

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON BİLİM DALI

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE
PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND WORK
ENGAGEMENT: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF
ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

ELGÜN EMRE YAMANER

İstanbul, 2019

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ELGÜN EMRE YAMANER

Danışman: PROF. DR. FATMA GÜLRUH GÜRBÜZ

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MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study was to explore the contribution of two important job resource; employee participation in decision making and organizational justice on work engagement. It is predicted that both independent variables will positively contribute to the concept of work engagement.

Additionally, the mediation role of organizational justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on work engagement was also tested. Organizational justice had been used as a mediator on examining some organizational and individual consequences of employee participation in decision making like organizational commitment or job satisfaction, but it's mediating role on the contribution on work engagement was not tested before, so it provided originality for the research. Some extra analyses on demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, education, tenure, private sector experience and hierarchical positions were also implemented to understand the possible differences of the research variables among these demographic characteristics.

The sample of the study was composed of 327 employees that work at different hierarchical levels in a local municipality in Istanbul. The data was collected through the questionnaires that have been proved as highly reliable in several studies. The statistical analyses were executed via the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Program.

The results showed that both employee participation in decision making and organizational justice significantly and positively contribute to work engagement. Also, the mediator role of organizational justice on the relationship of employee participation in decision making and work engagement was significantly determined due to the results of the

study. The demographic analyses showed that married, older and more experiences participants scored significantly more work engagement, whereas, the participants that have private sector experience before score more participation in decision making than the others.



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Anahtar Kelimeler	Çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılımı, örgütsel adalet, işe adanmışlık, çalışanların kararlardaki sesi, karar üzerinde kontrol, hakkaniyet, çalışan adanmışlığı

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın ana amacı, iki ana iş kaynağı olan çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılma imkanı ile örgütsel adaletin, işe adanmışlık değişkenine olan katkısını araştırmaktır. Çalışma başlangıcında öngörülen, hem çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılma imkanının hem de örgütsel adalet algısının çalışanların işe adanmışlık seviyelerine pozitif olarak katkıda bulunacağıdır.

Buna ek olarak, örgütsel adaletin, çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılımının işe adanmışlıklarına olan katkısındaki aracı değişken olarak rolü de test edilmiştir. Örgütsel adalet, daha önceki çalışmalarda, çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılımının sonucu olan, iş tatmini veya örgütsel bağlılık gibi bazı kişisel ve örgütsel sonuçlara olan etkisinin incelenmesinde aracı değişken olarak kullanılmıştır, ancak çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılımlarının onların işe adanmışlık seviyelerine katkısı üzerindeki aracı değişken rolü, daha önce incelenmemiştir. Bu durum da bu çalışmaya özgünlük sağlamaktadır. Bunların dışında; yaş, cinsiyet, medeni hal, eğitim seviyesi, iş deneyimi, özel sektör tecrübesi ve iş yerindeki görev gibi çeşitli demografik değişkenlerin çalışmada kullanılan ana değişkenlerde yaratacağı olası farklılıklar da bu çalışmada incelenmiştir.

Çalışmada kullanılan örneklem, Istanbuldaki bir ilçe belediyesinde, çeşitli hiyerarşik seviyelerde çalışmakta olan 327 çalışandan oluşturulmuştur. Çalışmada kullanılan veriler, her biri daha önce yapılmış birçok çalışmada güvenilirlikleri onaylanmış anketler yardımı ile toplanmıştır. Tüm istatistiksel analizler SPSS programı yardımı ile yapılmıştır.

Analiz sonuçlarına göre, tahmin edildiği üzere, hem çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılımı hem de onların örgütsel adalet algısı, çalışanların işe adanmışlıkları üzerinde anlamlı

ve pozitif katkı sunmuştur. Ayrıca yine sonuçlar bize, örgütsel adalet algısının, çalışanların karar alma süreçlerine katılımının işe adanmışlıklarına olan etkisi üzerinde anlamlı bir aracı değişken rolü üstlendiğini göstermiştir. Tüm bu ana bulguların yanında, demografik değişkenler ile ilgili yapılan analizlerde; evli, yaşı daha fazla ve iş deneyimi daha fazla olan katılımcılarda işe adanmışlık seviyesinin, bunun yanında daha önce özel sektör tecrübesi bulunan katılımcılarda ise karar alma süreçlerine katılma algısının daha yüksek olduğu tespit edilmiştir.



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1. INTRODUCTION

The increase of the pace and the deepness of the international competition and shifts in the environmental conditions, uncertainty (“a mismatch or discrepancy between the amount of information needed to make the right decision and the amount of available information for the decision makers” (Galbraith, 1977 as cited in Carmeli, Sheaffer and Halevi, 2009, p. 697) and ambiguity (“conditions where there are ill-defined criteria or conflicting interpretations” (Weick, 1979 as cited in Carmeli et al., 2009, p. 697) are started to make it harder to choose the accurate decision at the accurate time, so organizations started to recognize the need of flexibility and searched for ways to adapt these new challenging conditions. The solution may be the full potential of the whole work force that is the idle power of the organizations until this need occurs. Using this full potential can only emerge with the collaboration of the managers and employees (Irawanto, 2015).

Because of these shifts in conditions, employee participation in decision making applications among the organizations are getting more popular (Saha and Kumar, 2015 as cited in Kumar and Saha, 2017). Nowadays employee participation is a remarkable system to give the employees or their representatives a chance to make the decisions with the management collaboratively, since the employees and these structures to initiate their ideas are mostly seen as worthful for the organization. But if the management perceptions for the employees do not depend on that positive idea, the implementation of the participation of employees will not be possible (Franca and Pahor, 2014).

Traditional organizations mostly preferred vertical-hierarchical organizational structures, but throughout the use of technology and increased educational backgrounded workforce, the need for more participative structures come to exist (Emamgholizadeh et al., 2011). This need showed up because of some main reasons (Barg et al., 2014):

- The democratic priorities that are common in the society needed to spread in the work environment.
- The problems emerged from the groups when their rights and interests are not taken into consideration.

Employee participation in decision making can be seen as a tool to give up the old style master-servant relationship in the organization (Franca and Pahor, 2014). Employee participation was seemed to be a useful tool to overcome the decision complexity by using the different knowledge and capabilities of employees, building a broader pool of knowledge coming from various different perspectives (Carmeli et al., 2009). The quick shifts in the competitive global world forces the companies to establish and retain a talented, high-moraled workforce with the main emphasis on increased productivity (Park et al., 2016). The old style bureaucratic management may be responsible for the high turnover rate and low satisfaction and commitment, especially in new generation employees (Zhu, Warner and Feng, 2011). Retaining the human resource in the organization needs contemporary human resource management strategies and practices like participation in decision making (Khalid and Nawab, 2018).

The employee voice for participation in decision making has various substantial results for the companies especially in the sense of employee attitudes and behaviors (Kwon et al., 2016). The policies and procedures that are implemented in the organization are very essential for improving the satisfaction level of employees. Successful organization improve their policies and procedures in terms of establishing learning teams, more transparent and easy-access policies, and employee participation in decision making. These improvements make the human capital more suitable to attain organizational goals. On the contrary, if these improvements are not made, the policies and procedures for decision making are not participative and transparent, the employees become alienated from the management and the organization which in turn results as decreased commitment, and failure in performance of the organization (Biswas, 2015).

Creating a participative work environment is a usefool tool for managers to direct the employees since participation gives the chance to share the information among the employees better to involve them in the decisions (Li, Nahm, Wyland, Ke, and Yan, 2014). Organizational goals can only be achieved with a fair, employee involving work environment, which will increase the motivation of the employees towards their work (Scott-Ladd and Marshall, 2004).

Employee participation is seemed as an “increasing the effectiveness” tool to manage the human resource of the organization, whereas it is also seemed as a tool for increasing “the social justice and democracy” from the perspective of Employee Relations field (Ryan, 2000).

There is a significant change through the “democratization of organizational behavior” (Irawanto, 2015, p.159), which means a switch from classical-authoritarian hierarchical management style to a more democratic-participative one. In that approach, employees start to make contribution to the decision making processes and even make the actual decisions about the job by themselves.



2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

2.1.1. Definition of Employee Participation in Decision Making

Employee or worker participation is a complicated, ambiguous concept that has various meanings, concepts and aims (Arrigo and Casale, 2011 as cited in Leonardi, 2016). The implementation of participation practice vary depend on the philosophical ideas of the organization for participation and on the definition that comes from that ideas (Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015). Various terms are used to define participation with some slight differences in their subtext. Some of these can be counted as “organizational democracy, industrial democracy, employee involvement, employee voice etc.”. Terms participation, involvement, empowerment or engagement are sometimes used interchangeably (Gollan and Xu, 2015).

The definitions and forms vary depending on the wider deepness of the involvement of employees in the joint decision making processes. The amount of influence and participation over the decisions, the importance and the extent of the decisions vary from form to form (Markey and Townsend, 2019). Also definitions vary depending on different theoretical disciplinary backgrounds, such as “human resource management, political science, psychology or law” (Wilkinson et al., 2010).

There are plenty of different definitions coming from different approaches that are made in the literature for employee participaton in decision making. Employee participation may be seen as “the act of sharing decision making with others to achieve organizational objectives” (Knopp, 1991). It is the sharing of influence between subordinates and supervisors (Wagner, 1994) regarding the subordinates’ tasks (Khalid and Nawab, 2018). A traditional definition is made by Miller and Monge (1986) as the amount of involvement that employees have the chance to reach a decision. Employee voice, which is a type of employee participation in decision making practice that is implemented in the organizations regarding the decisions about the performing work activities (Kwon et al., 2016). In other words, it is the level the opportunities of the employees for being involved in the decision making (Scully et al., 1995). Participation in decision making is a sort of involvement of employees with fully committed and satisfied with their work (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008). It is an influence sharing between hierarchially unequal individuals in an organization that makes a balance on

making the decisions about routine tasks and jobs (Wagner, 1994). Employee participation in decision making may be defined as, being requested by their managers to participate, being allowed to make some decisions and make suggestions for possible improvements for the work, having adequate communication channels between managers and employees (Li-Yun, Aryee and Law, 2007). Strauss (2006) proposed participation as an application that employees get the power to control their work and involve in the decision making related to their jobs. Employee participation is composed of mechanisms that allow employees to affect the organizational decision making processes through their point of view to form a joint-decision making construct with the management of the organization (Leonardi, 2016). Aboyassin (2005) defined participation as an expansion of the responsibilities of the employees from just only performing the job to joining the decision making processes with the managers about the job. It is a continuum for the level of input created by the individuals for the work decisions (Hollander and Offerman, 1990). Employee participation is a starting point for employees to “penetrate into the authority” and “operations field” of the management. It is a type of influence that occurs throughout the organization (Busck et al., 2010). Locke and Schweiger (1979, as cited in Thompson, 2000, p.12) used a more simple definition as “joint decision making”. Vroom (1974 as cited in Irawanto, 2015, p.161) defined participation as “involvement”, whereas Ryan (2000, p. 80) defined the term as the “opportunity to influence decisions”. Brownell (1982) defined participation as an involvement of the individuals on the decisions that have an effect on them. Another definition was proposed by Glew (1995); “a conscious and intended effort by individuals at a higher level in an organization to provide visible extra-role or role-expanding opportunities for individuals or groups at a lower level in the organization to have a greater voice in one or more areas of organizational performance”. Participation in decision making is the degree of engagement of the employees in the managerial decision making processes (Probst, 2005). Higgins (1982 as cited in Irawanto, 2015, p.161) defined participation in decision making as a “mental and emotional reflection” that fosters organizational and individual success. Wilpert (1998 as cited in Joensson, 2008, p.596) defined a wider multidimensional participation as all the forms that contribute to the choice process by the individuals, groups or collectives with their self determined choices among various possible alternatives. Employee participation in decision making is also an instrument for managers to direct the workforce to contribute the continuous improvement of their actual work and the whole organization together (Kok et al., 2014). Participation in

decision making brings the subordinates and managers together at the same party, to figure out and analyze the problems and making decisions together as a team to solve them (Rosidi, 1999; Kim, 2002). Employee participation is a form of power sharing of management with the lower levels of subordinate positions (Kuye and Sulaimon, 2011). It is an association of decision making to reach the organizational mission and goals (Emamgholizadeh et al., 2011). The goals and missions of the organizations and the employees mostly need cooperation and interdependence in the organization (Rogers and Ashforth, 2017) which can be achieved through gathering the employees together through employee participation in decision making practices.

Since employee participation in decision making is an interdisciplinary concept, the definitions that come from different disciplines vary. It is a win-win application, since participation may be defined as an instrument to reach democracy at work with the employee control over the organization according to the perspectives of the employees, whereas it helps to procure the sustainability of the organization from the management point of view (Leonardi, 2016).

Participation in decision making can be defined as:

- Seeking new ideas among the employees.
- Delegating some roles and responsibilities to employees.
- Giving the adequate opportunity for employees to achieve the goals (Gibson et al., 1992 as cited in Irawanto, 2015, p.161).

Participative systems are the extension of this opportunity to the whole organization members. It is an organizational mechanism that gives the employee the right to make decisions on behalf of their responsibilities, thus making them feel that they contribute to the organizational performance (Irawanto, 2015). The accurate decisions can be made with the adequate knowledge and control related with the decision (Emamgholizadeh et al., 2011) which control comes with the freedom of employees to choose the alternative for their actual work without the intervention of their managers (Oluwatayo, Opoko, and Ezema, 2017).

Markey and Townsend (2019) emphasized the differences of the definitions and understandings related with employee participation in decision making through organizational, institutional and international contexts and tried to get an umbrella definition

for participation in decision making and used employee involvement and participation together to cover the different meanings.

Employee Participation term can also cover some other terms like industrial democracy, employee sharing schemes, employee involvement and cooperatives (Bhatti and Shahzad, 2008). It is a type of continuum range from relations with managers to consultation through committees (Saha and Kumar, 2017). Participation is also a close concept with job autonomy, since both concepts are related with decision making. But in job autonomy, the decision is made by one, and only one person, the individual himself, while in participation, the decision is made jointly, with more than one person affecting it (Evans and Fischer, 1992).

2.1.2. Dimensions of Employee Participation in Decision Making

There are several different researches that clarify the dimensions of employee participation to evaluate it. In the early studies about participation, the focus was on a single participation concept that has an influence on the performance of both the individuals and the organizations (Zhu et al., 2015b). Locke and Schweiger (1979 as cited in Scott – Ladd, 2004, p.647) analyzed participation levels as more or less. No participation refers to no consultation of the employees on work decisions, some degree of participation refers to some level of consultation whereas high levels of participation refers to an equal level of power for superiors and subordinates on making decisions (Daniels and Bailey, 1999).

Thibaut and Walker (1975) conceptualized two aspects of participation in decision making:

- **Choice** or decision control, where the participant has some control over the decision made
- **Voice** or process control, where the participant articulates his/her interest to the decision maker during the decision-making process but not includes making the actual decision. Voice can include the gathering information about the decision, definition of the problem or identifying the alternatives, but not making the decision.

When an employee can express opinions to his/her supervisor, employee has a voice, when the employee has the freedom to choose an alternative that he/she prefers, employee has

choice (Witt et.al., 2000). When a managers reaches the whole decision without gathering the opinions from the employees, the subordinate has neither voice nor choice, representing a low level participative decision making (Erim, 2009). Voice and Choice can be thought as two extreme lines in a continuum that participation varies among the continuum. Participation applications vary from situation to situation among the two extreme points of that continuum (Oluwatayo et al., 2017). The two aspects can also be thought together as an individual has an opportunity to express his views and then select the alternative (Roberson, Moyer and Locke 1999). In the business practices, the spread of the voice effects in the organizations move from just having a say about the work itself to also influence the decision making processes and procedures of the whole organization (Wilkinson and Fay, 2011). The voice of the employees is not implemented only through the representation, but also through the daily and directly implementation of the management (Kwon et al., 2016).

Employee voice can be described as the plenty of mechanisms that allow the employees to state their opinions and ideas while making a decision in the organization (Lavelle et al., 2010). Strauss (2006) indicated that the term voice is not enough to propose that employees have a direct influence of the decisions because voice can be about just “have a say in the decision making process”, the decision can be made without including that voice. Voice can be seen as a precursor for participation in decision making, but since participation in decision making is the direct influence of the employees to the decisions, it must be passed forward through the continuum to reach the actual participation (Strauss, 2006).

Participation in decision making can also vary according to the amount of involvement (Kuye and Sulaimon, 2011).

- High degree of involvement in participation can be named as the complete decentralization (Ezennaya, 2011 as cited in Oluwatayo et al., 2017) of the decision making that all the workforce completely take role in the decision making processes.
- Low degree of involvement in participation can be named as complete centralization (Ezennaya, 2011 as cited in Oluwatayo et al., 2017) of the decision making that only the top management level has the stake to make decisions.

Dachler and Wilpert (1978) conceptualized participation in terms of three features:

- **Formal – Informal:** Formal participation occurs with the establishment of some rules and structures for participating, whereas informal participation is mostly unstructured, casual role changes between superiors and subordinates. Formal participation includes strict and defined decision making systems that are established within the organization. Informal participation is mostly depend on the personal initiative of the employees, not on the formal rights or responsibilities given by the organization (Cotton et al., 1988; Dachler and Wilpert, 1978).
- **Direct – Indirect:** Employee participation practices can be either direct or indirect (Lippert et al., 2014, Cremers, 2011 as cited in Leonardi, 2016; Kaufman, 2015). Direct participation refers to the use of influence, control and autonomy without the mediation of a representative (Bryson et al., 2006), whereas indirect participation use that influence via the representative constructs like work councils, decision committees, unions etc (Kim et al., 2010). Most of the practices of employee involvement and participation in decision making are the mixture of the direct practices and indirect practices of participation together (Wilkinson, Townsend and Burgess, 2013). Direct participation is the immediate influence of the individual to the decision making process, while indirect participation is mostly includes some type of representation. Direct participation is the influence of one or more than one as a team of employees, often related with the actual work that is performed (Gonzales, 2010). Indirect participation is a type of participation through the elected representation by the employees (Franca and Pahor, 2014). An example of direct participation can be problem solving teams (Xia et al., 2016). In these type of teams, the employees are directly and personally involved in the “decision making and problem solving processes”. Indirect participation occurs with the selection of delegates to make the involvement and influence of the employees’ through votes in the decision making processes (vanYperen, Berg an Willering, 1999). There is a shift from indirect participative practices (like worker unions, joint consultation committees etc.) to more direct participative programmes throughout the history of the employee participation in decision making practices (Wilkinson et al., 2018). Direct participation gives more opportunity for the immediate influence of the individual to give suggestions, recommendations for task related decisions (Barry and Wilkinson, 2016).

- ***The degree in a continuum of how much access that an employee has in making the decisions:***

Employee participation in decision making is studied among different types as (Shaed et al., 2015 as cited in Oluwatayo et al., 2017):

- **Related with Form of Participation:** Formal/Informal, Direct/Indirect, and Degree of Influence
- **Related with Length of Participation:** Long/Short Term Participation
- **Related with Outcomes of Participation:** Satisfaction, Commitment, Motivation etc.

The scope of participation can be defined with three different conditions (Leonardi, 2013 as cited in Leonardi, 2016):

- The classification of the decisions that are allowed to participate; as strategic, managerial etc.
- The organizational level of decisions that are participated; as production unit, group or the organization as a whole
- The degree of formalization of the decisions

Black and Gregersen (1997) analyzed the different views in the literature about the dimensions of participation and combined these views in a multi – dimensional approach to participation with clarifying the concept with six views:

- The Rationale
- Form
- Structure
- Decision Issues
- Degree of Involvement
- Decision Process

The rationale: Rationale dimension explains the justification of the participation idea. The two basic rationales can be counted as humanistic (democratic) rationale and pragmatic (human relations) rationale (Locke and Schweiger, 1979 as cited in Black and

Gregersen, 1997, p.861; Dachler and Wilpert, 1978; Margulies and Black, 1987). Humanistic rationale recognizes the ability and the potential of the people to participate effectively and emphasizes the right of the people to influence the decisions are related with them. Pragmatic rationale sees participation as an instrument to achieve some organizational outcomes like increasing the productivity, efficiency or performance.

Structure: Participation in decision making can occur by a formally structured system or informally (Dachler and Wilpert, 1978; Cotton et al., 1988). Formal structures have explicit rules about who participates about what and how to participate, whereas informal participation does not include explicit rules and procedures about the participation. Formal structures are constructed more often when participation has the humanistic (democratic) rationale (Strauss, 1982 as cited in Black and Gregersen, 1997, p.861).

Form: Participation can be made *directly* by the immediate and personal involvement of the employees, or it can be made by some elected individuals who represent the other employees (Dachler and Wilpert, 1978; Cotton et al., 1988). In direct participation, individual can influence the decisions with his personal knowledge, information and opinions, whereas individual can only interact and share opinion with the representative who will make the decisions with the other representatives. It is found that direct forms of participation lead to higher degrees of involvement in decisions (Nightingale, 1981 as cited in Black and Gregersen, 1997, p.861).

Decision Issues: The issues involve the importance of the decisions (Cotton et al., 1988). It includes; “work and task design, working conditions, strategy issues and capital contributions and investment issues”. The participant’s knowledge and ability about a particular decision issue directly influences satisfaction and decision performance of the participant (Davis, 1963; Derber, 1963; Maier, 1965; Vroom, 1973 as cited in Black and Gregersen, 1997, p.862).

Degree of Involvement: Degree of Involvement is the level and range of participation. It can be explained as a continuum between;

- ✓ No pre-information is available for the employee related with the decision
- ✓ Pre-information is available related with the decision
- ✓ Employee can give some opinion about the decision
- ✓ Employee’s opinion are taken into account
- ✓ Employee has a power to accept or decline a decision

- ✓ Employee has the power of making the whole decision by himself

Decision Process: The decision process has a critical influence on the outcomes. The process has five steps;

- ✓ Identifying the problem
- ✓ Generating some alternative solutions to the problem
- ✓ Selecting the solution among the alternatives
- ✓ Planning the execution of the solution
- ✓ Appraisal of the results of the execution

Wilpert (1998 as cited in Joensson, 2008, p.596) studied employee participation as a multi dimensional concept. It is claimed in the study that different form of participation might offer different level of influence; may cover one individual, a work team or all of the individuals in an organization; and may concern different decisional issues. The study constructed on three different dimensions as the intensity of participation, form of participation and decision issues:

- *Intensity of Participation:* It is the range of impact and power coming from the participation activity.
- *Form of Participation:* This dimension is related with the influence of the individuals in decision making process as individuals or groups. The delegation of the authority may be given to one single individual or large groups using participation power with some representatives of the groups. The impacts of these several types on the employee attitudes and on the organizations may vary from form to form.
- *Decision Issues:* Participation activity may be applied in various different decisional issues as work – related issues or organization – related issues (Strauss, 1998 as cited in Joensson, 2008, p.597). Work – related issues relate to the actual jobs performed by the employees like organizing work tasks whereas organization – related issues occurs in the outside environment of the employees like financial decisions. Work – related decisions may be the subject of a direct participation of the employees whereas employees may involve to organization – related decisions by employee representation on the management.

Nerdinger (2008) divided participation into two other general types; material participation and immaterial participation:

- **Material Participation** includes all forms of financial (monetary) participation of employees in the company. It can be in the form of participation in the organizations' capital, profit or gain or other forms.
- **Immaterial Participation** includes contribution of employees in information, coordination, and decision processes within the company.

Nerdinger (2008) mentioned the potential of material participation in effecting the job satisfaction and work motivation of employees positively, but also indicated the importance of “psychological ownership” created by the immaterial participation on this relationship. Having a financial stake in the organization will effect the employees motivation positively only if they have the opportunity to influence and control their jobs. Kim (2002) also indicated the significance of participation in decision making on employee motivation, which is both favourable for the individual and the organization. Participation increases the employees' motivation since they get the feeling that they are given the chance to make contribution to the company aims and missions. Participation in decision making sets the individual goals of the employee, combine them with the organizational goals which in turn leads to motivation and commitment of the employees (Irawanto, 2015).

Palgi (2006) categorized participation in three main forms: “participation in decision making, participation in profits and participation in ownership”.

Benson, Young and Lawler's (2006 as cited in Zhu et al., 2015b) study conceptualized participation in four types as; “compensation schemes, information sharing, knowledge-development and power sharing”.

Zhu et al. (2015b) analyzed participation in three forms as, “participation in management, participation in supervision and participation in decision making”.

Kok et al. (2014) conceptualized employee participation in decision making with the aspects of power, information, knowledge and rewards.

- Power is related with the freedom of the employees to make contribution to their work and the goals of the organization.

- Information is related with supporting employees with sufficient feedback and information.
- Knowledge is related with development and improvement opportunities for the employees.
- Reward is related with how much sayb or influence of the employees on rewards and recognition.

Markey (2009) conceptualized the types of participation according to the philosophy that lies behind the participation's idea, literatural backgrounds of participation, schemes, forms focus of participation. The detailed classification can be seen through the table below.

**Table 2.1.: The Theory and Practice of Employee Participation in Decision Making
(Adapted from Wilkinson and Fay, 2011 as cited in Markey, 2019)**

Literature strand/discipline	Schemes	Focus	Form of vehicle	Philosophy
HRM	Briefing Open-door policy Suggestion schemes	Performance	Individual	Efficiency
IR	Collective bargaining Works councils Social partnership Non-union employee representation	Power Control	Representative	Countervailing power
Industrial democracy (political science)	Works councils Workers on boards	Decision-making	Representative	Rights
Organisational behaviour (psychology)	Teams Groups Task/job control/ autonomy	Job redesign	Individuals and groups	Autonomy and human needs

Khalid and Nawab (2018) studied the different types of employee participation and their effects on employee retention. The study conceptualized employee participation types as:

- *Direct Participation:* It is a directly interactional, everyday practice type participation in decision making processes.
- *Indirect Participation:* It is a formal participation that the degree of the influence of the employees is medium to low. Indirect participation occurs through the representatives of the employees (Akkerman et al., 2015), like work councils, consultive committees etc. It is a close concept to employee ownership, but the impact of the individual is lower than the other (Khalid and Nawab, 2018).
- *Delegative Participation:* It is a participation that gives employee a say related to their tasks, thus gives employee a task control. In delegative participation, managers assign and spread the duties to the lower level subordinates through the organization to increase the effectivity. It is an operational type of participation which has a limited focus on just the tasks of the employees.
- *Consultative Participation:* This is a type of participation that employees give suggestions and recommendations in the decision making processes but the final decisions are taken by the managers, so the decision control is still at the managerial level (Ruiz and Rivero, 2018). It includes vertical (between managers and employees) and horizontal (between equal employees) information and idea exchange through the organization (Fletwood and Hesketh, 2010).
- *Worker Director:* It is a representative type of participation that the workers are elected from the worker union or among employees to take role in the board of directors of a company (Addison and Schnabel, 2011). It enlarges the effect of the employee involvement on top management issues of an organization (Strauss, 2006).
- *Worker Union:* It is a construct that forces organization on behalf of the employees in relation with work life aspects (Levine, 1995). It is a participation that has the main concern on employee rights, resource distribution and fairness in an organization (Nam, 2003).

Cotton et al. (1988) studied the effects of participation depending on the forms of the participation. The effect of participation on productivity or satisfaction changes from form to form. Different forms of participation may result as a raise in productivity, a raise in satisfaction, a raise in both or no raise in neither variable. These six different forms for the study are clarified as:

- **Participation in Work Decisions:** It is a formal, direct and long term participation that employees have a great influence on their work itself. The participation includes the decisions about how the work is organized, what is done for that work and who does that work. The studies that Cotton et al. (1988) included for the review study found consistent positive relationship between this form of participation and productivity but not consistent for job attitudes.
- **Consultative Participation:** It is again a long term, direct and formal participation type with less level of employee influence than participation in work decisions. Employee can give opinion but can not veto a decision. Quality Circles are a type of this participation.
- **Short – Term Participation:** It is a formal and direct participation that employees have a complete influence on the decisions, but the duration of the participation is limited with a project or a laboratory session. The effect of short term participation on performance found as weak.
- **Informal Participation:** In many cases, the organizations do not have a formal participation system offered for employees, but still participation occurs in that organization in an informal way. Informal participation comes from the interpersonal relationships between managers and subordinates.
- **Employee Ownership:** When employees have the stocks of a company, employees have the right to participate in the organization like the other stockholders. It is typically an indirect type of participation because the management gives most of the decisions to run the company but employees use their influence on management through election of the board of directors or stockholder meetings.
- **Representative Participation:** It is a formal, indirect participation with a medium to low influence on the decisions. Representatives are elected from the employees. This type is similar with employee ownership, but with a lower influence on the decisions.

2.1.3. Different Perspectives and Arguments for Employee Participation in Decision Making

The participation of the employees evolved from several different perspectives that see participation in different ways. Some of them can be counted as: the political (humanistic), the motivational (management), the knowledge exchange, the justice and the communication perspectives (Bartolke et al., 1985; Palgi, 1984; Summers and Hyman, 2005; Dachler and Wilpert, 1978; Xia et al., 2016).

The political perspective sets the goal of participation as a redistribution of societal and organizational control power with the increase in workers control in both the organizations and the society. Participation is a way to satisfy the social needs and improve the human growth. The main concern of political perspective is to achieve the equality between employees, managers and owners in the organization.

The motivational perspective sees participation as an instrument to enhance devotion of employees, commitment and attachment to the organization (Summers and Hyman, 2005) and at last to increase the overall efficiency and performance of the organization. Participation will increase the relationship and communication in the organization and sharing of knowledge will be enhanced, so the overall performance will be increased. The participation applications evolved from the political approach are usually formal and indirect, which includes the representatives of employees and owners and defines various rules about the usage of participation, whereas the applications evolved from the motivational approach are usually informal and direct, which there are no strict rules about participating in the organization (Palgi, 2006).

Knowledge exchange is similar to the motivational perspective, as participation increases the transfer of knowledge to the employees which will increase the positive outcomes like satisfaction (Sagie et al., 2002; West, 2002).

Justice perspective indicates that as participation in decision making will lead to higher perceptions of procedural justice among employees, which will lead to higher positive outcomes like satisfaction (Roberson et al., 1999).

Xia et al., (2016) studied the communication perspective on understanding the construct and the impacts of employee participation in decision making. The participation's mostly used definition is joint decision making, and this inherently covers the interpersonal relationship with communication. Participation in decision making enhances the

communication quality in the organization that results in various positive outcomes as a consequence.

