UNDERSTANDING AND ADDRESSING PSYCHOLOGICAL BARRIERS TO RECEIVING AND RESPONDING TO CHALLENGING VOICE REGARDING SOCIAL INEQUALITY IN ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract

Understanding and Addressing Psychological Barriers to Receiving and Responding to Challenging Voice Regarding Social Inequality in Organizations

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Despite increasing awareness of issues related to social inequality in the workplace and the proliferation of efforts to combat barriers to equality between social groups, members of non-dominant social groups continue to be disadvantaged within organizations. In my dissertation, I focus on one key barrier to transforming practices, norms, systems and structures which sustain and perpetuate inequality between different social groups: the psychological threat of individuals who are gatekeepers to change. Drawing upon social psychological theories of self-concept threat, as well as theory and evidence in the voice and feedback literatures, I explore recipient-driven factors which shape responses to challenging voice regarding social inequality through two papers. In Paper 1, I examine individual response to challenging voice regarding gender inequality by varying the experience of self-concept threat. I also examine how values, beliefs, and preferences for growth may moderate the experience of self-concept threat. Results indicate that the impact of increased self-

concept threat exposure varies in terms of gender-based advantage – with men responding more negatively under increased threat exposure. However, the impact of self-concept threat on response is moderated by individual values of growth for both men and women (albeit in different ways). In Paper 2, I compare the response of advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group members to challenging voice regarding racial inequality, and I examine how experiences of threat as opposed to empathy explain differences in response. I argue that empathy for the experience of being disadvantaged explains differences in response more than threat, and that this empathy deficit cannot be explained simply by ingroup favoritism/outgroup bias or anti-egalitarian beliefs. To interrogate the idea that the worsened response of advantaged group members can be explained by racial ingroup favoritism and bias against racial outgroups I vary the race of the voicer, control for anti-egalitarian beliefs and analyze differences in advantaged group member response at different levels of socioeconomic status. Results indicate that more negative ratings of advantaged group members persist even after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs. In addition, findings suggest that empathy mediates the relationship between advantaged racial group membership and voice response more than threat, and that this empathy deficit may be greater for higher SES advantaged racial group members.

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Introduction

By 2023 most major companies, including all of the Fortune 100, made public commitments to improving diversity, equity and inclusion (DEI) in their organizations (Colvin, 2022). In the United States, while there has been a drastic increase in the number of public and private organizations removing DEI value statements from their outward-facing communications and ending existing race- and gender-based performance targets (e.g., related to hiring), this does not preclude them from still holding standards of fairness related to equal treatment of different groups—or even actively promoting inclusion under different labels and through new mechanisms (Elias & Palmer, 2025; Murray & Bohannon, 2025).

Regardless of the label or method, it is unclear how well organizations are translating their organizational commitments into positive, tangible change (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). In a global survey of 16,500 employees, 96–98% of those from underprivileged groups (based on their gender, sexuality, ethnicity, or race) said their companies had some sort of DEI program, but under 25% of employees said they felt any benefit from such initiatives (Krentz et al., 2019). Some data suggests that efforts may actually end up hurting organizational equity and inclusion goals (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Despite organizational efforts, members of underprivileged groups continue to report that leadership in their organizations underestimate their day-to-day experience of discrimination (Krentz et al., 2019). Notably, institutionalized inequality goes beyond individual experiences of interpersonal mistreatment stemming from other's biases (Green & Hagiwara, 2020; Ray, 2019a, 2019b). Inequality between different social groups is often perpetuated by organizational practices, systems and structures that are unrecognized (or under-recognized) – especially by advantaged group members.

One important ongoing source of awareness within organizations, which can help identify and overcome overlooked or underestimated problems with the status quo, is

feedback from those who are affected by, or close to, the problems at hand. Such feedback may, for example, help redirect energy towards efforts that are more effective at solving the problems that underprivileged individuals are concerned with (rather than those that leaders from advantaged groups assume should be prioritized or those which they are more comfortable enacting). For example, while leaders emphasize the importance of increasing the numbers of employees from different racial and gender groups for diversity efforts, women and racial and ethnic minorities tend to be more concerned about their retention, advancement, and overall well-being in organizations (Krentz et al., 2019; Coleman et al., 2022). Perhaps because of these gaps in understanding or priorities, disadvantaged populations put the following on the top of their list of leadership "asks": take the effort to seek out feedback, listen to feedback, and understand feedback (Krentz et al., 2019; Bersin, 2021). This includes the desire for specific feedback mechanisms to ensure that major decisions, such as who receives promotions and stretch assignments, are made equitably (Krentz et al., 2019). So, in trying to create organizations that are truly inclusive and equitable, it behooves us to understand what is standing in the way of talking directly to, and listening genuinely to, those we are trying to help—and their informed allies. While the logical solution may seem straightforward—tell leaders to seek more feedback and tell those who are affected or aware to speak up—this logic depends on some tenuous assumptions. Chief among them is the assumption that what is said will truly be heard and accepted or engaged with when it is given.

Feedback regarding problems with the organizational status quo, including that regarding inequality between social groups, often comes in the form of *voice*. Here, I refer specifically to *challenging voice*—that is, speaking up to organizational gatekeepers in ways that challenge accepted aspects of the status quo with the intent to instigate change (Burris, 2012). From the recipient's perspective, voice may be perceived as feedback about how one

has directly or indirectly created, supported, enabled, or sustained the problematic aspect of the status quo being highlighted. Receiving feedback indicating that one may have, however unintentionally, overlooked, minimized and/or sustained harmful practices and systems may be difficult to hear—especially if one sees themselves as a moral or egalitarian person. In fact, the very idea that one needs training to behave in a more egalitarian manner, or that one's organization is unequal in some way, is threatening to many individuals with decisionmaking power and management responsibility (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016; To et al., 2024). However, achieving equality within organizations requires that those who act as gatekeepers to decisionmaking and actual change are capable of receiving information about social inequality—even when they may be part of the problem.

Substantial theoretical and empirical work, predominantly from social psychology, demonstrates that people feel threatened when receiving information that runs counter to how they view themselves or want others to perceive them and that this can elicit a defensive response (e.g., Aronson, 1969; Duvall & Wicklund, 1972; Fast, et al., 2013; Higgins, 1987; Monin et al., 2008; Tarvis & Aronson, 2020; Wenzel et al., 2020). Self-concept threat causes discomfort and negative affect that can elicit a defensive psychological response and, potentially, drive outwardly defensive behavior. This may be especially true when the threatened aspect of one's self-concept is a central one, such as the idea that one is egalitarian—a core aspect of self-image for many people (Monin, 2007; Monin, et al., 2008; Wenzel, et al., 2020). Defensiveness can be costly for organizations because it motivates individuals to justify harmful decisions and actions, often without their conscious awareness (Tarvis & Aronson, 2007; Wenzel et al., 2020). It not only stops people from apologizing in situations of wrongdoing, but it can prevent them altogether from recognizing the needs of those who have been harmed and from seeking remedies (Tarvis & Aronson, 2007; Wenzel et al., 2020). This presents a dilemma: while challenging feedback related to social inequality

may be necessary to generate awareness necessary for change within teams and organizations, this same feedback is also likely to instigate psychological threat and subsequent defensive cognitions and behaviors that stymie change efforts.

In this dissertation, I explore how the self-concept threat that challenging voice recipients experience can act as a psychological barrier to productive response. Specifically, I ask: a) when and why do individuals respond unproductively to challenging voice regarding social inequality? and b) what (understudied) factors may shape this response? These answers to these questions are explored with an eye towards identifying the affective and cognitive levers through which response can be improved.

Management research often emphasizes the importance of how people speak up to help ensure that the information being offered is received well, focusing on things such as accuracy, credibility, actionability, and tone. For example, feedback research highlights perceptions of provider credibility as a key source of resistance in using feedback productively (Anseel & Sherf, 2025; Fedor, 1991). Work on voice often emphasizes the relevance and novelty of the information provided, the provision of solutions to problems, and the feasibility of the suggestions provided in achieving positive valuations by voice recipients (Farh et al., 2024; Burris et al., 2017; Morrison, 2014). Voice research also looks at the form of voice expression, such as the way emotions are regulated or the type of influence tactics used (e.g., Grant, 2013; Xu et al., 2019). While this knowledge can be used to help those speaking up be more strategic in achieving their goals, it also puts the onus on the person delivering feedback to improve the receptivity of others. Placing the onus on voicers to ensure productive receipt may be particularly problematic within the context of social inequality. For example, members of non-dominant or disadvantaged social groups (whether along the lines of race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, class, or otherwise) may have better insight into their own experiences of equity and inclusion in organizations and into the

experiences of their communities (Daniller, 2021; Schaeffer & Edwards, 2022). However, they are often put in the position where sharing this insight requires speaking to dominant or advantaged group members in higher positions who may see efforts to influence their behavior, or implications that they are incompetent or biased, as a threat (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Those speaking up may have to do so at the risk of negative professional repercussions (Burris, 2012; Huang et al., 2018), even when they may be exhausted from going unheard in the past (Braswell, 2022; Smith et al., 2021). They may also feel ethically compelled to bring up issues that they do not yet have a suggested solution for, even though such voice may be devalued by their supervisors or other managers and leaders in their organization. As such, in my dissertation, I aim to better understand *recipient-driven* factors that influence receptivity to challenging voice—only considering *voicer-driven* factors as moderators or boundary conditions when exploring recipient response.

The importance of looking more closely at the voice recipient's capacity to deal with challenging voice (as opposed to focusing predominantly on the way voicers deliver information) is supported by evidence which suggests that appraisals of voice and feedback, and those that provide it, may depend more on the recipient's subjective perceptions than the actual information provided. For example, managerial appraisal of prohibitive voice and those who express it is more dependent on the quality of the manager-subordinate relationship than for promotive voice (Huang et al., 2018). Similarly, recent evidence suggests that the managerial endorsement of employee voice is contingent upon consistency with the manager's own regulatory focus (Burris et al., 2022). Stepping outside of the traditionally used promotive and prohibitive framework (Liang et al., 2012), Burris (2012) finds that managers rate those who express challenging voice as worse performers and endorse their voice less compared to those who express supportive voice. In the study, manager perceptions of threat (operationalized as perceived potential loss of status) and

disloyalty (of the voicer) mediated the relationship between voice type and performance/endorsement outcomes. Similarly, evidence suggests that those who object to unethical activities are perceived as less warm when they have less legitimate power even when their moral objection is the same as others' (Wellman et al., 2016).

In my dissertation, I draw upon and integrate theory and evidence from social psychology (on self-concept threat and psychological defensiveness as well as dominant group psychology) and management (on voice and feedback response) to better understand when and why individuals may respond poorly to challenging voice regarding social inequality. (Notably, in doing so, I try to highlight how dominant explanations of resistance to, or support for, social equality may be insufficient to understand why individuals respond poorly to challenging voice in the workplace. Social psychological explanations of resistance to equality efforts tend to focus on how threats related to one's social group membership or dominant group status decrease support for initiatives.) In Paper 1, I examine the experience of self-concept threat by testing how increased self-concept threat exposure impacts response to challenging feedback regarding gender inequality. I also explore how individual values, beliefs, and preferences for growth may help manage this experience of threat. In Paper 2, I compare the response of advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group members to challenging voice regarding racial inequality, and I examine how feelings of threat as opposed to feelings of empathy may explain differences in response between these groups. I also interrogate the idea that the more negative response of advantaged group members can be explained by anti-egalitarian beliefs and ingroup favoritism. I do this by varying the race of the feedback provider, analyzing differences in advantaged group member response based on socioeconomic status (SES), and testing for effects of advantaged group membership after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs.

Below, I provide a summary of evidence and theory that is relevant for both papers. However, more specific theoretical development and focused review of literature will be provided in Papers 1 and 2 as appropriate.

Key Definitions and Boundary Conditions

Defining Challenging Voice Regarding Social Inequality

In my dissertation, I conceptualize challenging voice regarding social inequality in context of Burris's 2012 definition of challenging voice:

> . . . speaking up in ways intended to alter, modify, or destabilize generally accepted sets of practices, policies or strategic directions that make up the status quo to those individuals who have devised or are in charge of sustaining those aspects of an organization. (Burris, 2012)

In its substantive focus, challenging voice regarding social inequality is closely related to the concept of "ethical voice"—a subset of voice concerned with "ethical issues" (Huang & Paterson, 2016). However, unlike ethical voice, it is focused specifically on harm and fairness violations along the lines of social group membership or identity. And, unlike the related construct of "moral objection" (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Wellman et al., 2016), challenging voice regarding social inequality can involve sharing challenging information with an intent to instigate change even without an outright refusal to engage in a questionable practice—and it is always directed upward to organizational gatekeepers. (This focus on involving those who are somehow complicit also distinguishes the concept from whistleblowing, which typically involves unveiling egregious unethical practices to those outside the organization.)

Similarly, challenging voice is distinct from popular conceptualizations of voice such as *promotive voice* and *prohibitive voice* in at least three ways. Whereas prohibitive voice is defined in opposition to promotive voice (Liang et al., 2012) and *problem-focused voice* is

defined in opposition to *suggestion-focused voice* (Morrison, 2011), challenging voice is defined in opposition to *supportive voice* (Burris, 2012). Unlike prohibitive voice or problem-focused voice, the concept of challenging voice indicates that a challenge is being made and allows for speaking up about a problem while at the same time promoting organizational values and goals and possibly (but not necessarily) suggesting solutions. In addition, challenging voice is not inherently discretionary in the same way that most fundamental definitions of feedback are. Voice is usually defined as a type of *discretionary* feedback aimed at changing the status quo (Morrison, 2011, 2014; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). However, challenging voice regarding social inequality may not always be a clearly discretionary, extra-role behavior. Organizational members are increasingly asked to serve on committees or to join groups in which they are seen as sources of feedback on equity and inclusion issues. Some organizations may also encourage organizational members to speak out and try to address equity and inclusion issues in their day-to-day jobs. More broadly, supporting or acting in accordance with equity and inclusion efforts and goals is sometimes even taken into account in hiring and performance review processes. For that reason, we take the position of previous researchers who have pointed out that voice may at times be an in-role behavior and that this can be influenced by factors such as an employee's perceptions of how voice is related to their organizational role (Biddle, 1986; Tangirala et al., 2013). Lastly, Burris's definition of challenging voice focuses on delivery to those who bear responsibility for what is spoken up about: ". . . individuals who have devised or are in charge of sustaining those aspects of an organization." This means that challenging voice contains information that is personally relevant to the recipient because they bear some level or degree of responsibility for the occurrence or perpetuation of the problem (whether through action or inaction). This is important to note in that other definitions of voice may include voice about organizational matters in which even the voicer does not see the recipient as responsible.

Lastly, I conceptualize challenging voice regarding social inequality as a type of feedback. *Feedback* can be defined as "information related to the adequacy, correctness and/or impact of one's action or effort related to any particular criterion of interest*"* (Anseel & Sherf, 2025; Van der Vegt et al., 2010). In my dissertation, I argue that challenging voice is often perceived in this way—regardless of how directly or indirectly this information is delivered. Challenging voice regarding social inequality can be thought of as information about how the receivers' actions or efforts somehow create, enable, sustain, or perpetuate approaches, practices, systems, or structures that perpetuate social inequality and run counter to organizational equity and inclusion goals. The voice targets organizational gatekeepers who are somehow involved in creating, sustaining, or condoning the status quo and may be received as feedback about oneself as a result. Notably, the specific conceptualization of feedback leveraged here is distinct from alternative conceptualizations in the management literature. In their recently published 25-year review of feedback research, Anseel and Sherf (2025) discuss how management researchers use the word "feedback" to represent a host of different concepts with different implications for measurement and theorizing. The conceptualizations drawn upon above are distinct from widely used conceptualizations and definitions of feedback that focus on information regarding individual job/task performance and are usually delivered in a downward fashion within supervisory relationships (e.g., Anseel & Sherf, 2025; Kinicki et al., 2004). Challenging voice regarding social inequality, as conceptualized here, is directed upward towards organizational gatekeepers and may not be directly or clearly related to individual task performance.

In summary, challenging voice regarding social inequality can be seen as a specific type of feedback focused on sharing information with organizational gatekeepers and decisionmakers (whether low-level managers of teams or high-level executives) about how their actions or efforts are inadvertently sustaining harmful aspects of the status quo in the

context of organizational values, standards, or goals related to equality, equity, and inclusion of different social groups. This conceptualization of voice goes far beyond instances of interpersonal mistreatment to include the direct or indirect support of organizational practices, norms, systems and structures that run counter to organizational principles and aims. In all instances, however, the voicer sees the recipient as being responsible in some way and speaks up to them for this reason. The perceived self-relevance of what is being spoken up about to the recipient is an important boundary condition of this paper—because it speaks to why what is being said may cause the negative affective experience of threat.

Psychological Threat as a Response to Challenging Voice

While challenging voice regarding social inequality may serve as a resource to increase individual awareness and foster learning that benefits the organization, it may not always be received and responded to that way. To explore how and why challenging voice regarding social inequality presents the risk of unproductive response, I draw primarily on three theories related to self-concept threat: *cognitive dissonance theory* (Festinger, 1957; Aronson, 1968, 1969), *self-discrepancy theory* (Higgins, 1987), and *the theory of objective self-awareness* (Duval & Wicklund, 1972). The self-concept is one's global sense of self, sense of self-integrity and thoughts, and perceptions and beliefs about who one is (Aronson, 1969; Baumeister, 1999; Oyserman et al., 2012). It is composed of multiple elements and identities by which one may define and make sense of themselves (Leary & Tagney, 2012; Ramaranjan, 2014; Thibadeu & Aronson, 1992). As such, threats to any of these dimensions or identities are threats to the self-concept. What theories of self-concept threat all highlight is that when people become aware of inconsistencies between who they are and how they view themselves (or who they want to be), they experience negative emotions and discomfort which they are motivated to resolve. This resolution involves bridging the gap between inconsistent views of the self.

Festinger's landmark theory of cognitive dissonance (1957) explains that when a person holds inconsistent cognitions, a state of mental discomfort arises that the person is motivated to resolve. Aronson (1969) went on to further develop this work by demonstrating that such dissonance is particularly difficult for people when competing or inconsistent cognitions are related to one's self-concept (as opposed to dissonant cognitions more broadly). When people become aware of things that run counter to their (generally positive) self-concept, they experience threat that is characterized by negativity and discomfort, which may trigger a defensive reaction (Aronson, 1969; Tavris & Aronson, 2007). Threats to the self-concept are also variably referred to by psychologists and management scholars as ego threats (Baumeister, 1998; Leary, 2009). *Ego threat* is defined as a threat to one's self-image or self-esteem (Baumeister, 1998; Leary, 2009), which is consistent with the way self-concept threat is defined within dissonance theory. The theory suggests that the occurrence of self-concept threat, and the degree of threat experienced, will depend on the centrality or importance of implicated dimensions of the self-concept and the size of the negative discrepancy one is facing.

Dissonance within oneself can also be conceptualized as discrepancy between one's actual versus potential self or as the gap between one's real self and one's standards (Higgins, 1987). Self-discrepancy theory explains that we judge our actual self based on the proximity of this actual self to two different standards, standards for the "ideal self" and standards for the "ought self." Our own "ideal" standards reflect who we wish or hope to be, and our own "ought" standards reflect what we feel a duty or obligation to be. Similarly, others may hold aspirations for what they want us to be or may have expectations of the duties and obligations we should fulfill (the ideal and ought standards others hold for us). Any negative discrepancies between one's perception of their actual self and these standards will result in a negative emotional state that individuals are motivated to resolve (Higgins, 1987). Self-

discrepancy theory distinguishes itself from theories of dissonance and discrepancy (e.g., Aronson, 1969; Duval & Wicklund, 1972) in that it differentiates between types of discrepancies as well as types of negative emotions associated with each discrepancy. While all three theories presented here characterize the experience of facing negative self-discrepancies as an uncomfortable experience that results in negative emotions, Higgins (1987) alone presents a theory that systematically tries to explain what negative emotions will be experienced when. The theory of self-discrepancy explains that based on our proximity to our ideal self, we experience emotions on the *elation-dejection* spectrum (e.g., disappointment, sadness). On the other hand, based on our proximity to our ought self, we experience emotions on the *relief-agitation* (e.g., fear, anger) spectrum. For example, discrepancies between the actual self and ought standards held by others will elicit fear due to fear of punishment or social rejection. In contrast, discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal standards held by oneself will result in disappointment or sadness. While Higgins does not distinguish the implications of these different emotions for subsequent outcomes, he does point to the role of emotions in motivating behavior.

Duval and Wicklund (1972) propose that self-focused attention initiates thinking about discrepancies and inconsistencies in oneself (which are usually negative). At any moment, conscious attention is directed towards the self or pulled outward towards external stimuli. This self-focused attention can be initiated in a number of ways, including realization that another person is paying attention to some feature of the self. Discrepancies that people become aware of create a negative state that people are motivated to change either by a) avoidance (directing attention away from the self and one's discrepancies) or b) discrepancy reduction. As in the previously discussed theories of dissonance and discrepancy, the negative state experienced is an affective reaction to disturbance in one's perception of completeness, consistency and goodness of the self. However, in contrast to cognitive

dissonance and self-discrepancy theory, it focuses on the role of attention and differentiates between avoidance of this attention versus engagement with self-focused attention (rather than just positive and negative approaches to discrepancy reduction). The authors note that, when possible, avoidance, or directing attention outward, is the most efficient way to overcome the negative affect experienced in the face of self-discrepancy—though it is not necessarily the most desirable. Self-focused attention may be required to motivate relevant changes in attitudes or behavior and can facilitate this discrepancy reduction up to a certain point. Beyond this point, self-focused attention may actually interfere with the behavior change process.

Three additional theories may be relevant when considering discrepancy reduction between one's actual self and one's self-image: control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982), self-verification theory (Swann, 1983), and self-affirmation theory (Steele, 1988). Control theory is a theory of self-regulation which suggests that our behavior is regulated through feedback loops. Our perceptions of our present state are compared against our reference values (or standards, such as standards for behavior). When a discrepancy is detected, then people engage in a behavior to reduce this discrepancy. Self-focused attention, which can be influenced by changes in the environment, will increase comparisons between one's present state and reference values. Behavioral approaches to reducing discrepancies are contingent on the expectation that the behaviors employed will work. Central tenets of control theory are in line with the theories mentioned above and are even integrated into developments of self-discrepancy theory that are referred to as theories of regulatory focus (Higgins, 1987). However, unlike theories of self-concept threat, control theory does not focus on the significance of the self-concept to the individual or the negative affect and discomfort associated with being threatened. In addition, it does not offer any further guidance on why discrepancy reduction will be pursued in one way or another beyond what the

abovementioned theories provide. Alternatively, the abovementioned theories provide insight into, for example, what makes certain discrepancies more meaningful than others, and the variety of standards that can be used as "reference values" against which to compare one's current self-image.

Similarly, self-verification theory, which is perhaps closer to abovementioned theories of self-concept threat, asserts that efforts to alleviate the discrepancy between one's self-views and new self-relevant information are driven by a desire for coherence (Swann, 2012). This is true regardless of whether or not one's self-views are positive or negative. In other words, if one has negative self-views and is faced with discrepant information that is positive, one will still attempt to reassert their negative self-view. Along the lines of self-verification theory, the theory of self-affirmation proposes that people are motivated to maintain a sense of self-integrity—feelings of competence and goodness (Steele, 1988). As proposed by the theories of self-concept threat discussed above, situations that challenge this sense of self-integrity will be met with strategies to restore it. Where self-affirmation theory distinguishes itself is by focusing on restoration of one's sense of self-integrity by concentrating on one's strengths (related to other aspects of the self).

The importance of retaining a sense of wholeness, consistency, and coherence is also central to Aronson's conceptualization of the self-concept and response to self-concept threat, and it is additionally recognized by Higgins (1987) and Duvall and Wicklund (1972). Aronson (1992) notes that, with minor adjustments, control theory and the theory of self-verification could be subsumed under dissonance theory as put forth by Festinger (1957) and further developed by Aronson (1959, 1969). As such, despite the relevance of the three theories above, I draw primarily on Aronson's development of dissonance theory (Aronson, 1969), self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), and the theory of objective self-awareness (Duvall & Wicklund, 1972) in subsequent chapters. However, self-affirmation theory is

leveraged in my research design in Paper 1 and will be discussed in more detail in that section.

Despite their utility, theories of self-concept threat do not provide clear explanations of the different ways that resolution of dissonances, and/or the discomfort and negative affect associated with these discrepancies, will occur—or what determines the resolution approach taken (besides limited discussion on the size of the relevant negative discrepancy and perceptions of capacity to resolve the discrepancy). On the one hand, resolution might be pursued through positive engagement with the feedback and subsequent growth and change. On the other hand, people may respond defensively. Notably, all theories of self-concept threat emphasize the risk of psychological defensiveness as an approach to resolving negative affect and discomfort associated with negative self-discrepancies.

Defensive Cognitive and Behavioral Responses to Psychological Threat to the Self-Concept

Defensiveness is a response to psychological threat and insecurity that can take different forms, such as avoidance, denial, self-justification, minimization (of the discrepancy or harm), or undermining the source (Aronson, 1969; Baumeister et al., 1998; Hart, 2014; Tarvis & Aronson, 2007). Early psychological work explains that defensive cognitions and behaviors serve to protect oneself from internal and external events that would otherwise shake one's sense of self and disturb one's normal functioning (Baumeister et al., 1998). Some theorize that defensiveness is an evolved psychological response that helps one retain a sense of completeness, wholeness, and goodness to oneself and others (Baumeister et. al, 1998). Others theorize that it helps maintain a sense of stability and provides meaning to prevent one from falling into psychological disarray (Hart, 2014). Defensiveness may or may not manifest in outward behaviors; it may just manifest as motivated cognitions which operate outside of one's conscious awareness (Baumeister et al., 1998). Defensive behaviors in organizations are actions taken to react to or protect against perceived threats and the

unwanted demands of individuals/groups (Ashforth & Lee, 1990). This includes, but is not limited to, retaliation or backlash against those who are seen as threats (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Baumeister et al., 2000).

Receipt of difficult feedback has been associated with defensiveness in the form of blame displacement (Ashforth & Lee, 1990), source derogation in the form of poorer appraisal of the voice/feedback expressed or the voicer/provider (Burris, 2012; Fast, et al., 2013; Monin et al., 2008, Wenzel, et al., 2020), and even increased aggression towards the source of threatening information (Baumeister et al., 2000). Research on formal performance appraisals has demonstrated that negative feedback harms employee self-esteem and is associated with negative emotions that can interfere with the ability to accept feedback and act upon it to improve performance (Kay et al., 1965; Meyer, 1991). Employees may perceive negative feedback as a threat to their ego and a barrier to their goal attainment (e.g., pay raises and career advancement), triggering negative emotions and defensive reactions (Kay et al., 1965; Ilgen & Davis, 2000). However, supervisors, managers, and leaders are also highly susceptible to being threatened by feedback (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Work on employee voice and silence readily acknowledges the importance of employee perceptions of manager self-threat and defensiveness as a key determinant of psychological safety (Morrison & Milliken, 2000), and it articulates that psychological safety shapes employee decisionmaking around speaking up (Morrison, 2014). Employee perceptions that managers may be threatened and respond defensively are based in reality—managers are often fearful of threats to their competence, power, and credibility (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Korsgaard, Roberson, & Rymph, 1998). In recent years, a growing body of management research, beyond the feedback literature, has investigated the defensive responses of CEOs, founders, and managers to challenging feedback—and many look at specific types of threat as explanations of response (Chen et al., 2014; Fast, et al., 2013; Gaba

et al., 2022; Grimes, 2018; Kang & Kim, 2022). This includes threats to one's creative self-concept (Grimes, 2018), sense of managerial competence (Fast, et al., 2013), and expert identity (Kang & Kim, 2022).

Focusing specifically on challenging voice and feedback in the ethical domain, and specifically in the context of social equality and equity, empirical work has investigated how people react to feedback about their morality, implicit biases and privilege—including the use of both preemptive and reactive defense strategies. Receiving self-relevant information that one did not act ethically presents a threat to the moral self-concept that can instigate defensiveness (Monin et al., 2008, 2014; Wenzel, et. al., 2020). Goedderz and Hahn (2022) explore why people are surprised by their racial bias implicit association test (IAT) scores and investigate social desirability, bias severity and attention as potential explanations. Interestingly, they find that attention is the main predictor, suggesting that while people's knowledge of their own biases is accessible, they usually keep it outside of their present conscious awareness as an effort to protect their own self-concept—and that this concern may be greater than their concerns about social judgment. Earlier work on IAT feedback response indicates people usually expect favorable scores, but when they are cued to think their score is unfavorable they avoid trying to get the feedback—or they regret getting such feedback when they do not have a choice in receiving it (Howell et al., 2013). In a study of over one million participants by Project Implicit, researchers found that White, Black and mixed race (Black and White) participants undermined the implicit association test (IAT) in response to discrepancies between their self-reported attitudes and IAT scores (Howell et al., 2015). While White and Black participants reacted the most defensively to IAT scores that indicated strong pro-White attitudes, mixed race participants reacted defensively to scores that indicated that they were more "pro" in either direction. These results reflect how people employ psychological defenses, from avoidance to derogation of the source of feedback, to

avoid acknowledging and accepting discrepancies between the type of egalitarian person they want to be and the feedback that says they may not actually be this person.

Defensiveness of Advantaged Group Members

Evidence on dominant group psychology is especially relevant within the context of challenging voice regarding social inequality because recipients may be more likely to be from advantaged groups—both because of over-representation in management positions and the likelihood that they will need to be made aware of issues they overlook. A hallmark of privilege (whether along the lines of race, class, gender, sexuality, ability or otherwise) is living in a world where the status quo is built to privilege one's social group (Black & Stone, 2005; Pratto & Steward, 2012). This experience creates blind spots such that those who may not even identity strongly with their dominant social group (e.g., "White," "rich") do not see how current practices, systems, and structures that they routinely engage in and depend on privilege them while disadvantaging others (Black & Stone, 2005; Pratto & Steward, 2012; Wu & Dunning, 2020). People from privileged groups routinely underestimate the privilege they enjoy as a member of those groups. Many individuals from dominant groups who say they value diversity and equal treatment in the workplace and society as a whole (Horowitz, 2019; Minkin 2020) may not realize the ways in which they still benefit from privilege—and how they overlook and sustain status quo practices, systems, and structures that harm others (Pratto & Steward, 2012; Wu & Dunning, 2020).

However, when made aware of their privilege, advantaged group members may find it difficult to accept and often employ a host of psychological defenses to avoid having to acknowledge their privilege. These defenses may include denial of privilege (Knowles et al., 2014) and claims of victimhood at the hands of non-dominant groups ("reverse discrimination") (Noor et al., 2012, Young & Sullivan, 2016). Claiming victimhood has been shown to restore advantaged group members' sense of moral standing (Zitek et al., 2010). If

claiming competitive victimhood becomes difficult (e.g., race-based discrimination against a White person), dominant group members may even make claims of digressive victimhood—or claims of oppression on different grounds (e.g., a White person claiming free speech violations when they say something racist) (Danbold et al., 2022). Dominant group members often find it difficult to accept facts about their privilege because doing so implies that personal outcomes they attribute to their own effort may be derived in part by systemic privileges and not merit (Knowles et al., 2014). Accepting this information also may increase feelings of guilt (Leach et al., 2002) and threaten their positive self-image as a whole (Branscombe, 1998; Leach et al., 2002).

The Role of Emotion Regulation in Challenging Feedback Response

Because many people have a generally favorable self-concept (Baumeister et al.,1993; 1998) and try to retain a positive moral self-concept in particular (Wenzel, et. al., 2020), it is likely that challenging voice that indicates one has inadvertently overlooked, sustained, or perpetuated social inequality will result in perception of a negative self-discrepancy and cause some degree of negative affect. As theories of self-concept threat explain, it is the negative affective experience resulting from the perception of a negative self-discrepancy that motivates individuals to react defensively or to make an active effort to change (Aronson, 1969; Higgins, 1987; Duvall & Wicklund, 1972). Individuals who recognize negative self-discrepancies still have control over whether or not they respond defensively. In this sense, defensiveness can be seen as a self-regulation failure—the inability to effectively manage one's experience of threat (including the discomfort and negative emotions entailed) and to resist the impulse to succumb to or be limited by defensive responding (Baumeister et al.,1993).

Gross's model of emotion regulation (1998) explains that emotion regulation can occur at several stages of the emotion generative process and can include *situation selection*

and modification, attentional deployment, cognitive reappraisal, modulation of negative emotions, or *modulation of associated responses (e.g., behavioral)*. Defensiveness can be seen as a form of regulation of negative emotions evoked by self-concept threat that serves to dampen or eliminate negative emotions in different ways, such as avoidance of threat-inducing feedback (situation selection/modification), displacing blame on others (attentional redeployment), or derogating the source of feedback (reappraising the negative self-discrepancy). However, emotion regulation might also be used to facilitate a more productive response to challenging voice regarding social inequality. Focusing on racial privilege, Ford et al. (2022) present an emotion regulation model of "White fragility" to explain the difficulty that White people face regulating emotions around awareness about their participation in systems of oppression (s*ee also* DiAngelo, 2018). Though the phenomenon they describe is focused on White people and anti-Black racism, it is very closely related to self-concept threat and the insights may be more broadly relevant. The authors explain that each step of the process of "White fragility" occurs at the emotion generation stages of situation, attention, appraisal, and response—and that each of these stages provides an opportunity to manage negative emotions associated with fragility in a more productive way (Ford et al., 2022). Attention can be redirected, situations reappraised, and responses managed to regulate one's emotions. While defensive strategies to regulate negative emotion in the short term (e.g., avoidance, minimization, blame displacement) may be effective for the feedback recipient to minimize negative emotions, they also deny the feedback recipient the opportunity to learn from the feedback provided (Ford et al., 2022).

In my dissertation, I draw upon Gross's model of emotion regulation and integrate it with theories of self-concept threat to explore factors that promote emotion regulation and facilitate improved response to challenging feedback regarding social inequality. A conceptual process model is provided in Appendix A. In Paper 1, I test the extent to which

individual differences in values, beliefs, and preferences related to growth improve response to challenging feedback regarding gender inequality, and I propose that perceived self-discrepancies can be seen as opportunities to realign with a central aspect of one's self-concept: being a person who grows and evolves. This may help improve response to challenging feedback through some combination of redirecting attention to one's growth identity and reappraising challenging feedback as an opportunity rather than a threat.

In Paper 2, I investigate how redirection of attention towards others due to empathy can explain differences in response to challenging feedback between advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members.

Overview of Papers

In Paper 1, I conduct a lab experiment to test how self-concept threat exposure shapes response to challenging voice regarding gender inequality, as well how values, beliefs, and preferences related to growth may moderate this relationship. To do so I draw upon social psychological methods used to detect self-concept threat and its impact without reliance on self-report. I also test the internal and discriminant validity of a proposed new construct called *growth identity*, or the extent to which one values growth and defines themselves in this light. I test the moderating effects of this construct in the lab experiment described above.

In Paper 2, through multiple online studies and one lab study, I compare the response of advantaged racial group members to disadvantaged racial group members to challenging voice regarding racial inequality, and I explore the extent to which feelings of threat as opposed to empathy explain differences in response. I propose that while members of all racial groups may undergo the affective experience of threat when facing challenging voice, advantaged racial group members will respond worse due to weaker feelings of empathy. On the other hand, disadvantaged racial group members may respond better, even when experiencing feelings of threat, due to high levels of empathy which act as a countervailing

force. I further propose that differences in empathy cannot be predicted by assumptions of social identity theory and related theory on intergroup emotions (i.e., ingroup favoritism and outgroup prejudice). Specifically, I propose that differences in response persist even when advantaged racial group members receive feedback from White feedback providers, and that the response of advantaged racial group members may vary based on intersectional disadvantage in the form of SES—indicating that empathy for the experience of disadvantage may be a driver of differences in response. I also test whether these relationships hold even after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs, to investigate whether reductions in empathy of advantaged group members can be attributed to beliefs related to equality.

Dependent Variables Across Papers

Across papers and experiments, my dependent variables are focused on understanding voice recipient attitudes towards challenging voice regarding social inequality as well as the voicers themselves. These dependent variables vary slightly from paper to paper; overall, however, they measure ratings of *voice itself* (i.e., in terms of utility, validity, and appropriateness), *willingness to engage with the voice* (i.e., learn more about the basis of feedback), *voicers* (i.e., in terms of personality, respect, ethicality) and *willingness to engage with voicers* (i.e., as a colleague or friend). These dependent variables stem from those used in social psychological literature on response to moral feedback, and they indicate whether people are receptive to what is being shared and whether they see both the feedback shared and the feedback provider as a resource rather than a threat.

Notably, the measure of attitudes towards voice itself is distinct from measures of voice endorsement (Burris, 2012). The primary focus of my dissertation is to look at how voice recipients can better manage self-threat to be more receptive to voice and engage with voice—not necessarily agree right away. Because of this, the voice measures used are taken from the moral objection and feedback literatures (e.g., Monin et al., 2008) rather than the

voice literature. However, in Paper 1, voice agreement is measured alongside voice ratings of utility, validity, and appropriateness to test whether there is a difference in effects.

In addition, I measure appraisal of the voicer and willingness to engage with the voicer because this helps us understand how the recipient would treat the voicer after they share challenging information. Poor appraisal of the voicer's qualities and reduced ratings of wanting to befriend or work with the voicer are precursors to voicer marginalization—an especially poor outcome in the context of voice regarding social inequality.

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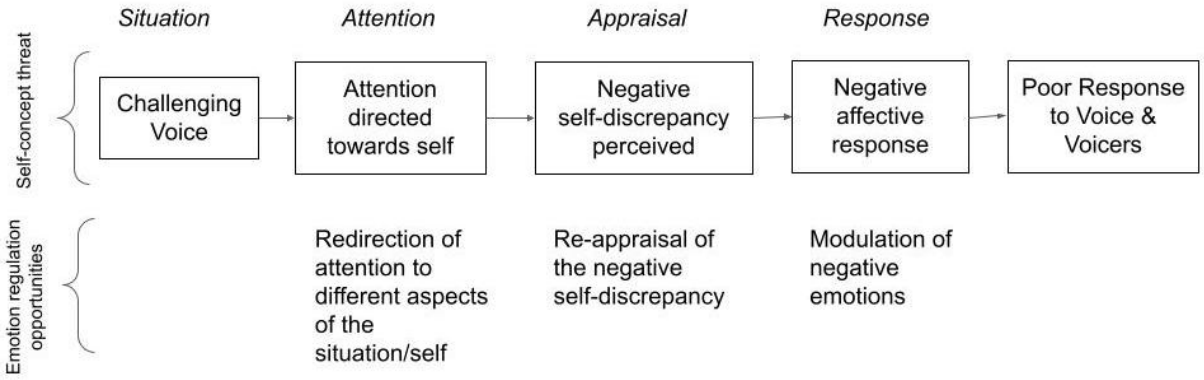
APPENDIX A

Introduction Figures

Figure A1

Conceptual process model of the experience of self-concept threat and opportunities for the regulation of associated negative affect.



