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ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT
RELATIONSHIP: MEDIATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE VOICE AND
MODERATING EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

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Organizational Justice and Work Engagement Relationship: Mediating Effect of
Employee Voice and Moderating Effect of Psychological Capital

Örgütsel Adalet ve İşle Bütünleşme İlişkisi: Çalışan Sesinin Aracı Etkisi ve
Psikolojik Sermayenin Düzenleyici Etkisi

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ABSTRACT

The study is a product of an interest in examining the relationship between organizational justice and work engagement. In doing that, not just examining the relationship but also exploring the likely mechanisms that may account for this relationship was the main aim. Employee voice was proposed as a mediating mechanism drawing on the theory on social exchange and the job demands-resources model. The results showed that all four dimensions of perceived organizational justice, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice, are related to work engagement through supportive, constructive and destructive dimensions of employee voice. Defensive voice dimension did not mediate organizational justice and work engagement relationship. Psychological capital (dealt with as a higher order construct consisting of efficacy, resilience, hope and optimism) was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between employee voice and work engagement but results did not support an interaction effect. These results highlight how employee voice behavior as a response is effective in perpetuating the impact of perceived organizational justice on work engagement.

Key Words

Organizational justice, employee voice, work engagement, psychological capital.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, algılanan örgütsel adalet ve işe angaje olma/işle bütünleşme/işe gönülden adanma/çalışmaya tutkunluk (work engagement) arasındaki ilişkinin araştırılması fikrinden ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu araştırmayı yaparken, bu iki kavram arasındaki ilişkiye neden olabilecek mekanizmaların da ortaya çıkarılması amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, dile getirme davranışı/işgören sesliliği/çalışan sesi (employee voice) kavramının, sosyal mübadele teorisi ve İş Talepleri/Kaynakları Modeli temel alınarak, aracı değişken etkisi olabileceği öne sürülmüştür. Araştırma sonuçları, destekleyici, yapıcı ve yıkıcı çalışan sesi boyutlarının, algılanan örgütsel adaletin dağıtım, süreç, kişilerarası ve bilgisel boyutları ile işle bütünleşme arasında aracı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bir diğer çalışan sesi boyutu olan savunucu çalışan sesinin anlamlı bir aracı etkisi bulunmamıştır. Bunun yanında, özyeterlilik, dayanıklılık, umut ve iyimserlik boyutlarından oluşan psikolojik sermaye kavramının, çalışan sesi ve işle bütünleşme arasında düzenleyici etkisi olduğu çalışmanın hipotezlerinde ileri sürülmüş fakat bulgular bu hipotezleri desteklememiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçları, çalışan sesinin farklı boyutlarının, algılanan örgütsel adalet seviyesini çalışanın işle bütünleşme derecesine nasıl yansıttığını anlamak açısından önemlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler

Örgütsel adalet, çalışan sesi, işle bütünleşme, psikolojik sermaye

INTRODUCTION

It has been almost a century since the search for a stimulating work environment for more positive organizational outcomes began with the Hawthorne studies. In time, those positive outcomes have evolved from pointing solely concrete performance figures to including intangible concepts, which are softer yet stronger in terms of their endurance, return and side effects, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and work engagement, eventually.

In the last fifteen years, a rise in the academic research and HR practices centering upon work engagement has been observed due to the gradual domination of service and information economy in the total economy. This imperative has led to different managerial approaches and practices aiming at effective management of human capital and a better yield of employee productivity and creativity through motivation. Employee engagement has been defined as one of those ways leading to that aim, and gained significance due to its indicator role regarding one's psychological connection to and experience of his work, and related consequences (Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter, 2011). Serving predominantly to practitioners' needs, Gallup regularly monitors changes in employee engagement levels worldwide across many different industries. In Gallup's microeconomic path, employee engagement constitutes the stage leading to engaged customers which is believed to result in sustainable growth, and real profit and stock increase in turn for organic sales growth (<http://www.gallup.com>).

In accordance with that trend, direct communication and relationship building has become critical in engaging the sophisticated workforce and therefore gaining competitive advantage. Cooperative practices employed for that aim range from information sharing, a variety of consultation processes and financial participation to participative decision-making. In this context, it is argued, traditional voice

mechanisms used for expressing dissent and employee dissatisfaction or collective representation by unions have been replaced by the contemporary forms, which come with the idea of joint problem solving, engagement, contribution to management decision making, and mutuality and cooperation. An interplay between macro (i.e economic positions, increased competition and deregulation) and micro conditions (i.e strategic choices at the firm level, change in organizational structures due to decreased division of labor and layering efforts and processes or power of actors) has marked the space allowed for employee voice within organizations (Holland, 2014).

However, in this relatively loose work environment where the boundaries of the effort and reward relationship has got blurred, the significance of employee perception as to the organizational justice has increased in determining employee attitudes and behavior. It is known that uncertainties felt by the employee cause a raised attention and a sharper awareness as to justice and fairness atmosphere within the organization. For it reflects in every part of the work life, organizational justice has become more visible, and a ‘should’ consideration for all organizations as the nature of the work changes (Colquitt and Zipay, 2015).

While the nature of the work and the relationship of the employee with his work and organization evolve, instead of being passive observers, some employees made their own contribution to craft their work in order to align their own motives and interests with the job content. This effort, it is argued, adds up to employees’ job resources and creates a balanced work experience for the employee through adjusting the tension caused by job demands (Bakker, 2010).

Recently, along with these efforts to find out the dynamics of a cultivating work and organization experience for better employee performance, potential of positive psychology in answering what is right and improving has been reexplored. The impact of the personal resources of employees in coping with uncertainties, adversities and challenges put under scrutiny through use of a higher-order concept,

namely psychological capital comprised of hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, Norman, 2007).

Taken together, against such a backdrop, I argue that a model of interaction among these three main concepts of worklife, namely organizational justice, employee voice and work engagement, merit a further inquiry. Thus, the study suggests a model referring to the question of whether and if so how employee voice mediates the relationship between organizational justice perception and work engagement of the employee. Additionally, the psychological capital is assumed to moderate the relationship between employee voice and work engagement. Operational definitions of the variables and the underlying logic regarding the proposed relationships are given in the ‘Theoretical Framework’ section below.

SECTION ONE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 VARIABLES

1.1.1 Work Engagement

1.1.1.1 Definition

There has been an ongoing debate about the definition of the concept of the work engagement in the literature, and studies hardly converge on a common definition (Kahn, 2010). Since the concept is a relatively new one, this ambiguity is seen as a natural part of the incremental evolution of an applied psychology construct as it was similarly observed in the development of burn-out and job involvement before, rather than being an indicator of a conceptual or practical disutility (Macey and Schneider, 2008). What is common in all proposed definitions is the conceptualization of engagement as a desired and positive work-related condition creating focused energy and true willingness towards achieving organizational goals (Macey et al., 2008; Albrecht, 2010).

Kahn (2010, p.20) as the developer of the concept states the reason as: “I developed the concept of engagement to explain what traditional studies of work motivation overlooked –namely, that employees offer up different degrees and dimensions of their selves according to some internal calculus that they consciously or unconsciously make. ... I believed that, rather than label workers as ‘motivated’ or not, these movements into or out of role performances could change a great deal as various conditions shifted. I developed the engagement concept to capture that process”.

According to Kahn’s definition (1990, p.693), engagement is about how and how much an employee invest his real self to his work role while performing the task.

Engagement is there when the employee is emotionally, cognitively, and physically brings his self into the role. It is about how employees express the preferred dimensions of their selves through their real identity, thoughts, and feelings.

Engagement is observable in what people do. Yet it is not limited to how hard people work. Engagement is about people's putting their real selves into their work. It is voicing the deep care for work and for the best performance of work. Therefore, a part of engagement is the willingness to express the real selves and voicing those selves as ideas, thoughts and feelings through and throughout the work. Engaged workers are accepted as those who are actively present in their work roles and consciously aware of the work demands and conditions. "These workers are bringing their full selves - a depth of awareness of which they may not even be fully aware- to bring to bear on their work" (Kahn, 2010, p.21).

1.1.1.2 Varying Frameworks

According to Bakker (2014), work engagement is an active state of vigor, dedication, and absorption which foresees significant organizational results, including job performance: "... In essence, work engagement captures how workers experience their work: as stimulating and energetic and something to which they really want to devote time and effort (the vigor component); as a significant and meaningful pursuit (dedication); and as engrossing and as something on which they are fully concentrated (absorption)" (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008 as cited in Bakker, 2014). Vigor includes great mental resilience besides energy, dedication refers to a strong involvement and being proud of one's work, and absorption means having the feeling of time flies while on the job (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, Hetland, 2012). In vigor the motivational aspects, which are the facets of arousal, maintenance and direction of action, of work engagement are captured. A sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge in relation to one's work characterize dedication component of engagement. Absorption means feeling of being fully concentrated on work and finding it hard

to detach. Absorption, it is argued, resembles the concept of flow (Mauno, Kinnunen, Makikangas, Feldt, 2010).

Macey and Schneider (2008) claim that a framework which involves both psychological state and behavior it implies suggests a richer model for further research on the antecedents and consequences of the construct so long as researchers are clear about the kind of engagement that they are focusing on. Their proposed framework subsumes engagement as a disposition (i.e, trait engagement) which refers to an inclination to see the world from a particular positive affectivity point and reflects in psychological state work engagement. State work engagement refers to a transient, work-related experience that causes a fluctuation in the work engagement level of the employees over a short period of time and focuses on intraindividual variations (Breevaart et al., 2012). It is attitudinal engagement (Newman, Joseph, Hulin, 2010). In the model, psychological state engagement is conceptualized as antecedent of behavioral engagement which is defined as discretionary effort or a specific form of in-role or extra-role effort or behavior. Workplace conditions that are influential on state and behavioral engagement include the nature of work (e.g. challenge, variety, autonomy) and the nature of leadership, particularly transformational leadership with having a direct effect on trust.

Fleck and Inceoglu (2010) suggest a model which deals with engagement as a state that may vary in its intensity over time according to personal or environmental situations. They underline the importance of knowing about the motivational basis lying behind the behaviors indicating engagement in order to avoid the danger of a misleading interpretation regarding the cause and effect relationship. Therefore, handling engagement as a state, they argue, separates it from the behaviors ascribed to it, and prevents any ambiguity as to the causality. They propose person-job fit and person-organization fit as factors that represent the characteristics of the work environment as the drivers of engagement. In their model, engagement is treated as a state, and composed of items of energy (affective, job related), absorption (cognitive, job related), alignment (cognitive, organization related), and

identification (affective, organization related). The state engagement is influenced by personal dispositions of personality and motivation, and drives effort, extra-role and advocacy behaviors. Behaviors borne by the state engagement create positive personal and organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, career progress, and profit, lower staff turnover, and customer satisfaction, respectively.

Newman et. al (2010, p.52), drawing on the classic psychological notion that broad attitudes predict broad behavioral outcomes and treating engagement as a behavioral construct, assert that behavioral engagement captures the variance among a number of organizational behaviors. The authors demonstrate that their conceptualization of employee engagement is strongly correlated with A-factor that is “the shared content among commitment/affective attachment, job satisfaction/liking, and job involvement” both conceptually and empirically with a correlation coefficient of 0.77.

Meyer, Gagne and Parfyonova (2010, p.64) basing on the previous studies treating employee engagement as three-fold with a dual foci (work and/or organization) suggest an alternative working definition: “engagement is experienced as enthusiasm and self-involvement with a task or collective (for example, organization), is fostered by a corresponding dispositional orientation and facilitating climate, and manifests itself in proactive value-directed behavior”. Employing the self-determination theory of motivation (SDT) and three-component model of commitment (TCM) as an integrated framework, they propose an explanatory mechanism to understand different aspects of engagement, which are “activity engagement” and “organizational engagement” (they posit that engagement can also be to a change process, to project teams etc.) in terms of personal dispositions and situational factors. Their framework makes a distinction between disengagement, full engagement and contingent engagement for both activity and organization foci. Disengagement refers to amotivation at activity level and uncommitment at organizational level. Contingent engagement at organizational level occurs through continuance and/or normative commitment, whereas it is through external regulation or introjected regulation at activity level.

Full engagement is related to affective and/or normative commitment for organization focus. It is through integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation for activity engagement. According to SDT, identification (being motivated to achieve a personally valued goal) and integration (being motivated to express one's sense of self) as two components of autonomous regulation, which is a distinct form of extrinsic motivation, are activated through the satisfaction of the psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness. Autonomy need is satisfied when workers feel that they do freely choose what they do and when it is consistent with their core values. Competence need is satisfied when workers believe that they are capable and have necessary resources to achieve their work goals. Relatedness is satisfied when workers carry a sense of being unconditionally valued and appreciated by others. Fully engaged employees are, it is argued, autonomously regulated. However, although some workers are more predisposed to find situations which satisfy their needs, yet some outside factors are effective in determining the level of engagement that can be achieved even in such an environment. Among those factors are task characteristics, rewards and recognition, and managerial styles. Considering all these Meyer et al. (2010) posit that academics hold further knowledge regarding the basis of the understanding for both activity and organization engagement than it is acknowledged. The findings of the previous research on SDT and TCM would contribute to our understanding of antecedents of state engagement for both activity and organization foci and its behavioral consequences.

Recognizing the existence and contribution of these various frameworks conceptualizing engagement as a personal disposition, state or behavior or all, the proposed study use the framework of Bakker which has been the most widely accepted model and used measure of engagement in academic research (Meyer et al., 2010) and which conceptualizes engagement as a three dimensional – dedication, vigor and absorption- state based, distinct construct.

1.1.1.3 Key Drivers of Work Engagement

Based on the empirical research, Kahn (p.22, 2010) argues that “people are more likely to engage when they feel that it is meaningful to do so, when they sense that it is safe to do so, and when they are available to do so”. In his seminal paper drawing on an ethnographic study, Kahn defines the psychological conditions that are effective in determining self-in-role level of the employees: meaningfulness, safety and availability. Engagement varies according to the perception of the employees regarding the meaningfulness, desired benefits, guarantees, safety and resources in the situation.

Meaningfulness considers the work elements that represent a valence for the employee to get motivated to engage and it is the end result of a calculation as regards what one receives on investments of one's self in return. When employees feel worthwhile, useful and valuable, they experience a sense of meaningfulness. Tasks that are more or less challenging and that represents variety, creativity and autonomy with clear procedures and goals prone to create a stronger sense of meaningfulness. Roles that are associated with status, attractive identities, and that show a better congruence with the self image have a positive influence on meaningfulness felt. A social system characterized by interpersonal interactions with a sense of value, self-appreciation and dignity and professional elements results in a better sense of meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990).