There are four theoretical arguments that feed the idea behind employee participation in decision making. These can be counted as; “democratic arguments, socialist arguments, human growth and development arguments, and the productivity and efficiency arguments” (Mokoena, 2011).

- *Democratic Argument* emphasizes the employee’s right to have the control over his/her work
- *Socialist Argument* emphasizes that employees must be permitted in the decision making processes for their well being.
- *Human Growth and Development Argument* aims to increase the motivation, development and learning capabilities of the workforce through supporting them with more autonomy and responsibility.
- *Productivity and Efficiency Argument* determines participation as a tool to reach effectiveness in the organization by increasing the quality of the decisions.

While the first three arguments come from the perspectives of the employees, the productivity and efficiency arguments comes from the view of the management.

2.1.4. The Models of Employee Participation in Decision Making

Three models are offered in the study of Miller and Monge (1986) to understand the impacts of participation on satisfaction and productivity: cognitive, affective and contingency models.

According to the cognitive model, employees performing the tasks have valuable information about the tasks which is better than the information of their superiors, so superiors may gain this information with participative management (Cabrera, Ortega and Cabrera, 2002). This type of management is crucial for spreading the necessary information through the all levels of the organization (Rosidi, 1999). Also with participation of the employees, decisions will be made depending on better information (Miller and Monge, 1986). So as long as the employees have the freedom to participate and share information in the organization, the performance will be increased (Lawler, Mohrman and Ledford, 1995 as cited in Cabrera, Ortega and Cabrera, 2002, p.44).

Cognitive model do not predict a direct link between participation and satisfaction. Employees have better knowledge on the ways to perform the actual jobs in an effective manner than their managers, so involving them in the decision making process gives the managers the chance to make beter decisions than making it alone (Peters and Waterman, 1982 as cited in Latham et al., 1994, p.50). Employees contribution to decisions with their valuable knowledge influences productivity (Cabrera, Ortega and Cabrera, 2002), which eventually increases satisfaction (Miller and Monge, 1986). Cognitive model proposes that participation has stronger effects on productivity than job satisfaction.

Affective model claims that employee participation leads to fulfilling the individuals' higher order needs as equality, independence, respect and this fulfillment results with the increase in morale and satisfaction of the employees. Affective model do not suggest a direct link between participation and productivity. Participation influences productivity through the intervening role of motivational processes. Participation fulfills "the higher order needs" of the employees which lead to satisfaction, and satisfied employees are likely to be activated for their job and this will increase the employee productivity in the organization. Model suggests a stronger influence on the satisfaction than the productivity. The important part of participation process is the action part that creates the benefits of participation, not the information context (Miller and Monge, 1986).

Contingency model does not suggest a constant line between participation and satisfaction or productivity, the influence and effect differ from people to people and situation to situation. The factors that affect the relationship may be the decision situation, types of problems, types of business and organizations, manager-employee relations, personality or job characteristics etc. According to the situation, Cognitive or Affective model mechanism can be supported to explain the effects of participation. Vroom (1960 as cited in Miller and Monge, p.732) analyzed personality as a contingency factor and proposed that participation will lead to greater satisfaction and productivity only if employees seek independence and resist to authority. Vroom and Yetton (1973) build a concept to decide the optimal level of participation with protecting both the quality and acceptance of the decisions. Their work was a combination of cognitive and affective models; while protecting the quality of decisions has its roots from the cognitive model, protecting the acceptance of decisions depends on the affective model of participation (Miller and Monge, 1986).

In the meta – analysis study of Miller and Monge (1986), there were no results found to strengthen the background of contingency model of participation. Job type, organization type or hierarchical level of employees did not affect the relationship. But the study provided back-up for Cognitive model, and high back-up for affective model. Participation affected both satisfaction and productivity, but the impact on satisfaction is found stronger than the impact on productivity.

2.1.5. Consequences of Employee Participation in Decision Making

The literature of human resources contains various proofs of positive outcomes resulting from the usage of employee participation in decision making activities (Hunton-Clarke et al., 2002). Some of these outcomes are engagement, satisfaction, support for change, turnover and turnover intentions (Benn et al., 2015). Employee participation is a useful method for increased organizational effectiveness through the improvements in commitment and engagement of the employees in the organization (Gollan, 2005). Bhatti and Shahzad (2008) found employee participation as an essential antecedent of job satisfaction in their study. Employee participation also strengthen the linkage between satisfaction and other outcomes like commitment (Appelbaum et al., 2013) or productivity (Bhatti and Shahzad, 2008). Guchait and Cho (2010) found participative human resource practices as useful to decrease the level of the turnover intentions of the individuals. A type of indirect participation through work councils is found to decrease the intentions of turnover among the individuals (Pfeifer, 2011).

Latham, Winters and Locke (1994) found positive results in performance effectiveness with the increase of participation in formulating task strategies. Involving the individuals in specifying the tasks and missions enhances organizational citizenship behavior (Van Yperen et al., 1999). Participation in both managerial and technical levels of the organization increase the commitment to both the actual job and the company as a whole, resulting with increase in organizational citizenship behavior (Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015). A closely related concept of participation in decision making, autonomy, also found as positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior (Liguori et al., 2013). Participation increase motivation (Irawanto, 2015; Barg et al., 2014), sense of ownership, which lead improved work outcomes and organizational citizenship behavior (Witt et al., 2000).

Yadav and Rangnekar (2015) explored the role of participation in decision making as a mediator on the relationship between supervisory support and organizational citizenship behavior. The study also tested job satisfaction as another mediator and clarified the participation in decision making as a better and stronger mediator on that relationship. That mediation strength of participation in decision making may come from the fact that participation in decision making is an important antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior, which also can be described as a micro version of organizational citizenship behavior (Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015). Supported employees from their supervisor feel empowered (Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe, 2003), and empowered employees feel the ability to involve their voice in the decision making processes, which leads employees towards organizational citizenship behavior.

Participation in decision making increase the influence of the employee towards the organization which in turn fosters his/her self realization, self esteem, satisfaction and sense of fairness (Ornoy, 2010). Employees feel a sense of belongingness when they have the opportunity to make suggestions about decision making processes (Saha and Kumar, 2017). Employee participation in decision making fulfill the individuals' both the demand for belongingness and the demand for growth in the organization such as authonomy, challenge and competence which in turn increase their performance (Lakshminarayanan, Pai and Ramaprasad, 2016). It comes from the fact that if employees approve the decisions, they accept the outcomes of those decisions more easily (Black and Gregersen, 1997). Employee participation in decision making also found as a positive predictor of the mental health of the employees (Kukenberger, Mathieu and Ruddy, 2015 as cited in Kumar and Saha, 2017). Fuller et al. (2006) express the influence of employee participation on the employees perceived respect that as a result leads to the social identifications of the employees in the company. Joensson (2008) found strong influence of participation in especially work related decisions on the social identification of the employees. The identification of the employees, especially with the organization increases the productivity and efficiency (Ornoy, 2010).

Participation in decision making leads employees to achieve positive perceptions and increase their effort towards their work, which increases efficiency, productivity (Irawanto, 2015) and retention (Khalid and Nawab, 2018). Participating in the strategic planing processes gives employees a chance to clearly understand the strategic goals and plans and clarify their roles in implementing that plans (Kim, 2002). Kim (2002) also suggest

participative management systems to increase the employees job satisfaction level and supported the influence with his study. The participation in decision making was observed also for top management teams, and participation's positive effects on decision effectiveness of the teams and positive effects on firm's performance was discovered in the research (Carmeli et al., 2009).

Marescaux et al. (2013) proposed that various types of employee participation reinforces the retention of employees in the organization. The intention of the employees to remain in the company is a factor of the ratio of output (work environment, compensation, pay, opportunities etc.) and to input (the time, effort and energy consumed by the employees). The employee participation practices allows employees to take a part in the decision making processes within the organization, and this makes it harder to leave the organization for the employees (Ojasalo and Tahtinen, 2016). When employees have the chance to take role in participation in decision making, the employees feel themselves as a part of the organization and thus retention increases (Allen et al., 2010).

Kim and Fernandez (2017) explored the direct and indirect effects of employee empowerment, a very close concept of employee participation in decision making, on the turnover intention and found that empowerment is negatively correlated with the turnover intentions of the employees both directly and indirectly. Empowerment of the employees through involving them or allowing them in participating in the decision making processes strengthens job satisfaction and employee retention (Benn et al., 2015). Empowerment is a type of management application that increase the share of information, resources, rewards and authority through all levels of employees in the organization (Kim and Fernandez, 2017). Empowering management enhances the meaningfulness of work with increased chances to participate in decision making processes (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, and Drasgow, 2000). It is a management type with the involvement of different parties in decision making processes (Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp, 2005).

Employee participation in decision making, especially in the decisions about the actual work, is an important factor to overcome the miscommunication between managers and employees because it gives the employees the rationale and make them understand the decisions better. This situation acts as a leverage to overcome the negative feelings of employees about the decisions and their results in the organization (Cai, 2004 as cited in Zhu et al., 2015b).

Xia et al. (2016) indicated in their study that participation in decision making increases the job satisfaction of employees on the effect of increased quality of communication in the organization. Through participation in decision making, information flow fastens, communications become open and transparent, and in turn, role conflict and ambiguity reduce and teamwork promotes (Daniels and Bailey, 1999). Participation in decision making creates a work environment that increases the encountering of individuals with different capabilities, experiences and goals (Chatopadhyay et al., 1999 as cited in Saha and Kumar, 2017, p.83). Employee participation in decision making processes increase not only the motivation, but also the creativity of the employees (Applebaum et al., 2013b). With the aid of communication and decision making quality improvements, the workforce's acceptance and commitment to the decisions that are made are strengthened (Ornoy, 2010). In participative decision making techniques, the decisions that are related with the employees and their actual work are made together with that employees, which is an essential way to minimise the problems that come from the results of that decisions (Barg et al., 2014). Participation in decision making protects all the parties' interests related with the choices and decisions made in the organization (Oluwatayo et al., 2017).

Participation in decision making improves the quality of the communication via The Social Capital Theory. The theory covers the abilities of an organization to create, maintain and reaching organizational goals (Poertes, 1998), and the communication capabilities are an example of these social capital (Merlo, Bell, Mengüç and Whitwell, 2006). Participation in decision making improves the communication in the workplace through; convincing the workforce a "stable, long term" relationship throughout the company and increasing the access and exchange of information among the workforce (Abu Bakar, Dilbeck and McCroskey, 2010); increasing the influence of employees with allowing them to have a voice in decisions, thus supporting the anticipation of value in the communication (Zhang and Bartol, 2010); giving opportunity to promote in the organization via contributing the supervisors to make good decisions (Appelbaum et al., 2013); improving the capabilities of the employees in communication via making them to work together and gather information from different employees and supervisors (Thompson and Kahnweiler, 2002). Taking account all of these, employee participation in decision making is an improving factor for job satisfaction in an organization through enhancing the communication capabilities and opportunities in an organization (Xia et al., 2016).

Participation in the quality programs not only increases the productivity of the employees, but also increases the quality of the products they produce (Lawler et al. 1998 as cited in Pereira and Osburn, 2007, p.145, Barrick and Alexander, 1987). Pereira and Osburn (2007) studied a specific participative technique, the quality circles which allows employees to give input to their work (Cotton et al., 1988), and found positive influence on job performance and employee attitudes. Allowing the team members to participate and discuss in choosing the decisions not only creates a feeling of belongingness to the group, increases their satisfaction and commitment, but also increase the use of full cognitive capacity of the team as a whole (Carmeli et al., 2009). Thus, using the full capacity of employees will improve the creativity of the workforce to meet the needs of the company (Liu et al., 2010).

Botero (2013) found in his study that the voice of employees in the decision making may have a contribution to increase the organizational commitment. The employees which are free to voice their opinions about their work show higher levels of commitment for the company (Jena, 2017). Economic Intelligence Unit (EIU, 2014, p.15 as cited in Kwon et al., 2016) published a report and indicated that, “if employees are valued and their voices are heard, then they will be much more willing to provide their full commitment and stay in the firm”.

The employees that have the chance to participate in the decisions in an organization score higher levels of organizational commitment (Giri and Kumar, 2013 as cited in Kumar and Saha, 2017).

The findings of the research of Kumar and Saha (2017) emphasized that employee participation in decision making is a strong determinant of “job satisfaction and affective commitment”. Affective commitment is predicted via participation on mostly the daily job-related decisions. The more the employees have the chance to participate, the more their levels of affective commitment increase. Sharing the views and opinions of the individuals’ increases the affective commitment of them for the company. When the opinions of the individuals’ related with the decisions and policies are taken into consideration in the organization, their identification with the organization get strengthen (Ojasalo and Tahtinen, 2016).

Participation increases the communication options, speed and quality which acts a removal of the barriers between the hierarchial levels of the organization, which increase commitment (Hunton-Clarke et al., 2002). The communication opportunities that come with

the participative practices also increase the acceptance of the employees for the change and new attempts (Amiot et al., 2006; Holt et al., 2007).

Peng, Liao and Sun (2019) studied influence of the transformational leadership on the affective organizational commitment with the moderating effect of centralization. The study emphasized the participation in decision making as the main dimension of centralization. The less chance for individuals to initiate through participation, the more centralized the organization and this will weaken the relationship of the leadership with affective commitment.

Participation in decision making enhances employees' possibilities to reach relevant data, increase the feeling of ownership, improves the quality of the decisions and reduces the negative feelings towards the work (Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015). Participation in decision making also speeds up the flow and distribution of information throughout the company (Somech and Drach-Zahavy 2013), which in turn enrichs the decision quality. Employees having a "voice" in decisions that influence them has a direct opportunity to participate in decision making, and this improves the information flow and diversity, which in turn enrich the decisions (Anderson and McDaniel, 1999). Employee participation increase the speed and accuracy of the "flow of information" and knowledge capabilities throughout the company since the employees stand at the more advantageous position to have better knowledge related with the actual work than their managers. In this case, the decision accuracy and quality increases with employee participation in decision making (Farooq et al., 2019). With the increase of the voice of employees in the decisions, it is probable to enhance "the performance of the whole organization" through the influence of job autonomy (Heffernan and Dundon, 2015).

Franca and Pahor (2014) emphasized the importance of the managerial support for the success of the implementation of employee participation in decision making.

Coch and French (1948 as cited in Latham et al., 1994, p.50) found that the opposition of individuals to the change process is strong when the participation of the individuals is not allowed in an organization. The lowest rates were scored by the employees whose supervisors directed their activities without discussion. Making a consensus through participation reduces the uncertainty between the subordinate and the supervisor, and this creates an anticipation in subordinate to the supervisor responses (Erim, 2009).

Some researchers claimed that participation has stronger influences on attitudes (like satisfaction) more than behaviors (like productivity) (Locke and Schweiger, 1979 as cited in Roberson et al., 1999). Wagner (1994) found significant, but very slight positive impacts on “satisfaction and performance” and questioned the significance of the small results in the practical areas. Daniels and Bailey (1999) also claimed that the evidence results of the relationship between participation and satisfaction is inconsistent, and it can be contingent to some situational and individual variables (Daniels and Guppy, 1994). But Daniels and Bailey’s study (1999) supported the direct relationship of participation and job satisfaction.

To understand this contingency, some moderating and mediating variables are also considered to explain the participations effects on performance and various employee attitudes. Ledford et al. (1988) claimed that these variables may be related to some individual, group or organizational situations. The experience of the employees (Barrick and Alexander, 1987), the time – period of the participative program (Ledford et al., 1988) or type of the organization (public or private) (Barrick and Alexander, 1987) may change the results.

Applebaum et al. (2013a) clarified the value of “trust” for the explanation of employee participation in decision making’s results as increased effort, satisfaction and commitment at the work place. Trust in management is an essential step for the participation efforts to be successful. The study indicates that the willingness of the employees to participate in the decision making processes increase with the perceived trust of employees to their supervisors, which in turn results as increased job satisfaction, commitment and decreased turnover intention. The study also emphasized the importance to shift the decision making degree “from individual level to group level” to increase the effectiveness and performance.

The study supported the influence of trust on participation in decision making, and participation in decision making on job satisfaction (Applebaum et al., 2013b). It is found that trust in management directly increase the willingness of the employees to participate in decision making processes, and this will increase the satisfaction level of the employees. (Applebaum et al., 2013c).

Establishing trust and actual decision making practices via taking the input of employees about work related decisions is a useful tool for managers to have more attached employees with the organization. Participation in decision making increases the employees’ perception of belonging to the organization because it gives the feeling of value their ideas

within the organization (Kumar and Saha, 2017). Employees whose ideas and opinions are taken into consideration will mostly have positive feeling about their job (Ornoy, 2010). This may also lead to be viewed by the employees as behaving on behalf of them which will result as increased job satisfaction (Parnell, 2003 as cited in Kumar and Saha, 2017).

In another study, the participation – performance relationship is analyzed with a mediator to overcome the inconsistencies of the results (Locke et al., 1997). Knowledge is used as the mediator, with the idea that participation is effective on the performance improvements if the participant has the knowledge about the subject. If the employee lacks the knowledge and experience to participate in the decisions, the expected results could not be achieved (Scott – Ladd, 2004).

Cox, Zagelmeyer and Marchington's (2006) studied on employee participation and its influence on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction with the effect of employee well-being on this relationship and found supporting results.

Lam et al. (2002) analyzed the participation – performance relationship interculturally and on the moderating impact of idiocentrism/allocentrism and efficacy. Information gathered from individuals from Hong Kong and United States, and it was found that idiocentrism and self efficacy moderate the relationship of participation and individual performance, and allocentrism and collective efficacy moderate the relationship of group participation and group performance. With this study, Lam pointed out the cultural and societal differences' effects on the participation – performance relationship. Irawanto (2015) also indicated the cultural issues importance in the participation in decision making and work motivation relationship and found the collectivist Indonesian culture strengthens the relationship.

Several researches also indicate the level of power distance influences the individual needs of having a voice in the decision making processes (Brockner et al.2001; Earley, 1999; Tyler et al., 2000). Voice in the decision making processes is more important and more expected by the individuals in the low power distance countries (Fodchuk and Sherman, 2008). Individuals give more concern to the quality of the treatment coming from the voice opportunities in the low power distance cultures, whereas individuals give more concern on the favorability of the outcome in high power distance cultures (Tyler et al., 2000). The employees in a “low power distance culture” are more sensitive to the voice opportunities in decision making (Brockner et al., 2001). Wu and Chaturvedi (2009) indicated the importance

of power distance as a cultural moderator in the relationship of various HRM practices like participation of employees in decision making processes and perceptions of procedural justice and employee attitudes. Employees in a high power – distance organization will accept not to participate in the decision making processes, so their attitudes like satisfaction will be independent from participation. Nerdinger (2008) also mentioned the culture as an important subject that has an effect on participation success, and indicated the organizational (corporate) culture importance in analyzing the conditions which participation programs occur. The relationship among the individuals within an organization may facilitate or weaken participation and its effects on outcomes (Ryan, 2000).

Hezberg's theory of motivation (1973 as cited in Samad, 2006, p.213) explains the two basic needs that contribute to motivation and satisfaction:

- The need of psychological growth
- The need to avoid pain and hygiene factors

Psychological factors like achievement and advancement are positive elements to motivation and satisfaction, whereas hygiene factors like working conditions, salary or security are negative elements that can cause dissatisfaction. A better situation in a negative element can only prevent dissatisfaction, but to lead satisfaction, positive elements must be improved.

In various studies, positive relationship between the degree of participation and job satisfaction is found (Kuye and Sulaimon, 2011; Zhu et al., 2015b; Pacheco and Webber, 2016; Irawanto, 2015). Karatepe and Olugbade's (2009) also clarified back-up for positive impact of participation of the employees on their job satisfaction levels. Black and Gregersen (1997) studied the influence of the degree of participation in five different decision processes on satisfaction and performance, and found positive relationship with each. Above – averaged participated employees in all decision processes scored significantly higher satisfaction and performance levels than below - averaged employees.

“Value Attainment Theory” explains the theoretical background of this relationship (Patchhen, 1970; Locke and Schweiger, 1979 as cited in Black and Gregersen, 1997, p.863). The theory indicates that employees are satisfied when they get the results they desire from the work environment. The extent of the value given by the employee to the outcomes determines the satisfaction level of the employees. So it is possible to be expected that if individuals can have an influence on the decisions that has an effect on them, they possibly

give more value to the outcome of these decisions (Denton and Zeytinoglu, 1993), and the level of that influence also will have effect on the level of the value given to the outcome (Black and Gregersen, 1997).

Participation in decision making gives the employees chance to shape the decisions, therefore it is likely for them to accept and value the decisions that they have a say on them. Thus valuing the decisions enhance the employees' satisfaction (Applebaum et al., 2013a).

Sun and He (2006 as cited in Zhu et al., 2015b) clarified the way to increased job satisfaction through the increase in participation in decision making. Participation fosters the coordination and communication opportunities in the organization and in turn improves the satisfaction level of the individuals in the organization. Teh and Sun (2012) analyzed the impact of employee participation on job satisfaction and found positive effects, with relation to the emergence of the knowledge sharing behavior among employees.

Employee participation in decision making supplies the employees relevant information to let them get the idea behind the administrative and technical decisions better, which will lead higher levels of satisfaction that comes from participation which cannot be replaced by any form of involvement (Kumar and Saha, 2017). Participation increases the employees acceptance of the decisions, which in turn increases their satisfaction (Locke and Schweiger, 1979 as cited in Scott – Ladd, 2004, p.649; Miller and Monge, 1986; Black and Gregersen, 1997). Participation has a direct effect on satisfaction with influencing an intrinsic need to affect the environment (Ganster, 1989; Ganster and Fusilier, 1989, as cited in Daniels and Bailey, 1999, p.28) and giving a feeling of mastery to change the environment (Fisher, 1989 as cited in Daniels and Bailey, 1999, p.28). Also participation has an indirect impact over satisfaction by giving the chance to change “the work environment” that leads reducing the sources of stress like role ambiguity and role conflict (Daniels and Bailey, 1999).

Increased variety of tasks (Zeffane, 1994), decreased role ambiguity and conflict, increased knowledge of results provide motivational benefits and these increase satisfaction. Zia et al. (2016) found that the participation in decision making fosters the job satisfaction level of employees with the mediating effect of communication openness in the organization. Zhu et al. (2015b) found in the research that the employee participation is positively related with their job satisfaction level, for the all three types of participation as “participation in management”, “participation in supervision” and “participation in decision making”. The intention and willingness of the employees to participate in the decisions also found as a

strong moderator on that relationship, especially for the decision-making type of employee participation.

Allowing the employees to contribute for the development of mission, procedures and policies will improve the communication within the organization and increase the morale and satisfaction levels of the employees (Cotton, 1993 as cited in Bhatti and Shahzad, 2008, p.170). Employees contribution by involving in the planning processes, generating alternatives, making policies and evaluating the results leads higher levels of satisfaction among the employees (Saha and Kumar, 2017).

Zhu, Xie, Warner and Guo (2015b) emphasized the importance of the demand and willingness of the individuals to participate in the decision making in the actual participation's effect on job satisfaction. Wang, Du and Wang (2011 as cited in Zhu et al., 2015b) compared "the old and new generation" employees' demand to participate in the decisions and found that the old employees behave traditionally and do not interest to participate, whereas new generation has a strong will to participate, which would increase the participation's positive effects like satisfaction. Zhou and Liu (2010 as cited in Zhu et al., 2015b) also found support for that idea with findings related with when the employees with the will to participate can't get enough opportunity to participate, they tend to be dissatisfied about the management.

Employee participation mostly related with positive work outcomes for employees, since it diminishes the job related stress and enhances the opportunities to develop the skills (Kalleberg et al., 2009). Supportive supervisors who encourages their employees to use their voice for performing their own tasks and providing positive feedback creates a less controlled working environment which leads the most creative outcomes of the employees (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; London, Larsen and Thisted, 1999). Participating in the decisions gives employees a meaning for their jobs and clarifies the purpose of the jobs so they give more effort to accomplish goals (Knopp 1991). Employees feel "a sense of pride" with making the decisions for their jobs, and this motivation makes them put more effort to accomplish the goals, and this increase productivity (Bowles and Gintis, 1993 as cited in Erim, 2009, p.154). So it is reasonable to think that employee participation in decision making is a useful tool to reach the organization its goals (Ornoy, 2010).

Participation in decision making in an organization has serious effects on the various perceptions of the employees (Wang et al., 2018). The increased performance of the

employees with the ability to participate in decision making processes comes from the fact that they perceive participation as a consideration of the organization towards their opinions (Saha and Kumar, 2015 as cited in Kumar and Saha, 2017). When the management allows employees to participate in decision making, the perception of being trusted is spreaded among the organization due to allowance of self-initiative to handle the work by themselves (Lorinkova and Perry, 2017). The employees perceive value and appreciation from the organization when they have the chance to participate in the organizational decision making processes (Thompson, Buch and Kuvaas, 2017). These types of perceptions may lead the employees to reciprocally perform more effectively in the organization.

There are various empirical studies that explains the link between participation and performance (Kuye and Sulaimon, 2011; Mokoena, 2011). Employee participation in decision making is an essential tool to enhance the overall performance of the organization (Kwon et al., 2016). Employees that have the chance to participate in the decision making processes understand the decision and its results better, and that increases the performance of the organization (Benn et al., 2015). Chen et al. (2007) indicated the importance of participation in decision making on facilitating the group performance. Participation in decision making increases the overall performance of the work group (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, and Rosen, 2007). The members of the group take the opportunity to participate in decision making as “an organizational support” for increasing the performance of the work group (Kukenberger et al., 2015 as cited in Kumar and Saha, 2017). The group comes together with the ideas in the participative decision making, which induces to increase group commitment among the work group (Kumar and Saha, 2017).

Some studies (Locke and Schweiger, 1979 as cited in Latham et al., 1994, p.50; Miller and Monge, 1986) found positive but weaker relationship than participation – satisfaction relationship. This positive relationship has its theoretical roots on “Expectancy Theory”. The theory indicates that participation needs the adequate knowledge and ability to involve in the decision making process, and if the participants believe they have this relevant knowledge and abilities, participation increases their effort and their performance.

Cotton et al. (1988) analyzed the effects of participation according to their types and the results showed that long term, direct and letting high access of participation create the highest satisfaction, performance and commitment outcomes. Various forms of participation that are used in the real – world business life should be considered to analyze the influences

of participation correctly (Cotton, 1995). Lawler (1986 as cited in Cotton et al., 1988, p.10) punctuates the importance of the time period of participation and claimed that short term participation will not lead to positive outcomes.

Farooq, Farooq and Reynaud (2019) studied participation in decision making in determining and enhancing the sustainability of the firms with depending on the Social Identity Theory. The results of the study presented that employee participation positively affect the sustainability of the firm with the moderating effect of organizational identity. Related with the theory, the participated employees in decision making processes that have the feeling of identification with their organization are found as to have more impact on the sustainability of the organization. The results showed consistent and significant positive effects of employee participation on all three components of the sustainability. The study also indicated the importance of participation in decision making not only for the productivity or financial performance, but also for the sustainability of the organization (Farooq et al., 2019).

The employees can make a positive contribution to the sustainability related decisions by the participation practices within the organization. Without participation opportunities, the employees may not have enough influence on the sustainability of the firm although they tend to make contribution to the organization (Farooq et al., 2019).

Wang, Wang and Li (2018) saw participation in decision making as a critical moderator on the association between job crafting and leader-member exchange and as a determinant for its impact on the task performance. Job crafting can be defined as self-initiated interventions of the individuals for improving their actual jobs that they perform, like updating the activities or forms of implementation of tasks (Berg, Dutton, and Wrzesniewski 2013; Bizzi, 2017 as cited in Wang et al., 2018). It can be viewed as an instrument to conform the characteristics and capabilities of the individuals with their work (Tims, Bakker, and Derks 2015; Van Wingerden, Derks, and Bakker 2017).

It is found in the study that when the ability of employees to participate in decision making is high, job crafting promotes leader member exchange and leads increased job performance, whereas with inadequate influence on decision making, the relationship weakens and job performance decreases. The opportunities to participate in the decision making processes provide information to employees about their organizational contribution with job crafting. This in turn enhances their motivation on job crafting behavior which increase their job performance (Wang et al., 2018).

Participative management techniques create a balance of the involvement of the managers and employees together on the daily and routine tasks related with the job. When the opportunities for the employees to have a say in the decision are not enough, the performance and the competitiveness of the organization could be in danger (Kumar and Saha, 2017).

Participation in decision making is mostly studied in the literature related with business/organization aspect, not so much studies are made to analyze the consequences of participation on a more societal/political basis. Timming and Summers (2018) have investigated an interesting consequence of employee participation in decision making that is called “pro-democracy affect” (p.2) in their study. Participation in decision making is analyzed in the study as a tool to direct the individuals’ views of democratic decision making positively in a wider aspect, as a governance decision making theme. It is a type of learning process that employees practice participation at their work and carry out the underlying democratic ideas and principles of participation beyond the organization to the societal life. The participated employees in the organizational decision making processes are more likely to be familiar and interested with this type of democratic decision making style in all aspects of life which is a result called as pro-democracy affect, which in turn directs the individuals to be more committed to the democratic governance.

The study indicated that employee participation in decision making will be positively correlated with the interest of the individuals in politics, which will lead to the pro democracy affect. The results supported that, the more the employees are able to participate in the decision making processes, the more they get interested in politics, the more they become interested in politics, the more they feel positive about the democracy in general terms (Timming and Summers, 2018).

2.2. ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Fairness is a must for a modern society to function properly (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998 as cited in Lambert et al., 2010, p.7). “Justice”, “equity” and “fairness” terms are used as substitute of each other in various studies (Adams, 1963; Moorman, 1991; Leventhal, 1980). Justice may be distinguished as a shared and unifying value that combines different conflicting parties by bringing some fundamental principles to their relationship (Konovsky, 2000). It is seen by Barnard (1938 as cited in Konovsky, 2000, p.490) as a fundamental base

for all the cooperative actions in an organization. Organizational justice is a kind of perception of the individuals related with the equal treatment in the organization (Khan and Habib, 2012).

Since the organizations occur with the social interactions of the employees working in it, the perception of justice in organizations is an inevitable component for those interactions (Coetzee, 2005). Organizational justice is a way of evaluation of the employees related with the ethical behaviors of the management (Cropanzano, Bowen and Gilliland, 2007). Successful organizations have legitimacy and this legitimacy comes from the employees' feelings related with the justice in the organization and workplace (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990). The way to establish an organization with maximum contribution of the employees is to offer equitable outcomes (leads to distributive justice perception) and enacting fair policies and procedures (leads to procedural justice perceptions) (Colquitt, Greenberg and Zapata-Phelan, 2005 as cited in Haynie, Mossholder and Harris, 2016, p.889).

