cultivation process (Satterstrom et al., 2021) describes how voiced ideas that are initially met with resistance can persist and eventually be implemented through the supportive actions of team members. Two critical phases embedded within the voice cultivation process are team member voice allyship and resistance, which represent the ways in which team members either sustain or suppress voiced ideas. Voice allyship occurs when an idea, despite being met with initial scepticism or doubt regarding its feasibility or importance, is kept alive by other team members who actively support and legitimise it over time (Satterstrom et al., 2021). It highlights the social nature of voice, where the fate of a voiced idea is not solely determined by the person who initially proposed it but is continuously shaped by team interactions. On the other hand, voice resistance occurs when a voiced idea is immediately rejected at the moment it is proposed (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Within the team, saying "no" to the suggestions of others is likely unpleasant yet inevitable (King et al., 2019), particularly when teams lack the resources to implement suggestions, or believe that voiced ideas may be inappropriate or unrealistic (Landau, 2009). Team members may resist voiced ideas by ignoring them, changing the subject, or directly opposing them by questioning their feasibility, necessity, or effectiveness. The voice cultivation process highlights the social context of voice, which is influenced by team members through their allyship with or resistance to voiced ideas.

In the following section, I build upon Satterstrom et al.'s (2021) voice cultivation process by integrating SIP theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) to extend knowledge on the impact of team member voice allyship and resistance on five key team outcomes: 1) team voice (including both team reported voice, which captures perceived collective voice behaviour within the team, and objective team voice which captures the total number of qualified ideas), 2) team voice resilience (subsequent engagement in voice despite adversity in the process; King et al., 2019), 3) team silence (the collective inclination of a team to withhold opinions related to their work, Zettna et al., 2025), 4) team satisfaction (team members' emotional attitudes toward each other and their collective unit; Kong et al., 2015) and 5) team positive and negative affect (positive affect refers to the degree to which an individual experiences feelings of enthusiasm, energy and heightened alertness while negative affect refers to a broad dimension of emotional distress and unfavorable engagement; Watson et al., 1988). These outcomes collectively capture both behavioural and emotional indicators of team functioning.

Notably, SIP theory emphasises how individuals rely on social cues from their environment to determine what behaviours are acceptable and expected (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In the context of team voice, team members observe how voiced ideas are treated by their peers, and these reactions from peers function as social signals indicating whether voice is risky or safe, encouraged or discouraged. These signals, in turn, impact their subsequent collective voice behaviours and perceptions of team wellbeing. To test these theorised relationships, I designed an experimental study to investigate the effects of three conditions

(team allyship, team resistance and a control condition) on team outcomes. I also measured allyship tactics (e.g., legitimising, developing) and resistance tactics (e.g., avoiding, opposing) to test their theorised role as mediators, as can be seen in Figure 9.

3.2.2 The Effect of Team Member Allyship Versus Resistance on Team Voice

Team voice is defined as the extent to which members of a team proactively make constructive suggestions for improvement by introducing new ideas and discussing potential challenges (Walumbwa et al., 2012). To date, much of the existing literature on team voice has concentrated on leader-related factors such as leadership styles (e.g., Chen et al., 2021; Walumbwa et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2022), and leader personality or behaviour (e.g., Chen et al., 2022; Li et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021). This focus reflects the challenging nature of voice directed to higher-ups. However, voicing within teams, particularly to other members, can also be challenging, as it may expose individuals to peer ostracism or social rejection (Ng et al., 2020). In such settings, team members' reactions play an important role in shaping whether voice input is welcomed or withheld. Therefore, team voice directed towards the team as a whole is likely to be influenced by the ongoing social cues conveyed through the words and actions of fellow team members.

SIP theory states that employees' perceptions and actions are influenced by social cues from their workplace environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). This means that individuals look to others to understand what behaviours are acceptable and what risks are associated with them. One such behaviour is speaking up in a team setting, which often involves social risk, as individuals may fear negative consequences such as criticism, exclusion, or retaliation

(Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). However, this perceived risk can be reduced. According to SIP theory, the presence of voice allyship can reduce this perceived risk by flagging that speaking up is not only acceptable but also encouraged within the team. Specifically, when team members actively support a voiced idea, they send a clear social signal that the team values contributions and is open to discussion and change. As a result, the team tends to perceive it as a norm and an opportunity for constructive engagement instead of seeing voice as a socially risky behaviour,

In contrast, according to SIP theory, the presence of resisters conveys a strong social signal that voicing is unwelcome within the team. Such voice resistance is often accompanied by negative or unresponsive behaviours from team members, which reinforce the perception that speaking up is neither safe nor valued. Specifically, resistance to voiced ideas leads to a non-supportive social climate, signalling a lack of receptivity to new ideas or concerns (Zhu et al., 2023). As a result, employees may perceive a heightened risk associated with speaking up, leading them to self-censor, even when they have valuable insights or suggestions. Research supports this notion, showing that experiences of ostracism or social exclusion significantly reduce employee voice behaviour (Jahanzeb & Newell, 2022; Wu et al., 2019). Consequently, employees are more likely to withhold their voice, even in situations where their input could enhance organisational functioning or address critical issues. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Teams with voice allies will engage in more team voice compared to teams with voice resistors.

3.2.3 The Effect of Team Member Voice Allyship and Resistance on Voice Tactics

When a team member personally endorses or disapproves of another's voice, other team members will react to observable cues in their environment, which can be seen more visibly through allies' and resistors' concrete behaviours (i.e., tactics). In Satterstrom et al.'s (2021) voice cultivation process, the authors identified several common allyship tactics. In this study, I focus on legitimising and developing, as these were the two most frequently observed in Satterstrom and colleagues' ethnographic study. Legitimising refers to "vouching that a voiced idea makes sense, solves an important problem, can be done or has been done elsewhere, often by using specific examples or making it your own without citing the original source" (Satterstrom et al., 2021, pp.394-395). It involves confirming the appropriateness of a proposal or establishing the authority to make a request and relies on referencing official policies or documents (Lee et al., 2017). While legitimising has been recognised as a "hard" influence tactic often used by leaders to shape employee behaviour (Cable & Judge, 2003), the need for legitimising is particularly significant in lateral relationships within organisations, where ambiguity regarding authority and task responsibilities tends to be greatest (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Another commonly observed allyship tactic is developing, referring to "acknowledging or asking clarifying questions to help oneself and others hear and make sense of a voiced idea" (Satterstrom et al., 2021, pp.394-395). It is similar to the influence tactic "rational persuasion," which involves using logical arguments and factual evidence to convince others (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Rational persuasion is considered most effective when the team

shares the same task objectives as the persuader but has not yet recognised that the proposed course of action is the most effective way to achieve those objectives (Yukl, 2010). Similarly, developing is believed to have the greatest influence when the entire team aligns on task objectives, but requires further elaboration or clarification to fully comprehend the value of the proposed idea. Although legitimising and developing differ in form, their function is to express support for voiced ideas by team members, ultimately strengthening their credibility and increasing their likelihood of being heard and considered by the team. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 2: Voice allyship is positively associated with (a) legitimising and (b) developing.

Voice resistors may reject or challenge voiced ideas due to concerns about feasibility, risk, or misalignment with team goals. In environments with strong power dynamics, resisting may also function as a form of gatekeeping, ensuring that only ideas aligned with dominant team narratives gain traction. Alternatively, some resistors may feel that voiced ideas lack sufficient justification and thus require stronger evidence before they can be considered viable.

The voice cultivation process identifies two primary forms of resistance – avoiding and opposing. Avoiding typically takes the form of team members disregarding the voiced idea by either ignoring it, shifting the topic, deeming the idea irrelevant or premature for discussion, or making non-committal agreements without the intention to follow through. In contrast, opposing involves team members actively disputing the validity of the voiced idea

by either directly challenging its feasibility, referencing past failures or promoting an alternative solution as more effective. Although the two tactics differ, with the former being more implicit and the latter more confrontational, both serve to discourage voiced ideas to prevent these ideas from being implemented. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 3: Voice resistance is positively associated with (a) avoiding and (b) opposing.

3.2.4 The Influence of Voice Tactics on Team Outcomes

According to SIP theory, the team develops their attitudes, cognitions and behaviours by interpreting social cues within the workplace (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). The voice allyship and resistance tactics used by team members act as visible social cues that communicate to the rest of the team whether speaking up is safe or risky, encouraged or discouraged. Specifically, legitimising involves validating the appropriateness of a proposal or establishing the authority to make a request and relies on referencing official policies or documents (Lee et al., 2017). This tactic helps establish credibility and makes it easier for ideas to gain acceptance, particularly in challenging situations (Vakola et al., 2023). When experienced or high-status members in the team seriously consider and validate a voiced idea, it sends a strong social signal that voicing is not only accepted but actively encouraged and taken seriously. In line with SIP theory, such positive social cues reduce the perceived social risks of speaking up across the entire team, fostering an environment where team members are more likely to engage in constructive behaviours such as voice and voice resilience while reducing silence. Furthermore, a supportive social environment strengthens team satisfaction

and positive affect, as team members feel valued and encouraged to participate. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 4: Legitimising is positively associated with (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, and negatively associated with (e) team silence and (f) team negative affect.

Developing involves the use of logical arguments and factual information to convince others that voiced ideas are feasible and consistent with shared objectives (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Such a tactic often includes referencing personal experiences and past examples, making it a gradual, iterative, and persuasive approach that helps the team make sense of ideas. Developing helps deliver the social cue that voice is welcome within the team, allowing team members to feel more confident in contributing their thoughts. Moreover, developing operates through active engagement and open dialogue, fostering a more inclusive and participatory team environment that makes team members experience satisfaction with the team and positive affect. For example, Hysong (2006) examined supervisors in petrochemical and engineering firms and found that when managers used communication tactics that emphasised the logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade others, subordinates reported higher job satisfaction and evaluated managerial performance more positively. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 5: Developing is positively associated with (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, and negatively associated with (e) team silence and (f) team negative affect.

While voice allyship tactics convey support for voiced ideas, voice resistance tactics transform resistance intentions into concrete signals that influence team perceptions and behaviours. Specifically, avoiding represents a more "passive" resistance tactic, typically in the form of ignoring others' voiced ideas. This can parallel the effects observed in workplace ostracism and social exclusion, where employees become less likely to engage in prosocial or helpful behaviours (Twenge et al., 2007). For example, Twenge et al.'s (2013) research on social exclusion has shown that individuals who are ignored often enter a deconstructed cognitive state, marked by reduced meaningful thought, diminished emotion, and lowered self-awareness. In their series of six experiments, the findings revealed that excluded individuals were more likely to "perceive life as meaningless", "exhibit emotional numbness", "write fewer words", "display slower reaction times" and "even avoid their own reflection in a mirror to escape self-awareness (Twenge et al., 2003). Similarly, Robinson et al. (2013) have shown that being ignored, whether self-reported or experimentally induced, leads to significant impairments in individuals' psychological needs, emotional states, and attitudinal outcomes. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 6: Avoiding is negatively associated with (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, and positively associated with (e) team silence and (f) team negative affect.

Opposing reflects a more explicit and confrontational form of voice resistance. It typically involves direct rebuttals and overt challenges to others' voiced input, thereby signalling disagreement in a more visible and potentially threatening manner. Unlike

avoiding, which passively discourages voice by ignoring or dismissing ideas, opposing sends a stronger and more confrontational message of disagreement with voiced ideas. Such negative responses become observable cues that others use to infer team norms surrounding voice. As a result, even those who were not directly involved in the exchange may become more reluctant to speak up, fearing similar rejection or interpersonal conflict. Moreover, witnessing a colleague's voice being opposed can cause a silent climate and vicarious negative emotions, which may spill over into team-level negative outcomes (Brykman & Maerz, 2023). Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 7: Opposing is negatively associated with (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, and positively associated with (e) team silence and (f) team negative affect.

3.2.5 The Mediating Effect of Voice Tactics

SIP theory states that employee perceptions and subsequent behaviours are the result of information available in the social environment of the workplace (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Voice allyship and resistance tactics serve as the vehicle through which voice allyship and resistance intentions become socially meaningful in a team setting. Without observable behaviours, internal states cannot influence team norms, voice outcomes, or team wellbeing. Therefore, it is not just the intention to support or resist that matters, but how those intentions are expressed through specific voice tactics, which act as key social signals within the team. SIP theory provides an appropriate framework for understanding how legitimising, developing, avoiding, and opposing function as mediators in converting team member

allyship and resistance intentions into impactful signals that influence collective perceptions and behaviours. Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 8: Legitimising mediates the relationships between voice allyship and (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, (e) team silence, and (f) team negative affect.

Hypothesis 9: Developing mediates the relationships between allyship and (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, (e) team silence, and (f) team negative affect.

Hypothesis 10: Avoiding mediates the relationships between resistance and (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, (e) team silence, and (f) team negative affect.

Hypothesis 11: Opposing mediates the relationships between resistance and (a) team voice, (b) team voice resilience, (c) team satisfaction, (d) team positive affect, (e) team silence, and (f) team negative affect.

3.3 Method (Study 2a – Pilot Study)

3.3.1 Sample and Procedure

The research involving human data in this study was reviewed and approved by the University of Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC; Protocol Number: HREC2023/006). The pilot study was conducted in full-time postgraduate tutorials at an Australian university. The sample in this phase consisted of 181 students nested in 42 groups,

including 14 allyship groups, 15 resistance groups and 13 control groups. To prepare for the study, tutors identified groups of 4-5 students one week prior to the tutorial sessions and randomly assigned the teams to the three different experimental conditions – allyship, resistance, and control.

For the experimental manipulation, tutors strategically selected one student from each allyship group to act as an ally (someone who actively legitimised or developed others' voices) and another from each resistance group to act as a resistor (someone who actively avoided or opposed others' voices) during a brainstorming activity. The selections were based on the tutor's judgment of who was most confident and capable of enacting the assigned role. These students received invitations via email detailing their roles (see Appendix B), with strict instructions to keep this information confidential both before and during the activity. Students in control groups engaged in the activity without any specific role, maintaining a natural group setting.

The class activity was themed "Fighting Bushfire". The background of the activity was introduced as:

"You live a sweet life with your parents on a small farm in East Gippsland, Victoria, which is hit hard by bushfire during summer. Recently, the department of bushfire services alerted you to a possible bushfire because of extremely high temperatures, low relative humidity and strong winds.

You and your family decide to stay and defend your home from a possible bushfire. While firefighters and emergency services will do everything they can to help you, there is no

guarantee that there will be a fire truck available when you need it. So you need to be well prepared."