Employees more tend to show engagement when they feel that occupying their work role with their self would not make them vulnerable to image and status loss or some other negative consequences. Fear of personal damage is a condition that causes defensive reactions and suppresses self-expressive, engaged work role performances. Predictability, security and clarity as to the consequences of work behaviors are factors that employees seek in the elements of the social system to establish a sense of safety. Sense of safety generates from a non-threatening, predictable and consistent social system. Interpersonal relations, group and intergroup dynamics, management style and process, and organizational norms are

the bundles that these factors are embedded. Ongoing relationships that show trust, support, security and openness; group member interactions that are informal and that leave room for safe self-expression; leader behaviors that are supportive, resilient, consistent, competent and trustable, and organizational norms that accept investment of self during work role performances constitute the nature of ideal social systems to cultivate sense of safety within organizations (Kahn, 1990).

Availability happens when the employee feels himself fully equipped with the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary to bring his real self into the work role. Physical and emotional energies along with the necessary level of confidence in the abilities and status possessed, and the tension created by a relative ambivalence about fit with the social system influence the sense of availability of the employee. In addition to these, outside life factors may add to or subtract from it.

Job resources such as physical, social, psychological, or organizational aspects of the job (e.g. social support from the colleagues, supervisory coaching and performance feedback) are instrumental to reach the work goals and are reported to be the most important predictors of work engagement due to their motivational potential especially for cases where the job demands from the person is high (Bakker, 2014). In addition to those, skill variety, decision latitude, resourceful environments and opportunity to learn, personal resources such as PsyCap (self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience) are predictors of work engagement (Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter, 2011).

In their review of the findings of both the cross-sectional and longitudinal studies searching antecedents of work engagement, Mauno et al. (2010) find that job resources such as social support, job autonomy/control, feedback, innovativeness and positive organizational climate positively associate with work engagement. Self-efficacy and optimism are personal resources that are found positively related with work engagement. Woerkmom, Oerlemans and Bakker (2016) report that general strengths use support is positively related to weekly use of strengths at the

between-person level, and this is positively related to weekly work engagement in turn directly and indirectly via self-efficacy.

Bakker et al. (2011) propose that a “climate for engagement” would ideally consists of the the six worklife areas of workload, control, reward, community, fairness and values, and would create a cultivating atmosphere for employee engagement through directly and indirectly influencing the employee experience of job demands and resources and personal resources.

1.1.1.4 Performance and Other Outcomes

There is ample accumulated evidence thanks to previous studies showing robust relationships between employee engagement and a range of important organizational outcomes such as employee commitment, in-role and extra-role behavior, service climate, employee performance and customer loyalty, and daily financial returns for employees (Albrecht, 2010).

Engagement results in a lot of effort on the core tasks, extra-role behavior that refers to going the extra mile, advocacy for the organization against outsiders and customers, job satisfaction and longer tenure (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010).

Fluegge (2008) reports that there is a positive relationship between work engagement and creative performance. Contrary to the general view, the study does not show a significant relationship between work engagement and task performance or organizational citizenship behavior. But work engagement acts as a mediator between fun at work and creative performance. Results of the study suggest that individuals having fun at work are more likely to be more engaged in their work, and develop a better creative performance in turn.

1.1.2 Organizational Justice

1.1.2.1 Definition

Justice is defined as “the perceived adherence to rules that reflect appropriateness in decision contexts”. In organizational research, justice is treated socially constructed :“an act is defined as just if most individuals perceive it to be so” (Colquitt and Rodell, 2015, p.188). That is, in organizational studies justice is regarded as a phenomenon comprised of subjective perceptions of the members of a collectivity.

While explaining why employees pay attention to justice, Colquitt and Zipay (2015) put forward uncertainty as the umbrella term under which problems about trustworthiness, morality, goal progress, status, and anything gather. Uncertainty about trustworthiness draws on the Blau’s (1964) social exchange theory, and assumes that those employees who are willing to go the extra mile would expect a reciprocation so long as the trustworthiness of the supervisor is not spoiled. But if there is uncertainty about trustworthiness, this creates doubt and takes employee attention to justice. Fairness heuristic theory considers similar cases where decision about cooperation or avoiding cooperation is made over and over again, and therefore trustworthiness of the participating actors becomes significant. Related fundamental social dilemma explains situations where cooperation brings the risk of exploitation and rejection, and avoidance leads to giving up outcomes achievable only through collective effort. Uncertainty about morality occurs when the supervisor violates a “should” norm, and this triggers thinking about justice. Uncertainty about goal progress is explained by affective events theory. Theory argues that events are evaluated in two iterations: if the event is considered as harmful to the goal attainment then it creates anger, sadness, disappointment etc., and creates considerations as to justice. According to relational theory, individuals pay particular attention to signals regarding their status in the group. Fair treatment from the upper level management is received as an indicator of the value and status of the individual in the organization. Therefore justice is of importance for the

employee. Employees can develop perception as to uncertainties even without existence of a plausible reason. According to uncertainty management theory, thinking justice is a method to cope with uncertainty for those employees.

Theoretical approaches employed to study justice vary according to their focus; provision of control and influence in the process, focus on consistency, and interpersonal treatment while conducting processes are issues that these theories are centred upon (Colquitt et al. , 2001, p.426). In the last decade use of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) marked the developments in explaining the justice effects in the literature (Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, 2013).

Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng (2001) take 1975 as the starting date of justice studies because this is the date when Thibaut and Walker (1975 as cited in Colquitt et al. 2001) introduce the 'procedural justice' concept. In their study Thibaut and Walker (1975) analyze the dispute resolution procedures and suggest that disputants who have influence in the process stage viewed the procedure as fair. Perception of the parties as regards the fairness of outcome allocations or the procedures settling those distributions forms the justice perception. These two forms have later constituted the two main dimensions of organizational justice: distributive justice and procedural justice.

Leventhal and colleagues (1980 as cited in Colquitt et al. 2001, p.426) are cited as the researchers who extend the concept of procedural justice into organizational settings. They defined six criteria that should be fulfilled by any organizational action to be viewed as fair: "1) be applied consistently across people and across time, 2) be free from bias, 3) ensure that accurate information is collected and used in making decisions, 4) have some mechanism to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions, 5) conform to personal or prevailing standards of ethics or morality, and 6) ensure that the opinions of various groups affected by the decision have been taken into account".

A third dimension which deals with the interpersonal treatment and added to the concept as a social aspect is "interactional justice". Interactional justice has two specific types: 1)interpersonal justice and 2)informational justice. Interpersonal justice refers to the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity and respect by the parties involved in the interaction. Informational justice underlines the provision of information to the affected parties as to why outcome distribution occur in a certain way or why procedures are applied in a certain way (Colquitt et. al, 2001).

For the purposes of the study, the four-dimension framework of Colquitt (2001) which consists of distributional, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice dimensions will be used as the operational definition of organizational justice.

1.1.2.2 Outcomes of Organizational Justice

Colquitt et al. (2001) mention three different models which suggest different explanations between justice dimensions and important personal and organization outcomes. As the first model, Leventhal's argument shows that distributive justice has a stronger influence on the overall sense of justice within the organization. This constitutes the basis for distributive dominance model. The second model draws on the postulate of Sweeney and McFarlin and suggests that distributive justice has a stronger impact on person referenced outcomes such as job satisfaction or performance whereas organization referenced outcomes such as organizational commitment is more likely to be influenced by procedural justice. This correspondence between distributive justice and personal outcomes, and procedural justice and organizational outcomes is termed as "two-factor model" . Third model builds on the argument that when people decide about their reactions to higher authorities they draw on their perceptions of interpersonal justice; on the other hand, informational justice perception they hold shapes their reaction to the overall organization. Parallel to that, basing on the social exchange theory of Blau (1964) , Masterson and colleagues argue that interactional justice is a better predictor of

supervisory outcomes whereas procedural justice better predicts organizational outcomes. This model called as "agent-system model" and asserts that "interpersonal and informational justice will be more powerful predictors of agent-referenced outcomes than system-referenced outcomes" (1980, 1993 and 1986 respectively as cited in Colquitt et al. 2001, pp.428-29, original emphasis).

As to the construct discrimination Colquitt et al. (2001) report that process control and Leventhal criteria are highly correlated but not as much to treat these two as the same construct. Similarly, interpersonal and informational justice are reported as highly correlated but still not so highly to be regarded as the same construct under the "interactional justice" label. Interpersonal and informational justice are stronger predictors of procedural justice when considered alone rather than in conjunction with structural facets of procedural justice. Leventhal criteria shows a strong impact on procedural fairness perception. Researchers report little support for the distributive dominance model, the model is only supported for outcome satisfaction and withdrawal. The two-factor model finds support only for person-referenced and organization-referenced attitudes such as outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and system-referenced evaluation of authority. The model is not supported for behavioral outcomes such as OCB, withdrawal and negative reactions except performance. Procedural justice shows a better performance prediction ability. The agent-system model is supported for agent-referenced outcomes such as agent-referenced evaluation of authority but not for trust. It is also supported for job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance.

Colquitt et al. (2001) show that procedural, interpersonal and informational justice are distinct constructs showing different correlates. They also warn researchers against breaking the content validity of the interactional justice construct through including measures that are not included in the original conceptualization of the concept such as granting voice to subordinates, treating consistently, and suppressing biases.

In their meta-analytic review Colquitt et al. (2013) report that four dimensions of justice are positively related to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). More specifically, both organization and supervisor focused breakdowns of procedural, distributive, informational and interpersonal justice are positively related to organization, supervisor, and co-worker targeted OCB. Interpersonal and informational justice dimensions outperform others in their predictive powers. In the same study, it is shown that all dimensions of justice as global constructs and with organization and supervisor focused breakdowns are positively related to trust in supervisor, trust in organization, organizational commitment (affective commitment dimension), perceived organizational support and LMX where latter five concepts used as social exchange relationship quality indicators. In addition to that, all four justice dimensions appear to have significant unique effects on the latent variable of social exchange relationship quality. Also all justice dimensions show a significant indirect effect on task performance, OCB, and none has a significant indirect effect on counter productive work behavior (CWB).

When it comes to affect, all four justice dimensions have a significant unique effect on state negative affect and only procedural justice and distributive justice show a significant unique effect on state positive affect. Procedural and distributive justice have significant indirect effects on task performance. Procedural justice and distributive justice have significant indirect effects on OCB. Distributive, procedural and interpersonal justice have significant effects on counter productive work behavior (CWB). Therefore, affect is a better factor than social exchange quality (made up of trust, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and LMX) in explaining justice and CWB relationship. The results of the study support that indicators of social exchange quality mediate the relationship between justice and reciprocative behaviors which are OCB, CWB and task performance. The results also reveal that justice is moderately positively related to state positive affect and moderately negatively related to state negative affect. The relationship between procedural and distributive justice and task performance are mediated by state positive affect. And the relationship of procedural and

distributive justice with OCB are mediated by state positive affect and less so by state negative affect. For that reason the researchers recommend an approach that integrates the social exchange and affect perspectives in studying justice (Colquitt et al., 2013).

In their review Colquitt and Zipay (2015) create a chain starting with the uncertainties of trustworthiness, morality, goal progress, status, and anything leading to the formation of justice and fairness perception of the employee resulting in behaviors of reciprocation, cooperation, engagement, moral emotion-driven behavior, negative emotion-driven behavior through mediation of social exchange, group mode, identification, moral emotions, emotions and negative emotions.

1.1.3 Employee Voice

1.1.3.1 Definition

Employee voice is a result of a conscious and deliberate decision-making process that favors speaking up over silence, and it is pervasive in organizations through both formal or informal mechanisms (Morrison and Milliken, 2003a; Van Dyne, Ang and Bottero, 2003; Mowbray, Wilkinson, Tse, 2015). Voice is important because it provides an alternative to “love it or leave it” dichotomy and suggests a third way to take for organization members in cases of deteriorating conditions (Hirschman, 1970). Voice is also seen as a key concept in re-establishing the employee performance through a legitimate, recuperative mechanism by organizations (Farrell, 1983).

Voice can be understood in many levels of analysis. First, it can be a structural phenomenon including formal arrangements such as unions, work councils, grievance systems, or a totally informal individual act that derives solely from the employee discretion. Second, it may represent an individual process as in a small talk at the coffee machine or a group process as in autonomous working groups

(AWG) (Procter and Benders, 2014). Third it can be constructive or destructive in its nature. Forth, the purpose for voice may change; it might be promotive by having the objective of improving the conditions in the organization or prohibitive by aiming to stop harm (Gruman and Saks, 2014). In the same sense, voice may be future oriented or present oriented as changing the status quo versus identifying the current problems respectively (Chou and Barron, 2016). Fifth, voice may have different focus; it may be pro-social, justice-oriented, customer-oriented, task-based, or dissent oriented. And sixth, identifiability of the voicer may change between anonymous and identifiable.

Studies from various disciplines, such as OB, HRM/ER, IR, and labor economics, have contributed to the accumulation of knowledge while focusing on different aspects of the concept which are congruent with the general problem each discipline deals with. The characteristic of voice being a discretionary behavior, alongside its being a proxy for participation in management/decision making, is what separates OB studies adopted this specific definition from those in HRM/ER and IR which use extended conceptualizations including institutional opportunities for voice.

While engaging in voice behavior, employees may resort to various mechanisms and channels based on the structural or social availability of these. Formal voice mechanisms as pre-arranged, formally codified and established structures, and informal voice mechanisms, as ad-hoc or non-programmed interactions between management and the staff, may create a facilitator and/or regulatory effect on the voice behavior of the employee. Formal voice is direct voice, whereas communication instances, which show voice quality and happen to occur in an unstructured, informal fashion during the day, are called indirect voice. Recently social media can be added to the lists in both formal and informal voice mechanism boxes.