Organizational justice is the degree of the fairness perceptions of the individual's or group's about the organization (James, 1993 as cited in Samad, 2006, p.213; Greenberg and Cropanzano, 2001 as cited in Öztürk, 2008, p.4). Organization justice is related with "the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables" (Moorman, 1991, p.845). The perceptions of organizational justice can be analyzed by "the individual reactions to the distribution of outcomes and the psychological processes that create these reactions" (Öztürk, 2008, p.4). Two main impulsions for the importance of the organizational justice can be counted as: the increase of well-being, positive attitudes and productivity of the workforce, and the reduction in unfavorable, negative attitudes and outcomes (Heponiemi et al., 2011).

Organizational justice is studied in various different disciplines as "industrial – organizational psychology, human resource management and organizational behavior" (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997 as cited in Kumar, Bakhshi and Rani, 2009, p.24).

The organizational justice theory is made on a two factor-construct at the beginning of the development as distributive justice and procedural justice. Interactional justice is seen as a factor of procedural justice (Öztürk, 2008).

Organizational justice is constructed upon at least three different factors as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Kumar, Bakhshi and Rani, 2009). Distributive justice involves the perceptions about "the fairness of the distribution of

outcomes”, such as pay or promotions. Procedural justice focuses on how these decisions are conducted, so different from distributive justice, procedural justice concerns about not what was decided but how was it decided (Lambert, 2003; Folger and Konovsky, 1989). The last factor, interactional justice refers to the quality of the treatment during an implementation of a decision (Bies and Moag, 1986 as cited in Kumar, Bakhshi and Rani, 2009, p.25).

2.2.1. Dimensions of Organizational Justice

Various studies conceptualized organizational justice in different types and numbers of dimensions. The range of dimensions that conceptualized in the justice literature vary from uni – dimensional model to four dimensional model as distributive, procedural and two dimensions of interactional justice as interpersonal and informational justice. (Greenberg, 1993; Colquitt et al., 2005 as cited in Ghosh et al., 2014, p.631). But predominantly in most studies, organizational justice is constructed on three different dimensions as procedural justice, interactional justice, and distributive justice.

2.2.1.1. Procedural Justice

Procedural Justice is related with the understanding of the employees in terms of the policies and procedures implemented in a company (Konovsky et al., 2000; Loi et al., 2012). Procedural justice is the justice of the decision procedures for the distribution of that outputs (Özer et al., 2017). It is fairness that comes from the methods, processes and procedures that generating the organizational outcomes (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998 as cited in Ghosh, 2014, p.632). It is related with the decisional fairness of the organization in terms of consistency and justification (Katou, 2013; Mey et al., 2014). It is having a voice in the decision making processes and an impact on the result of that decisions in terms of rewards, promotions, resource allocation (He et al., 2014). In order to have a “procedurally fair” workplace, the decision making processes should be visible and participative for the employees. Process control is essential in sustaining procedural fairness (Vosloban, 2013). In such a workplace, the employees’ actual or perceived control over their work should be high (Thibaut and Walker, 1975).

Procedural justice refers to the process and activities in making the decisions in the organizations (Brockner et al., 2000; Greenberg, 1990). It is the fairness perception about the procedures that determine the ways to reach the decisions (Folger and Greenberg, 1985 as

cited in Kaylan, 2005, p.4; Greenberg and Tyler, 1987 as cited in Wu and Chaturvedi, 2009, p.1232; Colquitt, Noe and Jackson, 2002). It is the perception of the fairness of the processes and the ability to influence the outcomes through them (Greenberg, 2011).

Procedural justice can be described as “fairness of the procedures” about both allocating the positive or negative outcomes such as pay raises, incentives, evaluations, promotions or disciplinary actions (Thibaut and Walker, 1975; Greenberg, 1987), and the availability of the influence of employees in that allocation process (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky, 2000). A decision making process that includes the employees’ opinions and is clear for everyone in the organization is seen as just by the employees in the organization. Procedural justice focuses on the assessment of the individuals about the procedures of decision making, whereas distributive justice focuses only on the outcomes as rewards (Conlon, 1993; Lind and Earley, 1992). Procedural justice is intimately associated with the employees’ evaluation of the organizational system and characteristics (Folger and Konovsky, 1989). Procedural justice is the most closely related dimension of organizational justice with the organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Özer et al., 2017).

Procedural justice became a substantial topic for the researches of justice with the identification that the way which an outcome is determined is as important as the outcome itself in influencing employee attitudes and behaviors (Greenberg, 1987; Cropanzano and Folger, 1991; Alexander and Ruderman, 1987). It is found that being just in a decision making process is as much important as the outcome of that process (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998 as cited in Lambert et al. 2010, p.9; Greenberg, 1987). Johnson (2004) investigated the concept for the society perceptions about government and indicated that people cares about the fairness of the processes as much as (or more than) the outcome of that processes.

Procedural justice can be thought in two forms. “Objective procedural justice” is related with the actual justice (Lind and Tyler, 1988), whereas “subjective procedural justice” is the extension of fairness judgment perceptions about objective procedures (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991).

Subjective procedural justice is mostly studied in the literature and analyzed in three components as cognitive, affective and behavioral components (Leventhal, 1980). The cognitive component refers to the calculations and comparings made for evaluating the fairness of the decisions. Affective components refer to various emotional reactions to the

actual decisions (Tyler, 1994). Behavioral component is the last component that explains various employee behavioral and attitudinal changes via their sense of justice of the procedures. When the fairness perceptions of the employees are low, their positive attitudes towards both their tasks and their organization will be weakened. This effect on the attitudes may lead to poor performance for the whole organization (Brockner and Wiesenfeld, 1996).

Moorman (1991) suggested a two factor model for procedural justice as “formal procedures” and “interactional justice”:

- *Formal Procedures*: It is the level of the fairness of procedures that are implemented in an organization. The procedures should include “consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness and ethicality” (Leventhal, 1980).
- *Interactional Justice*: Interactional justice is about “the way in which the formal procedures are carried out in an organization” (Moorman, 1991, p.847). Quality of the supervisor behaviors in the formal procedures and the degree of adequate information about the decisions are covered at this dimension.

Fodchuk and Sherman (2008) proposed the rules of the procedural fairness as:

- *Process Control or Voice*: The procedures should allow the expressions of the views and opinions.
- *Outcome Control*: The extent of one’s control on the outcome he/she produces (Thibaut and Walker, 1975)
- *Social Sensitivity*: The degree of respectful treatment between different parties
- *Justification by Information*: Enough information about the procedures should be given to the parties that are influenced from the results of the procedures (Bies and Moag, 1986 as cited in Fodchuk and Sherman, 2008, p.286)

Greenberg (1990) proposed a two component model of procedural justice:

- The absence or presence of distribution procedures such as involvement to the decision control. The ability to control and influence the decision processes that affects an individual increases his perceptions of procedural fairness.

- The explanations that employees receive about formal procedures. Information about the decisions will justify the process and the outcome of that process, and through that outcomes will be believed as fair by the individuals.

Konovsky (2000) indicated the debate on the components of procedural justice in the literature and summarized a three component model of procedural justice as structural component, interactional component and informational component.

- *Structural Component*: This component includes some organizational policies and rules to give opportunities to employees to have a voice in the decisions (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Greenberg, 1990).
- *Interactional Component*: This component refers to quality of the interpersonal behaviors that employees face while the implementation of a procedure (Bies and Moag, 1986 as cited in Konovsky, 2000, p.496). Not having a respectful interpersonal relationship causes to decreased perceptions of fair treatment.
- *Informational Component*: It refers to give the adequate information to the employees about the decision making (Greenberg, 1993 as cited in Konovsky, 2000, p.496). The information about the decisions made justifies the decisions and influences the perceptions of procedural fairness judgments (Bies and Shapiro, 1988). Especially verbal communication about the decisional information enhances the fairness perceptions (Shapiro, Buttner and Barry, 1994).

Sometimes interactional and informational components are taken in the same category, but various studies (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997 as cited in Konovsky, 2000, p.497; Shapiro, Buttner and Barry, 1994) did not discover correlation among these two components and separated them into two categories.

2.2.1.2. Interactional Justice

Interactional Justice was conceptualized inside the procedural justice dimension in the early studies (Colquitt, 2001). It is related to the interpersonal relation of managers and employees. It is the evaluation of the treatment of the employees in range of respect and dignity (Crow et al., 2012 as cited in Ghosh et al., 2014, p.632; Katou, 2013; Mey et al.,

2014). Interactional Justice is the perceived positive feelings among different hierarchical levels while the procedures are implemented (Özer et al., 2017). It is “the social side of justice concept” which is respect to the “quality of the treatment” that is encountered by employees (Bies and Moag, 1986 as cited in Farid et al., 2019, p.35). It is the degree of how respectful the employee are treated by their supervisors and how often they give rationale about the decisions to the employees. It is seen as “the third wave” of the organizational justice literature, since “the first wave” emerged as distributive justice, and “the second wave” as procedural justice (Colquitt et al., 2005 as cited in Öztürk, 2011, p.43). It is the degree of fair treatment of the authority in the implementation of the procedures (Hershcovis et al., 2007).

Interactional justice mostly refers to the interpersonal behaviors and equal treatment among the organization. The main difference of procedural justice and interactional justice is; perceptions of being just/unjust related with procedures are directed towards the organization, but the perceptions of being just/unjust related with interactions are directed towards the managers (Özer et al., 2017).

Since the idea that a combined interactional justice concept is too broad to analyze the distinct and separate consequences appear from different aspects of the concept (Colquitt, 2001), interactional justice is also divided in the literature into two different sub - categories, as informational and interpersonal justice.

Informational justice is related with supporting the employees with adequate information and justifications in the decision making processes (Öztürk, 2011). Gathering adequate information about the actual decision making procedures enhances “the control of the employees over their work” (Bies and Moag, 1986 as cited in Inoue et al., 2010, p.30). The information should be not only about the procedures that have been implemented, but also about the reasons why they have been implemented (Vosloban, 2013).

Interpersonal justice is related with the type of treatment to employees in terms of respect and dignity among the decision making processes (Öztürk, 2011). The attitudes and behaviors towards the employees are as much important as gathering true explanations about the decisions that have been implemented (Colquitt, 2001).

2.2.1.3. Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is simply the justice of the outputs (Özer et al., 2017). Distributive Justice is about the degree of the equity and equality (Adams 1965 as cited in

Inoue et al., 2010, p.30) about the outcomes allocated in an organization, which can be considered as a final result of the decision processes through procedural and interactional justice (Moorman, 1991). It is a degree of the “fairness of the allocation of rewards in an organization” (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993), such as salary, advancements, benefits and compensations (Colquitt, 2001; Mey et al., 2014). The fairness of the distribution can be measured by analyzing the balance of the contribution (education, intelligence, experience) to one’s outcomes (Vosloban, 2013). Perceptions of distributive justice are depend on the economical parameters, whereas procedural justice perceptions mostly depend on socio-emotional parameters (De Cremer, 2005).

2.2.2. Theories of Procedural Justice

There are various theories that have an explanatory power on procedural justice. Some of them are mentioned below.

2.2.2.1. Referent Cognitions Theory

Referent Cognitions Theory (RCT) combines the concepts of procedural and distributive justice and explains two different response as resentment and dissatisfaction. The theory aims to integrate the procedural and distributive justice theories. It specifies a direct relationship between the outcomes and the procedures (Yöney, 2010). RCT indicates that when the individual feel dissatisfied when he/she compares the actual outcome with the desired alternative (Aquino, Allen and Hom, 1997). Also their resentment increase with the idea that if different procedures had been implemented to make the decision, the outcomes would be more favorable (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). So the theory indicates that the resentment of the individual is not related only to outcome but also related to the procedures leading the outcome, which is not fair (Folger, 1987).

Folger, Rosenfield and Robinson (1983) indicated three situations leading to referent conditions with resentment about the decision making:

First, the actual outcomes must be incompatible with the expected ones. The dissatisfaction of the individuals depend on the difference between existing and alternative/prefered situations (Gülpınar, 2006). If the outcomes of the individuals are different from the others, they seek for the alternatives, and if the alternatives are better than

the existing outcomes, individual evaluates the outcomes and feel resentful (Aquino, Allen and Hom, 1997)

Secondly, the situation must be undesirable due to lack of justification of the implemented procedures. The comparison between the actual procedures that has been implemented and the referent ones may result with unjustification if the actual procedures are perceived as to be less fair than the referent procedures (Gülpınar, 2006).

Lastly, there should be lack of anticipation for improvement. If the individuals think that the unfavorable situation is temporary and there is chance for improvement, they feel less dissatisfied due to the “likelihood of amelioration” (Folger, Rosenfield, Rheame and Martin, 1983).

2.2.2.2. The Self-Interest Model

The Self-Interest Model, also called as “instrumental model” (Öztürk, 2008; Gülpınar, 2006), is established by Thibaut and Walker (1975) at first with the emphasis of process and decision control. The main idea is that employees’ main concern is the maximization of their outcomes, and procedural justice is important only if it leads to the expected favorable outcomes (Anderson et al., 2001). The model constructs a link between the interests of the individuals and procedures to control the outcomes (Kaya, 2013). The more the procedures enhance the interests of the individuals with desirable outcomes, the more perceptions of justice will be (Conlon, 1993). It explains the seeking of control over the procedures is due to the concern on the outcomes only (Lind and Tyler, 1988). The voice is valuable for the employees in decision processes only if it makes them to increase their earnings to the highest possible level (Kaya, 2013; Yöney, 2010).

Lind and Tyler (1988) indicated that people are only concerned with their interest only. While working together with others to gain the desired outcome, they get aware of that their self interests may conflict with others in short term. When the people realize that the desired outcome depends on working cooperatively and will be gained in the long run, they tend to postpone their self-interest and remain in the group work together. So the theory indicates that balancing the short-term and long term gains is essential.

2.2.2.3. The Group-Value Model

The Group Value Model main approach comes from the idea that human beings are naturally cooperative and tend to be a part of and work in groups (Gülpınar, 2006). The model emphasizes the importance of the group identification in terms of explaining procedural justice perceptions and effects. The theory indicates that it is important to be a part of a group for individuals, since the group provides identity and a shared-value to the group members. A process that is ran in a group is seen as fair and supported by the group members because it represents the norms and shared values of the group (Conlon, 1993). Being a part of the group increases the consideration of not only the personal interest, but also the interests of all group members, thus increases the perceived fairness in group (Sayü, 2014). The group members can ignore their self interest on behalf of the group members to help them (Lind and Tyler, 1988). When the cohesion in the group gets higher, the perceived level of justice gets higher, as well (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). The group does not provide only material outcomes to the members, it also gives status and social rewards to the members (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997 as cited in Gülpınar, 2006, p.13).

The theory proposes three phases that affect the procedural justice judgments (Beugre, 1998):

- *Neutrality*: It is related to how honest and unbiased the decision making procedures are.
- *Trustworthiness*: It is related to the evaluation of the authorities in terms of kindness and being respectfull to other parties needs.
- *Status Recognition*: It is related to the treatment politely, respectfully and with dignity for all the parties in group.

The people value the procedures that enhancing the group structure because they expect the benefit from the long term relationship in the group (Greenberg, 1990). In a long term relationship, the main purpose of the individuals are achieving the combination of personal and group goals, since they believe that the procedures will create fairness on the long run (Gülpınar, 2006).

2.2.2.4. The Value-Expressive Model

The model was established by Tyler, Rasinki and Spodict (1985) with the main emphasis on process control in justice perceptions. The people value the opportunity to “have

a voice in decision making processes” and influencing the final decision, because it gives the chance to influence the other people’s decision (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut and Walker, 1975). So with having a voice the individual expresses themselves in the group and this expression is perceived as procedurally just to the individuals (Öztürk, 2008). According to the value-expressive approach, the perceptions of procedural justice do not only occur through the decision control (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992), solely having a voice in the process (process control) enhances “the perceived value of the social interactions” during the process which leads to perceptions of just (Jones, Scarpello and Bergmann, 1999).

2.2.2.5. The Procedural Preferences Model

The model is the application of Leventhal’s Justice Judgment Model to the procedural justice (Öztürk, 2008; Yöney, 2010). Leventhal (1980) conceptualized the fair processes by defining the factors that leads to it. Leventhal (1980) defined the features and rules of fair procedure as; consistency, unbiased, correctability, accuracy, representative and ethical:

- *Consistency*: Allocation procedures should be consistent among employees.
- *Unbiased*: The decision makers personal stakes must be prevented in the process.
- *Correctability*: The opportunity to influence and change an unfair decision.
- *Accuracy*: The data used in the distribution process must be good and accurate.
- *Representative*: The needs, values and ideas of all the parties that are affected by the process should be involved and represented in the process.
- *Ethical*: The process should be in conformity with the ethical and moral values of the person affected by the process (Cohen – Charash and Spector, 2001)

2.2.2.6. Fairness Theory

The theory benefits from the referent conditions theory. Referent conditions theory indicat that justice judgments depend on the comparison of what is the result and what may be the result. Fairness theory is constructed on the “counterfactual thinking” of what may have been (Beugre, 2007 as cited in Yöney, 2010, p.18).

Three components of faïress theory is:

- There must be an undesired condition

- An individual must do some willed, discretionary action to be assessed
- The willed and discretionary action of the individual must violate the ethical code of the relationship among individuals (Beugre, 2007 as cited in Yöney, 2010, p.18)

The feeling of injustice occurs, if someone behaves other with damaging the ethical codes and principles of interpersonal relationships (Yöney, 2010).

2.2.2.7. Fairness Heuristic Theory

Fairness Heuristic Theory is built upon the concept of Group-Value Model (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Fairness heuristic theory indicates that the information about the fairness is used by the individuals to make evaluation of the inter-relationship with others (Beugre, 2007 as cited in Yöney, 2010, p.20). Three questions show up from the theory:

- *Why and when are the fairness judgments formed?*

The people seek for judging the fairness when they feel the paradox of whether they can trust others in terms of exploitation through their relationship with them. The fairness heuristic theory indicates that, to have an answer to that paradox people seek for answers in order to have fairness judgments (Yöney, 2010). Because the people does have a problematic relationship with the authorities (Cropanzano, 2001 as cited in Yöney, 2010, p.20), they tend to judge the fairness of the authority to feel safe in the organization. The questions that appears in mind of the individuals about trusting the others or not reveal the need of information about justice judgments (Yöney, 2010).

- *How are fairness judgments formed?*

The theory proposes that, feeling of being treated fairly mostly depends on the feeling of being included and valued in the social group or organization. Directly related with the group-value model, procedures that letting the individuals having a voice in the decision making processes increase the feeling of treatment with value, dignity and respect to the individuals. Fairness heuristic theory emphasizes that, an individual that feels as being a valued member of a group carries out the message that the procedures include themselves with their voice, thus they tend to accept the outcomes coming from that procedures (Cropanzano, 2001 as cited in Yöney, 2010, p.22).

- *How are fairness judgments used?*

The theory states that, when the fairness judgments are made by the individuals, they use them to clarify their position related to the acceptance of the outcomes, procedures, policies, demands of the authority etc. (Cropanzano, 2001 as cited in Yöney, 2010, p.22).

2.2.3. Consequences of Organizational Justice

Various studies in the organizational justice literature found strong effects of perceived organizational justice in the work place on different employee attitudes as job satisfaction (Najafi et al., 2011; Tziner et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2002; McCain et al., 2010), job performance (Colquitt et al., 2013), job involvement (Ahmadi, 2011), task performance (Aryee et al., 2004), organizational commitment (McLean, 2009; Crow et al., 2012; as cited in Ghosh et al. 2014, p.628; Wang et al., 2010; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013), turnover intentions (Ali and Jan, 2012; Aryee et al., 2002), absenteeism and organizational citizenship behaviour (Mohammad et al., 2011; Orłowska, 2011; Khan et al., 2015; Muhammad, 2004), positive employee emotions (Barclay and Kiefer, 2014), organizational trust (McLean, 2009 as cited in Ghosh et al. 2014, p.628; Saunders and Thornhill, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2012), employee performance (Wang et al., 2010; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013) and greater organizational identification (Olkkonen and Lipponen, 2006). Individuals in an organization react emotionally to the justice level in the behaviors and allocations of resources in the company and this leads to behavioural consequences (Barsky et al., 2011). When employees get equitable outcomes from their efforts in an organization with the consistent and bias free decision making processes, their involvement in their work and positive feelings about the organization gets higher (Colquitt et al., 2013). When the individuals perceive the procedure about the rewards distribution and the real allocation of that outcomes are just, they aim to respond with the increased involvement in and decreased turnover intention from the company (Khan et al., 2015).

Injustice, as the lack of just in an organization, can be determined with the implementation of unfair, unequal and biased procedures (Arfat et al., 2018). The unjust organizations generate employees that perceive low levels of commitment, productivity and they tend to behave negatively in the organization (Barclay and Saldanha, 2015). These negative tendencies and behaviors can be counted as retaliation, legal claiming, uprising in conflicts, turnover intention, low levels of work engagement as disengagement (Bilal, Rafi and Khalid, 2017; Aslam et al., 2018) and low levels of job satisfaction (Muqadas, Rehman

and Aslam, 2017). Without a perception of organizational fairness, motivational problems will occur among employees in the organizations (Lambert et al., 2010). Various studies found that deficiency of procedural and interactional justice results in poor mental health as psychological distress and depression (Elovainio et al. 2002; Ferrie et al. 2006; Kivimäki et al. 2007). The employees that have a negative perception about justice may retaliate against the organization or quit the organization (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998 as cited in Lambert et al., 2010, p.8).

The association of organizational justice and job outcomes are also examined in some cross-cultural studies. The impact of justice perceptions on job outcomes such as job satisfaction, intention to stay, and evaluation of supervision changes through the cultural variables for example power distance and collectivism of that nation's culture (Fields, Pang and Chiu., 2000). The studies declared that in low power distance and high individualistic cultures justice perceptions have a stronger influence on job outcomes (Shao et al., 2013).

2.2.3.1. Consequences of Procedural Justice

The perceived procedural justice also is found in the studies that affect the job outcomes such as satisfaction positively, independent of their resulting outcomes of the procedure. If the procedure seems fair to the individual, even though the results of that procedure are not in advantage of the individual, he/she still will be satisfied with that result (Thibaut and Walker, 1975; Lind and Tyler, 1988).

Nabatchi et al. (2007) indicated the importance of the fair organizational processes on the various positive attitudes of employees about the organization. Using fair procedures in increases of salaries or assessments of performance creates increase in satisfaction (Greenberg, 1996). Tyler (1988) found greater overall satisfaction with the increase of procedural justice perceptions in his study in the legal and political arenas. Several researchers (Thomas and Velthouse 1990 as cited in Kim, 2002, p.31; Pierce, Rubenfeld and Morgan 1991; Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance, 1999) also indicated that employee perceptions of fair treatment may lead to positive affective reactions towards their work and may reduce attitudes like turnover or absenteeism. Procedural justice perceptions promote employees self development (Van Dijke et al., 2012).

Various researches emphasize that procedural justice has more effect on attitudinal outcomes (especially satisfaction) than distributive justice (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987).

Procedural justice is clarified as a stronger determinant of job satisfaction and loyal behavior to organizations than distributive justice in various studies (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Scarpello and Jones, 1996; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1997). In the study of Kumar et al. (2009), procedural justice is found as a better predictor of organizational outcomes as organizational commitment, whereas distributive justice is found as a better determinant of personal outcomes such as job and pay satisfaction. McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found an actual positive relationship between procedural justice and positive employee attitudes, even if the distributive justice perception is low. When the procedures are seemed as fair, employees have a more positive judgment about supervision and organization regardless of their personal reward system (Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992). Employees feel a strong attachment to the organization when they have a feeling of procedural justice perception (Tremblay, Sire and Balkin, 2000). Procedural justice affects employee loyalty because degree of fairness in the procedures identifies the degree of “fair treatment” eventually (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991). Procedural justice perceptions also affect the individual’s evaluation about the authority in the organization (Cropanzano and Folger, 1991), and influence leader – subordinate relationship (Konovsky, 2000). Also, when employees see the decision making procedures as fair; their political, self interested behaviors reduced and these increase their understanding and satisfaction about their work.

2.3. WORK ENGAGEMENT

Work engagement is a trend topic in the business and industry areas (Rothman and Rothman, 2010). Work engagement is a trend topic for both researchers and practitioners in various aspects of science, such as organizational behaviour, managerial psychology, sociology, human resources development etc. (Breevaart et al., 2015; Cole et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015). There has been a progressive shift from giving more attention on the negative psychological factors (as burnout) to giving attention on the positive ones (as work engagement) in the business literature in the last decade (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The importance of work engagement concept fade in the organizational context with the increase in competition, global threats, financial volatilities among the market, rapidly increasing technology and the increase in political uncertainties (Aslam et al., 2016; Arfat et al., 2017). The work engagement concept became a very important topic in the business literature, since

the companies seek competitive advantage due to the continuous changes in the market, the increase in the number of competitors etc.

Work engagement's increased importance emerged in terms of motivation, productivity and competitiveness (Saks and Gruman, 2014). The work engagement can be seen as more valuable from job satisfaction or organizational commitment, since it increase the direct effort of the employees to the actual work of themselves (Bhatti et al., 2018b). Engaged employees show strong dedication to work and perform far beyond their role boundaries because they find their work as fun (Heine, 2013). Since the employees are the most valuable resource of a company, retaining them in the company as long as possible is essential for a company to succeed in the volatile work environment. Retaining employees is only possible with creating a working environment that feeding their needs in that environment. Engagement can be seen as a useful tool to foster that environment. It also directs the employees to adapt the changes in the organization more easily and increase their performance (Kim, Kolb and Kim, 2012).

Employee engagement is important from the benefits perspective; as increase in engagement level will lead to retain the employee, increase their effort, performance and deliver the best service to customers; and also important from the cost perspective; as disengaged employees will not be satisfied with their work, the productivity and the quality of the products will decrease (Vosloban, 2013).

2.3.1. Definitions of Work Engagement

It is essential to clarify the differences of a “job” and “work” before making the definitions of work engagement. A job is just about economics but work is an expression of the individual's inner being. While a job is a general concept, a work is unique to the individual (Öner, 2008).

Work engagement is the degree of attentiveness and absorption of an individual in performing their roles (Saks, 2006). It is a concept that deals with the employees interrelations with each other and with their actual work (Lyu, 2016). It is an individual's enthusiasm for involving in his/her job (Roberts and Davenport, 2002). Work engagement is “a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind” (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, p.209). Work engagement is the level of passion of employees towards his/her works (Hassan and Jubari, 2010). Work engagement is the voluntarily devoting the full energy of the employees to their

work (Leiter and Bakker, 2010). It refers to simultaneously investing energy and effort physically, cognitively, and emotionally in work related performance. It is “the harnessing of the individual selves to their work roles” (Kahn, 1990, p.694). It is an energetic state with the individual’s full dedication to excellent performance and effectiveness (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Engaged employees function optimally and properly and add positive contribution on behalf of the organizations interests (Diedericks, 2012; Lin, 2010). The employees that have a high level of work engagement seek for success on their personal and the organizational purposes, inject their full energy and creativity to the work and as a result increase the productivity of the organization (Aslam et al., 2018). Work engagement is a way to optimal functioning while performing their work related with well-being (Hakanen and Schaufeli, 2012). Engaged employees are engrossed with their work and they do not have tendency or free time to be busy with non-work related activities (Oosthuizen et al., 2018). Work engagement can be described as having a “flow”, getting lost in a total harmony at work, while in contrast to flow, “work engagement is more stable and long lasting concept” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997 as cited in Öner, 2008, p.29). Engaged employees identify themselves personally with their work and become motivated by it (Dalay, 2007). It is mostly related with the relationship of the employees with their work, and the strength of this cohesion (Saari, Melin, Balabanova and Efendiev, 2018).

Engagement also identified as a psychological variable in studies (Jena, 2017). It is “the psychological state that accompanies the behavioral investment of personal energy” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010, p.22). Upon this concept, Hewitt (2012) described engagement as an “emotional and intellectual involvement” that fosters the motivation of employees to increase their performance in their work role. Engaged employees are not only just physically present, but also psychologically present in their work place with a more attentive, integrated and focused work performance (He, 2014). It is a state that motivation of employees gets higher (Colbert et al., 2004). An unseen impulse thrives the employees to increase their performance in the organization (Wellins and Concelman, 2005 as cited in Jena, 2017, p.357). Engagement can be linked to the terms enthusiasm, commitment and having an intensely focus to the personal and the organizational goals (Park et al., 2016). It covers the terms energy that is injected, involvement with a highly dedicated manner, and commitment with a strong attachment to one’s actual work (Demirtaş, 2015). The employees want to stay in the

organization not for only monetary reasons, but for also being personally satisfied for their work (Bakker and Leiter, 2010).

Engagement can be thought as the extreme point of commitment that all the employees want to improve the organization in whatever way they can (Baldev and Anupama, 2010). Engagement can be identified as “the emotional and intellectual type of commitment” (Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006; Shaw, 2005 as cited in Yaldiran, 2010, p.51) which is “one step up from commitment” (Robinson et al., 2004, p.11 as cited in Yaldiran, 2010, p.51). It is seemed as a form of commitment with emerge of reciprocal efforts of the employees and employers for the mutual missions (Swaminathan and Aramvalathan, 2013). Work engagement is a close paradigm to commitment or involvement that relates with the devotion of the personal energy and enthusiasm of the individuals to the organization (Özer et al., 2017). Engagement concept is both related to commitment and job involvement in the literature, but its relation with commitment is closer (Öner, 2008). Gubman (2004) also emphasized the close relationship between commitment and engagement, which creates a sense of passion to assist the company to actualize their mission.

Engagement is studied upon different definitions with different authors. In different studies, engagement is labeled as “personal engagement, burnout/engagement (as opposite concepts), work engagement and employee engagement”. Saks (2006) emphasized that two engagement types can be counted as work engagement and organizational engagement and they are present and distinct concepts with different antecedents and consequences. Especially, employee engagement and work engagement are used as a substitute of each other in the engagemet literature (Park et al., 2019).

Work engagement or employee engagement, can be classified as (Özer et al., 2017):

- *Emotional Engagement*: This engagement type occurs with the self esteem and inspiration of the individuals through their work.
- *Rational Engagement*: This type of engagement occurs by the belief that the organization supports engaged employees through the opportunities for financial and personal benefits (Negwaya et al., 2013).