The activity proceeded in two stages:

1. Individual list: Initially, each student independently compiled a list of essential items needed to prepare for the bushfire within three minutes.
2. Group list: Following the individual task, students worked together in their pre-assigned groups to generate a collective list of bushfire preparation items within ten minutes. During this group discussion, allies were instructed to actively support ideas proposed by their peers, while resistors were directed to challenge these ideas.

Afterwards, each group list was evaluated against an official list provided by the Australian government. Groups earned scores based on the accuracy of their lists, with one point awarded for each correctly identified item.

3.3.2 Measure

Objective team voice. The objective team voice was measured by the total number of items generated by each group during the brainstorming activity, reflecting the collective engagement and output of the group discussions.

3.4 Results (Study 2a – Pilot Study)

3.4.1 Manipulation Checks

I used t-tests on the specifically designed manipulation check item developed directly from the conceptual definitions of voice allyship and voice resistance (Satterstrom et al.,

2021). The items were “There was clear visibility of someone in the group resisting other group members’ ideas” and “There was clear visibility of someone in the group offering support for other group members’ ideas”. In the voice allyship manipulation check, groups with allies (M = 4.32, SD = .39) demonstrated a statistically significant difference compared to groups with resistors (M = 3.90, SD = .58), yielding a t-value of 2.25 and $p < .05$. In the voice resistance manipulation check, groups with allies (M = 2.43, SD = 1.52) demonstrated a statistically significant difference compared to groups with resistors (M = 3.06, SD = 1.48), yielding a t-value of -2.60 and $p < .05$. The finding substantiates the successful manipulation of allyship and resistance.

3.4.2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The ANOVA results for objective team voice among the three conditions are presented in Table 11. The analysis included groups with allies (allyship groups), groups with resistors (resistance groups), and groups without interventions (control groups), with respective sample sizes of 14, 15, and 13 groups. The mean scores for objective team voice were 10.64 (SD = 5.32) for the allyship group, 7.33 (SD = 3.70) for the resistance group, and 10.38 (SD = 4.89) for the control group. While the means were in the hypothesised direction, the results of the ANOVA indicated a statistically nonsignificant difference among the three groups, $F(2, 39) = 2.27$, $p = .117$. Further, I then did post hoc tests, and the results (see Table 12) showed that there is a difference between the allyship and resistance groups, with a mean difference of 3.31 and a standard error of 1.73. The significance level is .06, suggesting a trend towards significance, though just above the .05 threshold.

Although the overall ANOVA results in the pilot study did not reach statistical significance ($p = .117$), the pairwise comparison between the allyship and resistance conditions revealed a marginally significant difference in team voice ($p = .06$). Given the limitations with the small sample size, the trend in the results are promising in that it is in the direction of the theoretical predictions (i.e., lower voice in the resistance condition). Moreover, the manipulation checks confirmed that participants in the allyship and resistance conditions perceived significantly different levels of supportive behaviour, suggesting that the experimental roles were successfully enacted. Given these indications of meaningful effects and a functioning manipulation, I retained the same design for Study 2b while increasing the sample size to enhance statistical power and more robustly test the hypothesised relationships.

Table 11. ANOVA Results for Objective Team Voice among Three Conditions (Study 2a)

Dependent Variable	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Objective Team Voice	Allyship	14	10.64	5.32	Between Groups	98.28	2	49.14	2.27	.117
	Resistance	15	7.33	3.70	Within Groups	845.63	39	21.68		
	Control	13	10.38	4.89	Total	943.91	41			

Note. N = sample size, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *df* = degrees of freedom, *F* = F statistic, *p* = significance level.

Table 12. Post Hoc Tests (Study 2a)

Dependent Variable	Group	Group	Mean Difference	*SE*	*p*	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Objective Team Voice	Allyship	Resistance	3.31	1.73	.06	-.19	6.81
		Control	.26	1.79	.89	-3.37	3.89
	Resistance	Allyship	-3.31	1.73	.06	-6.81	.19
		Control	-3.05	1.76	.09	-6.62	.52
	Control	Allyship	-.26	1.79	.89	-3.89	3.37
		Resistance	3.05	1.76	.09	-.52	6.62

Note. Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the Least Significant Difference (LSD) test. *SE* = Standard Error, *p* = significance level.

3.5 Method (Study 2b – Primary Study)

3.5.1 Sample and Procedure

The research involving human data in this study was reviewed and approved by the University of Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC; Protocol Number: HREC2022/172). Data for the primary study were collected from a cohort of full-time undergraduate students enrolled in a large academic unit at an Australian university. The sample[2] in this phase consisted of 692 participants nested in 128 student groups, including 47 allyship groups, 44 resistance groups and 37 control groups. The procedure followed the same process used in the pilot study involving random allocation of teams into the three experimental conditions.

At the end of the experiment, participants were invited to complete an online survey designed to assess their teamwork experiences. Specifically, the survey included questions on the allyship tactics (i.e., *legitimising* and *developing*), resistance tactics (i.e., *avoiding* and *opposing*), *voice resilience, team silence*, *team satisfaction*, *positive affect*, and *negative affect*. Survey responses were obtained from 306 students, resulting in a response rate of 44%. As survey participation was voluntary, not all students chose to complete the questionnaire. The returned responses were matched to students' assigned groups. Groups with fewer than two responses were excluded from group-level analyses. This resulted in data from 68 groups, including 28 allyship groups, 26 resistance groups, and 14 control groups.

[2] An a priori power analysis conducted using G*Power (Erdfelder et al., 1996) indicated that, with 128 groups across three experimental conditions, the design achieves an estimated power of 0.86 to detect a medium-to-large effect size ($f = 0.30$) at $\alpha = .05$.

3.5.2 Measures

Full items of all measures can be seen in Appendix C.

Allyship tactics. Allyship tactics were measured using an adapted version of the influence behaviour scale (Yukl et al., 2008) (1=*never* to 5=*very frequently*). The measure included legitimising (α = .85; e.g., "Indicate that a voiced idea was consistent with firefighting principles") and developing (α = .84; "Use facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a voiced idea"). All items were referent-shifted to the team level, framed with "Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did team members…".

Resistance tactics. Resistance tactics scales were measured with an adapted version of the workplace ostracism scale (Ferris et al., 2008) (1=*never* to 5=*very frequently*). The measure included avoiding (α = .83; "Ignore an idea") and opposing (α = .86; "Shut down an idea"). All items were referent-shifted to the team level, framed with "Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did team members…".

Team voice. Team voice was measured using an adaptive version of Liang et al's (2012) voice scale (1=*extremely unlikely* to 5=*extremely likely*). A sample item is "Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did members of this group make constructive suggestions to help us reach our goals". The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scale in this study is .88.

Voice resilience. Voice resilience was measured using an adaptive version of Liang et al's (2012) voice scale (1=*extremely unlikely* to 5=*extremely likely*). A sample item is "After the bushfire exercise, how likely are you to raise suggestions to improve group work". The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scale in this study is .92.

Team silence. Team silence was measured using Tangirala and Ramanujam's (2008) silence scale (1=*extremely unlikely* to 5=*extremely likely*). A sample item is "Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did members of this group remain silent when there were concerns about the task". The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scale in this study is .91.

Team satisfaction. Team satisfaction was measured using Hackman and Oldham's (1980) team satisfaction scale (1= *strongly disagree* to 5= *strongly agree*). A sample item is "Overall, I am satisfied with the group members". The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scale in this study is .93.

PANAS. Positive affect and negative affect were measured using Watson et al's (1988) scale (1= *not at all* to 5= *almost always*). Participants were asked to respond to what extent they experienced the following emotions during the task. There were five items for positive affect (i.e., "Determined", "Attentive", "Alert", "Inspired", "Active") and five items for negative affect (i.e., "Afraid", "Nervous", "Upset", "Ashamed", "Hostile"). The Cronbach's α coefficients of the positive affect scale and the negative affect scale in this study are .84 and .86 respectively.

Control variables. I include age and gender as control variables in Study 2b, as research has consistently shown that demographic variables such as gender (Eibl et al., 2020) and age (Cooper, 2018) significantly impact voice behaviour.

3.5.3 Data Aggregation

When data at the individual level is aggregated to the team level, a consistency test of scoring is required (Podsakoff et al., 2003). I calculated both within-group agreement ($r_{wg(j)}$;

James et al., 1984) and intraclass correlations (Bliese, 2000). The $r_{wg(j)}$ values indicate high levels of intra-group agreement, the *ICC(1)* values indicate that group membership accounted for a high proportion of the variance in individual responses, and the *ICC(2)* values indicate that the group means were stable. The cut-off for $r_{wg(j)}$ is .70, *ICC(1)* is .12 and *ICC(2)* is .60.

Legitimising ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .74, *ICC(1)* = .13, *ICC(2)* = .35), developing ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .83, *ICC(1)* = .27, *ICC(2)* = .63), avoiding ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .80, *ICC(1)* = .15, *ICC(2)* = .40), opposing ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .83, *ICC(1)* = .30, *ICC(2)* = .61), positive affect ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .84, *ICC(1)* = .12, *ICC(2)* = .34), negative affect ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .88, *ICC(1)* = .08, *ICC(2)* = .24), satisfaction ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .78, *ICC(1)* = .21, *ICC(2)* = .50), voice ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .79, *ICC(1)* = .17, *ICC(2)* = .48), silence ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .81, *ICC(1)* = .20, *ICC(2)* = .53) and voice resilience ($r_{wg(j)}$ = .85, *ICC(1)* = .08, *ICC(2)* = .24).

Across constructs, $r_{wg(j)}$ values exceeded the recommended threshold of .70. While most *ICC(1)* values met or exceeded the .12 benchmark, *ICC(2)* values were generally lower than the conventional .60 threshold. However, according to Bliese (1998), low *ICC(2)* values do not necessarily preclude aggregation, particularly in field settings with limited group sizes, as *ICC(2)* is sensitive to group size. Given the theoretical rationale for team-level constructs, acceptable within-team agreement, and commonly observed *ICC(2)* in studies, I proceeded with team-level aggregation.

3.6 Results (Study 2b – Primary Study)

3.6.1 Manipulation Checks

I used t-tests on manipulation check items that were identical to those used in Study 2a. These items were developed directly from the conceptual definitions of voice allyship (Satterstrom et al., 2021) and voice resistance to measure the perceptibility of group members supporting or opposing others' ideas. The items were framed as: "There was clear visibility of someone in the group offering support for other group members' ideas", and "There was clear visibility of someone in the group resisting other group members' ideas".

In the allyship manipulation check, groups with allies (M = 4.28, SD = .83) demonstrated a statistically significant difference compared to groups with resistors (M = 3.84, SD = .94), yielding a t-value of 3.98 and $p < .001$. Similarly, the resistance manipulation check showed a significant distinction between groups with allies (M = 2.55, SD = 1.49) and groups with resistors (M = 3.25, SD = 1.28), with a t-value of -3.98 and $p < .001$. These findings substantiate the successful manipulation of allyship and resistance.

3.6.2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The ANOVA results for objective team voice among the three conditions are presented in Table 13. The analysis included groups with allies (allyship groups), groups with resistors (resistance groups), and groups without interventions (control groups), with respective sample sizes of 47, 44, and 37 groups. The mean scores for objective team voice were 12.79 (SD = 3.82) for the allyship group, 10.52 (SD = 4.35) for the resistance group, and 11.51 (SD = 2.13) for the control group. The results of the ANOVA indicated a statistically significant difference among the three groups, $F(2, 125) = 4.451$, $p = .014$. Post hoc comparisons (see Table 14) showed that teams in the allyship condition demonstrated significantly higher

objective team voice than teams in the resistance condition, $p < .01$, with a mean difference of 2.26 (95% CI [.76, 3.77]). Hypothesis 1 was supported.

3.6.3 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) Analysis[3]

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are presented in Table 16. SEM results are summarised in Table 17. According to the data, teams with voice allies reported more legitimising ($r = .27$, $SE = .13$, $p < .05$) and developing ($r = .50$, $SE = .13$, $p < .001$) tactics. Conversely, voice resistors predominantly used avoiding ($r = .60$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$) and opposing tactics ($r = .81$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$). Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 3a and 3b were supported.

The results indicate that the tactic of legitimising did not have a significant effect on any of the measured team outcomes: team voice ($r = .11$, $SE = .09$, $p = .21$), voice resilience ($r = .10$, $SE = .08$, $p = .22$), team silence ($r = -.06$, $SE = .09$, $p = .49$), team satisfaction ($r = -.10$, $SE = .09$, $p = .27$), positive affect ($r = .03$, $SE = .07$, $p = .69$), or negative affect ($r = .08$, $SE = .07$, $p = .25$). Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, 4d, 4e and 4f were not supported. In contrast, the tactic of developing was significantly associated with higher levels of team voice ($r = .57$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$), voice resilience ($r = .29$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$), team satisfaction ($r = .78$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$), and positive affect ($r = .52$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$). Additionally, the tactic of developing exhibited a negative relationship with team silence ($r = -.62$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$)

[3] I conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to evaluate the measurement model (see Table 15). Given that allyship and resistance were dummy-coded variables, I tested the model with ten latent constructs measured using multi-item scales. As shown in Table 15, the ten-factor model demonstrated acceptable model fit: $x^2(944) = 2141.75$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .08, CFI = .86, TLI = .85. This model fitted the data significantly better than several alternative models.

and negative affect (r = -.32, SE = .07, p < .001). Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 5c, 5d, 5e and 5f were supported.

On the other hand, the tactic of avoiding was associated with adverse team outcomes. It significantly reduced team voice (r = -.66, SE = .13, p < .001), voice resilience (r = -.40, SE = .10, p < .001), team satisfaction (r = -.66, SE = .13, p < .001), and positive affect (r = -.59, SE = .10, p < .001). Conversely, avoiding was positively linked to team silence (r = .67, SE = .12, p < .001) and negative affect (r = .23, SE = .09, p < .01). Hypotheses 6a, 6b, 6c, 6d, 6e and 6f were supported. Finally, the tactic of opposing yielded mixed results. It was significantly associated with team voice (r = .33, SE = .11, p < .01), voice resilience (r = .22, SE = .08, p < .05), team silence (r = -.30, SE = .11, p < .01), and positive affect (r = .31, SE = .09, p < .001), though the direction of these effects was opposite to what was hypothesised. However, opposing did not have a significant effect on team satisfaction (r = .08, SE = .11, p = .46), or negative affect (r = .04, SE = .07, p = .62). Hypotheses 7a, 7b, 7c, 7d, 7e and 7f were not supported.