A list of formal and informal mechanisms is shown in the table below:

Table 1.1 Formal and Informal Voice Mechanisms

Formal Voice Mechanisms	Informal Voice Mechanisms
Grievance processes	Informal discussions
One-to-one meetings	One-to-one meetings
Speak-up programme	Word-of-mouth
Email	Email
Open door policy	Open door policy
Empowerment by supervisor	Empowerment by supervisor
Self-managed teams	
Upward problem-solving groups	
Attitude surveys	
Staff meetings	
Team briefings	
Quality circles	
Suggestion schemes	
Joint Consultative Committee	
Works Councils	
Continuous improvement teams	
Ombudsman	
Mediation	
Arbitration	
Internal Tribunals	
Intranet	

Source: Mowbray et al. (2015, p.389)

Definitions of ER discipline centers basically upon “how employees voice and the notion of participating in decisions” and focuses on direct voice motivated by the organizational benefit and the individual benefit of employee at the same time (Mowbray et al., 2015, p. 385, original emphasis). In ILR literature voice is dealt with as a broad and multidimensional concept rather than as mechanisms formally

availed to workers. ER and ILR conceptualize voice as a component of procedural justice, or as the opposite of silence. Voice in ER and ILR literature represents a collective expression realized through collective bargaining, grievance filing, work councils etc. and differ from the conceptualization in OB in this respect (Morrison, 2011). Budd (2016) finds the roots of this separation in different conceptualizations of work made use by these disciplines. According to Budd, in OB literature, work is considered personal fulfillment achieved through physical and psychological functioning and satisfies individual needs. Here, voice is for satisfaction and productivity enhancement. Whereas, he maintains, it is seen as occupational citizenship that represents certain rights held by the members of the community in ER and ILR. From this perspective, voice implies industrial democracy and self-determination over employment conditions.

Morrison (2011) argues that current definitions of employee voice in OB converge on three common points: (1) voice being a verbal expression, (2) voice being a discretionary behavior, (3) voice being organizationally constructive in its intent (Morrison, 2011). Regarding the third commonality Morrison (2011) emphasizes the effort to create a positive change while casting out the mere objective of venting or complaining. Similarly Bashshur and Oc (2015) emphasize the importance of change motive, and describe voice as an attempt to change the status quo.

OB literature is criticized due to its narrower look and seeing voice predominantly as a form of pro-social behavior motivated solely by the desire to improve organization's benefit rather than eliminating personal dissatisfaction. In time, OB literature, it is argued, has moved away from treating personal dissatisfaction, dissent or justice voice as a motive for voice and by doing that distanced itself from the original conceptualization of Hirschman (Mowbray et al., 2015).

Though the idea of employee voice goes back more than two centuries ago, to the works of Adam Smith and Karl Marx (Kaufman, 2014), Hirschman (1970) is credited as the earliest scholar who developed a formal theory and handled voice as

a concept of importance for future performance of organizations from an economic perspective. In his seminal work Hirschman (1970, p.2) suggests exit and voice as major alternatives and/or complementary mechanisms to competition in recuperating firms suffering from “repairable lapse” meaning a deterioration in performance that reflects in the quality of the product or service provided. When an absolute or comparative deterioration is observed in the quality, some customers cease to buy the product/services of the company and some members quit the organization: “this is the exit option”. Another action that might be taken by the customers or the members of the organization is to reach to the upper level management or to a higher authority who cares to listen, and express the dissatisfaction experienced with the quality of the products or services of the organization: “this is the voice option” (original emphasis, p.4). These two are the ways through which the management knows about the failings of the firms. According to Hirschman (1970) all organizations are subject to decline and decay and this very process of decline and decay activates its own endogenous forces of recovery: exit and voice.

Hirschman’s (1970, p.30) conceptualization has constituted the base idea for further studies of voice and encompassed a rather broader perspective from an economic viewpoint: “To resort to voice, rather than exit, is for the customer or member to make an attempt at changing the practices, policies, and outputs of the firm from which one buys or of the organization to which one belongs. Voice is here defined as any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs, whether through individual or collective petition to the management directly in charge, through appeal to a higher authority with the intention of forcing a change in management, or through various types of actions and protests, including those that are meant to mobilize public opinion”.

Since the early conceptualization by Hirschman (1970), although scholars’ interest in studying the concept has exponentially increased, a consensus on a specific definition has hardly occurred. Farrell (1983, p.598) in his approach derived from

the study of Hirschman, developed a model (EVLN) involving neglect, besides exit, voice and loyalty, as an alternative response of the employee to job dissatisfaction. He defined neglect as "...lax and disregardful behavior among workers", a response of "silence and inaction" which shows as lateness, absenteeism, error rates, temporary abandonment and psychological inattention. Farrell tried to map the responses of employees in a space defined by two axes lying between constructive-destructive and active-passive dimensions. Voice, in his conceptualization, occupies the active-constructive quadrant. Despite being an integrative framework, EVLN however, due to its inability to explain the antecedents of the proposed responses and strong focus on employee dissatisfaction, has not fed into the further line of voice research recently changing its route away from employee dissent (Morrison, 2011).

In voice literature, an operating definition and a basing 6-item scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998) prevails. Van Dyne and LePine (1998, p. 109) consider voice as an example of challenging promotive behavior among other types of extra-role behavior, namely challenging prohibitive (whistle-blowing), affiliative prohibitive (stewardship) and affiliate promotive (helping). According to the researchers, voice suggests change and it is future-oriented with the message of 'it could be better': "...promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize. Voice is making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree". This specific definition suggested by Van Dyne and LePine differs from previous broader ones in its narrower content excluding grievance procedures, participation and due processes (Mowbray et al., 2015).

In her review, Morrison (2011, p.375) suggests a definition of voice as "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning". Morrison (2011) treats issue selling, whistle-blowing, upward communication,

voice as a response to dissatisfaction, and prosocial organizational behavior as constructs related to voice, and compare these concepts to voice for a better understanding. According to the author, issue selling is a subset of voice due to its specific focus on information about organizational-level strategic issues or opportunities. Whistle-blowing is broader than voice in its scope including external communication and narrower in its mere inappropriate behavior including content. In whistle-blowing literature studies rarely include a conceptualization of voice as expressed, acknowledged or leading to change (Bashshur and Oc, 2015). Upward communication is broader as the term might refer to any communication between levels. Voice as a response to dissatisfaction is narrower with its focus just including the dissatisfying conditions. Two prosocial behaviors reflecting voice are suggesting procedural, administrative or organizational improvements, and objecting to improper directives, procedures or policies. Including voice in the prosocial behavior literature shows how the view of the scholars has changed from removal of personal dissatisfaction driven voice to organizational improvement motivated voice as a form of prosocial behavior (Morrison, 2011).

However, treating employee voice as a prosocial behavior only assumes a singularity of motives as primarily other-oriented and aiming just organizational improvement. This approach seems unsubstantiated since majority of the studies in this field employ a quantitative method and use the scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998), thus provides little information as to the range and scope of the issues conveyed up (Morrison, 2011; Mowbray et al., 2015). In addition to that, that specific definition is criticized for ignoring different voice systems and setting an a priori definition of a normative purpose and form (Wilkinson, Donaghey, Dundon, Freeman, 2014). It is also known that prosocial motives can as well lead employees to hide knowledge and opinions to protect privacy and reputation of others (Bolino and Grant, 2016). Furthermore, these studies majorly focus on voice expressed and rarely examine voice ignored (Bashshur and Oc, 2015). Organizational justice literature similarly handles voice as an opportunity to speak up; in very rare cases expressed, ignored or acknowledged voice or the change

enactment it creates is examined separately (Bashshur and Oc, 2015). Voice here is treated as stable over time (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998).

In his review of the future of voice research Budd (2016, p.478) notes that it should be acknowledged that voice behavior that leads to no end would extinguish in time. Yet he advocates that a result-oriented focus would be misleading because "...some of the time it can solely have intrinsic worth". Therefore, the uncertainty as to the dividing line between what voice is and is not appears as another challenge for the researchers.

Silence, which is defined as intentionally withholding ideas, information, and opinions with relevance to improvements in work and work organizations, hardly parts from voice discussions, and is regarded by scholars as opposite end of a continuum showing a negative correlation with voice or as two distinct constructs (Van Dyne, Ang and Botero, 2003, p.1360). Van Dyne et al. (2003) for example define three types of silence, and parallel to that three type of voice by taking the assumed motive behind these into account: acquiescence (caused by resignation and disengagement), prosocial (other oriented) and defensive silence (results from fear). A third argument says voice and silence can co-exist. An employee may prefer to engage in voice behavior while withholding certain types of information at the same time. Morrison (2011, p.380) says that even if this last argument holds true, "this does not imply orthogonal constructs. Rather, it implies the need to recognize that voice and silence are rarely absolute (i.e., complete voice or complete silence) and that individuals may show considerable variance across issues and over time".

Gruman and Saks (2014, p.456) argue that what is important for organizations is not the act of speaking up, it is rather the *quality* (original emphasis) of the message that is conveyed. Accordingly, neither silence nor acquiescent voice, which involves resignation, represents any quality message for the enhancement of the

organizational conditions. Thus the scholars argue that organizations should focus on factors that will create committed and engaged voice.

In a new conceptualization of the voice behavior, Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) extend the definition of the concept to include not only improvement-oriented, positive change efforts set up in constructive voice, but also supportive voice as promoting organizational applications with no intention to change, defensive voice as advocacy of the organization against opposers, and destructive voice as challenging and harshly criticizing the status quo. According to this conceptualization “Although voice is often verbally expressed, it is not limited to verbal behavior; it includes such actions as sending e-mails and writing memos. On the other hand, not all expressive behavior is voice. To be considered voice, the expression must be (a) openly communicated, (b) organizationally relevant, (c) focused on influencing the work environment, and (d) received by someone inside the organization” (p. 2). The researchers position preservation/challenge dimension opposite of the promotive/prohibitive dimension in a two by two matrix, and get a voice domain that consists of four quadrants: 1)preservation/promotive as supportive voice, 2)preservation/prohibitive as defensive voice, 3)challenge/prohibitive as destructive voice, and 4)challenge/promotive as constructive voice. Supportive voice occurs when employees endorse valuable current practices of the organization against criticizing coworkers. If an active resistance to a change in the policies and practices of the organization even for cases where that specific change is really necessary is heard, it is defensive voice. A harsh criticism directed to the organization and related matters in a hurting manner represents destructive voice. Employees provide the organization with constructive voice when they voluntarily give their opinions and suggestions for fixing the problems and improving the organization. Due to its being the most recently developed framework of the concept with a broader focus and a validated voice scale, the proposed study uses the conceptualization of Maynes and Podsakoff (2014).

1.1.3.2 Motives for Voicing

Employees may engage in voice just for organizational improvement as a pro-social behavior (Bolino and Grant, 2016) , for expressing a desire for change (Bashshur and Oc, 2015), for complaining or venting, or expressing dissent (Hirschman, 1970).

Voice brings up personal opinion of the member explicitly and directly expressed in a wide range of behaviors which connote a political stance regarding the situation: "...In all these respects voice is just the opposite of exit. It is a far more 'messy' concept because it can be graduated, all the way from faint grumbling to violent protest; it implies articulation of one's critical opinions rather than a private, 'secret' vote in the anonymity of a supermarket; and finally, it is direct and straightforward rather than roundabout. Voice is political action par excellence" (Hirschman, 1970, pp.15-16). Therefore voicing an idea is not risk free for employees at all.

According to Morrison (2011) two essential questions are effective in the decision process as to whether to engage in voice behavior or not: (1) is it effective?, (2) is it safe? Therefore perceived efficacy and perceived safety of voice are suggested as two influencing factors. Pohler and Luchak (2014) call these factors utility motive and self-preservation motive respectively. Effectiveness is about getting attention of the receiver and safety is being liberate from image risk, damage to credibility or social capital, labelling, or other tangible costs like negative performance evaluation, undesirable job assignments or even termination. In cases where employees feel insecure about speaking up and fear from the negative repercussions, they may adopt "defensive silence" and withhold information (Morrison, 2011). In many cases however, individual is between the choices of speaking up to improve the situation or withholding due to the concerns regarding the possible personal consequences of the voice. Maynes and Podsakoff (2014)

report that promotive types of voice result in positive outcomes for the voicing employee, whereas prohibitive forms resulted in negative outcomes.

1.1.3.3 Predictors of Employee Voice

Contextual factors

As Morrison, Wheeler-Smith and Kamdar (2011) state, collectively shared beliefs about speaking up in the organization have an impact on voice behavior of the employee. These beliefs may constitute a safe and effective, cultivating environment (elaborated as a climate where there is group voice safety beliefs and group voice efficacy), and encourage employees to communicate their messages or function just the opposite. The researchers argue that climates that favor worker voice, develop as a result of social interaction and collective sensemaking, leadership style and behavior, and vicarious learning and salient events in the history of the group. Context provides the members with cues as to the possible outcomes of any behavior and to the interpretation of it. Group voice climate is reported as a strong predictor of the voice behavior especially for employees with high group identification.

Morrison (2011) states that formal organizational structure and its bureaucracy with many layers of positions and hierarchy and physical distance inhibit voice in organizations. However, the existence of formally established upward feedback channels may have a facilitating effect even in on-bureaucratic organizations (Pohler and Luchak, 2014). Organizational culture appears as a factor that may encourage or discourage voice in organizations. Especially informal voice is considered more susceptible to managerial control and influence (Mowbray et al., 2015). In organizations where there is organizational and peer support for voicing it is not hard for employees to speak up since in such contexts voice perceived neither costly nor risky. “A favorable voice climate” which is characterized by a strong support for voicing as a social norm (Morrison, Wheeler-Smith and Kamdar, 2011), open agenda and recognition of the attached influence of the employee by

the management (Mowbray et al., 2015) and a lack of fear and intimidation would encourage employees to communicate their suggestions or information they hold to their teammates or supervisors (Morrison, 2011, p. 388). Groups characterized by smaller size, self-managing nature, adopting egalitarian practices and with satisfied members are known as encouraging member voice behavior (Pohler and Luchak, 2014).

Supervisor behavior

It is known that high trust to the supervisor, openness and approachability of the supervisor, transformational leadership and high leader-member exchange creates a perception of efficacy and safety in the employee and encourages voice behavior (Morrison, 2011). On the other hand, it is still vague that exactly what behaviors of the supervisors do or not do trigger the mechanism. Bashshur and Oc (2015) report a positive relationship between voice and trust in authority. Trust in leadership and managerial openness are critical variables in determining the effectiveness of the voice system and decision to speak up. However, empowering behaviors of the leaders such as participative decision-making, informing and coaching can moderate the relationship. Attitude of middle level managers in regulating the voice channel is crucial too. While some supervisors prefer to encourage a free flow of employee voice others in the same organization may prefer to block the channel (Mowbray et al., 2015). Also higher quality leader-member exchange relationships and the commitment triggering transformational leadership, and ethical leadership, due to their trusting environment creating effect, have been found to encourage employee voice (Pohler and Luchak, 2014). When leaders are open, supportive, inclusive, trusted, and ensure a sense of psychological safety, employees are more likely to speak up (Bolino and Grant, 2016).