Early definitions of engagement is mostly “an atomic concept”, later the definitions are divided into three basic concepts as; “emotional, behavioral and cognitive engagement” (Vosloban, 2013). Upon this concept, the definition is made as “an individual employee’s

cognitive, emotional and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes” (Shuck and Wollard, 2010).

An early definition of personal engagement is made by Kahn (1990) as the physical, cognitive and emotional expression of the people in their role performance. Engaged employee is “physically involved, cognitively alert and emotionally connected”. It is a dialectique relationship which employee gives all personal energy (physical, cognitive, emotional) to his/her work and work role gives opportunity to express the employee’s self. It is adapting the employees’ selves to their work role. Oppositely, personal disengagement is identified as the “physical, cognitive and emotional” withdraw of the people from their work roles. The individuals devote or do not devote themselves depending on being either personally engaged or disengaged. Engagement is the attachment of an individual to his/her work (Kahn, 1990).

Rothbard (2001) defined engagement as being cognitively present and ready at work and made the description with the aid of two concepts as attention and absorption. Attention is the availability of an individual to cognitively think about a role, whereas absorption refers to the intensity of an individual’s focus on a role.

Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) saw engagement as the opposite concept for burnout and defined engagement with terms of energy, involvement and efficacy-the direct opposites of the burnout dimensions as exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy. Burnout can be seen as the erosion of engagement, as energy becomes exhaustion, involvement becomes cynicism and efficacy turns to inefficacy (Saks et al., 2006). The two personality factors that stands opposite across each other are neuroticism and extraversion (Costa and McCrae, 1980). Neurotic individuals have the emotions of fear and depression, whereas extravertive individuals mostly be cheerful, social and self-confident. The studies indicate that the individuals with high burnout experience high levels of neuroticism, on the opposite, the individuals that are more engaged with their work experience high levels of extraversion (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2008). Employees with burnout are chronically stressful, have cynical attitudes towards work and have decrease in emotional resources towards work, while engaged employees are filled with energy, highly involved in their work and feel themselves efficacious in performing their jobs (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). So burnout and engagement are the two extreme points in a continuum (Maslach and Leiter, 1997 as cited in Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, p.294).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) did not follow this idea and studied the two concepts as “independent, but negatively correlated states of mind” (p.294). Schaufeli et al. (2002) suggests that an individual who feels low burnout may not feel high engagement or vice versa, so these two concepts are unique and should be studied independent from each other. Shin (2003 as cited in Dalay, 2007, p.26) also supported the view with findings informing that job burnout and job engagement are not the opposing poles in a continuum but are different constructs. With these ideas, work engagement is defined and operationalized separate from burnout.

Work engagement is a way of self-fulfillment with containing the affective (vigor and dedication) and cognitive (absorption) components of it (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). Engaged employees identify themselves personally with their jobs and motivated by the work itself. They have enthusiasm and high levels of energy. They tend to work harder and they are more likely to get the results that satisfy the customers and the organization (Roberts and Davenport, 2002). Engaged employees are passionate while performing their job and they have a deep connection with their organization (Endres and Mancheno-Smoak, 2008). They are positively connected to their work; they believe and perceive that they perform in an efficient and effective way (Koyuncu et al., 2006). Although they get tired at their work, they see that tiredness as a positive situation associated with positive accomplishments. And different from workaholics, they enjoy different things outside their work. Their motivation for working is not coming from an irresistible inner motivation; it comes from the idea that working is fun (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008).

The other definition of engagement is made by Harter et al. (2002) labeled as employee engagement. It is the combination of the view of the employees’ selves and the view of the organization conditions (Macey and Schneider, 2008). Employee engagement occurs with connecting emotionally to others being cognitively vigilant. It is “the individual’s involvement and satisfaction as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter et al., 2002, p.269). It is a psychological “work related state of mind” that constantly desiring to contribute to the organization (Albrecht, 2010 as cited in Ghosh et al., 2014, p.629). It is defined by Nelson and Simmons (2003) as having positive emotions, adequate control, feeling purpose and having a positive vision about future of one’s work.

2.3.2. Dimensions of Work Engagement

Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) conceptualized work engagement with three different dimensions as vigor, dedication and absorption and expressed engagement as a “persistent state that is not focused on a particular object, event, individual or behavior”.

Vigor is characterized as high levels of energy at work, mental resistance of employees while working, persistence about problem solving, and willingness to invest effort in ones work. It is the willingness to give effort to the work, and persistence when coming across with some difficulties (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006). Mauno et al. (2007) indicated the conceptual similarities of vigor and work motivation. An employee who feels vigor is highly motivated by his/her job and this motivation will make him/her to overcome the difficulties at work (Mauno et al., 2007).

Dedication is characterized as the feeling of pride, inspiration, enthusiasm of one's work. It is having a feeling of significance and challenge at work. Dedication can be explained with feeling a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge at work (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Some studies (Mauno et al., 2007) claimed that dedication resembles the concept of job involvement. It is characterized by high levels of work involvement, feelings of pride from the work and being challenged by the work (Koyuncu et al., 2006).

Absorption is characterized as deeply, happily and voluntarily getting lost in one's work. It is the situation that is hard to be detached from one's work. Absorption is the concentration of the individual at work. In this situation, highly focused individuals can hardly detach themselves from their work, time passes quickly while working. Absorption is a type of intense concentration of the employees that possibly leads to losing track of time while working (Sarti, 2019). The experience of absorption can also be seen as similar to the experience of the term “flow” (Langelaan et al., 2006; Llorens et al., 2007; Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006). Flow is defined as a state of mind that people are so concentrated and involved in their job that nothing seems to matter them any more. The main difference is, absorption is a long term state of mind, whereas flow is mostly a short term peak experience (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Some studies offered vigor and dedication as the core dimensions of engagement (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). The studies identify vigor and dedication as the opposite poles of two burnout dimensions as exhaustion and cynicism, so they should be scaleable on a single bipolar dimension (Gonzalez – Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker

and Lloret, 2006). Vigor – exhaustion continuum is labeled as energy, whereas dedication – cynicism continuum is labeled as identification (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2001).

2.3.3. The Models of Work Engagement

While studying engagement, Kahn (1990) found three psychological conditions that associated with engagement as meaningfulness, safety and availability. The more the work is meaningful and safe for the workers, the more engaged they are.

Despite the idea of Kahn (1990) as building the construct of engagement on the Western Culture; Sheng (2015 as cited in Lyu, 2016, p.1360) traced the roots of engagement in Confucianism. It is like a social code in China that one should be dedicated to one's work and enjoy the relationship with others (Lyu, 2016).

The other model is offered by Maslach et al. (2001) that has its roots on burnout literature. Six areas of the work life are identified to have influence on the engagement level of the workers. These areas are; “workload, control, rewards and recognition, community and social support, perceived fairness, and values”. The model proposes that engagement is attached with workload, feelings of choice and control, fairness and justice, appropriate recognition and reward, supportive work community, and a meaningful work that is valued by workers.

Social Exchange Theory is also useful in explaining the engagement rationale. The theory indicates that the relationships evolve to trust, loyal and mutual commitments over time as long as the affected parties from the relationship follow the rules of exchange as reciprocity rules (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). The individual and the organization can be seen as the two parties that interact among these rules, organizations give individuals some economic and socioemotional resources, and in return individuals repay the organization by feeling engaged. So the engagement of an employee to the organization may vary depending on the resources he/she gains from the organization.

2.3.4. The Similarities and Differences Between Work Engagement and Other Constructs

There are some constructs in the literature that are closely related with the concept of work engagement. The definitions and the measurements of work engagement have some similarities with some well known and established constructs. These constructs can be counted

as; workaholism, job embeddedness, job/work involvement, flow, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

2.3.4.1. Workaholism

Workaholism can be defined as the individuals' unnecessarily and uncontrollably extreme working intention (Oates, 1971 as cited in Güvenç, 2012, p.8). It is cognitive state that the individual can not resist to think only the work itself, no matter if he/she is at work or not (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Workaholics spent lots of time on their work without any force to do so, and also the work come to their mind continually outside the work (Koçak, 2013). They give more effort than their tasks' requirements and the companys' expectations (Özgür, 2011). Workaholism have some similarities with especially the absorption dimension of work engagement, the other dimensions of work engagement (vigor and dedication) are not related to workaholism (Kozo, 2017). It is found that workaholism has various negative outcomes on individuals related to psychological and physical health (Bakker et al., 2009). Workaholics exaggerate their need to work and this results as unhappiness, social life problems and weak personal relationships (Bakker et al., 2009). Work engagement, is a similar concept with workaholism, since both concepts are work related, intense state of minds. But work engagement differs itself from workaholism with its positive consequences related with both the individuals and the organizations. Engaged employees find it hard to separate themselves from work because they are pleased by their work, not because that they are in an obsessive state of mind like workaholism (Bakker et al., 2008). Engaged employees see the work as fun, they are not addicted to it (Koçak, 2013). The driving forces of work engagement and workaholism is different, as engagement comes from an inherent motivation while workaholism comes from an absorption that can not be resisted (Kozo, 2017).

2.3.4.2. Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness can be described as the combination of all forces to make the individual difficult to quit his/her job (Yao et al., 2004). Both work engagement and job embeddedness are positive work related state of minds. The main difference is; the work engagement is a more changeable, whereas the job embeddedness is a more stable state of mind (Güvenç, 2012).

2.3.4.3. Job/Work Involvement

Job involvement is defined as “cognitive or belief state of psychological identification” (Kanungo, 1982, p.342 as cited in Yaldiran, 2010, p.55). It can be defined as the identification of the individual with his/her work (Blau, 1985). Kahn (1990) emphasized the difference of the two concepts as job involvement is just a cognitive, whereas work engagement is both behavioral and cognitive approach. The main difference of job involvement and work engagement is the first one does not related with well-being, whereas second one does related (Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006). Maslach et al. (2001) indicated that engagement is an extensive concept that covers the involvement and enlarges it with adding the energy and effectiveness dimensions. Job involvement can be seen as a tool to reach the personal goals, but work engagement comes from and inherent satisfaction. Job involvement can be defined as an identification with work, but work engagement mostly related with just being engaged or not to the work. So an involved individual that loses his/her job will suffer from losing identity and belongingness, whereas an engaged individual to a work does not feel like this and will try to find a new job that suits him/her to be engaged (Özgür, 2011).

2.3.4.4. Flow

There are plenty different definitions of flow in the studies. Simply, the words concentration, immersion, pleasure and involvement cover the concept of flow (Chen, 2006). It can be described as the sum of all the experiences that contribute to the happiness of the employees while performing their work (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990 as cited in Özgür, 2011, p.12). Flow is related with high attention, coordination, the conformity of body and mind together, full concentration and control over the focused subject, being unaware of the time that passed while working (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990 as cited in Güvenç, 2012, p.9).

The studies mostly conceptualized flow with three factors. First one is deep involvement which is a similar dimension of absorption of work engagement. Second one is enjoyment, and the last factor is called as intrinsic interest (Rodriguez-Sanchez, Schaufeli, Salanova and Cifre, 2008). Flow is a temporary state of mind, whereas work engagement is a more permanent and stable state of mind (Schaufeli, Martinez Pinto, Salanova and Bakker, 2002). Flow is related with specific and original aspects, so to determine a general work related aspect, work engagement should be measured (Salanova, Bakker and Llorens, 2006).

Flow is a short period, limited-time, over-enthusiasm, but work engagement's enthusiasm is a calm, stable, and lasts long (Özgür, 2011).

2.3.4.5. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as the emotional attachment of employees in the organization through the mutual values (Meyer and Allen, 1991). It is the voluntarily sacrifice of the individuals for the organization's well-being (Mowday et al., 1982). The three components of the organizational commitment can be summarized as; employee's acceptance to the goals and values of the organization (normative commitment), aim to invest extra effort for the organizational goals (affective commitment), and the permanent wish to remain in the organization because of the opportunity lost if he/she leaves the organization (continuance commitment) (Porter et al., 1974).

Organizational commitment and work engagement, both are some kind of psychological states, but still different concepts from each other (Christian, Garza and Slaughter, 2011). The main difference comes from the fact that work engagement is an attitude directed towards the individual's work, whereas organizational commitment is an attitude directed towards the whole organization (Christian et al., 2011). Organizational commitment is related with the individual's attitudes and behaviors in the organization, but work engagement is not related with the attitudes of the employees, it is related with how much the individual is energetic and absorbed in their work in the organization (Saks, 2006). The main concern of the organizational commitment is the organization itself, but the engagement mostly is related with the actual work that is performed by the individual (Maslach et al., 2001). In organizational commitment, the work is just a tool to serve the individual's goal achievement (Özgür, 2011).

2.3.4.6. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is first defined by Organ (1988) as "the individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the affective running of the organization". Organizational citizenship behavior relates with employees discretionary, non – demanded behaviors towards for the benefits of the organization. These behaviors are not in the scope of the formal reward system, so employees do not expect any reward resulting the emerged

benefits (Yin, 2018). The three important aspects of OCB is; voluntarily behavior, unexpected performance of the individual from the work role, and the positive contribution to the organization and the individuals in it (Özgür, 2011). OCB is a situation that the individual passes boundaries of his/her work role and increases the effort to do more than expected from him/her (Greenberg and Baron, 2000 as cited in Özgür, 2011, p.18).

Organizational citizenship behavior is a composition of constructive, self-initiated, voluntary and spontaneous behaviors which lead to improved efficiency and effectiveness in the organization. OCB is a positive and beneficial attitude with involving multiple levels of the organization to achieve improved performance in the organization (Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015).

The OCB is studied mostly on a five factor construct that is first established by Organ (1988). The factors can be counted as “altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue”.

Altruism can be defined as helping to other individuals about the work and tasks (Organ, 1988), courtesy is being respectful to new ideas coming from either managers or employees (Podsakoff et al., 2000), sportsmanship is described as handling the difficulties and problems in work without any complaint (Organ, 1988), conscientiousness is the expansion of the individual’s role behavior voluntarily on behalf of not only himself/herself, but also of other people in the organization (Organ, 1988), and civic virtue is related with the tasks and responsibilities that the individuals performs due to the feeling of the citizenship in the organization (Graham, 1991).

Organizational citizenship behavior mostly related with the voluntary behaviors of the individuals. The main difference of work engagement is its concern on mostly formal role behaviors of the individuals, not the voluntary behaviors (Saks, 2006). OCB, like work engagement, contributes to the organization positively, but the slight difference is that, OCB should also make positive contribution to the individuals in the organization. But in work engagement, the positive organizational contribution is expected, but contributing to the other individuals in the organization is not a “must” (Schaufeli et al., 2002). OCB mostly encourages the solidarity feeling, the cooperative behavior and the interpersonal relationships between the individuals in the organization, but an engaged employee mostly related with the actual work of himself/herself (Özgür, 2011).

2.3.5. Antecedents of Work Engagement

There has been found lots of positive outcomes of work engagement in the literature such as “job performance, client satisfaction, financial results etc.” (Schaufeli, 2013 as cited in Lyu, 2016, p.1361), so the mechanisms leading to work engagement is essential to understand.

Work engagement has been studied in the job demands-resources concept in various studies in order to understand the antecedents leading to engagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) clarified the antecedents of work engagement on the demands-resources basis and classified resources as personal resources and job resources. Some of the personal resources are related with the characteristics of the individuals as hopefulness, self-efficacy, self-esteem, being flexible and adaptive to handle the changing situations. Some of the job resources can be counted as co-worker and supervisor support and the opportunity to participate in decision making.

Job demands-resources (JD-R) model is an essential and extensive way to define and analyze the antecedents of work engagement (Crawford et al., 2010). The theory has its background from Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfall, 1989 as cited in Park et al., 2019) which proposes that the available resources for the employees are perceived as valuable and they tend to protect these resources. The loss of a job resource has more effect on the degree of work engagement than the gain of a resource (Halbesleben et al., 2014). When there are enough job resources for the employees, they become engaged to work and tend to stay in the organization (Karatepe ad Ngeche, 2012).

The JD-R Model is composed of three main categories as job resources, personal resources and job demands (Saks and Gruman, 2014) that the variables among these categories have the explanation power on work engagement. The concept indicates that all jobs are composed of demands and resources to meet them (Wan et al., 2018). If the available resources are low, burnout level will be high, if the resources are high, engagement level will be high (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). The job demands-resources model also indicates that the job resources help employees to reach their work goals, and reduce the needs and demands of the job to reach that goals. The resources develop and enrich employees on their work, which leads to more engaged workers (Shantz, Alfes, and Arevshatian, 2016). It is found in most studies in the literature that job resources strongly correlates with work engagement, also job demands strongly correlates with burnout (Inoue et al, 2010).

Job resources are related with the physical, psychological, social or organizational states that helps employees to perform their work in the organization (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), whereas job demands are related with the same states, but resulting with costs to employees while performing their work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Job resources were classified as social, physical and organizational resources in some studies (Bhatti, Hussain, Al Doghan, 2018b; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Bakker et al. (2003) positioned the job resources at task level, social level, organization of work level and organization level. Demerouti et al. (2001) also conceptualized job resources in four levels as level of organization at large (pay, career opportunities etc.), interpersonal level (team climate, support level etc.), level of the organization at work (role clarity, participation in decision making) and task level (performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy etc.). The more job resources are available, the more likely that employees feel engaged.

Job resources refer to the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that either:

- Reduces the job demands and physiological and psychological costs (Kanten, 2014 as cited in Bhatti et al., 2018b, p.36)
- Helps to achieve the goals at work
- Supports learning, development and personal growth (Bakker et al., 2003, 2005; Bhatti et al., 2018b)

Personal resources also a psychological state that increase the adaptation of the employees to their work like self-efficacy, self-esteem. Personal resources vary depend on the nature of the individuals in the organization (Xanthoploulou et al., 2007). It can be called as a psychological capital that the more of it will lead the more work engagement (Paek et al., 2015). When the job and personal resources increase, the job demands decrease (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Positive relationship was found between various personal resources as self – efficacy, organizational – based self – esteem, optimism, hope, resilience, emotional stability, proactive personality, self-evaluation, trait competitiveness and work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Paek et al., 2015; Na Ayutthaya et al., 2016). Self control and self efficacy are found as a strong catalizor for motivating employees through work engagement (Tuckey et al., 2012). Self leadership is a way for individuals to identify themselves and enhance self-control and self-efficacy which in turn helps them to overcome the difficulties

and invest energy to their work (Park et al., 2016). Bakker et al. (2006 as cited in Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, p.214) found that resilience, self – efficacy and optimism are able to explain the variances in the work engagement level of individuals. Langelaan et al. (2006) also studied the influence of the personality differences on the level of burnout and engagement and found high extraversion and low neuroticism positively influence the employee's engagement level. Bhatti et al. (2018b) also indicated the personality traits as personal resources and emphasized the importance of five personality traits as extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience on determining work engagement.

Various job resources can be influential for the work engagement of employees in an organization. Some of these resources that have an influence to specify work engagement can be counted as job control (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Hakanen et al., 2006), rewards at work (Koyuncu et al., 2006), and social support at work (Hakanen et al., 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), training, development opportunities, communication, participation in decision making (Shantz et al., 2016), job characteristics, supervisor and coworker support, participation in decision making and job security (Bhatti, Mat, and Juhari, 2018), job embeddedness, autonomy and empowerment, leader-member exchange, support from supervisors and colleagues (Babakus et al., 2017; Karatepe, 2012; Kim and Koo, 2017; Suan and Nasurdin, 2016), perceived organizational support and organizational justice (Utaminingsih and Purnomo, 2017) and the overall quality of work life (Wahlberg et al., 2017).

Job resources may influence engagement through playing intrinsic motivational role as fostering employee growth, learning or development and through extrinsic motivational roles as being an instrument to achieve work goals (Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, 2006).

Zhang et al. (2017) identified the importance of pride and respect on work engagement, via the path from pride to work engagement through the rise of organizational identity.

Putra et al. (2015) studied the impact of motivation and found that the motivation that comes from the inborn of employees is strongly related with enhancing work engagement.

Rigg et al. (2014) found the age as a demographic variable can be important in determining the level of work engagement which, younger or older employees are found to be more engaged to work than the middle aged employees.

Hassan and Ahmed (2011) emphasized the importance of trust in managers for catalyzing the employees' work engagement.

Avey et al. (2012) explored the linkage between ethical leadership and some positive employee outcomes and found significant influence of ethical leadership on work engagement.

Environmental and individual factors are essential to analyze work engagement (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli, 2009). Shuck et al. (2011) emphasized the importance of two main factors as the environment (tangible and intangible components) and the person (emotions, personality, family etc.) for the relationships of various job resources with the work engagement. The environmental and the personal conditions may lead the employee to engage or disengage in their work in an organization with the existence of the same job resources.

Various individual and organizational factors can be counted to lead the engagement of the employees. Four antecedents that are counted in the studies to lead engagement are, exactly specifying the expectations, transmitting the organizational resourced and equipment to the employees, creating a sense of belonging among the employees (Harter et al., 2002)

Six areas of work life that is indicated to lead to engagement are justice, sustainable workload, personal control, community, rewards, and values (Maslach and Leiter, 2008). The work environment that creates a positive socioemotional climate, gives training and development opportunities to create self efficacy beliefs plays an essential role in enhancing the levels of work engagement in an organization (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2006).

Saks (2006) clarified some of the antecedents of work engagement as “job characteristics, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice”.

Frost (2003 as cited in Öner, 2008, p.30) emphasized the importance of the leadership in constitution of engagement in an organization. If the leader ignores the individual's emotional needs and behaves without empathy, the individuals will mostly feel burned out and may leave the organization.

Various studies found that job resources as social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy and learning opportunities influence work engagement positively (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Salanova et al. (2005) found positive relations with the two job resources; training possibilities and job autonomy (job control) and work engagement in different organizations. Organizational trust positively influences the level of work engagement of the employees (Agarwal, 2014; Mey et al., 2014; Heine, 2013; Lin, 2010; Ugwu et al., 2014). Sonnentag (2003) found the importance of the recovery of employees from their previous working day on their level of engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found positive relationship between the three job resources; performance feedback, social support and supervisory coaching and three dimensions of work engagement; vigor, dedication and absorption in four different samples of employees in Holland. Hakanen et al. (2006) indicated that job control, access to information, supervisory support, innovative climate and social climate are associated positively with work engagement. Zhang (2010) counted down the predictor of engagement as expansive communication, trust, support from the immediate supervisor and colleagues, enriched jobs with possibility for involvement, feeling of pride in job, contribution to organizational success. In order to have an engaged work force, effective internal communication is an essential tool. Hayase and Traudt (2009 as cited in Applebaum et al., 2013a) found communication possibilities and quality increases the level of engagement among employees. Bakker and Geurts (2004) found positive influence of job autonomy, possibilities for professional development, and feedback at work on work engagement, especially the dimension absorption. Koyuncu et al. (2006) found in the study in a large Turkish Bank that work life experiences as control, rewards, recognition and value fit are significantly related to all three dimensions of work engagement. In the sample women managers and professionals in banking sector; the individuals who have higher control on performing their jobs, higher levels of reward and recognition were more engaged to their work (Koyuncu et al., 2006). In the longitudinal study of Mauno et al. (2007), job control (having decision- making latitude over one's work) and organization based self – esteem (the degree of the belief of members in an organization that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the organization) is found as serious predictors of all three dimensions of work engagement.

Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) indicated that lack of job resources like performance feedback, rewards, job security, job control, participation in decision making or social support will lead disengagement. Disengagement is defined in the study as putting distance with oneself from one's work and experiencing negative work attitudes towards the work object, work content or work in general. Various studies emphasized the importance of having the possibility to use the individuals' skills on the degree of work engagement (Hakanen, 2004 as cited in Mauno et al., 2007, p.154; Hakanen, Bakker and Demerouti, 2005). Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996 as cited in Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, p.296) also emphasized that absence of some job resources as control coping, social support, autonomy and decision involvement will predict burnout, the negative concept of engagement.

Various studies identified supportive workplace relations as a powerful antecedent of engagement (May et al., 2004; Maslach et al., 2001).

Harter et al. (2003) clarified four antecedents in order engagement to occur:

- Openness and clarity of expectations and equipment being provided
- Feelings of contribution to the organization
- Having a sense of belonging to something beyond oneself
- Feeling that there is the opportunity to discuss the progress and grow

Four principles as power, information, knowledge and rewards are the main roots of a high involvement work system that fosters employee engagement. Employees must have the enough power to make decisions by providing input to the decision or having the final authority for decisions, they must gather relevant and correct information from the organization, they must have the skills and knowledge for the accurate decisions and finally they must get the rewards for their discretionary behaviors (Konrad, 2006).

In the study of Laschinger, Wong and Greco (2006) on nursing staff, empowerment perceptions of the nurses enhanced their engagement through the influence of person-job fit.

2.3.6. Consequences of Work Engagement

Job or work engagement highlights the attention of the organizations because of various beneficial results for both the work and the company (Yin, 2018). Engagement has

been empirically connected to various consequences such as commitment, job performance, lower absenteeism, job satisfaction, intention to quit, organizational citizenship behavior (Hakanen et al., 2006; Halberg and Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006). Engaged employees generably show more productivity (Bakker and Bal, 2010), more satisfaction (Harter et al., 2002), less turnover intention (Alarcon and Edwards, 2011). Positive outcomes of employees are found to be as more strongly determined by the organizational variables than the employee characteristics (Brunetto et al., 2012). The work engagement is realized by the theorists and the practitioners as an important factor to attain organizational effectiveness, productivity, change and sustainability (Leiter and Bakker, 2010). Engagement increases the commitment level of the employees, makes them be proud of their work. Work engagement boosts the motivation and positive feelings of the employees throughout the organization (Chen and Kao, 2012). Engaged employees also sees the company targets as their own, they are eager about giving extra effort to reach these goals (Hewitt, 2012). Work engagement is found to have positive relationships with the organizational commitment (Simons and Buitendach 2013) and happiness (Field and Buitendach, 2011). Work engagement increases both employee and customer satisfaction which increase the effectiveness of the organization (Park et al., 2019).

The positive influence of work engagement on the organization occurs through The Social Exchange Theory on the basis of exchanging the benefits with the organization (Yin, 2018). The Social Exchange Theory gives a serious explanation to the engagement influences on the various outcomes, as reciprocal esteem and gratitude between two parties will result to the job outcomes, like commitment (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

The social exchange theory explains the relationship of humans with each other (Twenge et al., 2008). Throughout a more extended approach for the organizations, it helps to analyze the relationship between the individuals and the organization (Kataria et al., 2013). The theory indicates that the individual manages his/her relationship with the others in the organization with the motivation of possible benefits from the relationship. If the possible reward resulting from that relationship does not emerge, the social exchange between the two parties does not exist at all. So as a summary, all the individuals seek maximum rewards with minimum costs for the results of the exchange relationships (Yin, 2018).

So in light of the social exchange theory, it is possible to propose that when employees believe that their behaviors make them obtain the desired results, this belief leads employees

to engage their positive behaviors of work (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Throughout that idea, when the employees hope to get high organizational rewards as a result of high job engagement, or contrary, low organizational rewards as a result of low engagement, the social exchange occurs between the employee and the organization. But if the employees' expectations of rewards as a result of work engagement are not met with the actual rewards, the employees would see engagement as a wasted effort (Yin, 2018).

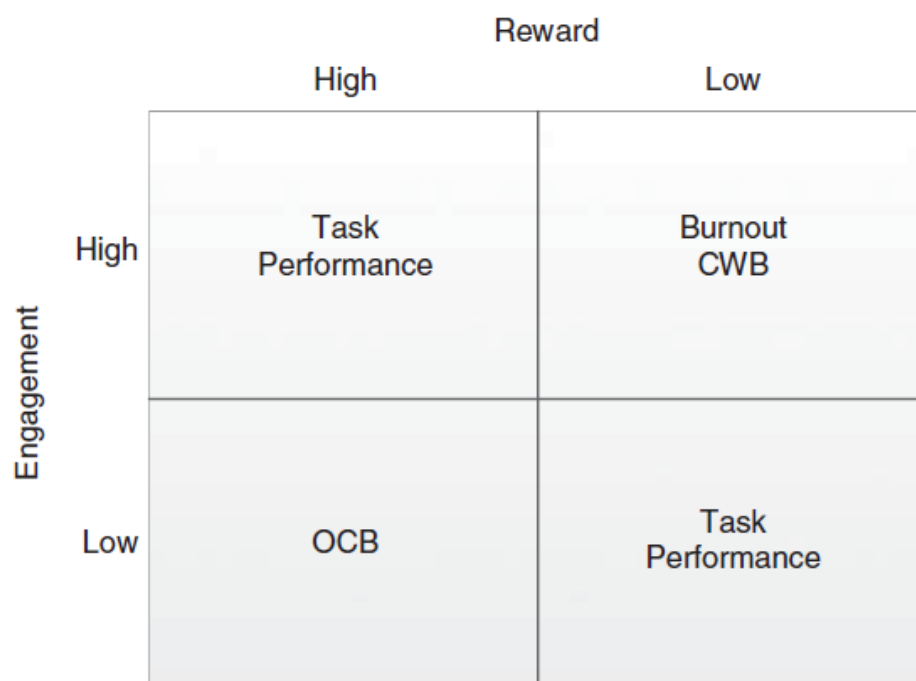


Figure 2.1.: Explanation of the Social Exchange Theory on the Relationship Between Engagement and Work Outcomes (Yin, 2018).

Rich et al. (2010) found that employee engagement has a stronger effect on the increase of the work related performance (task performance) and organizational citizenship behavior than the other job related constructs such as job involvement and job satisfaction.

Jena et al. (2017) studied engagement as a determinant of organizational commitment with the mediating effect of employee voice in the organization and found significant relationship for the model.

Yin (2018) explored the different outcome of work engagement under the influence of organizational justice perceptions. The study chose two positive outcomes as task performance and organizational citizenship behavior, and two negative outcomes as burnout and counterproductive work behavior. The results of the study showed that work engagement positively and significantly related with task performance and organizational citizenship behavior, negatively and significantly related with burnout and counterproductive work behavior. The mediation analysis of organizational justice showed a significant role for just work engagement-counterproductive work behavior relationship.

Applebaum et al. (2013a) noted that the low levels of employee engagement act as a blockage for the company to achieve organizational goals. If the employees lack the feeling of belongingness to the company, the work environment becomes less cooperative and collaborative, which in turn decrease the performance of the company.