The bootstrap results presented in Table 17 provide insights into the indirect effects of allyship and resistance on team outcomes through voice tactics. As can be seen, the mediation effects through the team allyship tactic of legitimising were not statistically significant for any of the dependent variables: team voice (r = .0309, SE = .0291, 95% CI = [-.0260, .0879]), voice resilience (r = .0269, SE = .0253, 95% CI = [-.0227, .0766]), team silence (r = -.0163, SE = .0251, 95% CI = [-.0655, .0329]), team satisfaction (r = -.0280, SE = .0289, 95% CI = [-.0847, .0287]), positive affect (r = .0077, SE = .0199, 95% CI = [-.0313, .0467]), and

negative affect (*r* = .0220, *SE* = .0219, 95% CI = [-.0209, .0649]). Hence, Hypotheses 8a, 8b, 8c, 8d, 8e and 8f were not supported.

Conversely, the tactic of developing was a significant mediator of the relationship between team allyship and team outcomes. Specifically, developing significantly increased team voice (*r* = .2803, *SE* = .0853, 95% CI = [.1130, .4475]), voice resilience (*r* = .1449, *SE* = .0534, 95% CI = [.0402, .2496]), team satisfaction (*r* = .3850, *SE* = .1105, 95% CI = [.1685, .6015]), and positive affect (*r* = .2569, *SE* = .0755, 95% CI = [.1089, .4049]). Additionally, developing played a role in reducing team silence (*r* = -.3088, *SE* = .0910, 95% CI = [-.4872, -.1303]) and negative affect (*r* = -.1575, *SE* = .0530, 95% CI = [-.2613, -.0537]). Hypotheses 9a, 9b, 9c, 9d, 9e and 9f were supported.

In terms of the mediation effects of the voice resistance tactics, the tactic of avoiding was a significant mediator of the relationship between teams with voice resistance and the outcomes of team voice (*r* = -.3937, *SE* = .1016, 95% CI = [-.5928, -.1947]), voice resilience (*r* = -.2409, *SE* = .0721, 95% CI = [-.3822, -.0996]), team satisfaction (*r* = -.3942, *SE* = .1059, 95% CI = [-.6017, -.1867]) and positive affect (*r* = -.3516, *SE* = .0957, 95% CI = [-.5394, -.1638]), team silence (*r* = .4006, *SE* = .1018, 95% CI = [.2011, .6001]) and negative affect (*r* = .1385, *SE* = .0567, 95% CI = [.0273, .2497]). Hypotheses 10a, 10b, 10c, 10d, 10e and 10f were supported.

The tactic of opposing had mixed indirect effects. Interestingly, while voice resistance was associated with the use of more opposing tactics, opposing in turn significantly increased team voice (*r* = .2663, *SE* = .0934, 95% CI = [.0832, .4495]), voice resilience (*r* = .1751, *SE*

= .0715, 95% CI = [.0349, .3152]), and positive affect (*r* = .2468, *SE* = .0767, 95% CI = [.0964, .3972]), which were in the opposite direction of our initial hypothesis. However, opposing did not have a significant indirect effect on team silence (*r* = -.2376, *SE* = .0911, 95% CI = [-.4160, .0591]), team satisfaction (*r* = .0677, *SE* = .0927, 95% CI = [-.1141, .2494]), or negative affect (*r* = .0292, *SE* = .0591, 95% CI = [-.0866, .1450]). Hypotheses 11a, 11b, 11c, 11d, 11e and 11f were not supported.

Table 13. ANOVA Results for Objective Team Voice among Three Conditions (Study 2b)

Dependent Variable	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Objective Team Voice	Allyship	47	12.79	3.82	Between Groups	117.376	2	58.688	4.451	.014
	Resistance	44	10.52	4.35	Within Groups	1648.093	125	13.185		
	Control	37	11.51	2.13	Total	1765.469	127			

Note. N = sample size, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *df* = degrees of freedom, *F* = F statistic, *p* = significance level.

Table 14. Post Hoc Tests (Study 2b)

Dependent Variable	Group	Group	Mean Difference	*SE*	*p*	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Objective Team Voice	Allyship	Resistance	2.26	.76	.00	.76	3.77
		Control	1.27	.80	.11	-.31	2.85
	Resistance	Allyship	-2.26	.76	.00	-3.77	-.76
		Control	-.99	.81	.22	-2.59	.61
	Control	Allyship	-1.27	.80	.11	-2.85	.31
		Resistance	.99	.81	.22	-.61	2.59

Note. Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the LSD test. *SE* = standard error, *p* = significance level.

Table 15. Results of CFA (Study 2b)

Model	$\chi 2$	*df*	$\Delta\chi 2$	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
Ten-factor model	2141.75***	944		.07	.08	.86	.85
Nine-factor model	2746.66***	953	604.91***	.08	.10	.79	.77
Seven-factor model	3287.01***	968	540.35***	.09	.10	.73	.71
Four-factor model	4879.13***	983	1592.12***	.12	.12	.53	.51
One-factor model	5803.31***	989	924.18***	.13	.13	.40	.38

Note. Ten-factor model = Legitimising + Developing + Avoiding + Opposing + Team Voice + Team Voice Resilience + Team Silence + Team Satisfaction + Team Positive Affect + Team Negative Affect.

Nine-factor model: Team positive affect and team negative affect were collapsed into a common factor.

Seven-factor model: Legitimising and developing were collapsed into a common factor, and avoiding and opposing were collapsed into a common factor.

Four-factor model: Team voice, team voice resilience and team silence were collapsed into a common factor, and team satisfaction and team affect were collapsed into a common factor.

One-factor model: All items were collapsed into a common factor.

CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean squared residual.

*** $p < .001$ two-tailed.

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Study Variables (Study 2b)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1.Behaviour (Allyship)	.41	.49	1.00**														
2.Behaviour (Resistance)	.38	.49	-.67**	1.00**													
3.Legitimising	2.75	.56	.24*	-.33*	1.00**												
4.Developing	3.72	.59	.42*	-.20	.37*	1.00**											
5.Avoiding	1.94	.52	-.49*	.57**	-.40*	-.29*	1.00**										
6.Opposing	2.10	.60	-.44*	.65**	-.33*	-.10	.69**	1.00**									
7.Team voice	3.43	.55	.34*	-.13	.34*	.64**	-.37*	-.07	1.00**								
8.Voice resilience	4.07	.41	.16	-.13	.29*	.46*	-.28*	-.03	.50**	1.00**							
9.Silence	2.23	.55	-.40*	.28*	-.30*	-.69**	.40*	.11	-.72**	-.58**	1.00**						
10.Satisfaction	4.18	.61	.46*	-.22	.18	.71**	-.50**	-.30*	.59**	.53**	-.67**	1.00**					
11.Positive affect	3.58	.45	.38*	-.16	.28*	.69**	-.39*	-.06	.61**	.63**	-.72**	.69**	1.00**				
12.Negative affect	1.40	.36	-.30*	.26*	-.07	-.47*	.37*	.29*	-.40*	-.36*	.41*	-.54**	-.35*	1.00**			
13.Age	19.74	.68	.24*	-.28*	.19	-.05	-.04	-.17	-.07	.09	.07	-.16	-.07	.22	1.00**		
14.Gender (Male)	.47	.27	.08	-.08	.02	.18	.03	.04	-.03	-.10	-.05	.02	.12	-.09	0.00	1.00**	
15.Gender (Female)	.52	.26	-.08	.07	-.01	-.14	-.04	-.05	.05	.13	.02	.02	-.07	.04	-.01	-.99**	1.00**

Note: *N*=68. Behaviour (Allyship): 1 = allyship, 0 = resistance/control; Behaviour (Resistance): 1 = resistance, 0 = allyship/control; Gender (Male): 1 = male, 0 = female/other; Gender (Female): 1 = female, 0 = male/other.

*p < .05 two-tailed; **p < .01 two-tailed.

Table 17. Path Analysis Results (Study 2b)

Hypothesis	Estimate	*z*-value	Hypothesis is supported
H2a: Allyship → Legitimising	.27**	2.06	Yes
H2b: Allyship → Developing	.50***	3.80	Yes
H3a: Resistance → Avoiding	.60***	5.71	Yes
H3b: Resistance → Opposing	.81***	7.13	Yes
H4a: Legitimising → Team voice	.11	1.24	No
H4b: Legitimising → Voice resilience	.10	1.24	No
H4c: Legitimising → Team silence	-.06	-.68	No
H4d: Legitimising → Team satisfaction	-.10	-1.10	No
H4e: Legitimising → Positive affect	.03	.39	No
H4f: Legitimising → Negative affect	.08	1.15	No
H5a: Developing → Team voice	.57***	6.52	Yes
H5b: Developing → Voice resilience	.29***	3.87	Yes
H5c: Developing → Team Silence	-.62***	-7.51	Yes
H5d: Developing → Team Satisfaction	.78***	8.73	Yes
H5e: Developing → Positive affect	.52***	7.63	Yes
H5f: Developing → Negative affect	-.32***	-4.78	Yes
H6a: Avoiding → Team voice	-.66***	-5.28	Yes
H6b: Avoiding → Voice resilience	-.40***	-4.12	Yes
H6c: Avoiding → Silence	.67****	5.43	Yes
H6d: Avoiding → Satisfaction	-.66***	-4.91	Yes
H6e: Avoiding → Positive affect	-.59***	-5.90	Yes
H6f: Avoiding → Negative affect	.23**	2.70	Yes
H7a: Opposing → Team voice	.33**	3.11	No
H7b: Opposing → Voice resilience	.22**	2.61	No
H7c: Opposing → Team silence	-.30**	-2.80	No
H7d: Opposing → Team satisfaction	.08	.73	No
H7e: Opposing → Positive affect	.31***	3.61	No
H7f: Opposing → Negative affect	.04	.50	No

Note. $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$.

Table 18. Indirect Effects of Allyship and Resistance on Dependent Variables via Voice Tactics (Study 2b)

Hypothesis	Estimate	*SE*	95% CI	Hypothesis is supported
H8a: Allyship → Legitimising → Team voice	.0309	.0291	[-.0260, .0879]	No
H8b: Allyship → Legitimising → Voice resilience	.0269	.0253	[-.0227, .0766]	No
H8c: Allyship → Legitimising → Team silence	-.0163	.0251	[-.0655, .0329]	No
H8d: Allyship → Legitimising → Team satisfaction	-.0280	.0289	[-.0847, .0287]	No
H8e: Allyship → Legitimising → Positive affect	.0077	.0199	[-.0313, .0467]	No
H8f: Allyship → Legitimising → Negative affect	.0220	.0219	[-.0209, .0649]	No
H9a: Allyship → Developing → Team voice	.2803	.0853	[.1130, .4475]	Yes
H9b: Allyship → Developing → Voice resilience	.1449	.0534	[.0402, .2496]	Yes
H9c: Allyship → Developing → Team silence	-.3088	.0910	[-.4872, -.1303]	Yes
H9d: Allyship → Developing → Team satisfaction	.3850	.1105	[.1685, .6015]	Yes
H9e: Allyship → Developing → Positive affect	.2569	.0755	[.1089, .4049]	Yes
H9f: Allyship → Developing → Negative affect	-0.1575	.0530	[-.2613, -.0537]	Yes
H10a: Resistance → Avoiding → Team voice	-.3937	.1016	[-.5928, -.1947]	Yes
H10b: Resistance → Avoiding → Voice resilience	-.2409	.0721	[-.3822, -.0996]	Yes
H10c: Resistance → Avoiding → Team silence	.4006	.1018	[.2011, .6001]	Yes
H10d: Resistance → Avoiding → Team satisfaction	-.3942	.1059	[-.6017, -.1867]	Yes
H10e: Resistance → Avoiding → Positive affect	-.3516	.0857	[-.5196, -.1837]	Yes
H10f: Resistance → Avoiding → Negative affect	.1385	.0567	[.0273, .2497]	Yes
H11a: Resistance → Opposing → Team voice	.2663	.0934	[.0832, .4495]	No
H11b: Resistance → Opposing → Voice resilience	.1751	.0715	[.0349, .3152]	No
H11c: Resistance → Opposing → Team silence	-.2376	.0911	[-.4160, .0591]	No
H11d: Resistance → Opposing → Team satisfaction	.0677	.0927	[-.1141, .2494]	No
H11e: Resistance → Opposing → Positive affect	.2468	.0767	[.0964, .3972]	No
H11f: Resistance → Opposing → Negative affect	.0292	.0591	[-.0866, .1450]	No

Note. *SE* = standard error

Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Bootstrapping based on 5000 samples.

95% bias-corrected confidence intervals are presented for indirect effects.

3.7 Discussion

This study extends existing voice literature by examining how team members' allyship or resistance toward others' voice influences team outcomes, focusing on the specific tactics they use. It empirically tests key aspects of the voice cultivation process and broadens its scope to include team-level outcomes, moving beyond traditional frameworks that primarily centre on the fate of individual voice (i.e., whether leaders choose to implement it. Unlike traditional voice models, which take voice as a one-time act within dyadic interactions, the voice cultivation process conceptualises voice as an evolving process within a complex social context. This dynamic and holistic perspective is particularly relevant at the team level, where team voice behaviours emerge through continuous interactions. Given that the findings emphasise the importance of fostering voice allyship in team environments, organisations should take proactive measures to cultivate a culture where employees feel encouraged to support each other's ideas, rather than remaining passive observers.

3.7.1 Theoretical and Practical Implications

First, drawing on SIP theory, this study contributes to the employee voice literature by broadening the voice perspectives from vertical authority to horizontal social influence within teams. Traditional research has largely centred on the voicer-leader dyad, emphasising how leaders' receptivity or openness shapes voice behaviour. However, by uncovering the influence of team members as voice allies and voice resistors in the voice process, this study challenges the prevailing assumption that voice outcomes are primarily determined by those in formal positions of power. To investigate this, I conducted two experimental studies

(Study 2a – a pilot study and Study 2b – a larger study) manipulating voice allyship, voice resistance, and a control condition. The results showed that teams with strong voice allyship demonstrated significantly higher levels of team voice compared to the other conditions. These findings, in conjunction with prior research on voice allyship, reinforce the positive organisational impact of allyship behaviours. At the individual level, voice allyship has been shown to enhance the quality of voiced ideas (Brykman & Raver, 2023), thereby increasing their likelihood of implementation. Additionally, voice allyship can elevate the social status of both the voicer and the team members who support voiced ideas (Bain et al., 2021). At a broader level, voice allyship fosters team voice. Taken together, these findings highlight the benefits of voice allyship at both the individual level and the team level in the voice process.