Paper 1:

Experiences of Self-Concept Threat in Response to Challenging Voice Regarding Gender Inequality and the Moderating Effect of Growth Identity

Experiences of Self-Concept Threat in Response to Challenging Voice Regarding Gender Inequality and the Moderating Effect of Growth Identity

Abstract

Challenging voice highlighting gender equality in the workplace may pose a threat to the self-concepts of voice recipients. For example, individuals may see information that they have inadvertently supported or perpetuated gender inequality as a threat to their sense of competence, moral identity or gender identity. However, individuals may vary in how their manage the negative affective experience of threat. In this paper, I randomize the degree of self-concept threat exposure experienced by recipients of challenging voice regarding gender inequality to examine how the affective experience of threat impacts voice response. I also test how values, beliefs and preferences for growth moderate this relationship. In doing so I propose and test the validity of a new construct: growth identity. Results indicate that increased threat exposure results in more negative ratings of voice and voicers, but that this effect is driven by advantaged group members (in this case – men). Growth identity significantly moderated the relationship between threat exposure and voice response for both men and women. However, the direction of the interactions varied. For men, stronger growth identity led to worse response under high threat exposure but better response under low threat exposure. For women, stronger growth identity improved response under high threat exposure, but not low threat exposure.

Experiences of Self-Concept Threat in Response to Challenging Voice Regarding Gender Inequality and the Moderating Effect of Growth Identity

Within management, a growing body of research across organizational behavior and strategy subfields has investigated defensiveness as a response to challenging feedback, with a focus on how CEOs, founders, or managers react to information that threatens their sense of expertise or managerial power (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Fast, et al., 2013; Gaba et al., 2022; Grimes, 2018). Within the business ethics and social psychology literatures, a wealth of research investigates defensive response to information that suggests one is immoral or unethical (e.g., Monin et al., 2008; Wellman et al., 2016). Social psychological theory explains that the self-concept is composed of multiple dimensions (Thibadeu & Aronson, 1992) and identities by which one defines and makes sense of themselves (Leary & Tagney, 2012; Ramaranjan, 2014). Definitions of the self and self-concept and identity have been used in different ways in the management literature, sometimes interchangeably, sometimes implying one's core identity is composed of multiple selves, and sometimes implying one's self-concept contains multiple identities (Ramaranjan, 2014). Here, I use the latter conceptualization. The self-concept can be seen as a collection or "constellation" of the multiple identities that people hold and define themselves by (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Oyserman et al., 2012; Ramaranjan, 2014). It follows, then, that the self-concept is at risk of being threatened along multiple broad dimensions or specific identities, where threat stems from potential harm to the enactment of an identity that is central to one's self-concept (Aronson, 1969,1992; Petriglieri, 2011).

Theory suggests that whether or not challenging self-relevant information will pose a real threat to one's self-concept will depend on the extent to which the information presented is related to an integral aspect of one's sense of self (Aronson, 1969; Thibadeu & Aronson, 1992; Duvall & Wicklund, 1972). Within the context of challenging voice regarding

inequality in the workplace, there are several aspects of one's self-concept that may be vulnerable to threat because of the self-relevant information provided by voice. These include dimensions of the personal self-concept related to competence and morality, which many people find integral to their sense of self (Aronson, 1992; Thibadeu & Aronson, 1992). They may also include threat to one's social self-concept—or one's sense of self and self-esteem that is tied to membership in a particular social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Theories of self-concept threat further explain that perceived discrepancies between an integral aspect of one's own self-concept and new self-relevant information that runs counter to this conception will result in a state of discomfort and negativity (Aronson, 1969; Higgins, 1987; Tavris & Aronson, 2007). The degree of this negative affective experience may be shaped by factors such as the perceived size of the discrepancy and perceived capacity to bridge the gap between one's ideal self and actual self (Higgins, 1987).

In this paper, I propose that the degree to which one sees growth and evolution as central to one's sense of self can influence how attention is refocused and situations are reappraised when facing potential threats to the self-concept—such as challenging voice regarding social inequality. First, I create and test the internal and discriminant validity of a new construct I term *growth identity*. Second, I conduct a lab experiment in which participants face challenging voice regarding gender inequality and test the moderating effect of growth identity on the effect of experienced threat on response to voice.

Hypothesis and Theory Development

Challenging Voice as a Threat to the Personal Self-Concept

Substantial theory and empirical work from social psychology demonstrates that people feel threatened when receiving information that runs counter to how they view themselves or want others to perceive them, and that this can elicit a defensive response (Aronson, 1969; Higgins, 1987; Tavris & Aronson, 2007; Wenzel, et. al., 2020). In particular,

cognitive dissonance theory explains that people experience discomfort when holding competing cognitions (Festinger, 1957), and this discomfort and negativity may be more pronounced when inconsistent cognitions are related to one's self-concept, which has multiple domains (Aronson, 1969). Aronson (1969, 1995) explains that dissonance reduction is usually motivated by the desire to protect two broad domains of the self-concept that are central to people's sense of self: *competence* and *morality*. A subset of this work in management investigates self-threat as a mechanism and, where it does so, overwhelmingly focuses on threats to competence. This includes decreased receptivity and increased defensiveness to information that puts one's creative ability (Grimes, 2018), managerial effectiveness (Fast, et al., 2013), and expertise (Kang & Kim, 2022) into question. However, with the exception of Monin's work on "moral rebels" (Monin et al., 2008) and related work in business ethics on moral objectors (e.g., Wellman et al., 2016) there is relatively little literature on moral self-concept threat within the field of management. Social psychological literature, however, includes much more extensive research on this phenomenon.

For many people, being a morally "good" person is central to their self-concept, so receiving negative self-relevant information about one's ethics or moral values can be particularly threatening and is likely to evoke defensiveness (Monin, 2007; Wenzel et al., 2020). Defensive responses to moral failing may include, for example, moral justification, minimization of harm, blame displacement, and rejection of the source of moral threat (Bandura, et al., 1996; Monin et al., 2008). Empirical evidence suggests that even the indirect implication that someone else is more moral than oneself, because they raise an ethical concern you did not, can result in a negative opinion of that person's personality, an unwillingness to associate with them as a friend or colleague, and negative appraisal of what they said (Monin et al., 2008). Wenzel and colleagues (2020) suggests that threat to one's moral self-concept stems simultaneously from one's own sense of moral failing and the threat

of being perceived as an immoral person and being rejected by others. In other words, self-discrepancies between one's actual self and one's own ideal standards as well as the standards of others are reinforcing in the moral self-concept threat that they produce. Wenzel and colleagues (2020) theorizes that one's moral self-concept is inherently associated with one's perceived social image, such that any information that runs counter to one's moral self-concept also opposes one's standards for how they are perceived in the eyes of others. In support of this theory, Monin's work on "moral rebels" finds that defensive response in reaction to the moral actions of others is driven by "imagined reproach" by others, which has a negative effect on one's own positive self-image (Monin et al., 2008; O'Connor & Monin, 2016). Monin (2007) posits that defensive reactions in the moral domain may stem, in part, from upward social comparison to others. When others act more morally than we do, this may result in feelings of moral confusion (related to our own moral self-concept), moral inferiority, and fear of moral reproach (or rejection), which we try to alleviate through suspicion or rejection of the person we are comparing ourselves to.

Theories of self-concept threat explain that the experience of feeling threatened, characterized by negative affect, will be worse to the extent that the dimension of self-concept threatened is more central to one's sense of self (Aronson, 1969; Higgins, 1987; Duval & Wicklund, 1972). As such, threats to the moral self-concept may be especially difficult to receive and accept because of the centrality of morality to many people's self-concept (Monin, 2007; Monin et al., 2008; Wenzel, 2020). The idea that one is a bad person and that others may see one as a bad person may be more threatening to one's self-image than thinking one is not competent (Ellemers et al., 2008; Pagliaro et al., 2016; Rösler et al., 2021, 2023). In addition, feedback on one's morality is often seen as more difficult to act upon compared to feedback on one's competence (Rösler et al., 2021; van der Lee et al., 2016). In other words, challenging voice regarding social inequality at work may evoke even stronger

feelings of threat than other types of challenging voice and difficult feedback because it not only implicates a lack of skill or expertise in a situation, but implicates the ethicality of one's actions and one's sense of morality. When challenging voice regarding social inequality the workplace is provided, recipients may feel like they are not just bad at their job but, more importantly, that they are a bad person—and this can be a profoundly negative affective experience.

Challenging Voice as a Threat to Social Dimensions of the Self-Concept

Challenging voice regarding social inequality may also pose a threat to one's *social* self-concept. Social psychologists have tried to understand the importance of one's social group memberships to the self-concept from different angles, and they find that other's views of one's social group, one's own views of one's social group, belonging as a member of one's social group, and the importance of one's group memberships to one's personal identity may all contribute to one's feelings of self-worth (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). For advantaged individuals who identify strongly with their social group, challenging voice that indicates one's social group is immoral or should not hold a dominant position may be threatening even when their *personal* self-concept (e.g., one's personal sense of morality) is not impacted. For example, evidence from research on dominant group psychology indicates that advantaged group members may see equality efforts as threats to their self-esteem stemming from weakening of social group status or power (Chow & Knowles, 2015; Danbold & Unzueta, 2022; Knowles et al., 2014; Wilkins & Kaiser, 2013; Young & Sullivan, 2016). Or indications that one's group is immoral may negatively impact one's self-esteem tied to positive self-image derived from a positive perception of one's ingroup. Alternatively, advantaged group members who do not identify strongly with their advantaged social group or its dominant status may still be threatened personally by challenging voice (e.g., because of its implications for their sense of morality or competence).

Using the context of gender inequality at work, I hypothesize that challenging feedback regarding social inequality will worsen recipients' perceptions of and response to challenging voice and voicers to the extent that their self-concept is threatened.

H1a. Increased self-concept threat exposure will be associated with poorer ratings of voice (utility, validity, appropriateness).

H1b. Increased self-concept threat exposure will be associated with poorer ratings of voicers.

H1c. Increased self-concept threat exposure will be associated with poorer ratings of willingness to engage with voice (to learn more about its basis).

H1d. Increased self-concept threat exposure will be associated with poorer ratings of willingness to engage with voicers (as friends or coworkers).

The Relationship Between Growth Beliefs and Values and Response to Feedback

The idea that people are not motivated to act or change unless they feel that they have the ability, and that they perceive that their effort will produce desired outcomes, is central to fundamental theories of motivation and goal pursuit (e.g., Vroom, 1964). In theorizing about the connection between feedback and performance improvement, Ilgen et al. (1979) note that whether or not negative feedback will be accepted and used to change will depend on: a) whether or not one believes they have the ability to do what is necessary and b) whether or not they feel in control of the ultimate outcomes that their performance improvement is meant to contribute to. Similarly, Lewin's theories of change, including the three-step model of change and further work on re-education, point to destabilization as the first step (Lewin & Grabbe, 1945; Burnes, 2020). Lewin theorizes that change ultimately requires that driving forces of change outweigh restraining forces and that the difficulty of moving from a destabilization to a change state will be greater when the degree of change is more, when people feel ill-equipped to make the change, and when they feel like the change is being forced upon them (as opposed to stemming from their own volition) (Lewin & Grabbe, 1945; Burnes, 2020).

Theories of self-discrepancy similarly note that when the size of a negative self-discrepancy is larger and when people feel less capable or unsure of how to make a change in their behavior to bridge the gap, then the motivation to reduce the discrepancy through some type of defensive strategy (whether avoidance, denial, or otherwise) increases (Higgins, 1987; Duvall & Wicklund, 1972). People's perception of the capacity to implement the change implied or proposed by challenging voice increases acceptance (e.g., Ilgen et al., 1979; Vitriol & Moskowitz, 2021). Perceptions of capacity may be increased by providing concrete tools and strategies to improve perceptions of capacity (Moskowitz & Vitriol, 2022) or individual factors such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995; Kay et al., 1965).

Drawing upon this work, it holds that any factors that make the ideal attitude or behavior implied by challenging voice seem closer to one's actual self, or that increase a recipient's perception of the ability to bridge the gap between the problem highlighted and their own self-standard, will have a positive effect on managing self-concept threat. Here, I propose that the value that an individual places on being able to grow and change, and the degree to which they see this as central to their sense of self, may influence how they perceive and manage threats to their self-concept. Even in situations where the tools and strategies necessary to grow may be unclear, valuing growth may motivate people to find them.

Theory and evidence suggest that when people consider traits such as intelligence to be fixed, they are less likely to improve and generally achieve less than those who believe intelligence and talents can be developed (Dweck, 1999). O'Keefe (2013) theorizes that viewing intelligence as malleable leads to the adoption of feedback goals focused on self-improvement, learning, and development while viewing intelligence as fixed leads to the adoption of goals focused on self-validation and self-enhancement. This may extend to views of morality. While not as well established in the literature, some have proposed that when

people believe that morality is something that can change, they will be more motivated to become more ethical (Han et al., 2018, 2022).

Here, I suggest that valuing growth and seeing growth as central to one's self-concept may have an even stronger impact on response to feedback than believing growth is possible or enjoying learning in a broad sense. To test this idea I attempt to develop and validate a construct called *growth identity* and evaluate the extent to which it measures a distinct concept that is related to, but different from, other growth-related constructs such as *growth mindset, moral growth mindset, personal growth initiative, learning goal orientation,* and *growth needs strength.*

H2a. Growth identity will moderate the relationship between threat exposure and ratings of voice.

H2b. Growth identity will moderate the relationship between threat exposure and ratings of voicers.

H2c. Growth identity will moderate the relationship between threat exposure and willingness to engage with voice.

H2d. Growth identity will moderate the relationship between threat exposure and willingness to engage with voicers.

H3. Growth identity will have a stronger moderating effect than related individual growth constructs for all outcomes

Overview of the Present Research

In this paper, I first develop and test the internal and discriminant validity of a growth-related construct I term growth identity. Second, I conduct a lab experiment to evaluate how self-concept threat impacts feedback response as well as how values about growth moderate this response. I also compare how the moderating effect of values about growth compare to related growth constructs concerning beliefs about the possibility of growth and preferences for growth.

To develop and test the validity of the growth identity construct, I followed the steps of scale development outlined by Hinken (1998) and Colquitt, et al. (2019). This involved

data collection from three different samples: the first was used for exploratory factor analysis, the second was used for confirmatory factor analysis, and the third was used to test for discriminant validity (using a combination of methods). All steps of the scale development process are outlined below under Study 1.

Study 1

Item Generation

Items were generated using a combination of inductive and deductive methods. In a series of coaching sessions I conducted between 2021 and 2022, I started observing a pattern in my sessions with high-achieving professionals. Many of them expressed, in some shape or form, insecurity about their failures and degree of career success. In an attempt to draw upon existing evidence on perspectives and mindsets to foster motivation and resilience, I would often talk to people about their perspectives on their abilities and talents and about their motivation to grow, (as opposed to focusing on demonstrations of "success"). I started to find that while most of them believed in the possibility of growing and were motivated to pursue more challenging things, they did not necessarily place value on the experience of growing in comparison to traditional measures of success or the general accumulation of knowledge. This led me to think more about the distinction between believing growth is possible, preferences for learning, openness to risks, and actually valuing growth.

I then began to look for existing theory and constructs that shed light on this idea. I conducted a literature search across top management and psychology journals, including review papers, focusing on titles related to individual growth and growth-related traits in organizations. This resulted in a list of five individual-level growth-related constructs, including *growth mindset, moral growth mindset, personal growth initiative*, *learning growth orientation,* and *growth needs strength.* In trying to understand the nomological net of the construct (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955), I looked at existing literature on the relationships

between these constructs and the key antecedents and consequences of these constructs within the context of work and organizations (with a focus on feedback).

Growth mindset, or the belief that abilities are malleable, has been found to be an antecedent of both *learning goal orientation* (Dweck & Leggett, 1988) and *personal growth initiative* (Robitschek et al., 2012). Learning goal orientation, or the motivation to learn, has also been found to be an antecedent of personal growth initiative—or the intentional effort taken to grow (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005). *Growth needs strength* focuses more specifically on the workplace than the other constructs identified here, as it focuses on the desire for development within work roles and at the workplace (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). It has been found to be a moderator of the relationship between both learning goal orientation and personal growth initiative and performance outcomes at work.

Existing research on the relationship between these constructs and feedback can be divided roughly into that associated with feedback seeking and that associated with feedback response. For example, higher growth needs strength is associated with the seeking of challenging feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and personal growth initiative is associated with feedback-seeking for personal change (Robitschek, 1998; 1999). From the standpoint of feedback receptivity and response, learning goal orientation has been associated with more favorable attitudes toward feedback and constructive use of feedback (Button et al., 1996). A meta-analysis of more than 100 studies testing entity theory and incremental theory found that these implicit theories of fixed and growth mindset were strongly correlated with improved self-regulation when faced with challenges and setbacks (Burnette et al., 2013).

At the same time, I explored theory on how beliefs and values may differ in how they motivate cognition, emotion and behavior. Theories of identity explain that values tied to central identities motivate people to act in ways that are consistent with those identities

(Burke & Stets, 2009; Stryker, 1980), and several theories about values explain that values motivate and guide behavior more broadly than beliefs because they are less context-specific (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992, 1994). Overall, it seemed that existing constructs focused either on beliefs about malleability (in a somewhat domain-specific way), motivation to learn, or intention/effort to learn—but *not* on how one defines or values oneself in terms of one's capacity to evolve. Because of this, I initiated the development of a new construct termed *growth identity*.

Drawing from my coaching experiences and insights from the literature, I drafted a set of 10 items, modeled after existing scales, which measure the degree to which something is central to the self-concept (e.g., moral identification). Because the other growth-related constructs identified here had scales of 3–9 items, I estimated that the final growth identity scale would include 4–5 items and generated double that amount in line with existing guidelines (Hinkin, 1998). A list of these original 10 items can be found in Table B1.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The 10 items generated were administered to 50 participants on Prolific. Participants were full-time or part-time workers in the US aged 18 and above, and the sample was evenly balanced by gender. An EFA was conducted using principal components analysis (varimax rotation) to determine the factor structure underlying the growth identity items and to reduce the amount of items necessary to explain variance in the construct. Initially a two-factor structure emerged. However, after eliminating items with primary factor loadings of less than .40 and cross loadings greater than .30, there were not enough items for a second factor. In addition, the face validity of the two items related to the second factor was poor. These items focused more on avoidance of discomfort and risk than on valuing growth and evolution. Based on these findings, only items 1–7 were retained. Exploratory factor analysis results are provided in Table B2.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Data was collected from 70 participants from a university subject pool. A CFA was conducted to determine whether or not the one-factor structure indicated by the EFA had adequate model fit. The initial model did not have an adequate fit based on multiple indices: CFI = .919, TLI = .878, RMSEA = .150, and SRMR = .051. Sources of misfit were further explored by looking at standardized residuals and modification indices. Large residuals (with an absolute value of over 2.5) were examined, as were large modification indices (over 5). The largest residual of any pair of items was between items 1 and 2. Because of the lower face validity of item 2 (as it focused on learning more than valuing growth), it was removed. Based on the modification indices, five inter-item correlations had modification indices over 5 (in fact, all of these and modification indices over 10). Of these, at least two involved sets of items we would expect to have correlated errors—because of the niche areas they measure within the larger scale, similar wording, and potentially because of their consecutive placement (which could lead to a response pattern effect). For this reason, the assumption of no correlated errors between these two sets of items was relaxed. These adjustments significantly improved model fit. Another CFA was conducted that included items 1 and 3–7 and relaxed the assumptions of no correlation of errors between items 3 and 4 and items 6 and 7. All key indicators indicated a good fit, including: *CFI* = .995, *TFI* = .990, *RMSEA* =.045 [.00, .09], and *SRMR* = .018. Results for tested models are provided in Table B3.

Discriminant Validity Testing

To ensure meaningful discriminant validity testing, a sample of 290 participants were recruited on Connect Research. When conducting discriminant validity testing using multi-factor CFAs, a large sample size is generally recommended (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This is the largest sample that could be accessed under existing budget constraints. As an initial test of discriminant validity, bivariate correlations were conducted between the *growth*

identity measure (using the reduced set of items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) and related constructs drawn from the psychology and management literatures, including growth mindset, moral growth mindset, learning growth orientation, personal growth initiative, and growth needs strength. Growth identity was significantly correlated at the .01 level with: *growth mindset* (r = .159), *moral growth mindset* (r = .319), *learning goal orientation* (r = .483), *personal growth initiative* (r = .499), and *growth needs strength* (r = .590). Given the significant, low to moderate correlations between the newly proposed measure and each of these established constructs, a multi-factor CFA was conducted, including the growth identity items 1, 3, 5, 6, 7 and all items of the abovementioned construct scales, in order to further examine overlap.

Overall, all standardized correlations between growth identity and the other constructs were below .70. Covariances between *growth identity* and each individual construct indicate that *growth identity* had very little overlap with *growth mindset* (Std.all = .160, p = .014) and moderate to high levels of overlap with *moral growth mindset* (Std.all = .324, $p < .001$), *personal growth initiative* (Std.all = .547, $p < .001$), *learning goal orientation* (Std.all = .480, $p < .001$), and *growth needs strength* (Std.all = .627, p = .001). Standardized correlations are all visible in Table B4 in Appendices. Modification indices were further examined to see how model fit would improve if different growth identity items were allowed to correlate with items from these measures. Indices were sorted to focus on indices over 5, and correlated residuals between three growth identity items (3, 5, 6) and different items across other measures were identified. Of these, there was theoretical justification to remove item 3 due to its focus on willingness to learn things, as opposed to willingness to actually change and valuing this growth as central to one's sense of self. This resulted in a final set of four items: 1, 5, 6 and 7.

Discriminant validity was further assessed using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) test. Average variance extracted (AVE) for the growth identity construct was compared to the

squared correlation between the growth identity construct and all other latent constructs in a pairwise fashion. For each pairwise combination of factors the AVE exceeded the squared correlation between the constructs (or their shared variance). For example, the highest squared correlation between growth identity and another growth construct was with growth needs strength (.394). However, both growth identity and growth needs strength had AVE values (.558 and .573, respectively) which exceeded this shared variance. Based on this, growth identity met the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion and may be seen as distinct from related growth constructs.

Scale reliability. The Cronbach's alpha for the final scale was .882. An inter-item correlation matrix is provided in Table B5.

Study 2 Methods

Participants

For this study, 120 students were recruited from an undergraduate subject pool at a large university on the West Coast of the US. Of these students, 51 identified as men and 69 identified as women.

Design

Participants were randomized into two conditions: *low threat exposure (self-affirmation)* and *high threat exposure (no self-affirmation)*. Randomly assigning participants to engage in self-affirmation before facing a threatening stimulus is a social psychological technique used to detect the presence of self-concept threat and measure its impacts. By exposing a random half of participants to a threat buffer that they do not know is related to a subsequent threatening stimulus (Critcher & Dunning, 2015; Steele, 1988), one can measure the difference in outcomes between conditions and attribute this to self-concept threat. The use of an implicit measures of self-concept threat as opposed to a self-report measure is significant from two angles: a) the difficulty of capturing psychological phenomena that

operate outside of the participant's conscious awareness (or prior to their conscious awareness) and b) the difficulty of accurate measurement through self-report in the context of demand characteristics, especially when participants are faced with strong impression management motives (Akinola, 2010; Ganster et al., 2018).

Procedure

Threat was induced using an adaptation of a hiring task from Wellman et al. (2016), which is similar in design to earlier work on threat experienced when facing moral objections (Monin et al., 2008). This specific task is chosen because of its previous use in measuring moral self-concept threat in racially charged situations (Monin et al., 2008). The adaptation of the task from a police scenario (Monin et al., 2008) to a hiring scenario (Wellman et al., 2016) is used because of its increased relevance to the work context. Within the original hiring task (Wellman et al., 2016), respondents are asked to choose one candidate out of a shortlist to fill a managerial position at a boutique hotel. The candidate shortlist includes pictures and qualifications of each candidate. Candidates are of different races, and the contents of the qualification information are manipulated such that the vast majority of respondents will be led to choose the White candidate (who appears to be the most qualified). All racial minorities in the list are described in ways that draw upon negative racial and gender stereotypes. After selecting the candidate they are led to believe is the most qualified, participants are told they will view the response of another candidate to the task. In Wellman et al. (2016), the fictitious other participant refuses to select a candidate on account of the fact that it is offensive to portray only the White candidate well while clearly stereotyping the racial minority and female candidates.

This task was adapted for use in this paper in the following ways: a) to focus solely on gender and not race, b) to focus on candidate selection for a promotion within an organization (rather than hiring new candidates from outside the organization), and c) to focus less on

stereotypical representation of candidates (i.e., stereotypical and prejudiced representations) and more on representation of candidates overall. The shortlist was also expanded from three to four candidates and men of all different races were included in order to further focus on gender. Participants were told that these were all internal applicants from different organizations/brands within a hotel chain. Then they were asked to select the candidate they thought would be best for the position and to justify why.

Afterwards, they were told they would view the response of a previous participant who completed the task. The previous participant's response states that they do not feel comfortable selecting from the list because no women are represented, and they know that in society there is a gender gap in promotions and managerial representation. They indicate they would like to know more about how the position was advertised and how the shortlist was put together. The previous participant response acts as a form of challenging voice that may induce threat—indicating to the actual participant that they have inadvertently participated in a work process that perpetuates gender inequality in the organization and that they may have supported gender inequality as a result. Previous work on self-concept threat has demonstrated that this indirect implication—that one has done something that is wrong and that they are immoral—is sufficient to induce self-threat (e.g., Knight Lapinski & Boster, 2001; Monin et al., 2008).

Measures

After viewing the previous participant's response, the actual participant was asked to complete dependent variable measures of response to feedback. Dependent variable measures consisted of statements that were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*). These measures were drawn and adapted primarily from Monin (2008) and Vitriol and Moskowitz (2021). (The first work looks at how self-concept threat shapes

response to moral objections, and the second examines how threat shapes response to feedback regarding one's implicit biases.)

Attitudes towards feedback and feedback agreement. Broad appraisal of feedback was measured through ratings of feedback in terms of utility, validity, and appropriateness (e.g., "How useful do you think the previous participant's view of the task is?"). This measure purposefully does not ask whether participants agree with the feedback, as it is possible to be open to and value another's view without automatically agreeing with it. It had a high level of internal consistency (α = .900). In addition, a three-item agreement measure focused specifically on whether participants agreed with what was said. This included items such as "I agree with the previous participant's view" (α = .94).

Perceptions of, and attitudes towards, feedback providers. Appraisal of feedback providers was measured through ratings of *personality, respect*, and *ethicality*. *Personality* perceptions were measured using a 14-item scale providing terms describing the previous participant's personality, e.g., "To what extent do you associate the following with the previous participant's personality. . . . warmth" (α = .944). *Respect* for the feedback provider and perceptions of previous participant *ethicality* were each measured using a one-item scale: "How much do you respect the previous participant?" and "How ethical do you think the previous participant is?"

Willingness to engage with feedback. Willingness to engage with feedback was measured using three items (α = .843), such as "I would like to learn more about how the corporate office selected candidates from the applicant pool."

Willingness to engage with the feedback provider. Willingness to engage with the feedback provider was measured using two items (α = .849): "How much would you like the previous participant to be a teammate on a project" and "How much would you like to be friends with this person?"

Growth identity. Growth identity, or the extent to which one sees their growth as a person as central to their sense of self, was measured using the final four-item measure created in Study 1 (α = .793). Sample items include "I see growing and evolving as a central part of who I am" and "I take pride in my ability to grow."

Growth mindset. Growth mindset was measured using the standard developed by Dweck (2006) that uses three items (α = .92). This includes items such as: "You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can't really do much to change it."

Moral growth mindset. Researchers have created a four-item moral growth mindset measure (α = .80), adapted from Dweck's Growth Mindset scale, aimed at measuring whether or not people believe morality is something that can be developed through effort (Han et al., 2018, 2022). Sample items include: "You can improve your basic morals and character considerably" and "No matter who you are, you can significantly improve your morals and character." Here, I explore whether a moral growth mindset operates differently from a growth mindset—especially within a context where ethics and morals are salient.

Learning goal orientation. Learning goal orientation was measured using a subscale from a work goal orientation measure (VandeWalle et al., 2001), after adapting items to be focused less on a school context. It is composed of four items (α = .83), such as "I truly enjoy learning for the sake of learning" and "I prefer challenging and difficult tasks so that I'll learn a great deal."

Personal growth initiative. Personal growth initiative was measured using the nine-item Personal Growth Initiative Scale (PGIS, Robitschek, 1998). It includes items such as "I know how to change specific things I want to change in my life" and "I can adjust to changes in my life when necessary." (Cronbach's alpha = .867.)

Growth needs strength. Growth needs strength was measured using the relevant subscale from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey. It includes seven items

(α = .88) such as “I enjoy tasks that allow me to develop my skills and abilities” and “The opportunity to learn new things on the job is important to me.”

Analyses

The main effect of threat exposure when receiving challenging voice regarding gender inequality was tested using one-way ANOVAs to compare the significance of differences in mean dependent variable scores between the *full threat exposure* (no self-affirmation) and *reduced threat exposure* (self-affirmation) conditions. In addition, tests of mean difference were conducted for men and women separately, given that the challenging feedback regarding inequality was about gender gaps in promotions. We would suspect that men may feel more targeted by such voice. The moderating effect of each growth variable on the relationship between threat exposure and feedback response was tested using SPSS PROCESS Model 1. Because gender differences were found in the main effects analyses, additional analyses were conducted to test for three-way interactions between the threat induction, gender and growth identity (using SPSS PROCESS Model 3).

Study 2 Results and Discussion

Main Effects

Overall, mean differences between threat exposure conditions in ratings of voice and voicers (for the whole sample, regardless of gender) were significant for most response variables. Interestingly, the mean differences in ratings of *voice appraisal* ($F(1,118) = .641$, $p = .425$) were not significant overall—but differences in ratings of *voice agreement* were ($F(1,118) = 4.696$, $p = .032$). Differences were significant for ratings of *voicer personality* ($F(1,118) = 10.03$, $p = .002$), *voicer ethicality* ($F(1,118) = 5.14$, $p = .025$), and at the ($p < .10$ level) for *willingness to engage with the voicer as a friend or colleague* ($F(1,118) = 3.31$, $p = .071$). See Figure B1 Appendix B. Descriptive statistics and results from tests of mean difference are also provided in Appendix B (see Tables B6 – B10).

When the sample was restricted by gender, mean differences between conditions were significant for all dependent variables for men, including ratings of *voice* ($F(1,49) = 8.754$, $p = .005$), *voicer personality* ($F(1,49) = 8.754$, $p = .005$), *respect for the voicer* ($F(1,49) = 4.805$, $p = .033$), *voicer ethicality* ($F(1,49) = 4.011$, $p = .051$), *willingness to engage with voice* ($F(1,49) = 4.694$, $p = .035$), and *willingness to engage with the voicer* ($F(1,49) = 10.23$, $p = .002$). As predicted, ratings were lower in the full threat exposure (no self-affirmation) condition. See Figure B2 and Table B8.1.

However, for women, no mean differences were significant (see Table B8.2). Two-way ANOVAs confirmed that the interaction between threat condition and gender was significant for almost all dependent variables, including ratings of: *voice* ($p = .005$), *voice agreement* ($p = .018$), *willingness to engage with voice* ($p = .022$), and *willingness to engage with the voicer* ($p = .023$). Interactions approached significance at the $p < .10$ level for *respect for the voicer* ($p = .107$). Given the finding that mean differences in outcomes between threat exposure conditions were only significant for men, I tested the impact of growth identity and other growth-related variables for men and then women separately.

Interaction Effects (Men)

Highest order unconditional interactions between threat exposure and growth identity that had p values less than .20 were probed at mean values of growth identity and at 1 SD above and below the mean. Significant interaction effects were found for ratings of *voice agreement*, *voice appraisal (utility, appropriateness, validity),* and *voicer ethicality*. Growth identity did *not* significantly interact with threat exposure to influence *voicer personality* or *willingness to engage with voice and voicers.* Interestingly, the direction of the interaction effect was the opposite of what was hypothesized. Greater growth identity strength was associated with an amplified negative effect of increased threat exposure for most response variables. For example, at 1 SD below the mean the negative effect of increased threat

exposure on *voice agreement* was insignificant. However, at mean growth identity levels (6.17) the negative effect was -1.32 [-1.98, -.658], and at 1 SD above the mean (growth identity = 6.67) the negative effect was -1.88 [-2.82, -.934]. See all unconditional and conditional interaction effects in Tables B11 and B12.

Given previous findings regarding related constructs, interactions between the threat condition and each of the following growth-related constructs were also tested for all dependent variables: *growth mindset, moral growth mindset, learning growth orientation, personal growth initiative,* and *growth needs strength*. Out of these, only *personal growth initiative* and *growth needs strength* yielded significant results. Both significantly interacted with threat exposure to impact *voice appraisal* (ratings of usefulness, validity, appropriateness) and *ratings of voicer ethicality*. In addition, the interaction effect on *voice agreement* was significant for *growth needs strength*, and the interaction effect on *willingness to engage with the voicer* (as a friend/colleague) was significant for *personal growth initiative*. Results for these growth constructs followed the same pattern as with growth identity: the negative effect of threat exposure was amplified at higher levels of personal growth initiative and growth needs strength. See all results in Appendix B Tables: B13 (Learning Goal Orientation), B14 (Growth Mindset), B15 (Moral Growth Mindset), B16-17 (Personal Growth Initiative), B18-19 (Growth Needs Strength).

Overall, the interaction between *growth identity* and threat exposure had a similar pattern of effects as *growth needs strength*. Because the response variables for which these interaction effects were significantly varied depending on the growth construct, the opportunity for dominance analysis was limited. Because *growth identity, personal growth initiative,* and *growth needs strength* all significantly interacted with threat exposure to impact one dependent variable measure, *ratings of voicer ethicality*, interaction effects on this dependent variable were compared using hierarchical regression analysis. Threat exposure

was first entered as an IV for linear regression analysis with feedback provider ethicality as the DV. This model had an R-squared value of .076. Adding the threat and growth variable interaction term increased the R-squared value of the model to .124 for *personal growth initiative*, .197 for *growth identity*, and .237 for *growth needs strength*. This indicates that *growth needs strength* has the strongest moderating effect on the relationship between threat exposure and ratings of voicer ethicality. A summary of results are provided in Table B20.

Overall, growth identity interacted with threat exposure to significantly impact the same breadth of response variables as growth needs strength and personal growth initiative (in contrast to growth mindset, moral growth mindset and learning goal orientation, which did not have significant effects). However, where multiple growth-related variables had a significant moderating effect, the effect of growth identity was not the strongest. *Hypotheses 2a–d* were supported, but *Hypotheses 3* was not.

Interaction Effects (Women)

For women, I tested whether the significance of threat exposure and the degree of threat exposure varied at different levels of growth identity and other related growth constructs. Growth identity significantly interacted with threat exposure for all response variables, including: *voice (appraisal, agreement), willingness to engage with voice, provider (ratings of personality, respect, ethicality),* and *willingness to engage with the voicer (as friends and colleagues)*. Interestingly, the effect of growth identity was the opposite to that observed among men. At high levels of growth identity the effect of threat exposure was not just less negative—it was often positive. For example, the unconditional higher order interaction of threat exposure x growth identity was significant for feedback agreement ratings ($F(1, 65) = 7.43$, $p = .0082$). At growth identity levels 1 SD below the mean, the interaction effect was $b = -.776$ [.0677, -1.609], at mean values it was $b = .0338$ [-.555,

.6223], and at 1 SD above the mean it was b = .843 [.006, 1.680]. See all unconditional and conditional interaction effects in Tables B21 and B22.

The threat exposure x growth variable interaction was tested for all above mentioned constructs: *growth mindset, moral growth mindset, learning goal orientation, personal growth initiative*, and *growth needs strength.* Like growth identity, *growth needs strength* significantly interacted with threat exposure to impact all variables. Unlike with men, *personal growth initiative* did not significantly interact with threat exposure—but *growth mindset* and *moral growth mindset* did. *Growth mindset* x *threat exposure* had a significant effect on ratings of *willingness to engage with voice* and *appraisal of the voicer (in terms of personality, respect, ethicality)*. However, it did *not* significantly impact overall appraisal of *voice* or *willingness to engage with the voicer*. On the other hand, moral growth mindset *did* significantly interact with threat exposure to impact *voice agreement*, *willingness to engage with voice*, and *willingness to engage with the voicer.* In all cases, lower levels of growth identity strength (at 1 SD below the mean) were associated with an insignificant or negative effect of threat exposure, while high levels of the growth variable (at 1 SD above the mean) were associated with either positive or insignificant effects of threat exposure. See all results in Tables B23 (Learning Goal Orientation), B24-25 (Growth Mindset), B26-27 (Moral Growth Mindset), B28 (Personal Growth Initiative), B29-30 (Growth Needs Strength).

Because the interaction between threat exposure and each growth variable (*growth identity, growth needs strength, growth mindset* and *moral growth mindset*) had a significant effect on *willingness to engage with feedback*, hierarchical regressions were conducted to test the relative strength of growth interaction terms using this outcome only. The base regression model, including threat condition as an IV and *willingness to engage with feedback* as a DV, had an R-squared of .008. Including interaction terms with each of the following variables increased the R-squared to .057 for *growth identity*, .088 for *growth needs strength*, .121 for

growth mindset, and .145 for *moral growth mindset.* This indicates that *moral growth mindset* was the strongest moderator of the relationship between threat exposure and *willingness to engage with feedback*. Dominance analyses results are provided in Table B31. As for men, while *Hypotheses 2a–d* were supported, *Hypotheses 3a–d* were only partially supported. The interaction between threat exposure x growth identity and threat exposure x growth needs strength had the broadest range of significant effects on all aspects of response, but not necessarily the strongest. Where multiple growth-related variables had a significant moderating effect, the effect of growth identity was not the strongest. Unlike for men, the strongest moderator for women was moral growth mindset.

Three-Way Interaction Between Threat Exposure, Gender and Growth Identity

Given the findings on gender differences, I tested three-way interactions between *threat exposure, gender* and *growth identity* (using SPSS PROCESS Model 3). Highest order unconditional three-way interactions were significant for ratings of: *voice* ($F(1,112) = 7.5$, $p = .007$), *voice agreement* ($F(1,112) = 12.83$, $p = .0005$), *voicer personality* ($F(1,112) = 3.44$, $p = .066$), *respect for the voicer* ($F(1,112) = 3.65$, $p = .059$), *voicer ethicality* ($F(1,112) = 3.92$, $p = .05$), and *willingness to engage with voicers* ($F(1,112) = 5.83$, $p = .017$). The only response variable for which the three-way interaction was not significant was *willingness to engage with the voice* (i.e., learn more about how the shortlist was put together, see the original applicant pool, etc.). As indicated by earlier analyses on gender-restricted subsamples, men and women had *opposite* reactions to challenging voice at higher levels of growth identity. For women, high levels of growth identity were associated with a positive effect or insignificant effect of increased threat exposure. For men, higher levels of growth identity were associated with more negative effects of increased threat exposure on response to voice. See Figures B3-B12 for three-way interaction plots of all probed interactions.