Employee Attitudes and Dispositions

A variety of individual attitudes, including satisfaction, organizational commitment, professional commitment, work-group identification, felt obligation for constructive change, and perceptions of fairness are reported as positively related to voice. Dissatisfaction can sometimes trigger voice so long as the employee feels identified with the organization and believes that change is possible (Bolino and Grant, 2016). Regarding personal dispositions, personality dimensions and cognitive style preferences and self-monitoring are factors influential in voice decision of employees (Morrison, 2011). Proactive personality is a predictor of voice as a prosocial behavior (Bolino and Grant, 2016). It is shown that stronger prosocial motives are better predictors of challenging voice compare to impression management motives (Grant and Mayer, 2009). Extraverts, and those with higher conscientiousness more tend to voice whereas people with high neuroticism and agreeableness are reluctant to speak up. Results as to gender differences are rare and inconclusive. But tenure and experience show clearer pictures. Employees with longer tenure and more experience feel much more capable to control and change things in the organizations, and this brings about efficacy and safety and a stronger motivation to voice in turn. Moreover, since experienced employees have a greater sense of investment in their job and organization they show a stronger willingness to engage in voice behavior and other corrective acts which are more likely to entail risk. Work status (full-timers v. part-timers) shows similar results. Employees in full-timer positions have better reasons to engage in discretionary behaviors even if these behaviors might be risky, because their relationship with their organizations includes a social benefit aspect besides monetary incentives. Hence, these employees are more likely to feel more effective and safe when they speak up compare to part-timers. Employees who hold central positions, who are more powerful, and who have better performance history, feel a greater sense of personal influence that manifests as more frequent voice behavior. Role perceptions of employees have a significant impact on their voice decision as well. Those who regard voicing as an in-role behavior are rated as frequent voicers

compare to those whose idiosyncratic view takes it as an extra-role behavior (Morrison, 2011; Pohler and Luchak, 2014).

1.1.3.4 Consequences Of Employee Voice

The idea that voice brings important positive results for organizations and work groups and for individual worker prevails in the literature however this may rather be an oversimplification (Bashshur and Oc, 2015) and a fast conclusion for the result most likely depends not only on the content of the message and the response it takes (Morrison, 2011) but also on the level of the organization it takes place and the outcome of interest (Bashshur and Oc, 2015). And it is known that the response is majorly shaped by the attributions of the target regarding the motive behind the voice behavior (Morrison, 2011).

Voice is good for better decision-making and error detection, for organizational learning and improvement, and for successful implementation of new practices by action teams. It is known that many fatal errors by organizations such as the crash of United Airlines flight 173, the Columbia space disaster, and BP Deepwater Horizon drilling explosion are attributed to voice failures (Gruman & Saks, 2014).

Voice may improve the sense of control, increase satisfaction and motivation, and decrease the stress of the individual worker. It is reported that voice in the form of a proactive and prosocial behavior leads to higher performance evaluations for the employee. Prosocial motives are positively related to voice (Bolino and Grant, 2016).

On the other hand, voice option comes with its specific costs for the employee. Voice may be detrimental for the public image of the worker since it may bring the danger of being labeled as complainer or troublemaker, or some formal sanctions such as lower performance appraisal or a bad assignment (Morrison, 2011; Pohler

and Luchak, 2014). The cost of voice not only includes the opportunity cost (staying loyal to the current organization despite the existence of some better options outside) but also the time, money and emotional costs incurred in the attempt to achieve the changes aimed in the policies and practices of the organization. Even when the employee challenges the status quo with the belief that everybody will be better off as a result of the change, recipients may feel upset about the alteration and think that dealing with the change would make life harder. And as a result, the voicer may end up with damaged relationships and other emotional costs in the organization (Bolino and Grant, 2016).

Voice may contribute to the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, motivation and distress due to increased sense of control (Pohler and Luchak, 2014). However, findings regarding individual performance and voice relationship is mixed. Organizational justice literature shows that voice (opportunity to speak up) positively relates to performance. But when the actual voice behavior is ignored it results in a decrease in the performance of the voicer. The literature that deals with voice as a proactive and prosocial work behavior suggests a significant positive performance relationship. However, correlation with objective performance (financial performance and productivity rates) is not significant. Moreover, when the actual voice behavior is not perceived as solution oriented in an innovative way, supervisor-employee relationship may get impaired, and the situation may reflect in performance evaluation of the voicer negatively. Drawing on the feedback theory it is argued that how receivers perceive the voice and their willingness or ability to act on it shape how voice affects performance. In that aim, employees look for clues in the work environment that signals about the relative safety of speaking up (Gruman and Saks, 2014).

At the group level, it is reported that voice, operationalized as minority dissent, stimulates unit-level creativity so long as teams are allowed to participate in the decision making process. However, team level dissent is expressed for the benefit of the group or team only in cases where the worker is loyal to the team he/she

works. Bashshur and Oc (2015) reports from a study undertaken by Dooley and Fryxel in U.S. hospitals that in the absence of loyalty, dissent is seen as self-serving. Positive group outcomes occur when the expressed dissent is accepted and processed by the team or leader. Otherwise, in an interplay between the voicer's voice and receiver's reactions, a chain of moves going as loyalty, voice and exit from the voicers, and tolerance, defense and stronger status quo defence from the receivers occurs and results in turnover.

1.1.4 Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

1.1.4.1 Definition

Psychological capital has emerged as a product of positive organizational behavior which is defined as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement”. What makes the area distinct from other positive approaches are having the inclusive criteria of being grounded in theory and research, valid measurement, being relatively unique to the field of organizational behavior, being state-like and hence open to development and change, and having a positive influence on individual level work performance and satisfaction (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, Norman, 2007, p.542).

Psychological capital crystallizes in the question of “who i am” represented by positive psychological capital and regarded as important as “what i know” which is human capital, and “who i know” which is social capital for improving both individual and organizational performance. Psychological capital consists of hope, resilience, optimism and self-efficacy/confidence (Luthans, Luthans and Luthans, 2004, p.45). It is about how the person appraises the existing circumstances and whether she can create a probability for success building on her own motivated effort, insistance and perseverance (Luthans et al., 2007).

It is known that self-efficacy/confidence, which is defined as individual's convictions about his or her abilities in mobilizing the resources necessary to achieve a certain end in a given context, has a strong relationship with work performance. Hope refers to persevering towards goals and changing the paths to goals when necessary. Therefore, elements of this goal oriented energy are willpower (i.e., agency) and waypower (i.e., alternative pathways). Optimism finds its roots in attribution theory, and its character has its roots in two dimensions: permanence and pervasiveness. Optimists consider permanence in positivity and temporariness in negativity. Pervasiveness is related to the space. Optimists link the negativity to that specific event that it is related to the problem whereas pessimists tend to generalize the problem to broader spaces. Resilience is a quality that comes with sustainability and bouncing back even better to attain the goal in cases of adversity, hardship, failure, conflict and problem (Luthans et al., 2004; Friend, Johnson, Luthans, Sohi, 2016)

In the literature it is reported that each of the four component of the concept has conceptual independence and discriminant validity based on empirical evidence (Luthans et al., 2007). However, psychological capital, as a higher-order construct, has been shown to have more impact on the variance in employee outcomes than the four dimensions individually. It has been demonstrated that psychological capital is conceptually and empirically a second-order core construct comprised of shared variance among individual predictors of hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy (Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre, 2011). The common mechanism that creates a synergistic dynamic is identified as their contribution to “motivational propensity” of the person to achieve tasks and goals set beforehand (Luthans et al., 2007, p.548).

Is it possible to develop psychological capital? Because all dimensions of psychological capital are state-like capacities rather open to development and enhancement, the answer to that question is an affirmative one. The label of “state-like” represents a point on the continuum lying between state and trait, and is

defined as relatively flexible and shapable and open to enhancement. Besides the components of PsyCap, the label includes other constructs such as wisdom, well-being, gratitude, and courage as well (Luthans et al., 2007). Performance attainments, vicarious experiences or modeling, social persuasion, physiological and psychological arousal are mentioned as approaches that can be used to enhance psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2004).

1.1.4.2 Consequences of Psychological Capital

Reviewing the previous research, it is stated that PsyCap is positively related to performance (self, assessed by the supervisor, and objective), job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, psychological well-being and negatively related to cynicism for change, anxiety, occupational stress, absenteeism, deviance, and turnover intentions (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, Mhatre, 2011; Friend et al., 2016). These results are observed as strongest in the service sector (Avey et al., 2011).

For the purposes of the study four factor framework of PsyCap, which consists of efficacy, resilience, hope and optimism) developed by Luthans and colleagues will be used.

1.2 THEORY, MODEL, HYPOTHESES

In the study, employee voice is assumed to act as a mediator between organizational justice dimensions of distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice, and work engagement. The study mainly aims to search the mediating effect of employee voice on justice and employee engagement relationship. A mediator variable is assumed to be accountable for the relationship between an independent/predictor variable and a dependent/criterion variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). In that aim, from one aspect, potential of voice as a

“recuperation mechanism” leading to employee engagement, when the perception of justice is lower is put under scrutiny. Moreover, it is supposed that in cases where the justice perception is higher, this can encourage employees to seek ways to improve organizational processes and express their motivation outloud, and create an intrinsic mechanism that leads to employee engagement in turn.

Moreover, psychological capital is assumed to moderate between employee voice and work engagement. A moderator is a variable that changes the strength and/or direction of the relationship between an independent/predictor and a dependent/criterion variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Underlying theoretical reasoning for the assumed relationships is explained below.

1.2.1 Organizational Justice, Employee Voice and Work Engagement

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is one of the main theories used to explain how justice perception affects employee attitudes and behaviors in organizations. Basically the theory suggests that justice is perceived as an intangible benefit that would be reciprocated by positive work attitudes and behaviors by the employee. Organizational justice gives employees a sense of control over and security against organizational procedures and conduct. Therefore, a spoiled sense of justice would bring about doubt and create uncertainty regarding the truthfulness of the organization or supervisor, and in such a case, employees would hesitate and show reluctance in developing positive work attitudes and behaviors to reciprocate (Colquitt and Zipay, 2015).

Justice perceptions of employees is considered a driver that turns the economic exchange between the employee and employer into a social exchange through deepening the relationship. Once the relationship gets deeper, it constitutes a reason for employees to reciprocate and to go that extramile for the organization. Moreover, a just treatment with its signalling function indicates a status recognition and respect from the organization and leads to identification with the organization

resulting in behaviorally engaged employees (Colquitt and Zipay, 2015). Hence, a relationship between perceived justice and engagement is assumed in this study.

One of the key theoretical frameworks applied in work engagement studies is job demands-resources model. The model primarily assumes that regardless of the type of work, psychosocial characteristics of a job can be explained in two categories: job demands and job resources. Job demands refer to requirements from the job to be fulfilled through paying a sustainable physical and psychological effort by the employee. Hence, they are also related with certain physical and psychological costs, though not being negative, yet becoming heavier when the person is already overburdened (Mauno et al., 2010). Job demands can be organizational, social or job related. These are factors associated with the job either as job hindrances or job challenges. Job hindrances are bad stressors that impose excessive constraints over the employee such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload. Job challenges on the other hand, as good stressors, push the employee for further improvement. Job resources refer to the possessions of a job that are functional in achieving the work objectives. They help to reduce job stress and associated costs, and drive personal learning and development. The findings show that job demands are not necessarily job stressors unless they get to extreme degrees. The second assumption of the model refers to two underlying processes: health impairment process and motivational process. According to the second assumption, job demands may cause physical and mental exhaustion of the worker and in consequence may create burn-out, fatigue, and health problems whereas job resources may lead to emergence of motivation including work engagement and commitment. The absence of job resources, on the other hand, may bring about a cynical attitude in the employee (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). They may be found at organization level such as salary, career opportunities, a cultivating environment, or job security, at interpersonal level such as supervisor or coworker support, team climate, at the task level such as skill variety, task significance, autonomy and feedback, and at individual level such as self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). Job resources can be intrinsically or extrinsically motivating. Because they fulfill human needs and

enhance individual growth and development they are intrinsically motivating. Their extrinsic power is hidden in their instrumentality in achieving work goals (Tims and Bakker, 2010). There is enough evidence to support the dual processes suggested by the JD-R model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). A third assumption points to an interaction between job demands and job resources which is effective in development of job strain or motivation. According to the assumption, job resources may buffer the negative impacts of job demands and prevent a likely negative consequence such as fatigue and burn-out. A forth proposition of job demands and resources theory is that job resources have an influence on motivation and engagement especially when job demands are high (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011, p.2). Basing on the accumulated knowledge generated by previous studies, Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter (2011) confirm that job resources are most predictive of work engagement under conditions of high job demands. Engagement gained through adjustment of job resources brings further resources in turn (Tims and Bakker, 2010).

Metin, Taris, Peeters, Beek and Van den Bosch (2016, p. 483) report that job resources are positively related with authenticity and authenticity is positively associated with engagement, performance and job satisfaction. In the study, state authenticity is defined as “an individual’s ability to act according to his/her true self”. Though engagement manifests in the behaviour of employees, to achieve full presence in their role performances requires them to employ a wide range of senses to inform their work. This includes their feelings, thoughts, hunches, ideas, idiosyncratic characteristics, that is a set of constituents which also represents a deeper sense of awareness about their own nature and the contingencies of the job done.

Engagement is mostly known by what people actually “do”. However, engagement, it is said, is not only in working hard or paying real effort in the work. Rather, it is about putting the real selves into action, truly caring about the organization and feeling obliged to speak up than remaining silent during times of

disturbance or when needed. As Khan (2010, p.21) says "Self-expression is a matter of voice. ... At the heart of engagement is the use of the voice, as the instrument by which we say what we think and feel, question others, describe options and inventions, dialogue. We use our voice when we feel that our words matter -that they will make a difference, change minds and directions, add value, join us with others in something larger than ourselves. When this is not the case, we use our voice less. Deaf ears make us mute. We hold our tongue. We nod and do others' bidding. We disengage."