The lack of engagement in the employees may lead to negative outcomes such as distrust, burnout or decrease in productivity (Lin, 2010; Ugwu, Onyishi, and Rodríguez-Sánchez, 2014). Low levels of engagement may lead employees to retaliate against the organizations (Ariani, 2013). In terms of counterproductive work behaviors, the work engagement and its all sub dimensions are found as negatively correlated in studies (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, de Vet and Van der Beek, 2014).

With more engaged employees in an organization, the general innovativeness of the organization would be increased due to the increase of the personal initiative of the employees (Hakanen et al., 2008). The voice as can be described as the personal initiative, is also studied as an important mediator in the engagement - outcome relationship, since the assessment of voice in an organization will foster the reciprocity with the lead to the feeling of ownership and commitment to the organization (Morrison, 2014).

An important consequence of work engagement is the decrease of intention to quit the organization (Applebaum et al., 2013a). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that the more attached the employees, the less their intention to leave the organization. Albrecht and Andreeta (2011) found the same result on the mediating role of affective commitment, as engagement increase affective commitment, and commitment decrease turnover intentions.

On the negative side, some researches indicate that employees that over-engaged with their work may have some problems with the non-work relationship and commitment (Halbesleben et al., 2009).

2.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING, ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

2.4.1. The Relationship between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Work Engagement

There are various outcomes of employee participation in decision making that has been studied in the literature that are very close and similar concepts of work engagement like organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and work/job involvement.

Various human resource practices and applications are bounded with the degree of work engagement of employees (Pradhan, Dash, and Jena, 2017), and employee participation in decision making is one of those practices.

Antecedents of work engagement are studied in the framework of job demands-resources concept in literature. The job demands resources model (JD-R) was first established by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001), which is the most important construct for determining the plenty of different antecedents of work engagement. JD-R model conceptualized the work environment with defining it through job demands that consume the employees' labour which costs them physiologically and psychologically, and through job resources that reduce these costs and help the employees to perform their work successfully (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Various job resources are indicated as significant predictors of work engagement, and employee participation in decision making is also one of this strong predictors.

Specifically, employee participation in decision making may be interpreted by the job demands-resources model as an antecedent of work engagement. Since employee participation in decision making is a valuable job resource, the employees that have the chance to participate in decision making tend to invest more effort and be more engaged to their work (Kwon et al., 2016).

Various job resources are studied as the antecedents of work engagement on the job demands-resources basis, but despite its relevance (Guest, 2015 as cited in Kwon et al., 2016), employee voice as a practice of employee participation in decision making, is not studied mostly in the work engagement literature. An exceptional study was Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), which clarified the unavailabilities in participation of employees in the decision making processes lead to lower levels of work engagement. The other positive employee

behaviors and outcomes which are intimate concepts of work engagement and related with the employee voice are job satisfaction (Holland et al., 2011; Wood and De Menezes, 2011) and organizational commitment (Farndale et al., 2011).

Employee's opportunity to give input to the decisions is seen as a driver of the employees' engagement level (Gallup, 2008; Robinson, Perryman and Hayday, 2004 as cited in Popli and Rizvi, 2016, p.968). Employee participation in decision making can be seen as a job resource, since it assists the individuals on reaching their work missions (Lam et al., 2002). The employees that have a chance to participate in the decision making processes in the organization feel that they have the adequate control and domination over their work, thus feel engaged on their work (Shantz et al., 2016). Encouraging participation in decision making of employees reveals the leaders positive purpose on behalf of the employees which in turn stimulates positive attitudes of employees and make them engage to their work (Lorinkova and Perry, 2017). Also participation in decision making is a useful instrument to reduce the job demands by giving the employees the opportunity to influence the decisions, make suggestions on their personal work in order to implement them better (Beh and Loo, 2012; Holland, Allen and Cooper, 2013).

Kwon, Farndale and Park (2016) studied the influence of the term, direct voice, which is a type of employee participation in decision making in the literature, on work engagement. The voice practices of employees and their effects on work engagement are theorized with the contribution of job demands-resources model. The direct voices of the employees in decision making activities act as a job resource that enhance the employees' positive attitudes and behaviors, such as work engagement. The study also added three different level of moderating variables as; the degree of power distance of the culture, the participation and empowerment climate of the organization, and the leader member exchange quality between employees and supervisors. These variables are taken into account due to the differences of the perception of the employees related with the opportunities for participation in decision making varies depending on these moderators (Kwon et al., 2016). For example, in high power distance cultures, the employees avoid being in conflict with the supervisors, so they do not believe that they are supposed to have a voice in the decision making processes, and as a result they don't have the tendency to participate in decision making (Huang, Van de Vliert and Van de Vegt, 2005 as cited in Kwon et al., 2016).

Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) also emphasized the lack of participation in decision making as an essential antecedent of burnout that can be analyzed as the opposite concept of engagement. From this point of view, the more availability to participate in the decision making processes leads to more engagement level among the employees. Demerouti et al. (2001) also emphasized the importance of employee participation in decision making on predicting engagement or disengagement of the employees depending on the amount of the opportunities to participate. Employee participation in decision making is defined as an external job resource in the study, and with the lack of participation, the individuals feel difficulty in handling the job demands, which results in withdrawal behaviors with disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Lorinkova and Perry (2017) emphasized that leadership styles that encourages empowerment applications reduce employees' cynicism - a burnout dimension which can be called as the opposite of work engagement, both directly and indirectly through employee psychological empowerment. Empowerment can be analyzed through organizational and individual aspects. Organizational aspects of empowerment include letting employees to participate in decision making, whereas individual aspects includes autonomy (Lorinkova and Perry, 2017). So it is logical to conclude that, participation in decision making as a style of empowering leadership method, act as an inhibitor for cynicism, direct opposite of the vigor dimension of work engagement.

Bhatti et al. (2018a) studied job resources contribution to job performance on the mediating effect of work engagement. The study took participation in decision making as a job resource and found important impact of participation in decision making on both of the two factors of work engagement as vigor and dedication on the study.

Benn, Teo and Martin (2015) found the positive effect of participation of the individuals in decision making related with environmental activities on the level of employee engagement in the organization. The involvement of the employees in the environmental management increases their motivation which in turn fosters their level of work engagement. The study showed how the participation allowed managerial applications influence the environmental performance and the engagement of the workforce to the organization.

Holland et al. (2013) emphasized the importance of employees' direct voice in reducing the level of burnout, which is mostly seen as a directly opposite concept of work engagement. Direct voice, that can be examined as one of the most essential facets of

employee participation in decision making, refers to the two way communication between managers and employees (Bryson, 2004), without the mediation of a representative (Forth and Millward, 2002). Direct voice is a structure that has linkage to both employee's involvement and participation in the organizational processes (Tzafrir, Harel, Baruch and Dolan, 2004). It provides the employees to have the chance to spread their views, concerns and opinions and influence their managers' decisions through them (Bryson et al., 2007; Dundon and Gollan, 2007). The management also benefit from the feedback and insight that gained via the voice of the employees on the decisions (Bryson, 2004).

Employee participation in decision making is found as an important antecedent of psychological ownership (Chi and Han, 2008; Han et al., 2010 as cited in Torp and Nielsen, 2018), whereas psychological ownership is found as strong in predicting work engagement (Ramos et al., 2014).

Various research clarified that the chance to have a say (voice) in the decision making leads the employees' perceptions on having control of their work (Holland et al., 2011; Wilkinson and Fay, 2011). The perceptions of employees to have a better control on their work significantly acts as a shield on the work related stress, and thus decrease their burnout level (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993 as cited in Holland et al, 2013, p.3149). The influence of voice towards the upward hierarchical levels of organization is found as related with work engagement, whereas towards co-worker level and outsiders is found as related with turnover intentions (Kassing, Piemonte, Goman and Mitchell, 2012).

Bozionelos (2006) also found that the work environment with the chance to share concerns and ideas decrease the emotional exhaustion level of employees. On the contrary, work environment with the lack of adequate chances for individuals to participate in the decision making leads to higher levels of burnout (Corders and Dougherty, 1993).

Rees et al. (2013) found the employee voice's positive relationship with work engagement both directly, and indirectly through the mediation of employee trust of their supervisors. Cheng et al. (2013) also found the voice of employees in positive relation with work engagement on the mediation of leader-member exchange.

Bakker (2014 as cited in Bhatti et al., 2018b, p.33) emphasized four factors to clarify work engagement. These were related with the needed aspects of the employees to be engaged with their work and one of the four aspects was the adequate empowerment level to create

their own personal resources, which can be seen as similar to the opportunities to participate in the organization.

Ramaprasad, Lakshminarayanan and Pai (2018) studied various high performance work systems and their effects on turnover intention. Also possible mediation roles of work engagement and organizational commitment on the relationships were analyzed. The study classified the HPWS on three forms as; ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing practices, and employee participation in decision making were taken as an opportunity-enhancing HPWS. Employee participation in decision making was one of the 11 practices of high performance work systems in the study, and the results showed that 8 practices including employee participation in decision making were consistently and significantly clarified both work engagement, organizational commitment and turnover intention (Ramaprasad et al., 2018).

Konrad (2006) indicated the importance of employee involvement - a closely related subject to employee participation in decision making, to lead high levels of engagement. In the study it is suggested to the managers to apply high employee involvement work practices in order to achieve high levels of employee engagement. Employees who design and implement the workplace will become the engaged employees, and engaged employees will generate discretionary behaviors that leads to high performance (Konrad, 2006).

The Involvement and Participation Association (2007 as cited in Evans and Redfern, 2010, p.268) proposed five key steps to achieve engagement. These steps are:

- Bringing the employees closer to the strategic decision making
- Creating buy in to the strategic decision
- Handling doubt and mistrust
- Sustainable progress related with employee satisfaction and trust
- Creating “a positive and credible employee voice” including a culture where individuals try to make positive influence

2.4.2. The Relationship between Organizational Justice and Work Engagement

Various studies in the literature found significant impact of organizational justice on work engagement. The positive perceptions of justice lead to engagement, whereas negative

perceptions lead to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). The employees that are treated fairly in the organization tend to acquire positive attitudes towards their work, and work engagement is one of those positive attitudes (Moliner et al., 2008 as cited in Oosthuizen et al., 2018). The employees that feel the fair and respectful work environment tend to increase their energy towards their work (Park et al., 2016).

He et al. (2014) found procedural justice as strong in clarifying work engagement, whereas Agarwal (2014) found the same relationship with procedural and interactional justice. In the study of Agarwal (2014), distributive justice was excluded from the study because it is only related with the outcomes and final decisions through formal obligations, but interactional and procedural justice are also related with an informal, implicit means of perceptions of individuals (Morrison and Robinson, 1996). Since work engagement is related with the voluntary attempt that is invested by the individual without a linkage to the formal compensation construct of the organization (Agarwal, 2014), the psychological aspects of organizational justice as procedural and interactional justice were used as the antecedents of work engagement in the study.

Özer, Uğurlu and Saygılı (2017) explored the relationship between the organizational justice and work engagement, and found organizational justice and the sub dimensions of justice as positively related with work engagement. It is also found in the study that the most important sub dimension of organizational justice was the procedural justice to clarify work engagement.

Karatepe (2011) also drew a model from organizational justice to work engagement and investigated only the procedural justice dimension's effect on work engagement, depending on the previous studies that only procedural justice dimension is strongly influential on the organizational commitment, which is a close concept of work engagement (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001).

Work Engagement literature has mostly been studied upon the Job Demand-Resources concept, since the excess resources leads engagement and insufficient resources result as disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). The Conservation of Resources Theory is useful to simplify the linkage of job resources and the work engagement levels of employees. Since Organizational Justice can be counted as an important, organization-level job resource, the perceptions of employees' about the organizations' justice may have an influence the employees' work engagement level (Ghosh et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2018). If the workplace

environment is just, employees will give more effort to their work; on the contrary, in an unjust environment, employees will hold their effort in order not to lose more resource throughout that theory (Lyu, 2016). With absence of justice in an organization, the employees may be discouraged from investing extra effort to their work because they may think that this extra effort will not be rewarded by the organization due to the lack of fairness (He et al., 2014). Vosloban (2013) also emphasized the importance of organizational justice dimensions as an important resource to increase the level of employee engagement. Due to Maslach and Leiter's (1997 as cited in Öner, 2008, p.30) study, organizational fairness is found as one of the most important factors that has an impact on work engagement.

Social Exchange Theory is also a powerful descriptor with constructing a theoretical framework on organizational justice and work engagement relationship (Sarti, 2019). Blau (1964) defined the theory as the discretionary efforts of the people in order to get the returns of that efforts in response. The theory indicates that all the interactions in an organization occur between the individuals which rules and requirements of those interactions are constituted in a reciprocal dependent basis (Ghosh et al., 2014). Since the main rule of Social Exchange Theory is reciprocity, the organizational justice is a resource that enhances the mutual action by employees (Lyu, 2016). The theory indicates that the perceptions of the employees about the justice in the organization depends on the comparison between what rewards they expect to get and what they actually get from the organization (Homans, 1958 as cited in Park et al., 2016). And employees tend to behave more engaged when they realize that they can get what they expect from the organization (Park et al., 2016). So the higher the employees perceive organizational justice, the higher they expect the corresponding reward for engagement, so in turn the higher the positive outcomes of work engagement emerges (Yin, 2018).

Organizational justice is a type of evaluation of the fairness of the employees related with the resource distribution, the implementation of the procedures for rewards or punishments, performance appraisals, decision making processes, and the interpersonal relationship quality with the superiors (Aryee et al., 2002). So with respect to the relationship of perceived organizational justice and work engagement on the social exchange theory basis, if the individual thinks that the organization is fair, then he/she will also expect that his/her efforts for being engaged to work will result as fair and deserved outcomes, and this belief will increase his/her engagement level to the work (Yin, 2018).

To be fully engaged in a social exchange, the individuals should trust that their actions will be met in return with justice (Sarti, 2019). When the perception of justice increases, the employees tend to reciprocate by being more engaged in their work (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Organizational justice has a direct effect on the quality of the social exchange in the organization which in turn clarifies the engagement level of employees in it (Biswas et al., 2013). Employees who have a feeling of “just” treatment in an organization, they favourably intend to engage and behave on behalf of the organization (Barling and Phillips, 1993). If the outcomes in an organization are allocated fairly (as distributive justice), if that outcomes are occurred through fair procedures (as procedural justice) and if the supervisor-employee relationship are in a decent and respectfull manner (as interactional justice), these conditions will make employees engaged to the work and the organization itself reciprocally (Gouldner, 1960). On the contrary, if the conditions result in decreasing the justice perceptions, it can cause disengagement and withdrawal in the organization (Biswas et al., 2013).

Zhu et al. (2015a) accepted the same relationship as; the more positive the justice perceptions of employees, the more engaged the employees will be, but also emphasized that this relationship is subjective and dependent to individuals’ characteristics. Emotional intelligence may be a contingency variable for this relationship since individuals that have better emotional intelligence can cope with the negative feelings of injustice better than the others (Di Fabio and Palazzeschi, 2012).

He et al. (2014) proposed the concept of Group Engagement Model to enlighten the relationship of procedural justice and employee engagement. The Group Value Model (Lind and Tyler, 1988)-as the early version of group engagement model- and Fairness Heuristic Theory (Lind et al., 1993) are found useful in the study to clarify the positive effects of procedural justice.

Lind et al. (1993) defined the effect of the Fairness Heuristic Theory as “impressions of the process and procedures used by authorities are typically available to the perceiver prior to impressions of the outcomes they generate, judgments of the fairness of process and procedure form the heart of the fairness heuristic.”

The Group Value Model indicates that procedural justice influences the members of the group as, being valued and esteemed at the group and perceiving honor in taking part of that group (Lind and Tyler, 1988). When the individuals perceive fair treatment in a group,

they will be more intended to be agree on the outcomes, will be in a harmony with the rules and the standards of the group, and will be more effortful to help the group and the individuals in the group to succeed (Restubog et al., 2008; Tyler et al., 1996).

The Group Engagement Model enlarges the view of group value model and proposes that when the individuals in a group feel valued and appreciated by the group, they feel respect and self - esteem from the group and with that feeling they will more likely to construct their social identity with reference to their group membership (Tyler and Blader, 2003). From the organizational justice perspective, individual that perceives justice in the applications of the company, makes employees develop stronger organizational identification and thus, influence the engagement level of the individual in group tasks and behaviors (Blader and Tyler 2009; De Cremer et al. 2008; Olkkonen and Lipponen 2006; Walumbwa et al. 2009).

Haynie et al. (2016) also proposed that the two organizational justice dimensions as distributive and procedural justice boost the energies linked to emotion (Colquitt et al., 2013) and identity (Tyler and Blader, 2003) that covers by the job engagement concept. Haynie et al. (2016) studied the organizational justice and job performance - work attitudes relationship on a motivational basis and see the job engagement as a “motivational vehicle” to strengthen the effects of organizational justice on the consequences. Besides The Social Exchange Theory’s reciprocity approach, the study suggests that organizational justice affect the work behaviors and attitudes via identity associated motivation generated by job engagement. The consequences that perceived as just lead the workers to get energized and give more effort on their work and lasts with the increase of the organizational attitudes and outcomes (Haynie et al., 2016). Macey and Schneider (2008) indicated that these increased efforts are mostly contains the main job engagement aspects as pride, dedication and absorption.

Strom et al. (2014) studied the organizational justice work engagement relationship on the leadership style perspective and found that both distributive and procedural justice are positively related with work engagement. Strom et al. (2014) found that positive relationship as stronger among the employees with low levels of transactional leadership than the higher ones. The Leader Fairness Theory indicates that the employee’s responses related with fairness changes according to the leader’s behavior, so throughout that theory a leader can direct an employee to have a focus on the organizational justice issues or not. When the focus of the employees on justice gets stronger by the leader’s influence, the influence of the justice

on the organizational results like work engagement should be higher. Otherwise, if the leader's manner detracts the employee from justice issues, the effects of justice on the outcomes will be lower.

Hassan and Jubari (2010) studied organizational justice effects on work engagement with the mediation of leader subordinate exchange and found that only interactional justice significantly predicts work engagement.

Another study showed positive relationship of the procedural justice and engagement with the partial mediating effect of the leader member exchange quality among the study on Chinese teachers (Meng and Wu, 2015). The employees' justice perceptions about the organization increase their engagement level of work (Lyu, 2016).

Sarti (2019) researched the influence of organizational justice on a two dimensional basis on work engagement both independently, and with the moderation of leader member exchange for non-profit organizations. The study results supported the positive and direct relationship of organizational justice and work engagement, the moderation of leader member exchange on the relationship was not supported. The sample of the study was chose to be composed of the members of the non-profit organizations, because of the need for the dedication of the members to the mission and purposes of the company (Guo et al., 2011) and this situation directly points out the need of highly engaged work force.

Park, Song and Lim (2016) studied the relationship of organizational justice and work engagement on the mediating role of employees' self-leadership. Since the most of the studies that have examined the antecedents of work engagement investigated the job demands and resources, the authors chose self-leadership as a personal resource to enhance the understanding of the work engagement concept upon the personal resources basis. In the findings of the research, both organizational justice and employees' self leadership are found as significantly predicting work engagement, while self-leadership partially mediated the impact of organizational justice on work engagement.

Farid et al. (2019) saw a missing gap between the justice perceptions-work engagement relationship as the studies in the literature mostly made in the Western Cultures (Shao et al., 2013; Strom et al., 2014). Since differences in cultural codes and work ethics may result in difference in the perceptions of justice and various job outcomes, he studied the differences in work ethics on this relationship. The study used Islamic Work Ethics as a moderator in the relationship and found significant relationship between all justice

dimensions and work engagement. The Islamic culture regards the values like hard work, loyalty, volunteering and cooperation, and these values are likely to foster the levels of work engagement in an organization (Farid et al., 2019).

Sirota, Mischkin and Meltzer (2005) found strong evidence that in order to have engaged employees in an organization, they should be given equity, achievement and camaraderie. Equity comes with the fair pay, fair treatment and respectfulness. Achievement comes from challenging work with enough resource and support from organization. Camaraderie relationships comes with the participative decision making processes in work teams. So the study emphasized the importance of both participation in decision making and justice perceptions on the work engagement level in an organization.

Agarwal (2014) studied the relationship between procedural/interactional justice dimensions and work engagement with the mediating role of trust. Organizational trust is found to have positive impacts on the perceptions of justice in organizations (Komodromos, 2013). The influence of trust in the organizational justice-work engagement can be described that perceived fairness for the organization increases the trust towards the organization which in turn increases the engagement level of the employees working in that organization (Agarwal, 2014; Oosthuizen et al., 2018). Katou (2015 as cited in Oosthuizen et al., 2018) also found organizational trust as a mediator, as highlighting of organizational justice emerges the organizational trust with a result of high levels of work engagement. Conversely, when the organization do not succeed in fair treatment towards employees, distrust occurs and this leads to decrease in work engagement levels of employees (Lin, 2010).

Oosthuizen, Rabie and de Beer (2018) studied the interrelationships between cyberloafing, organizational justice, work engagement and organizational trust. Cyberloafing is an interesting and rare variable that studied in the organizational justice-work engagement concept. Cyberloafing can be defined as the usage of the companys internet for non-work related purposes during the working hours (Lim, 2002 as cited in Oosthuizen et al., 2018). It is a more illusive loafing behavior at work because the others perceive them as working hard during the cyberloafing (Jia and Jia, 2015). The findings showed significant correlation between trust and organizational justice, and organizational trust on work engagement. Organizational trust also acted as a mediator between organizational justice and work engagement.

Inoue et al (2010) emphasized the importance of organizational justice in enhancing the job resources at work and studied the two dimensions of organizational justice (procedural and interactional justice) and their correlation on work engagement in a Japanese manufacturing firm and found significant positive relationship. Wan et al. (2018) studied the four dimensional model (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice) of organizational justice in relationship with the work engagement on nurses in China and found all the dimensions have positive and significant associations with work engagement.

Park, Johnson and Chaudhuri (2019) made a comprehensive literature review of empirical studies for defining the antecedents of work engagement and clarified some job resources, personal resources and job demands for determining the level of work engagement in the hotel sector. The study results showed the importance of organizational justice on work engagement.

Arfat, Rehman and Aslam (2018) studied the same relationship, but on an upside-down basis. The study analyzed bad results coming from organizational in-justice as the decrease in the work engagement level of the employees. In addition, the study observed abusive supervision as an indicator for enhancing the negative impact of injustice on work engagement. Abusive supervision can be a strong predictor of various negative work outcomes in an organization (Bilal, Rafi, and Khalid, 2017; Muqadas, Rehman and Aslam, 2017), which the decrease in degree of work engagement is one of that negative consequences (Poon, 2011).

Demirtaş (2015) selected organizational justice as a mediating variable on the relationship between ethical leadership and work engagement. The study came from the idea that the ethic treatment of the leaders in the organization increases the perception of justice in the organization which in turn leads to higher levels of work engagement. The results of the study showed significant influence of both ethical leadership and organizational justice on work engagement, whereas mediation of justice was found as partially significant. Ethical leadership is an antecedent of organizational justice, since the ethical leaders are the type of leaders that treat fairly, principled decision makers in the organization (Demirtaş, 2015).

Saks (2006) studied the perceptions of both distributive and procedural justice dimensions effect on work engagement and found procedural justice's significant influence in the study. In another study, the influence of both procedural and distributive justice on work engagement were found as equally significant, but procedural justice dimension found as

mostly related to absorption dimension of work engagement, whereas distributive justice dimension was mostly related to vigor and dedication dimensions (Gupta and Kumar, 2012). Kittredge (2010) studied the procedural justice-work engagement relationship and found that only vigor dimension of work engagement is enough predictable by the perception of procedural justice.

2.4.3. The Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is linked to the feeling and thinking of justice in terms of the procedure of decision making (Folger and Greenberg, 1985 as cited in Ohana et al., 2012, p.1095). It is not about the results, it is about how to come to that result. Thibaut and Walker (1975) defined the criteria of procedural justice as;

- the ability to voice opinions and suggestions during a procedure regarding to ones view (also called as process control or voice)
- the ability to affect the actual results of the procedures (also called as decision control or choice)

Referring to Thibaut and Walker's (1975) forms of participation as the extension of having a voice and choice in decision making processes, several studies have found positive relationship with all three aspects (voice, choice and together) and perceived procedural justice. The term "voice" is used in both employee participation in decision making and procedural justice literature and thus, participation in decision making can be seen as an "operationalization of procedural justice" (Ohana et al., 2012, p.1095).

It is found in the studies that the individual that has a voice in the decision making processes have higher ratings of procedural fairness than the individual that has no voice (Organ and Moorman, 1993; Tyler and Lind, 1992 as cited in Wang and Nayir, 2010, p.68). In that case, having a voice refers to have an opportunity to participate in decision making processes that as a result strengthens the employees' fairness perception about that processes (Korsgaard and Roberson, 1995).

Lind, Kulik, Ambrose and Vera Park (1993) clarified the ability to offer information to the superiors as one of the most important predictors to constitute procedural justice in an organization. Brett and Goldberg (1983 as cited in Earley and Lind, 1987, p.1149) showed the mediating role of control in this relationship and indicated that individuals who has a voice on

the decisions perceives a control on that decision and this control creates a feeling of justice. Several researchers (Van den Bos, Vermunt and Wilke, 1997; Price et al., 1999) expressed the importance of the receiver's demand for voice in the voice-perceived procedural justice relationship. "Choice only" and "Choice and Voice" aspects influenced the perceived procedural justice at the same level; both types allow individuals to have a control in decisions and influences perceptions of procedural justice positively (Early and Lind, 1987).

Coming from either voice or choice, having a control power on the decisions that affects the individual enhances the perceived procedural justice of the individual (Brett and Goldberg, 1983 as cited in Earley and Lind, 1987, p.1149). Procedural justice perceptions which is an important determinant of performance, is fostered by the amount of the opportunity to participate in the decision making process (Ohana et al., 2012). The higher the employees participate in the decision making processes, the higher they have a voice on the processes, the higher that processes are seen as fair by the employees (Lind et al., 1990). So it is essential to analyze the procedural justice understandings of the employees for the assessment of the results of employee participation in the decision making procedures.

Shapiro and Brett (2005) enlarged the view of voice as instrumental and non – instrumental voice and examined the different mechanisms and effects of each one. Instrumental voice has its roots on the idea that self – interest motivates employees and having the chance to voice opinions enhances the employees' interests. Noninstrumental voice explains the effects of voice with the group value model which assumes the individuals value to be a part of a group and interacting inside a group. Providing views and opinions to the group gives the individual a believe that the group interests in his or her opinions and takes his or her opinions into account (Shapiro and Brett, 2005). Voice affects the procedural justice perceptions on both of these two different voice mechanisms.

Including the employee ideas and giving chance to influence the decisions about the outcomes enhances the perceptions about procedural justice (Wu and Chaturvedi, 2009). The terms Process Control (Houlden et al., 1978 as cited in Earley and Lind, 1987, p.1148; Thibaut and Walker, 1978) and Voice (Folger, 1977) are used to express the relationship of having the opportunity to influence the decisions and procedural justice judgments. The Process Control can be defined as having the sufficient control on the timing and the implementation of the process (Ohana et al., 2012). Lind et al. (1990) clarified that opportunity to influence, especially in the pre – decision period lead to increased justice

judgments than having no influence. Having the chance to express the personal views with the voice effect, individuals have more control of the outcomes they produce and this leads to higher procedural fairness judgments (Lind et al., 1990). An individual knowing that his view is seen as worthy of hearing would appreciate the decision procedure, whatever the effect on the outcome of the procedure is likely or not (Lind and Tyler, 1988). The perception of fairness is increased with involving all the parties about the decision to the decision making process (Leventhal et al., 1980).

So, the feelings of the employees related with procedural justice should be correlated with the participation of the employees in the decision making processes (Wang and Nayir, 2010). The participation is a process based variable with the main concern is not on the outcome, but on how the outcome is reached by the process. Similarly, procedural justice's concern is on the evaluation of the processes not the actual outcomes. Interactional justice is mostly studied in the context of procedural justice in the literature, so the two dimensions of organizational justice are taken as the variables for the study.

2.4.4. The Mediating Role of Procedural Justice on the Relationship of Employee Participation in Decision Making and Various Work Attitudes/Outcomes

Two theories are indicated in the literature to explain the role of procedural justice on the relationship between employee participation in decision making and various job/work outcomes/behaviors.

The group value model is useful to understand the relationship of procedural justice and various job outcomes. Using fair procedures and involving the employees in the decision making processes enhance the identity of the employees and the quality of the relationship within the workplace. The employees that have a say in the decision making processes feel that their position is valued by the supervisor and the organization, and in turn establishes positive work attitudes (Ohana et al., 2012).

The social exchange theory is also explanatory in the relationship. When employees have the opportunity to contribute the organizational decision making processes, they tend to believe that organizational outcomes occur on behalf of them (Wayne et al., 2002) and they get the feeling that organization give support to them then in turn they reciprocally will have positive work attitudes. Social exchange occurs in two different types as exchange between

employee and the supervisor and exchange with employee and organization (Wayne et al., 1997).

Witt and Myers (1992 as cited in Applebaum et al., 2013a) draw the path from employee participation options of decision making towards favorable organizational behaviors/outcomes on the mediation of increased perceptions of justice of the individuals in the company.

The perceived organizational justice improves the employee attitudes towards their work (Sweetman and Luthans, 2010) which improvement is increased by the possibility of employees to “have a control over their work” (Maslach et al., 2001). Respectful treatment in the organization increases the motivation of the employees to be engaged with their work roles, especially if they have the adequate control over their work (Sweetman and Luthans, 2010). It is essential to remember that adequate control is strongly related with the opportunities to participate in the decision making processes.

Roberson et al. (1999) studied participation – perceived justice relationship with a different model and explored the mediating role of perceived fairness in the association among participation and satisfaction. Various studies identified the influence of participation in decision making on procedural justice, and procedural justice on satisfaction, separately. The idea of Roberson et al.’s study (1999) came from the fact that procedural justice may fill the missing gap between participation in decision making and satisfaction. Procedures in an organization that allow the influence of employees in the decision making processes are seen as more just by the employees since they feel to have more control on the decisions (Brett and Goldberg, 1983; Thibaut and Walker, 1978). These perceptions of fairness and control enhance the positive work attitudes of the employees like satisfaction (Lind and Tyler, 1988). The participated employees will have more control and effect on their work and this will decrease the negative impact of organization – wide politics on employees (Witt et al., 2000). In this case, the effect of participation in decision making on various job outcomes can be through the procedural justice perceptions. The results of Roberson et al.’s study (1999) supported the idea that perceived procedural justice may explain the inconsistent results of different studies about the participation – attitude relationship, since the results of the study showed that the direct path from participation in decision making to satisfaction was not significant, but with the mediation of procedural justice, it became significant.