Three-way interactions were also tested with all other growth variables. The pattern of effects for growth needs strength was similar to that of growth identity. No other growth variables consistently interacted with threat exposure and gender to impact response variables. Moral growth mindset and personal growth initiative interacted with threat and gender to significantly affect willingness to befriend/work with the voicer. Personal growth initiative also interacted with threat and gender to significantly impact voice appraisal. The direction of effects was similar in these instances. Men with higher stronger moral growth mindset and personal growth initiative rated response variables higher under low threat exposure conditions and lower under high threat exposure conditions. Women with stronger moral growth mindset and personal growth initiative rated response variables more highly under low threat exposure conditions.

Discussion

Increased threat exposure when receiving challenging feedback regarding gender inequality negatively impacts attitudes towards voice and voicers and willingness to engage with voice and voicers (*Hypotheses 1a–d)*. In support of *Hypotheses 2a–d*, growth identity significantly moderated the relationship between threat exposure and response to voice and voicers. However, while *growth identity* seemed to have a broader range of effects than most growth variables (along with growth needs strength), it did not necessarily have the strongest moderating effect. Growth identity and growth needs strength were the most highly correlated constructs in Study 1 tests of discriminant validity, and they operated the most similarly in the Study 2 sample. However, they arose as distinct constructs in multifactor confirmatory factor analysis and were not as highly correlated as one might suspect. One explanation may be that growth identity is a precursor to growth needs strength. In other words, those who value growth as central to their self-concept will derive meaning from job

roles that offer growth opportunities. However, the same argument might be made for the relationship between growth identity and other growth-related constructs.

Interestingly, for men and women, effects moved in opposite directions, with women responding better at high levels of *growth identity* (and variables such as *growth mindset* or *growth needs strength*) and men responding worse at high levels of *growth identity* (and variables such as *growth needs strength* and *personal growth initiative*). Why would the impact of these growth constructs operate differently by gender? The idea that men would fare worse when faced with challenging feedback regarding gender inequality makes sense to the extent that we assume that they may experience more social self-concept-related threats than women (i.e., threats related to their social group status or positive self-esteem tied to that social group image). However, it does not follow that men who value growth as a more central part of their self-concept would suffer a stronger experience of social self-concept threat.

One possible explanation is that men and women are attributing their own actions (i.e., overlooking or not reacting strongly enough to gender inequality in the scenario) to different things. Women may be attributing their behavior to lack of attention or awareness—something they have control over—whereas men may be attributing their own actions to being a man—something they do not have control over. In line with existing theory on feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979), this reduced perception of control could worsen voice response. Growth identity might not be enough to overcome these feelings because gender change is not immediately feasible or, for everyone, desirable. And, with greater threat exposure, growth identity strength and growth needs strength may worsen response because those who care more may be more frustrated with not being able to change.

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Appendix B

Paper 1 Tables & Figures

Table B1

Growth Identity Scale Items

Scale	Item	Content
Original Scale (10 items)	1	I want to become a better person everyday.
Original Scale (10 items)	2	I care a great deal about learning.
Original Scale (10 items)	3	Taking risks is worth it for the opportunity to grow.
Original Scale (10 items)	4	I'm always willing to try things that can teach me something new.
Original Scale (10 items)	5	I take pride in my ability to grow.
Original Scale (10 items)	6	My ability to change is an important part of who I am.
Original Scale (10 items)	7	Being the kind of person who evolves is important to me.
Original Scale (10 items)	8	I am okay with staying in my comfort zone. (R)
Original Scale (10 items)	9	Growth and change aren't worth the risk. (R)
Original Scale (10 items)	10	Self-improvement is overrated. (R)
Initial Reduced Scale (6 items)	1	I want to become a better person everyday.
Initial Reduced Scale (6 items)	3	Taking risks is worth it for the opportunity to grow.
Initial Reduced Scale (6 items)	4	I'm always willing to try things that can teach me something new.
Initial Reduced Scale (6 items)	5	I take pride in my ability to grow.
Initial Reduced Scale (6 items)	6	My ability to change is an important part of who I am.
Initial Reduced Scale (6 items)	7	Being the kind of person who evolves is important to me.
Final Scale (4 items)	1	I want to become a better person every day.
Final Scale (4 items)	5	I take pride in my ability to grow.
Final Scale (4 items)	6	My ability to change is an important part of who I am.
Final Scale (4 items)	7	Being the kind of person who evolves is important to me.

Note. Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). R = reverse-coded item. The initial reduction removed all reverse-coded items based on exploratory factor analysis results. The final 4-item scale was determined through confirmatory factor analysis and demonstrated strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .882$).

Table B2

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Growth Identity Scale Items

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
I want to become a better person everyday.	.78	-.04
I care a great deal about learning.	.61	.18
Taking risks is worth it for the opportunity to grow.	.53	.50
I'm always willing to try things that can teach me something new.	.86	.03
I take pride in my ability to grow.	.86	.03
My ability to change is an important part of who I am.	.93	.09
Being the kind of person who evolves is important to me.	.88	.20
I am okay with staying in my comfort zone. (R)	-.02	.78
Growth and change aren't worth the risk. (R)	.22	.85
Self-improvement is overrated. (R)	0	.79

Note. $N = 50$. Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface. R = reverse-coded item. Factor 1 = Growth Identity; Factor 2 = Growth Resistance.

Table B3

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit Indices for Growth Identity Scale Models

Model	χ^2	df	p	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	SRMR	AIC	BIC
Model 1: Original 6 items	102.86	14	.001***	.92	.88	0.1	[.12, .18]	.05	4855.4	4906.39
Model 2: Modified 6 items	45.12	12	.001***	.97	.95	0.10	[.07, .13]	.03	4801.66	4859.93
Model 3: Final 4 items	847.01	15	.01**	.99	.99	.04	[.00, .09]	.02	4263.7	4306.1

Note. $N = 70$. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CI = confidence interval; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion. Model 3 indicates acceptable model fit indicated by CFI ≥ .95, TLI ≥ .95, RMSEA ≤ .06, and SRMR ≤ .08.

Table B4

Standardized Correlations Among Latent Variables

Variable	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1. Growth Identity	__					
2. Growth Mindset	.16**	__				
3. Moral Growth Mindset	.32***	.45***	__			
4. Personal Growth Initiative	.55***	0.13	.22**	__		
5. Learning Goal Orientation	.48***	0.14	.20**	.50***	__	
6. Growth Needs Strength	.63***	.18*	.21**	.49***	.78***	__

Note. $N = 290$. Growth Identity Scale consists of final four items (1, 5, 6, 7). All correlations are standardized estimates from the structural equation model. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table B5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix for Final Growth Identity Scale

Item Number	Item Text	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4
1	I want to become a better person every day.	__			
2	I take pride in my ability to grow.	.50	__		
3	My ability to change is an important part of who I am.	.45	.68	__	
4	Being the kind of person who evolves is important to me.	.32	.61	.56	__

Note. $N = 290$. All values are Pearson correlation coefficients. All correlations were significant at $p < .001$. Cronbach's $\alpha = .882$ for the four-item scale.

Table B6

Means and Standard Deviations of Study Variables (N=120)

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Sample Characteristics		
Threat Exposure Condition (1 = High Threat, 0 = Low Threat)	.49	.50
Gender (1 = Men, 0 = Women)	.43	.50
Voice Response Variables		
Voice Appraisal	4.97	1.49
Voice Agreement	5.16	1.43
Voicer Personality	5.11	1.00
Voicer Ethicality	5.43	1.28
Respect for Voicer	5.20	1.52
Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer	4.56	1.49
Willingness to Engage with Voice	6.08	.96
Growth-Related Individual Differences		
Growth Identity	6.03	0.74
Growth Mindset	5.22	1.51
Moral Growth Mindset	5.81	.83
Learning Goal Orientation	5.22	.98
Personal Growth Initiative	4.93	.94
Growth Needs Strength	5.74	.82
Control Variable		
Social Dominance Orientation - Egalitarianism	2.38	1.02

Note. All continuous variables except the dichotomous variables (Threat Exposure Condition and Gender) were measured on 7-point scales. Higher scores indicate greater levels of the construct.

Table B7

Correlations Among Study Variables

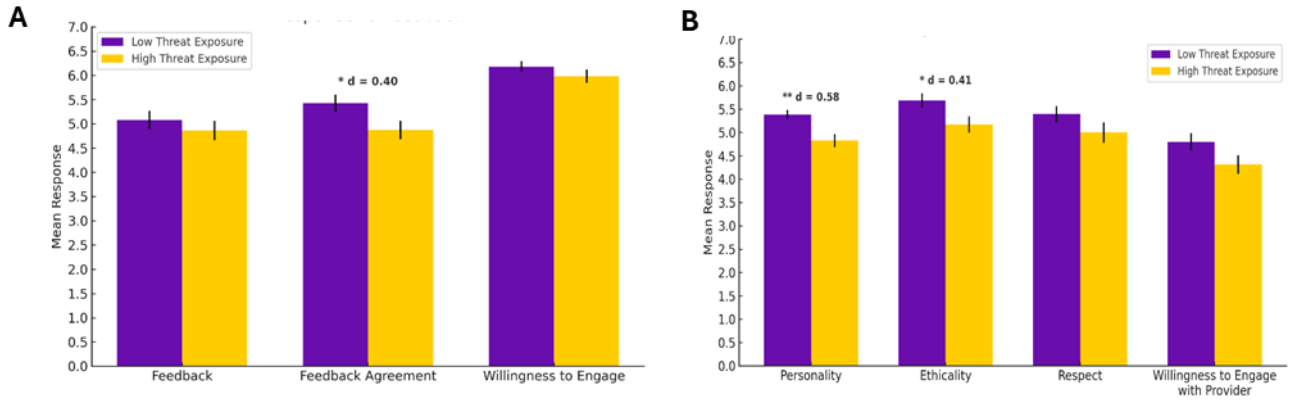
Variables	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*13*	*14*	*15*	*16*
Threat	__															
Gender	0	__														
Voice	-.07	-.38**	__													
Agreement	-.20*	-.38**	.80**	__												
Personality	-.28**	-.21*	.66**	.70**	__											
Ethicality	-.20*	-.29**	.51**	.60**	.65**	__										
Respect	-.13	-.36**	.72**	.76**	.73**	.74**	__									
Relationship	-.17	-.40**	.74**	.74**	.70**	.56**	.75**	__								
Engage	-.1	-.26**	.52**	.60**	.47**	.43**	.47**	.50**	__							
GI	-.09	.06	.06	.22*	.23*	.19*	.14	.03	.14	__						
GMS	-.06	-.19*	.33**	.32**	.29**	.18*	.24**	.26**	.35**	.14	__					
MGMS	-.19*	-.02	.16	.31**	.37**	.29**	.24**	.17	.25**	.37**	.15	__				
LGO	-.15	.04	.04	.14	.23*	.22*	.16	.13	.06	.41**	0	.12	__			
PGI	.07	.1	-.07	-.02	0	.03	.03	.03	.02	.37**	.09	.07	.36**	__		
GNS	-.18	-.02	.05	.21*	.28**	.27**	.18*	.14	.20*	.63**	.14	.20*	.66**	.48**	__	
SDO-E	.12	.23*	-.33**	-.41**	-.28**	-.38**	-.37**	-.36**	-.43**	-.11	-.38**	-.13	.01	.12	-.06	__

Note: N = 120. Threat = Threat Exposure (0 = low , 1 = high); Gender = Gender (0 = women, 1 = men); Voice = Voice Appraisal; Agreement = Voice Agreement; Personality = Voicer Personality; Ethicality = Voicer Ethicality; Respect = Respect for Voicer; Relationship = Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer; Engage = Willingness to Engage with Feedback; GI = Growth Identity; GMS = Growth Mindset; MGMS = Moral

Growth Mindset; LGO = Learning Goal Orientation; PGI = Personal Growth Initiative; GNS = Growth Needs Strength; SDO-E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. All continuous variables were measured on 7-point scales except where noted. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Figure B1

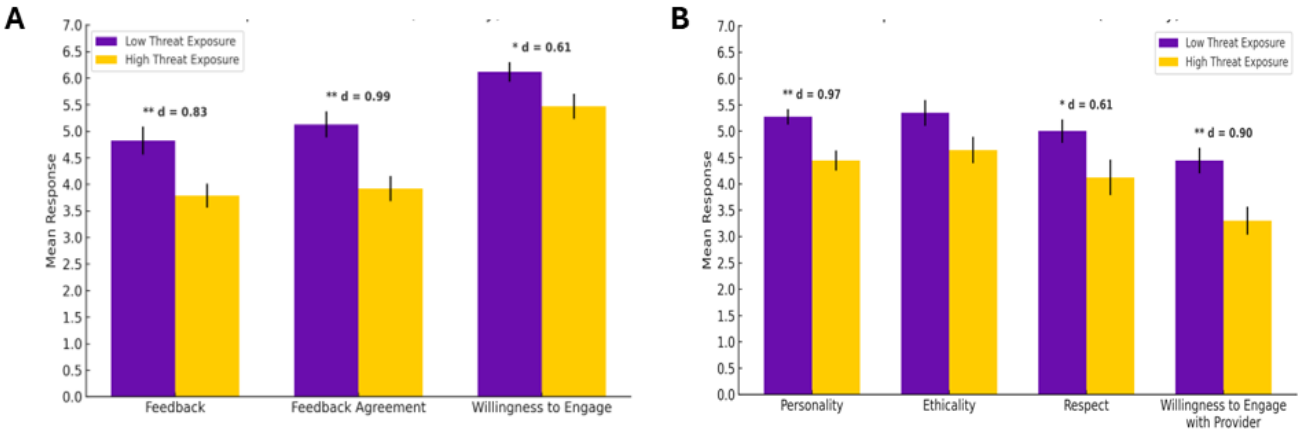
Mean Ratings of Voice Response Variables by Threat Exposure Condition



Note. $N = 120$. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Panel (a) displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback" in the figure), Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement"), and Willingness to Engage. Panel (b) displays ratings of voicer characteristics: Voicer Personality, Voicer Ethicality, Respect for Voicer, and Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer (labeled as "Willingness to Engage with Provider"). All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. Effect sizes (Cohen's *d*) are displayed for significant differences.* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure B2

Mean Differences Between Low and High Threat Exposure Conditions for Voice Response Variables (Panel A) and Voicer Evaluation Variables (Panel B) Among Male Participants



Note. n = 51 (men only). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Panel A displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback"), Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement"), and Willingness to Engage. Panel B displays ratings of voicer characteristics: Voicer Personality, Voicer Ethicality, Respect for Voicer, and Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer (labeled as "Willingness to Engage with Provider"). All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. Cohen's d values are displayed for all comparisons between conditions. ** $p < .01$.

Table B8

One-Way ANOVA Results: Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables

Dependent Variable	Mean Difference	$F(1, 118)$	p	d
Voice Appraisal	-.22	.64	.42	.15
Voice Agreement	-.56	4.70	.03*	.40
Voicer Engagement	-.20	1.27	.26	.21
Voicer Personality	-.55	10.03	.00***	.58
Voicer Ethicality	-.52	5.14	.02*	.41
Voicer Respect	-.39	2.04	.15	.26
Voicer Relationship	-.49	3.31	.07	.33

Note. $N = 120$. Mean differences represent High Threat Exposure minus Low Threat Exposure conditions. Negative values indicate lower ratings in the high-threat condition.

Table B9

One-Way ANOVA Results: Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables (Men)

Dependent Variable	Mean Difference	$F(1, 118)$	p	d
Voice Appraisal	-1.03	8.75	.00***	.83
Voice Agreement	-1.21	12.46	.00***	.99
Voicer Engagement	-.65	4.69	.03*	.61
Voicer Personality	-.83	12.11	.00***	.97
Voicer Ethicality	-.71	4.01	.05	.56
Voicer Respect	-.88	4.80	.03*	.61
Voicer Relationship	-1.14	10.23	.00***	.90

Note. $n = 51$. Mean differences represent High Threat Exposure minus Low Threat Exposure conditions. All mean differences are negative, indicating lower ratings in the high threat condition among men.

Table B10

One-Way ANOVA Results: Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables (Women)

Dependent Variable	Mean Difference	$F(1, 118)$	p	d
Voice Appraisal	.38	1.26	.27	.27
Voice Agreement	-.08	.06	.80	.06
Voicer Engagement	.13	.51	.48	.17
Voicer Personality	-.35	2.19	.14	.36
Voicer Ethicality	-.38	1.89	.17	.33
Voicer Respect	-.04	.01	.91	.03
Voicer Relationship	-.01	.00	.97	.01

Note. $n = 69$. Mean differences represent High Threat Exposure minus Low Threat Exposure conditions. Unlike men, women showed minimal differences between threat conditions, with some variables showing slight positive differences (higher ratings in high threat condition).

Table B11

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Growth Identity Interaction Effects on Voice Response Variables (Men)

Dependent Variable	b	SE	$t(47)$	p
Voice Appraisal	-0.840	0.570	-1.460	0.152
Voice Agreement	-1.350	0.530	-2.560	0.014
Voice Engagement	0.560	0.470	1.190	0.240
Voicer Personality	-0.400	0.390	-1.010	0.318
Voicer Respect	-0.630	0.660	-0.950	0.349
Voicer Ethicality	-0.810	0.550	-1.470	0.148
Voicer Relationship	-0.720	0.600	-1.200	0.234

Note: N = 51. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Growth Identity (mean-centered).

Table B12

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Growth Identity (Men Only)

Dependent Variable	Growth Identity Level	Effect	*SE*	*t*(47)	*p*	95% CI
Voice Appraisal	Low (-1 SD = 5.45)	-.50	.50	-1.00	.32	[-1.52, .51]
	Mean (6.08)	-1.04	.34	-3.01	.00**	[-1.72, -.34]
	High (+1 SD = 6.72)	-1.57	.50	-3.12	.00**	[-2.58, -.56]
Voice Agreement	Low (-1 SD = 5.45)	-.35	.46	-.75	.45	[-1.28, .58]
	Mean (6.08)	-1.21	.32	-3.82	.00***	[-1.85, -.53]
	High (+1 SD = 6.72)	-2.07	.46	-4.48	.00***	[-3.00, -1.14]
Voicer Ethicality	Low (-1 SD = 5.45)	-.195	.48	-.40	.69	[-1.17, .78]
	Mean (6.08)	-.713	.33	-2.15	.04	[-1.38, -.04]
	High (+1 SD = 6.72)	-1.23	.48	-2.54	.01	[-2.20, -.26]

Note. $n = 51$. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Growth Identity. Growth Identity values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*. Negative effects indicate lower ratings under high threat exposure. CI = confidence interval; LLCI = lower limit; ULCI = upper limit.

Table B13

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Learning Goal Orientation Effects (Men)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Voice Appraisal	-.01	.40	-.02	.99
Voice Agreement	-.13	.39	-.35	.73
Voice Engagement	-.10	.34	-.31	.76
Voicer Personality	.28	.26	1.07	.29
Voicer Ethicality	-.13	.45	-.29	.77
Voicer Respect	-.47	.39	-1.19	.24
Voicer Relationship	.24	.40	.59	.56

Note. $n = 51$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Learning Goal Orientation (mean-centered).

Table B14

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Growth Mindset Interaction Effects (Men)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.00	.23	.02	.99
Voice Agreement	-.08	.22	-.37	.71
Voice Engagement	.24	.19	1.27	.22
Voicer Personality	.14	.16	.89	.38
Voicer Ethicality	.19	.27	.71	.48
Voicer Respect	.36	.23	1.53	.13
Voicer Relationship	-.03	.24	-.13	.90

Note. $n = 51$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Growth Mindset (mean-centered).

Table B15

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Moral Growth Mindset Interaction Effects (Men)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(47)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.07	.41	.17	.87
Voice Agreement	-.28	.39	-.72	.48
Voice Engagement	.43	.34	1.27	.21
Voicer Personality	-.15	.27	-.54	.59
Voicer Ethicality	-.03	.47	-.06	.95
Voicer Respect	.33	.40	.82	.42
Voicer Relationship	-.36	.42	-.87	.39

Note. $n = 51$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Moral Growth Mindset (mean-centered).

Table B16

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Personal Growth Initiative Interaction Effects (Men)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(47)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	-.62	.46	-1.36	.18
Voice Agreement	-.46	.45	-1.02	.30
Voice Engagement	.29	.40	.73	.47
Voicer Personality	-.11	.31	-.36	.72
Voicer Ethicality	-.31	.53	-.58	.57
Voicer Respect	.72	.46	1.59	.12
Voicer Relationship	-.91	.46	-1.99	.05

Note. $n = 51$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Personal Growth Initiative (mean-centered).

Table B17

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Personal Growth Initiative (Men)

Dependent Variable	Personal Growth Initiative Level	Effect	*SE*	*t*(47)	*p*	95% CI
Voicer Relationship	Low (-1 SD = 4.25)	-.42	.50	-.84	.40	[-1.43, .59]
	Mean (5.04)	-1.14	.35	-3.26	.00***	[-1.85, -.44]
	High (+1 SD = 5.84)	-1.86	.51	-3.67	.00***	[-2.89, -.84]

Note. *N*=51. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Personal Growth Initiative. Personal Growth Initiative values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*. CI = confidence interval; LLCI = lower limit; ULCI = upper limit.

Table B18

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Growth Needs Strength Interaction Effects (Men)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(47)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	-.66	.46	-1.42	.16
Voice Agreement	-.82	.45	-1.83	.07
Voice Engagement	-.14	.40	-.35	.73
Voicer Personality	-.24	.32	-.75	.46
Voicer Ethicality	-.64	.53	-1.21	.23
Voicer Respect	-1.09	.43	-2.51	.02*
Voicer Relationship	-.45	.48	-.95	.35

Note. $N = 51$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Growth Needs Strength (mean-centered).

Table B19

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Growth Needs Strength (Men)

Dependent Variable	Growth Needs Strength Level	Effect	SE	*t*(47)	p	95% CI
Voice Agreement	Low (-1 SD = 4.91)	-.51	.51	-.99	.33	[-1.54, .52]
	Mean (5.72)	-1.17	.34	-3.42	.00***	[-1.86, -.48]
	High (+1 SD = 6.53)	-1.84	.49	-3.78	.00***	[-2.82, -.86]
Voicer Ethicality	Low (-1 SD = 4.91)	.33	.50	.66	.51	[-.67, 1.33]
	Mean (5.72)	-.56	.33	-1.68	.10	[-1.23, .11]
	High (+1 SD = 6.53)	-1.44	.47	-3.06	.00**	[-2.39, -.49]

Note. N = 51. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Growth Needs Strength. Growth Needs Strength values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*. CI = confidence interval; LLCI = lower limit; ULCI = upper limit.

Table B20

Hierarchical Regression: Relative Strength of Growth Variable × Threat Exposure Interactions on Voicer Ethicality Ratings (Men)

Model	*b*	*SE*	*t*(47)	*p*	R^2	ΔR^2
Base Model (Threat only)	—	—	—	—	.08	—
+ Threat × Personal Growth Initiative	.73	.46	1.59	.12	.12	.05
+ Threat × Growth Identity	-.63	.58	-1.08	.28	.20	.12
+ Threat × Growth Needs Strength	-1.09	.43	-2.51	.02	.24	.16

Note. $N = 51$. Models show the incremental variance explained (ΔR^2) when adding each interaction term to the base model containing only the main effect of threat exposure.

Table B21

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Growth Identity Interaction Effects on Voice Response Variables (Women Only)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	1.1423	0.4058	2.815	.0064
Voice Agreement	0.9963	0.3654	2.726	.0082
Voice Engagement	0.3798	0.2338	1.624	.1091
Voicer Personality	0.5371	0.2862	1.877	.0650
Voicer Ethicality	0.4685	0.3470	1.350	.1817
Voicer Respect	0.8308	0.4035	2.059	.0435
Voicer Relationship	1.0257	0.3966	2.586	.0120

Note. $n = 69$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Growth Identity (mean-centered).

Table B22

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Growth Identity (Women)

Dependent Variable	Growth Identity Level	Effect	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*	95% CI
Voice Appraisal	Low (-1 SD = 5.18)	-.51	.46	-1.10	.27	[-1.43, .42]
	Mean (5.99)	.42	.32	1.28	.20	[-.23, 1.07]
	High (+1 SD = 6.81)	1.35	.46	2.89	.00	[.42, 2.28]
Voice Agreement	Low (-1 SD = 5.18)	-.77	.42	-1.86	.08	[-1.61, 0.06]
	Mean (5.99)	.03	.29	.114	.91	[-.555, .62]
	High (+1 SD = 6.81)	.84	.42	2.01	.05	[.06, 1.68]
Voicer Personality	Low (-1 SD = 5.18)	-.64	.46	-1.40	.16	[-1.56, .27]
	Mean (5.99)	.03	.32	0.09	.93	[-.62, .68]
	High (+1 SD = 6.81)	.70	.46	1.52	.13	[-.22, 1.63]
Voicer Respect	Low (-1 SD = 5.18)	-.79	.45	-1.75	.08	[-1.70, .11]
	Mean (5.99)	.04	.32	.13	.90	[-.60, .68]
	High (+1 SD = 6.81)	.87	.45	1.92	.06	[-.34, 1.78]
Voicer Relationship	Low (-1 SD = 5.18)	-.71	.33	-2.18	.03*	[-1.37, .60]
	Mean (5.99)	-.28	.23	-1.19	.23	[-.74, .18]
	High (+1 SD = 6.81)	.16	.33	.48	.63	[-.50, 1.81]

Note. $n = 69$. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Growth Identity. Growth Identity values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*.

Table B23

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Learning Goal Orientation Effects (Women)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.35	.34	1.04	.30
Voice Agreement	.31	.31	1.02	.31
Voice Engagement	.02	.19	.09	.93
Voicer Personality	-.02	.23	-.08	.93
Voicer Ethicality	.32	.33	.99	.33
Voicer Respect	.14	.27	.53	.60
Voicer Relationship	.42	.31	1.35	.18

Note. $n = 69$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Learning Goal Orientation (mean-centered).

Table B24

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Growth Mindset Interaction Effects (Women)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.00	.23	.02	.99
Voice Agreement	-.08	.22	-.37	.71
Voice Engagement	.24	.19	1.27	.21
Voicer Personality	.14	.16	.89	.38
Voicer Ethicality	.19	.27	.71	.48
Voicer Respect	.36	.23	1.53	.13
Voicer Relationship	-.03	.24	-.13	.90

Note. $n = 69$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Growth Mindset (mean-centered).

Table B25

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Growth Mindset (Women)

Dependent Variable	Growth Mindset Level	Effect	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*	95% CI
Voicer Personality	Low (-1 SD = 4.12)	-.94	.34	-2.78	.01**	[-1.62, -.27]
	Mean (5.46)	-.48	.23	-2.13	.04*	[-.93, -.03]
	High (+1 SD = 6.80)	-.02	.32	-.07	.94	[-.66, .62]
Voicer Ethicality	Low (-1 SD = 4.12)	-1.17	.41	-2.89	.00***	[-1.98, -.36]
	Mean (5.46)	-.49	.27	-1.80	.08	[-1.03, .05]
	High (+1 SD = 6.80)	.19	.38	.50	.61	[-.57, .96]
Voicer Respect	Low (-1 SD = 4.12)	-.87	.48	-1.80	.08	[-1.84, .10]
	Mean (5.46)	-.15	.32	-.47	.64	[-.80, .50]
	High (+1 SD = 6.80)	.56	.46	1.23	.22	[-.35, 1.48]
Voice Engagement	Low (-1 SD = 4.12)	-.37	.27	-1.36	.18	[-.91, .17]
	Mean (5.46)	.06	.18	.32	.75	[-.30, .42]
	High (+1 SD = 6.80)	.49	.26	1.89	.06	[-.03, 1.00]

Note. $n = 69$. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Growth Mindset. Growth Mindset values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*. Negative effects indicate lower ratings under high threat exposure. CI = confidence interval; LLCI = lower limit; ULCI = upper limit.

Table B26

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Moral Growth Mindset Interaction Effects (Women)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.45	.45	.99	.32
Voice Agreement	.60	.40	1.52	.13
Voice Engagement	.54	.24	2.24	.03
Voicer Personality	.32	.29	1.09	.28
Voicer Ethicality	.48	.43	1.11	.27
Voicer Respect	.42	.36	1.18	.24
Voicer Relationship	.84	.43	1.96	.05

Note. $n = 69$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Moral Growth Mindset (mean-centered).

Table B27

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Moral Growth Mindset (Women)

Dependent Variable	Moral Growth Mindset Level	Effect	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*	95% CI
Voicer Relationship	Low (-1 SD = 5.06)	-.50	.46	-1.09	0.2786	[-1.4264, 0.4176]
	Mean (5.82)	.13	.32	.41	0.6795	[-0.5088, 0.7757]
	High (+1 SD = 6.58)	.77	.45	1.70	0.0936	[-0.1341, 1.6767]
Voice Engagement	Low (-1 SD = 5.06)	-.19	.26	-.75	0.4563	[-0.7142, 0.3245]
	Mean (5.82)	.22	.18	1.20	0.2356	[-0.1449, 0.5786]
	High (+1 SD = 6.58)	.63	.25	2.46	0.0165	[0.1186, 1.1386]

Note. $n = 69$. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Moral Growth Mindset. Moral Growth Mindset values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*. CI = confidence interval; LLCI = lower limit; ULCI = upper limit.

Table B28

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Personal Growth Initiative Interaction Effects (Women)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.38	.33	1.15	.25
Voice Agreement	.05	.31	.17	.87
Voice Engagement	.05	.18	.27	.79
Voicer Personality	.12	.24	.49	.63
Voicer Ethicality	-.15	.33	-.45	.65
Voicer Respect	.08	.27	.29	.77
Voicer Relationship	.04	.32	.13	.89

Note. $n = 69$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Personal Growth Initiative (mean-centered).

Table B29

Moderation Analysis: Threat Exposure × Growth Needs Strength Interaction Effects (Women)

Dependent Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*
Voice Appraisal	.86	.41	2.08	.04*
Voice Agreement	.79	.37	2.14	.04*
Voice Engagement	.30	.23	1.30	.20
Voicer Personality	.37	.28	1.29	.20
Voicer Ethicality	.42	.34	1.24	.22
Voicer Respect	.63	.41	1.56	.12
Voicer Relationship	.79	.39	2.00	.05

Note. $N = 69$. Coefficients represent the interaction between Threat Exposure (0 = low threat, 1 = high threat) and Growth Needs Strength (mean-centered).

Table B30

Conditional Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Response Variables at Different Levels of Growth Needs Strength (Women)

Dependent Variable	Growth Needs Strength Level	Effect	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*	95% CI
Voice Appraisal	Low (-1 SD = 4.91)	-.26	.47	-.55	.58	[-1.21, .68]
	Mean (5.75)	.46	.34	1.35	.18	[-.22, 1.13]
	High (+1 SD = 6.59)	1.18	.49	2.38	.02*	[.19, 2.17]
Voice Agreement	Low (-1 SD = 4.91)	-.56	.42	-1.32	.19	[-1.40, .28]
	Mean (5.75)	.10	.30	.35	.73	[-.50, .70]
	High (+1 SD = 6.59)	.77	.44	1.74	.09	[-.11, 1.65]
Voicer Relationship	Low (-1 SD = 4.91)	-.52	.45	-1.15	.25	[-1.42, .38]
	Mean (5.75)	.14	.32	0.45	.66	[-.50, .78]
	High (+1 SD = 6.59)	.80	.47	1.71	.09	[-.13, 1.74]

Note. N = 69. Effects represent the difference in means between high and low threat exposure conditions at specific levels of Growth Needs Strength. Growth Needs Strength values in parentheses represent the actual scale scores at -1 *SD*, mean, and +1 *SD*. CI = confidence interval; LLCI = lower limit; ULCI = upper limit.

Table B31

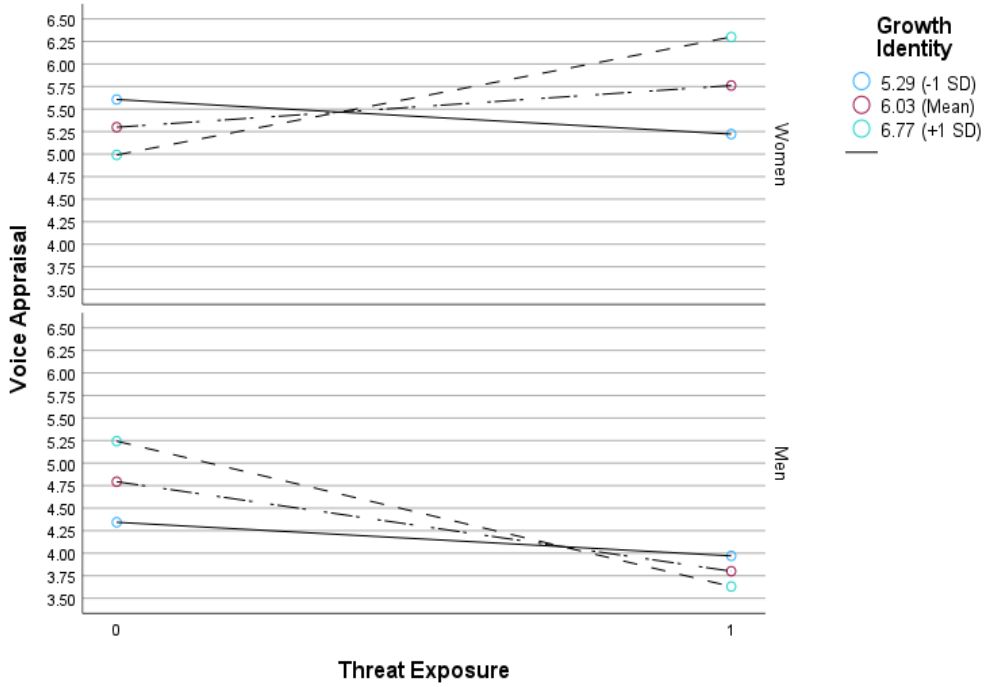
Hierarchical Regression: Relative Strength of Growth Variable × Threat Exposure Interactions on Willingness to Engage (Women)

Model	*b*	*SE*	*t*(65)	*p*	R^2	ΔR^2
Base Model (Threat Only)	—	—	—	—	.01	—
GI × Threat	.43	.24	1.80	.08	.06	.05
GNS × Threat	.30	.23	1.30	.20	.09	.08
GMS × Threat	.32	.14	2.23	.03*	.12	.11
MGMS × Threat	.54	.24	2.25	.03*	.14	.14

Note: $N = 69$. Models show the incremental variance explained (ΔR^2) when adding each interaction term to the base model containing only the main effect of threat exposure.

Figure B3

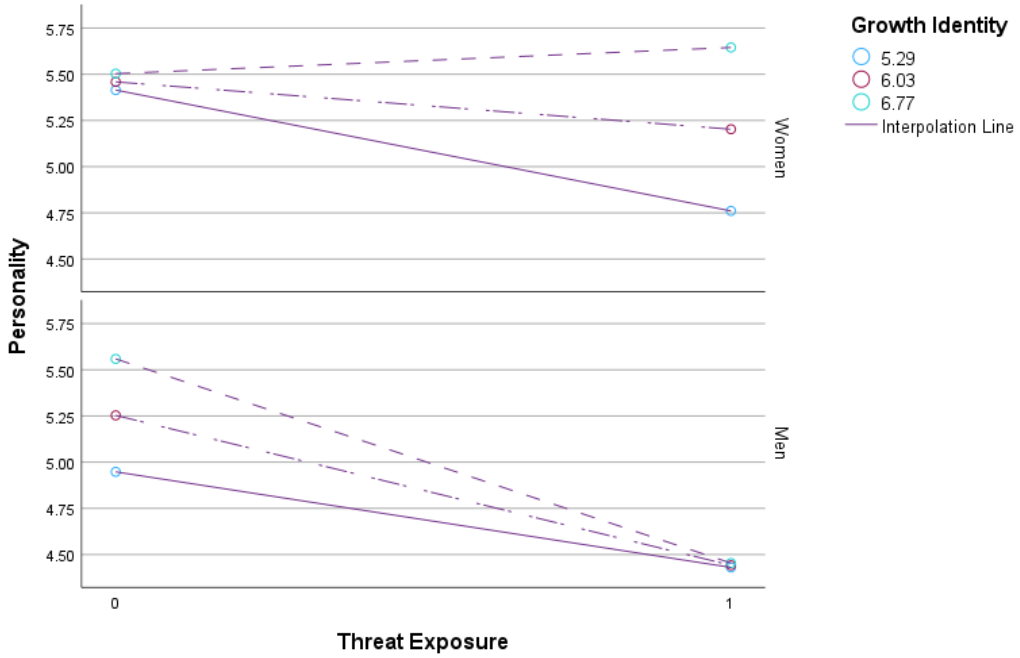
Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Appraisal as a Function of Growth Identity and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Identity values represent -1 *SD* (low), mean, and +1 *SD* (high) levels. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat.

Figure B4

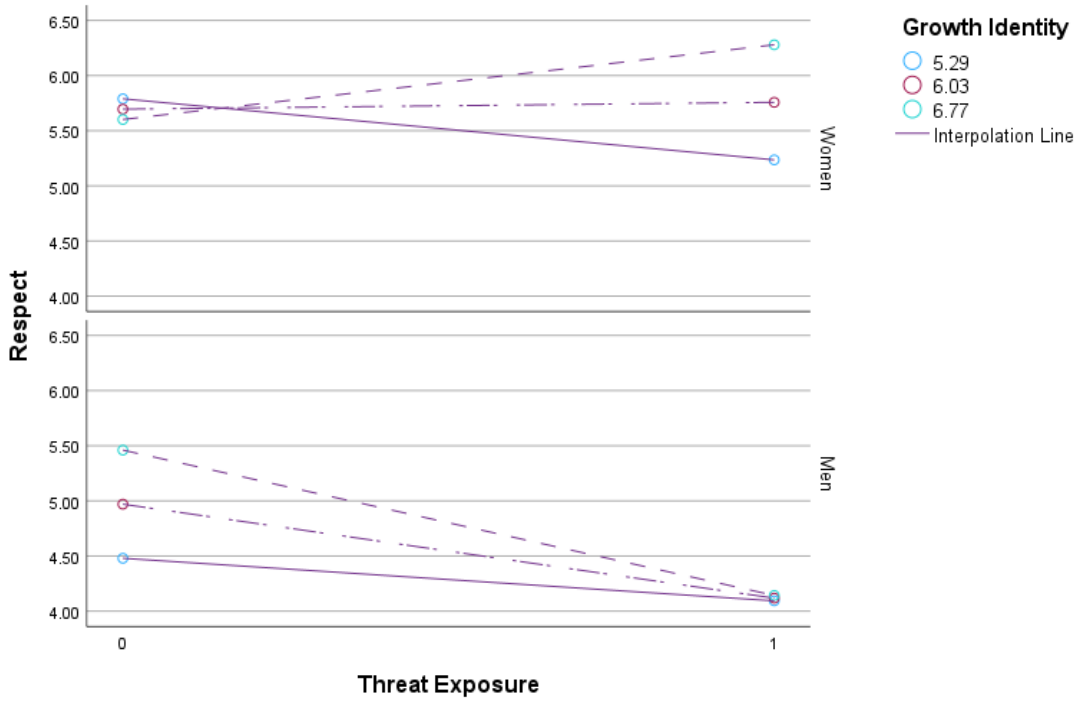
Effects of Threat Exposure on Voicer Personality Ratings as a Function of Growth Identity and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Identity values represent -1 *SD* (5.29), mean (6.03), and +1 *SD* (6.77) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Voicer Personality was measured on a 7-point scale with higher scores indicating more positive personality evaluations.