Beugré (2010) takes voice as a factor that organizations can work on to boost state and behavioral engagement of employees by creating a sense that the employee is influential on the welfare of the organization. The author claims that employees favor voice situations to no voice situations because having voice help them to have a say in the outcome of the decision processes. This instrumental approach differs from the non-instrumental explanation which considers the voice a desired end in itself. In the study, four factors are explored as the moderators and mediators between voice and engagement: expectations of voice, appropriateness of voice, the importance of the decision for the individual, and voice as meeting cultural norms. According to this conceptualization when employees expect voice, having voice improves their perception of justice. Parallel to that, prevailing norms and organizational traditions may shape the reactions to voice. In organizations where having voice is considered as legitimate, no-voice situations create unfavorable responds. Importance of the decision for the employee is another influential factor. When the decision is perceived as unimportant employees do not much care the variations of voice. Appropriateness of the decision has a mediating impact between voice and procedural justice. Voice leads to procedural justice so long as the participation to the decision making process is perceived as appropriate to the employee.

Kahn (2010, p.26) asserts that how an organization handles differences of its employees with one another and the conflict situations shapes and regulates the

engagement environment in that organization through "rules of engagement". There are productive and unproductive rules of engagement. Productive rules form an order which allows space and time for differences and conflicts, which embraces differences as learning and development opportunities and which takes advantage of the creative energy and tension of the task focused conflicts. Unproductive rules creates work environments that punishes or laughs away differences, suppresses alternative voices, ignores or smooths any conflict that would bring the prevailing situation into question and lead to a search for the alternative, and encourages "getting along" with the rules and the routine.

1.2.2 Hypotheses

Drawing on all these, the study assumes organizational justice to be a factor that contributes to the mental charge of the job according to its variation in the perception of the employee. It will create a job hindrance when it is perceived as low. When the employee perceives a low level of justice this will be a stressor due to the psychological burden it brings, and negatively influence engagement unless buffered by a resource. Voice is suggested here as a major job resource and a means to reach other resources that can be used to re-establish engagement. The proposed model argues that because engagement is defined as investment of the one's self in the work one does in terms of dedication, vigor and absorption, having self-expression will be perceived positively by the employee and lead to work engagement in turn. Supporting the proposed research idea, Mauno et al. (2010) argue that organizational justice, fair treatment of employees, and value congruence merit more attention as potential antecedents to work engagement, and they point the coping strategies and recovery experiences as notable promising areas for further research on the relation of these variables. This study consider employee voice a coping and recovery mechanism between perceived organizational justice and work engagement.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1:

- 1a) Distributive justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by supportive voice.
- 1b) Distributive justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by constructive voice.
- 1c) Distributive justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by defensive voice.
- 1d) Distributive justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by destructive voice.

Hypothesis 2:

- 2a) Procedural justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by supportive voice.
- 2b) Procedural justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by constructive voice.
- 2c) Procedural justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by defensive voice.
- 2d) Procedural justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by destructive voice.

Hypothesis 3:

- 3a) Interpersonal justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by supportive voice.
- 3b) Interpersonal justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by constructive voice.

3c) Interpersonal justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by defensive voice.

3d) Interpersonal justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by destructive voice.

Hypothesis 4:

4a) Informational justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by supportive voice.

4b) Informational justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by constructive voice.

4c) Informational justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by defensive voice.

4d) Informational justice and work engagement relationship is mediated by destructive voice.

Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter (2011) write that personal resources, namely PsyCap (self-efficacy, resilience, optimism, and hope), explain variation in work engagement of employees over time, and above and over job resources.

It is known that giving employees a post-decisional voice, an opportunity for speaking up after the decision was made, cause higher fairness perceptions than no voice situations do. Voice, conceptualized as opportunity to express ideas and concerns, has a positive relationship with outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction and organizational commitment for it increases the sense of control over the outcomes. On the other hand voice that is not heard can lead to a "frustration effect" in the employee as well. Therefore, for situations where the outcome distribution is already felt as unfair, a voice opportunity that will be unheard with no acting upon would worsen the situation. (Bashshur and Oc, 2015).

Therefore, in the model PsyCap is placed as a moderator between voice and engagement. It is assumed that when the employee expresses his or her voice, its likely positive impact will be boosted or its likely negative impact, for instance when it is not heard and resulted in frustration, will be mitigated according to the level of PsyCap that the person has. For that reason, it is claimed that for employees have different levels of PsyCap, the strenght of the relation between voice and engagement changes accordingly.

Hypothesis 5 states that:

- 5a) Psychological capital moderates supportive voice and work engagement relationship.
- 5b) Psychological capital moderates constructive voice and work engagement relationship.
- 5c) Psychological capital moderates defensive voice and work engagement relationship.
- 5d) Psychological capital moderates destructive voice and work engagement relationship.

SECTION TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This is a cross-sectional, hypothesis testing study focusing on individuals as the unit of analysis. The study mainly aims to search the mediating effect of employee voice on perceived organizational justice and employee engagement relationship. In that aim, potential of voice as a “recuperation mechanism”, parallel to the original conceptualization of the term, in cases of “repairable lapses” (Hirschman, 1970), but this time in the form of employee affect, has been put under scrutiny.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) warn students of the behavioral sciences against the method biases which may create measurement errors and threaten the validity of the study conclusions. Two ways that measurement method can affect the data are either causing a change in the construct that is of interest for the study or a distortion of the measurement process (Spector, 2006). The effects created by common raters, common measurement context, item characteristics and common item contexts are raised as areas about where researcher should be careful and cautious while designing the research. Despite the fact that certain procedural and statistical remedies such as obtaining information from different sources, creating temporal, proximal, psychological, or methodological separation, counterbalancing question order, using single-factor tests or partial correlation procedures for avoiding method biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003) are suggested, there is no one single standard prescription that fits the methodological demands of all of the research studies dealing with various questions. Moreover, it is put that, each remedy comes with its own peculiarities and downsides as well (Spector, 2006).

Single-source, cross sectional, survey-based studies are considered as the type most susceptible to CMV (common method variance). Thus researchers do prior and/or posterior controls in order to detect any effect that might lead to an inflation or deflation in the correlation scores. Fuller et al. (2015) report that existence of CMV results in common method bias (CMB) only in cases when it is too high (approaching 70% or more) which, the authors argue, is very rare and actually indicating larger flaws in the research including construct validity. As a check for CMV, a posterior control, Harman's single-factor test was applied. The component-based test result showed that none of the substantial variables could explain more than 50% of the total variance among variables. Basing on these, CMB is eliminated to be a factor deviating the results of the study.

2.1.1 Sample

The sample group is comprised of students of MBA and other business related graduate programs such as human resources management and finance management. These are both on-campus and on-line programs designed for working people. Students of these programs were invited to participate in the study via e-mail. This method brought diversity in study areas, sectors, industries, company structures and positions and in relation to that work experiences of the participants. Respondents are from more than 17 different sectors including banking and finance, information technologies, construction, aviation, textile, pharma, FMCG (fast-moving consumer goods), automotive etc. and more than 12 different departments including sales, marketing, human resources, information technology, product development/planning and production, business development, quality and audit and administrative affairs etc. The majority of respondents occupy specialist positions of three levels identified as manager/coordinator/team leader, specialist and assistant positions. Therefore, although the method used is not a random sampling method, the group is representative of its type, which is white-collar workers, with experience from various work settings.

In total 464 questionnaires were collected out of approximately 600 students reached as a result of the process, and this corresponds to a response rate of 77%.

As per sample size calculation provided by G-Power, a sample size of 374 is enough for a study with 8 predictors to detect an effect size as small as 0.04, at p-value of 0.05, and for a power of .80 (Faul et. al, 2009). After elimination of largely incomplete and unusable ones, and the ones which belong to the respondents occupying top positions with no or exclusive reporting responsibilities such as small business owners or top managers, 430 questionnaires are found eligible and included in the analysis.

When we look at the profile of the respondents, male respondents consist 57.9 % of the total respondents. The average age is 31, and 90 % of respondents are below 40. For this is a graduate student group, minimum level of education is undergraduate. 16.5 % of respondents say that they have already earned a graduate degree other than the degree that they were pursuing at the time. The average work tenure is 8.52 years while 66 % of the respondents are in work life for 10 or less than 10 years. In average, tenure in the organization is approximately 5 years and it is 3 years in the current position. More than 90 % of respondents work for private companies. Only 7.4 % of the respondents are unionized.

Table 2.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

	N*	Percentage	Min/Max	Mean	SD	
Gender						
Female	181	42.1				
Male	249	57.9				
Total	430	100.0				
Age	430	100.0	23/51	31.43	5.87	
Education						
Undergraduate	359	83.5				
Graduate	71	16.5				
Total	430	100.0				
Tenure (year)						
Work tenure	430	100.0	1/29	8.52	6.19	
In the organization	430	100.0	1/22	4.66	4.38	
In the position	430	100.0	1/28	3.01	3.05	
Position						
Manager/Coordinator/Team Leader		30.9				
Specialist		62.3				
Assistant Specialist		6.7				
Total		100.0				
Sector						
Public	16	3.7				
Private	414	96.3				
Total	430	100.0				
Union membership						
Member	32	7.4				
Non-member	398	92.6				
Total	430	100.0				

2.1.2 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection procedure started with a pilot study undertaken to test the understandability of the wording and reliability of the measurement instrument with the participation of 30 respondents. As a result of the pilot study, all measures to be employed in the study were found reliable (Cronbach alpha > .70), and necessary corrections were done on the wording.

Data collection process was conducted through an online survey put on an online survey platform, SurveyMonkey.com. Following the approval of the Ethics Committee of the University, graduate students of business related programs were invited to participate in the study. Participation in the study was voluntary, informed and consented. Participants were awarded with 10 bonus points for one course they preferred.

2.1.3 Measures

2.1.3.1 Organizational Justice

Organizational justice has been measured through the scale developed by Colquitt (2001). The scale consists of four dimensions –procedural justice, distributive justice, and interpersonal justice and informational justice as representing interactional justice- each measured with 7, 4, 4 and 5 items (item examples: ‘Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures’, ‘Does your outcome reflect the effort you have put into your work?’, ‘Has your manager treated you in a polite manner?’, ‘Has your manager been candid in his/her communications with you?’), respectively. Reliabilities reported for this scale are .93,.93,.92, and .90 in a study in field setting (Colquitt, 2001). A 5-point Likert scale requiring respondents to assess to what extent each item reflect their own situation and ranging between ‘to a small extent’ and ‘to a large extent’ was used for the measurement.

The measurement instrument is adapted from a previous study done in Turkey (Selekler-Goksen et.al, 2016) and revised according to the aims of the study.

While distributive justice and procedural justice dimensions of the scale focus on organization, interpersonal and informational dimensions are supervisor oriented.

2.1.3.2 Employee Voice

There are two reported validated scales for measuring employee voice in the literature: Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) six-item scale, and Maynes and Podsakoff's (2014) multicategory scale.

The scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998) is criticized for its weaker construct validity and limited scope with lack of multi-dimensionality (Morrison, 2011), and distance from the original conceptualization of the concept (Bashshur and Oc, 2015). Developers themselves report shortcomings of the scale such as lower discriminant validity showing in high correlation with "helping" scale, and invite further refinement.

This study uses Maynes and Podsakoff's (2014) scale for measuring voice. The scale consists of 20 items as 5 items for each dimension. A five-point Likert scale lying between 'strongly disagree' and 'strongly agree' is used for measurement. A sample item from the scale is 'I defend organizational programs that are worthwhile when others unfairly criticize the programs', 'I frequently make suggestions about how to do things in new or more effective ways at work', 'I stubbornly argue against changing work methods, even when the proposed changes have merit', 'I often bad-mouth the organization's policies or objectives', for supportive, constructive, defensive and destructive voice dimensions, respectively.

The scale was translated through following Brislin's (1970) back translation procedure.

Reliabilities for these measures are reported as .89 for supportive voice; .95 for constructive voice; .92 for defensive voice; and .93 for destructive voice .

2.1.3.3 Work Engagement

Work engagement was measured using the seventeen-item version of Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-17). Three subscales, vigor, dedication and absorption, are comprised of 5, 6 and 6 items, respectively.

Participants used a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) to express the degree that they agree with the given statement. Sample items reflecting vigor, dedication, and absorption are: "At my job, I am very resilient, mentally", "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose", and "When I am working, I forget about everything else around me". Fluegge (2008) reports a coefficient alpha of .92 for the scale.

Work engagement scale was translated through following Brislin's (1970) back translation procedure.

2.1.3.4 Psychological Capital

PsyCap scale is a revised version of Turkish translation of self-rater short form obtained from the developer with the research permission (PCQ Copyright 2007 by Fred Luthans, Bruce J. Avolio and James B. Avey. All rights reserved in all media. Published by Mind Garden, Inc., www.mindgarden.com). It is a 12-item scale consisting of the subscales of efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism. The scale is a 6-point Likert scale lying between 'strongly disagree' and 'strongly agree'. Sample items are: 'I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management' for efficacy, 'There are lots of ways around any problem' for hope. Reported reliability figure for PsyCap is .88 (Avey et al., 2011).

2.1.3.5 Control Variables

Age, gender, education, sector, organization type as public or private, position, tenure in the work life, tenure in the organization and tenure in the position are the main demographic questions that is controlled for their potential effects on the

variables. In addition to these, union membership is controlled due to its substituting effect for employee voice.



2.2 ANALYSIS

2.2.1 Data Screening

I screened the data to detect any problem cases such as wrong or missing data entries. For I have already removed the half-filled questionnaires, I did not have any missing data. The data was checked for outliers and influential cases as well. For the data varies within a given scale range, outliers were kept intact.

Although sample size ($N=430$) is adequate to assume normality (Field, 2018), I checked distribution and dispersion of individual variables and summated scales visually and numerically. The procedure showed that the predictor variables are linearly related with the outcome variables. I examined residuals and found that there is not any interdependency among errors of predictive variables or a deviation pattern from homogeneity of variance.