Muhammad (2004) also studied the mediating effect of procedural justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on organizational citizenship behavior-defined as a very close concept of work engagement in the literature. The mediating model was constructed upon the social exchange theory. Participation in decision making contributes positively to the procedural justice perceptions of the employees (Thaibaut and Walker, 1975), which leads to the organizational citizenship behavior due to the establishment of social exchange relationship between the employees and their supervisors (Organ, 1988). The fair treatment that composed through the processes in an organization determined by the managers surely make employees to reciprocally behave in terms of organizational citizenship (Organ, 1988). The study clarified back-up for the mediating influence for both the two dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.

Ohana et al. (2012) found various positive work outcomes as a consequence of procedural justice resulting from the participation of employees in decision making. These can be counted as “affective commitment, loyalty to the organization and well-being”.

In another study, justice acted as a mediator for the influence of participation in decision making on organizational citizenship behavior. Participation also influences the organizational citizenship behavior by enhancing the positive justice perceptions of the employees (Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015).

Sikora (2002) also indicated the importance of the usage of procedural justice as a mediator to overcome the difficulties in identifying the accurate impacts of employee participation in decision making on work attitudes. It is emphasized in the study that procedural justice and participation relationship is only clarified in the literature of procedural justice as, participation as an antecedent of procedural justice. But procedural justice may be a useful tool as an explanatory variable on participations effects on different work attitudes. The study conceptualized participation's outcomes as voice, influence, status and knowledge, and found the mediation role of procedural justice as fully supported for the all outcomes through work attitudes (Sikora, 2002).

Different authors also recognized procedural justice as a mediator in the relationship. Folger and Greenberg (1985 as cited in Roberson et al., 1999), Lind and Tyler (1988) saw the potential of procedural justice to clarify the effects of participation in decision making. Yearta et al. (1995) indicated the importance of allowing the individuals to participate in the processes enhances their perceptions of fairness and control which leads to greater goal

performance. Wu and Chaturvedi (2009) explored the relationship of High Performance Work Systems including HRM Programs like empowerment and employee attitudes (job satisfaction and affective commitment) and found the mediating role of employees' perceived procedural justice on this relationship. In HPWS, employees have the chance to participate in the decisions (Lepak, Liao, Chung and Harden, 2006) and have great control over the processes. With these systems, they are involved in discussing the work related decisions and employees see the work procedures as fair and feel that they are valued and trusted by the organization, so they will be more intended to have positive work attitudes (Way, 2002).



3. METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the aim of the research and the questions related to the research are specified. After that, the research model is given and the hypotheses are indicated throughout the model. Then, the sample characteristics, the procedure that is followed, the instrumentation of the variables, and the data analysis methods are defined, respectively.

3.1. AIM OF THE STUDY

The study aims to investigate the contribution of employee participation in decision making and organizational justice to work engagement.

The proposed research model with the research variables is shown below.

3.2. RESEARCH MODEL

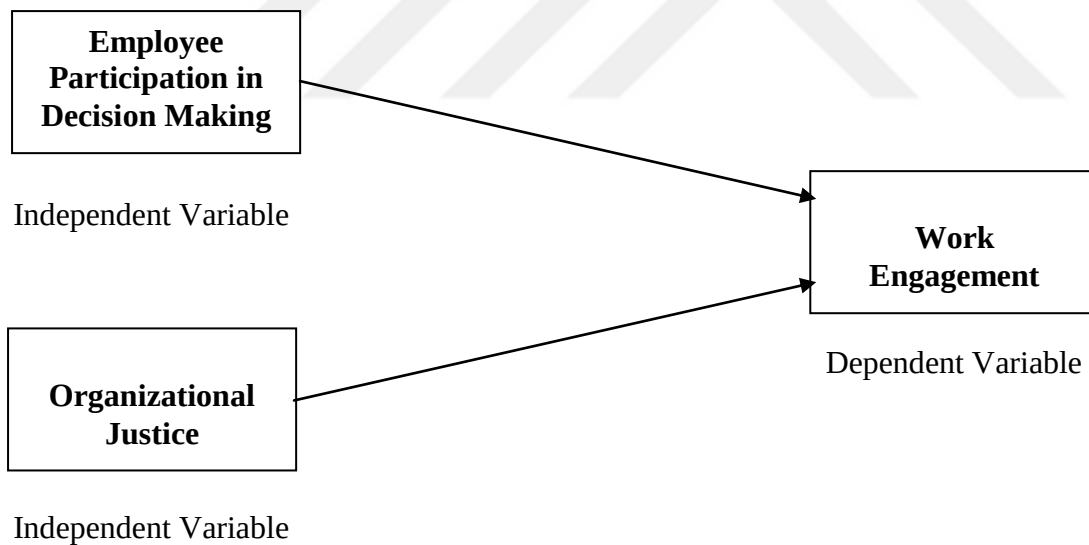


Figure 3.1.: Model of the Study

3.3. HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses listed below will be tested by statistical analysis:

- **H1:** Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to work engagement.
- **H2:** Organizational justice positively contributes to work engagement.

3.4. SAMPLE

The sample of the study was white-collar employees that work in a local municipality in Istanbul. There is no age limitation and no researcher interference for the sample. Study setting is non-contrived, unit of analysis is individuals and time horizon of the study is cross-sectional. The employees that are working as first-line to mid-managerial levels are subjected to the study. 327 employees filled the questionnaires.

The gender distribution of the sample is nearly balanced as 172 female (52,6%) to 154 male (47,1%) participants. The marital status varied as 220 married (67,3%) to 103 single (31,5%) participants.

In terms of education, it is seen that 3 participants (0,9%) are primary school graduates, 53 participants (16,2%) are high school graduates, 228 participants (69,7%) have university degree, 40 participants (12,2%) have master degree and 3 participants (0,9%) have Ph degree.

Age distribution varies between 22 as the youngest participant and 65 as the oldest participant. The mean age for the participants is seen as 39,24. 81 (24,8%) of the participants are between 20-29 years old, 82 participants (25,1%) are between 30-39 years of old, 88 (26,9%) of the participants are between 40-49 years old, 57 participants (17,4%) are 50-59 years old and 10 participants (3,1%) are 60 years old and above that.

Considering the positions in the company; 145 participants (44,3%) work as a first line employee, 31 participants (9,5%) work as technician, 89 participants (27,2%) work as architecture or different engineering positions, 35 participants (10,7%) work as chief (first-line management), and 22 participants (6,7%) work as managers (mid-level management).

The summary of the distributions of the demographic variables are listed in the table below.

Table 3.1.: Distributions of Demographics

VARIABLES		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Gender	Female	172	52,6
	Male	154	47,1
Missing		1	0,3
Total		327	100
Marital Status	Married	220	67,3
	Single	103	31,5
Missing		4	1,2
Total		327	100
Age	20-29 years old	81	24,8
	30-39 years old	82	25,1
	40-49 years old	88	26,9
	50-59 years old	57	17,4
	60 and above	10	3,1
Missing		9	2,8
Total		327	100
Education	Primary School	3	0,9
	High School	53	16,2
	University Degree	228	69,7
	Master's Degree	40	12,2
	Ph. Degree	3	0,9
Missing		0	0
Total		327	100
Position in the Company	Employee	145	44,3
	Technician	31	9,5
	Architect/Engineer	89	27,2
	Chief	35	10,7
	Manager	22	6,7
Missing		5	1,5
Total		327	100
Tenure in Business Life	Up to 5 years	77	23,5
	5 - 10 years	38	11,6
	10 - 20 years	97	29,7
	20 - 30 years	63	19,3
	More than 30 years	47	14,4
Missing		5	1,5
Total		327	100
Experience in Private Sector Before	Yes	217	66,4
	No	110	33,6
Missing		0	0
Total		327	100

3.5. PROCEDURE

Questionnaires were administered personally and directly (not via e-mail like electronic instruments) to the non-managerial, first-line and mid-managerial level employees in a local municipality in Istanbul at March 2019. A brief explanation about the purpose of the study, the completion time of the questionnaire was given by the researcher. The researcher also gave guarantee for the usage of only academic purposes for the study to the participants in order to increase the attendance and the accuracy of the answers.

3.6. INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaires of the study includes four sections in two pages. It started with the cover section including the general descriptions and informations about the study. After that, the first section of the study included the items of employee participation in decision making. Then, items related to work engagement was listed. The third section of the questionnaires included the organizational justice items and lastly, with demographic items, the questionnaire of the study ended. The questionnaire contains a total 44 items including 7 items for the demographics and 37 items for measuring the variables of the study.

3.6.1. Employee Participation in Decision Making Scale

Employee Participation in Decision Making Scale was firstly established by Vroom (1960) and used by Schuler and Kim (1978). It is a 5 item, uni-dimensional scale. The reliability of the scale was calculated as 0,87 (Schuler and Kim, 1978). It was translated in Turkish by the study of Erim (2009). It was measured by a 6 point Likert scale that ranges from “1 = Never, 2 = Scarcely, 3 = Rarely, 4 = Sometimes, 5 = Most of the Time, 6 = Always”. Sample item for Employee Participation in Decision making is “In general, how much say or influence do you have on how you perform your job” and “To what extent are you able to decide how to do your job”.

**Table 3.2.: Employee Participation in Decision Making Scale
(Schuler and Kim, 1978)**

EPDM
1. “In general how much say or influence do you have on how you perform your job?” 2. “To what extent are you able to decide how to do your job?” 3. “In general, how much say or influence do you have on what goes on in your work group?” 4. “In general, how much say or influence do you have on decisions which affect your job?” 5. “My superiors are receptive and listen to my ideas and suggestions.”
Source: “Schuler, R.S., Kim, J.S. (1978). Employees’ expectancy perceptions as explanatory variables for effectiveness of participation in decision making. <i>Psychological Reports</i> , 43, 651-656.”

3.6.2. Organizational Justice Scale

Niehoff and Moorman’s (1993) Organizational Justice Scale was used in the study. The two dimensions of organizational justice as procedural and interactional justice were included in the study based on the literature. The scale included 15 items which 9 items were related to interactional justice and 6 items were related to procedural justice. It was measured by a 6 point Likert scale that ranges from 1= Completely Disagree, 2= Moderately Disagree, 3= Slightly Disagree, 4= Fairly Agree, 5= Mostly Agree, 6= Completely Agree. Sample item for interactional justice is “When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity”, sample item for procedural justice is “My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made”.

**Table 3.3.: Organizational Justice Scale
(Niehoff and Moorman, 1993)**

Interactional Justice
1. "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration." 2. "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity." 3. "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs." 4. "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me a truthful manner." 5. "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee." 6. "Concerning decisions about my job, the general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me." 7. "The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job." 8. "When making decisions about my job, the general manager offers explanations that make sense to me." 9. "My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job."
Procedural Justice
10. "Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner." 11. "My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made." 12. "To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information." 13. "My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees." 14. "All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees." 15. "Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager."
Source: "Niehoff, B.P. and Moorman, R.H., 1993. Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 36(3), 527-556"

3.6.3. Work Engagement Scale

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used to measure work engagement, which was established by Schaufeli et al. (2002) in a three dimensional basis as vigor, dedication and absorption. It is a common, widely used scale to measure work engagement in Turkish studies with high Cronbach Alpha values. The whole scale consisted on 17 items. It was measured by a 6 point Likert scale that ranges from "1 = Never, 2 = Scarcely, 3 = Rarely, 4 = Sometimes, 5 = Most of the Time, 6 = Always". Sample item for vigor is "At my job I feel

strong and vigorous”, sample item for dedication is “I am enthusiastic about my job” and sample item for absorption is “Time flies when I am working”.

Table 3.4.: UWES Scale
(Schaufeli et al., 2002)

Vigor
1. “When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.” 2. “At my work, I feel bursting with energy.” 3. “At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.” 4. “I can continue working for very long periods at a time.” 5. “At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.” 6. “At my job I feel strong and vigorous.”
Dedication
7. “To me, my job is challenging.” 8. “My job inspires me.” 9. “I am enthusiastic about my job.” 10. “I am proud on the work that I do.” 11. “I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.”
Absorption
12. “When I am working, I forget everything else around me.” 13. “Time flies when I am working.” 14. “I get carried away when I am working.” 15. “It is difficult to detach myself from my job.” 16. “I am immersed in my work.” 17. “I feel happy when I am working intensely.”
Source: “Schaufeli, W.B., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V., Bakker, A.B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: a two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. <i>Journal of Happiness Studies</i> , 3, 71-92.”

3.6. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) 13.0 for Windows was used to compute the analyses of the study. The raw data was entered to SPSS and the statistical analyses counted below were computed respectively:

- The factor analysis was made via principal components analysis to define the factorial structure of the variables.
- The reliabilities of the factors were measured by Cronbach Alpha scores.
- The demographic characteristics of the samples are defined through descriptive analysis.
- The correlations among all variables in the study were determined by Pearson Correlation Coefficients.
- To analyze the contribution of employee participation in decision making (independent variable) and organizational justice (mediating variable) on work engagement (dependent variable), simple and multiple regression analyses were conducted.
- To analyze the role of the mediating effect of organizational justice on the relationship of employee participation in decision making and work engagement, three-step multiple regression analysis was conducted.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter, the findings from the data gathered through the survey study were examined. The analysis started by the demographic characteristics of the sample clarification through Descriptive Analysis. After that, in order to specify the dimensions of the variables and test their significance and reliabilities, Factor and Reliability Analysis were conducted. Since the dimensions of the variables were clarified after factor and reliability analysis, The Revised Model of the Study including the dimensions of the variables was constructed. To test the hypothesis and the revised model, Correlation and Simple-Multiple Regression Analysis are conducted respectively. Besides testing the main research model and the

hypotheses, independent samples t – tests and ANOVA tests were used to reveal the differences between the demographic groups in terms of the variables of the study.

4.1. FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES

Factor analysis and reliability analysis have been applied to the all scales respectively. Principal component analysis method and varimax rotation are used to determine the factor constructs of the variables employee participation in decision making, organizational justice and work engagement scales. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy of the scales that are calculated above 0,70 showed that the scale has a good adequacy, whereas KMO calculated above 0,80 showed that the adequacy was perfect. The value shows that there is a significant correlation between the items and they are suitable to conduct the factor analysis. Bartlett Sphere Test significance level should be indicated as $p < 0.05$, and all the scales Bartlett significance value are calculated as 0,000 which represent that the data is appropriate and all the items in the scale have enough relationship to conduct the factor analysis of the scales.

Principle components analysis and varimax rotation are applied to reveal the relevant items of the variables. In factor analysis, each step are conducted one item at a time basis. If any item with a factor loading of less than 0,50, or any item that has a loading in more than one factor with 0,10 or less difference, or have a loading singly on a factor; that item is discarded from the scales and factor analysis has repeated again. Factors that have an eigenvalue 1.000 or more were taken as a valid factor in total variance explained.

After the factor analysis are conducted for each scale and all the dimensions of the scales are determined, reliability analysis are made for each factor. The factors that have Cronbach's Alpha values of 0,70 and more were identified as internally consistent and sufficiently reliable.

4.1.1. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Employee Participation in Decision Making

Employee Participation in Decision Making Scale (Schuler and Kim, 1978) was subjected to factor analysis with varimax rotation including 5 items (items 1-5 in the questionnaire). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,805 which was perfectly (higher than 0,80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett

Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of one factor as only one factor's eigenvalue was seen as above 1,000. The one factor had 56,530% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

Since the Employee Participation in Decision Making scale is found as uni-dimensional construct with one factor, rotated component matrix was not calculated in the analysis. No items were discarded from the scale at that point.

Finally after the factor analysis, one factor with total 5 items (without discarding any item from the original scale) were clarified. Reliability analysis are conducted for the factor to analyze reliability degree of the factor by Cronbach's Alpha value. The one and only factor, named as Employee Participation in Decision Making (5 items) was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha Value of 0,799 which is above 0,70, so internally consistent and reliable.

But it was identified from the Item Total Statistics Table that, if the item 2 was discarded from the scale, the Cronbach's Alpha Value would increase to 0,831, so item 2 was discarded. The factor analysis was conducted again without item 2. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,783 which was good (higher than 0,70) and adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of one factor as only one factor's eigenvalue was seen as above 1,000. The one factor had 66,714% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

After the second factor analysis, one factor with total 4 items (without item 2) were clarified. Reliability analysis are conducted for the factor to analyze reliability degree of the factor by Cronbach's Alpha value. The one and only factor, named as Employee Participation in Decision Making (4 items) was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha Value of 0,831 which is above 0,70, so internally consistent and reliable. The detailed statistical results of factor and reliability analysis for organizational justice is given below:

Table 4.1.: Factor and Reliability Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making

Factor name	Item No	Question	Factor Loading	Factor Explanation (%)	Reliability
EPDM	1	"In general how much say or influence do you have on how you perform your job"	0,805	66,714	0,831
	3	"In general, how much say or influence do you have on what goes on in your work group?"	0,740		
	4	"In general, how much say or influence do you have on decisions which affect your job?"	0,771		
	5	"My superiors are receptive and listen to my ideas and suggestions"	0,847		
	Total Variance Explained (%)				
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			0,783		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity					
Chi Square			493,602		
df			6		
P Value			0,000		

4.1.2. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Organizational Justice

Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) Organizational Justice Scale was subjected to factor analysis with varimax rotation including 15 items (items 23-37 in the questionnaire). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,955 which was perfectly (higher than 0,80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of two factors as the two factors' eigenvalues were seen as above 1,000. The two factor had 73,444% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

The Rotated Component matrix was examined and it was identified that;

- None of two factors had a singly loading of one item, so no item was discarded from the scale.

- There were not any item that had a close loading under the two factor, so no item was discarded from the scale.
- There were not any item that has a loading less than 0,50, son o item was discarded from the scale.

Finally after the factor analysis, two factors with total 15 items (without discarding any item form the original scale) were clarified. Reliability analysis are conducted for each factor to analyze reliability degree of the factors by Cronbach's Alpha value. The first factor, named as Interactional Justice (9 items) was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha Value of 0,963 which is above 0,70, so internally consistent and reliable at a high level. The second factor, named as Procedural Justice (6 items) was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha Value of 0,894 which is above 0,70, so internally consistent and reliable at a high level. The detailed statistical results of factor and reliability analysis for organizational justice is given below:

Table 4.2.: Factor and Reliability Analysis for Organizational Justice

Factor name	Item No	Question	Factor Loading	Factor Explanation (%)	Reliability
Interactional Justice	32	"When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me a truthful manner."	0,853		
	30	"When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity."	0,838		
	31	"When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs."	0,823		
	33	"When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee."	0,823		
	29	"When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration."	0,800	42,500	0,963
	35	"The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job."	0,768		
	36	"When making decisions about my job, the general manager offers explanations that make sense to me."	0,725		
	37	"My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job."	0,713		
	34	"Concerning decisions about my job, the general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me."	0,710		
Procedural Justice	24	"My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made."	0,819		
	25	"To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information."	0,783		
	28	"Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager."	0,702		
	26	"My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees."	0,689	30,944	0,894
	23	"Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner."	0,678		
	27	"All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees."	0,673		
Total Variance Explained (%)				73,444	
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy				0,955	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity					
Chi Square				4539,505	
df				105	
P Value				0,000	

4.1.3. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Work Engagement

UTRECHT Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002) was subjected to factor analysis with varimax rotation including 17 items (items 6-22 in the questionnaire). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,954 which was perfectly (higher than 0,80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of two factors as the two factors' eigenvalues were seen as above 1,000. The two factor had 61,503% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

The Rotated Component matrix was examined and it was identified that;

- None of two factors had a singly loading of one item, so no item is discarded from the scale.
- Item 15 was identified as having a close loading under both two factor (0,586-0,506), so it was discarded from the scale

The factor analysis has repeated without Item 15. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,952 which was perfectly (higher than 0,80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of two factors as the two factors' eigenvalues were seen as above 1,000. The two factor had 61,776% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

The Rotated Component matrix was examined and it was identified that;

- None of two factors had a singly loading of one item, so no item is discarded from the scale.
- Item 18 was identified as having a close loading under both two factor (0,509-0,544), so it was discarded from the scale.

The factor analysis has repeated without Item 18. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,948 which was perfectly (higher than 0,80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of two factors as the two factors' eigenvalues were seen as above 1,000. The two factor had 62,155% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

The Rotated Component matrix was examined and it was identified that;

- None of two factors had a singly loading of one item, so no item is discarded from the scale.
- Item 22 was identified as having a close loading under both two factor (0,370-0,484) and both loadings were found as below 0.50, so it was discarded from the scale.

The factor analysis has repeated without Item 22. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated as 0,948 which was perfectly (higher than 0,80) adequate to continue the factor analysis. The Bartlett Sphere test's significance was found as 0,000 which proved that there is a significance and meaningful relationship between items. Anti-Image Correlation Matrix was examined and all the items Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values are identified as above 0,50 so all the items were found as suitable for factor analysis individually. Total Variance Explained table indicated that the scale composed of two factors as the two factors' eigenvalues were seen as above 1,000. The two factor had 64,213% cumulative explanation of the total variance.

The Rotated Component matrix was examined and it was identified that;

- None of two factors had a singly loading of one item, so no item was discarded from the scale.
- There were not any item that had a close loading under the two factor, so no item was discarded from the scale.
- There were not any item that has a loading less than 0,50, son o item was discarded from the scale.

As a summary, the items 15, 18, and 22 were discarded from the scale through factor analysis rotated component matrix results, respectively.

The factor analysis results showed that; differently from the original analysis of Schaufeli et al. (2002) work engagement as construct of three factors (vigor, dedication and absorption), two factors with total 13 items were clarified from the study data. Reliability analysis are conducted for each factor to analyze reliability degree of the factors by Cronbach's Alpha value. The first factor, named as Vigor (7 items) was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha Value of 0,908 which is above 0,70, so internally consistent and reliable at a high level. The second factor, named as Absorption (7 items) was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha Value of 0,890 which is above 0,70, so internally consistent and reliable at a high level. The detailed statistical results of factor and reliability analysis for organizational justice is given below:

Table 4.3.: Factor and Reliability Analysis for Work Engagement

Factor name	Item No	Question	Factor Loading	Factor Explanation (%)	Reliability
Vigor	9	"At my job I feel strong and vigorous."	0,841		
	13	"When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work."	0,790		
	6	"At my work, I feel bursting with energy."	0,788		
	10	"I am enthusiastic about my job."	0,786	35,260	0,908
	8	"Time flies when I am working."	0,754		
	7	"I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose."	0,634		
	14	"I feel happy when I am working intensely."	0,583		
Absorption	19	"I get carried away when I am working."	0,878		
	21	"It is difficult to detach myself from my job."	0,782		
	17	"I can continue working for very long periods at a time."	0,698		
	11	"When I am working, I forget everything else around me."	0,643	28,952	0,890
	16	"I am immersed in my work."	0,640		
	12	"My job inspires me."	0,609		
	20	"At my job, I am very resilient, mentally."	0,509		
Total Variance Explained (%)					64,213
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy					0,948
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity					
Chi Square					2811,615
df					91
P Value					0,000

4.2. RESEARCH MODEL WITH DIMENSIONS

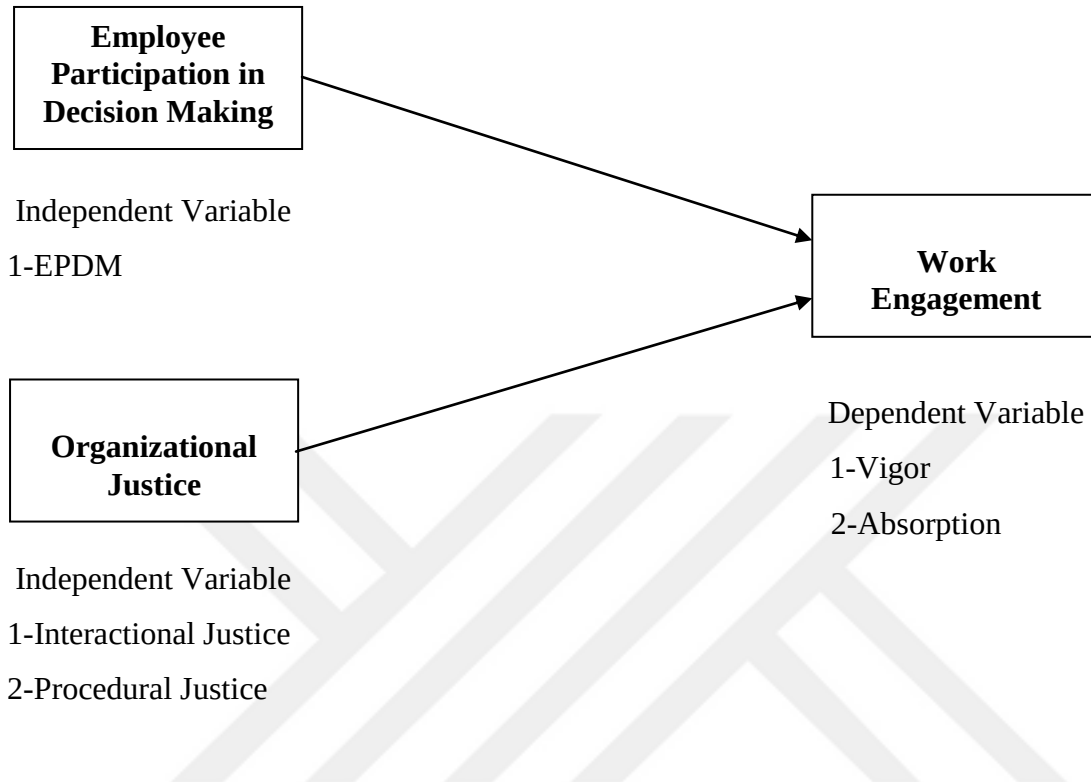


Figure 4.1.: Model of the Study with Dimensions

4.3. HYPOTHESES WITH THE CLARIFIED DIMENSIONS OF THE MODEL

H1: Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to work engagement.

- **H1a:** Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to vigor
- **H1b:** Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to absorption

H2: Organizational justice positively contributes to work engagement

- **H2a:** Interactional justice positively contributes to work engagement
- **H2b:** Procedural justice positively contributes to work engagement
- **H2c:** Interactional justice positively contributes to vigor
- **H2d:** Interactional justice positively contributes to absorption
- **H2e:** Procedural justice positively contributes to vigor
- **H2f:** Procedural justice positively contributes to absorption

H3: Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to work engagement.

- **H3a:** Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to vigor.
- **H3b:** Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to absorption.
- **H3c:** Interactional justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to vigor.
- **H3d:** Procedural justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to vigor.
- **H3e:** Interactional justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to absorption.
- **H3f:** Procedural justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to absorption.

4.4. THE HYPOTHESES TESTING

4.4.1. Correlations Analysis Between The Variables

A correlation matrix was prepared in order to evaluate the degree of the association between all of the research variables. The correlation coefficient r (ranges from +1 to -1) shows us the strength and the direction of the relationship. The strength of the relationship is determined by the value of the correlation coefficient. The coefficient value closer to ± 1 , the stronger the relationship is. The direction of the relationship can be seen by the sign of the correlation coefficient, as $-$ (minus) means a negative relationship and $+$ (plus) means a positive relationship.

Instead of examining the relationships between the variables, correlation analysis also serves as a check for the appearance of a multicollinearity problem among the dimensions of the research variables.

Table 4.4.: Correlations Analysis of the Main Variables

FACTOR	Means	Std. Dev.	1 (EPDM)	2 (Org Jus)	3 (Wrk Eng)
EPDM	3,559	1,073	1,000	0,656**	0,298**
Organizational Justice	3,226	1,116	0,656**	1,000	0,379**
Work Engagement	4,177	0,955	0,298**	0,379**	1,000

**Correlations are significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed). All the variables are scored on a 1-6 point likert scale (N=327)

The correlation analysis was conducted on the three main variables of the research model as; employee participation in decision making (EPDM, uni-dimensional), organizational justice (sum of two justice dimensions as procedural and interactional justice) and work engagement (sum of two work engagement dimensions as vigor and absorption). It can be seen from the correlation analysis table that, none of the correlations among the variables exceeded the value of 0,70, so multicollinearity problem was not expected.

All the main variables in the study were found as positively and significantly correlated with each other at different levels (ranging from 0,298 – 0,656). As can be seen from the correlation analysis table that, employee participation in decision making had a significant, and medium strength correlation with organizational justice ($r = 0,656$). Employee participation in decision making had also a significant, but weaker correlation with the work engagement ($r = 0,298$). Organizational justice had also a significant but weak correlation with work engagement ($r = 0,379$).

Table 4.5.: Correlations Analysis of the Dimensions

FACTOR	Means	Std. Dev.	1 (EPDM)	2 (Int Jus)	3 (Pro Jus)	4 (Vig)	5 (Abs)
EPDM	3,559	1,073	1,000	0,642**	0,591**	0,331**	0,240**
Interactional Justice	3,474	1,229	0,642**	1,000	0,798**	0,358**	0,289**
Procedural Justice	2,870	1,089	0,591**	0,798**	1,000	0,372**	0,341**
Vigor	4,455	1,020	0,331**	0,358**	0,372**	1,000	0,765**
Absorption	3,903	1,004	0,240**	0,289**	0,341**	0,765**	1,000

**Correlations are significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed). All the variables are scored on a 1-6 point likert scale (N=327)

After the implementation of the correlation analysis for the main research variables, the correlation among the dimensions of the research variables also investigated. It can be seen from the results of the correlation analysis that, all the dimensions of the variables in the study were found as positively and significantly correlated with each other at different levels (ranging from 0,240 – 0,798). As can be seen from the correlation analysis table that, the uni-dimensional construct of employee participation in decision making had a significant, and medium strength correlation with interactional justice ($r = 0,642$) and procedural justice ($r = 0,591$) dimensions of organizational justice variable. Employee participation in decision making had also a significant, but weaker correlation with the vigor ($r = 0,331$) and absorption ($r = 0,240$) dimensions of work engagement. Interactional justice had also a significant but weak correlation with vigor ($r = 0,358$) and absorption ($r = 0,289$) dimensions of work engagement. Procedural justice had also a significant but weak correlation with vigor ($r = 0,372$) and absorption ($r = 0,341$) dimensions of work engagement.

4.4.2. Regression Analyses

4.4.2.1. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Employee Participation in Decision Making on Work Engagement

In order to test the first hypothesis (*H1: Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to work engagement*), simple regression analysis was computed for employee participation in decision making and work engagement (sum of two factors as vigor and absorption).