Figure B5

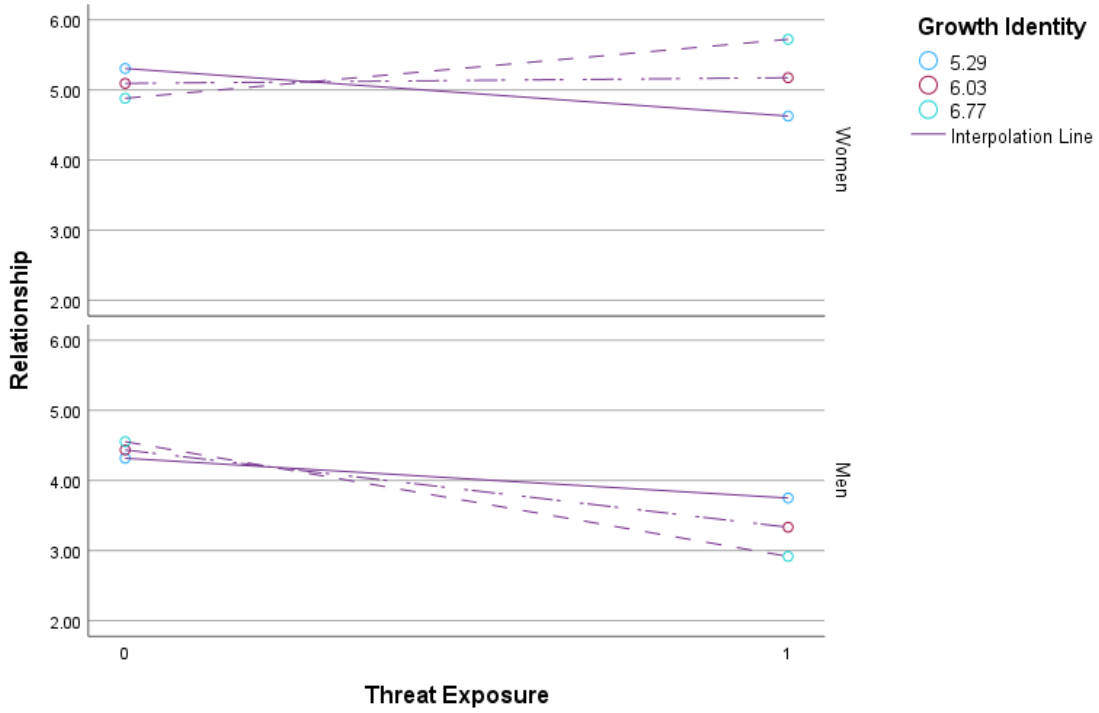
Effects of Threat Exposure on Respect for Voicer as a Function of Growth Identity and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69), and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Identity values represent -1 *SD* (5.29), mean (6.03), and +1 *SD* (6.77) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Respect for Voicer was measured on a 7-point scale, with higher scores indicating greater respect.

Figure B6

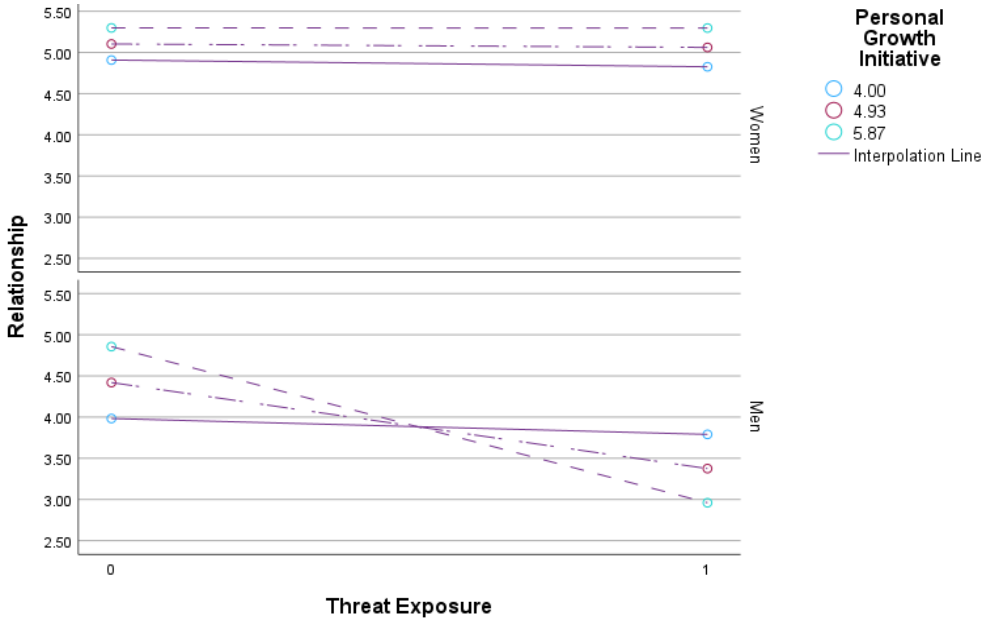
Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer as a Function of Growth Identity and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Identity values represent -1 *SD* (5.29), mean (6.03), and +1 *SD* (6.77) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Willingness to befriend/work with voicer was measured on a 7-point scale, with higher scores indicating greater willingness to form a relationship.

Figure B7

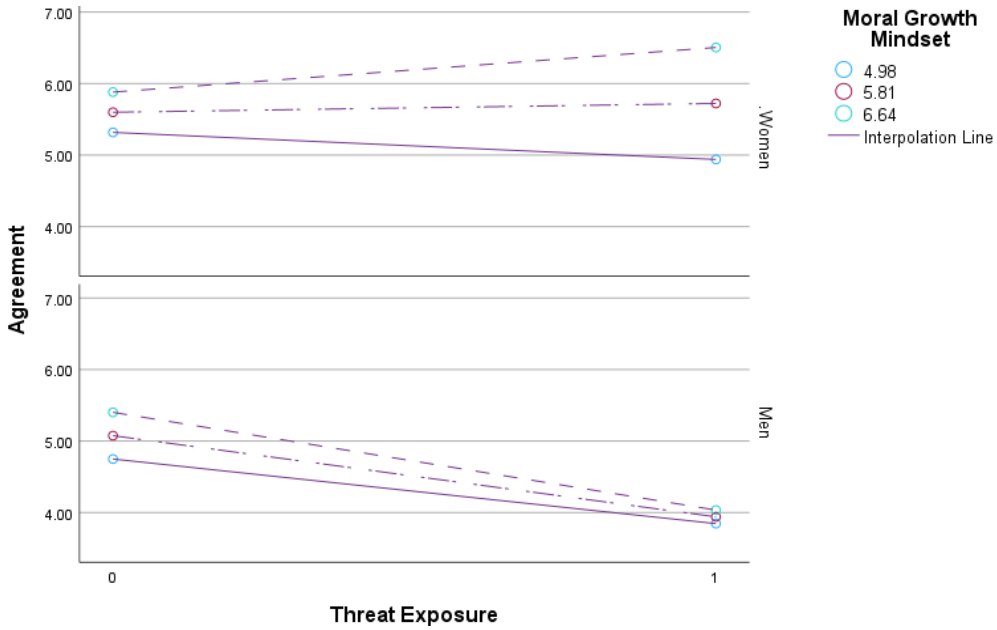
Effects of Threat Exposure on Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer as a Function of Personal Growth Initiative and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69), and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Personal Growth Initiative values represent -1 *SD* (4.00), mean (4.93), and +1 *SD* (5.87) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Willingness to befriend/work with voicer was measured on a 7-point scale.

Figure B8

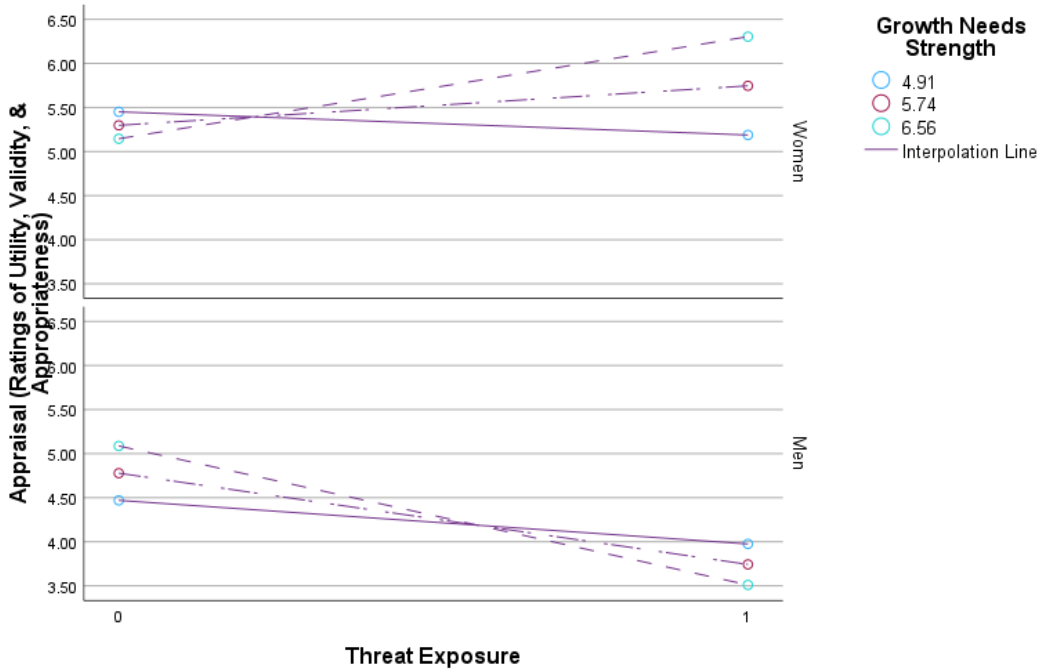
Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Agreement as a Function of Moral Growth Mindset depending on Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Moral Growth Mindset values represent -1 *SD* (4.98), mean (5.81), and +1 *SD* (6.64) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. The Voice Agreement was measured on a 7-point scale, with higher scores indicating greater agreement with the feedback.

Figure B9

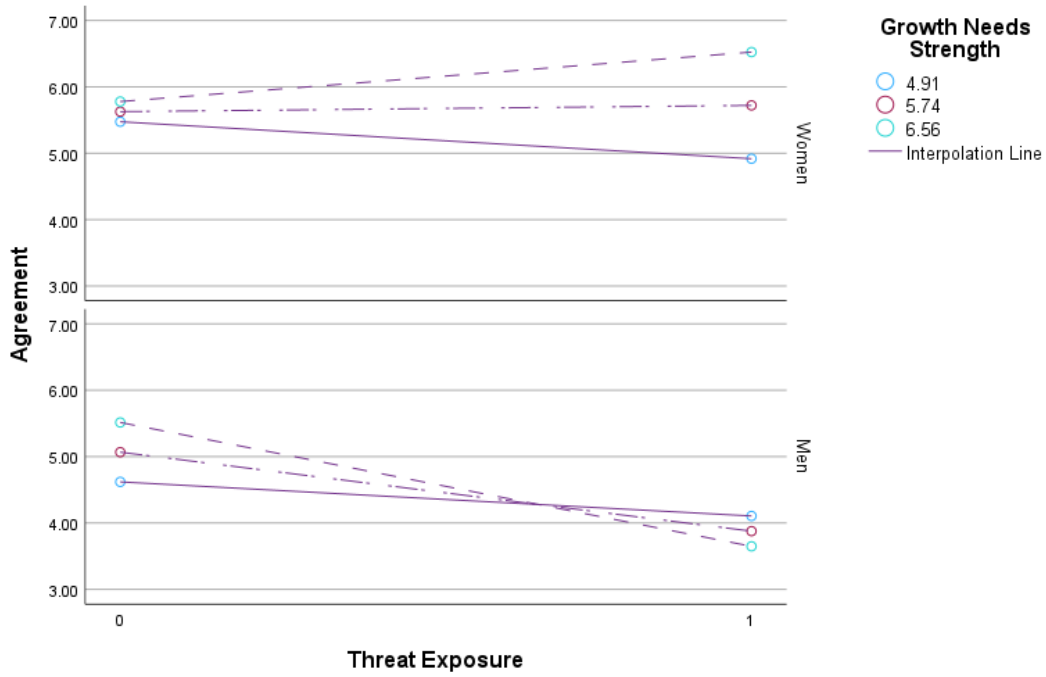
Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Appraisal as a Function of Growth Needs Strength and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Needs Strength values represent -1 *SD* (4.91), mean (5.74), and +1 *SD* (6.56) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Ratings of Utility, Validity, & Appropriateness" on the y-axis) was measured on a 7-point scale.

Figure B10

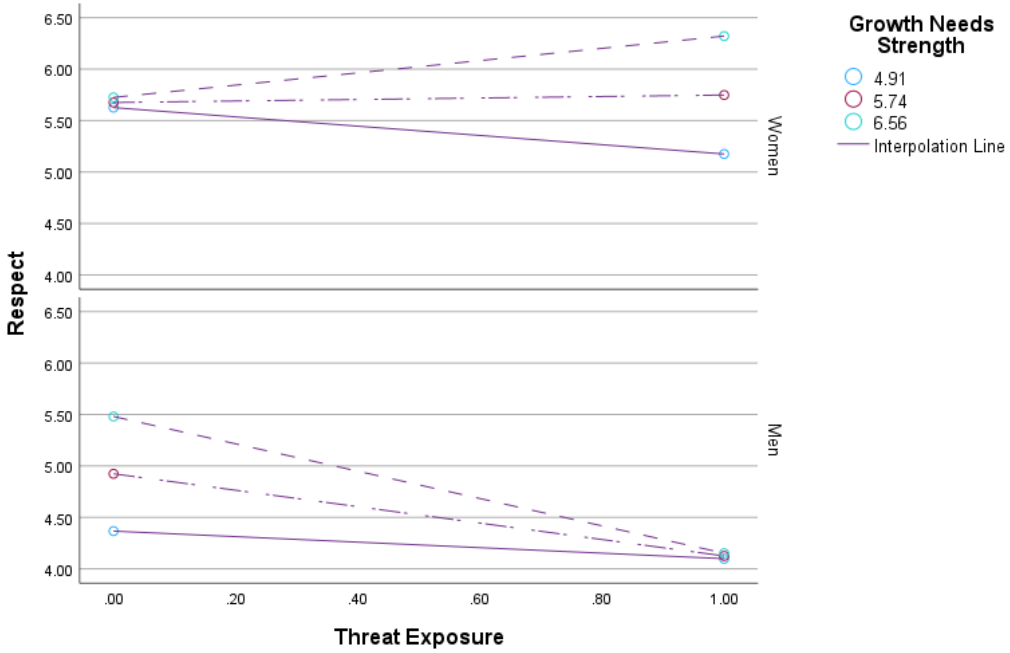
Effects of Threat Exposure on Voice Agreement as a Function of Growth Needs Strength and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Needs Strength values represent -1 *SD* (4.91), mean (5.74), and +1 *SD* (6.56) levels. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Voice Agreement was measured on a 7-point scale, with higher scores indicating greater agreement.

Figure B11

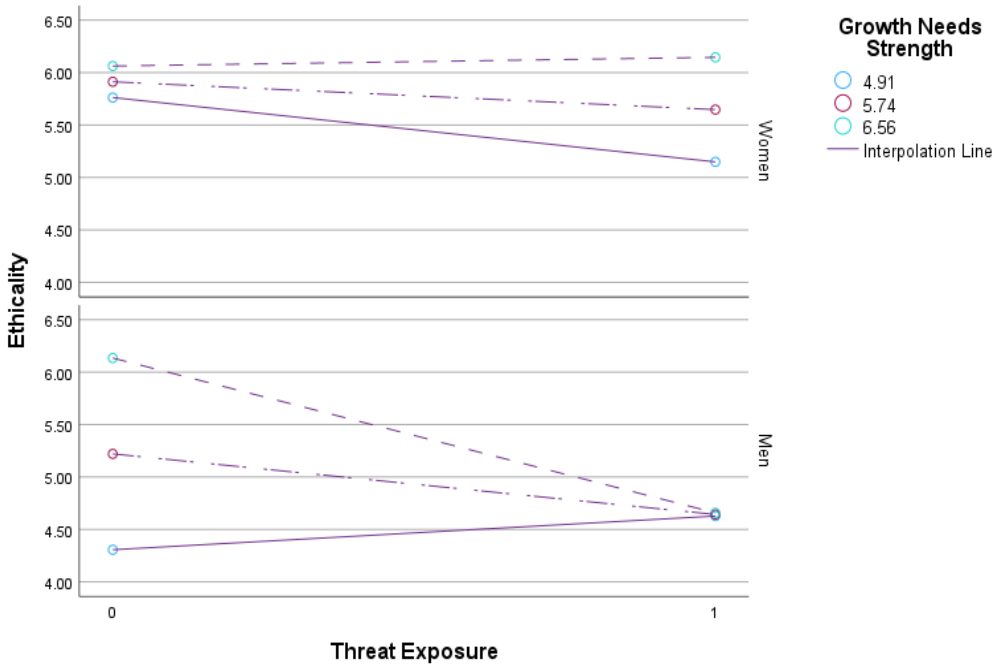
Effects of Threat Exposure on Respect for Voicer as a Function of Growth Needs Strength and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Needs Strength values represent -1 *SD* (4.91), mean (5.74), and +1 *SD* (6.56) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Respect for Voicer was measured on a 7-point scale, with higher scores indicating greater respect.

Figure B12

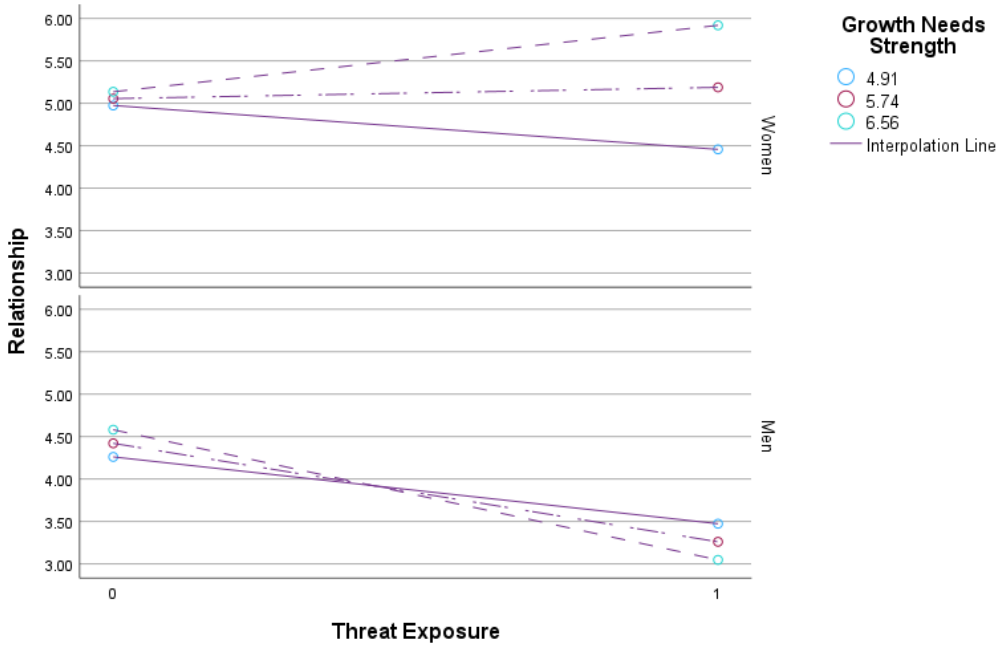
Effects of Threat Exposure on Voicer Ethicality Ratings as a Function of Growth Needs Strength and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Needs Strength values represent -1 *SD* (4.91), mean (5.74), and +1 *SD* (6.56) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Voicer Ethicality was measured on a 7-point scale, with higher scores indicating higher perceived ethicality.

Figure B13

Effects of Threat Exposure on Willingness to Befriend/Work with Voicer as a Function of Growth Needs Strength and Gender



Note. The top panel displays results for women (n = 69) and the bottom panel displays results for men (n = 51). Growth Needs Strength values represent -1 *SD* (4.91), mean (5.74), and +1 *SD* (6.56) levels. The solid line represents the interpolation line for visualization purposes. Threat Exposure: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat. Willingness to befriend/work with voicer was measured on a 7-point scale with higher scores indicating greater willingness to form a relationship

Paper 2:

Advantaged Group Member Response to Challenging Voice Regarding Racial Inequality: Threat, Empathy and Intersectional Disadvantage

Advantaged Group Member Response to Challenging Voice Regarding Racial Inequality: Threat, Empathy and Intersectional Disadvantage

Abstract

Challenging voice regarding equity and inclusion can serve as a critical source of awareness regarding how the organizational status quo creates or perpetuates inequality between different social groups. However, a wealth of evidence indicates that such efforts to raise awareness or advocate for action may not be well received. In this paper, I examine when and why advantaged racial group members respond poorly to challenging voice regarding racial inequality by comparing their response to that of disadvantaged racial group members. In doing so, I aim to better understand the extent to which theory on social identity and dominant group psychology explain differences in the response of advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group members. While existing literature on social identity points to explanations of ingroup favoritism and bias against outgroups to explain worsened voice response, I argue that differences are driven by reductions in empathy for the experience of being disadvantaged. I further argue that, while existing literature on dominant group psychology focuses on how lack of support for efforts to promote equality are driven by threats related to social group status, such threats may not be the main driver of worsened response by advantaged group members. Specifically, I hypothesize that even when the feedback provider is White, advantaged racial group member recipients will still respond worse to challenging voice regarding racial inequality compared to disadvantaged (racial minority) group members. I also hypothesize that the response of advantaged racial group members will vary based on socioeconomic status and that differences in response will persist after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs. Through six studies I find partial support for these hypotheses.

Advantaged Group Member Response to Challenging Feedback Regarding Racial Inequality: Threat, Empathy and Intersectional Disadvantage

Ethical feedback or moral objections can serve as a critical sources of awareness for managers and leaders, shedding light on how the status quo harms organizational members and stakeholders and instigating action (Chen & Trevino, 2023; Huang & Paterson, 2016). The potential of such feedback to offer important information also applies to the specific context of equity and inclusion, where leaders and managers may overlook or underestimate how the status quo treats employees from different groups inequitably (Krentz et al., 2019; Daniller, 2021). These leaders are likely to be members of advantaged groups for at least two reasons: a) advantaged group members may be more likely than disadvantaged group members to occupy higher managerial positions (due both to absolute differences in population and differences in promotion rates) and b) advantaged group members may be more likely to have blind spots in terms of how the status quo harms disadvantaged others (Chui, et. al., 2021; Pratto & Steward, 2012; Wu & Dunning, 2020).

Literature on advantaged groups and dominant group psychology points to how beliefs (e.g., status legitimizing beliefs, social dominance orientation) and threats to group status may drive decreased support for initiatives aimed at promoting equality (e.g., Knowles et al., 2014; Wilkins, et. al., 2013). However, in this paper I argue that, when advantaged racial group members are faced with challenging voice regarding racial equality, the threat associated with dominant group status is not necessarily the primary driver of poor response. In fact, while both advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members may experience other types of self-concept threat when faced with challenging voice regarding racial equality, I propose that threat may not be the major driver of response differences at all. Comparing advantaged racial group members to disadvantaged racial group members, I propose that these differences are explained by difference in felt empathy between advantaged and disadvantaged group members related to the experience of disadvantage. I

further argue that this reduced empathy persists even after anti-egalitarian beliefs are taken into account.

At first glance, the poor response and reduced empathy of White voice recipients, as opposed to racial minority voice recipients, might be explained by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Social identity theory tells us that people define themselves in terms of their membership to social groups, and that this identity and the self-esteem individuals draw from it are often bolstered through opposition to outgroups. As such, people tend to be more favorable towards ingroup members compared to outgroup members. Related theory on intergroup emotions more explicitly addresses emotions felt toward outgroup members, explaining that interaction with outgroup members increases discomfort, anxiety, and fear and reduces empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2011; Cikara et al., 2011, 2014). However, I argue that the poorer response of advantaged group members cannot simply be explained in these terms. Specifically, I propose that advantaged racial group members will: a) still have poorer voice response than disadvantaged racial group members when the voicer is White and b) have varied responses based on their experience of intersectional disadvantage (i.e., disadvantage along other social axes—in this case SES).

Through six studies, I examine how advantaged racial group member response to challenging voice regarding racial inequality compares to that of disadvantaged racial group members, and I test the extent to which empathy (as opposed to threat) explains differences in response. I also test how advantaged racial group member recipient response varies based on socioeconomic status and the race of the voicer.

Threat as a Barrier to Productive Response to Challenging DEI Feedback

The self-concept is composed of multiple dimensions and identities by which one defines and makes sense of themselves (Leary & Tagney, 2012; Ramaranjan, 2014; Thibodeau & Aronson, 1992). Definitions of the self, self-concept and identity have been

used in different ways in the management literature, sometimes implying one's core identity is composed of multiple selves and sometimes implying one self-concept contains multiple identities (Ramaranjan, 2014). Here, I use the latter conceptualization. Tajfel and Turner (1979) distinguish between *personal* and *social* aspects of the self-concept and explain that *social* aspects of the self-concept depend upon the contrast between one's membership in a social ingroup versus social outgroups, while *personal* aspects of the self-concept do not depend on this comparison. Theory suggests that whether or not negative self-relevant information will present a threat to one's self-concept depends on the extent to which the information presented is related to an *integral* aspect of one's sense of self (Aronson, 1969; Thibodeau & Aronson, 1992; Duvall & Wicklund, 1972). We can think of these integral aspects of oneself as being related to personal and/or social dimensions of the self-concept.

Advantaged group members' social identities may be especially vulnerable to threat if their sense of positive self-esteem or self-worth is tied to the idea that their social group is superior or more powerful. The importance of one's social self-concept can be thought of in different ways, including *others' views of one's social group, one's own views of one's social group, belonging as a member of one's social group* and the *importance of one's group memberships to one's personal identity*, all of which can uniquely contribute to one's feelings of self-worth and positive self-image (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). For individuals who identify strongly with their advantaged social group, challenging voice that indicates one's social group is immoral or should not hold a dominant position may be threatening even when one's personal self-concept (e.g., one's sense of morality) is not impacted. Evidence on dominant group psychology sheds light on how loss of positive self-esteem tied to social group status and power can decrease advantaged group member support for DEI value statements and initiatives (Chow & Knowles, 2015; Danbold & Unzueta, 2022; Knowles et al., 2014; Wilkins & Kaiser, 2013; Young & Sullivan, 2016). Yet, many individuals from

advantaged groups value equality and equity in society as a whole and genuinely support efforts to promote the advancement of disadvantaged groups (Horowitz, 2019; Minkin, 2020). For these individuals, membership in their advantaged social group and that social group's dominant status may not be integral to their self-concept.

Within the personal dimension of the self-concept, social psychologists highlight *competence* and *morality* as integral to most people's sense of self (Aronson, 1992; Thibodeau & Aronson, 1992). Literatures on voice, feedback, and moral objections provide ample evidence that when individuals receive any negative or challenging self-relevant information, they experience threats to their self-concept that may hamper response (e.g., Anseel & Sherf, 2025; Chen & Trevino, 2022; Monin et al., 2008; Wenzel et al., 2020), especially when it has moral relevance (e.g., Aronson, 1968, 1969; Rösler, 2023). Managers and leaders are highly susceptible to self-threat (e.g., Burris, 2012; Chen et al., 2014; Fast, et al., 2013; Gaba et al., 2022; Grimes, 2018). However, these experiences of threat are *not* unique to advantaged group members. Here, I argue that, for the average advantaged group member, the affective experience of threat when receiving challenging voice regarding racial inequality may stem more from challenges to parts of the personal self-concept rather than the social self-concept (e.g., threats to self-esteem related to one's group dominance). As such, on average, the affective experience of threat of advantaged group members when receiving challenging voice regarding racial equality may not be as different from the affective experience of threat experienced by disadvantaged group member recipients as one might assume.

Empathy as a Facilitator of Productive Feedback Response

Empathy may be useful for managing threat when receiving challenging voice regarding social inequality, helping ensure the negative affective experience of threat does not hamper response. This is because empathy draws attention away from the self. Theory on

objective self-awareness (Duvall & Wicklund, 1972) states that discomfort and negativity associated with self-threat arises from self-focused attention. However, this can be assuaged by turning attention elsewhere in any given situation—such as towards another person. This is often done in an unproductive way—such as by blaming or derogating others (Duvall & Wicklund, 1972). However, here I suggest it may also be done in a positive way—such as when empathy drives focus towards others' well-being and their needs (as opposed to one's own insecurities). This is essentially a form of emotion regulation. Gross (1998) outlines that one pathway to changing the level or nature of one's emotion in a situation is to change what aspect of a situation one directs their attention to. Ford and Gross (2020) also leverage Gross's original theory on emotion regulation to suggest how self-threat experienced by White individuals in DEI-related contexts can be managed, and they point to redirection of attention as one potential pathway. I argue that because empathy is, on average, felt more by disadvantaged racial group members when receiving challenging voice regarding racial inequality, this helps redirect attention when facing threat and counteracts the potential effects of threat on feedback response—an empathic resource that White voice recipients may have less of.

The idea that advantaged racial group members would empathize less when faced with information regarding negative experiences of racial minorities may seem straightforward from the perspective of social identity theory. The idea that individuals favor their social ingroup as opposed to their social outgroup is a widely held assumption of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). While social identity theory does not explicitly discuss empathy, it follows that increased identification and sense of belonging with one's ingroup and ingroup favoritism will be associated with increased empathy for members of one's ingroup and less for one's outgroup. Theories of intergroup emotions go beyond social identity theory to focus on emotional responses that stem from our ingroup and outgroup

memberships. They explain how individuals will experience more empathy for ingroup members and will experience more discomfort and anxiety interacting with outgroup members (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2011; Cikara et al., 2011, 2014). Here, I argue that ingroup and outgroup explanations do not fully account for decreased empathy of advantaged group members to challenging voice regarding social inequality. To test this argument, I look at how White recipient response changes: a) by varying the race of the voicer and b) at different levels of socioeconomic status. From both angles, I propose that empathy in the context of challenging voice receipt stems more from experiences of disadvantage than from racial ingroup and outgroup memberships. Foundational work on empathy points to the role of similar life experiences in cultivating empathic concern towards others (e.g., Batson et al., 2005). In other words, even when a voicer is White, advantaged racial group members may still not empathize deeply with the content of the voice being shared due to lack of experience.

> *H1. Advantaged racial group voice recipients will respond more poorly to challenging voice regarding racial inequality than recipients from disadvantaged racial groups.*
>
> *H2. Both advantaged and disadvantaged group members will be threatened when receiving challenging voice regarding racial inequality.*
>
> *H3. Empathy will mediate the relationship between advantaged racial group membership and responses to challenging voice regarding racial inequality.*
>
> *H4. Feelings of threat will not mediate the relationship between advantaged racial group membership and challenging voice response as much as empathy will mediate the relationship.*

Race of the Feedback Provider

While existing research does suggest that negative feedback is better received by a member of one's ingroup (Esposo et al., 2013; Hornsey et al., 2004; Rösler, 2023), it is unclear if the same would be true within the particular, but highly relevant context of challenging voice regarding social inequality. This is especially true since such voice is likely

to make social identities and group memberships salient. Evidence on response to messaging and advocacy in the context of social inequality and DEI yields mixed findings on whether or not advantaged or disadvantaged group members are received better as messengers and advocates. Recent evidence suggests that social advocacy messages delivered by advantaged allies may be better received by advantaged group members (Ganegoda, et al., 2024; Preston et al., 2024). However, we might also predict that when voice recipients receive information regarding inequality from a member of their own social group, they may actually experience *greater* threat to their own sense of morality or competence (personal self-concept threat). This is because the other person offers a more direct representation of their own standards and their discrepancy with those standards (Aronson, 1969; Monin et al., 2007). Some evidence focused on advantaged group member allyship supports this reasoning (Kutlaca et al., 2020). Interestingly, social identity theory might predict both sets of findings—better reception of voice of an ingroup member could be associated with ingroup favorability while worse reception of feedback from an ingroup member could be associated with threats to the group-derived self-concept—and fears of rejection by the ingroup.

Here, I argue that, in the context of challenging voice regarding racial inequality, the average advantaged racial group members will respond worse than disadvantaged racial group members regardless of the voicer's race—because their response is driven less by ingroup membership and outgroup differentiation and more by how they relate to the experience of disadvantage being communicated by the voicer.

> *H5. Worsened response of advantaged racial group members will persist regardless of whether or not the voicer is White or a racial minority.*

Experiences of Intersectional Disadvantage: SES

It is well established that one's own experiences of hardship can make one better empathize with others (Batson, 1987; Batson et al., 1996, Batson et al., 2005). In addition, there is empirical evidence to suggest that experiences of disadvantage in terms of one

dimension of social inequality can generate empathy for those who are disadvantaged along other social axes (Rosette & Tost, 2013). Evidence also suggests that experiences of disadvantage in other social groups can improve the attitudes of advantaged group members (Fath et al., 2022).

At the same time, when people feel that resources are limited, they may feel threatened by the idea that another group will receive more attention or support. This line of reasoning is supported by realistic group conflict theory (Sherif, 1967) and evidence on zero-sum beliefs (Davidai & Tepper, 2023). Realistic group conflict theory posits that when different social groups feel they are competing for what they perceive are scarce resources, this engenders negative attitudes towards other social groups. Most existing research on realistic group conflict theory focuses on its role in racial and ethnic conflicts. Relatedly, zero sum beliefs refer to the belief that one group's advancement in society depends on other groups being put down. Notably, both these theories/concepts emphasize scarcity (or perceived scarcity) of resources as a motivating factor in solidarity with, or competition with, other disadvantaged groups. As such, I investigate SES as a form of intersectional disadvantage that could influence empathy of advantaged racial group members for racially disadvantaged groups, either improving response by increasing empathy (for the experience of disadvantage) or worsening response (due to perceptions of competition and resource scarcity).

H6a. The difference between responses of advantaged and disadvantaged racial group member voice recipients will be reduced for advantaged racial group members who are lower in SES and amplified for those who are high SES.

H6b. The difference between responses of advantaged and disadvantaged group member voice recipients will be increased for advantaged racial group members who are lower in SES and dampened for those who are high SES.

H7. Empathy will explain the interaction effect of advantaged group membership and SES on response to challenging voice regarding racial inequality.

Overview of the Present Research

In this paper, five online studies and one lab study were conducted to test the above mentioned hypotheses. While key variables were manipulated in each study, the main independent variable (advantaged racial group membership) could not be randomly assigned. In Study 1, advantaged and disadvantaged group members were both randomly assigned to receive either challenging or supportive feedback, with the logic that challenging voice will induce self-concept threat while supportive voice will not. In Study 2 the experiment was designed such that, rather than distinguish between challenging and supportive voice, only the level of exposure to threat was manipulated. All participants received challenging voice, but a random half of both advantaged and disadvantaged recipients received a threat "buffer" prior to receiving voice. Differences in self-reported threat between high and low exposure conditions help confirm that threat was being induced—and that both advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members experienced it. In Studies 3a–b and 4a–b all participants received the same exposure to threat, but different situational factors were manipulated: *feedback provider race* (to test *Hypothesis 4*) and *feedback severity* (to test for sensitivity of results to a key feedback provider-driven and contextual factor). In addition, in all Studies 4a–b, anti-egalitarian beliefs were measured and used as a control to see if differences in response persist even after such beliefs are taken into account. Studies 1–3b are online studies while Studies 4a–b are lab studies.

In each study, response to challenging voice regarding racial inequality was measured through the use of a task adapted from the moral objection literature. The task used to generate a response was chosen because of its previous use in inducing self-threat in racially charged situations (e.g., Monin et al., 2008, Wellman et al., 2016). In Monin et al. (2008) the task occurs in the context of a criminal incident, and in Wellman et al. (2016) it shifts the context to generic office hiring. However, both focus on stereotypical or biased

presentation of individual suspects or candidates. Here, I adopted the hiring context from Wellman et al. (2016), but rather than focus on stereotypical or biased presentation of candidates, I instead focused on overall representation of candidates from different racial groups.

Participants were told that they work for a boutique hotel group and are in charge of hiring a manager for a new location. Then they were presented with a shortlist of candidates complete with a picture, name, background information, and qualifications. They were then asked to choose a candidate and provide a justification of their selection. After doing so, they were told they would see the response of a previous participant. In the versions of the task meant to induce threat, the response of the previous participant was an objection to the task on ethical grounds. The response indicated that the list is not representative and inclusive of qualified people of all racial backgrounds and that it may unfairly exclude racial minorities. The objection calls into question the way candidates were recruited and the way the list was compiled, and it suggests these aspects of the recruitment process should be reviewed. After reading the previous participant statement, participants were asked to rate the voice and the voicer.

Notably, the main measure of feedback used was not a standard measure of voice support, endorsement or enactment, but instead involved ratings of usefulness, validity and appropriateness (Monin et al., 2008). This is to focus on whether or not participants even see value in what the voicer is saying and are willing to consider their viewpoint, even if they do not understand or agree right away. In addition, participants were asked to share perceptions of the voicer themselves and their willingness to connect with the voicer socially. These outcome variables, focused both on response to what is said and who is saying it, are used in the moral objections literature, but they are also particularly important to measure given the

risk of further marginalization of those who speak up about social inequality in the workplace.

Study 1

Participants, Design, and Procedure

To participate in this study, 284 working adult males were recruited on Prolific. The sample was stratified such that approximately half were White ($N = 136$) and half were from a mix of racial minority groups including Black, Hispanic and Asian individuals ($N = 148$). Participants were then randomized into the control condition (supportive voice; no threat induction) or treatment condition (challenging voice; threat induction). All participants were told they would be participating in the hiring task described above. In this study, the version of the task used was a racially diverse candidate list, including one White, one Black, one Hispanic, and one Asian candidate. However, only the White candidate was presented as qualified while all the other candidates were presented as underqualified—making the only rational choice the White candidate. Participants were led to select this candidate and then were asked to provide a justification for their choice. They were led to believe this is the main purpose of the task. After finishing, however, participants were told that they would then view the response of another participant in the study.