I examined descriptive statistics and reliability scores, and intercorrelations of the variables (see Table 2.2). As it is shown in the Table 2.2, education is not correlated with any of the variables. One possible reason for this is the homogeneity of the sample group with respect to education level. The sample group consists of graduate students, a situation which does not allow the education data vary freely and restricts the data range. Thus, for education is not related to any of the main variables it is not included in the control variables in the following analyses. When the effect of work tenure, organization tenure and position tenure is examined through a partial correlation analysis, I observed that position tenure is not significantly related with any of the main variables when work tenure and organization tenure are controlled. This indicates an inflation in the impact of position tenure due to a shared effect. Thus, position tenure is not included in the control variables for further analysis, either. Union membership is not significantly related with any variables other than constructive voice. However, it still shows a significant effect even when the effect of other control variables is controlled.

Given also its theoretical significance as an alternative outlet to employee voice, union membership is kept in the control variables.

When the correlation coefficients are examined, we see that there are susceptible high coefficients ($> .50$) representing the strength of the relationships between certain variables (e.g. figures quantifying vigor-dedication (.77), and vigor-absorption (.74) relationships). However, since these are the dimensions of a common higher-order construct, it is theoretically justifiable, therefore it does not lead to multicollinearity problem.

Cronbach's alpha scores for variables were checked and reported in Table 2.2 on the diagonal. Except resilience and optimism, which are two sub-dimensions of psychological capital, all of the scores are above the usability limit of .70. However, psychological capital is employed as a higher-order variable in the study and the Cronbach's alpha score for it is .843. Similarly, work engagement is dealt with as a higher-order construct in the study, and the coefficient alpha for it is .925.

Table 2.2 Descriptives, Intercorrelations, Coefficient Alpha

	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1.Age	31.43	5.87 2								
2.Gender (1=f)	0.42	0.49 4	-.074							
3.Education	3.17	0.37 2	-.006	.069						
4.Position	1.76	0.56 5	.516 **	- .203	.009					
5.Organization Type (1=private, 0=	0.96	0.18 9	-.092	-.033	-.045	.106 *				
6. Work Tenure (year)	8,52	6.19 6	.909 **	-.083	-.002	.523 **	-.033			
7.Organization Tenure (year)	4.66	4.38 0	.618 **	-.078	-.088	.359 **	-.030	.633 **		
8.Position Tenure	3.00	3.06 0	.430 **	-.075	-.072	.237 **	-.016	.517 **	.536 **	
9.Union Membership (1=member)	0.07	0.26 3	-.044	.084	.065	.106 *	- .178 **	-.074	.012	-.012

Table 2.2 Descriptives, Intercorrelations, Coefficient Alpha (Cont.)

10.Distributive Justice	15.353	2.9553	.047	-.093	.017	.070	.011	.069	.060	.070	-.064	.834			
11.Procedural Justice	24.232	2.953	.032	-.027	.017	.062	.118*	.067	.054	.051	-.053	.560**	.876		
12.Interpersonal Justice	17.693	2.645	.051	-.038	.016	.064	-.093	.049	.015	-.034	.056	.255**	.347**	.803	
13.Informational Justice	20.395	3.910	.019	-.026	.008	.065	-.043	.032	-.012	.029	.017	.314**	.455**	.657**	.891

Table 2.2 Descriptives, Intercorrelations, Coefficient Alpha (Cont.)

14.S uppo rtive Voic e	2 0. 3 8 8	2, 9 2 3	.0 9 7 *	- .0 5 4	.0 2 2	. 1 8 6 *	. 0 4 3 *	. 1 3 4 0 *	. 1 6 3 *	- .3 0 7 7	.2 3 4 *	. 3 0 5 *	. 1 4 1 *	.2 0 6 *	. 8 6 6				
15.C onstr uctiv e Voic	1 9. 9 6 2	3. 1 6 8	.0 7 5 8	- .0 4 8	.0 3 7	. 1 6 8 *	. 1 1 8 *	. 1 2 5 *	. 0 4 2	- .0 1 3 4 *	.2 0 4 *	. 2 6 9 *	. 1 3 5 *	.1 2 1 *	. 4 5 0 *	. 8 9 3			
16.D efens ive Voic e	9. 6 6 2	4. 3 2 3	- .0 5 8	.0 0 7	.0 4 8	- .0 0 4 5	. 0 1 6 7	- .0 0 6 7	- .0 0 6 1	- .0 0 3 8	- .0 0 4 8	- .0 0 1 6	- .0 1 0 9	- .0 5 4 8	- 1 7 8	. 0 1 7	. 9 2 2		
17.D estru ctive Voic e	8. 8 6 2	3. 6 6 5	- .0 9 0	.0 0 1	- .0 1 9	- .0 1 4 8	. 0 4 3 *	- 1 1 0 *	- .0 0 5 9	- .0 0 5 8	- .0 7 8 *	- 1 2 8 5	- 1 4 9 *	- 1 6 3 *	- 2 4 1 5	. 1 7 0 1 5	. 4 6 3		

Table 2.2 Descriptives, Intercorrelations, Coefficient Alpha (Cont.)

18. Vig or	2 2 .	3 . 8	. 1 6	- . 1	. 0 6	. 1 9	. 0 5	. 2 1	. 1 1	. 1 3	- . 0	. 4 1	. 4 2	. 3 0	. 3 3	. 2 8	. 3 9	- . 0	- . 2	. 7 9						
19. Ded icati	1 8 .	4 . 5	. 1 7	- . 0	. 0 9	. 1 2	. 0 2	. 2 0	. 1 2	. 1 0	- . 0	. 4 4	. 4 5	. 2 6	. 3 3	. 2 6	. 3 9	- . 0	- . 2	. 7 7	8 6					
20. Abs orpt	2 1 .	3 . 8	. 2 2	. 0 0	. 1 8	. 1 0	- . 5	. 2 4	. 1 2	. 1 0	- . 0	. 2 8	. 2 9	. 1 0	. 1 8	. 1 9	. 3 7	. 0 0	- . 2	. 7 4	8 3					
21. Effi cac	1 5 .	2 . 0	0 . 8	- . 0	- . 0	. 1 3	. 1 3	. 1 5	. 1 2	. 1 6	- . 0	. 2 2	. 2 9	. 0 8	. 1 7	. 4 3	. 4 6	- . 0	- . 1	. 4 2	8 0					
22. Resi lien	1 4 .	2 . 1	. 1 0	- . 0	. 0 8	. 0 5	. 0 5	. 1 4	. 0 9	. 0 1	. 0 9	. 1 7	. 1 8	. 1 7	. 1 6	. 2 1	. 3 6	- . 0	- . 0	. 3 0	5 3					
23. Hop e	1 9 .	2 . 7	. 0 6	- . 0	. 0 1	. 1 9	. 0 2	. 1 8	. 0 6	. 0 0	- . 0	. 3 4	. 3 3	. 2 0	. 1 9	. 3 1	. 4 7	- . 0	- . 1	. 5 0	7 4					
24. Opti mis	9 . 3	1 . 8	. 1 1	- . 0	. 0 1	. 1 2	. 0 4	. 1 5	. 1 0	. 1 0	- . 0	. 3 6	. 4 1	. 1 8	. 2 7	. 2 6	. 3 1	- . 0	- . 2	. 5 5	6 7					

Note:

1)N=430. Correlations of raw scale scores are presented below the diagonal. Coefficient alphas are in italics and bold on the diagonal. Correlations significant at $p < .05$ and $.01$ are indicated with asteriks (*, **). 2)PsyCap will be used as higher-order 'Positive Psychological Capital' in the study. Coefficient alpha for the scale is .843. Similarly, work engagement is dealt with as a higher-order construct in the study, and the coefficient alpha for it is .925.

2.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analyses

In order to check the empirical distinctiveness of the variables, three different confirmatory factor analyses, as the first integrating all variables in a single factor, the second suggesting a two-factor solution by analyzing independent variable organizational justice separately and dependent variables of employee voice, work engagement and psychological capital in a single factor, and the third taking all variables as separate constructs and offering a four-factor solution, were run. Four-factor solution produced better fit indices (see Table 2.3) compared to others confirming that organizational justice, employee voice, psychological capital and work engagement are empirically distinct variables.

Table 2.3 CFA Solutions For Different Models

(N=430)	One-factor solution	Two -factor solution	Four-factor solution
RMSEA	0.085	0.073	0.064
RMSEA 90 %CI	[0.083-0.087]	[0.071-0.075]	[0.062-0.066]
SRMR	0.119	0.107	0.096
CFI	0.840	0.882	0.910
TLI	0.835	0.878	0.907
χ^2	9310.879	7475.795	6229.031
(df)	(2277)	(2276)	(2271)
(p-value)	(0.000)*	(0.000)*	(0.000)*

Values significant at $p < .05$ are indicated with asteriks.

In order to test whether the theoretical structures of the variables fits to the data and to check the validity of these, a series of confirmatory factor analyses was undertaken. The parameters, model fit indices and comparisons are detailed below.

Table 2.4 CFA Solutions for Substantial Variables

(N=430)	Organizational Justice (four-factor)	Employee Voice (four-factor)	Work Engagement (three-factor) (one-factor)		Psychological Capital (four-factor) (one-factor)	
RMSEA	0.001	0.014	0.032	0.043	0.033	0.039
RMSEA 90 %CI	[0.001-0.017]	[0.001-0.027]	[0.020-0.042]	[0.034-0.052]	[0.001-0.042]	[0.022-0.055]
SRMR	0.046	0.053	0.058	0.063	0.054	0.071
CFI	1.000	0.997	0.993	0.987	0.994	.983
TLI	1.002	0.997	0.992	0.986	0.991	.979
χ^2	133.715	178.310	167.275	214.471	59.871	73.122
(df)	(146)	(164)	(116)	(119)	(44)	(48)
(p-value)	(0.758)	(0.210)	(0.001)*	(0.001)*	(0.117)	(0.000)*

Values significant at $p < .05$ are indicated with asteriks.

Confirmatory factor analysis for organizational justice, employee voice, work engagement and psychological capital produced good fit indices for each. Factor loadings, R square values, variances and standard errors do not indicate any problem. There are not any Heywood cases observed in the results of analyses. Further analyses were done to produce one-factor solutions for work engagement and PsyCap. The analysis for PsyCap revealed an item with a low loading value of .303 in ‘resilience’ sub-factor (item is ‘I usually take stressful things at work in stride’). The item was removed from the content of the variable and the analysis was rerun, fit indices improved as seen in the Table 2.4 for one-factor solution for PsyCap (previous indices were RMSEA 0.047, 90% CI [0.034-0.061], SRMR 0.076, CFI .972, TLI .966, Chi Square 106.056 (df = 44) ($p = 0.000$)).

2.2.3 Analyses for Mediation and Moderation Effects and Results

In order to test the hypothesis groups a series of mediation and moderation analyses was done by using PROCESS 3.1 Model 4 by Hayes on SPSS.

For Hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c (see Table 2.5), the results showed significant indirect effects.

Table 2.5 Employee Voice Dimensions Mediating Distributive Justice and Work Engagement Relationship

N = 430	Predictor-Mediator	Mediator-Outcome	Direct Effect	Indirect effect
H1a M: supportive voice	b=0.2244, p=0.000	b=0.6678, p=0.000	b=1.392, p=0.000	b=0.1499, 95% BCI [.0562-.2623]
H1b M: constructive voice	b= 0.2249, p=0.000	b=1.225, p=0.000	b=1.266, p=0.000	b= 0.2756, 95% BCI [.1444-.4360]
H1d M: destructive voice	b= -0.2051, p=0.004	b= -0.5452, p=0.000	b=1.4303, , p=0.000	b=0.1118, 95% BCI [.0381-.2090]

Values are significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Distributive justice predicts supportive voice ($b = 0.224$, $p = 0.000$), and supportive voice predicts work engagement ($b = 0.667$, $p = 0.000$) significantly. Beta coefficient for the direct effect of distributive justice on work engagement is 1.392 ($p=0.000$). The indirect effect through supportive voice is 0.149 with no 'zero' value (no-effect) coinciding with the confidence interval produced through 5000 bootstrapped samples. The findings support mediating effect of supportive voice between distributive justice and work engagement.

Analysis to test H1b shows that constructive voice is predicted by distributive justice ($b = 0.224$, $p = 0.000$) and work engagement is predicted by constructive voice significantly ($b = 1.225$, $p = 0.000$). Distributive justice has a direct effect of $b = 1.266$ ($p = 0.000$) and an indirect effect of $b = 0.275$ on work engagement through constructive voice, with a bootstrap confidence interval indicating significance.

Defensive voice did not show a significant mediation effect, Hypothesis H1c is not supported.

The analysis to test H1d revealed that distributive justice predicts destructive voice ($b = -0.205$, $p = 0.000$), and destructive voice predicts work engagement ($\beta = -0.545$, $p = 0.000$) significantly. Supporting the hypothesis H1d, direct effect of distributive justice on work engagement is $b = 1.430$ ($p = 0.000$) and indirect effect through destructive voice is $b = 0.111$ and both values are significant.

Table 2.6 Employee Voice Dimensions Mediating Procedural Justice and Work Engagement Relationship

N = 430	Predictor-Mediator	Mediator-Outcome	Direct Effect	Indirect effect
H2a M: supportive voice	$b = 0.1602$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 0.5451$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 0.7466$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 0.0873$, 95% BCI [.0275-.1601]
H2b M: constructive voice	$b = 0.1512$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 1.1610$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 0.6584$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 0.1756$, 95% BCI [.0982-.2651]
H2d M: destructive voice	$b = -0.1779$, $p = 0.000$	$b = -0.4119$, $p = 0.003$	$b = 0.7607$, $p = 0.000$	$b = 0.0733$, 95% BCI [.0207-.1331]

Values are significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

The mediation analysis to test H2a resulted in significant beta coefficients for both procedural justice-supportive voice and supportive voice-work engagement relationships ($b=0.160$ and $b=0.545$ at $p=0.000$, respectively). The direct effect of procedural justice on work engagement is significant ($p=0.000$) with a beta coefficient of 0.746 . The indirect effect through supportive voice is way smaller ($b=0.087$) and significant supporting H2a.

As Table 2.6 displays, the coefficient between procedural justice and constructive voice is statistically significant ($b=0.151$, $p=0.000$), as is the coefficient between constructive voice and work engagement ($b=1.161$, $p=0.000$). The direct effect is $b=0.658$ ($p=0.000$) and the indirect effect is $b=0.175$ and it is statistically significant.

Defensive voice did not show a significant mediation effect, thus Hypothesis H2c is not supported.