After the analyses it was seen that employee participation in decision making significantly contributes to work engagement ($F=29,634$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %8,9 ($R^2=0,089$) on work engagement.

Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 1 was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.6.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Work Engagement

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,298	5,444	0,000
R = 0,298; R ² = 0,089; F = 29,634; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.1.1. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Employee Participation in Decision Making on Vigor

In order to test the hypothesis (*H1a: Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to vigor*), simple regression analysis was computed for employee participation in decision making and vigor dimension of work engagement.

It was clarified from the results that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to vigor ($F=38,118$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %10,9 ($R^2=0,109$) on vigor.

Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 1a was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.7.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Vigor

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Vigor	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,331	6,174	0,000
R = 0,331; R ² = 0,109; F = 38,118; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.1.2. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Employee Participation in Decision Making on Absorption

In order to test the hypothesis (*H1b: Employee participation in decision making positively contributes to absorption*), simple regression analysis was computed for employee participation in decision making and absorption dimension of work engagement.

It was clarified from the results that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to absorption ($F=18,949$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %5,8 ($R^2=0,058$) on absorption.

Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 1b was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.8.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Absorption

Dependent Variable <i>Work Engagement-Absorption</i>			
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>EPDM</i>	0,240	4,353	0,000
R = 0,240; R² = 0,058; F = 18,949; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Organizational Justice on Work Engagement

In order to test the second hypothesis (*H2: Organizational justice positively contributes to work engagement*), simple regression analysis was computed for organizational justice and work engagement.

After the analysis it was seen that organizational justice significantly and positively contributes to work engagement ($F=49,007$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %14,4 ($R^2=0,144$) on work engagement. Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 2 was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.9.: Simple Regression Analysis for Organizational Justice and Work Engagement

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
Organizational Justice	0,379	7,001	0,000
R = 0,379; R ² = 0,144; F = 49,007; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2.1. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Interactional Justice on Work Engagement

The second simple regression analysis was conducted in order to test the hypothesis (*H2a: Interactional justice positively contributes to work engagement*) and find out the contribution of interactional justice dimension of organizational justice on work engagement. After the analysis it was seen that interactional justice significantly and positively contributes to work engagement ($F=39,066$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %11,5 ($R^2=0,115$) on work engagement. Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 2a was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.10.: Simple Regression Analysis for Interactional Justice and Work Engagement

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
Interactional Justice	0,338	6,25	0,000
R = 0,338; R ² = 0,115; F = 39,066; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2.2. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Procedural Justice on Work Engagement

After that, the third simple regression analysis was conducted in order to test the hypothesis (*H2b: Procedural justice positively contributes to work engagement*) and find out the contribution of procedural justice dimension of organizational justice on work engagement. After the analysis it was seen that procedural justice significantly and positively contributes to work engagement ($F=48,578$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %13,9 ($R^2=0,139$) on work engagement. Through the results of the simple regression

analyses, hypothesis 2b was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.11.: Simple Regression Analysis for Procedural Justice and Work Engagement

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>Procedural Justice</i>	0,373	6,97	0,000
R = 0,373; R² = 0,139; F = 48,578; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2.3. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Interactional Justice on Vigor

To analyze the contribution of the dimensions of organizational justice (interactional and procedural justice) on the dimensions of work engagement (vigor and absorption), simple regression analyses were conducted, respectively.

The first simple regression analysis was conducted to interactional justice and vigor in order to test the hypothesis (*H2c: Interactional justice positively contributes to vigor*). After the analysis it was seen that interactional justice significantly and positively contributes to vigor ($F=45,380$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %12,8 ($R^2=0,128$) on vigor. Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 2c was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.12.: Simple Regression Analysis for Interactional Justice and Vigor

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Vigor	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>Interactional Justice</i>	0,358	6,736	0,000
R = 0,358; R² = 0,128; F = 45,380; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2.4. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Interactional Justice on Absorption

After that, the second simple regression analysis was conducted to interactional justice and absorption in order to test the hypothesis (*H2d: Interactional justice positively*

contributes to absorption). After the analysis it was seen that interactional justice significantly and positively contributes to absorption ($F=28,180$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %8,4 ($R^2=0,084$) on absorption. Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 2d was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.13.: Simple Regression Analysis for Interactional Justice and Absorption

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Absorption	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
Interactional Justice	0,289	5,308	0,000
R = 0,289; R² = 0,084; F = 28,180; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2.5. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Procedural Justice on Vigor

The third simple regression analysis was conducted to procedural justice and vigor in order to test the hypothesis ($H2e$: *Procedural justice positively contributes to vigor*). After the analysis it was seen that procedural justice significantly and positively contributes to vigor ($F=49,510$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %13,8 ($R^2=0,138$) on vigor. Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 2e was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.14.: Simple Regression Analysis for Procedural Justice and Vigor

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Vigor	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
Procedural Justice	0,372	7,036	0,000
R = 0,372; R² = 0,138; F = 49,510; p = 0,000			

4.4.2.2.6. Regression Analysis for The Contribution of Procedural Justice on Absorption

The last simple regression analysis was conducted to procedural justice and absorption in order to test the hypothesis ($H2f$: *Procedural justice positively contributes to*

absorption). After the analysis it was seen that procedural justice significantly and positively contributes to absorption ($F=40,540$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %11,6 ($R^2=0,116$) on absorption. Through the results of the simple regression analyses, hypothesis 2f was fully supported. The results of the analyses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.15.: Simple Regression Analysis for Procedural Justice and Absorption

Dependent Variable		<i>Work Engagement-Absorption</i>	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>Procedural Justice</i>	0,341	6,367	0,000
R = 0,341; R² = 0,116; F = 40,540; p = 0,000			

So it was seen from the all regression analyses results that, organizational justice and both the two dimensions (interactional and procedural justice) of organizational justice separately contribute significantly and positively to work engagement and each work engagement dimensions (vigor and absorption).

4.4.2.3. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Work Engagement

In order to test the third hypothesis (*H3: Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on work engagement*), Three-Steps Multiple Regression Analysis method was used.

In the first step, the contribution of the independent variable (employee participation in decision making) on the dependent variable (work engagement) was tested. The contribution was already analyzed in order to test hypothesis 1. Through the simple regression analysis results it was seen that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to work engagement ($F=29,634$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %8,9 ($R^2=0,089$) on work engagement.

In the second step, the contribution of the independent variable (employee participation in decision making) on the mediating variable (organizational justice dimensions) was tested. Through the simple regression analysis results it was seen that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to

organizational justice ($F=225,644$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %43,1 ($R^2=0,431$) on organizational justice. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.16.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Organizational Justice

Dependent Variable		Organizational Justice	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,656	15,021	0,000
R = 0,656; R² = 0,431; F = 225,644; p = 0,000			

In the third and the last step, both independent (employee participation in decision making) and mediating (organizational justice) variables were entered the multiple regression analysis as independent variables to reveal their contribution on the dependent variable (work engagement). The mediating role of organizational justice was observed based on the decrease in the contribution of employee participation in decision making on work engagement which can be analyzed through comparing the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making in step 1 and 3.

The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to work engagement ($F=25,796$, $p=0,000$). But when the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had lost its contribution ($t=1,288$, $p=0,199$ which is bigger than 0,05) on work engagement, only significant contribution came from organizational justice ($t=4,507$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,298$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,093$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model (only organizational justice was significant) was %15,4 ($R^2=0,154$) on work engagement. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.17.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Organizational Justice and Work Engagement

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,093	1,288	0,199
Organizational Justice	0,326	4,507	0,000
R = 0,393; R ² = 0,154; F = 25,796; p = 0,000			

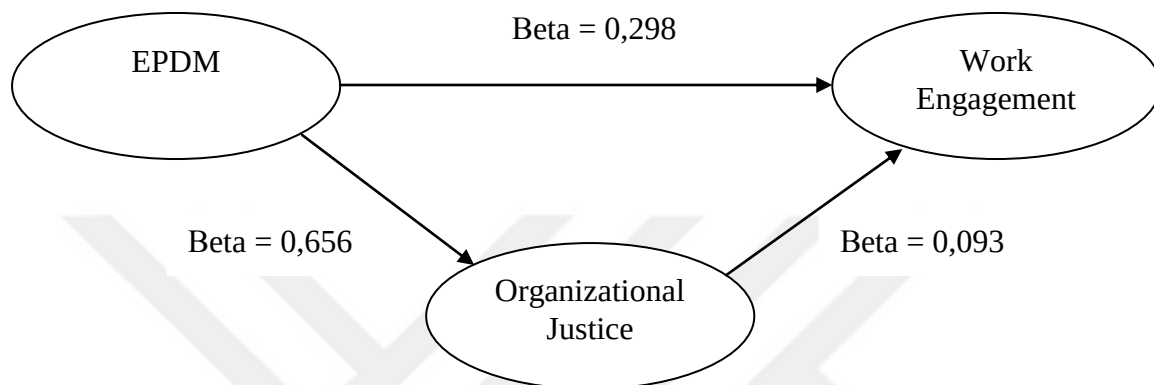


Figure 4.2.: Mediation Analysis of Organizational Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Work Engagement

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that organizational justice fully mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on work engagement, so hypothesis 3 was fully supported.

4.4.2.3.1. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Vigor

In order to analyze the mediating role of organizational justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on two dimensions of work engagement (vigor and absorption), three-steps multiple regression analyses were conducted for vigor and absorption, respectively.

First, mediating role of organizational justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor was analyzed through the hypothesis (*H3a: Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor*).

At the first step, simple regression analysis was conducted for revealing the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor. It was clarified from the results that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to vigor ($F=38,118$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %10,9 ($R^2=0,109$) on vigor. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.18.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Vigor

Dependent Variable		<i>Work Engagement-Vigor</i>	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>EPDM</i>	0,331	6,174	0,000
R = 0,331; R² = 0,109; F = 38,118; p = 0,000			

The second step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on organizational justice was conducted already in previous analyses.

For the third and the last step, employee participation in decision making and organizational justice were taken as independent variables and vigor was taken as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to vigor ($F=29,416$, $p=0,000$). But when the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had lost its contribution ($t=1,808$, $p=0,072$ which is bigger than 0,05) on vigor, only significant contribution came from organizational justice ($t=4,425$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,331$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,129$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model (only organizational justice was significant) was %16,9 ($R^2=0,169$) on vigor. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.19.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Organizational Justice and Vigor

Dependent Variable	Work Engagement-Vigor		
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,129	1,808	0,072
Organizational Justice	0,315	4,425	0,000
R = 0,411; R² = 0,169; F = 29,416; p = 0,000			

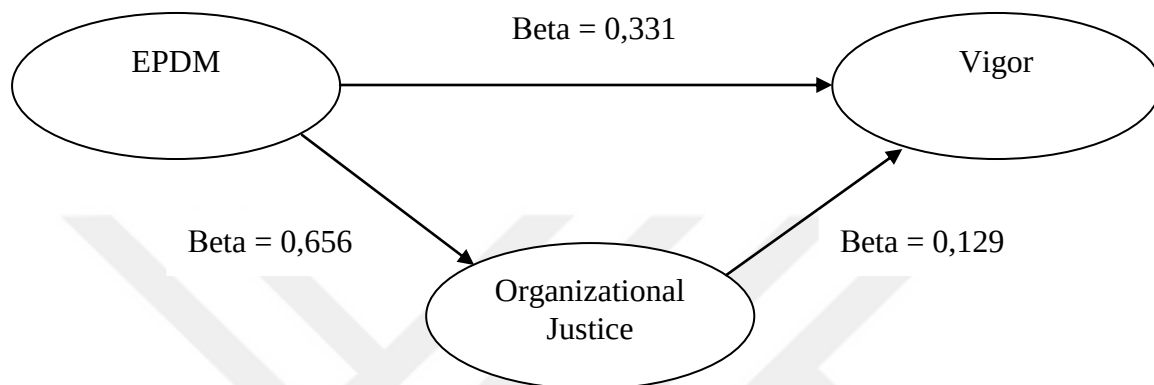


Figure 4.3.: Mediation Analysis of Organizational Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Vigor

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that organizational justice fully mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor dimension of work engagement, so hypothesis 3a was fully supported.

4.4.2.3.2. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Organizational Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Absorption

Secondly, mediating role of organizational justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption was analyzed through the hypothesis (*H3b: Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption*).

At the first step, simple regression analysis was conducted for revealing the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption. It was clarified from the results that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively

contributes to absorption ($F=18,949$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %5,8 ($R^2=0,058$) on absorption. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.20.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Absorption

Dependent Variable		<i>Work Engagement-Absorption</i>	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>EPDM</i>	0,240	4,353	0,000
R = 0,240; R² = 0,058; F = 18,949; p = 0,000			

The second step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on organizational justice was conducted already in previous analyses.

For the third and the last step, employee participation in decision making and organizational justice were taken as independent variables and absorption was taken as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to absorption ($F=19,217$, $p=0,000$). But when the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had lost its contribution ($t=0,674$, $p=0,501$ which is bigger than 0,05) on absorption, only significant contribution came from organizational justice ($t=4,233$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,240$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,049$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model (only organizational justice was significant) was %11,7 ($R^2=0,117$) on absorption. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.21.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Organizational Justice and Absorption

Dependent Variable	Work Engagement-Absorption		
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,049	0,674	0,501
Organizational Justice	0,308	4,233	0,000
R = 0,342; R² = 0,117; F = 19,217; p = 0,000			

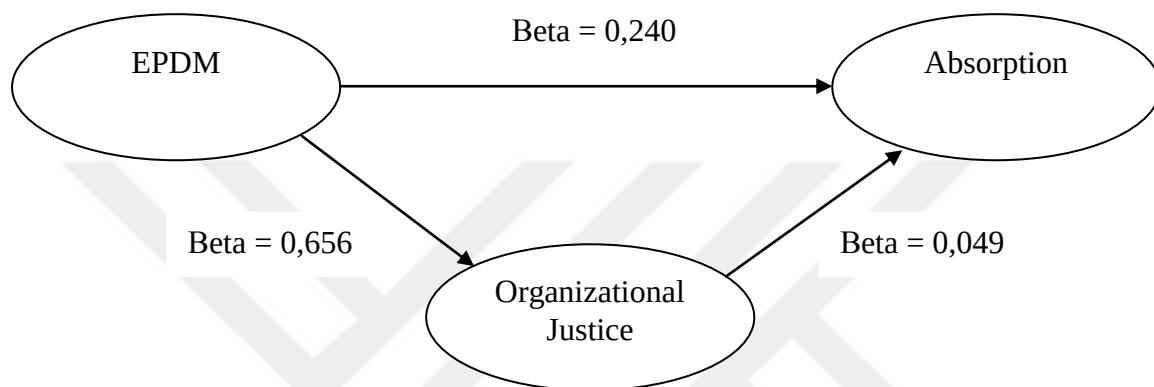


Figure 4.4.: Mediation Analysis of Organizational Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Absorption

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that organizational justice fully mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption dimension of work engagement, so hypothesis 3b was fully supported.

4.4.2.3.3. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Interactional Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Vigor

In order to analyze the mediating role of interactional justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor dimension of work engagement through the hypothesis (*H3c: Interactional justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor*), three-steps multiple regression analyses were conducted.

The first step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor was conducted already in previous analyses.

The second step simple regression analysis was conducted for revealing the contribution of employee participation in decision making on interactional justice. It was clarified from the results that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to interactional justice ($F=216,124$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %41,2 ($R^2=0,412$) on interactional justice. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.22.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Interactional Justice

Dependent Variable		Organizational Justice-Interactional Justice	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,642	14,701	0,000
R = 0,642; R2 = 0,412; F = 216,124; p = 0,000			

For the third and the last step, employee participation in decision making and interactional justice were taken as independent variables and vigor was taken as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to vigor ($F=25,665$, $p=0,000$). When the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had less contribution ($t=2,075$, $p=0,039$) on vigor, interactional justice contributes more to the relationship ($t=3,873$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,331$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,145$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model was %14,6 ($R^2=0,146$) on vigor. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.23.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Interactional Justice and Vigor

Dependent Variable	Work Engagement-Vigor		
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,145	2,075	0,039
Interactional Justice	0,272	3,873	0,000
R = 0,382; R ² = 0,146; F = 25,665; p = 0,000			

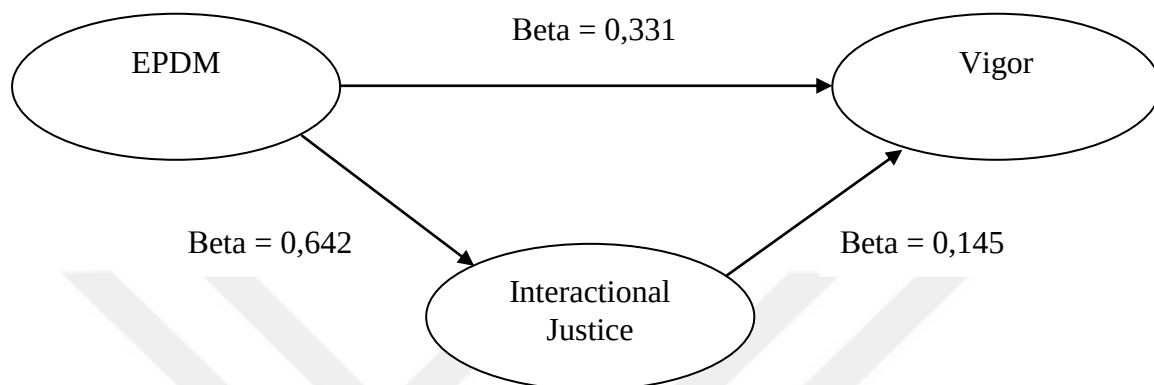


Figure 4.5.: Mediation Analysis of Interactional Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Vigor

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that interactional justice partially mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor dimension of work engagement, so hypothesis 3c was partially supported.

4.4.2.3.4. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Procedural Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Vigor

In order to analyze the mediating role of procedural justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor dimension of work engagement through the hypothesis (*H3d: Procedural justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor*), three-steps multiple regression analyses were conducted.

The first step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor was conducted already in previous analyses.

The second step simple regression analysis was conducted for revealing the contribution of employee participation in decision making on procedural justice. It was

clarified from the results that employee participation in decision making significantly and positively contributes to procedural justice ($F=165,189$, $p=0,000$) and has an explanation percentage of %35 ($R^2=0,350$) on procedural justice. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.24.: Simple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making and Procedural Justice

Dependent Variable		<i>Organizational Justice-Procedural Justice</i>	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
<i>EPDM</i>	0,591	12,853	0,000
R = 0,591; R² = 0,350; F = 165,189; p = 0,000			

For the third and the last step, employee participation in decision making and procedural justice were taken as independent variables and vigor was taken as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to vigor ($F=29,853$, $p=0,000$). When the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had less contribution ($t=2,874$, $p=0,004$) on vigor, procedural justice contributes more to the relationship ($t=4,133$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,331$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,187$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model was %16,6 ($R^2=0,166$) on vigor. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.25.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Procedural Justice and Vigor

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Vigor	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,187	2,874	0,004
Procedural Justice	0,269	4,133	0,000
R = 0,408; R ² = 0,166; F = 29,853; p = 0,000			

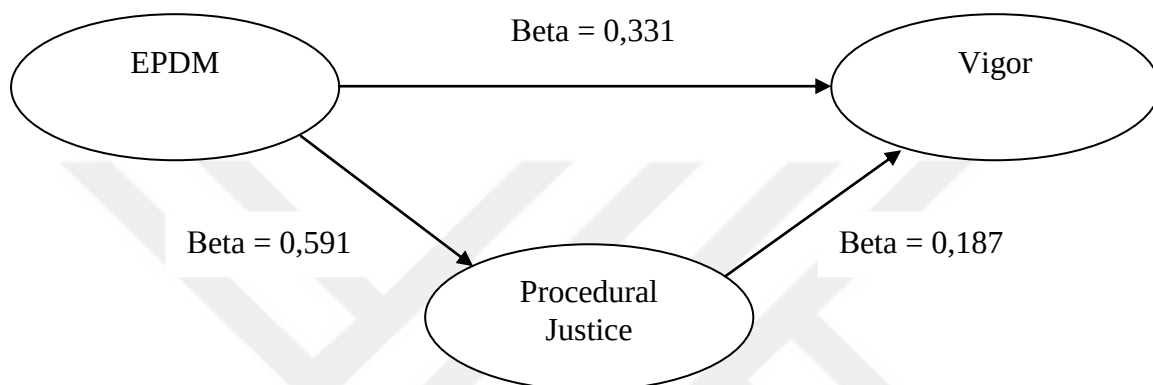


Figure 4.6.: Mediation Analysis of Procedural Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Vigor

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that procedural justice partially mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on vigor dimension of work engagement, so hypothesis 3d was partially supported.

4.4.2.3.5. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Interactional Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Absorption

In order to analyze the mediating role of interactional justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption dimension of work engagement through the hypothesis (*H3e: Interactional justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption*), three-steps multiple regression analyses were conducted.

The first step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption was conducted already in previous analyses.

The second step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on interactional justice was conducted already in previous analyses.

For the third and the last step, employee participation in decision making and interactional justice were taken as independent variables and absorption was taken as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to absorption ($F=14,624$, $p=0,000$). But when the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had lost its contribution ($t=0,933$, $p=0,351$ which is bigger than $0,05$) on absorption, only significant contribution came from interactional justice ($t=3,498$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,240$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,067$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model (only interactional justice was significant) was $8,9\%$ ($R^2=0,089$) on absorption. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.26.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Interactional Justice and Absorption

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Absorption	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,067	0,933	0,351
Interactional Justice	0,251	3,498	0,001
R = 0,298; R ² = 0,089; F = 14,624; p = 0,000			

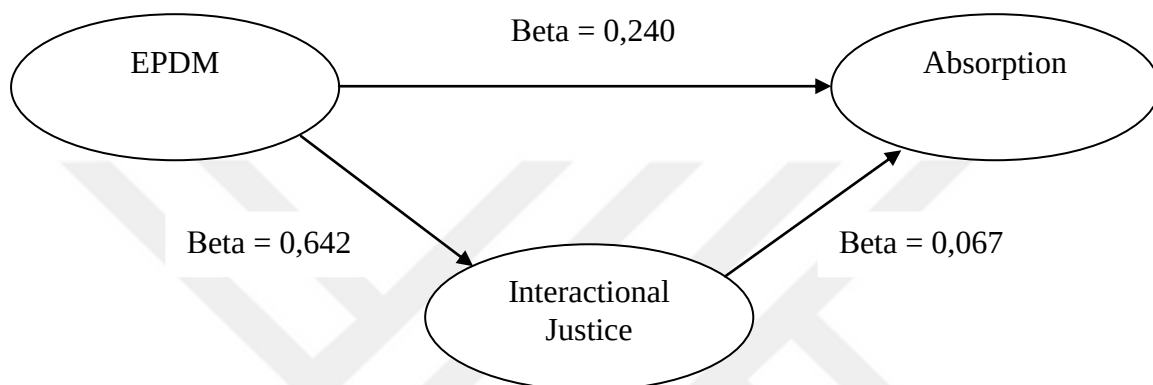


Figure 4.7.: Mediation Analysis of Interactional Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Absorption

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that interactional justice fully mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption dimension of work engagement, so hypothesis 3e was fully supported..

4.4.2.3.6. Regression Analysis for The Mediating Role of Procedural Justice on the Relationship Between Employee Participation in Decision Making and Absorption

In order to analyze the mediating role of procedural justice on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption dimension of work engagement through the hypothesis (*H3f: Procedural justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption*), three-steps multiple regression analyses were conducted.

The first step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption was conducted already in previous analyses.

The second step simple regression analysis for the contribution of employee participation in decision making on procedural justice was conducted already in previous analyses.

For the third and the last step, employee participation in decision making and procedural justice were taken as independent variables and absorption was taken as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed that the combined model significantly contributes to absorption ($F=21,483$, $p=0,000$). But when the coefficients values were observed, it was seen that employee participation in decision making had lost its contribution ($t=1,356$, $p=0,176$ which is bigger than $0,05$) on absorption, only significant contribution came from procedural justice ($t=4,405$, $p=0,000$). Also when the beta (β) values of employee participation in decision making on step 1 ($\beta=0,240$) and step 3 ($\beta=0,090$) were compared, a significant decrease was observed. The explanatory power of the model (only procedural justice was significant) was $\%12,6$ ($R^2=0,126$) on absorption. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 4.27.: Multiple Regression Analysis for Employee Participation in Decision Making, Procedural Justice and Absorption

Dependent Variable		Work Engagement-Absorption	
Independent Variable	Beta	t value	p value
EPDM	0,090	1,356	0,176
Procedural Justice	0,294	4,405	0,000
R = 0,354; R² = 0,126; F = 21,483; p = 0,000			

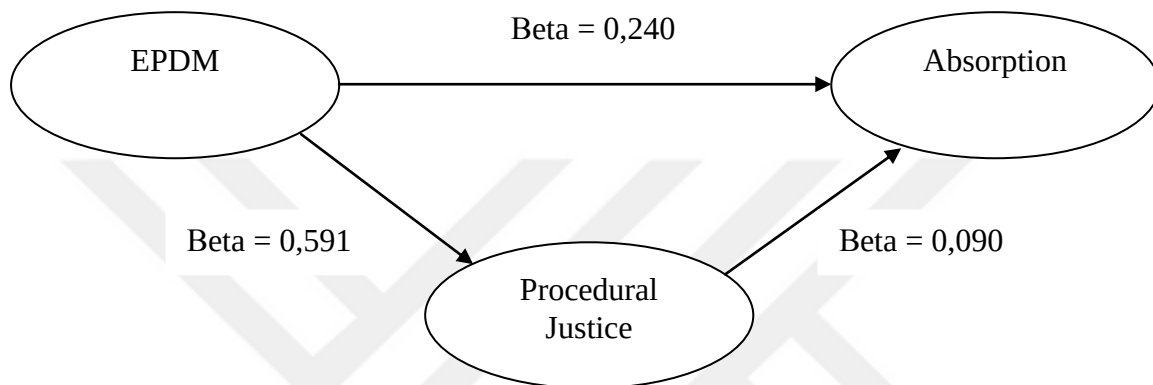


Figure 4.8.: Mediation Analysis of Procedural Justice on the Relationship of EPDM - Absorption

It can be clearly seen from the results of the mediating variable analysis that procedural justice fully mediates the contribution of employee participation in decision making on absorption dimension of work engagement, so hypothesis 3f was fully supported.

So through all the results of the mediating variable analysis, it can be concluded that the third hypothesis (*H3: Organizational justice has a mediating role on the contribution of employee participation in decision making to work engagement*) and sub-hypotheses as H3a, H3b, H3e and H3f were fully supported, whereas H3c and H3d were partially supported.

4.5. REVISED RESEARCH MODEL WITH DIMENSIONS

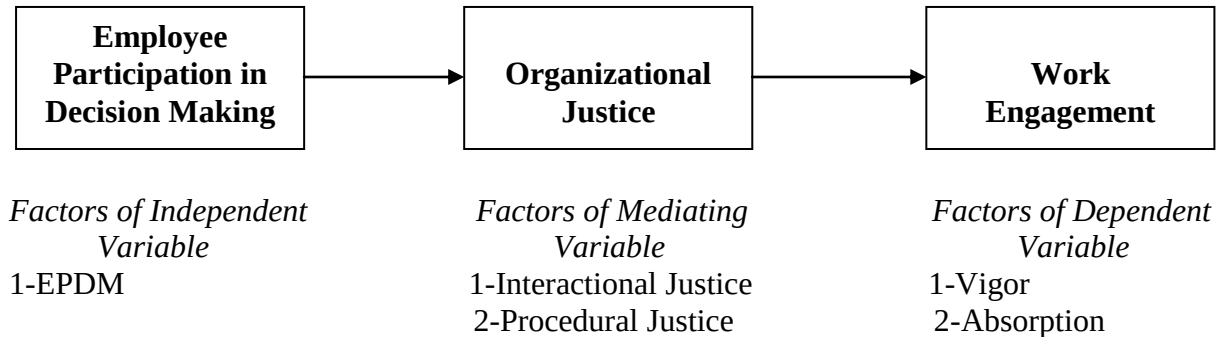


Figure 4.9.: Revised Model of the Study

4.6. THE DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSES FOR THE CONTRIBUTION OF DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES ON RESEARCH VARIABLES

The primary research findings were related with the relationship between the research variables, but some remarkable results were also found through the comparison and the influence of the demographical differences on each research variables. The aim of the demographic analyses was to find out if the research variables differ with respect to the demographic characteristics of the participants or not. The comparative analyses of the demographics were conducted through the Independent Samples T-Tests and One-Way ANOVA Tests. T-Tests were conducted in order to compare the differences of the groups if there are only two groups. One-Way ANOVA Tests were conducted if the groups were more than two.

4.6.1. Demographic Analyses for Gender

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among the genders as man and woman, independent samples t-tests were conducted, respectively.

At first, Levenes Test table was examined in order to find out the variances of the groups were equally distributed or not. Levene test's results showed that the variances are assumed as equal (all p values were higher than 0,05) for all the variables of the study.

Through the results of the Levene's test, t-test tables were analyzed for examining whether there is a significant difference among the values of the research variables related with the gender of the participants.

The results of the analyses showed that there is no significant difference in the values for all the variables among men or women. The detailed results of the t-tests for the research variables are listed below.

Table 4.28.: Independent Samples T-Test Results Related With Gender

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	F value	p value	t value	p value
EPDM	Female	169	3,5932	1,11962	2,126	0,146	0,646	0,519
	Male	149	3,5151	1,02306				
Org. Jus.	Female	162	3,1901	1,17675	3,205	0,074	-0,462	0,645
	Male	145	3,2487	1,03230				
Work Eng.	Female	166	4,2225	0,93252	0,610	0,435	0,999	0,319
	Male	146	4,1145	0,97515				
Int. Jus.	Female	166	3,4177	1,27623	1,989	0,159	-0,765	0,445
	Male	151	3,5232	1,16940				
Proc. Just.	Female	168	2,8661	1,15589	3,188	0,075	0,112	0,911
	Male	148	2,8525	0,98256				
Vigor	Female	169	4,4734	0,98952	0,175	0,676	0,391	0,696
	Male	150	4,4286	1,05706				
Absrptn	Female	169	3,9763	0,98626	0,001	0,973	1,517	0,130
	Male	150	3,8067	1,00868				

4.6.2. Demographic Analyses for Marital Status

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among the marital status as married or single, independent samples t-tests were conducted, respectively.