The participants then viewed the comment of a fictitious other participant. In the *supportive voice* condition, the previous participant chose the White candidate (that all participants were led to believe was the most qualified and were led to choose) and justified the decision rationally, using all the key information provided in the candidate list. Actual participants were not at risk of threat because the previous participant supported their point of view. In the *challenging voice* condition, the previous participant objected to the list and task altogether by arguing that there is no way that no qualified racial minorities exist and that the way that recruitment and shortlisting was conducted is questionable. This posed a threat to

actual participants because they would then doubt themselves for engaging in the task and overlooking concerns about racial inequality. After reading the previous participant's response, participants rated both the previous participant's response itself (the *voice*) and the previous participant themselves (the *voicer*).

Measures

Dependent variable, mediator and control variable measures are outlined below. All variables were measured on a 7-point Likert scale and rated on a scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Attitudes towards feedback and the feedback provider. These include ratings of the feedback itself (perceptions of *usefulness, validity, appropriateness*). They also include ratings of the feedback provider in terms of *personality, respect*, and *willingness to engage with the feedback provider as a friend or coworker*. Measures were adopted from the moral objection literature (Monin et al., 2008).

Empathy. Empathy was measured using the Empathic Concern subscale of the Emotional Response Questionnaire (Batson, 1987). The measure uses a 7-point Likert scale. Sample items include: "I feel sympathetic towards the previous participant" and "I feel moved by the previous participant."

Analyses

Two sets of analyses were conducted. The first utilized the experimental design, testing for the overall significance of differences between *supportive* versus *challenging voice* conditions as well as the interaction between condition and advantaged group membership. A second set of analyses focused only on differences between advantaged and disadvantaged group member recipient response for participants *within the challenging voice group only*.

Results

Overall, including participants from both advantaged and disadvantaged racial groups, mean differences between control and threat conditions for all response variables were significant, indicating that those in the treatment condition may have been threatened by the previous participant's objection—and that this was true for *both* advantaged and disadvantaged group member recipients. Descriptive statistics and all results are reported in Appendix C. Independent sample t-tests indicate that mean differences between the threat and control conditions were significant ($p < .001$) for all feedback and feedback provider variables and for both advantaged and disadvantaged group members (see Tables C2-C4). These findings lend support for *Hypothesis 2a*. Two-way ANOVAs were conducted to test for the significance of the interaction between voice type/threat induction and advantaged group membership for all key dependent variables. The interaction effect was significant for all dependent variables—while both advantaged racial group members and disadvantaged racial group members rated voicers worse when they objected to the task (versus when they answered the same way as the voicers), the drop was more significant for advantaged group members. A bar graph depicting the change in mean ratings between conditions for advantaged and disadvantaged group members can be found in Figures C1-C4.

Further analyses were conducted for the challenging condition only. Advantaged group membership predicted poorer ratings of *voice*, *voicer personality* ($B = -.19$, $p = .001$), *respect towards the voicer,* and *willingness to befriend or work with the voicer* (see all results in Table C5*).* Overall, these findings support *Hypothesis 1*: advantaged group members ultimately rate voice and voicers worse. Mediation analysis using bootstrapping (SPSS PROCESS Model 4) was conducted to see whether empathy explained these results. Empathy significantly mediated the relationship between advantaged group membership and ratings of *voice* ($B = -.71$, $SE = .26$, 95*CI* [-1.222, -.195]), *voicer personality* ($B = -.547$, $SE = .21$, 95*CI* [-.964, -.144]), *respect for the voicer* ($B = -.773$, $SE = .27$, 95*CI* [-1.259, -.190]), and

willingness to befriend or work with the voicer (*B* = -.641, *SE* = .24, 95*CI* [-1.104, -.170]). These results provide support for *Hypothesis 3*, however threat was not tested as a mediator.

Discussion

Study 1 results indicate that both advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members have poorer reactions when faced with challenging voice as opposed to supportive voice. However, overall advantaged racial group members, on average, respond worse to challenging voice and voicers (providing support for *Hypothesis 1* and *Hypothesis 2b)*. This is partially explained through feelings of empathy (providing support for *Hypothesis 3)*. Study 2 builds upon Study 1 by manipulating and measuring the affective experience of threat more explicitly and precisely and by testing threat as a mediator of the advantaged group membership and voice response relationship alongside empathy.

Study 2 Methods

Participants, Design, and Procedure

To participate in the study, 299 working adults in the US over age 18 were recruited on Prolific. The sample was stratified such that approximately half were White individuals (*N* = 137) and half were from a mix of racial minority groups including Black, Hispanic and Asian individuals (*N* = 162).

The design and procedure were similar to Study 1, with three notable changes. First, the sample included both men and women across all racial groups. Because the challenging voice in the study is focused on race, the ideal sample should be balanced in terms of gender representation. Second, to more definitively test for the occurrence of threat, Study 2 employed a technique from the social psychology literature (similar to Study 2 in Paper 1) where the presence of threat is measured using self-affirmation (Critcher & Dunning, 2015; Steele, 1988). Half the participants from each racial group were randomized into a low threat exposure (self-affirmation) condition (*N* = 145) and a high threat exposure (no self-

affirmation) condition (N = 154). While all participants received challenging feedback regarding racial inequality, those in the low threat exposure condition first engaged in a self-affirmation task (adapted from Critcher & Dunning, 2015). In it, they were asked to rank a series of things they value in their life and then to write about the thing they value the most. This exercise expands the individual's view of where their sense of self comes from and bolsters their sense of self, providing a buffer from subsequent threats to the self-concept. In addition, feelings of threat were measured explicitly through self-report measures.

Lastly, the basis of the previous participant's objection in Study 1 is fairly nuanced in that it questions why racial minorities on the list are not qualified when qualified racial minority applicants/candidates surely exist. In Study 2, the hiring task was amended such that the candidate list included all White candidates and the basis of the previous participant's objection was the total exclusion of, and lack of representation of, racial minorities. This version of the task makes it more difficult for participants to disagree with the basis of the objection by the previous participant because the reason for the objection is clearer. While the overall idea of the task used in this paper is to create openness and engagement regardless of agreement, this increased clarity ensures that measured responses are not driven by confusion.

Measures

Measures were the same as in Study 1, with three exceptions.

Feelings of threat. While threat was manipulated in the experimental design, it was also measured via self-report using three different scales: *feelings of threat* (Chen & Trevino, 2022), *feelings of inferiority* (Gausel et al., 2012), and *feelings of rejection* (Gausel et al., 2012). The use of measures of felt inferiority and rejection are secondary, exploratory measures only. However, use of these measures of threat is supported by theory and evidence on self-concept threat in the context of moral objections—where one's moral sense of self is

seen as inextricably linked to how one is viewed by others and sees themselves in relation to others (Monin, 2007; Monin et al., 2008; O'Connor & Monin, 2016). These measures were used to further support the case that self-concept threat is experienced when one is faced with challenging voice regarding racial inequality, and they were employed for exploratory mediation analyses in Studies 2–3b.

Subjective SES. Lastly, intersectional disadvantage was measured using a subjective measure of SES (Adler et al., 2000). In the MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status (Adler et al., 2000), participants are asked to envision a ladder where those at the top have "the most money, best education and best jobs" while those at the bottom have "the least money, least education, worst jobs, or no job." Then, they are asked to rate where they stand. This measure of subjective social status may be more appropriate to use as compared to objective income or education data because how people feel about and experience their social position varies. Subjective social status has been found to predict stress and physical health outcomes over and above objective measures of income and education (Adler et al., 2000).

Voicer race assumptions. Participants were asked if they assumed the voicer was of a certain race (though no indication of their race was given within the task). This variable served as control in regression analyses to test whether these assumptions influenced the difference between advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group member response.

Analyses

Two sets of analyses were conducted. The first set utilized the full experimental design, including both conditions, and tested for the significance of differences between low and high threat exposure conditions overall as well as testing after restricting the sample to advantaged racial group members and disadvantaged racial group members, respectively. A second set of analyses focused on differences between advantaged and disadvantaged group

member recipient response in the full threat exposure condition only, including tests for the mediating effects of threat and empathy and moderating effects of SES.

Study 2 Results and Discussion

Results

Overall, the significance of differences between conditions were not significant, though mean ratings were consistently lower in the full threat exposure condition. This was true for ratings of *voice* ($t(297) = 1.56$, $p = .12$), *voicer personality* ($t(297) = 1.54$, $p = .13$), and *willingness to befriend the voicer* ($t(297) = 1.42$, $p = .16$). All results are reported in Table C7 (also see Figure C6 for a visualization of these results). Tables C8-9 present results by advantaged group membership. Overall, self-reported *feelings of inferiority* ($t(297) = 2.096$, $p = .037$) significantly differed between high and low threat exposure conditions, but self-reported *feelings of threat* ($t(297) = 1.695$, $p = .09$) and *feelings of rejection* did not ($t(297) = .732$, $p = .47$). See Figures C7-8 for a visualization of these results by advantaged group membership. Significance of mean differences in threat variables overall, and by advantaged group membership, are reported in Tables C10-11. Interactions between threat exposure and advantaged group membership were insignificant, providing preliminary support for the idea that threat may not be the primary driver of differences in response between advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members.

Further analyses focused on the high threat exposure sample only. Independent sample t-tests indicate that mean differences in feedback response outcomes for advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group members were significant for all variables, including ratings of *voice* ($t(152) = 3.51$, $p < .001$), *voicer personality* ($t(152) = 2.45$, $p = .015$), *respect for the voicer* ($t(152) = 3.02$, $p = .003$), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* ($t(152) = 2.7$, $p = .008$). Mean differences are shown in Figure C9. Regression analyses were conducted (using a binary variable for advantaged group membership) to examine whether

differences between advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members persisted after provider race assumptions were taken into account. Specifically, I controlled for the perceived likelihood that the voice provider was Black. This is because the mean rating of likelihood that the feedback provider was Asian (M = 3.08, SD = 1.56), Hispanic (M = 3.36, SD = 1.65), or White (M = 3.6, SD = 1.85) was about the same—but the mean rating of likelihood that the feedback provider was Black was higher (M = 4.91, SD = 1.67). After taking this into account, advantaged group membership predicted lower ratings of *voicer (utility, appropriateness, validity)* ($p < .001$), *voicer personality* ($p = .016$), *respect for the provider* ($p = .003$) and *willingness to befriend or work with the voicer* ($p = .008$). See Table C12 for all results. These findings provide further support for *Hypothesis 1*.

Mediation analysis was conducted using bootstrapping (SPSS PROCESS Model 4) to test whether threat and empathy mediated the relationship between advantaged group membership and feedback response as hypothesized, as well as to test for their relative effects. As predicted, threat (operationalized both as general *feelings of threat* and, for exploratory purposes, as *feelings of inferiority* and *feelings of rejection*) did *not* significantly mediate the relationship between advantaged group membership and any feedback/feedback provider variables (see Table C13 for mediation effects of feelings of threat). However, decreased empathy of advantaged group members helped explain poorer ratings for all dependent variables including *voice* (B = -.468, SE = .22, 95CI [-.891, -.036]), *voicer personality* (B = -.314, SE = .15, 95CI [-.60, -.02]), *respect for the voicer* (B = -.481, SE = .23, 95CI [-.929, -.030]) and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* (B = -.5194, SE = .24, 95CI [-.99, -.05]). See Table C14 for mediation results.

Moderation and moderated mediation analysis were also conducted (using SPSS Process Models 1 and 7) to test for the significance of the moderating effect of subjective SES on both the direct and indirect relationship between advantaged group membership and

feedback response. Both direct and indirect effects were significant for all response variables, indicating that changes in empathy explain the interactive effect of advantaged racial group membership x SES on feedback response. For all response variables, the effect of advantaged racial group membership on voice ratings through empathy was worse at higher levels of SES. For example, the effect of advantaged group membership on voice ratings through empathy was insignificant at 1 SD *below* mean SES (*B* = -.31, *SE* = .26, *95CI* [-.82, .21]) compared to *average levels of SES* (*B* = -.57, *SE* = .21, *95CI* [-.99, -.16]) and *high SES* at 1 SD above the mean (*B* = -1.09, *SE* = .26, *95CI* [-1.75, -0.44]). See Tables C15-C18 for all results. Findings lend partial support to *Hypothesis 6a*, which posited that advantaged racial group members at high levels of SES will respond worse than those at lower levels.

Discussion

Advantaged group members responded worse to challenging voice and voicers (providing support for *Hypothesis 1*), regardless of the race of the provider (supporting *Hypothesis 4*). Results indicate that both advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members experience threat when faced with challenging voice regarding racial inequality, providing support for *Hypothesis 2*. Empathy helped explain this difference and had a stronger mediating effect than threat, which was insignificant in the parallel mediation model (providing support for *Hypotheses 3 and 4*). SES significantly moderated the relationship between advantaged group membership and feedback response through empathy, such that the impact of advantaged group membership was insignificant at low levels of SES and progressively more negative at average and high SES (providing support for *Hypothesis 6a*).

Study 3a

Participants, Design, and Procedure

To participate in the study, 197 working adults were recruited on Connect Research. The sample was stratified such that half were White individuals (*N* = 96) and half were from

a mix of racial minority groups including Black, Hispanic and Asian individuals ($N = 101$). The study design and procedure were the same as in Study 2, with two exceptions. First, all participants experienced the same threat exposure risk (because the fact that the task is threat-inducing was already established in Studies 1 and 2). Second, the race of the voicer was manipulated instead of measuring and controlling for assumptions about voicer race. While Study 2 asked participants about racial assumptions, participants may not have been aware of their implicit assumptions or may have been hesitant to explicitly state their assumptions. As such, both advantaged group member and disadvantaged group member recipients were randomly assigned to a White voicer or a racial minority voicer.

Measures

All measures were the same as in Study 2, with one exception: exclusion of the racial assumptions measure (as it was no longer needed because of the manipulation of provider race).

Analyses

First, mean differences between advantaged group member and disadvantaged group member responses were tested overall, then tested in samples restricted to those who received voice from a racial minority and White voicer, respectively. Second, parallel mediation analysis was conducted to investigate the extent to which empathy explained differences in response compared to threat. Third, moderating effects of subjective SES were tested for both the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and voice response and the indirect relationship between advantage and voice response through threat and empathy.

Results

Overall, mean differences between advantaged versus disadvantaged group member ratings of voice and voicers (regardless of voicer race) were significant for some response variable measures, and approached significance for others (see Table C20 for all results).

This includes ratings of voice ($t(195) = 1.78$, $p = .08$), *voicer personality* ($t(195) = 1.40$, $p = .16$), *respect for the voicer* ($t(195) = 2.41$, $p = .02$), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* ($t(195) = 1.82$, $p = .07$). Mean differences are also visible in Figure C10.

When restricting the sample to only those participants who received voice from a racial minority, the significance of mean differences between advantaged and disadvantaged group members persisted for ratings of *voicer personality* ($p = .093$), *respect for the voicer* ($p = .017$), and *willingness to engage/work with the voicer* ($p = .047$). After restricting the sample only to those who received voice from White voicers, differences between advantaged and disadvantaged group members only approached significance at the $p < .10$ level for ratings of *voicer* ($p = .10$) and *respect for the voicer* ($p = .139$). All results are visible in Tables C21-22. Additional analyses looking at differences in ratings of racial minority versus White voicers revealed that advantaged racial group members rated voicers of different races similarly, while disadvantaged racial group members tended to rate racial minority voicers more highly. Significant differences in advantaged and disadvantaged racial group member ratings of racial minority voicers were driven by this boost. Still, advantaged racial group members consistently rated all voicers, regardless of race, lower. Results are reported in Tables C23-24. Figures visualizing the difference in ratings are provided in C11-C14.

Mediation analyses were conducted using bootstrapping (SPSS PROCESS Model 4) to investigate whether or not threat and empathy explained lower voice and voicer ratings by advantaged group members, both overall (regardless of voicer race) and then considering race of the voicer as a moderator. Neither threat (tested through three different operationalizations: *feelings of threat, feelings of inferiority, feelings of rejection*) nor empathy were significant mediators of the relationship between advantaged group membership and outcomes. Results are reported in Tables C25-C26.

Subjective SES was tested as a moderator of the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and response to challenging voice regarding racial inequality, controlling for voicer race. SES was a significant moderator of the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and all dependent variable measures, and it had stronger negative effects at lower SES levels. For example, the effect of advantaged group membership on feedback at *low SES* (1 SD below the mean) was B = -1.02, SE = .39, 95CI [-1.8, -.25], at *average SES* it was B = -.47, SE = .27, 95CI [-1.02, .08] and for *high SES* (1 SD above the mean) it was B = .09, SE = .39, 95CI [-.67, .85]. When the sample was restricted to racial minority voicers, SES was not a significant moderator of the relationship between advantaged group membership and *voice*. However, it was a significant moderator of the relationship between advantaged group membership and all *voicer* variables, at the $p < .10$ level. For example, the interaction effect on *willingness to befriend or work with the feedback provider* was significant at *low SES*, 1 SD below the mean (B = -1.43, SE = .60, 95CI [-2.6, -.25]), but not at *average SES* levels (B = -.67, SE = .42, 95CI [-1.5, .16]) or *high SES* levels (B = .09, SE = .59, 95CI [-1.09, 1.3]). When the sample was restricted to recipients who received voice from White voicers, tests of higher unconditional interactions were significant at the $p < .10$ level for ratings of *voice* but were *not* significant for any *voicer* variables. When voice was delivered by White voicers, advantaged racial group membership predicted lower ratings of *voice* at *low SES levels* (B = -1.2388, SE = .5688, 95CI [-2.36, -.10]), but not *average SES* levels (B = -.48, SE = .39, 95CI [-1.25, .28]) or *high SES* (B = .24, SE = .54, 95CI [-.83, 1.3]). See Tables C27-28 for moderation results. Moderated mediation analyses yielded insignificant results overall, indicating that we cannot confidently determine that interaction effects operate through empathy (see Tables C29-C32 for all moderated mediation results).

Discussion

Overall, advantaged group members rated challenging voice and voicers lower than disadvantaged racial group members did. Advantaged racial group membership predicted poorer responses than disadvantaged racial group members regardless of the race of the voicer. Patterns of results indicate that both advantaged and disadvantaged racial group member recipients tended to rate challenging racial minority voicers more highly than White voicers; however, this difference only reached significance for disadvantaged racial group member recipients. While advantaged racial group members consistently rated challenging voice and voicers lower than disadvantaged racial group members, their ratings of White versus racial minority voicers did not significantly differ. These results provide support for *Hypothesis 4*.

Unlike in Studies 1–2, empathy did not explain these results (providing no support for *Hypothesis 3*). Investigation of intersectional disadvantage provided partial support for *Hypothesis 6b*, as lower SES amplified negative effects of advantaged racial group membership on feedback and feedback provider ratings. Notably, the effects of SES were the opposite of those observed in Study 2. The reason for this switch in direction, as well as the mechanisms that explain this effect in general, are unclear. Moderated mediation effects through empathy (and all threat variables) were insignificant.

Study 3b

The study design and procedure were the same as in Study 3, with one exception. The previous participant's objection to the task was delivered in a less "severe" way—that is, delivered in a more tempered, indirect and hesitant manner. This change was made in order to test for robustness of Study 1–3 findings to changes in how challenging voice is delivered. Perceptions of difference in severity between the two different versions of voice were tested independently using measures of *perceived verbal threat* (Daly & Wiemann, 2014) and *speech intensity* (Hamilton & Stewart, 1993) from the communications literature prior to use

in this study. The "low severity" version of voice used in this study was rated as significantly less intense and threatening than that used in Studies 2 and 3a by an independent sample of participants.

Participants, Design, and Procedure

To participate in the study, 200 working adults in the US over the age of 18 were recruited on Connect Research. The sample was stratified such that approximately half were White individuals ($N = 105$) and half were from a mix of racial minority groups including Black, Hispanic and Asian individuals ($N = 95$).

Measures

All measures were the same as in Study 3a.

Analyses

First, mean differences between advantaged group member and disadvantaged group member responses were tested overall, and then tested for samples restricted to those who received feedback from racial minority voicers and White voicers, respectively. Second, mediation analysis was conducted to investigate the extent to which empathy (as opposed to threat) explained differences in response. Third, moderating and moderated mediation effects of voicer race were tested. Fourth, effects of subjective SES were tested for both the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and voice response and the indirect relationship through empathy.

Results

Overall, mean differences in voice and voicer ratings between groups were significant, with advantaged group members responding significantly worse than disadvantaged racial group members in their ratings of: *voicer* ($F(1, 198) = 7.48$, $p = .007$)), *voicer personality* ($F(1,198) = 6.07$, $p = .015$), *respect for the voicer* ($F(1,198) = 6.49$, $p = .012$), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* ($F(1,198) = 4.8$, $p = .03$). This trend

persisted when the sample was restricted to recipients who received voice from racial minorities: *voice* ($F(1,99) = 5.40$, $p = .022$)), *voicer personality* ($F(1,99) = 6.21$, $p = .014$)), *respect for the voicer* ($F(1,99) = 5.58$, $p = .02$)), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* ($F(1,99) = 4.00$, $p = .048$)). However, the significance of differences in response went away when the voicers were White. (See all results in Tables C34-C36 and Figures C15-C16). I explored this finding by examining differences in ratings of racial minorities versus White voicers, first for advantaged racial group members and then for disadvantaged racial group members. Findings indicate that neither advantaged racial group members nor disadvantaged racial group members rated voicers significantly differently based on race (see Tables C37-C38). However, as is apparent based on the bar graphs in Figure C17-C18, the trend for both advantaged and disadvantaged group members was to rate racial minority providers better. Disadvantaged group members gave racial minority voicers a relatively higher boost—but they still rated White voicers better than advantaged racial group member recipients did.

Overall, mediation analyses indicate that decreased empathy explains lower ratings by advantaged group member recipients of voicers while threat (measured separately as feelings of threat, feelings of inferiority, or feelings of rejection) does not. When feedback was received by a *racial minority voicer*, advantaged group membership decreased ratings of *voice* through *empathy* ($B = -.695$, $SE = .256$, *95CI* [-1.22, -.21]), as it did for ratings of *voicer personality* ($B = -.473$, $SE = .174$, *95CI* [-.832, -.155]), *respect for the voicer* ($B = -.663$, $SE = .245$,*95CI* [-1.16, -.196]), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* ($B = -.799$, $SE = .285$, *95CI* [-1.37, -.246]). See Table C39-C40 for all mediation results. Feelings of threat, inferiority, and rejection were not significant mediators of the relationship between advantaged group membership and response to voice (all were separately tested in parallel to empathy as different operationalizations of threat). Findings provide support for *Hypotheses 3*

and 4, which state that empathy will mediate the relationship between advantaged group membership and response outcomes and that it will have a stronger mediating effect than threat. The same trend occurred when the sample was restricted to recipients of voice from White voicers, providing further support for the idea that explanations of ingroup favorability do not fully explain advantaged group member response. The fact that hypothesized mediation predictions held true both in the context of racial minority voicers and White voicers supports *Hypothesis 5*.

The moderating effect of subjective SES on the direct and indirect relationship of advantaged group membership on voice and voicer ratings was tested using SPSS PROCESS (Models 4 and 7). The negative effect of advantaged group membership, controlling for voicer race, was significant at *average* and *high* SES (1 SD above the mean) levels, but *not* low SES (1 SD below the mean) levels. The magnitude of the negative effect also grew at higher levels of SES. For example, effects on *voice appraisal* ratings were as follows: *low SES* (*B* = -.275, SE = .36, *95CI* [-.99, .44]), *average SES* (*B* = -.73, *SE* = .25, *95CI* [-1.3, -.23]), and *high SES* (*B* = -1.18, *SE* = .35, *95CI* [-1.88, -.48]). The same was true for ratings of *voicer personality*, *respect for the voicer,* and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer*. Moderation effects are reported in Table C41. Simple slopes graphs helping visualize moderation effects are visible in Figures C19-C22.

These findings lend some support for *Hypothesis 6a*. Moderated mediation analyses exploring whether these effects can be explained through changes in empathy yielded mostly insignificant results (see Table C42). However, the indirect effect of advantaged racial group membership x SES through empathy on ratings of *respect for the provider* was significant (*B* = -.23, *SE* = .11, *95CI* [-.45, -.01]).

Discussion

Results of Study 3b indicate that advantaged group member recipients may respond poorly to challenging voice regarding racial inequality even when it is delivered in a more hesitant, indirect, and regulated way. This result provides support for *Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2a* and shows that results are robust to changes in voice severity. Where significant mean differences in threat appeared, disadvantaged group members actually felt worse, experiencing greater feelings of rejection when receiving voice from other racial minorities. These findings are consistent with the idea that threat may not be the primary driver of differences between advantaged racial group member and disadvantaged racial group member responses to voice. Feelings of solidarity and belonging stemming from experiences of disadvantage, in particular, may be driving greater feelings of threat among disadvantaged racial group member recipients.

Advantaged group members also responded more poorly than disadvantaged group member recipients regardless of the race of the voicer (supporting *Hypothesis 5*), while differences in advantaged versus disadvantaged group member ratings were greater (and more consistently significant) when voicers were racial minorities. These differences were driven mostly by disadvantaged racial group member recipient rating of racial minority voicers higher than White voicers. Empathy helped explain overall differences in advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group member response, while threat did not (providing support for *Hypothesis 2b* and *Hypothesis 3*).

Subjective SES was a significant moderator of the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and all voice response variables, with lower SES levels predicting no significant effect of advantaged group membership, and average and high SES levels predicting progressively more negative effects of advantaged group membership on response variables. However, empathy did not consistently explain these effects. Results

provide partial support for *Hypothesis 6a*. This moderating effect of SES is consistent with Study 2.

Study 4a–b Methods

Studies 4a and 4b build upon previous studies to test for replication of results and robustness of results to assumptions regarding *race of the voicer* and *severity of voice delivery*. They also examine whether effects of advantaged racial group membership persist after taking anti-egalitarian beliefs into account.

Participants, Design, and Procedure

Over 300 White and racial minority participants were recruited from the student subject pool in a large university in the Western US. Participants from both advantaged and disadvantaged groups were randomly assigned to one of four conditions in a 2 x 2 experimental design. Two aspects of the feedback interaction were manipulated: a) *race of the voicer* (White and racial minority) and b) *severity of voice delivery* (high and low). Study 4a includes the sub-sample who received "high severity" voice, while Study 4b includes the sub-sample that received "low severity voice".

A sample size of 400 was targeted to allow for powerful direct and indirect effects of advantaged group membership at both high and low levels of voice severity and for those who received voice from White versus racial minority voicers. However, due to a combination of lower enrollment than expected and slight attrition between Part 1 and Part 2, only 282 participants were included in the final sample: Advantaged (White) = 117, Disadvantaged (Black, Hispanic, Indigenous, Asian) = 165. Study 4a included 142 participants and Study 4b included 140 participants.

In Part 1 of the study, all participants filled out measures of race and racial identification, subjective SES, and anti-egalitarian beliefs. In Part 2, they engaged in the same threat-inducing task used in Studies 1–3b. This part of the study has almost the same

procedure as previous studies. However, in an effort to increase perceptions and feelings of threat, the previous participant's objection was delivered as if it were from another participant taking the study at the same time in the lab. Across studies 1–3b, average self-reported feelings of threat for both Advantaged and Disadvantaged group member recipients were fairly low: between 1.4–1.8 on a 7-point Likert scale. By using an in-person experimental setting for the lab study, I aimed to see if greater feelings of threat would be induced to better reflect a real life scenario and to more accurately test for predicted main effects and mediation effects.

Measures

Measures are the same as Studies 3a and 3b, with one exception: measures of *anti-egalitarian beliefs*. Controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs can help confirm the extent to which any threat experienced when facing challenging feedback regarding racial equality depends on pre-existing beliefs. *Anti-egalitarian beliefs* were measured using the anti-egalitarianism and pro-dominance subscales from Ho et al.'s 2012 two-dimension SDO measure (Ho et al., 2012). Each subscale includes eight items, with the egalitarianism subscale including items such as "Group equality should be our ideal" and "It is unjust to try to make groups equal." SDO-E was included as a control variable in analyses to examine whether lower ratings of challenging voice and voicers by advantaged group members persisted even after taking these beliefs into account. While SDO was long measured just as a dominance scale, pro-dominance beliefs and anti-egalitarian beliefs, while highly correlated, may not be the same thing. More people may have some level of belief that equality should not always be created, or that inequality is inevitable, than those who have beliefs that one group should always dominate. For this reason, SDO-E was selected to measure the degree to which individuals support or promote equality.

Analyses

Analyses were similar to Studies 1–3b. First, one-way ANOVAs were conducted to test for the significance of mean differences between advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group members in response to challenging voice regarding racial inequality. This was done overall and then separately for samples restricted to those who received voice from a White voicer and those who received voice from a racial minority voicer—first at high severity levels and then at low severity levels. Second, the mediating effects of feelings of threat and empathy were tested as parallel mediators of the relationship between advantaged group membership and response outcomes—first at high severity levels and then at low severity levels. Third, SES was tested as both a moderator of the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and voice response and the indirect relationship between advantaged group membership on voice response through threat and empathy (using SPSS PROCESS Models 1 and 7). This was done overall and separately for voice delivered at high and low severity levels. SDO-E was a control variable in all analyses. Lastly, three-way interactions between advantaged group membership x provider race x voice severity and advantaged group membership x SES x voice severity were explored in order to ascertain whether the impact of key moderators depends on the boundary condition of voice severity.

Study 4a Results

As predicted, mean differences between advantaged versus disadvantaged racial group members were significant, indicating that advantaged racial group members tend to rate challenging voice regarding racial inequality, and those who deliver it, worse than disadvantaged racial group members (providing support for *Hypothesis 1*). Mean differences between advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members were significant for most response outcomes, including for ratings of *voice* ($F(1, 138) = 7.163$, $p = .008$), *voicer personality* ($F(1,138) = 3.86$, $p = .052$), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* ($F(1,138) = 7.084$, $p = .009$). See Tables C47-49 for all results of tests of mean differences

both overall sample, well as for sub-samples based on voicer race. Regressions were conducted to see if advantaged group membership significantly predicted lower response ratings after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs - it did (see Tables C50-53). Differences in ratings of White vs. racial minority voicers by both advantaged and disadvantaged group members were explored. Differences in ratings of voicers by race were insignificant for both disadvantaged and advantaged racial group member recipients (see Tables C54-55).

Tests of mediating effects of feelings of threat and empathy, as parallel mediators and while controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs (SDO-E), lent support for *Hypotheses 3 and 4.* Empathy was a significant mediator of the relationship between advantaged group membership and voice response, but feelings of threat were not. For those who received voice delivered at *high severity* only (N = 140), advantaged group membership decreased ratings of all response variables through empathy. Indirect effects of advantaged group membership through empathy were as follows: *voice* (B = -.44, SE = .164, *95CI* [-.762, -.118]), *voicer personality* (B = -.268, SE = .105, *95CI* [-.48, -.06]), *respect for the voicer* (B = -.396, SE = .149, *95CI* [-.696, -.113]), and *willingness to befriend/work with the voicer* (B = -.472, SE = .178, *95CI* [-.821, -.120]). Mediation results are reported in Table C56.

Tests of the moderating effect of SES on the direct and indirect relationships between advantaged group membership and voice response yielded mixed findings. Because no significant differences were found in ratings based on voicer race in prior analyses, moderation and moderated mediation analyses were conducted separately based on severity of feedback delivery only. Overall, SES was not a significant moderator of the direct relationship between advantaged group membership and response variables at either high or low severity levels (see Table C57). However, it was a significant moderator of the indirect relationship between advantaged group membership and voice response outcomes. At high severity levels, the interaction between SES and advantaged group membership had

significant effects on empathy levels (and not threat levels). Higher SES was consistently associated with decreased empathy. The effect of advantaged group membership on empathy at average reported SES levels (6.3) was b = -.593 (p = .015). At 1 SD above the mean, the negative effect of advantaged group membership was amplified (b = -.953, p = .004). At 1 SD below the mean, advantaged group membership did not have a significant effect on empathy (b = -.233, p = .509). For all response outcomes, the moderating effect of SES on the indirect relationship between advantaged group membership and feedback response outcomes through empathy was significant at mean SES levels and high SES levels (1 SD above the mean), but not at low SES (1 SD below the mean). Higher SES amplified the negative effect of advantaged group membership. These results persisted after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs. See all moderated mediation results in Table C58-C61. The results need to be interpreted with caution because the index of moderated mediation sometimes had a confidence interval that included zero. However, because the effects at specific values of SES at average and high levels consistently had confidence intervals that did not include zero, and the direction of the effect was the same across response variables, this may still lend some support for *Hypothesis 6a.*

Study 4b Results

Within the context of less severe challenging voice, there was no significant difference between advantaged and disadvantaged group member response (see Tables C63-C65). Differences remained insignificant for all response variables even after controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs (see Tables C66-69). Further analyses to compare differences in ratings of White vs. racial minority voicers also yielded insignificant results. Differences in ratings of voicers based on race were insignificant for both Advantaged and Disadvantaged racial group member recipients (see Table C70-71). Lastly, SES was not a significant moderator of either the direct or indirect relationship between advantaged group membership

and all response outcomes (see Tables C72-C76). In contrast to Study 4a, no hypotheses were supported. These results indicate that findings may be sensitive to challenging voice severity.

Study 4 Three-way interactions

Three-way interactions were run to further examine the extent to which advantaged group membership effects on voice response are shaped by voice severity, voicer race, and intersectional disadvantage (SES) of voice recipients. While three-way interactions between advantaged group membership x voicer race x voice severity were not significant, a consistent pattern arose. In the context of high voice severity, the gap between advantaged and disadvantaged group member voice response was similar for both racial minority and White feedback providers. However, at low severity levels, the gap between advantaged group member and disadvantaged group member ratings for racial minority providers in particular was markedly reduced.

Similarly, while three-way interactions between advantaged group membership x SES x voicer race did not yield consistently significant results, an interesting pattern emerged (see Tables C77-C78). When voice was delivered with lower levels of severity, no significant findings arose. However, when delivered with high severity, SES operated differently to influence the gap between advantaged group member and disadvantaged group member ratings depending on the race of the voicer. When voicers were racial minorities, disadvantaged racial group member recipients rated voicers similarly regardless of their own SES. However, advantaged racial group members rated voicers better at higher SES levels. However, when voicers were White, the effect of higher SES flipped such that higher SES of advantaged group member recipient predicted poorer ratings of the voicer. When voicers were White, the SES of disadvantaged racial group members also impacted their response. Disadvantaged racial group members at higher SES levels rated White voicers more highly

than disadvantaged racial group members at lower SES levels. A simple slopes plot for the outcome of voicer personality is provided in Figure C26 (this three-way interaction approached significance at $p = .115$).

Discussion

Overall, findings from Studies 1–4 indicate that both advantaged and disadvantaged racial group members may be threatened by challenging voice regarding racial inequality, but that advantaged racial group members consistently respond worse (*Hypothesis 1*). Interestingly, when significant differences in threat levels did arise, they were usually in the context of disadvantaged group members receiving voice from other racial minorities—and this did not impact final outcomes. Overall, mediation analyses support the idea that decreased ratings of advantaged racial group members compared to disadvantaged racial group members are at least partially explained by empathy—and that the mediating effect of empathy is stronger than that of threat (providing support for *Hypotheses 3 and 4*).

Advantaged racial group members tended to rate challenging voice and voicers more poorly than disadvantaged group members regardless of voicer race, supporting the idea that simple explanations of ingroup versus outgroup identification do not sufficiently explain the poorer response of advantaged racial group members. Patterns of results indicate that advantaged group members may often rate racial minority voicers better (perhaps because they are perceived as more credible). However, results from Study 4 indicate that gaps in advantaged group member versus disadvantaged group member response may be sensitive to the severity with which voice is delivered.

Overall, intersectional advantage in the form of SES did seem to result in varied effects of advantaged racial group membership on voice response. In Studies 2, 3b, and 4, average and high levels of subjective SES were associated with progressively more negative effects of advantaged group membership. (However, in Study 3b the effect was in the

opposite direction, with low SES amplifying the negative effect of advantaged racial group membership.) Overall, moderated mediation results indicate that lower ratings by high SES advantaged racial group members may be explained by reductions in empathy (providing support for *Hypothesis 6a*). Tests of three-way interactions between advantaged group membership x SES x voicer race indicate that SES may operate differently for advantaged group members depending on the race of the voicer. When voicers are racial minorities, it seems that higher SES amplifies the negative effect of advantaged racial group membership. However, when voicers are White, higher SES seems to dampen this effect. These variations in advantaged racial group member response at different SES levels further support the idea that the worsened response of advantaged group members compared to disadvantaged group members cannot be explained simply by social identity theory and assumptions about ingroup favoritism (and bias against outgroups).

Similarly, even though anti-egalitarian beliefs had a significant, direct negative effect on all response outcomes in both studies 4a and 4b, anti-egalitarian beliefs were controlled for in all results reported here. This indicates that even advantaged racial group member with moderate to weak anti-egalitarian beliefs may still respond worse to challenging voice regarding racial inequality than disadvantaged group member recipients.

Coupled with significant mediation findings, results indicate that empathy related to the experience of disadvantage may be distinctly important in explaining worsened response of advantaged racial group members to challenging voice regarding social inequality. Notably, these findings go beyond explanations rooted in mainstream social identity theory or dominant group psychology.

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APPENDIX C

Paper 2 Figures & Tables

Table C1

Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables

Measure	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1. Advantaged Membership	.48	.50	__					
2. Threat Exposure	4.87	2.05	-.14*	__				
3. Voice appraisal	4.50	1.47	-.19**	.74**	__			
4. Voicer personality	4.57	1.85	-.17**	.77**	.81**	__		
5. Voicer respect	3.91	1.77	-.21**	.79**	.81**	.82**	__	
6. Voicer relationship	3.00	1.80	-.19**	.44**	.62**	.60**	.65**	__

Note. N=284. M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table C2

Study 1 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Challenging and Supportive Groups on Response Variables

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(282)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Challenging	6.23	.92	15.31	.00***	1.81
	Supportive	3.48	1.94			
Voicer personality	Challenging	5.14	.98	8.31	.00***	.98
	Supportive	3.84	1.60			
Voicer respect	Challenging	5.30	1.19	7.33	.00***	.87
	Supportive	3.82	2.10			
Voicer relationship	Challenging	4.76	1.28	9.49	.00***	1.13
	Supportive	3.02	1.77			

Note. N=284. M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. ***$p < .001$.