Second, this research emphasises the mediating role of voice allyship and resistance tactics. Regarding with voice allyship tactics, while both legitimising and developing were frequently used to support voiced ideas, only the tactic of developing significantly mediated the effects of allyship on team outcomes, in terms of increasing team voice, voice resilience, team satisfaction, and positive affect, while also reducing team silence and negative affect. One possible explanation is that the tactic of developing involves more interactivity, which actively engages team members. It involves clarifying, refining, and elaborating on voiced ideas, which encourages further discussion and collective problem-solving. By providing an open space for team discussion, the tactic of developing others' ideas (beyond simply agreeing and legitimising) reinforces the perception that voice is valued and can lead to meaningful change. In contrast, legitimising primarily relies on external validation, such as

referencing authority, precedent, or policies (Falbe & Yukl, 1992). While it signals that an idea is reasonable and legitimate, it does not necessarily encourage active team engagement. Rather than fostering team discussions, legitimising frames voice as something that needs external approval, potentially limiting team-based interaction and collective ownership of ideas.

In terms of voice resistance tactics, one of the most striking findings concerns the role of opposing as a resistance tactic. Contrary to initial hypotheses, opposing, despite signalling disagreement, was positively associated with higher team voice, voice resilience, and positive affect. This suggests that not all forms of resistance are detrimental to team voice. Rather, constructive opposition may serve as a catalyst for critical discussions and deeper engagement with voiced ideas. This is consistent with conflict management studies suggesting constructive disagreement among peers can contribute to intellectual growth (Laursen & Hafen, 2010). This is because peer discourse compels individuals to articulate and defend their positions, exposing them to alternative viewpoints and encouraging self-reflection and conceptual refinement (Ames & Murray, 1982). For example, analyses of a sample of 232 Canadian-based firms by De Clercq, Thongpapanl and Dimov (2009) showed that task-oriented conflict was positively related to firm innovation, especially when social interaction within the organisation was high. Unlike avoiding, which passively dismisses voice and discourages participation, opposing actively challenges ideas, sparking debate, prompting clarification, and encouraging teams to refine their perspectives. This intellectual engagement may enhance team voice and resilience, which is consistent with the results of

the study, as team members become accustomed to refining their arguments and defending their positions. Moreover, the positive relationship between opposing and positive affect suggests that engaging in constructive disagreement may energise teams rather than create conflict. These results suggest that encouraging employees to use more active allyship tactics, such as developing rather than merely legitimising voiced ideas, can be highly beneficial. Similarly, adopting active resistance tactics, such as constructive opposition instead of avoidance, also supports a more engaged team environment.

Finally, the research contributes to the voice literature by capturing objective team voice behaviour through an experiment, rather than relying solely on self-reported or leader-reported surveys. Prior studies on team voice and group voice predominantly employ survey-based measures, where voice is assessed through self-perceptions or leader evaluations (e.g., Ali et al., 2020; Babalola et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Kim & Vandenberghe, 2020; Li & Tangirala, 2022; Session et al., 2020). While these methods provide valuable insights, they often fail to capture the context-dependent nature of team voice in real team settings. Self-reported and leader-reported surveys are inherently constrained by subjective perceptions, which can be influenced by memory biases, social desirability effects, and individual interpretations of voice. Thus, this research adopted an experiment to directly examine team interactions and group activities in real-time, allowing for a more objective assessment of team voice.

3.7.2 Limitations and Future Directions

One key limitation of this research is that it examines only the four most frequently used voice tactics (legitimatising, developing, opposing and avoiding). In terms of allyship tactics, while developing and legitimatising tactics provide insight into how allyship influences team outcomes, other important tactics remain unexplored, such as amplifying, which involves reviving a voiced idea by recalling it later in a new context or with additional evidence, often using emotional or urgent language to sustain engagement (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Another under-examined allyship tactic is issue-raising, which calls attention to a voiced idea's weaknesses, creating an opportunity for others to address concerns or propose alternative solutions to refine and strengthen the idea (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Additionally, exemplifying where individuals take personal initiative to raise awareness of a voiced idea or demonstrate the necessary work and skills required to implement it, could be particularly effective in translating voice into concrete action (Satterstrom et al., 2021). Investigating a fuller range of allyship tactics would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how voice allyship operates in team settings.

Given the benefits associated with the use of the tactic of developing others' ideas, another important avenue for future research is to delve deeper into the underlying mechanisms through which developing fosters greater voice outcomes and positive team wellbeing. Similarly, there is a lack of knowledge on the mechanisms underlying why avoiding leads to reduced team voice and more negative team wellbeing outcomes. While the results of this study provide evidence of the effects of these tactics on team outcomes, the

specific psychological mechanisms driving these relationships remain unclear. One possibility that future research can test is that the tactic of developing enhances psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999), making team members feel secure in expressing their ideas without fear of negative consequences. Alternatively, voice instrumentality may play a key role (Avery & Quiñones, 2002), where developing reinforces the belief that voicing ideas leads to meaningful outcomes, whereas avoiding signals futility, discouraging further contributions. Future research should investigate these potential mediating factors to deepen our understanding of how different voice allyship and resistance tactics shape team effectiveness.

Moreover, while this research represents a step forward in capturing objective measures of team voice, there is room for further refinement in how voice behaviours are assessed. In our experimental design, I measured objective team voice based on the number of voiced ideas (items listed by the group) that team members provided as part of the team task, and also triangulated this data with team members' survey-reported data on team voice. I see opportunities for future research to continue this line of enquiry to enhance the precision of objective voice measurement. For example, researchers could incorporate real-time observations and qualitative coding frameworks to assess the content and impact of actual voiced ideas expressed in real time and track sequential interaction patterns to examine how ideas evolve within team meetings and discussions. Advances in AI tools, such as natural language processing (NLP) and machine learning, offer new opportunities to automate and scale this type of analysis. These tools can be used to identify themes, sentiment, and voice

and speech patterns in large volumes of conversational data, detect shifts in tone or engagement, and even map the influence of specific voice contributions over time. This integration of AI-driven analysis with traditional qualitative methods could provide richer, more dynamic insights into how voice unfolds and is shaped within real-world team interactions.

Finally, a promising direction for future research is to explore the role of interpersonal familiarity, liking, or friendship among team members. Although this research used random assignment to reduce the influence of pre-existing relationships and enhance internal validity, relational dynamics may still impact how team members interact and respond to others. Incorporating validated measures of team familiarity and interpersonal closeness in future designs could provide insight into how relational contexts influence team processes.

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Appendix B. Email Scripts for Voice Ally and Resistor Role Assignment

Email #1: Invitation to Voice Resistor

Hi [Name]

Hope you're having a good weekend.

I have a quick question before our next class.

We'll be doing a few activities, and one of the activities involves me planting a "bad apple" into some of the groups. In doing so, we're hoping to provide students with an opportunity to experience how the dynamics of the group can impact group outcomes.

I can see your engagement in class, your personality and a level of confidence to act the part. Would you be open to it?

No pressure – by all means feel free to say no. But if you're OK with taking this on, I'll send over some specific instructions before class.

Thanks – and either way, I'll see you in class next week.

Best Regards,

[Tutor Name]

If yes, proposed email #2 to voice resistor

Thanks so much for being such a good sport and being willing to take this challenge on! I really appreciate it

So your role is to play the bad apple in your group!

I'll be assigning everyone into a group for the "Surviving Bushfire" activity. During the task, team members will first be asked to personally identify a list of items they will need to survive a bush fire as an individual task. Next, the group will be asked to work together to agree on a collaborative list over the course of 10 minute. Your role is to play a bad apple in your group to show your opposition to other team members' voice during this group discussion only. Please do not play this role in any of the other tasks.

When engaging in your role, consider …

- Ignoring other people's suggestions by returning to your original point, changing the subject, saying that the idea should be considered later
    - "What about this instead…"
    - "Let's return to the issue of …"
    - "Let's come back to that later"

- Indicating that the idea would not work or that it is not important
    - "I don't think this is going to work"
    - "I don't think this is an important item"
    - "I don't think this is a good idea"
    - "There are other items that are more important"

Don't worry – at the end of the activity I will let the class know that we had people playing different roles in the class and that you were one of them!

Best Regards,

[Tutor Name]

Email #3: Invitation to Voice Ally

Hi [Name]

Hope you're having a good weekend.
I have a quick question before our next class.
We'll be doing a few activities, and one of the activities involves me planting a "good apple" into some of the groups. In doing so, we're hoping to provide students with an opportunity to experience how the dynamics of the group can impact group outcomes.
I can see your engagement in class, your personality and a level of confidence to act the part.
Would you be open to it?
No pressure – by all means feel free to say no. But if you're OK with taking this on, I'll send over some specific instructions before class.

Thanks – and either way, I'll see you in class next week.
Best Regards,
[Tutor Name]

If yes, proposed email #4 to voice ally

Thanks so much for being such a good sport and being willing to take this challenge on! I really appreciate it

<u>Your role is to play the good apple in your group!</u>

I'll be assigning people into groups for the "Surviving Bushfire" activity. During the task, team members will first be asked to personally identify a list of items they will need to survive a bush fire as an individual task. Next, the group will be asked to work together to

agree on a collaborative list over the course of 10 minute. Your role is to play the "good apple" in your group and show support for other team members' voice during this group discussion only. Please do not play this role in any of the other tasks for the bushfire exercise.

When engaging in your role, consider …

- Supporting other people's suggestions by giving positive feedback
    - "That's a really great idea"
    - "I agree, we should definitely include that item"
- Legitimising other's suggestions
    - "I think I read somewhere that this is a useful thing to have during bushfires"
    - "I think that makes sense because…"
    - "I think having this is important because …"

At the end of the activity I will let the class know that we had people playing different roles in the class and that you were one of them!

See you in class …

Best Regards,
[Tutor Name]

Appendix C. Post-Task Questionnaire Items

Legitimising

Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did team members …

1. Indicate that a voiced idea was consistent with firefighting principles.
2. Indicate that a voiced idea was consistent with government sources.
3. Indicate that a voiced idea was consistent with official document or handbooks.
4. Indicate that a voiced idea was consistent with established practice.

Developing

Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did team members …

1. Use facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a voiced idea.
2. Clearly explain how an idea could fight fires.
3. Explain why an idea was practical.
4. Provide information/evidence to show how an idea would be successful.

Avoiding

Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did team members …

1. Ignore an idea.
2. Leave an idea behind.
3. Avoid an idea by changing subject.

Opposing

Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did team members …

1. Shut down an idea.
2. Stop an idea from being further considered.
3. Oppose an idea.
4. Disagree with an idea.

Voice

Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did members of this group…

1. Raise suggestions to improve group work.
2. Voice new ideas that might benefit the group.
3. Make constructive suggestions to help us reach our goals.
4. Advise others against actions that could compromise group work.
5. Speak up honestly about problems that can cause damage to our group.
6. Point out problems that can affect the quality of our work.

Silence

Thinking about the bushfire task, how frequently did members…

1. Remain silent when there were concerns about the task.
2. Did not speak up despite having ideas for the task.

3. Say nothing to others about concerns related to the task.
4. Remain silent when there was information that might have helped prevent a problem in the group.
5. Stop offering suggestions for improving the task.
6. Keep quiet even though there were ideas for improving the task.
7. Not ask questions when wanting to get more information from the group.

Voice resilience
The following questions ask about your future willingness to speak up in this group.
After the bushfire exercise, how likely are you to...
1. Raise suggestions to improve group work.
2. Sound out new ideas that might benefit the group.
3. Make constructive suggestions to help us reach our goals.
4. Speak up honestly about issues that can affect our group.
5. Point out problems that can affect the quality of our group work.
6. Dare to point out issues that can compromise group work.

Satisfaction
Thinking about the bushfire task, to what extent do the following statements apply to your group...
1. Overall, I am satisfied with the group members.
2. I am pleased with the way the group members and I worked together.

PANAS
To what extent did you experience the following emotions experienced during the bushfire task?
1. Determined
2. Attentive
3. Alert
4. Inspired
5. Active
6. Afraid
7. Nervous
8. Upset
9. Ashamed
10. Hostile

Interlude to Chapter 4

In the previous chapter (Chapter 3), I presented my second empirical study (Study 2) to investigate how team members, through their enactment of voice roles, such as voice allyship (supporting other team members' voice) and voice resistance (challenging other team members' voice) can influence team outcomes, including team voice and team well-being. Study 2 extends the traditional dyadic perspective that has tended to conceptualise voice as a one-directional exchange between the voicer and the leader. The results of Study 2 provide support for the conceptualisation of voice as a social process embedded within a broader network of interactions involving multiple roles (Nieberle & Fladerer, 2025).

In this chapter (Chapter 4), I shift the focus to answer my third research question: What is the influence of enacting voice allyship and resistance on the voice allies' and voice resistors' own emotional wellbeing and their future voice behaviour? In Chapter 4, I draw on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to understand the personal resource consequences associated with enacting the roles of voice allies and voice resistors. Building on existing evidence relating to differential resource losses and gains for managing conflict-based approaches and tactics (Wang et al., 2024), I argue and find that voice resistance has more depleting effects on personal emotional resources, while voice allyship paradoxically has sustaining influences on voice engagement through resource gains. By testing emotional exhaustion as a mediator between voice allyship/resistance and individuals' own voice behaviour, I find empirical support for the resource-based theorisation that voice allyship has less detrimental influences on psychological strain. In contrast, resisting others'

voice comes with a personal cost for voice resistors, in terms of resource loss resulting in higher emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, this chapter explores whether motivational orientation (prosocial vs. egoistic) influences these relationships. Although the study did not find statistically significant moderating effects of motivational orientation, the null finding may reflect deeper conceptual ambiguity in how prosocial and egoistic motives are defined and enacted and direct an avenue for future research. Study 3 contributes to the voice literature by adopting a resource-based model to explain the psychological benefit or cost of enacting voice allyship and resistance and how these experiences impact individuals' future voice behaviour.

Chapter 4. The Influence of Enacting Voice Allyship and Resistance on Allies' and Resistors' Own Emotional Wellbeing and Future Voice Behaviour

Abstract

The conceptualisation of voice as a process embedded in a social context acknowledges the roles that others play in shaping voice outcomes, such as the behaviours and reactions of team members in supporting (i.e., voice allyship) or resisting voiced ideas (i.e., voice resistance). However, little is known about how voice allies and resistors themselves are impacted by enacting these allyship and resistance behaviours. I draw on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to empirically test a theoretical model in which voice allyship and resistance influence individuals' own future voice behaviour through emotional exhaustion. Using a 2×2 recall-based experimental design with 202 employees, I manipulated participants' recollections of allyship versus resistance, as well as their motives for enacting these roles. I found that enacting the role of voice allyship and resistance influenced team members' own future voice behaviour via the mediating of emotional exhaustion. Interestingly, motivational orientation did not significantly moderate these relationships. This study is the first to investigate the consequences of voice allyship and resistance from the perspective of those enacting these roles. Specifically, the results extend our knowledge on the role of voice allies and resistors and the consequences associated with enacting these roles on their own emotional resources and future voice behaviours.