Testing for H2d resulted in figures showing significant effect of procedural justice on destructive voice ($b= -.177$, $p=0.000$), and that of destructive voice on work engagement ($b= -0.411$, $p=0.000$). The indirect effect of procedural justice on work engagement through destructive voice is smaller ($b=0.0733$, $p=0.000$) than the direct effect ($b=0.760$, $p=0.000$) and both effects are significant.

Thus, findings support mediating effect of supportive, constructive and destructive voice between procedural justice and work engagement as hypothesized in H2a, H2b and H2d.

Table 2.7 Employee Voice Dimensions Mediating Interpersonal Justice and Work Engagement Relationship

N = 430	Predictor-Mediator	Mediator-Outcome	Direct Effect	Indirect effect
H3a M: supportive voice	b=0.1763, p=0.000	b=0.8570, p=0.000	b=0.8948, p=0.000	b=0.1510, 95% BCI [.0393-.2955]
H3b M: constructive voice	b= 0.2094, p=0.000	b= 1.3593, p=0.000	b=0.7613, p=0.000	b= 0.2846 95% BCI [.1197-.4779]
H3d M: destructive voice	b= -0.1899, p=0.003	b= -0.6470, p=0.000	b=0.9230 , p=0.000	b=0.1229, 95% BCI [.0336-.2445]

Values are significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Analyses for testing the mediating effect of employee voice dimensions between interpersonal justice and work engagement supported the effects hypothesized in H3a, H3b, H3d. The effect of destructive voice as stated in H3c was not supported by the findings.

As seen in Table 2.7, interpersonal justice predicts supportive voice ($b=0.176$, $p=0.000$), and supportive voice predicts work engagement ($b=0.857$, $p=0.000$) significantly. The direct effect of interpersonal justice on work engagement is $b=0.894$ ($p=0.000$) whereas indirect effect through supportive voice is $b=0.151$, smaller and statistically significant.

Similarly, constructive voice is predicted by interpersonal justice ($b=0.209$, $p=0.000$) and predicts work engagement ($b=1.359$, $p=0.000$) significantly. The direct effect of interpersonal justice on work engagement for this interaction is

b=0.761 (p=0.000), and the indirect effect of it through constructive voice is b=0.284 (p=0.000) and significant.

Mediating effect of defensive voice failed to be supported by findings because it is statistically insignificant.

Interpersonal justice predicts destructive voice (b= -0.189, p=0.000) and destructive voice shows a significant effect on work engagement (b= -0.647). Direct effect of interpersonal justice on work engagement is b=0.923 (p=0.000), and indirect effect through destructive voice is b=0.122 with a confidence interval indicating significance of the effect.

Table 2.8 Employee Voice Dimensions Mediating Informational Justice and Work Engagement Relationship

N = 430	Predictor-Mediator	Mediator-Outcome	Direct Effect	Indirect effect
H4a M: supportive voice	b=0.1634, p=0.000	b=0.7525, p=0.000	b=0.7729, p=0.000	b=0.1229, 95% BCI [.0463-.2238]
H4b M: constructive voice	b= 0.1223, p=0.001	b= 1.3315, p=0.000	b=0.7329, p=0.000	b= 0.1629 95% BCI [.0551-.2799]
H4d M: destructive voice	b= -0.1448, p=0.000	b= -0.5996, p=0.000	b=0.8090 , p=0.000	b=0.0868, 95% BCI [.0277-.1638]

Values are significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Analysis to test the mediating effect of supportive voice between informational justice and work engagement reveals that informational justice significantly predicts supportive voice (b=0.163, p=0.000), and supportive voice has a significant

effect on work engagement ($b=0.752$, $p=0.000$). The direct effect of informational justice on work engagement is $b=0.772$ and it is significant ($p=0.000$). The indirect effect through supportive voice is $b=0.122$ and it is significant as well.

Informational justice predicts constructive voice ($b=0.122$, $p=0.000$) and constructive voice predicts work engagement significantly as well ($b=1.331$, $p=0.000$). The significant indirect effect ($b=0.162$, BCI [.0551-.2799]) of informational justice on work engagement through constructive voice is much smaller than the direct effect of it ($b=0.732$, $p=0.000$), a situation indicating the significance of mediation effect.

The mediating effect of defensive voice between informational justice and work engagement hypothesized in H4c, is insignificant and was not supported by the results.

Destructive voice is predicted by informational justice significantly ($b= -0.144$, $p=0.000$) and it predicts work engagement significantly ($b= -0.599$, $p=0.000$) as well. The direct effect of informational justice on work engagement is significant with $b=0.809$ ($p= 0.000$) and the indirect effect is $b=0.086$ ([.0277-.1638]) and significant too.

Results of the analyses show that except Hypothesis 4c, which proposes mediation effect of defensive voice between informational justice and work engagement, all of the mediator effects stated by H4a, H4b and H4d are supported by the findings.

None of the moderator effects hypothesized in H5a, H5b, H5c and H5d showed significant interaction effects. Thus, the moderator effect of PsyCap between voice dimensions and work engagement was not supported by the findings.

Therefore, according to the study results, supportive voice, constructive voice and destructive voice mediate the effect between all four justice dimensions, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice, and work engagement.

All of the interaction effects presented above were controlled for age, gender, work tenure, organizational tenure, organization type, union membership and position. Only work tenure showed a significant predictability ($p < 0.05$) on the outcome variable in interactions representing mediating effect of supportive voice and destructive voice for all justice dimensions.



SECTION THREE

DISCUSSION

3.1 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

3.1.1 Discussion

Business organizations, where labour and wage exchange is institutionalized, are regarded as sources of economic and socioemotional benefits (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). Individuals may chase both, one or none of these benefits according to their aspirations and how they make meaning of their work. However, in any case, they are not indifferent to how these are shared within organizations.

It is evident that meaningfulness, safety and availability are the preconditions for work engagement. Tasks featuring creativity, variety and autonomy are better triggers of the sense of meaningfulness. Work roles that propose images congruent with the self-perception of the employee and the work environments that include healthy relationships within the realm of professionalism cherish a sense of meaningfulness in employees. Feeling insecure and vulnerable, on the other hand, may inhibit that sense. Availability is related to whether employees see themselves physically and emotionally capable of asserting their real self in work. Organizational justice with its significant impact on the work outcomes, the procedures producing those outcomes and interpersonal and informational components coloring the manner in distribution of those outcomes has a direct influence on the perceived meaningfulness, safety and availability held by the employee.

There have been ample evidence on the effect of perceived organizational justice on work engagement. One of the perspectives dealing with this relationship, group engagement model, proposes that employees get identified more strongly with the group they work in when they think they are treated justly at work, and invest to group objectives in a more engaged way. The other perspective, social exchange

model, suggests that justice in organization promotes reciprocation, and in turn creates employee engagement. However, despite the accumulated evidence, how and through what mechanisms this relationship operates needs further exploration (Haynie et al., 2019).

This study attempted to shed some more light on that mechanism by explaining the relationship of organizational justice and work engagement through employee voice. Specifically, four dimensions of organizational justice –distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice- have been found to be related to work engagement through the constructive, supportive and destructive dimensions of employee voice. The mediation effect refers to a sequence of effects of attitudes/behaviors and therefore to a relation among these variables that is most akin to causation in correlational studies. This study tried to answer how and why perceived organizational justice is related to work engagement. Considering that, the originality of the study comes from its model taking employee voice a mediator to explore the role it plays between perceived organizational justice and work engagement.

In the given conceptualization, organizational justice is treated as rule based. Procedures and the resulting outcomes as distributions are perceived as fair when they are consistent, free from bias, accurate, correctable, representative of all concern, and based on prevailing ethical standards. (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). It is known that a possible damage in the perceived organizational justice, a doubt regarding fairness of the application of the rules, takes attention of the employees to the reflections of these even in the daily, microoperations running within the organization. The space allocated to the expression of all concerns about all these is equated with ‘voice’. Voice conceptualization as used in this study is voluntary and focuses on organizational policies, procedures, methods and applications with no specific target receiver. Work engagement is dealt with as a favorable employee attitude, which comes from absorption, dedication and vigor felt by the employee.

It is known that job control and autonomy as important job resources are antecedents of work engagement, and these factors have a stronger impact on it compare to job demands (Mauno et. al, 2007). On the one hand, employee voice here was taken as a job resource for self-expression and also as a means to reach to other job resources, such as social support, feedback or discretion. Employee voice, for it gives a sense of control to the employee, is assumed to be reciprocated by higher work engagement. On the other hand, it was as likely that employees would show their discontent through prohibitive and challenging ways, decrease their job resources and perpetuate the felt job hindrances and end up with lower work engagement.

The findings of the study revealed that supportive, constructive and destructive dimensions of employee voice mediate the relationship between distributive justice and work engagement. This relationship had been proposed drawing on the reciprocation assumption of social exchange theory. Two promotive dimensions, which are supportive and constructive voice, would emerge when the employee has a conviction regarding fairness of the outcomes as rewards and burdens. Under such circumstances, employees would unhesitantly go the extramile and get motivated to invest more of their cognitive, psychological and physical assets in a way that represent their true self. The outcomes do not only refer to economic and material benefits but also to symbolic and socioemotional gains. It is argued that employees assess the fairness of the results against their expectations (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). When the sense of justice is disturbed, employees become destructive in their voice and further lose their work engagement.

Similar to the distributive justice and work engagement relationship, procedural justice is related to work engagement through the mediation of supportive, constructive and destructive voice. There is a certain congruence between distributive justice and procedural justice since the latter can be inferred from the former (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). Thus, these overlapping results are expected. Voice is considered also a part of the conceptualization of procedural justice. Having a say in the decision procedures is a part of the justice perception

associated with those procedures. Having the right to formally object to the procedures is an example of that embedded voice. In that context, voice is encoded in the process itself. The conceptualization this study uses expands the definition and takes employee voice as voluntary and informal. While making an evaluation as to fairness of the procedures, people use a relative referent such as organizational rules and procedures or industry codes (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). Therefore, the results show that a higher perception of the employee regarding procedural justice encourages them to support the existing structure or even further provide constructive opinions for improvement. On the contrary, a conviction that the decisions within the organization are made through biased and inaccurate procedures creates anger and dissent in the employee, and manifests as destructive voice and results in further decreased work engagement due to the perception of increased hindrances and/or decreased job resources.

It is shown that professionals are more tend to enjoy challenges at work and discretion in decision making compare to non-professionals (Mauno et al., 2007). It is also reported that, employee voice, even when it is there as opportunities, is positively assessed and used more by employees who are highly educated and who trust their employers more (Hatipoglu and Inelmen, 2018). Weiss and Morrison (2019) found that employees who express their concerns and opinions frequently are ascribed higher social status by their coworkers through mediation of perceived agentic attributes (indicating competence, capability, confidence) and perceived communion attributes (indicating warmth, other-orientedness, trustworthiness, helpfulness). We may infer from these that when employees are confident that their ideas and opinions voiced as constructive challenges or supportive expressions substantiated with reliable knowledge will be received in goodwill by the organization and coworkers, they tend to contribute more to the organization through voicing. Therefore, considering the profile of the respondents of the present study (highly educated, white-collar workers), the findings generated are consistent with the previous research.

Interactional and informational justice is supervisor focused in this study. It is known that good leadership is a significant predictor of work engagement and is deemed as an important job resource lacking of which would lead to feelings of undervalue or insignificance in the employee (McGregor et.al, 2016). Work engagement grows in environments characterized by a stable, trustable, predictable and consistent social system. Hence, supervisor behaviors should be supportive, consistent and trustable in order to cultivate the sense of safety and security necessary for employee engagement. Social support from the coworkers, supervisory coaching and performance feedback are all important job resources for the goal attainment in an engaged way (Bakker et. al, 2011). Employee voice is a consistent transmissive in its mediation function in this specific relationship. Positive circumstances lead to supportive or constructive employee voice and to higher work engagement in return and negative conditions result in negative results. Similarly, a study from Turkish context reports that cooperative conflict management style of supervisors is positively related to organizational identification of employees through employee voice and psychological safety (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2015). The risk of exploitation and rejection felt due to lower interpersonal and informational justice on the other hand when gets solid leads to destructive voice and decreased work engagement for it indicates a deeper and ouvert awareness of inexistence of valuable job resources.

It should also be noted that interpersonal and informational justice perception of the employee is supervisor oriented whereas employee voice focuses on organizational policies, practices and applications in the study. Yet, the mediation effect of supportive, constructive and destructive voice dimensions are significant. This finding suggests that rather than isolating it and attributing the good or bad behavior to their supervisors, employees tend to associate it with and generalize to the organization. Therefore, we see that interpersonal and informational justice is not considered as a local problem caused by the supervisor but as a broader issue that belongs to the whole system of the organization by the employee. This factor is important as regards to its organizational implications.

Findings do not support the mediator role of defensive voice for none of the organizational justice dimensions and their relationship to work engagement. When we look at the content of each employee voice dimension, we see that constructive and supportive voice dimensions have a clear, positively laden, promotive connotation while destructive voice shows a clearly negative, disparaging content. A similar positional clarity is not obvious in the content of defensive voice dimension. It is prohibitive in its conceptualization since it represents a voice behavior that strongly advocates the existing status quo even in situations where the alterations are necessary and good for the organization, thus possibly creating inertia and slowdown for the organization in adaptation and change. Employees who are content with the existing organizational justice and who are ready to contribute more through a positive challenging may find their route towards a positive voicing and choose one of those promotive dimensions: supportive voice or constructive voice. Parallel to that, employees who think organizational justice is damaged and feel disturbed may choose to destructively express their anger or discontent through destructive voice. However, it seems very unlikely that they would find themselves relating to a defensive voice option in any of these situations easily. Defensive voice is formulated as a behavior that represents a stubborn and blind adherence to the existing state of affairs in the organization for nobody's sake. Therefore, a possible explanation for the ineffectiveness and insignificance of defensive voice as a mediator may be the availability of much clearer voice options in terms of intent and impact.

The proposed moderating effect of PsyCap between employee voice and work engagement is not supported by the study findings. One possible explanation may be that employees may predominantly take the organizational issues into account while deciding to voice their opinions, and so long as these organizational conditions are favorable, they do not need to resort to personal resources to enhance or re-establish their work engagement. Regardless of their PsyCap level, employees may find it affordable and choose to convey their opinions so long as they believe organizational conditions are convenient.