Table C3

Study 1 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Challenging and Supportive Conditions on Response Variables (Advantaged Racial Group Recipients)

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(134)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Supportive	6.28	.89	13.20	.00***	2.29
	Challenging	3.02	1.80			
Voicer personality	Supportive	4.90	.75	6.18	.00***	1.08
	Challenging	3.58	1.56			
Voicer respect	Supportive	5.17	1.11	6.25	.00***	1.09
	Challenging	3.39	2.02			
Voicer relationship	Supportive	4.51	1.29	7.61	.01**	1.32
	Challenging	2.61	1.58			

Note. N=136, M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C4

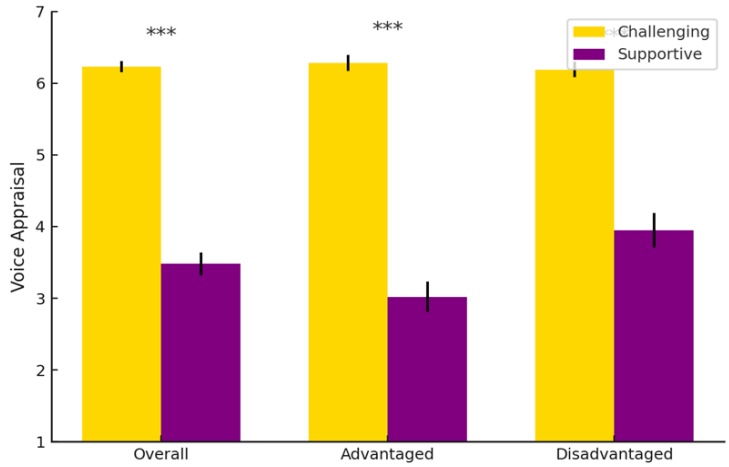
Study 1 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Challenging and Supportive Conditions on Response Variables (Disadvantaged Racial Group Recipients)

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(146)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Supportive	6.19	.96	8.92	.00***	1.44
	Challenging	3.95	1.98			
Voicer personality	Supportive	5.34	1.10	5.54	.01**	.89
	Challenging	4.12	1.60			
Voicer respect	Supportive	5.41	1.25	4.10	.00***	.67
	Challenging	4.26	2.09			
Voicer relationship	Supportive	4.97	1.25	5.91	.00***	.96
	Challenging	3.45	1.86			

Note. N=148. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Figure C1

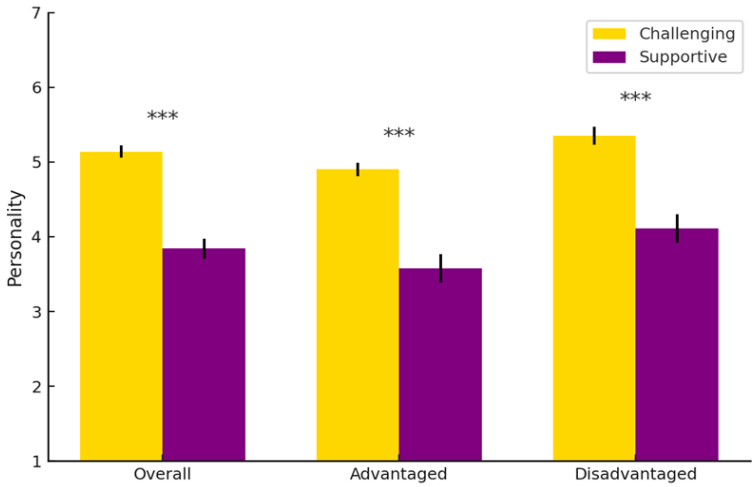
Study 1 Mean Differences in Voice Appraisal Between Challenging vs. Supportive Conditions



Note. $N = 284$. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** p<.001.

Figure C2

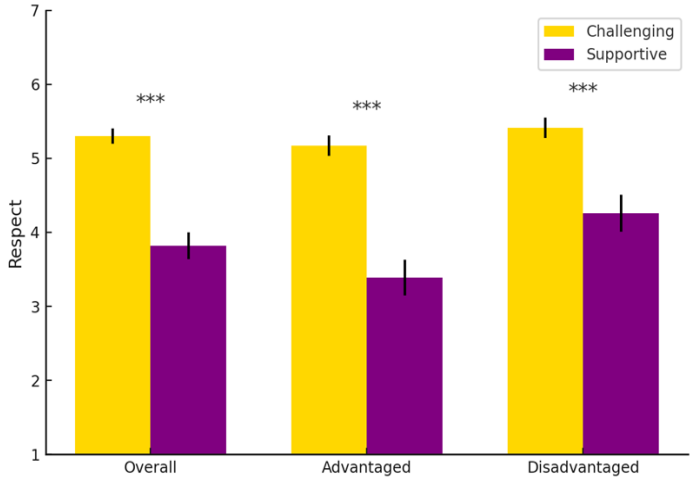
Study 1 Mean Differences in Voicer Personality Ratings: Challenging vs. Supportive Conditions



Note. $N = 284$. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** p<.001.

Figure C3

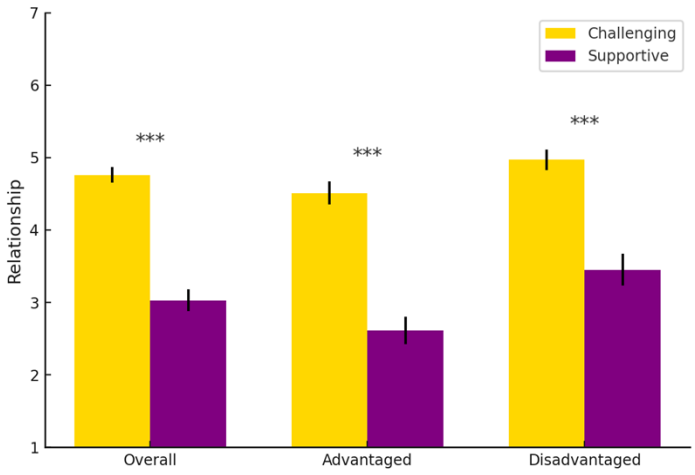
Study 1 Mean Differences in Voicer Respect Ratings: Challenging vs. Supportive Conditions



Note. $N = 284$. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** p<.001.

Figure C4

Study 1 Mean Differences in Voicer Relationship Ratings: Challenging vs. Supportive Conditions



Note. $N = 284$. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** p<.001.

Table C5

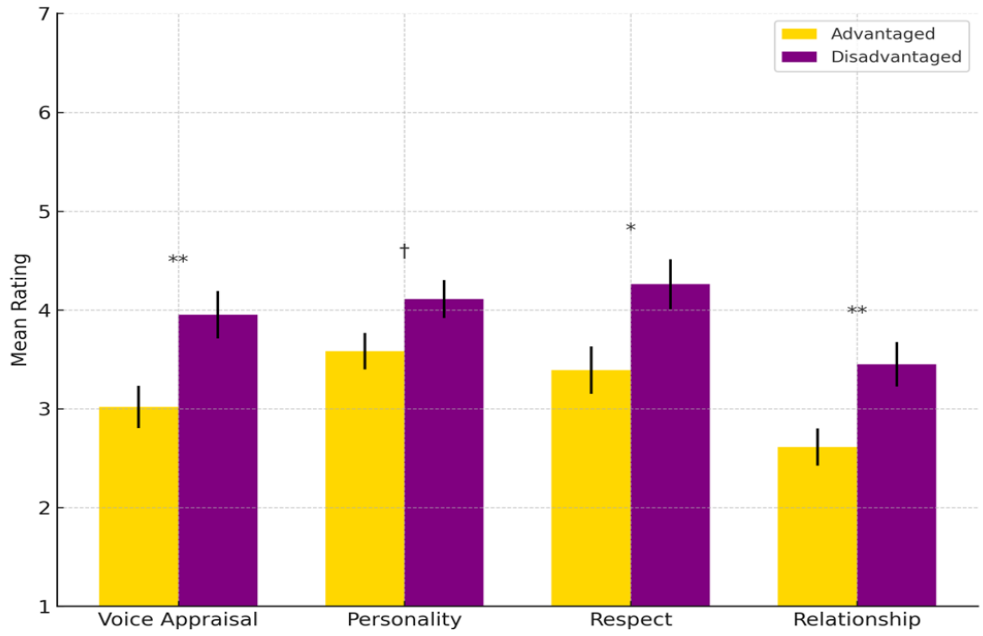
Study 1 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Advantaged and Disadvantaged Racial Groups on Response Variables in the Challenging Condition

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(138)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	3.95	1.98	2.91	.61(ns)	.49
	Advantaged	3.02	1.80			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.12	1.60	1.97	.88(ns)	.34
	Advantaged	3.58	1.56			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.26	2.09	2.49	.96(ns)	.42
	Advantaged	3.39	2.02			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	3.45	1.86	2.86	.18(ns)	.49
	Advantaged	2.61	1.58			

Note. n = 140, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns = Not Significant.

Figure C5

Study 1 Mean Differences in Response Variable Ratings Between Advantaged and Disadvantaged Groups in the Challenging Condition



Note. n = 140. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. † p<.10. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table C6

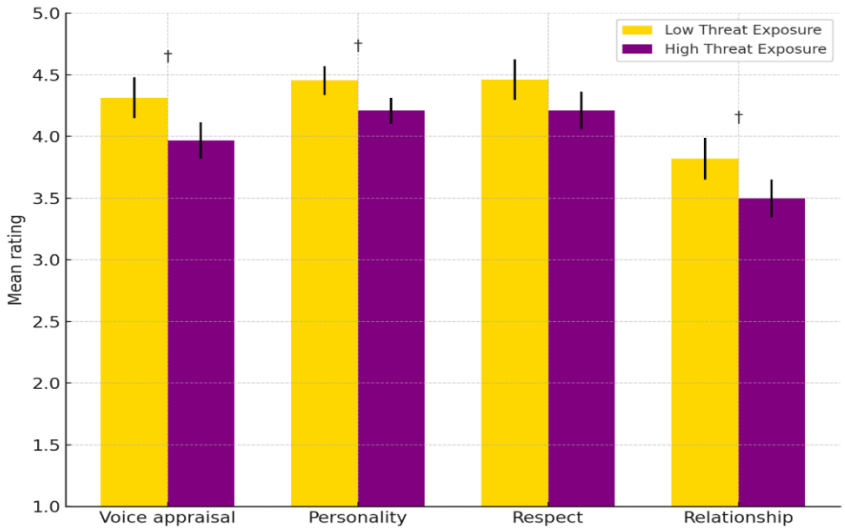
Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables

Measure	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
1. Advantaged Membership	.46	.50	__										
2. Affirmation Condition	.52	.50	-.02	__									
3. Voice appraisal	4.14	1.93	-.25**	-.09	__								
4. Personality	4.32	1.37	-.24**	-.09	.81**	__							
5. Respect	4.33	1.93	-.23**	-.07	.89**	.81**	__						
6. Relationship	3.65	1.98	-.21**	-.08	.84**	.82**	.83**	__					
7. Empathy	3.34	1.83	-.16**	-.10	.79**	.73**	.78**	.79**	__				
8. Feelings of threat (broad)	1.84	1.20	-.08	-.10	.15*	.11	.10	.14**	.23**	__			
9. Feelings of inferiority	1.59	1.12	-.12*	-.12*	.13*	.12*	.10	.14**	.24**	.70**	__		
10. Feelings of rejection	1.66	1.08	-.11	-.04	.04	.02	.04	.02	.17**	.70**	.77**	__	
11. SES	5.15	1.52	-.05	.12*	-.01	-.03	-.01	-.03	-.04	-.03	-.01	-.01	__

Note. $N = 299$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. SES = Socioeconomic Status. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Figure C6

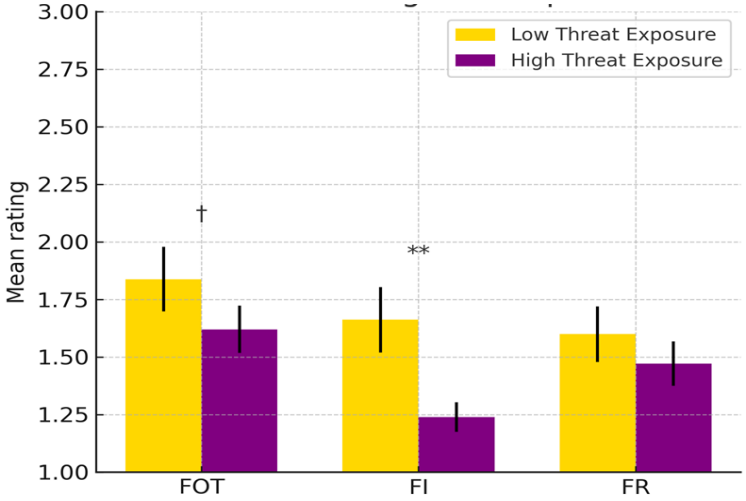
Study 2 Mean Ratings of Voice Outcomes by Threat Exposure (Low Vs. High)



Note. N = 299. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. † p <.10. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure C7

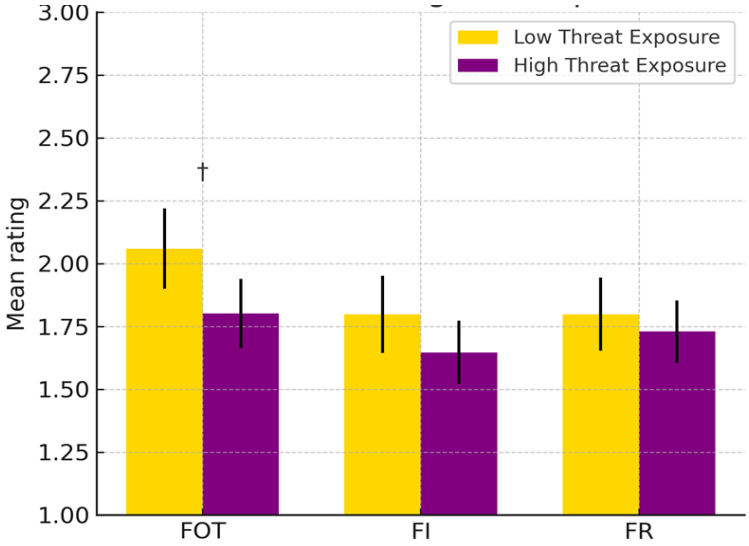
Study 2 Mean Differences in Feelings of Threat, Inferiority, and Rejection Between High and Low Threat Exposure Conditions Among Advantaged Group Members



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. † p <.10. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure C8

Study 2 Mean Differences in Feelings of Threat, Inferiority, and Rejection Between High and Low Threat Exposure Conditions Among Disadvantaged Group Members



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. † p <.10.

Table C7

Study 2 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Overall Scores Between Low and High Threat Exposure Groups

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(297)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.31	2.01	1.56	.05(ns)	.18
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.97	1.84			
Voicer personality	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.45	1.41	1.54	.31(ns)	.17
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	4.21	1.32			
Voicer respect	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.46	1.97	1.14	.29(ns)	.13
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	4.21	1.89			
Voicer relationship	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	3.82	2.04	1.42	.21(ns)	.16
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.50	1.91			

Note. N=299, M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns = Not Significant.

Table C8

Study 2 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Low and High Threat Exposure Among Advantaged Racial Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(135)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	3.83	2.08	1.24	.20(ns)	.21
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.41	1.92			
Voicer personality	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.02	1.42	.41	.57(ns)	.07
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.92	1.35			
Voicer respect	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	3.97	2.09	.77	.16(ns)	.13
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.71	1.83			
Voicer relationship	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	3.35	2.03	.91	.69(ns)	.16
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.04	1.95			

Note. n =137, M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns = Not Significant.

Table C9

Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Low and High Threat Exposure Among Disadvantaged Racial Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(160)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.74	1.85	1.16	.11(ns)	.18
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	4.42	1.65			
Voicer personality	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.83	1.30	1.96	.72(ns)	.30
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	4.44	1.25			
Voicer respect	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.90	1.77	1.00	.58(ns)	.16
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	4.61	1.85			
Voicer relationship	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	4.23	1.97	1.24	.27(ns)	.21
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.86	1.81			

Note. n = 162, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns = Not Significant.

Table C10

Study 2 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Low vs. High Threat Exposure Response Ratings Among Advantaged Racial Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(135)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Feelings of threat	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	1.84	1.15	1.26	.03*	.22
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	1.62	.85			
Feelings of rejection	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	1.60	.99	.83	.10(ns)	.14
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	1.25	.58			
Feelings of inferiority	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	1.66	1.17	2.72	.21(ns)	.47
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	1.23	.53			
Empathy	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	3.21	1.94	1.22	.21(ns)	.50
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	2.82	1.77			

Note. n = 137, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, ns = Not Significant. *$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C11

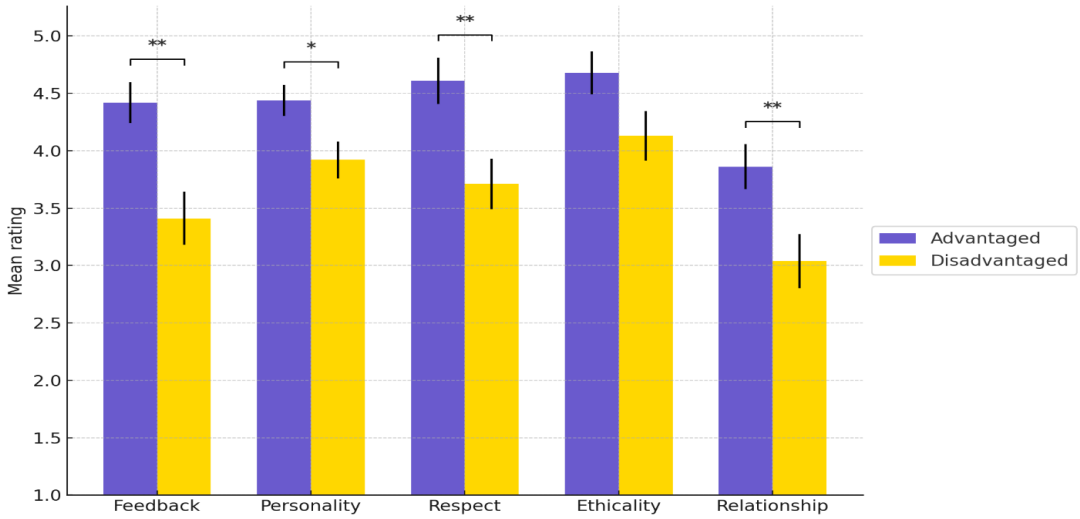
Study 2 Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Disadvantaged Group Member Threat & Empathy Ratings Under Low vs. High Threat Exposure

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(160)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Feelings of threat	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	2.06	1.41	1.22	.12(ns)	.19
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	1.80	1.27			
Feelings of rejection	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	1.80	1.28	.36	.25(ns)	.06
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	1.73	1.14			
Feelings of inferiority	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	1.80	1.34	.77	.13(ns)	1.19
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	1.65	1.16			
Empathy	Low Threat Exposure (SA)	3.82	1.75	1.37	.57(ns)	.22
	High Threat Exposure (No SA)	3.44	1.76			

Note. n = 162*,* M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, ns = Not Significant.

Figure C9

Study 2 Mean Differences in Outcome Variables Between Advantaged and Disadvantaged Racial Group Members Under High Threat Exposure



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table C12

Study 2 Hierarchical Regression Predicting Voice Appraisal, Provider Personality, Respect, and Relationship Ratings

Predictor	Voice Appraisal		Provider Personality		Provider Respect		Provider Relationship	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Advantage group membership	-.27***	-.27***	-.20*	-.19*	-.24**	-.24**	-.21**	-.21**
Voicer race assumption		.06		.06		-.01		.03
R^2	.08	.08	.04	.04	.06	.06	.05	.05
ΔR^2	—	.00	—	.00	—	.00	—	.00
F	12.29***	6.40*	6.02*	3.27*	9.11**	4.53*	7.32**	3.68*

Note. Group Membership was coded as 1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table C13

Study 2 Standardized Indirect Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Threat through Response

	Effects of IV on Threat (a)		Effect of Threat on DV (b)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a x b)		95% CI	
DV	*B*	*SE*	B	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Voice appraisal	-.20	.14	.01	.06	-.47**	.14	.01	.02	-.01	.05
Voicer personality	-.20	.14	-.07	.05	-.34**	.11	.01	.01	-.01	.05
Voicer respect	-.20	.14	-.14*	.06	-.44**	.14	.03	.02	-.01	.08
Voicer relationship	-.20	.14	-.08	.06	-.35*	0.14	.02	.02	-.01	.06

Note. IV = Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). *B* = regression coefficient (standardized direct effect). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table C14

Study 2 Standardized Indirect Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Empathy through Response

	Effects of IV on Empathy (a)		Effect of Empathy on DV (b)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a x b)		95% CI	
DV	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Voice Appraisal	-.60**	.21	.82***	.04	-.47**	.14	-.71	.26	-1.22	-.20
Voicer Personality	-.60**	.21	.54***	.03	-.34**	.11	-.32	.12	-.55	.10
Voicer Respect	-.60**	.21	.83***	.04	-.44**	.14	-.50	.18	-.83	-.15
Voicer Relationship	-.60**	.21	.85***	.04	-.35*	.14	-.51	.18	-.87	-.16

Note. IV = Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). *B* = regression coefficient (standardized direct effect). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Table C15

Study 2 Simple Slopes Analysis of the Effect on Feedback at Low, Average, and High Levels of Socioeconomic Status (SES)

	Indirect Effects of Advantage on Feedback through Empathy		95% CI	
	β	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Low SES (-1SD)	-.25	.21	-.68	.15
Average SES	-.46	.17	-.80	-.13
High SES (+1SD)	-.89	.26	-1.41	-.39
Index	-.21	.11	-.42	-.00

Note. IV = Group Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table C16

Study 2 Simple Slopes Analysis of the Effect on Personality Ratings at Low, Average, and High Levels of Socioeconomic Status (SES)

	Indirect Effects of IV on DV through Empathy		95% CI	
	β	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Low SES (-1SD)	-.16	.14	-.44	.11
Average SES	-.30	.11	-.53	-.08
High SES (+1SD)	-.58	.18	-.95	-.25
Index	-.14	.07	-.28	-.00

Note. IV = Group Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table C17

Study 2 Simple Slopes Analysis of the Effect on Respect Ratings by Level of Socioeconomic Status (SES)

	Indirect Effects of IV on DV through Empathy		95% CI	
	β	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Low SES (-1SD)	-.25	.21	-.65	.16
Average SES	-.46	.17	-.80	-.12
High SES (+1SD)	-.88	.26	-1.39	-.36
Index	-.21	.10	-.41	-.00

Note. IV = Group Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table C18

Study 2 Simple Slopes Analysis of the Effect on Willingness to Befriend/Work with by Level of Socioeconomic Status (SES)

	Indirect Effects of IV on DV through Empathy		95% CI	
	β	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Low SES (-1SD)	-.26	.22	-.68	.16
Average SES	-.48	.18	-.83	-.13
High SES (+1SD)	-.92	.28	-1.48	-.37
Index	-.22	.11	-.44	-.01

Note. IV = Group Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table C19

Study 3a Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables (N=197)

Measure	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
1. Advantage			__									
2. Voice appraisal	3.58	1.93	-.13	__								
3. Voicer personality	4.23	1.47	-.10	.78**	__							
4. Voicer respect	4.07	1.97	-.17*	.83**	.87**	__						
5. Voicer relationship	3.52	2.02	-.13	.82**	.84	.91**	__					
6. Empathy	3.10	1.80	-.13	.80**	.77	.83**	.87**	__				
7. Feelings of threat	1.68	1.02	-.07	.02	-.01	-.09	-.07	.00	__			
8. Feelings of inferiority	1.50	0.98	-.03	.10	.08	.04	.06	.11	.50**	__		
9. Feelings of rejection	1.58	1.02	-.04	.04	-.10	-.14	-.10	-.04	.46**	.77**	__	
10. SES	5.19	1.80	.06	.06	.09	.06	.02	.02	.04	.07	.05	__

Note. N = 197, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 2 = Disadvantaged). SES = Socioeconomic status. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table C20

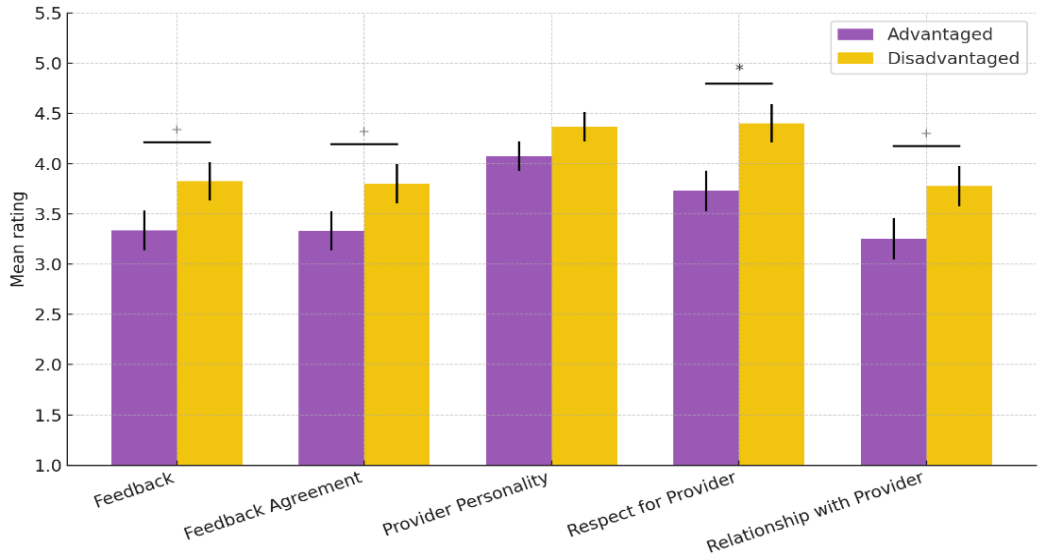
Study 3a Mean Differences Between Advantaged and Disadvantaged Group Members Voice Recipients on Response Variables

Variable	Advantaged Recipients		Disadvantaged Recipients		*t*(195)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
Overall							
Feelings of threat	1.62	.92	1.75	1.11	.92	.18(ns)	.13
Feelings of inferiority	1.47	1.00	1.53	.97	.36	.36(ns)	.05
Feelings of rejection	1.55	.95	1.62	1.08	.48	.31(ns)	.07
Voice appraisal	3.36	1.96	3.82	1.89	.17	.04*	.25
Voicer personality	4.08	1.46	4.37	1.48	1.42	.08(ns)	.48
Voicer respect	3.73	1.98	4.40	1.92	2.41	.01**	.62
Voicer relationship	3.26	2.03	3.78	1.99	1.82	.03*	.26
Racial Minority Voicers							
Feelings of threat	1.62	1.06	1.93	1.25	1.34	.09(ns)	.27
Feelings of inferiority	1.52	1.10	1.53	.99	.03	.49(ns)	.01
Feelings of rejection	1.70	1.12	1.71	1.22	.05	.48(ns)	.01
Voice appraisal	3.50	2.05	3.94	1.84	1.12	.13(ns)	.22
Voicer personality	4.06	1.58	4.57	1.43	1.70	.05(ns)	.34
Voicer respect	3.83	2.08	4.69	1.94	2.14	.02*	.43
Voicer relationship	3.36	2.16	4.04	2.10	1.59	.06(ns)	.32
White Voicers							
Feelings of threat	1.62	.77	1.54	.89	.48	.31(ns)	.10
Feelings of inferiority	1.43	.90	1.52	.96	.48	.32(ns)	.10
Feelings of rejection	1.40	.75	1.50	.89	.58	.28(ns)	.12
Feedback	3.18	1.88	3.69	1.96	1.29	.10(ns)	.26
Voicer personality	4.09	1.36	4.13	1.50	.13	.45(ns)	.03
Voicer respect	3.65	1.90	4.07	1.86	1.09	.14(ns)	.22
Voicer relationship	3.16	1.92	3.47	1.82	.81	.21(ns)	.17

Note. N = 197. *M*= Mean, *SD*= Standard Deviation.*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Figure C10

Study 3a Mean Differences in Outcome Variables Between Advantaged and Disadvantaged Racial Group Members



Note. N = 197. *Note.* Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback"), Voicer Personality (labeled as “Provider Personality”), Respect for the Voicer (labeled as “Respect for the Provider”), and Willingness to Befriend/Work with the Voicer (labeled as “ Relationship with the Provider”). Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement") is an additional measure reported to contrast with appraisal results only. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

† p <.10. * $p < .05$.

Table C21

Study 3a One-Way Analyses of Variance Comparing Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Recipient Response to Racial Minority Voicers

Variable	Disadvantaged		Advantaged		$F(1, 99)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Voice appraisal	3.94	1.84	3.50	2.05	1.26	.01
Voicer personality	4.57	1.43	4.06	1.58	2.88	.03
Voicer respect	4.69	1.94	3.83	2.09	4.57*	.04
Voicer relationship	4.04	2.10	3.36	2.16	2.53	.02

Note. N = 101*, M*= Mean, *SD*= Standard Deviation. **p* < .05 .

Table C22

Study 3a One-Way Analyses of Variance Comparing Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Recipient Response to White Voicers

Variable	Disadvantaged		Advantaged		$F(1, 99)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Voice appraisal	3.69	1.95	3.18	1.88	1.67	.02
Voicer personality	4.12	1.50	4.09	1.36	.02	.00
Voicer respect	4.07	1.86	3.65	1.90	1.19	.01
Voicer relationship	3.47	1.82	3.16	1.92	.65	.01

Note. N = 101*, M*= Mean, *SD*= Standard Deviation.

Table C23

Study 3a Independent Samples t-Test: Advantaged Racial Group Member Recipient Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers

Variable	Voicer Race	*M*	*SD*	*t*(96)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	3.50	2.05	.81	.56(ns)	.16
	White	3.18	1.88			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.06	1.58	-.08	.37(ns)	.02
	White	4.09	1.36			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	3.83	2.08	.45	.66(ns)	.09
	White	3.65	1.90			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	3.36	2.16	.50	.27(ns)	.09
	White	3.17	1.92			

Note. N = 98*, M*= Mean, *SD*= Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant

Table C24

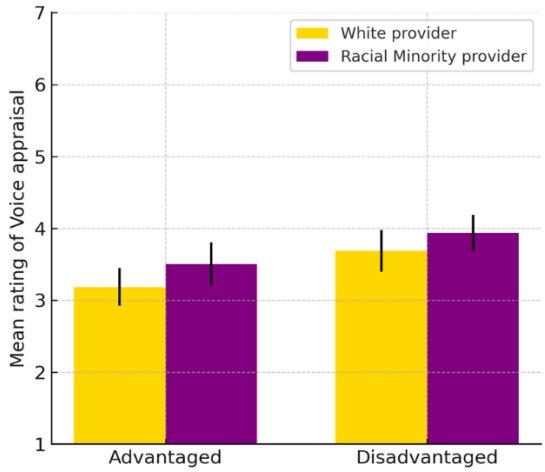
Study 3a Independent Samples t-Test: Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Recipient Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers

Variable	Voicer Race	*M*	*SD*	*t*(97)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	3.94	1.84	.65	.51(ns)	.13
	White	3.69	1.95			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.57	1.43	1.51	.10(ns)	.31
	White	4.12	1.50			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	4.69	1.94	1.61	.27(ns)	.33
	White	4.07	1.86			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	4.04	2.10	1.43	.14(ns)	.29
	White	3.47	1.82			

Note. N = 99*, M*= Mean, *SD*= Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant

Figure C11

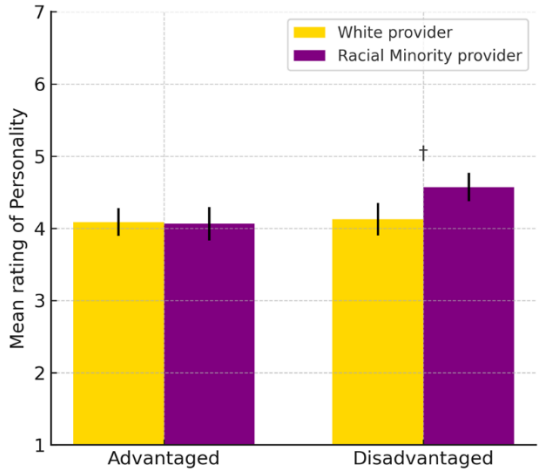
Study 3a Mean Differences in Voice Appraisal Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers Across Advantaged and Disadvantaged Groups



Note. N = 197. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Figure C12

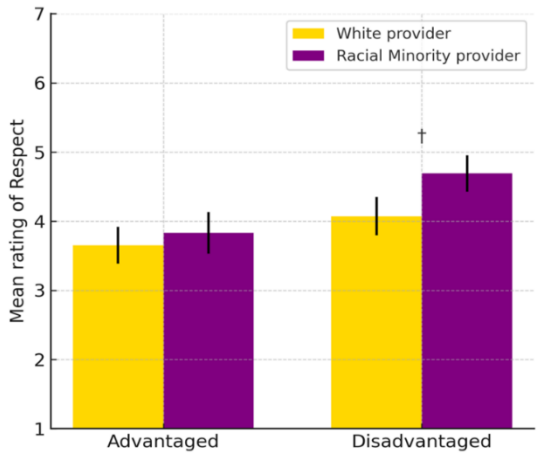
Study 3a Mean Differences in Personality Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers Across Advantaged and Disadvantaged Groups



Note. N = 197. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Figure C13

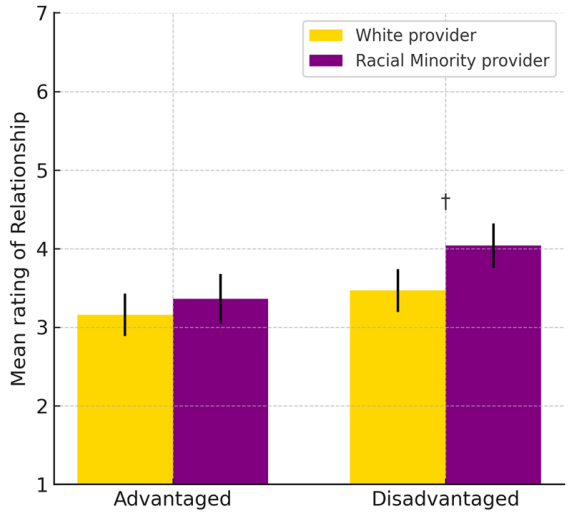
Study 3a Mean Differences in Respect Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers Across Advantaged and Disadvantaged Groups



Note. N = 197. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Figure C14

Study 3a Mean Differences in Relationship Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers Across Advantaged and Disadvantaged Groups



Note. N = 197. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Table C25

Study 3a Standardized Indirect Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Response Outcomes Through Threat

	Effects of IV on Threat (a)		Effect of Threat on DV (b)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a x b)		95% CI	
DV	*B*	*SE*	B	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Voice appraisal	-1.33	.15	.03	.08	-.08	.17	.00	.22	-.03	.02
Voicer personality	-1.33	.15	-.02	.07	.00	.14	.00	.01	-.02	.03
Voicer respect	-1.33	.15	-.18	.08	-.27	.16	.02	.03	-.03	.09
Voicer relationship	-1.33	.15	-.14	.07	-.35*	0.14	.02	.03	-.03	.07

Note. IV = Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). *B* = regression coefficient (standardized direct effect). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit.

Table C26

Study 3a Standardized Indirect Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Response Outcomes Through Empathy

	Effects of IV on Empathy (a)		Effect of Empathy on DV (b)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a x b)		95% CI	
DV	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Voice appraisal	-.47	.25	.85	.05	-.08	.17	-.40	.22	-.83	.03
Voicer personality	-.47	.25	.63	.04	.00	.14	-.30	.16	-.60	.03
Voicer respect	-.47	.25	.90	.04	-.27	.16	-.42	.24	-.89	.04
Voicer relationship	-.47	.25	.98	.04	-.08	.14	-.46	.25	-.94	.03

Note. IV = Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). *B* = regression coefficient (standardized direct effect). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit.

Table C27

Study 3a Moderation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership x Socioeconomic Status (Racial Minority Voicer Sample Only)

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	4.37	.78	2.81	5.93	.001***
	Advantaged Group	-1.38	1.16	-3.69	.92	.24
	SES	-.08	.14	-.37	.20	.56
	Advantaged x SES	.18	.21	-.24	.61	.39
Voicer personality	Intercept	5.18	.60	3.98	6.37	.001***
	Advantaged Group	-1.92	.89	-3.69	-.14	.03*
	SES	-.12	.11	-.34	.10	.29
	Advantaged x SES	.27	.16	-.05	.60	.10
Voicer respect	Intercept	5.55	.81	3.95	7.15	.001***
	Advantaged Group	-2.49	1.19	-4.86	-.12	.03*
	SES	-.17	.15	-.47	.12	.26
	Advantaged x SES	.32	.22	-.12	.76	.15
Voicer relationship	Intercept	5.64	.84	3.96	7.31	.00***
	Advantaged Group	-2.79	1.25	-5.27	-.30	.03*
	SES	-.31	.16	-.63	-.00	.05
	Advantaged x SES	.41	.23	-.04	.87	.07

Note. Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1= Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). SES = Socioeconomic Status. *$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C28

Study 3a Moderation Analysis: Study 3a Moderation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership x Socioeconomic Status (White Voicer Sample Only)

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	4.37	1.03	2.33	6.42	.001***
	Advantaged Group	-2.70	1.27	-5.22	-.18	.04*
	SES	-.12	.18	-.49	.23	.49
	Advantaged x SES	.42	.23	-.03	.87	.07
Voicer personality	Intercept	3.92	.77	2.39	5.46	.001***
	Advantaged Group	-.94	.95	-2.83	.95	.33
	SES	.04	.14	-.23	.31	.79
	Advantaged x SES	.18	.17	-.16	.51	.30
Voicer respect	Intercept	4.13	1.02	2.11	6.16	.001***
	Advantaged Group	-1.82	1.26	-4.32	.67	.15
	SES	-.01	.18	-.37	.34	.94
	Advantaged x SES	.27	.22	-.17	.72	.23
Voicer relationship	Intercept	1.41	.33	.76	2.06	.00***
	Advantaged Group	.27	.45	-.61	1.15	.55
	SES	.06	.06	-.05	.18	.27
	Advantaged x SES	-.08	.08	-.24	.08	.34

Note. Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1= Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). SES = Socioeconomic Status. *$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C29

Study 3a Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership Effect on Voice Appraisal through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.41***	.33	.76	2.06
Advantaged Group Membership	.27	.45	-.61	1.15
SES	.06	.06	-.05	.18
Advantaged × SES	-.08	.08	-.24	.08
Empathy				
Intercept	3.46***	.58	2.32	4.60
Advantaged Group Membership	-1.31	.78	-2.85	.23
SES	-.03	.10	-.23	.18
Advantaged × SES	.16	.14	-.12	.44
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	.94***	.24	.46	1.43
Advantaged Group Membership	-.08	.17	-.42	.25
Feelings of threat	.02	.08	-.14	.19
Empathy	.85***	.05	.76	.94
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.00	.01	-.03	.03
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.00	.01	-.03	.01
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.00	.02	-.06	.03
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.64	.32	-1.29	.00
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.39	.21	-.83	.03
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.15	.31	-.79	.47
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	-.00	.01	-.02	.01
Empathy	.14	.13	-.13	.38

Note. N=197. Voice Appraisal = Dependent variable. Threat = Feelings of threat. Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES. ***$p < .001$.