Keywords*:* employee voice, COR theory, voice allies, voice resistors

4.1 Introduction

As scholars increasingly expand their focus beyond leader-employee dynamics, voice is increasingly acknowledged as a social process shaped by team interactions (Brykman & Raver, 2023). Team members play a particularly complex role. On one hand, they act as "responders" (i.e., voice allies who support others' voice or voice resistors who hinder others' voice), influencing the progression of others' suggestions or ideas. On the other hand, team members are also potential voice initiators who must navigate the balance between supporting/resisting others and advocating for their own ideas. This contrasting role highlights the relational demands of the voice process: enacting voice allyship or resistance may not only shape how others' ideas progress but also have intrapersonal consequences for the individual. These role experiences may be emotionally taxing or rewarding, with the potential to either deplete personal resources and inhibit future voice or, conversely, enhance psychological engagement and promote continued participation in the voice process.

To date, little is known about the consequences of engaging in voice allyship and resistance within teams. Specifically, little is known about how enacting these roles affects the internal resources (e.g., emotional wellbeing, psychological safety) and future voice behaviour of the individuals who take them on. This gap is important because team members are not just passive recipients of others' ideas, but also active participants who must navigate a dual role: responding to others' voice while managing their own motivation and capacity to speak up.

In the previous chapter, I explored how voice outcomes are not solely shaped by the individual who speaks up (the *voicer*), but also by how their voice is received by others, particularly through the reactions and behaviours of team members. These findings underscore the importance of understanding voice as a social process, where the responses of others can significantly influence whether and how voice is acted upon. In this study, I investigate how team members' behaviours of allying with or resisting others' voice affect their own emotional resources, and how these changes, in turn, influence their future voice behaviour. Previous research has shown that the actions people take in workplace interactions to influence others can also influence their own experiences and wellbeing (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000). Drawing on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), I argue that team members' allying with or resisting others' voices has consequences for their own emotional resources, which influence their future voice behaviours. This perspective broadens the lens on team voice by highlighting how social actors played by team members not only influence team voice and team wellbeing but also feed back into influencing individuals' own emotional capacity and future engagement.

In examining the emotional and behavioural consequences of voice allyship and resistance, this study also considers the role of individual motivational orientations (i.e., prosocial motives versus egoistic motives) in influencing personal outcomes. Motivation represents a key psychological lens through which individuals interpret and make sense of their actions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). As such, it can fundamentally alter how engaging in supportive or resistant behaviours is experienced, whether as fulfilling and energising or

draining and effortful. Incorporating motivational orientation into the analysis provides a basis for identifying boundary conditions that could explain variability in individuals' emotional responses and subsequent voice behaviour when enacting the same social role.

This study contributes to the voice literature by extending knowledge on the wellbeing and voice consequences of enacting voice allyship and resistance by team members. While prior research has largely focused on the voicer and how their voice is received, much less attention has been given to how the trajectory of voice can be changed by those responding to it (i.e., voice allies and resistors), and the emotional and resource implications of doing so. I therefore develop and test a resource-based theoretical model (see Figure 10) grounded in COR theory to explain how enacting voice allyship and voice resistance has differential resource consequences in terms of emotional exhaustion. Further, I propose that resources influence the individual ally's or resister's own future voice behaviour, thus connecting how responding to others' voice can influence one's own voice. Building on the view of voice as an interpersonal influence process (Chapter 3), this study highlights its intrapersonal aspects of resource investment and regulation.

In the following section, I begin with a review of the literature and outline the hypotheses drawing on COR theory. The study adopts an experimental design with 202 employees from both the United Kingdom and the United States, manipulating participants' behavioural type (voice allyship vs. voice resistance) and motivational orientation (prosocial motives vs. egoistic motives). The findings are followed by a discussion of both theoretical and practical implications and then outline how results contribute to the existing body of

knowledge and propose potential directions for future research on voice behaviour within social contexts.

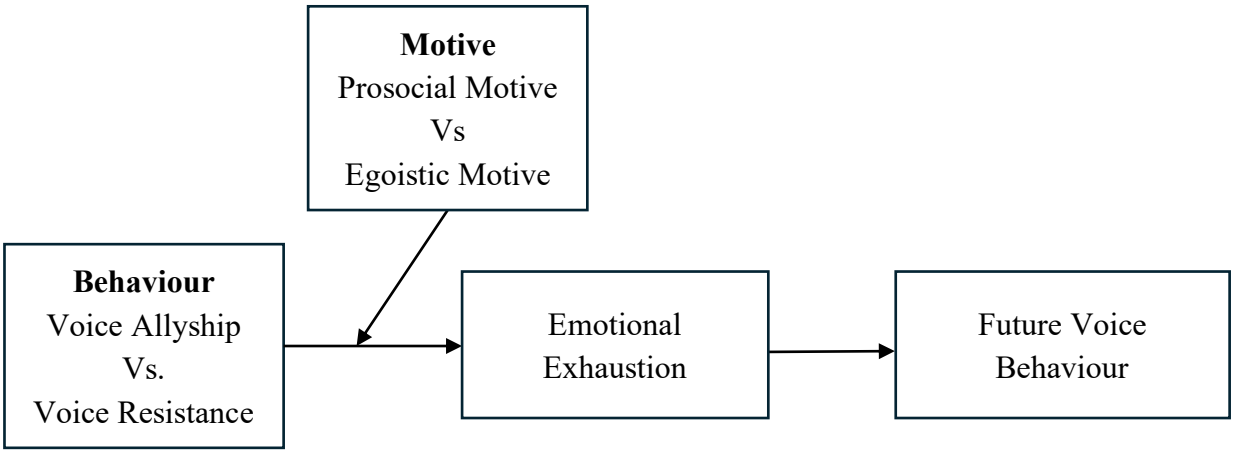

Figure 10. Theoretical model (Study 3).

4.2 Theoretical Review and Hypothesis Development

4.2.1 Voice Allyship/Resistance and Emotional Exhaustion

According to COR (Hobfoll,1989), resources are valuable assets (e.g., time, energy, social support) that individuals seek to acquire and protect. In the voice process, the act of allying or resisting voiced ideas involves different patterns of resource investment and return. Voice allyship refers to the act of actively supporting or reinforcing voiced ideas (Satterstrom et al., 2021). According to COR, engaging in voice allyship is likely to trigger resource gain, thereby reducing emotional exhaustion. When a voice ally supports and endorses a peer's idea, this collaborative act can enhance both their social and personal resources. When allies view the voiced idea as constructive and beneficial, this is likely to contribute to a sense of resource gain. Indeed, evidence suggests that team members' reactions to voiced ideas

depend heavily on the content of the ideas and their congruence with personal value orientations (Nieberle & Fladerer, 2025). When voiced ideas resonate with team members, these team members are likely to act as allies by positively evaluating the ideas and providing affirmative feedback in public (Urbach et al., 2016), thus fostering mutual resource enrichment.

Voice allyship, such as reinforcing arguments or making a case for voiced ideas, can also result in resource gains by enhancing the ally's social status and social capital (Bain et al., 2023). Social resource acquisition occurs because allies are more likely to receive positive social feedback in the form of peer recognition and leader trust (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015). This accumulation of social capital enhances an ally's sense of belonging within the team and reduces perceived social risks in future interactions. For example, Bain et al. (2023) found that when employees amplify others' voices by publicly endorsing their ideas with proper attribution, this allyship behaviour not only helps the original voicer gain status but also enhances the amplifier's own standing in the organisation. There is also evidence that emotional resources are preserved through the intrinsic sense of meaning derived from prosocial behaviour (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Duan et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2020; Van Tongeren et al., 2016). In this way, allies internalise their supportive actions as meaningful contributions to collective success, thereby fostering psychological resilience. This intrinsic value construction mitigates the emotional labour costs associated with allyship, creating an implicit emotional resource reserve. Overall, these outcomes counteract stress and reduce

emotional exhaustion, because the ally's resource reservoir is being actively built up rather than depleted.

Hypothesis 1: Voice allyship is negatively related to emotional exhaustion

In contrast, there is evidence that resisting voiced ideas, which includes challenging, delaying, or obstructing ideas entails significant emotional and social costs (Fast et al., 2014). A central tenet of COR theory is that resource loss has a more substantial psychological and behavioural impact than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2001). Individuals tend to be more sensitive to resource loss than to equivalent resource acquisition, as the former threatens well-being and triggers defensive behaviours (Hobfoll, 2001). A large number of empirical studies have found that when individuals lose resources at work, they are more likely to experience strain in the form of burnout (Shirom, 1989), depression (Kessler et al., 1988), and physiological outcomes (Melamed et al., 2006).

Resisting voiced ideas, whether through open opposition or subtle obstruction, is likely to lead to emotional resource depletion as it necessitates sustained emotional energy to manage conflict-laden interactions. Maintaining a resistant stance requires individuals to suppress dissatisfaction with the voiced idea or amplify their opposition, intensifying the regulatory burden associated with emotional control (Grandey, 2000). When voice resistance takes the form of destructive criticism, it can also trigger social resource penalties, such as heightened anger and interpersonal tension (Baron, 1988). When voice resistance is perceived as obstructionist, it may be stigmatised as disruptive, leading to interpersonal tension or conflict. This, in turn, can result in social exclusion and reputational damage. Empirical

research has shown that such conflict is linked to negative emotional reactions, such as anxiety, depression, and frustration, which contribute to psychological strain (Spector & Jex, 1998). Overall, voice resistance consumes emotional and social resources and then increases emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2: Voice resistance is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

4.2.2 The Moderating Role of Prosocial Motives and Egoistic Motives

The motivational orientations behind voice allyship or resistance are likely to influence how individuals perceive and experience the resource consequences of these roles. According to Niven's (2016) classification of motives, individuals may be driven by prosocial or egoistic motives. Prosocial motives capture the desire to benefit others, promote collective well-being, or contribute to the success of the team or organisation whereas egoistic motives capture a self-centred drive to advance personal interests, achieve individual goals, or protect oneself from potential harm or loss (Niven, 2016). The key distinction between prosocial and egoistic motives is therefore whether the behaviour primarily seeks to benefit others or oneself.

From a COR perspective, motivation influences the appraisal of whether a given behaviour represents a worthwhile investment of resources or a potential threat to them. Individuals with other-oriented motives, driven by a genuine desire to help or support others, are more likely to interpret their actions as meaningful and aligned with shared goals, which facilitates psychological resource gain and buffers against emotional strain (Penner et al., 2005). In contrast, those with self-oriented motives, driven by personal gain, image

management, or avoidance of blame, may view these same behaviours as more taxing and less rewarding, and may be associated with psychological distress and emotional depletion (Crocker et al., 2017). In the context of voice, an individual's underlying motivation can alter the emotional implications of their actions. I propose that an individual's underlying motivation moderates the extent to which voice allyship and resistance are associated with their well-being outcomes.

In relation to prosocial motives, findings generally indicate that prosocial motives are beneficial to well-being compared to egocentric motives (Crocker et al., 2017). The focus of individuals with prosocial motives is placed on team welfare, which can reduce the emotional strain by aligning their actions with internal values and generating social affirmation. This notion is consistent with prior research indicating that employees with prosocial motives or behaviours are less likely to experience emotional exhaustion (e.g., Eissa & Lester, 2018; Low et al., 2001) and more likely to experience psychological wellbeing (Hui et al., 2020; Le et al., 2018; Righetti et al., 2020). As such, when allyship is motivated by prosocial intent, allies may experience resource replenishment through social affirmation and internal meaning. Likewise, voice resistance with prosocial motives may be buffered by the perceived legitimacy of the action and alignment with collective values.

Hypothesis 3a: Prosocial motivation mitigates the adverse effects of enacting voice allyship or resistance roles on emotional exhaustion, such that individuals with prosocial motives experience lower emotional exhaustion when engaging in these roles.

In contrast, egocentrically motivated individuals, who prioritise self-protection, may experience greater cognitive and emotional strain, as their efforts are less likely to be socially reinforced and may evoke internal conflict or social disapproval. Extensive evidence from prior studies suggests that self-interested motivation or selfishness is associated with poor psychological wellbeing (Canevello & Crocker, 2015; Dittmar et al., 2014; Kasser et al., 2014; Krekels & Pandelaere, 2015). Therefore, when voice allyship is driven by egoistic motives, the resource-enhancing effects of allyship may be diminished, thereby reducing the psychological rewards typically associated with supportive behaviours and increasing vulnerability to emotional strain. Egoistically motivated resistance may cause distrust and social penalties, increasing emotional exhaustion

Hypothesis 3b: Egoistic motivation amplifies the adverse effects of enacting voice allyship or resistance roles on emotional exhaustion, such that individuals with egoistic motives experience higher emotional exhaustion when engaging in these roles.

4.2.3 Emotional Exhaustion and Future Voice Behaviour

Findings indicate that employee voice behaviour is sensitive to the emotional states of those who express it (Li & Xu, 2020; Qin et al., 2014). Emotional exhaustion, conceptualised within COR theory as a state of depletion, is a key inhibitor of employee future voice behaviour (Hooseini et al., 2023). According to COR theory, when individuals perceive a loss of valuable resources such as emotional energy, they become motivated to prevent further loss and protect what remains (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). As a result, emotionally exhausted

individuals are more likely to withdraw from discretionary and effortful behaviours such as speaking up, in order to conserve their limited psychological resources.

Supporting this view, Kim and Lee (2021) found that emotional exhaustion is negatively related to advocative behaviour, as individuals experiencing high levels of exhaustion are less willing or able to invest in speaking up. This aligns with the view that voice is a resource-intensive behaviour, requiring emotional, cognitive, and social investment (Xia et al., 2020). When individuals experience emotional exhaustion, they lack the necessary resources to undertake the risks and effort associated with voicing concerns or suggestions. Thus, emotional exhaustion represents a key mechanism through which resource loss impedes future voice behaviour, aligning with COR theory's proposition that resource-depleted individuals are more likely to withdraw from high-demand activities (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Muraven et al., 2006; Trougakos et al., 2015; Whitman et al., 2014).

Hypothesis 4: Emotional exhaustion is negatively related to future voice behaviour.

4.2.4 The Mediating Effect of Emotional Exhaustion

From the perspective of COR theory, voice allyship and resistance represent two behavioural pathways that diverge in their impact on individuals' resource flow. Voice allyship may generate resource gains while voice resistance can result in resource depletion. Emotional exhaustion acts as a key mediating mechanism through which these resource trajectories influence future voice behaviours. Specifically, voice allies, benefiting from sustained resource reserves, are more likely to remain actively engaged in voice behaviours. This aligns with the "doing good, feeling good, and doing good" effect (Shen et al., 2022),

wherein engaging in prosocial acts reinforces psychological wellbeing and encourages continued prosocial engagement. For example, Lam et al. (2016) showed that employees who "go the extra mile" to help or support others often experience energy gains, such as an enhanced sense of competence and social worth, which sustains future participation. In contrast, voice resistors experience heightened emotional exhaustion and diminished social capital, prompting them to withdraw from subsequent voice activities to conserve their remaining resources. This is consistent with findings by Pingel et al. (2019), who found that externally pressured proactive behaviours drain employees' psychological resources, resulting in work withdrawal behaviours such as reduced effort and absenteeism, serving as self-protective strategies against further resource depletion.