It is also plausible that the lack of a moderation effect might be due to the strong instrumental effect of voice behavior itself. Such that employee voice may function as an effective means to reach to the needed resources and support to decrease job hindrances and unrealistic challenges to a reasonable level that employees may already feel safe and secure to revive regardless of their PsyCap level. Or they may use these resources to increase improving challenges as well. Voice may bring about an elevated sense of self-worth and recognition, a feeling which may itself be a catalyzer for a higher work engagement. Complementary to that, the strenght of the voice as an assertive behavior may be so effective that those who express their opinions as to or their unhappiness with the organization explicitly gain the determination to break off from work.

Another explanation is related to the profile of the respondents. The sample group consists of university educated, white-collar employees with almost 9-year of experience in average. Majority of them work for private companies and already have had at least one promotion to an upper level position. This is the cohort introduced into the worklife right after the global economic crises of 2008-2009. For they have already developed their muscles to tackle with the repercussions of the crises and the following surging period, they do not show a serious variation in terms of their level of PsyCap (Mean= 58, SD=6.7). Given the harsh competitiveness and socioeconomic fluctuations they have been through, they may feel confident about themselves and this reflect in their felt PsyCap.

Among control variables, only work tenure had a significant effect on the work engagement in interactions representing mediating effect of supportive voice and destructive voice for all justice dimensions. Longer tenure and more experience means a sound relational and knowledge basis, better and easier access to resources and higher investment in work life therefore a stronger motivation to voice opinions and consideration (Morrison, 2011). It also indicates a longer period of time of socialization referring to being 'processed' in the work life to 'learn the ropes' (Van Maanen, 1978). Therefore, people who have longer work tenure may be more prone to be braver and sharper in expressing their concerns either in a preserving

and promoting way as in supportive voice or challenging and prohibiting way as in destructive voice.

3.1.2 Conclusion

Justice has ever been prominent, sought and needed. People working for organizations have been facing extraordinary conditions due to the COVID 19 restrictions for some months all over the world. Remote working and migration of the office work to digital platforms has dramatically changed the work life for many. For some organizations this 'business unusual' is about to become the standard as 'new normal'. However, it is reported that it is only 27% of the working people who can do teleworking even in high income countries (<https://news.un.org>). Thus, we are not experiencing this hardship equally, given the job loss, job insecurity, blurring boundaries of work and private life, increased burden of dependents' care and anxiety and mental health issues are effecting lives of people differently. Unemployment is expected to reach to 10.3% by the end of 2020 in OECD countries, a figure 5.3% higher than at year-end 2019. And a recovery in the job market is not expected until after 2021 (<http://www.oecd.org>). In this extreme uncertainty and adversity, justice should be an underlying concern in every decision taken and intervention designed both in macro and micro levels.

Experts say that communication and employee voice is more vital than ever as confusion, fear and reluctance prevail nowadays in the organizations (www.ntu.ac.uk). A study undertaken in the US by the consultancy company McKinsey reports (www.mckinsey.com) that people hardly converge with respect to their experiences, perspectives and outcomes of the pandemic crises. People not only need safety and security, but they also expect to find trusting relationships, social cohesion which also includes being treated fairly, and individual purpose. Therefore, raising concerns, suggesting alterations for improvement or even venting some discontent before it gets too serious to impair employee engagement is good

for all for it results in improvement in the organizational context, finding meaning and regaining socioemotional benefits of work for employees, and creating an air of goodwill and camaraderie through judgments of agency and communion within the organization for all.

Work engagement, which refers to the willingness of the employee to bring his true self into the work experience, forms through employee voice when there is no doubt about the fair treatment by the organization. Otherwise, when the sense of justice is impaired within the organization, employee voice becomes destructive enough to damage work engagement in turn.

Hence, understanding how perceived organizational justice impacts work engagement through employee voice is of considerable importance for it provides valuable insight, along with some other positive organizational outcomes, even on a remedy quite likely to mitigate the negative effects of a global crises within the organizations. Beyond and more important than that, people have voice and it matters.

3.1.3 Limitations and Future Directions

The study is a cross-sectional study. Thus, it cannot claim any causal relationship, which would provide much richer evidence and insight, between the variables.

The study solely focuses on the employee perceptions, behaviors and attitudes. Although this provides an internal consistency, the lack of a search on the possible impacts of contextual or task factors produces an incomplete picture.

The sample group of the study, which is comprised of white-collar employees from various industries, is not representative of all worker groups including for instance blue collar workers, gig economy workers or part-timers. Therefore, generalizability of the results is limited to a specific group.

Despite its convenience, online data collection process reduces the control over the data quality due to lack of direct communication and interaction between the researcher and the respondent.

Since the study is survey based, it is limited in its capacity to yield enriched and thick data necessary to explain the complexities of the worklife. Therefore, appropriate qualitative methods such as interviews or diary studies would be useful to complement the study for a deeper investigation.

The data collection process was completed before the conditions born by COVID 19. Thus findings do reflect so-called “the new normal” and everything packed in this term including massive layoffs in many industries, conversion to complete teleworking, compulsory use of health protecting equipment, anxiety in daily interactions, and tremendous uncertainty shouldered by all parties.

Hence, for the future, if it is affordable by the researcher, multimethod studies with a more diversified sample group in terms of work status, education and geography are recommended.

3.1.4 Implications

Organizational justice should be a prioritized issue in any organizational interventions in order to be considered socially legitimate by the people subject to it (O'Connor and Crowley-Henry, 2017). I found that a hurt sense of justice leads to negative voice which result in decreased work engagement.

Perceived organizational justice is a retrospective evaluation done at present by the employee. However, its temporal impact expands forward and informs the employee about future decisions and prospects. In that respect, it may determine the future attitudes and behaviors of the employees (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2011). Hence, organizations should seriously consider collecting messages given by the employees through employee voice related to prevailing organizational justice perception for present and future.

Employee voice is a strong mediator between perceived organizational justice and work engagement. Employees express their opinions in a promotive and improving or prohibitive and destructive way according to their justice perceptions. Thus, employee voice can be taken an explicit and strong signal of what is coming next. Therefore, organizations should pay significant attention to how their employees feel about the existing organizational justice and be conscious about employee evaluations. They should develop mechanisms and define areas for free expression and ensure physical and psychological safety and security of the employee.

Organizations should find ways to identify missing voices. Demographic diversity is proposed as a factor influential on voice decision of the employee (Hatipoglu and Inelmen, 2018). Moreover, silence is used as a survival strategy by disadvantaged groups such as migrant workers (Wilkinson et. al, 2018). Thus, organizations should mindfully let the organizational culture evolve in an inclusive way encouraging employee voice without engaging in artificial shaping interventions.

Organizations should deliberately take the responsibility of creating physically and psychologically safe work environments in order to encourage and benefit from the positive impact of employee voice.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Measurement Instrument

Demographic Questions

- 1) Yaşınız:
- 2) Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın (...) Erkek (...)
- 3) Eğitim durumunuz (en son aldığınız dereceye göre):
İlköğretim (...)
Lise (...)
Üniversite (...)
Yüksek Lisans/Doktora (...)
- 4) Kurumunuzun faaliyet gösterdiği sektör:...
- 5) Kurumunuz: ... Kamu Kurumu ... Özel Sektör
- 6) Departmanınız: ...
- 7) Pozisyonunuz:...
- 8) Kaç yıldır iş hayatındasınız? ...
- 9) Kaç yıldır bu kurumdasınız? ...
- 10) Kaç yıldır bu pozisyonundasınız? ...
- 11) Sendikalı mısınız? ... Evet ...Hayır
- 12) Aylık net gelirinizi belirtiniz:
() 1500-2500 () 2501-3500 () 3501-4500 () 4501-5500 () 5501-...

Organizational Justice

Distributive Justice:

- I. Aşağıdaki ifadeler iş yerinde elde ettiğiniz sonuçlarla (bu sonuçlar maddi veya sosyal olabilir) ilgilidir. Lütfen aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanarak her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

Çok az 1	Az 2	Kısmen 3	Yeterince 4	Büyük ölçüde 5
-------------	---------	-------------	----------------	-------------------

1. İş yerinde elde ettiğiniz sonuçlar gösterdiğiniz çabayı yansıtır mı?
2. Elde ettiğiniz sonuçlar ile tamamladığınız işler birbiriyle uyumlu mudur?
3. Elde ettiğiniz sonuçlar işyerine yaptığınız katkılarla doğru orantılı mıdır?
4. Performansınız göz önüne alındığında elde ettiğiniz sonuçlar makul müdür?

Procedural Justice:

- II. Aşağıdaki ifadeler iş ortamında karşılaştığınız atama, yükseltme, görevlendirme, ücretlendirme gibi süreçler ile ilgilidir. Lütfen aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanarak her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

Çok az 1	Az 2	Kısmen 3	Yeterince 4	Büyük ölçüde 5
-------------	---------	-------------	----------------	-------------------

5. Bakış açınızı ve duygularınızı bu süreçler esnasında ifade edebiliyor musunuz?
6. Bu süreçler neticesinde elde edilen sonuçlar üzerinde etkiniz var mıdır?
7. Bu süreçler tutarlı bir şekilde uygulanıyor mu?
8. Bu süreçler önyargılardan uzak uygulanıyor mu?
9. Bu süreçler doğru ve tutarlı bilgilere mi dayandırılmıştır?
10. Süreçler neticesinde sonuçların düzeltilmesini talep edebilir misiniz?
11. Bu süreçler etik ve ahlaki standartlara uygun mudur?

Interpersonal and Informational Justice:

III.Aşağıdaki ifadeleri çalışma ortamınızda şu anda bağlı bulunduğunuz yöneticiyi düşünerek yanıtlayınız. Lütfen aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanarak her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

Çok az 1	Az 2	Kısmen 3	Yeterince 4	Büyük ölçüde 5
---------------------------	-----------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------	---------------------------------

12. Size nazik davranır mı?
13. Onurunuzu kıracak davranışlardan kaçınır mı?
14. Size saygılı davranır mı?
15. Size karşı uygunsuz yorum ve eleştirilerden kaçınır mı?
16. Sizinle olan iletişimde samimi midir?
17. Süreçleri bütünüyle açıklar mı?
18. Süreçlere yönelik açıklamaları mantıklı mıdır?
19. Süreçlere yönelik ayrıntıları zamanında aktarır mı?
20. İletişim kurarken bireylerin ihtiyaçlarını dikkate alır mı?

Employee Voice

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyarak, ‘Kesinlikle katılmıyorum’ ile ‘Kesinlikle katılıyorum’ arasında uzanan cevap seçeneklerinden size en uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1	Katılmıyorum 2	Kararsızım 3	Katılıyorum 4	Kesinlikle katılıyorum 5
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Supportive Voice

1. Organizasyonun uyguladığı yararlı programları, bu uygulamaları haksızca eleştirenler karşısında savunurum.
2. İşte verimlilik yaratan prosedürleri, yersiz eleştirilerde bulunanlara karşı açıkça desteklerim.
3. Organizasyona ait yararlı politikaları, bu politikaları sebepsizce sorun haline getirenlere karşı açıkça desteklerim.
4. Organizasyona ait yararlı politikaları, bu politikaları haksızca eleştiren diğer çalışanlara karşı savunurum.
5. Organizasyona ait etkin iş yöntemlerini, geçersiz eleştirilerde bulunanlara karşı savunurum.

Constructive Voice

6. İşle ilgili şeyleri yeni ya da daha etkin yollarla yapmak için sıklıkla önerilerde bulunurum.
7. Projeleri daha iyi hale getirmek için sıklıkla değişiklik önerilerinde bulunurum.
8. İşle ilgili problemlerin çözümü hakkındaki tavsiyelerimi sıklıkla ifade ederim.
9. İşle ilgili yöntemleri ya da uygulamaları iyileştirmek için sıklıkla önerilerde bulunurum.
10. Düzenli olarak yeni ya da daha etkin iş metodları hakkında fikirler öneririm.

Defensive Voice

11. İşle ilgili yöntemlerde yapılan değişikliklere, önerilen değişiklikler gerekli olsa bile, inatla itiraz ederim.
12. İşle ilgili, politikalarda yapılan değişikliklere, bu değişiklikleri yapmanın en iyisi olduğu durumlarda bile açıkça karşı çıkarım.
13. Bir şeylerin yapılmasındaki değişikliklere, bu değişikliklerin kaçınılmaz olduğu durumlarda bile açıkça karşı çıkarım.
14. İş prosedürlerindeki değişikliklere, değişiklik yapmanın mantıklı olduğu durumlarda bile, katı bir şekilde itiraz ederim.
15. İşle ilgili uygulamalarda yapılan değişikliklere, bu değişikliklerin gerekli olduğu durumlarda bile sesli itiraz ederim.

Destructive Voice

16. Organizasyonun politikalarını ya da hedeflerini sık sık kötülerim.
17. İşle ilgili programlar ya da girişimler hakkında sık sık hakarete varan yorumlarda bulunurum.
18. Organizasyonda birşeylerin yapılış biçimi ile ilgili sıklıkla aşırı eleştirel yorumlarda bulunurum.
19. Organizasyondaki işle ilgili uygulamalar ya da yöntemler hakkında aşırı eleştirel yorumlarda bulunurum.
20. Eleştirilerim temelsiz olsa dahi, organizasyonun politikalarını sertçe eleştiririm.

Employee Engagement

Copyrighted material. Please refer to wilmarschaufeli.nl for the scale.



Psychological Capital

Copyrighted material. Please refer to mindgarden.com for the scale.



APPENDIX II : Approval of the Ethics Committee

ETİK KURUL DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU/RESULT OF EVALUATION BY THE ETHICS COMMITTEE

(Bu bölüm İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurul tarafından
doldurulacaktır / This section to be completed by the Committee on Ethics in research
on Humans)

Başvuru Sahibi / Applicant: Duygu Uygur

Proje Başlığı / Project Title: Engagement Through Voice

Proje No. / Project Number: 2017-201604-73

1.	Herhangi bir değişikliğe gerek yoktur / There is no need for revision	XX
2.	Ret/ Application Rejected Reddin gerekçesi / Reason for Rejection	

Değerlendirme Tarihi / Date of Evaluation: 23 Haziran 2017

Kurul Başkanı / Committee Chair

Doç. Dr. İtir Erhart

Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Hale Bolak

Üye / Committee Member

Doç. Dr. Koray Akay

Üye / Committee Member

Doç. Dr. Ayhan Özgür Toy

Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Aslı Tunc

Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Turgut Farhanlı

Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Ali Demirel