Table C30

Study 3a Moderated-Mediational Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership Effect on Voicer Personality through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.41***	.33	.76	2.06
Advantaged Group Membership	.27	.45	-.61	1.15
SES	.06	.06	-.05	.18
Advantaged × SES	-.08	.08	-.24	.08
Empathy				
Intercept	3.46***	.58	2.32	4.60
Advantaged Group Membership	-1.31	.78	-2.85	.23
SES	-.03	.10	-.23	.18
Advantaged × SES	.16	.14	-.12	.44
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	2.31***	.20	1.92	2.70
Advantaged Group Membership	-.00	.14	-.27	.27
Feelings of threat	-.02	.07	-.15	.11
Empathy	.63***	.04	.55	.70
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.00	-.03	-.02	.03
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.00	.01	-.02	.03
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.00	.02	-.03	.05
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.47	.24	-.94	.01
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.29	.16	-.60	.03
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.11	.24	-.58	.36
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.00	.01	-.01	.02
Empathy	.10	.10	-.10	.29

Note. N=197. Voicer Personality = Dependent variable. Threat = Feelings of threat

.Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES.

***$p < .001$.

Table C31

Study 3a Moderated-Mediational Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership Effect on Voicer Respect through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.41***	.33	.76	2.06
Advantaged Group Membership	.27	.45	-.61	1.15
SES	.06	.06	-.05	.18
Advantaged × SES	-.08	.08	-.24	.08
Empathy				
Intercept	3.46***	.58	2.32	4.60
Advantaged Group Membership	-1.31	.78	-2.85	.23
SES	-.03	.10	-.23	.18
Advantaged × SES	.16	.14	-.12	.44
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	1.72***	.23	1.27	2.16
Advantaged Group Membership	-.27	.17	-.58	.04
Feelings of threat	-.18	.08	-.33	.03
Empathy	.90***	.04	.81	.99
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.00	-.04	-.07	.09
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.02	.03	-.02	.09
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.05	.04	-.02	.14
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.68	.34	-1.34	-.02
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.42	.23	-.86	.04
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.15	.34	-.84	.52
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.01	.01	-.02	.04
Empathy	.15	.14	-.13	.41

Note. N = 197. Voicer Respect = Dependent variable. Threat = Feelings of threat. Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES. ***$p < .001$.

Table C32

Study 3a Moderated-Mediational Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership Effect on Voicer Relationship through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.41***	.33	.76	2.06
Advantaged Group Membership	.27	.45	-.61	1.15
SES	.06	.06	-.05	.18
Advantaged × SES	-.08	.08	-.24	.08
Empathy				
Intercept	3.46***	.58	2.32	4.60
Advantaged Group Membership	-1.31	.78	-2.85	.23
SES	-.03	.10	-.23	.18
Advantaged × SES	.16	.14	-.12	.44
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	.78***	.21	.37	1.18
Advantaged Group Membership	-.08	.14	-.36	.20
Feelings of threat	-.14	.07	-.28	-.00
Empathy	.97***	.04	.90	1.05
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.00	-.02	-.08	.05
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.02	.02	-.03	.07
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.04	.03	-.02	.12
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.74	.37	-1.47	-.00
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.45	.25	-.96	.02
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.17	.37	-.91	.54
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.01	.01	-.01	.04
Empathy	.16	.15	-.14	.44

Note. $N = 197$. Voicer Relationship = Dependent variable. Threat = Feelings of threat.

Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES.

***$p < .001$.

Table C33

Study 3b Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables

Measure	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
1. Group membership	.53	.50	__									
2. Voicer race	.50	.50	.08	__								
3. Socioeconomic status	5.39	1.64	-.11	-.06	__							
4. Voice appraisal	4.11	1.82	-.19**	-.05	-.11	__						
5. Voicer personality	4.55	1.32	-.19**	.01	.01	.78**	__					
6. Voicer respect	4.47	1.73	-.18*	.00	-.04	.85**	.89**	__				
7. Voicer relationship	3.82	1.78	-.15*	-.01	.01	.84**	.84**	.88**	__			
8. Feelings of threat	1.75	1.14	-.05	-.12	-.01	-.17*	-.21**	-.22**	-.21**	__		
9. Feelings of rejection	1.63	1.04	-.09	-.03	.03	.14*	-.10	-.12	-.11	.60**	__	
10. Feelings of inferiority	5.19	.99	-.09	.01	-.00	-.13	-.05	-.09	-.11	.48**	.79**	__
11. Empathy	3.32	1.68	-.25**	-.04	-.05	.72**	.77**	.77**	.79**	-.09	.01	.07

Note. $N = 200$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 2 = Disadvantaged).*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table C34

Study 3b Means, Standard Deviations, and One-Way Analyses of Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Recipients on Response Variables

Variable	Disadvantaged		Advantaged		$F(1, 198)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Voice appraisal	4.47	1.78	3.78	1.81	7.48**	.04
Voicer personality	4.81	1.21	4.32	1.37	7.24**	.03
Voicer respect	4.79	1.64	4.17	1.78	6.50**	.03
Voicer relationship	4.10	1.75	3.56	1.78	4.80*	.02

Note. $N = 200$. *M*= Mean, *SD*= Standard Deviation.*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Table C35

Study 3b Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Recipients (Racial Minority Voicer Sample Only)

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	$t(99)$	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.58	1.62	2.32	.21(ns)	.46
	Advantaged	3.77	1.87			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.84	1.11	2.49	.07(ns)	.49
	Advantaged	4.23	1.36			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.85	1.45	2.36	.05(ns)	.47
	Advantaged	4.06	1.87			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	4.29	1.75	2.01	.46(ns)	.40
	Advantaged	3.56	1.90			

Note. $N = 101$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant

Table C36

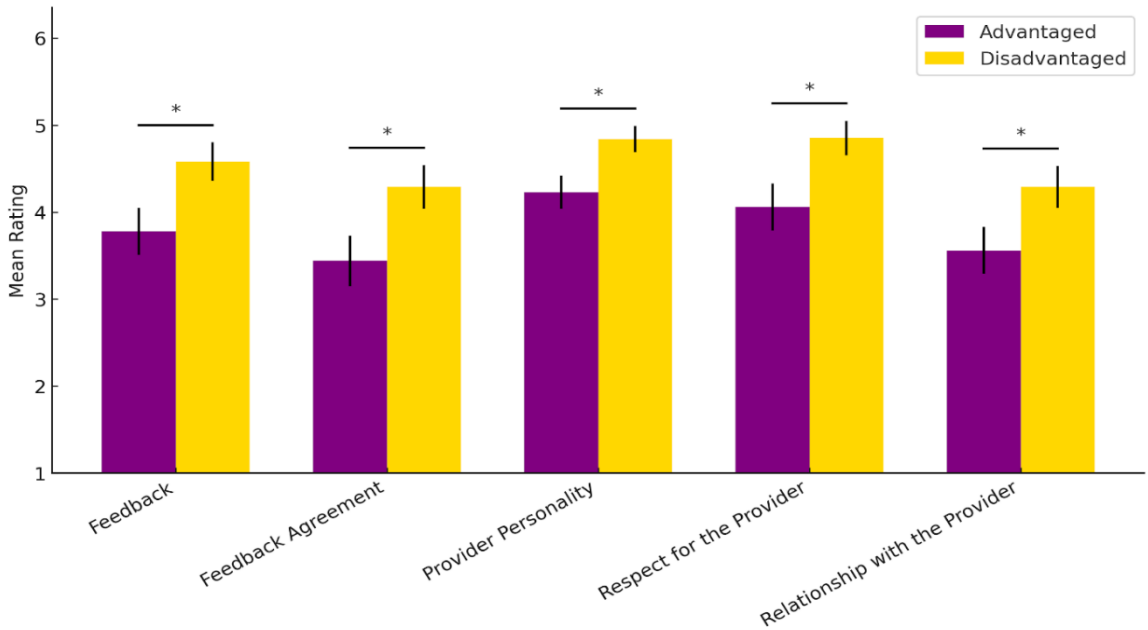
Study 3b Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Recipients (White Voicer Sample Only)

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(97)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.33	1.94	1.48	.30(ns)	.30
	Advantaged	3.78	1.77			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.78	1.34	1.38	.67(ns)	.28
	Advantaged	4.40	1.39			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.72	1.86	1.26	.17(ns)	.25
	Advantaged	4.27	1.70			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	3.88	1.74	.95	.62(ns)	.19
	Advantaged	3.55	1.68			

Note. $N = 99$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Figure C15

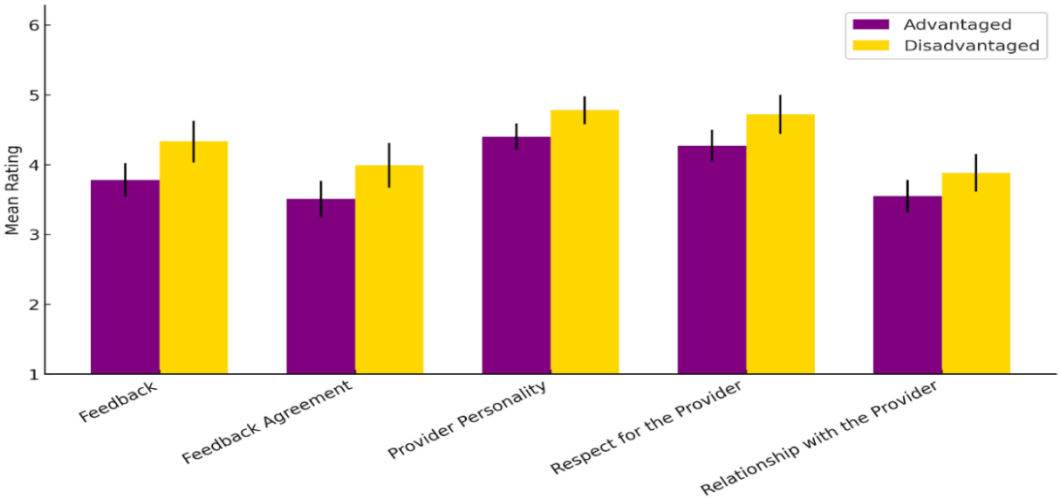
Study 3b Mean Differences in Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Racial Group Recipient Ratings (Racial Minority Voicer Sample Only)



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. *$p < .05$. Displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback"), Voicer Personality (labeled as “Provider Personality”), Respect for the Voicer (labeled as “Respect for the Provider”), and Willingness to Befriend/Work with the Voicer (labeled as “ Relationship with the Provider”). Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement") is an additional measure reported to compare to appraisal results only. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Figure C16

Study 3b Mean Differences in Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Racial Group Recipient Ratings of White voicers



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback"), Voicer Personality (labeled as “Provider Personality”), Respect for the Voicer (labeled as “Respect for the Provider”), and Willingness to Befriend/Work with the Voicer (labeled as “ Relationship with the Provider”). Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement") is an additional measure reported to contrast with appraisal results only. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Table C37

Study 3b Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Ratings of Racial Minority vs. White Voicers by Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Recipients

Variable	Voicer Race	*M*	*SD*	*t*(93)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	4.58	1.62	.68	.06(ns)	.14
	White	4.33	1.94			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.84	1.11	.23	.06(ns)	.24
	White	4.78	1.34			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	4.85	1.45	.37	.02*	.08
	White	4.72	1.86			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	4.29	1.75	1.12	.89(ns)	.23
	White	3.88	1.74			

Note. $N = 95$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant. *$p < .05$.

Table C38

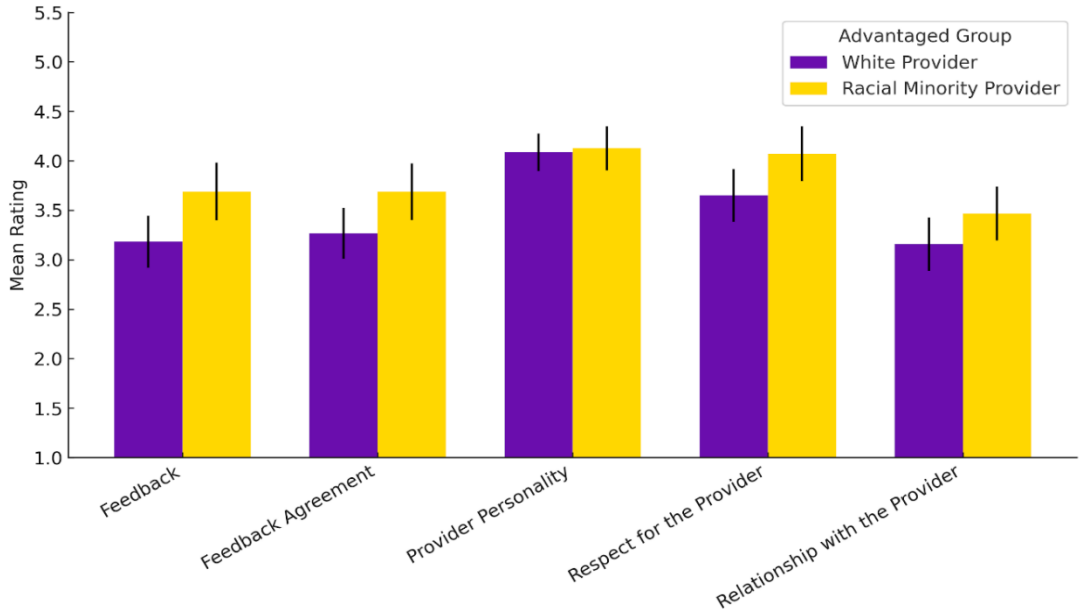
Study 3b Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Ratings of Racial Minority vs. White Voicers by Advantaged Racial Group Member Recipients

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(103)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	3.77	1.87	-.01	.72(ns)	.04
	White Voice	3.78	1.77			
Provider personality	Racial Minority	4.23	1.36	-.64	.68(ns)	.12
	White Voice	4.40	1.39			
Provider respect	Racial Minority	4.06	1.87	-.59	.29(ns)	.12
	White Voice	4.27	1.70			
Provider relationship	Racial Minority	3.56	1.90	.02	.27(ns)	.00
	White Voice	3.55	1.68			

Note. N = 105*, M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Figure C17

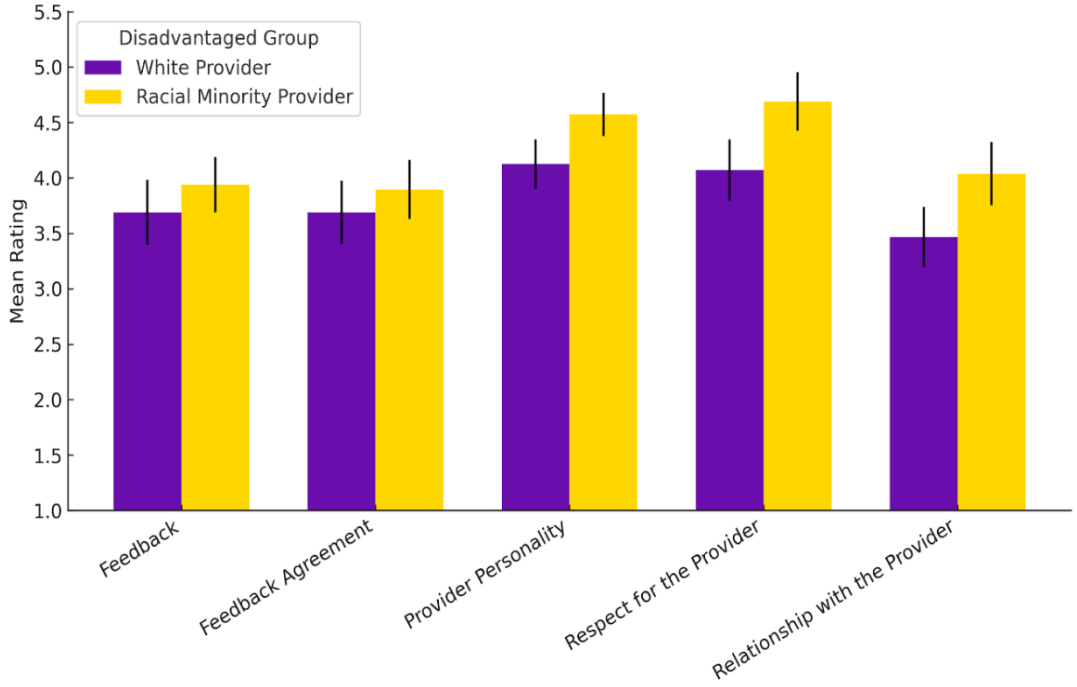
Mean Differences Comparing Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers by Advantaged Group Member Recipients



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback"), Voicer Personality (labeled as “Provider Personality”), Respect for the Voicer (labeled as “Respect for the Provider”), and Willingness to Befriend/Work with the Voicer (labeled as “ Relationship with the Provider”). Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement") is an additional measure reported to contrast with appraisal results only. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Figure C18

Mean Differences Comparing Ratings of White vs. Racial Minority Voicers by Disadvantaged Group Member Recipients



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Displays ratings of voice response variables: Voice Appraisal (labeled as "Feedback"), Voicer Personality (labeled as “Provider Personality”), Respect for the Voicer (labeled as “Respect for the Provider”), and Willingness to Befriend/Work with the Voicer (labeled as “ Relationship with the Provider”). Voice Agreement (labeled as "Feedback Agreement") is an additional measure reported to contrast with appraisal results only. All variables were measured on 7-point scales with higher scores indicating more positive responses.

Table C39

Standardized Indirect Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Response Outcomes through Feelings of Threat and Empathy (Racial Minority Voicer sub-sample only)

	Effects of IV on FOT (a_1)		Effects of IV on EMPATHY (a_2)		Effect of FOT on DV (b_1)		Effect of EMPATHY on DV (b_2)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a_1 x b_1)		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a_2 x b_2)		95% CI
DV	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*[LL, UL]*
Voice appraisal	-.06	.24	-.93**	.32	-.16	.10	.75***	.08	-.12	.25	.01	.04	-.69	.26	[-1.25, -.18]
Voicer Personality	-.06	.24	-.93**	.32	-.23**	.07	.51***	.05	-.15	.17	.01	.06	-.47	.17	[-.85, -.20]
Voicer Respect	-.06	.24	-.93**	.32	-.31**	.09	.71***	.07	-.14	.21	.02	.08	-.66	.24	[-1.18, -.13]
Voicer Relationship	-.06	.24	-.93**	.32	-.24**	.09	.86***	.07	.06	.22	.01	.06	-.80	.28	[-1.39, -.20]

Note. N = 105. IV = Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). *B* = regression coefficient (standardized direct effect). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C40

Standardized Indirect Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Response Outcomes through Feelings of Threat and Empathy (White Voicer sub-sample only)

	Effects of IV on FOT (a_1)		Effects of IV on EMPATHY (a_2)		Effect of FOT on DV (b_1)		Effect of EMPATHY on DV (b_2)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a_1 x b_1)		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a_2 x b_2)		95% CI
DV	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*[LL, UL]*
Voice appraisal	-.11	.21	-.76*	.33	-.21	.13	.77***	.08	.01	.28	.02	.06	-.59	.25	[-1.07, -.04]
Voicer personality	-.11	.21	-.76*	.33	-.11	.08	.67***	.05	.11	.17	.01	.03	-.51	.23	[-.97, -.06]
Voicer respect	-.11	.21	-.76*	.33	-.16	.10	.85***	.07	.18	.23	.02	.05	-.65	.29	[-1.21, -.05]
Voicer relationship	-.11	.21	-.76*	.33	-.21*	.10	.81***	.07	.26	.22	.02	.05	-.62	.28	[-1.17, -.05]

Note. N =95. IV = Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). *B* = regression coefficient (standardized direct effect). CI = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* =upper limit. *$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C41

Study 3b Moderation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership x Socioeconomic Status on Response Outcomes

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	4.54	.67	3.21	5.87	.001***
	Advantaged Group	.76	.88	-.97	2.49	.39
	SES	.00	.11	-.22	.23	.99
	Advantaged x SES	-.27	.15	-.58	.03	.08
Voicer Personality	Intercept	4.22	.49	3.24	5.20	.001***
	Advantaged Group	.57	.64	-.70	1.84	.38
	SES	.10	.08	-.06	.27	.22
	Advantaged x SES	-.20	.11	-.42	.03	.08
Voicer Respect	Intercept	4.37	.65	3.08	5.65	.001***
	Advantaged Group	.71	.84	-.95	2.39	.40
	SES	.07	.11	-.14	.29	.50
	Advantaged x SES	-.25	.15	-.55	.04	.09
Voicer Relationship	Intercept	3.58	.67	2.25	4.91	.001***
	Advantaged Group	.67	.88	-1.05	2.40	.44
	SES	.11	.11	-.11	.34	.33
	Advantaged x SES	-.22	.15	-.53	.08	.15

Note. ***$p < .001$.

Figure C19

Study 3b Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voice (Feedback) Appraisal by Level of SES

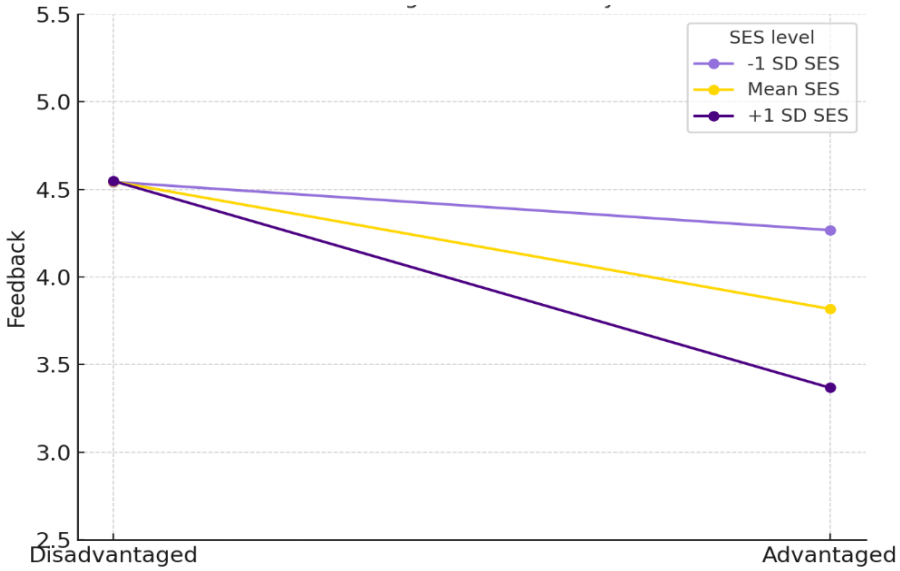


Figure C20

Study 3b Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer (Provider) Personality by Level of SES

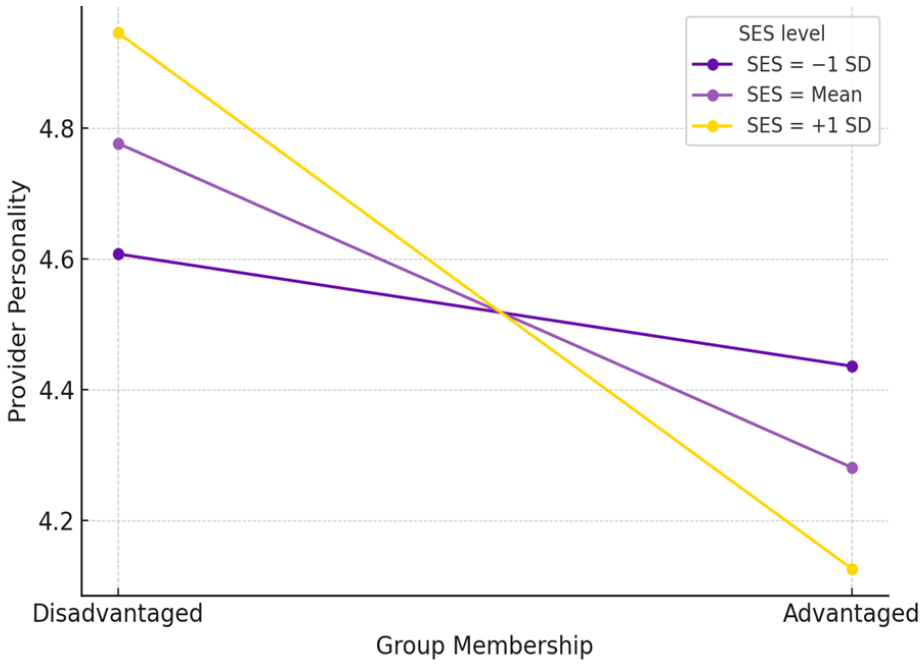


Figure C21

Study 3b Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer (Provider) Respect by Level of SES

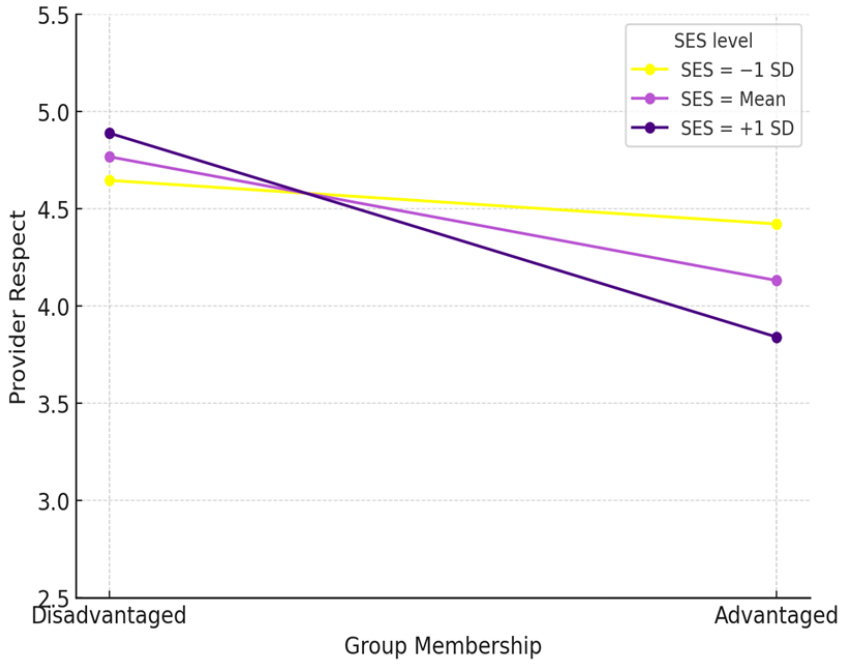


Figure C22

Study 3b Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer (Provider) Relationship by Level of SES

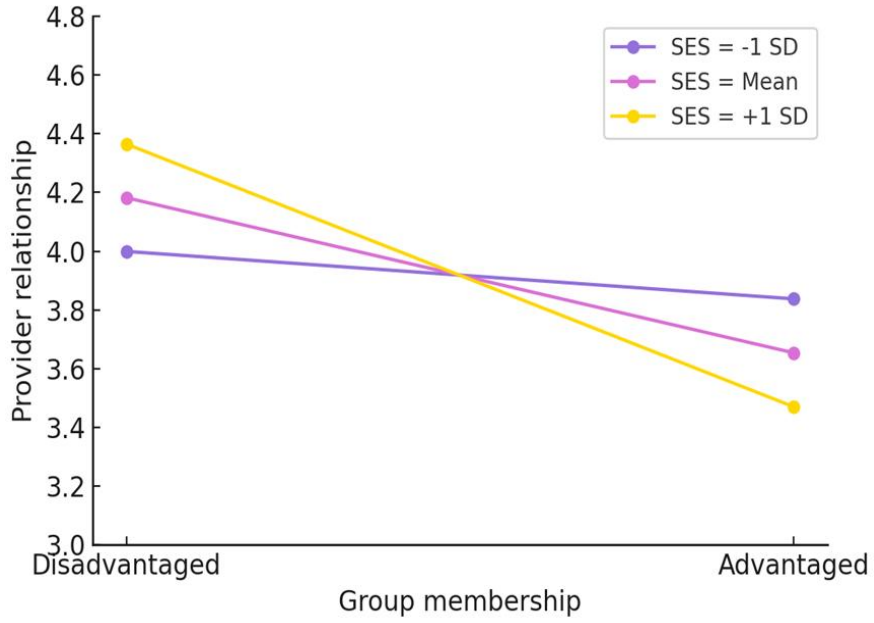


Table C42

Study 3b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership on Voice Appraisal through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.79***	.43	.93	2.64
Advantaged Group Membership	.03	.57	-1.09	1.15
SES	.00	.07	-.14	.15
Advantaged × SES	-.08	.08	-.24	.08
Empathy				
Intercept	3.42***	.61	2.22	4.62
Advantaged Group Membership	.58	.80	-.99	2.16
SES	.06	.10	-.14	.27
Advantaged × SES	-.27	.14	-.55	.01
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	1.92***	.29	1.34	2.50
Advantage (Direct Effect)	-.06	.18	-.43	.30
Feelings of threat	-.17	.08	-.33	-.02
Empathy	.76***	.05	.65	.87
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.01	.04	-.08	.10
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.02	.03	-.05	.09
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.03	.04	-.06	.12
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.33	.26	-.86	.19
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.66	.17	-1.02	-.33
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-1.00	.23	-1.47	-.56
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	-.00	.02	-.03	.04
Empathy	-.20	.11	-.42	.01

Note. Voice appraisal = Dependent variable. Threat = Feelings of threat. Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES. ***$p < .001$.

Table C43

Study 3b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer Personality through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.79***	.24	.93	2.64
Advantaged Group Membership	.03	.57	-1.09	1.15
SES	.00	.07	-.14	.15
Advantaged × SES	-.03	.10	-.22	.17
Empathy				
Intercept	3.42***	.61	2.22	4.62
Advantaged Group Membership	.58	.80	-.99	2.16
SES	.06	.10	-.14	.27
Advantaged × SES	-.27	.14	-.55	.01
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	2.86***	.19	2.48	3.24
Advantage (Direct Effect)	-.00	.12	-.24	.23
Feelings of threat	-.16	.05	-.26	-.06
Empathy	.60***	.04	.52	.67
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.01	-.04	-.06	.09
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.02	.03	-.03	.08
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.02	.04	-.04	.10
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.26	.21	-.68	.14
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.52	.14	-.81	-.24
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.79	.19	-1.17	-.43
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.00	.01	-.03	.03
Empathy	.16	.08	-.33	.00

Note. Voicer Personality= Dependent variable. Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES. ***$p < .001$.

Table C44

Study 3b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer Respect through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.79***	.43	.93	2.64
Advantaged Group Membership	.03	.57	-1.09	1.15
SES	.00	.07	-.14	.15
Advantaged × SES	-.03	.10	-.22	.17
Empathy				
Intercept	3.42***	.61	2.22	4.62
Advantaged Group Membership	.58	.80	-.99	2.16
SES	.06	.10	-.14	.27
Advantaged × SES	-.27	.14	-.55	.01
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	2.23***	.23	1.74	2.72
Advantage (Direct Effect)	.03	.16	-.28	.34
Feelings of threat	-.23	.07	-.36	-.10
Empathy	.79***	.05	.70	.88
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.02	.05	-.08	.13
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.03	.04	-.05	.11
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.04	.05	-.07	.14
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.34	.27	-.89	.19
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.69	.18	-1.07	-.34
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.04	.05	-.07	.14
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.01	.02	-.04	.05
Empathy	.21	.11	-.43	.00

Note. Voicer Respect= Dependent variable. Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES. ***$p < .001$.

Table C45

Study 3b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer Relationship through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat (FOT)				
Intercept	1.79***	.43	.93	2.64
Advantaged Group Membership	.03	.57	-1.09	1.15
SES	.00	.07	-.14	.15
Advantaged × SES	-.03	.10	-.22	.17
Empathy				
Intercept	3.42***	.61	2.22	4.62
Advantaged Group Membership	.38	.80	-.99	2.16
SES	.06	.10	-.14	.27
Advantaged × SES	-.27	.14	-.55	.01
Dependent variable model-Voice appraisal				
Intercept	1.35	.25	.86	1.84
Advantage (Direct Effect)	.14	.15	-.16	.45
Feelings of threat	-.22	.07	-.35	-.09
Empathy	.84***	.05	.75	.93
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.01	.05	-.09	.12
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.02	.08	-.04	.11
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.03	.05	-.06	.15
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.36	.29	-.94	.19
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.73	.19	-1.12	-.36
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-1.11	.26	-1.61	-.60
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.01	.02	-.03	.05
Empathy	.23	.12	-.45	.01

Note. Voicer Relationship= Dependent variable. Conditional indirect effects are calculated at ±1 standard deviation (SD) and mean of SES. ***$p < .001$

Table C46

Study 4a Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables

Measure	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
1. Advantaged Group Membership	.42	.50	__										
2. Voicer race	.49	.50	.07	__									
3. Social dominance orientation - egalitarianism	2.67	1.00	-.14	.08	__								
4. Voice appraisal	3.53	1.53	-.22**	-.04	-.22**	__							
5. Voicer personality	4.54	1.02	-.16	-.06	-.29**	.77**	__						
6. Voicer respect	4.43	1.43	-.11	-.06	-.27**	.77**	.76**	__					
7. Voicer relationship	3.57	1.64	-.22**	-.02	-.24**	.79**	.78**	.80**	__				
8. Socioeconomic status	6.30	1.68	.24	-.07	.04	.01	-.01	.04	-.01	__			
9. Feelings of threat	1.98	1.14	-.02	.08	.09	-.06	-.16	-.25**	-.17*	.08	__		
10. Fear of rejection	1.72	1.04	-.09	.01	.15	.00	-.15	-.12	-.03	.04**	.46**	__	
11. Fear of inferiority	1.64	1.09	-.08**	-.00	.06	.12	.02	.01	.10	.01	.40**	.79**	__
12. Empathy	3.20	1.39	-.19*	-.07	-.13	.72**	.68**	.70**	.74**	.09	-.08	.15	.23**

Note. N = 139, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation. Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table C47

Study 4a Independent Samples t-Test Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Ratings of Response Variables

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(138)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.14	1.58	2.68	.38(ns)	.46
	Advantaged	3.45	1.39			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.67	1.01	1.96	.18(ns)	.34
	Advantaged	4.33	1.01			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.57	1.54	1.35	.04*	.23
	Advantaged	4.24	1.25			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	3.86	1.69	2.66	.19(ns)	.45
	Advantaged	3.14	1.48			

Note. $N = 139$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant. $*p < .05$.

Table C48

Study 4a Independent Samples t-Test: Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Ratings of Racial Minority Voicers Only

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(97)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.19	1.63	1.81	.66(ns)	.44
	Advantaged	3.49	1.51			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.71	1.08	1.17	.12(ns)	.28
	Advantaged	4.41	1.06			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.70	1.58	1.34	.09(ns)	.34
	Advantaged	4.21	1.31			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	3.89	1.74	1.82	.24(ns)	.44
	Advantaged	3.16	1.53			

Note. M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Table C49

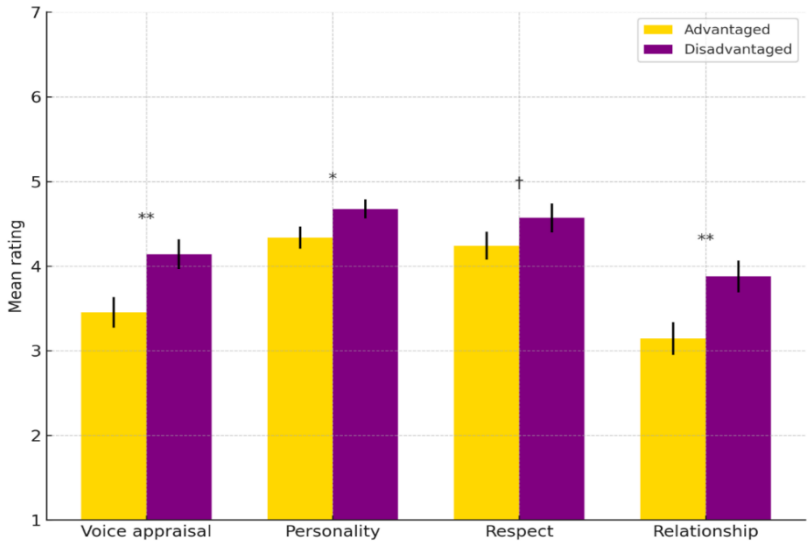
Study 4a Independent Samples t-Test: Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Ratings of White Voicers Only

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(97)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.09	1.53	1.93	.46(ns)	.47
	Advantaged	3.42	1.29			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.63	.94	1.56	.67(ns)	.38
	Advantaged	4.27	.97			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.42	1.50	.50	.25(ns)	.11
	Advantaged	4.26	1.21			
Provider relationship	Disadvantaged	3.85	1.65	1.91	.52(ns)	.46
	Advantaged	3.13	1.47			

Note. M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Figure C23

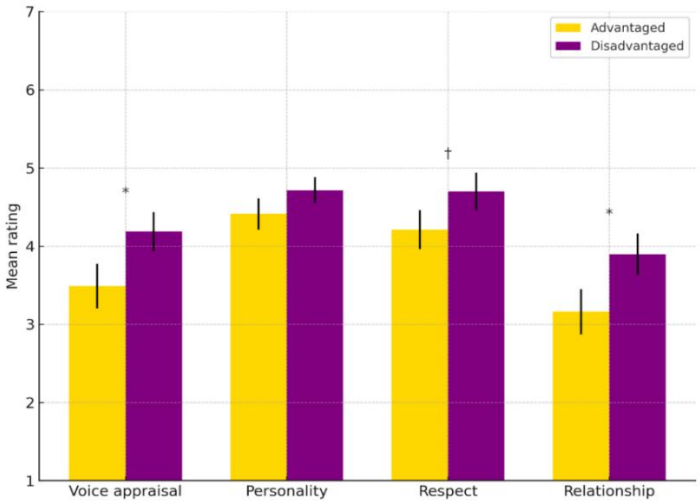
Study 4a Mean Differences in Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Ratings For All Outcomes (Regardless of Voicer Race)



Note. N = 139. † p <.*10.* **p* < .05. ** p<.01.

Figure C24

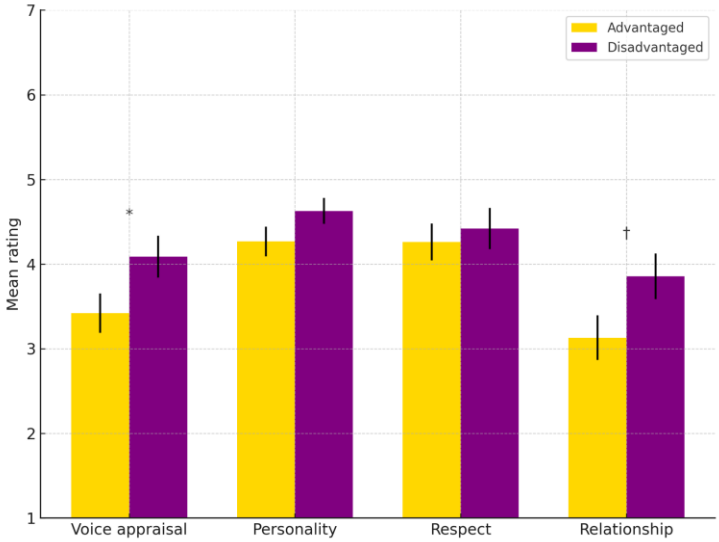
Study 4a Mean Differences in Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Recipient Ratings of Racial Minority Voicers



Note. † p <.10. *p < .05.

Figure C25

Study 4a Mean Differences in Advantaged vs Disadvantaged Racial Group Member Recipient Ratings of White Voicers



Note. † p <.10. *p < .05.