Hypothesis 5: Emotional exhaustion mediates the relationship between voice allyship/resistance and future voice behaviour.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Sample and Procedure

The research involving human data in this study was reviewed and approved by the University of Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC; Protocol Number: HREC2023/451). I collected data through the crowdsourcing platform Prolific. Participants included 205 employees who had teamwork experience in the United Kingdom and the United States. They were compensated £1.50 for completing the survey, which took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

To examine how enacting voice allyship and resistance under prosocial versus egoistic motives affects enactors' emotional exhaustion and future voice behaviour, I used a variation of the critical incident technique, which asks individuals to recall and report a specific behavioural episode from their recent past (Butterfield et al., 2005; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). This approach is informed by prior research that successfully used similar paradigms to investigate recalled workplace behaviours and their psychological consequences (e.g., Mcllroy et al., 2021; Speights et al., 2020).

In this case, participants were randomly assigned to one of four manipulated conditions. Each condition was designed to evoke specific behavioural scenarios related to allyship or resistance, combined with either prosocial motives or egoistic motives. These manipulations were developed based on theoretically grounded definitions. Voice allyship refers to the act of publicly supporting or reinforcing another team member's voiced ideas, whereas voice resistance refers to publicly opposing or challenging such ideas (Satterstrom et al., 2021). For the motivational orientations, I drew on the established distinction between prosocial motives, referring to the desire to benefit others or contribute to the collective good, and egoistic motives, referring to the desire to advance one's own interest or avoid personal loss (Vasquez et al., 2021). To reflect these constructs in the manipulation prompts, each condition asked participants to recall a relevant incident from the past using carefully worded instructions aligned with these definitions. The experimental conditions were as follows:

Manipulated condition 1 (allyship×prosocial motives): Think of a time in the last month you publicly AGREED with other team members' voiced ideas with the goal of benefiting the team and achieving the team's objectives.

Manipulated condition 2 (resistance×prosocial motives): Think of a time in the last month you publicly DISAGREED with other team members' voiced ideas with the goal of benefiting the team and achieving the team's objectives.

Manipulated condition 3 (allyship×egoistic motives): Think of a time in the last month you publicly AGREED with other team members' voiced ideas with the goal of benefiting yourself and helping to achieve your own goals.

Manipulated condition 4 (resistance×egoistic motives): Think of a time in the last month you publicly DISAGREED with other team members' voiced ideas with the goal of benefiting yourself and helping to achieve your own goals.

After reflecting on the chosen experience, participants were required to answer a series of questions related to the experience and their perceptions of it, including questions on *emotional exhaustion*, and *future voice behaviour*.

To ensure data quality, participants were asked to provide a detailed description of the idea their team member came up with, with a minimum of 10 characters. This step was intended to verify that participants recalled a specific and concrete episode consistent with the condition they were assigned to, which follows established practices in recall-based designs (McIlroy et al., 2021). I manually reviewed each response to assess whether participants engaged meaningfully with the task and demonstrated a clear understanding of

the context. Responses that were vague, off-topic, or clearly misaligned with the prompt were excluded. As a result, three responses that did not meet these criteria were removed from the final dataset. The final sample included 202 participants, specifically, 58 responses from manipulated condition 1, 50 responses from manipulated condition 2, 45 responses from manipulated condition 3, and 49 responses from manipulated condition 4. 61.4% of participants were male, while 37.6% were female. The average age of participants was 39.53.

4.3.2 Measures

Full items of all measures can be seen in Appendix D.

Allyship and Resistance. As these were experimentally manipulated conditions, I applied dummy coding to the different behaviours. For allyship and resistance, participants were categorised based on their assigned condition. Allies were coded as "1" for allyship and "0" for resistance. Conversely, resistors were coded as "1" for resistance and "0" for allyship.

Prosocial motive and egoistic motive. As these were experimentally manipulated conditions, I applied dummy coding to the motivational conditions. Participants assigned to the prosocial motive condition were coded as "1" for prosocial and "0" for egoistic. In contrast, those in the egoistic motive condition were coded as "1" for egoistic and "0" for prosocial.

Emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was measured with the shortened version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 1997) (1= *strongly disagree* to 5= *strongly agree*). The measure included four items (e.g., "after supporting the team member's voiced idea, I felt emotionally drained") (α = .93).

Future voice behaviour. Future voice behaviour was measured using an adapted version of Liang's (2012) voice scale (1= *extremely unlikely* to 5= *extremely likely*). The measure included seven items (e.g., "In your team, how likely are you to raise suggestions to improve group work") (α = .89).

Control variables. I included age and gender as control variables in our analyses. Research has consistently shown that demographic variables significantly impact voice behaviour. Specifically, age correlates with both increased experience and a greater willingness to speak up, with older individuals more likely to voice their opinions than their younger counterparts (Cooper, 2018). Gender differences also exist, as studies have demonstrated that men are more inclined to speak up than women (Eibl et al., 2020).

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Manipulation Checks

To assess the effectiveness of the independent variable manipulations, I conducted t-tests. Specifically, I compared allies and resistors using behaviour manipulation check items and compared the prosocial and egoistic groups using motive manipulation check items. The manipulation check items were developed directly based on the conceptual definitions of voice allyship, voice resistance, prosocial motives and egoistic motives used in this study. This direct approach ensures conceptual clarity and alignment between the manipulated conditions and participants' self-reported behaviour. The behaviour manipulation check items were "I supported another team member's idea" and "I resisted another team member's idea".

The t-test results revealed significant differences across voice allyship and voice resistance conditions. For the allyship manipulation check, allies (M = 4.36, SD = .67) significantly differed from resistors (M = 2.46, SD = 1.02), t (200) = 15.51, p < .001. This indicates that participants in the allyship condition reported significantly higher agreement with allyship behaviours compared to those in the resistance condition. In the resistance manipulation check, there was also a significant difference between allies (M = 1.65, SD = .84) and resistors (M = 3.86, SD = .99), t (200) = -17.15, p < .001, suggesting that resistors exhibited significantly higher resistance behaviours than allies.

Further, participants were asked to reflect on a time when they publicly supported or opposed a team member's idea and then indicate to what extent their actions were motivated by "for the team's benefit" and "to benefit myself". For the motive manipulation checks, the prosocial motive condition (M = 4.21, SD = .80) showed a significantly higher rate than the egoistic motive condition (M = 3.78, SD = 1.04), t (200) = 3.37, p < .01. Participants in the prosocial motive condition reported significantly higher agreement with prosocial motives. For the egoistic motive manipulation check, the prosocial motive condition (M = 2.91, SD = .80) reported a lower level than the egoistic motive condition (M = 3.68, SD = 1.14), t (200) = -4.71, p < .001.

4.4.2 Hypotheses Testing

I conducted analyses using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2017) in SPSS-26 to estimate both direct and indirect (mediating) effects with bootstrapped confidence intervals. Additionally, I used a 2×2 between-subjects ANOVA to examine the interaction between

behaviours (voice allyship vs. resistance) and motivation (prosocial motives vs. egoistic motives) on emotional exhaustion. Table 19 reports descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables.

In the analysis, allyship and resistance were dummy coded as binary variables, with one serving as the reference group. This coding approach means that the coefficients for allyship and resistance represent opposite effects on the dependent variable. Table 20 presents the regression coefficients. To examine the relationship between voice allyship/resistance and emotional exhaustion (Hypotheses 1 and 2), I conducted a regression analysis with voice allyship as the predictor and emotional exhaustion as the outcome. Specifically, voice allyship was negatively related to emotional exhaustion (r = -.96, SE = .14, t = -6.70, p < .001). Given that voice resistance served as the reference variable (coded as 0), this result implies that voice resistance was positively related to emotional exhaustion. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

To test Hypothesis 3a and 3b, a 2×2 between-subjects ANOVA was conducted with emotional exhaustion as the dependent variable. Table 21 reports the ANOVA results. The main effect of behaviour (voice allyship vs. resistance) was significant (F = 44.37, p < .01), indicating that participants assigned to the voice allyship condition reported significantly lower emotional exhaustion than those in the voice resistance condition. However, the main effect of motivation (prosocial motives vs. egoistic motives) was not significant (F = .16, p = .69). More importantly, the interaction between behaviour and motivation was also nonsignificant (F = .08, p = .77), suggesting that the effect of behaviour on emotional

exhaustion did not differ as a function of motivational orientation. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a and 3b were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that emotional exhaustion would be negatively associated with future voice behaviour. Supporting this hypothesis, regression analysis (see Table 20) showed a significant negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and future voice behaviour (r = -.16, SE = .05, t = -3.30, p < .001). This means that participants who reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion were less likely to engage in voice behaviour in the future. Hypothesis 4 was supported.

I investigated the indirect effects of allyship/resistance on future voice behaviour via emotional exhaustion (see Table 20). The direct effects of allyship (r = -.14, SE = .12, t = -1.21, p = .23) on future voice behaviour were not statistically significant. However, the indirect effect of voice allyship on future voice behaviour through emotional exhaustion was statistically significant (r = .17, *BootSE* = .07, 95% CI [.06, .31]), indicating that voice allyship, by reducing emotional exhaustion, enhances future voice behaviour. Since voice resistance served as the reference category (dummy-coded as 0), the result implies that voice resistance indirectly decreased future voice behaviour by increasing emotional exhaustion. Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Table 19. Descriptive statistics and correlations of study variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Behaviour	.51	.50	1						
2.Prosocial motive	3.42	.82	.38**	1					
3.Egoistic motive	3.10	1.02	.12	.28**	1				
4.Emotional exhaustion	2.27	1.12	-.43**	-.13	.05	1			
5.Future voice behaviour	3.91	.77	.02	.12	-.03	-.22**	1		
6.Age	39.53	13.80	.06	.10	-.10	.01	.13	1	
7.Gender	1.40	.51	-.02	.02	-.03	.05	.08	.04	1

Note. N=202. Behaviour: 1 = allyship, 0 = resistance; Gender: 1 = female, 0 = male.
*$p < .05$ two-tailed, **$p < .01$ two-tailed.

Table 20. Direct and indirect effects of voice allyship on future voice behaviour through emotional exhaustion

Direct effect	**Estimate**	***SE***	***t***	***p***
Allyship→Emotional exhaustion	-.96	.14	-6.70	.00
Emotional exhaustion →Future voice behaviour	-.16	.05	-3.30	.00
Indirect effect	**Estimate**	***BootSE***	**BootLLCI**	**BootULCI**
Allyship→Emotional exhaustion→ Future voice behaviour	.17	.07	.06	.31

Note. SE = standard error; *t* = t-value; p = p-value; *BootSE* = standard error of the bootstrapped estimate; *BootLLCI* = lower limit of the confidence interval; *BootULCI* = upper limit of the confidence interval.
Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Bootstrapping based on 5000 samples.
95% bias-corrected confidence intervals are presented for indirect effects.

Table 21. ANOVA results for the effects of behaviours (allyship vs. resistance) and motives (prosocial motives vs. egoistic motives) on emotional exhaustion

Source	Type III Sum	*df.*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Intercept	1042.65	1	1042.65	1006.46	.00
Behaviours (Allyship vs. Resistance)	45.97	1	45.97	44.37	.00
Motives (Prosocial vs. Egoistic)	.17	1	.17	.16	.69
Behaviours * Motives	.09	1	.09	.08	.77

Note. d*f* = degrees of freedom*; F* = F-ratio*; p* = p-value.

Type III sum of squares reported.

Dependent variable: Emotional exhaustion.

4.5 Discussion

The process of voice, from initiation to implementation, is embedded within a social context involving multiple actors. However, existing research has primarily focused on the voicer while paying limited attention to the roles of other team members who respond to voiced ideas. This narrow focus overlooks the interpersonal dynamics and psychological implications of enacting voice responder roles, such as supporting or resisting a peer's voice. If voice is supported by the social context and involves multiple actors, then the outcomes associated with voice allies and resistors are equally important in considering how voice can be sustained in team settings. To date, little is known about how enacting voice allyship or resistance affects the responding team member's own resource states and subsequent engagement in voice.

Drawing on COR theory, this study shifts the research focus from the team voice and team wellbeing to the hidden resource costs faced by individuals who enact voice allyship and resistance. It addresses the research question "What is the influence of enacting voice allyship and resistance on allies' and resistors' emotional wellbeing and future voice behaviour?". To answer this question, the study systematically examines how the behaviours of voice allies and voice resistors influence their future voice behaviour through emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, it explores the moderating role of motivational orientation (prosocial vs. egoistic) in shaping these resource dynamics.

4.5.1 Theoretical Implications

A key theoretical implication of this study is the integration of resource-based perspectives on voice research by shifting the analytical focus from the voicer to the team members who respond to voice, through the lens of COR theory. In the previous chapter (Study 2), I demonstrated that voice outcomes are not solely shaped by the individual who speaks up (the voicer) but also by how their voice is received, particularly through the allyship or resistance expressed by other team members. These findings highlighted the importance of understanding voice as a socially embedded process, where team members' reactions influence whether and how voice is enacted at the collective level. Building on this foundation, the current study advances the literature by moving beyond the impact of team member reactions on team voice behaviours and team wellbeing, to examine how enacting these responder roles (voice allyship and resistance) affects the individuals who perform them.

By applying COR theory, this study conceptualises voice allyship and resistance as resource transactions that shape the enactor's internal state, entailing resource gain or depletion, which subsequently influences enactors' capacity and willingness to engage in future voice behaviour. Specifically, the findings reveal that enacting voice resistance is a psychologically taxing experience. Resisting others' ideas often demands sustained cognitive effort, emotional regulation, and can generate interpersonal tension, making it a high-cost behaviour. According to COR theory, resource loss has stronger psychological salience than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2001), and the strain associated with resistance can quickly

accumulate, leaving individuals emotionally depleted. In line with this, the results show that voice resistors experienced higher levels of emotional exhaustion and were less likely to engage in future voice.