Table C50

Study 4a Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Voice Appraisal

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.67	.26	-.22**	-.80	.25	-.26***
SDO-E				-.39	.12	-.26***
R^2		.05			.11	
F		7.16**			8.84***	
ΔR^2		.04			.11	

Note. $N = 149$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table C51

Study 4a Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Provider Personality

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.34	.17	-.16	-.43	.17	-.21**
SDO-E				-.33	.08	-.32***
R^2		.16			.34	
F		3.86			10.18***	
ΔR^2		.03			.13	

Note. $N = 149$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table C52

Study 4a Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Provider Respect

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.33	.24	-.11	-.45	.24	-.15
SDO-E				-.41	.12	-.29***
R^2		.11			.31	
F		1.83			7.22***	
ΔR^2		.01			.09	

Note. $N = 149$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table C53

Study 4a Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Provider Relationship

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.73	.27	-.22**	-.86	.27	-.26**
SDO-E				-.45	.13	-.28***
R^2		.22			.35	
F		7.08**			9.65***	
ΔR^2		.05			.11	

Note. N = 149. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table C54

Study 4a Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Ratings of Racial Minority v. White Voicers by Advantaged Racial Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(57)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	3.49	1.52	.19	.45(ns)	.05
	White Voice	3.42	1.29			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.41	1.06	.54	.82(ns)	.14
	White Voice	4.27	.97			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	4.21	1.31	-.13	.99(ns)	.04
	White Voice	4.26	1.21			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	3.16	1.53	.08	.85(ns)	.02
	White Voice	3.13	1.47			

Note. n = 60. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Table C55

Study 4a Independent Samples t-Test Comparing Ratings of Racial Minority vs. White Voicers by Disadvantaged Racial Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(79)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	4.19	1.63	.28	.61(ns)	.06
	White Voice	4.09	1.53			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.71	1.08	.39	.08(ns)	.08
	White Voice	4.63	.94			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	4.70	1.58	.80	.52(ns)	.22
	White Voice	4.42	1.50			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	3.89	1.74	.11	.66(ns)	.02
	White Voice	3.85	1.65			

Note. n= 81. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant at least the p<.05 level.

Table C56

Study 4a Standardized Indirect Effects of Advantaged Group Membership on Response Outcomes through Feelings of Threat and Empathy, Controlling for Anti-egalitarian Beliefs

	Effects of IV on FOT (a_1)		Effects of IV on EMP (a_2)		Effect of FOT on DV (b_1)		Effect of EMP on DV (b_2)		Direct effects of IV on DV		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a_1 x b_1)		Indirect Effects of IV on DV (a_2 x b_2)		95% CI
DV	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*[LL, UL]*
Voice appraisal	-.01	.20	-.58**	.23	.01	.09	.75***	.06	-.36	.18	-.00	.02	-.44	.16	[-.77, -.18]
Voicer personality	-.01	.20	-.58**	.23	-.08	.05	.46***	.04	-.17	.18	.00	.02	-.28	.10	[-.49, -.07]
Voicer respect	-.01	.20	-.58**	.23	-.23*	.07	.68***	.06	-.05	.17	.00	.05	-.39	.15	[-.71, -.09]
Voicer relationship	-.01	.20	-.58**	.23	-.15	.08	.81***	.07	.39	.19	.01	.03	-.47	.18	[-.83, -.11]

Note. N = 140. IV = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). FOT = Feelings of Threat; EM*P* = Empathy; DV = Dependent Variable. All coefficients are standardized. SDO–E was entered as a covariate in all regression paths. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C57

Study 4a Moderation Analysis: Advantaged Racial Group Membership x Socioeconomic Status (SES) Effects on All Response Outcomes

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	3.64	.64	2.37	4.90	.001***
	Advantaged	-.37	1.06	-2.49	1.69	.71
	SES	.08	.10	-.12	.29	.42
	Advantaged x SES	-.05	.16	-.37	.26	.74
Voicer personality	Intercept	4.37	.43	3.52	5.22	.001***
	Advantaged	.13	.71	-1.27	1.54	.85
	SES	.05	.07	-.09	.19	.46
	Advantaged x SES	-.07	.11	-.29	.13	.48
Voicer respect	Intercept	3.89	.60	2.69	5.08	.001***
	Advantaged	.35	1.00	-1.63	2.33	.73
	SES	.11	.10	-.08	.31	.24
	Advantaged x SES	-.11	.15	-.41	.18	.45
Voicer relationship	Intercept	3.06	.68	1.71	4.41	.001***
	Advantaged	.56	1.13	-1.66	2.79	.62
	SES	.14	.11	-.08	.35	.22
	Advantaged x SES	-.21	.17	-.54	.12	.22

Note. ***$p < .001$.

Table C58

Study 4a Study Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership's Effect on Voice Appraisal Through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.40**	.53	.34	2.46
Advantage	-.144	.80	-1.73	1.44
SES	.05	.08	-.10	.21
Advantage × SES	.01	.12	-.23	.25
SDO-E	.10	.10	-.09	.29
Empathy				
Intercept	2.74***	.63	1.50	3.98
Advantage	.78	.94	-1.07	2.64
SES	.23*	.09	.05	.41
Advantage × SE	-.23	.14	-.51	.05
SDO-E	-.24*	.11	-.47	-.02
Dependent variable model-Voice Appraisal				
Intercept	2.20***	.41	1.39	3.01
Advantage	-.36	.18	-.73	.00
Feelings of threat	.01	.08	-.14	.16
Empathy	.75***	.09	-.41	-.05
SDO-E	-.23**	.09	-.41	-.05
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.00	.02	-.07	.04
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.00	.02	-.06	.03
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.00	.03	-.08	.04
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.21	.22	-.66	.20
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.50	.17	-.84	-.29
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.80	.25	-1.29	-.29
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.00	.01	-.02	.02
Empathy	-.17	.10	-.36	.03

Note. Voice Appraisal = Dependent variable. All coefficients are standardized. SDO–E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C59

Study 4a Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership's Effect on Voicer Personality through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.40**	.54	.34	2.46
Advantage	-.14	.80	-1.73	1.44
SES	.05	.08	-.10	.21
Advantage × SES	.01	.12	-.23	.25
SDO-E	.10	.10	-.09	.29
Empathy				
Intercept	2.74***	.93	1.50	3.98
Advantage	.79	.94	-1.07	2.64
SES	-.23*	.09	.05	.41
Advantage × SE	-.24	.14	-.51	.05
SDO-E	-.24*	.11	-.47	-.02
Dependent variable model-Voice Appraisal				
Intercept	3.88***	.28	3.32	4.44
Advantage	-.17	.13	-.42	.08
Feelings of threat	-.08	.05	-.19	.03
Empathy	.46***	.04	.37	.55
SDO-E	-.22**	.06	-.34	-.10
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.01	.02	-.04	.06
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.00	.02	-.03	.05
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.02	.03	-.05	.06
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.13	.13	-.41	.12
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.31	.11	-.53	-.10
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.48	.16	-.80	-.17
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.00	.01	-.02	.02
Empathy	.11	.06	-.21	.02

Note. Provider Personality = Dependent variable. All coefficients are standardized. SDO–E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C60

Study 4a Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership's Effect on Voicer Respect Through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.40**	.53	.34	2.46
Advantage	-.14	.80	-1.73	1.44
SES	.05	.08	-.10	.21
Advantage × SES	.01	.12	-.23	.25
SDO-E	.10	.10	-.09	.29
Empathy				
Intercept	2.74***	.63	1.50	3.98
Advantage	.79	.94	-1.07	2.64
SES	.23	.10	.05	.41
Advantage × SE	-.23	.14	-.51	.05
SDO-E	-.24*	.11	-.47	-.02
Dependent variable model-Voice Appraisal				
Intercept	3.38***	.38	2.63	4.13
Advantage	-.05	.17	-.39	.28
Feelings of threat	-.23**	.07	-.37	-.07
Empathy	.68***	.06	.56	.80
SDO-E	-.24	.08	-.41	-.07
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.02	.06	-.12	.13
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.01	.05	-.09	.10
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.01	.07	-.14	.15
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.19	.20	-.60	.17
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.45	.15	-.76	-.16
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.72	.23	-1.17	-.28
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	-.00	.03	-.05	.06
Empathy	-.16	.09	-.32	.02

Note. Voicer Respect = Dependent variable. All coefficients are standardized. SDO–E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C61

Study 4a Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership's Effect on Voicer Relationship Through Feelings of Threat and Empathy Conditional on SES

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.40**	.53	.34	2.46
Advantage	-.14	.80	-1.73	1.44
SES	.05	.08	-.10	.21
Advantage × SES	.01	.12	-.23	.25
SDO-E	.10	.10	-.09	.29
Empathy				
Intercept	2.74***	.63	1.50	3.98
Advantage	.79	.94	-1.07	2.64
SES	.23*	.09	.05	.41
Advantage × SE	-.23	.14	-.51	.05
SDO-E	-.24*	.11	-.47	-.02
Dependent variable model-Voice Appraisal				
Intercept	2.14***	.42	1.31	2.97
Advantage	-.39	.19	-.77	-.02
Feelings of threat	-.15	.08	-.31	.01
Empathy	.81***	.07	.67	.94
SDO-E	-.26**	.09	-.44	-.08
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	.01	.04	-.08	.10
Threat at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	.01	.03	-.07	.07
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.01	.05	-.12	.09
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.23	.23	-.70	.22
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.54	.18	-.90	-.20
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.86	.27	-1.37	-.32
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	-.00	.02	-.05	.03
Empathy	-.19	.10	-.39	.03

Note. Voicer Relationship = Dependent variable. All coefficients are standardized. SDO–E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C62

Study 4b Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables (N=142)

Measure	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
1. Advantage	.41	.49	__										
2. Voicer race	.50	.50	-.17	__									
3. Social dominance orientation - egalitarianism	2.38	1.08	-.10	.09	__								
4. Voice appraisal	4.67	1.47	-.02	-.05	-.39**	__							
5. Voicer personality	4.84	.93	-.10	.06	-.46**	.66**	__						
6. Voicer respect	4.85	1.47	-.03	-.08	-.51**	.71**	.76**	__					
7. Voicer relationship	4.25	1.42	-.05	-.03	-.44**	.75**	.78**	.83**	__				
8. Socioeconomic status	6.09	1.51	.15	-.06	.07	-.00	-.01	-.07	-.02	__			
9. Feelings of threat	1.76	1.05	-.18*	.11	.07	-.08	-.16	-.04	.05*	.03	__		
10. Feelings of rejection	1.48	.76	-.09	.06	.05	-.09	-.15	-.08	-.07	.03	.41**	__	
11. Feelings of inferiority	1.51	.85	-.06	.14	-.01	.06	.02	.12	.21	.04	.50**	.64**	__
12. Empathy	3.61	1.34	-.14*	-.09	-.39**	.58**	.68**	.68**	.71**	.06	.03	.00	.22**

Note. M = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged - White, 0 = Disadvantaged – Racial Minority). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$

Table C63

Study 4b Independent Samples t-Test: Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Recipient Response Ratings

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(140)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.70	1.51	.28	.43(ns)	.05
	Advantaged	4.62	1.43			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.92	.92	1.18	.70(ns)	.19
	Advantaged	4.74	.95			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.89	1.56	.37	.44(ns)	.07
	Advantaged	4.79	1.35			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	4.31	1.46	.60	.62(ns)	.10
	Advantaged	4.16	1.38			

Note. $N = 141$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant. *$p < .05$.

Table C64

Study 4b Independent Samples t-Test: Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Recipient Response Ratings (Racial Minority Voicers Only)

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(97)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.67	1.64	-.39	.31(ns)	.55
	Advantaged	3.81	1.45			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.88	.99	.74	.65(ns)	.18
	Advantaged	4.70	.99			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	5.00	1.66	.15	.76(ns)	.04
	Advantaged	4.94	1.43			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	4.29	1.44	.02	.70(ns)	.01
	Advantaged	4.28	1.51			

Note. $N = 71$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Table C65

Study 4b Independent Samples t-Test: Advantaged vs. Disadvantaged Group Member Recipient Response Ratings (White Voicers Only)

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(69)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Disadvantaged	4.72	1.42	1.04	.74(ns)	.26
	Advantaged	4.35	1.40			
Voicer personality	Disadvantaged	4.96	.87	.78	.96(ns)	.20
	Advantaged	4.78	.91			
Voicer respect	Disadvantaged	4.81	1.48	.69	.27(ns)	.16
	Advantaged	4.57	1.49			
Voicer relationship	Disadvantaged	4.32	1.49	.97	.17(ns)	.25
	Advantaged	3.98	1.15			

Note. N = 70. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Table C66

Study 4b Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Voice Appraisal

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.07	.25	-.02**	-.19	.23	-.06
SDO-E				-.53***	.23	-.06
R^2		.00			.15	
F		.08			12.58***	
ΔR^2		-.01			.14	

Note. N = 141. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged), SDO-E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C67

Study 4b Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Voicer Personality

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.19	.16	-.10	-.28	.14	-.14
SDO-E				-.41	.06	-.48***
R^2		.01			.23	
F		1.40			21.33***	
ΔR^2		.00			.22	

Note. N = 141. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged), SDO-E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C68

Study 4b Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Provider Respect

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.10	.25	-.03	-.25	.22	-.08
SDO-E				-.70	.10	-.52***
R^2		.03			.27	
F		.16			25.23***	
ΔR^2		-.01			.26	

Note. N = 141. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged), SDO-E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C69

Study 4b Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Provider Relationship (N=141)

	Model 1			Model 2		
Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Advantage	-.15	.24	-.05	-.27	.22	-.09
SDO_E				-.59	.10	-.45***
R^2		.00			.20	
F		.36**			17.44***	
ΔR^2		-.00			.19	

Note. N = 141. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged), SDO-E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C70

Study 4b Independent Samples t-Test: Ratings of Racial Minority bs. White Voice by Advantaged Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(56)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	4.81	1.45	1.20	.73(ns)	.32
	White Voice	4.35	1.40			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.71	.99	-.29	.65(ns)	.07
	White Voice	4.78	.91			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	4.94	1.43	1.04	.22(ns)	.28
	White Voice	4.57	1.20			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	4.28	1.51	.83	.14(ns)	.22
	White Voice	3.98	1.15			

Note. N = 58. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Table C71

Study 4b Independent Samples t-Test: Ratings of Racial Minority bs. White Voice by Disadvantaged Group Members

Variable	Group	*M*	*SD*	*t*(82)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
Voice appraisal	Racial Minority	4.67	1.64	-.17	.25(ns)	.03
	White Voice	4.72	1.42			
Voicer personality	Racial Minority	4.88	.99	-.37	.97(ns)	.07
	White Voice	4.95	.87			
Voicer respect	Racial Minority	5.00	1.66	.54	.72(ns)	.12
	White Voice	4.81	1.50			
Voicer relationship	Racial Minority	4.29	1.44	-.10	.81(ns)	.02
	White Voice	4.32	1.49			

Note. $n = 84$. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, ns= Not Significant.

Table C72

Study 4b Moderator Analysis: Advantaged Racial Group Membership x Socioeconomic Status (SES) Effect on Response Outcomes (Controlling for Anti–Egalitarian Beliefs)

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	5.87	.66	4.56	7.18	.001***
	Advantage	-.36	1.01	-2.35	1.63	.72
	SES	.03	.10	-.17	.22	.79
	Advantage x SES	.02	.16	-.29	.34	.87
	SDO-E	-.54	.11	-.75	-.32	.001***
Voicer personality	Intercept	5.66	.39	4.88	6.44	.001***
	Advantage	-.58	.60	-1.77	.61	.34
	SES	.05	.06	-.07	.17	.39
	Advantage x SES	.04	.09	-.14	.23	.64
	SDO-E	-.42	.06	-.55	-.29	.001***
Voicer respect	Intercept	6.82	.61	5.61	8.04	.001***
	Advantage	-.46	.94	-2.31	1.39	.62
	SES	-.03	.09	-.22	.15	.71
	Advantage x SES	-.04	.15	-.25	.33	.81
	SDO-E	-.70	.10	-.90	-.50	.001***
Voicer relationship	Intercept	5.62	.62	4.40	6.85	.001***
	Advantage	-.28	.94	-2.15	1.59	.76
	SES	.02	.09	-.16	.21	.80
	Advantage x SES	.00	.15	-.29	.29	.20
	SDO-E	-.59	.10	-.79	-.39	.001***

Note. $N = 142$. All coefficients are standardized. SDO–E = Social Dominance Orientation – Egalitarianism. was entered as a covariate in all regression paths. ***$p < .001$.

Table C73

Study 4b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Advantaged Group Membership on Voice Appraisal through Feelings of Threat and Empathy (Controlling for Anti-egalitarian beliefs)

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.16**	.50	.17	2.15
Advantage	.164	.76	-.87	2.15
SES	.10	.07	-.04	.25
Advantage × SES	-.17	.12	-.40	.07
SDO-E	.05	.08	-.11	.22
Empathy				
Intercept	4.49***	.59	3.33	5.66
Advantage	-.78	.90	-2.55	.20
SES	.09	.09	-.08	.27
Advantage × SES	.04	.14	-.24	.32
SDO-E	-.52*	.09	-.71	-.33
Dependent variable model-VOICE				
Intercept	3.37***	.51	2.36	4.38
Advantage (Direct Effect)	.05	.21	-.36	.46
Feelings of threat	-.10	.10	-.29	.09
Empathy	-.56	.08	-.40	.73
SDO-E	-.24***	.10	-.44	-.04
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels SES (−1 SD)	.01	.03	-.05	.09
Threat at Average SES (Mean)	.04	.04	-.03	.12
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.06	.06	-.05	.20
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.34	.17	-.69	.00
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.30	.12	-.55	-.07
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.27	.17	-.62	.05
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.02	.02	-.02	.06
Empathy	.02	.08	-.14	.17

Note. $N = 142$. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). SDO–E = Social dominance orientation – egalitarianism. All coefficients are standardized. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C74

Study 4b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer Personality Ratings through Feelings of Threat and Empathy (Controlling for Anti-egalitarian beliefs)

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.16**	.50	.17	2.15
Advantage	.64	.76	-.87	2.15
SES	.10	.07	-.04	.25
Advantage × SES	-.17	.12	-.40	.07
SDO-E	.06	.08	-.11	.22
Empathy				
Intercept	4.49***	.59	3.33	5.66
Advantage	-.78	.90	-2.55	.20
SES	.09	.09	-.08	.27
Advantage × SES	.04	.14	-.24	.32
SDO-E	-.52***	.10	-.71	-.33
Dependent variable model-VOICE				
Intercept	3.85***	.28	3.2	4.41
Advantage (Direct Effect)	-.06	.12	-.29	.17
Feelings of threat	.06	.05	-.05	.17
Empathy	.40***	.07	.31	.49
SDO-E	-.21**	.06	-.33	-.10
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels SES (−1 SD)	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
Threat at Average SES (Mean)	-.02	.02	-.07	.01
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.03	.03	-.11	.02
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.24	.12	-.48	.00
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.21	.09	-.39	-.05
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.19	.12	-.43	-.03
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.01	.01	-.03	.01
Empathy	.01	.05	-.09	.12

Note. $N = 142$. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). SDO–E = Social dominance orientation – egalitarianism. All coefficients are standardized. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 75

Study 4b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer Respect through Feelings of Threat and Empathy (Controlling for Anti-egalitarian beliefs)

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.16**	.50	.17	2.15
Advantage	.64	.76	-.87	2.15
SES	.10	.07	-.04	.25
Advantage × SES	-.17	.12	-.40	.07
SDO-E	.06	.08	-.11	.22
Empathy				
Intercept	4.49***	.59	3.33	5.66
Advantage	-.78	.90	-2.55	1.00
SES	.09	.09	-.08	.27
Advantage × SES	-.04	.14	-.24	.32
SDO-E	-.52*	.10	-.71	-.33
Dependent variable model-VOICE				
Intercept	3.58***	.44	2.71	4.46
Advantage (Direct Effect)	.03	.18	-.32	.39
Feelings of threat	-.04	.08	-.20	.12
Empathy	.62***	.07	.48	.76
SDO-E	-.39***	.09	-.56	-.21
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels SES (−1 SD)	.00	.02	-.04	.05
Threat at Average SES (Mean)	.01	.03	-.04	.09
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	.02	.05	-.07	.15
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.37	.19	-.74	-.01
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.33	.14	-.61	-.08
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.30	.19	-.69	.05
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	.01	.01	-.02	.05
Empathy	.02	.08	-.15	.18

Note. $N = 142$. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). SDO–E = Social dominance orientation – egalitarianism. All coefficients are standardized. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table C76

Study 4b Moderated-Mediation Analysis: Effect of Advantaged Group Membership on Voicer Relationship through Feelings of Threat and Empathy (Controlling for Anti-egalitarian beliefs)

			95% CI	
Mediator variable models	*B*	*SE*	*LL*	*UL*
Feelings of threat				
Intercept	1.16**	.50	.17	2.15
Advantage	.64	.76	-.87	2.15
SES	.10	.07	-.04	.25
Advantage × SES	-.17	.12	-.40	.07
SDO-E	.06	.09	-.11	.22
Empathy				
Intercept	4.49***	.59	3.33	5.66
Advantage	-.78	.90	-2.55	1.00
SES	.09	.09	-.08	.27
Advantage × SES	.04	.14	-.24	.32
SDO-E	-.52***	.10	-.71	-.33
Dependent variable model-VOICE				
Intercept	2.23***	.42	1.39	3.07
Advantage (Direct Effect)	.08	.17	-.26	.43
Feelings of threat	.07	.08	-.08	.23
Empathy	.68***	.07	.54	.81
SDO-E	-.25**	.08	-.42	-.09
Conditional Indirect Effects (X → M → Y)				
Threat at Low Levels SES (−1 SD)	-.01	.03	-.10	.04
Threat at Average SES (Mean)	-.03	.04	-.13	.04
Threat at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.05	.07	-.20	.07
Empathy at Low Levels of SES (−1 SD)	-.40	.21	-.81	-.01
Empathy at Average Levels of SES (Mean)	-.36	.14	-.65	-.09
Empathy at High Levels of SES (+1 SD)	-.32	.20	-.73	.04
Index of Moderated Mediation				
Feelings of threat	-.01	.02	-.09	.02
Empathy	.03	.09	-.16	.20

Note. $N = 142$. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantage, 0 = Disadvantage). SDO–E = Social dominance orientation – egalitarianism. All coefficients are standardized. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C77

Three-Way Interaction Effects of Advantaged Group Membership, Provider Race, and Socioeconomic Status on Voice, Provider Respect, Provider Personality, and Provider Relationship, Controlling for SDO–Egalitarianism

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	5.71	.65	4.43	6.99	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Recipient	-.52	1.03	-2.55	1.50	.61
	Voicer Race	-.89	.90	-2.67	.88	.32
	Advantage x Voicer Race	1.09	1.48	-1.82	4.01	.46
	SES	.00	.10	-.19	.20	.96
	Advantage x SES_NOW	.03	.16	.22	-.27	.34
	Voicer Race x SES_NOW	.18	.15	-.11	.47	.23
	Advantage x Voicer Race x SES	-.26	.23	-.71	-.36	.26
	SDO-E	-.53	.09	-.69	-.36	.001***
Voicer personality	Intercept	5.81	.40	5.03	6.59	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Recipient	-.96	.63	-2.21	.28	.13
	Voicer Race	-.80	.55	-1.89	.28	.14
	Advantage x Voicer Race	1.90	.91	.12	3.69	.04*
	SES	.00	.06	-.11	.12	.96
	Advantage x SES_NOW	.10	.09	-.09	.29	.30
	Voicer Race x SES_NOW	.15	.09	-.02	.33	.09
	Advantage x Voicer Race x SES	-.33	.14	-.60	-.05	.02*
	SDO-E	-.41	.05	-.51	-.31	.001***
Voicer respect	Intercept	6.37	.60	5.20	7.55	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Recipient	-.35	.94	-2.22	1.50	.70

	Voicer Race	-1.04	.83	-2.67	.69	.21
	Advantage x Voicer Race	1.08	1.36	-1.59	3.76	.42
	SES	-.01	.09	-.18	.17	.94
	Advantage x SES_NOW	.00	.14	-.28	.28	.99
	Voicer Race x SES_NOW	.16	.13	-.10	.43	.23
	Advantage x Voicer Race x SES	-.19	.21	-.60	.22	.36
	SDO-E	-.59	.08	-.74	-.44	.001***
Voicer relationship	Intercept	5.06	.65	3.79	6.34	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Recipient	.39	1.03	-1.63	2.41	.70
	Voicer Race	-.34	.90	-2.11	1.43	.70
	Advantage x Voicer Race	.23	1.47	-2.67	3.14	.87
	SES	.07	.10	-.12	.26	.45
	Advantage x SES_NOW	-.13	.15	-.43	.18	.41
	Voicer Race x SES_NOW	.09	.15	-.20	.38	.55
	Advantage x Voicer Race x SES	-.10	.23	-.55	.34	.65
	SDO-E	-.57	.08	-.73	-.40	.001***

Note. $N = 282$. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (1 = Advantaged, 0 = Disadvantaged). SES= Socioeconomic Status. SDO-E = Social dominance orientation egalitarianism. All coefficients are standardized. *$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Table C78

Three-Way Interaction Effects of Advantaged Group Membership, Voicer Race, and Voice Severity on Response Outcomes after Controlling for Anti-egalitarian Beliefs

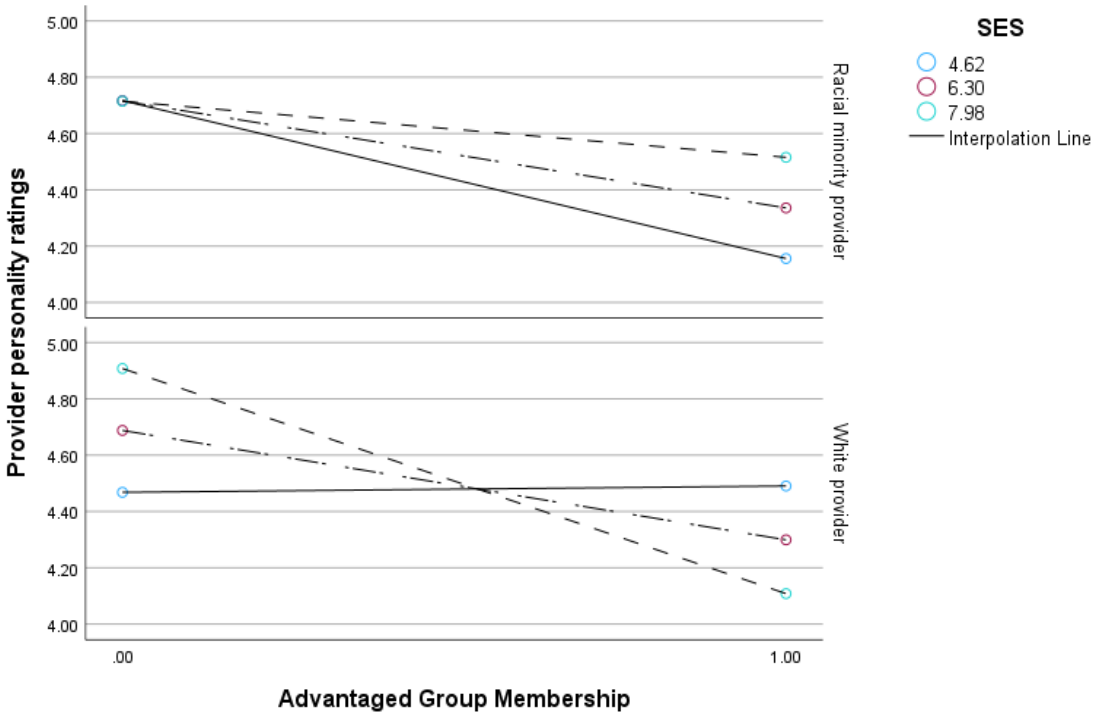
Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*
				LL	*UL*	
Voice appraisal	Intercept	5.76	.30	5.17	6.36	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Member Recipient	.10	.34	-.56	.76	.76
	Voicer Race	.17	.31	-.45	.78	.59
	Advantage x Voicer Race	-.62	.49	-1.59	.35	.21
	Voice Severity	-.30	.32	-.93	.33	.35
	Advantage x Voice Severity	-.94	.48	-1.89	.00	.05
	Voicer Race x Voice Severity	-.18	.44	-1.06	.69	.69
	Advantage x Voicer Race x Voice Severity	.65	.69	-.71	2.02	.34
	SDO-E	-.47	.08	-.63	-.31	.001***
Voicer personality	Intercept	5.75	.19	5.38	6.13	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Member Recipient	-.21	.21	-.63	.21	.13
	Voicer Race	.16	.20	-.22	.55	.41
	Advantage x Voicer Race	-.08	.31	-.69	.53	.80
	Voice Severity	-.02	.20	-.42	.38	.90
	Advantage x Voice Severity	-.21	.30	-.81	.39	.49
	Voicer Race x Voice Severity	-.19	.28	-.74	.37	.51
	Advantage x Voicer Race x Voice Severity	.03	.44	-.83	.89	.94
	SDO-E	-.37	.05	-.48	-.27	.001***
Voicer respect	Intercept	6.32	.28	5.76	6.88	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Member Recipient	-.11	.32	-.73	.52	.74
	Voicer Race	-.05	.29	-.63	.53	.86
	Advantage x Voicer Race	-.31	.46	-1.22	.60	.50
	Voice Severity	-.09	.30	-.68	.51	.77
	Advantage x Voice Severity	-.55	.45	-1.44	.34	.22

	Voicer Race x Voice Severity	-.12	.42	-.94	.70	.77
	Advantage x Voicer Race x Voice Severity	.64	.65	-.64	1.92	.33
	SDO-E	-.57	.08	-.72	-.42	.001***
Voicer relationship	Intercept	5.52	.30	4.91	6.12	.001***
	Advantaged Racial Group Member Recipient	-.05	.34	-.72	.61	.88
	Voicer Race	.16	31	-.46	.78	.62
	Advantage x Voicer Race	-.45	.50	-1.43	.53	.36
	Voice Severity	-.19	.32	-.83	.44	.55
	Advantage x Voice Severity	-.84	.48	-1.80	.11	.08
	Voicer Race x Voice Severity	-.10	.45	-.98	.78	.82
	Advantage x Voicer Race x Voice Severity	.47	.70	-.90	1.84	.50
	SDO-E	-.53	.08	-.69	-.37	.001***

Note. N = 282. Intercept= Constant. Advantage = Advantaged Racial Group Membership (Advantaged = 1, Disadvantaged = 0). SDO–E = Social dominance orientation – egalitarianism. All coefficients are standardized. ***$p < .001$.

Figure C26

Three-Way Interaction Effect of Recipient Advantaged Racial Group Membership x Voicer Race x Socioeconomic Status on Voicer Personality Ratings



General Discussion

General Discussion

This dissertation investigates psychological barriers to the constructive receipt of challenging voice regarding social inequality in organizations. Across two papers, I examine how recipient-driven factors shape how individuals—especially those in positions of social advantage—respond to voice that calls attention to systemic inequality in their organization. Together, these papers illuminate how recipient-side factors influence receptivity to challenging voice and voicers.

Paper 1 focuses on an intrapersonal moderator: growth identity. It demonstrates that challenging voice about gender inequality can elicit self-concept threat, which in turn undermines receptivity to the voice and evaluations of the voicer. However, individuals who define themselves in terms of growth—those high in growth identity—are more capable of managing this threat and responding constructively. In developing and validating the new measure of growth identity, this paper highlights the role of identity-based values regarding growth in buffering against the risk of defensiveness after being threatened.

Paper 2 explores how response to challenging voice about racial inequality varies based on advantaged racial group members' experiences of intersectional disadvantage (socioeconomic status). Findings reveal that members of advantaged racial groups tend to respond more negatively to challenging voice than members of disadvantaged groups. However, these differences are not fully accounted for by traditional social identity theory explanations, such as ingroup favoritism or outgroup bias. Nor can they be entirely explained by ideological beliefs like anti-egalitarianism. By varying the race of the voicer and controlling for anti-egalitarian beliefs, I show that even when voice comes from a fellow ingroup member, and even when controlling for ideology, advantaged group members still evaluate voice and voicers more negatively. By analyzing response based on recipient SES, I also show how advantaged racial group member response to challenging voice regarding

racial inequality varies based on intersectional experiences of disadvantage. These patterns suggest that structural advantage may diminish empathy over and above ingroup/outgroup membership or anti-egalitarian beliefs.

Together, these two papers underscore the importance of examining recipient-side factors that shape how challenging voice regarding social inequality is received. Paper 1 highlights the relevance of individual growth identity in managing experiences of self-concept threat, while Paper 2 illustrates how social advantage and lived experiences of disadvantage influence experiences of threat when receiving voice.

Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation contributes to the literature on voice and feedback by re-centering attention on the recipient, rather than the voicer. Much of the existing work in the voice literature focuses on voicer-driven factors that influence how voice is received—such as whether voice: is promotive or prohibitive, provides solutions, comes from a credible source, or is delivered well. However, this emphasis ignores the psychological barriers that recipients may face in receiving voice constructively—especially when the voice is challenging and when it (directly or indirectly) implicates the recipient in the problem being named. This recipient-focused lens is especially important in the context of challenging voice regarding social inequality, where traditional evaluative criteria for effective voice may be misaligned with the stakes and realities of the situation. For example, individuals from marginalized groups may speak up to name harm or signal injustice even when they do not have a solution in hand, and their anger or urgency may be rooted in legitimate ethical concerns. Voice receptivity in such contexts depends not only on how voice is delivered, but on whether recipients are psychologically equipped to manage the self-relevant implications of what is being said.

This dissertation also takes initial steps toward articulating a construct—growth identity—that captures the degree to which individuals define themselves by their growth and evolution. While conceptually related to existing constructs such as growth mindset, personal growth initiative, and growth needs strength, growth identity reflects a distinct identity-level orientation: not just believing growth is possible or pursuing it behaviorally, but viewing growth as central to one's self-concept. Discriminant validity testing supports the distinctiveness of this construct, though further work is needed to sharpen its conceptual boundaries. Initial findings suggest that growth identity interacts in meaningful ways with self-concept threat, shaping how recipients respond to challenging voice. While I initially hypothesized that growth identity would consistently buffer against threat and promote receptivity, the data reveal a more complex pattern—suggesting that growth identity may sometimes heighten engagement and openness and may in other cases amplify sensitivity to threat. These patterns indicate that growth identity may be a psychologically consequential individual difference, but also that additional empirical work is needed to clarify how and when it operates distinctly from other growth-related constructs.

Finally, this dissertation contributes to theory by challenging the sufficiency of traditional social identity explanations for understanding recipient responses to voice regarding inequality. In Paper 2, members of advantaged racial groups responded more negatively to challenging voice than members of disadvantaged groups—but these patterns were not be fully explained by ingroup favoritism or bias against outgroup voicers. Nor were they fully accounted for by ideological factors such as anti-egalitarianism. By varying the race of the voicer and examining variation in recipients' socioeconomic status, I demonstrate that lower ratings by advantaged racial group members persist even when voice comes from an ingroup member and even after controlling for relevant belief systems. Variations in response based on recipient SES point to reduced empathy for the experience of being

disadvantaged as an important driver of advantaged racial group member response. This contributes not only to the literature on voice and feedback response, but also to research in management and social psychology on the psychological underpinnings of resistance to social initiatives.

Key Limitations and Future Directions

While this dissertation offers new insight into how recipients respond to challenging voice about social inequality, several important limitations should be noted. First, although the studies span multiple samples and designs, most were conducted in online and lab-based contexts using hypothetical workplace scenarios. In some ways, this likely results in a conservative test of the theorized effects, as live organizational interactions may evoke stronger threat responses and greater empathic engagement. However, moving into field or applied settings would allow for a more realistic and generalizable examination of the parallel roles of threat and empathy in shaping recipient response. It would also allow further testing of sensitivity of results to contextual factors like, and beyond, voice severity.

In addition, subsequent research could further investigate variation among different groups that are relatively disadvantaged to dominant groups on the basis of race. In Paper 2, while racially disadvantaged individuals from different groups (e.g., Black, Hispanic, Asian) tended to rate voice and voicers higher than White recipients did, especially in the context of high severity voice, tests were too underpowered to be confident of subgroup differences. While exploratory analyses highlighted meaningful variation, larger targeted samples could clarify the extent to which various racially disadvantaged groups respond differently, and why.

Similarly, additional work is needed to better understand how growth identity operates. For example, it is unclear why growth identity operates so similarly to growth needs strength in the context of self-concept threat – while operating so differently from growth

mindset. It is also unclear why growth constructs had gender-specific effects. Growth identity and growth needs strength were significant moderators of the relationship between threat exposure and voice response for both men and women while growth mindset, moral growth mindset, and personal growth initiative were only significant for one group or the other. Where moderating effects were significant for both men and women the direction of effects still varied. Further research might help elucidate whether or not differences in advantaged vs. disadvantaged group member attributions for challenging voice, or base levels of threat when receiving challenging voice, influence the way growth identity operates.

Finally, these studies do not capture downstream or long-term outcomes of voice receptivity. Appraising voice and voicers as valuable is certainly a needed first step for effectively engaging with and learning from voice to promote social equality in organizations. However, this may not be sufficient for enactment of change (particularly in situations where other organizational gatekeepers may be resistant). In addition, situational receptivity may not necessarily translate into sustained openness. Future research would ideally also examine how situational receptivity accumulates into learning, relationship-building, and structural change in organizations over time.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this dissertation highlight the importance of preparing recipients—not just voicers—to engage productively with challenging voice about social inequality in organizational settings. Much of organizational practice around feedback and communication has focused on helping people speak up effectively, but these studies suggest that voice receptivity is also a worthy area of focus. This is especially true when the content of voice implicates the recipient in broader systems of inequality – a situation where even well-intentioned individuals may react defensively. Organizations that seek to foster inclusion and

equity should not ignore the psychological barriers that prevent recipients from responding constructively to challenging voice.

These studies also offer insight into how organizations might better equip organizational gatekeepers to overcome those barriers. Paper 1 suggests that growth values and identity may shape how recipients process discomfort and threat. Interventions that encourage people to see growth and learning as central to who they are, rather than as outcomes to be achieved, may help foster a culture of openness to difficult conversations. Findings from Paper 2 further suggest that encouraging advantaged group members to reflect on their own experiences of disadvantage—whether related to socioeconomic background, disability, family circumstances, or other dimensions—may open up channels for empathy with those they may not necessarily identify with. This form of self-directed reflection could complement perspective-taking approaches, which aim to increase empathy by making others' experiences more real and salient.

Finally, findings challenge the assumption that encouraging individuals to "speak up better" will be enough to improve how organizational gatekeepers respond to systemic and structural inequality. Even voice that is calm and constructive may be met with resistance if recipients are not equipped to hear it. Organizations should consider addressing the readiness of gatekeepers to engage with challenging voice regarding social inequality as a way of promoting equity goals effectively on an ongoing basis.