In contrast, this study found that voice allies experienced lower emotional exhaustion. This finding is consistent with prior evidence that positive forms of supporting, validating behaviours are associated with resource gain as they are often met with social validation and intrinsic psychological rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). COR theory suggests that individuals with greater resource reserves can more readily invest in proactive behaviours without incurring significant depletion (Hobfoll, 2001). The finding that voice allyship positively influenced allies' future voice behaviour can be explained by the resource gains it provides, such as increased social support and a stronger sense of meaning. These gains help replenish emotional resources, fostering future voice.

In this study, I did not find a significant moderating effect of motivational orientation (prosocial vs. egoistic). This does not align with the extensive body of work highlighting the importance of motivation in influencing employees' emotional outcomes. For example, previous research shows that individuals driven by prosocial motives tend to experience higher psychological wellbeing and lower levels of resource depletion due to the intrinsic satisfaction derived from acting in alignment with collective interests (Grant, 2008; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Grant and Campbell (2007) provided evidence for a buffering role of perceived prosocial impact in protecting employees against emotional exhaustion from harming others.

While it remains theoretically plausible that motivational orientation may influence how voice roles are experienced, the null findings observed here may reflect empirical challenges in my study (which I will discuss in more detail in the limitations section) and potentially also conceptual ambiguity in how prosocial and egoistic motives are defined and enacted. Recent scholarship has questioned the assumption that prosocial motives are purely altruistic or mutually exclusive from egoistic ones (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant & Shandell, 2022; Liao et al., 2022). Some view prosociality as a genuine willingness to benefit others at personal cost (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), whereas others argue that helping behaviours may also serve self-enhancing functions, such as impression management or moral self-image maintenance (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Grant & Mayer, 2009). This conceptual ambiguity is particularly relevant for interpreting the emotional consequences of voice behaviours, as team members may engage in voice allyship or resistance with motives that blend self-interest and concern for others unconsciously.

4.5.2 Practical Implications

The findings of this study highlight the importance of fostering a sustainable voice climate by acknowledging the roles that other team members play in shaping the voice process and importantly, that there are also significant resource implications for these individuals enacting these voice roles, such as voice allies and voice resistors, which flow on to influence their future voice behaviours. Given the association between voice allyship and lower emotional exhaustion, these findings suggest that allyship may serve as a protective mechanism that helps sustain individual wellbeing in collaborative environments. Rather than

simply encouraging more allyship across the board, organisations should consider how to cultivate conditions that make constructive voice support both possible and rewarding. For instance, recognising and valuing employees who thoughtfully engage with others' ideas, by helping to refine, build on, or challenge them respectfully, can promote a culture of mutual respect and psychological safety. Such practices may not only enhance social cohesion and trust but also increase the likelihood that diverse perspectives are meaningfully integrated into team decision-making. Over time, this could contribute to a more engaged and inclusive workplace culture, where voice is a shared responsibility rather than an individual risk. Training programmes focused on teamwork, collaboration and effective allyship, such as active listening, constructive reinforcement, and strategic amplification, can further equip employees with the skills needed to provide meaningful support to their peers. Additionally, cultivating a team culture where inclusive discussions are the norm ensures that employees feel both heard and supported in their contributions, reducing the likelihood of disengagement.

At the same time, through this study, I found that an emotional burden is placed on individuals who frequently engage in voice resistance, as their role in questioning and challenging ideas can lead to heightened emotional exhaustion. However, it is important to acknowledge that such behaviours may also yield valuable outcomes for teams, such as fostering constructive disagreement, disrupting groupthink, and promoting a more rigorous decision-making process. When managed well, it contributes to a psychologically rich environment that encourages diverse perspectives and deeper collective learning. At the same

time, to mitigate these negative consequences associated with emotional strain, organisations should provide employees with tools to manage the psychological strain of resistance, such as conflict resolution strategies and assertive communication training, which can help reduce the emotional toll of challenging ideas. Additionally, rotating discussion leadership within teams can prevent a small subset of employees from bearing the burden of always being the devil's advocate/resistance, ensuring a more equitable distribution of voice responsibilities.

Although I did not find a significant moderating effect of motivational orientation, there is a strong conceptual rationale and prior empirical evidence suggesting that prosocial motives can buffer emotional strain and enhance resilience in other organisational contexts (Grant & Sonnentag, 2010). When voice resistance stems from a genuine concern for collective welfare, rather than self-interest or defensiveness, it may be perceived as more legitimate, constructive and ultimately beneficial for organisations. Given its potential benefits, there is value to paying attention to employees who regularly engage in resistance out of concern for the team, ensuring their contributions are acknowledged and that they do not become silently disengaged due to accumulated emotional exhaustion.

4.5.3 Limitations and Future Directions

Although the study offers important contributions, there remains an opportunity to improve the precision of motivational manipulations in future research to enhance construct validity and interpretability. There is a growing scholarly recognition that prosocial motives are not necessarily devoid of self-interest (Liao et al., 2022). The conceptual ambiguity about prosocial motives is reflected in the diversity of measurement approaches adopted in the

literature. For example, Bogaert et al. (2012) use decomposed games to assess social value orientation, wherein participants make trade-offs that directly pit others' welfare against their own, thereby operationalising prosociality as self-sacrificing. Similarly, the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES, Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) uses a forced-choice format to distinguish between prosocial and achievement-related motives, controlling for social desirability bias. In contrast, other commonly used tools, such as normative Likert-type scales (e.g., De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Grant, 2008), do not explicitly require participants to separate prosocial motives from self-regarding concerns, thus allowing the potential coexistence of other-orientation and self-interest. In this study, participants' prosocial versus egoistic motives were manipulated through brief text-based instructions, such as prompting them to focus on either team benefits or self-interest. However, this approach may lack a clear validation of whether participants truly adopted the assigned motivational orientation. Some participants may have failed to internalise the manipulation or rationalised their behaviour in ways that blurred the distinction between prosocial and egoistic motives. To strengthen experimental validity, future research should consider using value-orientation games (Bogaert et al., 2012) or forced-choice scales (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), which might ensure that participants' internalised motives align with assigned conditions.

Future research could also benefit from distinguishing between promotive and prohibitive voice. Previous research has shown that different contents of voice (promotive and prohibitive voice) differ meaningfully in their cognitive framing and resource implications. Specifically, promotive voice tends to associate with lower ego depletion,

whereas prohibitive voice is linked to higher depletion (Lin & Johnson, 2015). These distinctions suggest that not all forms of voice have the same psychological costs and thus require differentiated examination. This direction is particularly promising in light of Study 1 of the thesis, which meta-analysed the consequences of team promotive versus prohibitive voice and highlighted the distinct pathways through which these voice contents operate within teams. Future research should therefore consider distinguishing between promotive and prohibitive voice to more precisely examine their respective effects on emotional and behavioural outcomes, particularly in how voice allies and resistors respond to these different contents of voice. Such distinctions may help clarify whether the emotional exhaustion and future voice behaviour of those enacting allyship or resistance vary depending on whether the voiced message is promotive or prohibitive.

While the study offers valuable insights into how individuals enact voice allyship and resistance, future research could further enrich this understanding by adopting a dynamic, longitudinal perspective. For example, tracking individuals' transitions among ally, resistor, and voicer roles over time would help investigate the fluid and evolving nature of voice-related behaviours. A diary or longitudinal design could capture day-to-day fluctuations in role enactment and resource levels, such as emotional exhaustion, enhancing the understanding of the flexible role enactment and long-term functioning in team settings.

4.5.4 Conclusion

Overall, drawing on COR theory, this study reveals how the enactment of voice allyship and resistance significantly influences an individual's emotional resource reservoir and future

voice behaviour. I found that taking on the role of a voice ally versus a voice resistor has significant downstream consequences. Specifically, those who allied with a voiced idea reported lower levels of emotional exhaustion and were more inclined to speak up in the future, whereas those who resisted voice experienced higher emotional exhaustion and a subsequent reduction in their own future voice. The resource-based perspective, building on the findings of Study 2, enriches our understanding of the impact of voice allyship and resistance on allies and resistors themselves. It highlights that when team members enact these behaviours, they not only influence collective voice and team wellbeing, but also impact their own resource trajectories and ultimately influence their future voice behaviour.

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Appendix D. Prolific Questionnaire Items

Emotional exhaustion

Thinking back to when you publicly supported your team member's idea...
After supporting the team member's voiced idea …

1. I felt emotionally drained.
2. I felt used up.
3. I felt burned out.
4. Working with people directly put too much stress on me.

Future voice behaviour

In your team, how likely are you to…

1. Raise suggestions to improve teamwork.
2. Sound out new ideas that might benefit the team.
3. Make constructive suggestions to help the team reach goals.
4. Speak up honestly about issues that can affect the team.
5. Point out problems that can affect the quality of teamwork.
6. Dare to point out issues that can compromise teamwork.

Chapter 5. General Discussion

Over half a century ago, Hirschman's (1970) seminal work described voice as "any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs" (Hirschman, 1970, p. 30). This idea, that people could voice and speak up to improve a situation, became the foundation for over 50 years of a rich stream of research on employee voice. Over this period, the literature on employee voice has evolved rapidly, starting from intensive studies focused on individual-level voice, such as exploring the differential antecedents of voice in terms of individual characteristics (Starzyk & Sonnentag, 2019) and attitudes and emotions (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008b), voice content such as promotive and prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012), and its diverse outcomes on personal and organisational outcomes (Weiss & Morrison, 2019). Over time, scholars significantly expanded and refined the concept of voice. They moved away from a narrow focus on a point-in-time behaviour, where a voicer expressed suggestions or concerns often within hierarchical and dyadic interactions with supervisors or managers (Detert & Burris, 2007; Morrison, 2014), toward broader consideration of its collective nature and context.

With the growing prevalence of team-based organisational structures, scholarly attention in voice research has shifted toward understanding team voice. As reviewed in the literature in Chapter 1, different approaches have been used to conceptualise and operationalise the phenomenon of team voice (Zhao et al., 2020). In addition to differences in empirical approaches, my review of the literature also revealed a notable lack of unified conceptualisation. Addressing this fragmentation, in Study 1, I conducted a comprehensive literature review and meta-analysis, synthesising disparate findings to achieve a clearer, more

coherent understanding of the current state of the knowledge on the antecedents and consequences of team voice and its promotive and prohibitive content.

It was also clear from the literature review that, although voice is often recognised as a dynamic and interactive phenomenon involving multiple social actors who actively influence how voice emerges and persists, existing studies remain relatively limited and tended to focus narrowly on how team members impact the outcomes of voiced ideas rather than examining their broader influence on collective voice or their own subsequent voice behaviours. Addressing this important gap, in Study 2 and Study 3, I investigated how team member voice allyship and resistance influence both team voice behaviour and team wellbeing, as well as voice allies' and resistors' own wellbeing and their future voice behaviours.

Overall, across these three studies, the findings support the view of team voice as a socially grounded process with multifaceted roles played by team members as both originators of voice and as social actors who influence how voice is sustained or suppressed within teams. The following sections present the key findings, theoretical contributions, practical contributions, as well as limitations and avenues for future research.

5.1. Summary of Key Findings

Despite growing scholarly interest in team voice, the field still lacks a coherent synthesis of its key drivers and outcomes. To lay a strong foundation for this thesis, in Study 1, I conducted a literature review and meta-analysis of the existing team voice literature. This meta-analysis identified key antecedents and consequences of team voice as well as its promotive and prohibitive content. One of the key insights from Study 1 was that my findings

diverged from those in the individual-level voice literature, which typically associates promotive voice with improved performance and views prohibitive voice as potentially detrimental (Chamberlin et al., 2017). At the team level, my Study 1 meta-analysis results showed that the potential negative repercussions of voicing challenging ideas are diminished when concerns are voiced collectively. While prohibitive voice at the individual level often incurs relational costs, such as the individual being perceived as difficult, disloyal or overly critical, these social risks are more inherently dispersed when voiced within a team. That is, what might be perceived as disruptive or threatening input from a single individual is different when it is a shared and socially legitimate expression of collective concern. In this way, team voice has the capacity to reduce defensiveness on the part of the voice recipient. Team voice may also carry more legitimacy, weight, and credibility to the voiced suggestions. This insight challenges the meta-analytic finding in the individual voice literature that prohibitive voice is negatively associated with team performance (Chamberlin et al., 2017) by showing that at the team level, there are positive, beneficial gains associated with team prohibitive voice.

Study 2 explored further the roles that team members play in supporting (or hindering) the success of team voice. In this second study, I experimentally examined how team members influence collective voice and team wellbeing when they play the role of allies (supporting voiced ideas) or resistors (ignoring or opposing voiced ideas). Traditional voice research has often centred on individual employees speaking up to leaders (e.g., Burris, 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) or emphasised contextual factors like organisational climate or leadership style (e.g., Guzman & Fu, 2022; Helfrich & Dietl,

2019; Zhu & Akhtar, 2019). In contrast, Study 2 shifted the focus to examine team members as active social agents in the voice process who profoundly affect the entire team in terms of both voice behaviour and collective wellbeing. In support of Satterstrom et al.'s (2021) theorisation on the role of team members in cultivating voice, I found evidence for the important role of voice allies who support ideas and of voice resistors who hinder them. Based on an experimental design where I manipulated the presence of a voice ally in teams, I found that teams with a voice ally engaged in more voice (objectively measured), and also team members reported greater team satisfaction, and a more resilient team voice culture. Conversely, I found that in teams with a voice resistor, these teams engaged in less voice, and had lower team satisfaction and positive affect. This suggests that voice resistance can suppress voice and negatively affect team wellbeing.

Moreover, I found that the effectiveness of team member allyship and resistance in influencing team outcomes varied according to the specific tactics they use to enact these roles. Prior studies have treated team member interventions as broadly defined constructs without examining how these roles are behaviourally enacted. In Study 2, I investigated different tactics such as legitimising and developing for voice allies and avoiding and opposing for voice resistors. The results showed considerable variation in their effectiveness. For example, allies who engaged in developing tactics (showing understanding or asking questions to help clarify a voiced idea) facilitated more team voice. Further, their team also experienced greater team satisfaction and positive affect. In contrast, those who merely legitimised an idea's worth (explaining why it makes sense or works, often using examples or personal experience) did not significantly influence these outcomes. Surprisingly, opposing

voice through direct, constructive disagreement had a surprisingly positive effect on team functioning, whereas passive avoidance tactics eroded the team voice climate and wellbeing. Rather than viewing voice allyship and resistance as distinct roles, the findings suggest more complexity in how these roles are enacted through the use of different behavioural tactics that in turn have varying outcomes. Together, these results provide new perspectives on the impact of team member voice allyship and resistance on team voice and collective wellbeing.

While Study 2 highlights the importance of voice allies and resistors on their team outcomes, the impact of these roles on the individuals themselves remains unclear. In the third and final empirical study, I investigated the influence of enacting voice allyship and resistance on these individuals' own wellbeing and future voice behaviour. I found that the enactment of voice allyship and resistance significantly influenced an individual's emotional resource reservoir. Interestingly, I found that acting as a voice ally had replenishing effects on voice allies' personal resources, as reflected in lower levels of emotional exhaustion. In contrast, acting as a voice resistor had depleting effects, leading to greater emotional exhaustion. Based on Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory, I theorised that the replenishment of resources might be related to the voice allies' positive experience. Conversely, acting as a voice resistor may trigger interpersonal tension or internal discomfort, which drains emotional resources and contributes to emotional exhaustion. I also found implications for voice allies' and resistors' own future voice behaviours and voicing intentions. The findings are consistent with COR theory's predictions that individuals who are losing or feel threatened by resource loss (e.g., the personal effort that is involved when resisting other people's ideas) will tend to engage in behaviours aimed at conserving further loss of

resources, such as by withdrawing or retreating from future voice acts. In contrast, according to COR theory, those who gain resources will tend to engage further, resulting in further resource gains. By investigating how the roles of voice allyship and voice resistance might have differential influences on one's resource depletion and replenishment, Study 3 extends knowledge on how enacting these voice roles also has important personal consequences for these social actors themselves. This is a line of enquiry that has yet to be examined in much depth and warrants further investigation. Together, these three studies form an integrative and multilevel thesis that explores how social actors impact the team voice process. The thesis contributes to the existing voice literature by showing that team voice is a relational, context-dependent process impacted by peers and the shared environment.

5.2 Theoretical Contributions

The theoretical contribution of the thesis is in extending knowledge on team voice as a dynamic social process, centred on the fluid and evolving roles of team members as social actors. Much of the prior literature has conceptualised voice as a discrete and dyadic exchange between a subordinate and a leader (Detert et al., 2013; Li & Tangirala, 2021; Liu et al., 2022) with an overwhelming focus on leader-related predictors such as leader dispositions (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), leadership style (Song et al., 2022; Zhang & Inness, 2019), and leader behaviour (Detert & Burris, 2007). While leaders are a key component of social contexts by influencing psychological safety and norms surrounding voice (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006), this leader-centric view overlooks the increasingly decentralised and collaborative nature of modern teams. As organisational structures become

flatter and more interdependent, the influence of peers, team members who voice collectively (Frazier & Bowler, 2015), witness (Nieberle & Fladerer, 2025), support (Bain et al., 2021) or resist (Brykman & Raver, 2023), becomes critical to how voice is enacted and sustained within teams. This thesis advances the literature on team voice by proposing a multilevel model that highlights the active role played by team members within the voice process. There are three important conceptual insights obtained from the findings.

First, based on the results of the meta-analysis in Study 1, there is evidence that when team members speak up together, their collective voice generates significantly different and more substantial impacts compared to the individual voice. On the one hand, team voice within teams amplifies the potential influence of expressed ideas or concerns. Unlike isolated individual expressions, which may often be overlooked or ignored, collective suggestions from teams attract greater attention and are more likely to drive tangible organisational change, such as adjustments in processes or policy implementation (Frazier & Bowler, 2015). On the other hand, team voice also diffuses the interpersonal and social risks typically associated with voicing critical feedback or challenging existing norms. Individual team members face potential negative repercussions, such as damaging interpersonal relationships or provoking defensive responses from others, when voicing concerns independently. However, these risks are significantly mitigated when the voice is collective, as shared participation disperses individual accountability, reducing the perceived threat or personal vulnerability of any single team member.

Second, when team members play roles as voice allies or voice resistors, their supportive or opposing behaviours critically shape other members' perceptions of the risks involved in

speaking up. Voice allies, who explicitly support and validate the concerns and ideas expressed by their fellow team members, signal that voice is welcome. This allyship reduces perceptions of personal risk and encourages more open, frequent, and constructive voice behaviours within the team. Conversely, voice resistors, team members who openly oppose or challenge voiced ideas, heighten perceptions of social and interpersonal risk. Such resistance can lead other team members to perceive voice as potentially harmful to relationships and their personal standing, thereby suppressing overall team voice behaviours and reducing the likelihood that valuable input will be offered or acknowledged.

Finally, the roles of voice allies, voice resistors, and voicers among team members are fluid and resource-dependent. Team members who initially ally or resist are themselves potential future voicers. Their supportive or opposing actions can impact their personal resource levels, either enhancing or depleting resources such as social capital, psychological energy, or emotional resilience. These resource fluctuations subsequently influence their own likelihood to engage in voice behaviours in the future. Hence, the transition between being allies or resistors and becoming active voicers is governed by changes in individual resources resulting from their earlier behaviours. This resource-dependent perspective provides insight into the fluidity of social roles within teams and underscores the interconnected nature of team voice processes.

In sum, this thesis highlights the importance of the public, social, and collective aspects of voice in organisations. Through this program of work, I find evidence to provide further support for the emerging view of team voice as a socially embedded and interactive process shaped by team members' shifting roles as voicers, voice allies, and voice resistors. This

perspective extends the traditional view of voice as a one-off and dyadic event occurring within rigid hierarchies.

5.3 Practical Contributions

The findings from this program of work offer several valuable implications for organisations seeking to cultivate more effective and sustainable voice practices within teams. By moving beyond the traditional view of voice as a one-off exchange or event, this work extends our understanding of team voice as a socially embedded process shaped by the roles of team members, such as voice allies and voice resistors. From this understanding, several actionable implications emerge, including insights for team design, peer-based training, emotionally sustainable approaches to voice management, and the cultivation of more inclusive team climates.

One clear implication is that organisations should pay attention to team composition and structure in order to create a fertile ground for voice. Teams might be deliberately designed or guided to include voice-facilitating roles. For example, managers could designate or encourage a voice ally within teams, such as someone responsible for ensuring that ideas and concerns get a fair hearing. In practice, this might involve playing the role of "devil's advocate" or voice facilitator in meetings, so that at any given time, at least one team member is tasked with actively soliciting input and supporting those who speak up. By structuring such roles, organisations signal that supporting colleagues' voice is an expected part of each team member's job. Additionally, when assembling teams, leaders might consider diversity and psychological readiness to speak up. A mix of members who have a track record of

constructive voice and those who are open-minded listeners can set the team off on the right foot. The thesis findings caution against teams composed entirely of strong voice resistors or change-averse personalities because such teams may reinforce each other's inhibitions and create a collective silence. Instead, integrating individuals who exhibit positive voice behaviours, such as speaking up and encouraging others, can elevate the entire team's voice.

The social nature of voice revealed by this thesis suggests that organisations should invest in training employees not just to speak up effectively, but also to respond to others' voice effectively. Traditionally, communication or voice training programs focus on teaching employees how to articulate concerns constructively. My findings argue for expanding training to cultivate voice allyship skills among team members. This could include training in active listening, giving feedback and collaborative problem-solving. Team members can learn specific behaviours that make them good voice allies, for example, acknowledging a peer's suggestion positively before offering critique, asking follow-up questions to clarify a concern raised by a colleague, or explicitly affirming the value of someone's input in group settings. These behaviours, though seemingly simple, do not always come naturally under pressure or in competitive climates. For instance, training sessions or workshops can use role-playing scenarios where participants practice playing a supportive role to those who engage with voice. Such practice can build the habit of allyship, so employees are more likely to back each other up rather than stay passive or defensive.

On the other hand, organisations should also address how to manage and reduce unconstructive voice resistance. This does not mean eliminating all dissent but rather ensuring that disagreement with a voiced idea remains respectful and focused on the idea, not

the person. Additionally, leaders can set expectations, through both words and by example, that everyone has a responsibility to ensure their team members feel heard. By recognising and rewarding not only those who speak up, but also those who facilitate and respond well to voice, management can reinforce voice allyship behaviours. For example, performance evaluations or team-based bonuses could include criteria related to supporting team communication and innovation, which implicitly covers being a voice ally.

A less obvious but crucial implication of the thesis is the emotional wellbeing of those involved in voice. Speaking up and advocating change can be emotionally taxing. Organisations, therefore, need to ensure that engaging in voice is sustainable and not a fast track to emotional exhaustion. One approach is to share the voice load within teams. If voice is limited to the same people, they become at risk of becoming emotionally overextended and perhaps socially isolated. Organisations can mitigate this by actively inviting quieter members to take the lead on speaking up in certain instances, thereby rotating the responsibility and giving vocal members a chance to recuperate. Creating a norm that everyone takes a turn in voicing team improvements can both distribute effort and signal that voice is a collective obligation.

Findings from this study indicate that resistance may be a sign of stress or resource deficit. Leaders may be tasked with working with these individuals to uncover underlying concerns. Addressing root causes by adjusting workloads or involving individuals early in change discussions may encourage more control and may reduce reflexive resistance. Organisations should approach voice engagement as they would any valuable but effortful activity by fostering it and providing recovery and support. By ensuring employees do not

burn out from speaking up or from the interpersonal strain of constant disagreements, organisations can maintain a steady, healthy level of voice over time.

Finally, organisations can design voice-conducive environments by intentionally using the collective power of the team. When prohibitive voice is raised by a single individual, particularly when it challenges prevailing norms, points out risks, or questions leadership decisions, it often carries substantial interpersonal risk. The voicer may be perceived as disloyal, overly negative, or even disruptive. If such concerns are dismissed or punished, the message sent to the broader team is clear: speaking up is dangerous. This dynamic creates a chilling effect where employees choose silence over contribution. To counter this, organisations should actively create structures that enable and encourage team-based voicing. Managers can implement practices such as collective problem-solving sessions, rotating team-led retrospectives, or anonymous team feedback forums. These formats shift the weight of voicing from individuals to the team, diffusing responsibility and risk. When voiced concerns emerge from the team as a whole, they are more likely to be interpreted as shared observations rather than personal criticisms, which reduces defensiveness from leaders and increases the perceived legitimacy of voiced ideas. Importantly, this collective approach also facilitates a sense of psychological safety where employees feel they are not alone in raising concerns, which makes it more likely that they will continue to contribute. Over time, this normalises voice as a shared team responsibility rather than an act of personal bravery.

5.4 Current Limitations and Future Research

Although the thesis makes important contributions by underscoring the social aspects of voice within teams, there are several important avenues for future research. Table 22 outlines the knowledge priorities relevant to each of the three empirical studies.

Table 22. Future knowledge priorities identified across the three studies

Study 1	• Examine a broader set of voice behaviours, including supportive, constructive, defensive, and destructive voice, as proposed by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), to understand how they interact with team dynamics, leadership, and task contexts in shaping team outcomes. • Conduct longitudinal or time-lagged studies and experimental interventions that track how voice behaviours emerge and evolve across team development stages, enabling stronger causal inferences. • Explore how the direction of voice within teams, whether upward (toward leaders), lateral (among peers) or collective (addressed to the team as a whole), influences its reception, impact on decision-making, and the development of a psychologically safe team climate.
Study 2	• Examine underexplored allyship and resistance tactics (e.g., amplifying, issue-raising, exemplifying; Satterstrom et al., 2021) and how each uniquely contributes to translating a voiced idea into action over time. • Move beyond simple frequency counts by applying qualitative coding or discourse analysis to assess how the content, tone and timing of allyship and resistance tactics influence team voice implementation.
Study 3	• Understand how the content of voice (promotive or prohibitive) interacts with the social roles of team members (ally or resistor) to produce varying levels of emotional exhaustion and differing effects on individuals' future willingness to speak up. • Address conceptual ambiguity surrounding prosocial motives by adopting measurement approaches that clearly differentiate other-orientation from self-interest, thereby enhancing construct validity and interpretability of motivational effects on voice behaviours.

There are also broader limitations that pave the way for further research in this area. This thesis serves as only a starting point for a more comprehensive exploration of voice as a socially embedded and distributed process. In this thesis, I examined team members as

collective voicers and as critical social actors who either ally with or resist voiced ideas of peers. Future research can build on this foundation by mapping a broader constellation of roles and interactions that together constitute a complete voice process.

Team voice process, in practice, is a multi-actor, multi-stage phenomenon. This thesis lays important groundwork by illuminating peer-level interactions. Building on this foundation, future research can further advance the field by more fully integrating upward interactions into a broader systemic framework. Specifically, there is a need to systematically distinguish or fully examine the relationships and dynamic transitions between structural roles, such as formal organisational positions such as team leader versus team member, and functional roles, which represent specific actions and responsibilities individuals undertake in the voice process, such as voicer, receiver, endorser (who actively adopts the idea) or implementer (who mobilises resources and translates the idea into tangible practice).

In reality, team voice is fluid and dynamic, with individuals frequently transitioning across various functional roles, despite their relatively stable structural positions. For example, a team member might initiate voice by proposing a novel solution (voicer), another peer might subsequently ally and endorse this suggestion (ally or endorser), and finally, the formal team leader or another peer might become involved either as a receiver initially and later as an implementer, ensuring the voiced idea is translated into tangible organisational practice. Within this illustrative scenario, peer-level interactions coexist and intersect with upward interactions, with roles continuously shifting throughout the voice process. Such fluid role transitions are commonplace yet were beyond the scope of my empirical investigations. Recognising this limitation highlights an under-explored avenue for future research –

systematically investigating how structural and functional roles intersect, evolve, and transition throughout the voice process. Therefore, future theoretical efforts should strive to conceptualise voice as a complex system involving multiple social actors and continuous interactions, both laterally among peers and vertically across hierarchical boundaries.

5.5 Conclusion

This thesis advanced the understanding of team voice by conceptualising it as a dynamic social process, centred on the fluid and evolving roles of team members as social actors. It addressed two critical gaps in the literature: the lack of a unified theoretical foundation for studying team voice and the limited empirical attention to team members as active social actors beyond the traditional leader–follower dyad. Drawing on Social Information Processing and Conservation of Resources theories, my thesis developed an integrative perspective that explains how team voice emerges, and is sustained, supported or hindered within peer interactions.

Study 1 provided a comprehensive synthesis of fragmented literature through a meta-analysis that mapped key antecedents and consequences of team voice, highlighting the importance of distinguishing between promotive and prohibitive content. Study 2 revealed that team members who act as voice allies or resistors influence collective voice and wellbeing. Study 3 further showed that these peer roles carry important emotional implications: while voice allyship can be resource replenishing, voice resistance tends to be emotionally draining, impacting individuals' future engagement in voice behaviour. These studies provide a cohesive empirical and theoretical foundation for conceptualising team

voice as a multi-actor and multi-stage process. They extend beyond the dominant voicer-centric or leader-centric paradigms and offer a socially grounded lens through which to understand how voice unfolds within teams. This thesis also provides clear direction for future research, advocating for the inclusion of a broader and deeper investigation of the social context to further extend our knowledge on team voice.

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