At first, Levenes Test table was examined in order to find out the variances of the groups were equally distributed or not. Levene test's results showed that the variances are assumed as equal (all p values were higher than 0,05) for all the variables of the study. Through the results of the Levene's test, t-test tables were analyzed for examining whether

there is a significant difference among the values of the research variables related with the marital status of the participants.

The results of the analyses showed that there is a significant difference for the levels of work engagement ($p = 0,000$ is less than $0,05$), vigor ($p = 0,000$ is less than $0,05$), and absorption ($p = 0,001$ is less than $0,05$) through the marital status of the participants. The mean values of work engagement (married = 4,3182, single = 3,8929), vigor (married = 4,6073, single = 4,1443), and absorption (married = 4,0334, single = 3,6401) are significantly higher in married participants than the single participants. The other study variables showed no difference due to the marital status of the participants.

The detailed results of the t-tests for the research variables are listed below.

Table 4.29.: Independent Samples T-Test Results Related With Marital Status

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
Variables	Marital	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	F value	p value	t value	p value
EPDM	Married	214	3,5526	1,07461	0,203	0,653	-0,053	0,958
	Single	101	3,5594	1,06896				
Org. Jus.	Married	205	3,2537	1,11982	0,506	0,477	0,835	0,404
	Single	99	3,1394	1,11368				
Work Eng.	Married	209	4,3182	0,91325	0,140	0,709	3,737	0,000
	Single	100	3,8929	0,98203				
Int. Jus.	Married	213	3,5039	1,23632	0,255	0,614	0,838	0,402
	Single	101	3,3795	1,20946				
Proc. Just.	Married	212	2,9041	1,09524	0,469	0,494	0,972	0,332
	Single	101	2,7756	1,09047				
Vigor	Married	215	4,6073	0,99332	0,452	0,502	3,842	0,000
	Single	101	4,1443	1,01126				
Absrptn	Married	214	4,0334	0,95718	1,162	0,282	3,301	0,001
	Single	102	3,6401	1,05683				

4.6.3. Demographic Analyses for Experience in Private Sector or Not

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among having private sector-experience or not, independent samples t-tests were conducted, respectively.

At first, Levenes Test table was examined in order to find out the variances of the groups were equally distributed or not. Levene test's results showed that the variances are assumed as equal (all p values were higher than 0,05) for all the variables of the study. Through the results of the Levene's test, t-test tables were analyzed for examining whether there is a significant difference among the values of the research variables related with having a private sector experience or not.

The results of the analyses showed that there is a significant difference for the levels of employee participation in decision making ($p = 0,007$ is less than 0,05) related with the participants past experience in private sector. The mean values of employee participation in decision making (have private sector experience = 3,6729, do not have = 3,3262) are significantly higher for the participants that have a past experience in a private sector company than the participants do not have that experience before. The other study variables showed no difference due to the private sector experience of the participants.

The detailed results of the t-tests for the research variables are listed below.

Table 4.30.: Independent Samples T-Test Results Related With Participants' Experience in Private Sector

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
Variables	Prvt Exp	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	F value	p value	t value	p value
<i>EPDM</i>	Yes	214	3,6729	1,06970	0,146	0,702	2,738	0,007
	No	105	3,3262	1,04819				
<i>Org. Jus.</i>	Yes	206	3,2828	1,12347	0,316	0,574	1,277	0,203
	No	102	3,1105	1,09843				
<i>Work Eng.</i>	Yes	208	4,2043	0,91442	2,460	0,118	0,715	0,475
	No	105	4,1224	1,03352				
<i>Int. Jus.</i>	Yes	213	3,5587	1,23859	0,207	0,650	1,753	0,081
	No	105	3,3026	1,19616				
<i>Proc. Just.</i>	Yes	210	2,9032	1,10729	2,117	0,147	0,768	0,443
	No	107	2,8037	1,05479				
<i>Vigor</i>	Yes	213	4,5091	0,96484	3,356	0,068	1,330	0,185
	No	107	4,3485	1,11974				
<i>Absrptn</i>	Yes	212	3,9050	0,98990	0,413	0,521	0,046	0,963
	No	108	3,8995	1,03648				

4.6.4. Demographic Analyses for Age

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among age, One-Way ANOVA tests were conducted, respectively.

With respect to the age groups of the study, there are 10 participants in the group of 60 years old and more. Since 10 participants are below the limit to implement the one-way ANOVA test of 30 participants, this group was combined with the group of 50-59 years old (57 participants) as a combined group of 50 years old and more.

First step of ANOVA test was the Levene's test as a pre-requisite, because the variances of the groups must be homogeneous to implement the one-way ANOVA test. The Levene's test results showed that all the age group's variances were equally distributed (all p values are bigger than 0,05), so one-way ANOVA tests can be applied for all of the study variables.

At the second step, the ANOVA tables were examined by looking at the p values. Throughout the ANOVA analyses it was found that the differences of the means of the age groups were only significant for the variable work engagement and the sub dimensions of work engagement as vigor and absorption (p values were below 0,05). There were no significant differences related with the age for the other study variables (p values were above 0,05).

In order to specify which age group scored more or less in terms of work engagement, vigor, and absorption, Scheffe's Tests tables were examined. In the light of Scheffe's test results, it was found that:

- The age groups **20-29 (Mean = 3,6511)** scored significantly less work engagement levels than the other groups as **30-39 (Mean = 4,2231)**, **40-49 (Mean = 4,3933)**, and **50 and above (Mean = 4,5599)**.
- The age groups **20-29 (Mean = 3,9161)** scored significantly less vigor levels than the other groups as **30-39 (Mean = 4,4903)**, **40-49 (Mean = 4,5933)**, and **50 and above (Mean = 4,9516)**. Also age group **30-39 (Mean = 4,4903)** scored significantly less vigor level than the group **50 and above (Mean = 4,9516)**.

- The age groups **20-29 (Mean = 3,3906)** scored significantly less absorption levels than the other groups as **30-39 (Mean = 3,9564)**, **40-49 (Mean = 4,1860)**, and **50 and above (Mean = 4,1696)**.

The detailed results for the one-way ANOVA Tests of all study variables are listed in the table below.

Table 4.31.: One-Way ANOVA Test Results Related With Age

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
EPDM	20-29	78	3,5705	1,08928	0,508	1,008	0,389
	30-39	82	3,5915	1,04047			
	40-49	85	3,6912	1,04842			
	50 abv	65	3,3846	1,15081			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Org. Jus.	20-29	78	3,0137	1,03108	0,351	1,289	0,278
	30-39	77	3,3351	1,14662			
	40-49	83	3,2378	1,08801			
	50 abv	62	3,3022	1,19542			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Work Eng.	20-29	78	3,6511	0,94066	0,705	14,544	0,000
	30-39	81	4,2231	0,8436			
	40-49	83	4,3933	0,86483			
	50 abv	62	4,5599	0,92213			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
20-29	30-39	-0,57201		0,14138		0,001	
20-29	40-49	-0,74219		0,14054		0,000	
20-29	50 abv	-0,90881		0,15163		0,000	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Int. Jus.	20-29	81	3,2743	1,11431	0,303	1,069	0,362
	30-39	81	3,6063	1,24177			
	40-49	85	3,4876	1,23824			
	50 abv	63	3,5256	1,32588			

Table 4.32.: One-Way ANOVA Test Results Related With Age (cont'd)

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Proc. Just.	20-29	78	2,6282	1,01891	0,673	1,568	0,197
	30-39	78	2,9658	1,14698			
	40-49	86	2,9244	1,07941			
	50 abv	66	2,904	1,09547			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Vigor	20-29	80	3,9161	1,00211	0,857	15,329	0,000
	30-39	81	4,4903	0,91276			
	40-49	85	4,5933	0,91061			
	50 abv	65	4,9516	0,94972			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
20-29	30-39	-0,57423		0,14874		0,002	
20-29	40-49	-0,67721		0,14699		0,000	
20-29	50 abv	-1,03558		0,15757		0,000	
30-39	50 abv	-0,46135		0,15714		0,036	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Absrptn	20-29	79	3,3906	0,97877	0,481	11,81	0,000
	30-39	82	3,9564	0,90926			
	40-49	86	4,1860	0,91985			
	50 abv	64	4,1696	1,02728			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
20-29	30-39	-0,56585		0,15058		0,003	
20-29	40-49	-0,79545		0,14885		0,000	
20-29	50 abv	-0,77905		0,16064		0,000	

4.6.5. Demographic Analyses for Education

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among education, One-Way ANOVA tests were conducted, respectively.

With respect to the education groups of the study, there are 3 participants in the group of primary school and 3 participants in the group of Ph. Degree. Since 3 participants are below the limit to implement the one-way ANOVA test of 30 participants, the primary school group was combined with the high school group (53 participants) as a combined group of high school and below, and Ph. Degree group was combined with the Master's Degree group (40 participants) as a combined group of Master's degree and more.

First step of ANOVA test was the Levene's test as a pre-requisite, because the variances of the groups must be homogeneous to implement the one-way ANOVA test. The Levene's test results showed that all the education group's variances were equally distributed (all p values are bigger than 0,05), so one-way ANOVA tests can be applied for all of the study variables.

At the second step, the ANOVA tables were examined by looking at the p values. Throughout the ANOVA analyses it was found that the differences of the means of the education groups were only significant for the variable work engagement and the sub dimension of work engagement as vigor (p values were below 0,05). There were no significant differences related with the education for the other study variables (p values were above 0,05).

In order to specify which education group scored more or less in terms of work engagement and vigor, Scheffe's Tests tables were examined. In the light of Scheffe's test results, it was found that:

- The education groups **High School an below** (*Mean = 4,4987*) scored significantly more work engagement levels than the other groups as **University Degree** (*Mean = 4,1422*), and **Master's Degree and above** (*Mean = 3,9373*).
- The education groups **High School an below** (*Mean = 4,8130*) scored significantly more vigor levels than the other groups as **University Degree** (*Mean = 4,4344*), and and **Master's Degree and above** (*Mean = 4,1063*).

The detailed results for the one-way ANOVA Tests of all study variables are listed in the table below.

Table 4.33.: One-Way ANOVA Test Results Related With Education

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
EPDM	High Sch.	53	3,4009	1,16885	0,408	1,139	0,322
	Univers.	223	3,5628	1,05560			
	Mst Deg.	43	3,7326	1,03997			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Org. Jus.	High Sch.	52	3,2551	1,26186	0,099	2,042	0,132
	Univers.	216	3,2799	1,09660			
	Mst Deg.	40	2,8950	0,98489			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Work Eng.	High Sch.	54	4,4987	0,99261	0,822	4,602	0,011
	Univers.	218	4,1422	0,92605			
	Mst Deg.	41	3,9373	0,97627			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
High Sch.	Univers.	0,35648		0,14354		0,047	
High Sch.	Mst Deg.	0,56140		0,19561		0,017	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Int. Jus.	High Sch.	55	3,5414	1,38300	0,174	2,231	0,109
	Univers.	222	3,5270	1,19536			
	Mst Deg.	41	3,0976	1,14993			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Proc. Just.	High Sch.	53	2,8742	1,20536	0,278	1,358	0,259
	Univers.	222	2,9167	1,07823			
	Mst Deg.	42	2,6151	0,97772			

Table 4.34.: One-Way ANOVA Test Results Related With Education (cont'd)

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Vigor	High Sch.	55	4,8130	1,11435	0,358	6,133	0,002
	Univers.	222	4,4344	0,98087			
	Mst Deg.	43	4,1063	0,97644			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
High Sch.	Univers.	0,37862		0,15127		0,045	
High Sch.	Mst Deg.	0,70805		0,20444		0,003	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Education	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Absrptn	High Sch.	55	4,1948	0,98183	0,714	2,952	0,054
	Univers.	224	3,8552	0,98627			
	Mst Deg.	41	3,7735	1,08231			

4.6.6. Demographic Analyses for Position in the Company

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among the positions of the participants in the company, One-Way ANOVA tests were conducted, respectively.

With respect to the position groups of the study, there are 22 participants in the group of managers and 31 participants in the group of technicians. Since 22 participants are below, and 31 participants are almost below the limit to implement the one-way ANOVA test of 30 participants, the managers group was combined with the group of chiefs (35 participants) as a combined group of managerial personnel, and technicians group was combined with the architect/engineer group (89 participants) as a combined group of technical personnel.

First step of ANOVA test was the Levene's test as a pre-requisite, because the variances of the groups must be homogeneous to implement the one-way ANOVA test. The Levene's test results showed that for work engagement and vigor, groups' variances were not equally distributed (p values are less than 0,05), so it was not possible to execute the one-way ANOVA test for these variables. Instead of ANOVA, Welch tests were computed. The other

study variables were found as equally varianced (p values are bigger than 0,05), so one-way ANOVA tests could be applied for the other study variables.

At the second step, the ANOVA (or WELCH) tables were examined by looking at the p values. Throughout the ANOVA (or WELCH) analyses it was found that the differences of the means of the position groups were significant for the all variables of the study (p values were below 0,05). So it was found that for all the variables, at least one groups mean values was significantly different than the other groups.

In order to specify which position group scored more or less in terms of the variables, Scheffe's Tests tables, and Tamhane's Tests tables were examined. In the light of Scheffe's/Tamhane's test results, it was found the managerial personnel group scored more for the all variables of the study than the employee group and the technical personnel group. In detail:

- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean* = 4,2264) scored significantly more in employee participation in decision making than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean* = 3,3094), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean* = 3,5826).
- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean* = 3,8526) scored significantly more in organizational justice than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean* = 3,0829), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean* = 3,1333).
- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean* = 4,6854) scored significantly more in work engagement than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean* = 4,0289), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean* = 4,1578).
- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean* = 4,2264) scored significantly more in employee participation in decision making than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean* = 3,3094), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean* = 3,5826).
- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean* = 4,1321) scored significantly more in interactional justice than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean* = 3,3295), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean* = 3,3729).
- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean* = 3,4107) scored significantly more in procedural justice than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean* = 2,7595), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean* = 2,7629).

- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean = 4,9896*) scored significantly more in vigor than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean = 4,2857*), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean = 4,4479*).
- The **managerial personnel group** (*Mean = 4,4180*) scored significantly more in absorption than the other groups as **employee group** (*Mean = 3,7728*), and **technical personnel group** (*Mean = 3,8462*).

The detailed results for the one-way ANOVA Tests/Welch Tests of all study variables are listed in the table below.



Table 4.35.: One-Way ANOVA/WELCH Tests Results Related With Position in the Company

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
<i>EPDM</i>	Employee	143	3,3094	1,08241	0,474	15,312	0,000
	Tech. Per.	118	3,5826	0,96634			
	Man. Per.	53	4,2264	1,02875			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,91697		0,16582		0,000	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,64379		0,17050		0,001	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
<i>Org. Jus.</i>	Employee	140	3,0829	1,07663	0,951	10,381	0,000
	Tech. Per.	111	3,1333	1,08466			
	Man. Per.	52	3,8526	1,07953			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,76971		0,17540		0,000	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,71923		0,18150		0,000	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	WELCH	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	Statistic	p value
<i>Work Eng.</i>	Employee	141	4,0289	1,02715	0,011	12,451	0,000
	Tech. Per.	115	4,1578	0,86294			
	Man. Per.	52	4,6854	0,75689			
Tamhane Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,65656		0,13601		0,000	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,52768		0,13226		0,000	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
<i>Int. Jus.</i>	Employee	145	3,3295	1,18348	0,781	9,629	0,000
	Tech. Per.	115	3,3729	1,20439			
	Man. Per.	53	4,1321	1,15861			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,80257		0,19055		0,000	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,75913		0,19709		0,001	

Table 4.36.: One-Way ANOVA/WELCH Tests Results Related With Position in the Company (cont'd)

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
<i>Proc. Just.</i>	Employee	140	2,7595	1,09652	0,723	8,532	0,000
	Tech. Per.	116	2,7629	1,01894			
	Man. Per.	56	3,4107	1,08431			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,65119		0,16856		0,001	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,64778		0,17347		0,001	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	WELCH Equality of Means	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	Statistic	p value
<i>Vigor</i>	Employee	142	4,2857	1,12344	0,001	12,262	0,000
	Tech. Per.	118	4,4479	0,87744			
	Man. Per.	55	4,9896	0,82883			
Tamhane Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,70390		0,14621		0,000	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,54167		0,13789		0,000	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Position	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
<i>Absrptn</i>	Employee	144	3,7728	1,03353	0,249	8,944	0,000
	Tech. Per.	117	3,8462	0,97779			
	Man. Per.	54	4,4180	0,81233			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Employee	Man. Per.	-0,64517		0,15611		0,000	
Tech. Per.	Man. Per.	-0,57184		0,16095		0,002	

4.6.7. Demographic Analyses for Tenure

In order to analyze the difference of the values of the study variables (*employee participation in decision making, organizational justice, work engagement, and the sub dimensions, interactional justice, procedural justice, vigor and absorption*) among the tenure of the participants, One-Way ANOVA tests were conducted, respectively.

First step of ANOVA test was the Levene's test as a pre-requisite, because the variances of the groups must be homogeneous to implement the one-way ANOVA test. The Levene's test results showed that all the tenure group's variances are equally distributed (all p

values are bigger than 0,05), so one-way ANOVA tests can be applied for all of the study variables.

At the second step, the ANOVA tables were examined by looking at the p values. Throughout the ANOVA analyses it was found that the differences of the means of the tenure groups were only significant for the variable work engagement and the sub dimension of work engagement as vigor and absorption (p values were below 0,05). There were no significant differences related with the tenure for the other study variables (p values were above 0,05).

In order to specify which tenure group scored more or less in terms of work engagement, vigor and absorption, Scheffe's Tests tables were examined. In the light of Scheffe's test results, it was found that:

- The tenure groups **Up to 5 Years (Mean = 3,7896)** scored significantly less work engagement levels than the other groups as **10-20 Years (Mean = 4,2404)**, **20-30 Years (Mean = 4,4138)**, and **30 and above (Mean = 4,5889)**. Also tenure group **5-10 Years (Mean = 3,9004)** scored significantly less work engagement level than the group **30 and above (Mean = 4,5889)**.
- The tenure groups **Up to 5 Years (Mean = 4,0169)** scored significantly less vigor levels than the other groups as **10-20 Years (Mean = 4,4902)**, **20-30 Years (Mean = 4,6909)**, and **30 and above (Mean = 4,9841)**. Also tenure group **5-10 Years (Mean = 4,2218)** scored significantly less vigor level than the group **30 and above (Mean = 4,9841)**.
- The tenure groups **Up to 5 Years (Mean = 3,5619)** scored significantly less absorption levels than the other groups as **20-30 Years (Mean = 4,1643)**, and **30 and above (Mean = 4,1672)**.

The detailed results for the one-way ANOVA Tests of all study variables are listed in the table below.

Table 4.37.: One-Way ANOVA Test Results Related With Tenure

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
EPDM	Up to 5	74	3,5743	1,13455	0,244	0,723	0,577
	5-10 y	38	3,8289	0,80770			
	10-20 y	96	3,5000	1,10501			
	20-30 y	61	3,5041	1,11383			
	30 abv	45	3,5167	1,09804			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Org. Jus.	Up to 5	76	3,1404	1,09645	0,847	0,773	0,543
	5-10 y	37	3,3387	1,00411			
	10-20 y	87	3,1249	1,15312			
	20-30 y	58	3,4011	1,0969			
	30 abv	45	3,2815	1,16184			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Work Eng.	Up to 5	74	3,7896	0,98627	0,796	7,399	0,000
	5-10 y	38	3,9004	0,83589			
	10-20 y	93	4,2404	0,94590			
	20-30 y	58	4,4138	0,93081			
	30 abv	45	4,5889	0,82785			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Up to 5	10-20 y	-0,45082		0,14394		0,046	
Up to 5	20-30 y	-0,62422		0,16205		0,006	
Up to 5	30 abv	-0,79931		0,17468		0,000	
5-10 y	30 abv	-0,68851		0,20358		0,024	

Table 4.38.: One-Way ANOVA Test Results Related With Tenure (cont'd)

		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Int. Jus.	Up to 5	77	3,3983	1,15066	0,784	0,570	0,685
	5-10 y	38	3,5965	1,14583			
	10-20 y	93	3,3704	1,26996			
	20-30 y	60	3,613	1,22068			
	30 abv	45	3,5457	1,29486			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Proc. Just.	Up to 5	76	2,7654	1,13372	0,884	0,746	0,561
	5-10 y	37	2,9234	0,95063			
	10-20 y	91	2,8260	1,14717			
	20-30 y	61	3,0710	1,06478			
	30 abv	47	2,8830	1,05003			
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Vigor	Up to 5	76	4,0169	1,03542	0,374	8,503	0,000
	5-10 y	38	4,2218	0,85308			
	10-20 y	95	4,4902	1,06409			
	20-30 y	61	4,6909	0,93684			
	30 abv	45	4,9841	0,85510			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Up to 5	10-20 y	-0,47331		0,15104		0,046	
Up to 5	20-30 y	-0,67395		0,16871		0,004	
Up to 5	30 abv	-0,96721		0,18461		0,000	
5-10 y	30 abv	-0,76232		0,21622		0,016	
		Group Statistics			Levene's Test	ANOVA Equality of Means	
Variables	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Dvn.	p value	F value	p value
Absrptn	Up to 5	75	3,5619	1,03425	0,660	5,404	0,000
	5-10 y	38	3,5789	0,90409			
	10-20 y	95	3,9940	0,94965			
	20-30 y	60	4,1643	1,03345			
	30 abv	47	4,1672	0,95754			
Scheffe Test Results		Mean Difference		Standart Error		p value	
Up to 5	20-30 y	-0,60238		0,17021		0,015	
Up to 5	30 abv	-0,60527		0,18282		0,029	

5. DISCUSSION

In the study, the main aim was to analyze the contribution of employee participation in decision making and organizational justice on work engagement. In this section, the evaluation of the findings of the study will be discussed in terms of the previous findings in the literature. At first, the factorial analysis and the internal consistencies of the scales will be discussed. Throughout the correlation and regression analysis, the results of the main hypotheses of the study will be examined. The last part will be the discussion of the research variables among the findings according to the demographic differences.

The sample was chosen from the employees to middle level managers in a public municipality in Istanbul. 327 participants from different hierarchical levels were attended to the study, and the data was evaluated through SPSS, which will be discussed in the next part of this section.

The statistical analyses of the study started with clarifying the factorial constructs of the variables of the study. After that the reliability of these structures were tested.

The first factor analysis was made on employee participation in decision making. The five item-scale of employee participation in decision making was uni dimensional scale that was firstly established by Vroom (1960) and used by Schuler and Kim (1978). The reliability of the scale was calculated as 0,87 (Schuler and Kim, 1978) and 0,81 (White and Ruh, 1973). It was translated in Turkish and used by the study of Erim (2009). The factorial structure of the variable was found in conformity with the previous literature, as we found the reliability of employee participation in decision making scale as 0,831 which is close to the main scales reliability degree. The explained variance with the one-dimensional construct was calculated as 66,714%. Only one item was extracted from the scale (Item 2: To what extent are you able to decide how to do your job?), because through the reliability analysis it was seen that extracting the item increased the reliability of the scale.

The second factor analysis was implemented to the organizational justice scale, which was constructed by Niehoff and Moorman's (1993). The reliability of the three factor original organizational justice scale was measured as 0,92 (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). The two dimensions of the original scale were taken in the study as procedural and interactional justice, due to the corresponding literature of employee participation in decision making,

justice and work engagement relationship. Since the distributive justice is mostly related with the outcomes, not the processes that lead to those outcomes, we decided not to include the distributive justice on our study. The result of the factor analysis showed the exactly same construct of the original scale, which all the procedural justice items were gathered under the procedural justice dimension of the original scale (6 items), and all the interactional justice items were gathered under the interactional justice dimension of the original scale (9 items). This appeared as an important support for the separate dimensional position of interactional justice from procedural justice, since this is a contradictive topic in the organizational justice literature (Colquitt, 2001). It is also contradictive in Turkish literature, where there are studies that found interactional justice as a part of procedural justice (Pirali, 2007), whereas there are also studies that found the two dimensions as strictly separated (Gümüş, 2017; Yeşil, 2017). None of the questions were needed to be discarded from the study. The reliability of the scales was calculated as 0,963 for interactional justice, and as 0,894 for procedural justice, which were also seen as consistent with the existing studies. Farid et al. (2019) found the reliability of both interactional and procedural justice as 0,88, whereas Ghosh et al. (2014) found lower degrees as 0,69 for procedural and 0,88 for interactional justice. So both of the scales scored a high level of reliability, which is also consistent with the previous researches. The explained variance with the two dimensional construct was 73,444%.

The third factor analysis was implemented to clarify the dimensions of the work engagement. The original factor construct of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002) consists of three dimensions as vigor, absorption, and dedication with 17 items total. The boundaries of the dimensions of work engagement were clarified as ambiguous in many studies in Turkish literature, some of them found the original three dimensional construct with some exclusions of the items and some shifts in the items between the dimensions (Yaldıran, 2010; Batuk, 2011; Arabacı, 2012; Demirci, 2015; Garip, 2013; Güvenç, 2012; Maraqa, 2017), while the others found different two-factorial constructs and named them differently like vigor/dedication and absorption (Öner, 2008; Çağlar, 2011; Ünal, 2013), vigor and mental-engagement (Güneşer, 2007) or dynamism and absorption (Özgür, 2011). Our results of the factor analysis also showed a different construct from the original scale, that work engagement was divided into two factors, named as vigor and absorption. It was decided to extract the dedication dimension, because the much of the items that are excluded from the study were the items of dedication dimension, and stronger items that

define the factor structures were the items of vigor and absorption. In the factor analysis, three items were discarded from the study as, items 15 (I am proud on the work that I do), 18 (To me, my job is challenging), and 22 (At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well), respectively. The items were discarded because of their close factor loading under each factor. So the dimensions of work engagement were clarified as vigor (7 items), and absorption (7 items). The reliability of the scale was calculated as 0,908 for vigor, and 0,891 for absorption, which of both are determined as highly reliable. The explained variance with the two dimensional construct was 64,213%.

After factor analysis, correlation analysis was conducted for the research variables. The findings of the correlation analysis revealed that all of the research variables as employee participation in decision making, organizational justice and work engagement were significantly and positively correlated with each other at different levels (ranging from 0,298 – 0,656).

The first regression analyses were made to clarify the independent variables' (employee participation in decision making and organizational justice) contributions to the dependent variable (work engagement). Based upon the Job Resource-Demands Model (Demerouti et al., 2001), both employee participation in decision making and organizational justice were taken as important job resources that have explanatory influence on work engagement in the literature.

First, the contribution of employee participation in decision making on work engagement was determined through simple regression analysis. The results of the analyses showed significant positive contribution of employee participation in decision making on work engagement (the total of two dimensions), vigor, and absorption, respectively. The results supported the previous researches of Kwon et al. (2016) and Bhatti et al. (2018a) that found the positive impact of employee participation or having a voice in decision making on work engagement.

After that, the contribution of organizational justice on work engagement was determined through simple regression analysis. The results of the analyses showed significant positive contribution of organizational justice (the total of two dimensions), interactional justice, and procedural justice on work engagement (the total of two dimensions), vigor, and absorption, respectively. The results of the study were in conformity with the previous results, which found positive impact of procedural justice and interactional justice on work

engagement (Farid et al., 2019; Park et al., 2016). The results of our analysis showed closely equal contribution of both interactional and procedural justice on work engagement and its dimensions, which differs from the findings of Özer et al. (2017) that determined procedural justice having more importance on work engagement, and Agarwal (2014) that found interactional justice as more important on work engagement.

After the implementation of the regression analyses for the main hypotheses, the mediating role of the organizational justice and its dimensions (interactional and procedural justice) on the relationship between employee participation in decision making and work engagement and its dimensions (vigor and absorption) were observed through the Three Step Multiple Regression Analyses method. The organizational justice, especially its dimension related with the processes as procedural justice, was determined as a mediator in the relationship of employee participation in decision making (or having a voice in decision making) and various work outcomes as satisfaction (Roberson et al., 1999), organizational citizenship behavior (Muhammad, 2004; Yadav and Rangnekar, 2015), and organizational commitment (Ohana et al., 2012). There were no studies that directly use organizational justice as a mediator in the employee participation in decision making-work engagement relationship in the literature, but since the other constructs that mentioned above are mostly closely related constructs with work engagement, it was decided to clarify if there is also a significantly mediating role of organizational justice and its dimensions on that relationship.

The three steps multiple regression analysis method was implemented for both exploring the mediating role of organizational justice (total of two dimensions), procedural justice and interactional justice on the relationship of employee participation in decision making and work engagement (total of two dimensions), vigor and absorption, respectively.

The results showed clearly that, organizational justice and both of its dimensions as procedural and interactional justice acted as a significant mediator on the relationship of employee participation in decision making on work engagement, vigor, and absorption, separately. So in light of these extra analyses, we revised our research model to show these important findings related with the mediating role of organizational justice and its dimensions on employee participation in decision making-work engagement relationship.

At the last part of the analyses, independent samples t – tests and ANOVA tests were implemented in order to find out the differences between the demographic groups of the participants in terms of the study variables.

In terms of gender, it wasn't found any significant difference for any of the research variables.

In terms of marital status, only significant differences were found for work engagement and its dimensions as vigor and absorption. Married participants scored significantly higher than single participants for all these three variables.

In terms of having an experience in private sector or not, the one and only significant difference was found for employee participation in decision making. The participants that have a private sector company experience before scored significantly higher scores on employee participation in decision making than the participants that have no experience on private sector companies. This result can be interpreted as, the need and the demand of the employees on involving in decision making increase with the experience in private sector, which can be analyzed due to their previous practices among participatory implementations in private sector business.

In terms of age, the significant differences were calculated for work engagement and the dimensions of work engagement as vigor and absorption. The group 20-29 scored less work engagement, vigor and absorption than all of the other age groups older than them (30-39, 40-49, 50 and above). The means of the age groups significantly showed that the more the participants are older, the more engaged they are, which is consistent with the previous findings of Öner (2008) and Arabacı (2012).

In terms of education, the significant differences were found for work engagement and vigor dimension of work engagement. The results showed that the participants that have an education of high school or less scored significantly higher work engagement and vigor levels than the participants that have a university degree and master's degree or above. These findings reveal that, more educated employees score less engagement levels than the less educated ones. It is an interesting result, which might be due to the higher expectations of higher educated employees that cause them to be engaged harder to their actual work than the lower educated employees.

In terms of the participants' hierarcial positions in the company, it was found that at least one group has a significant difference for the all study variables. The managerial group was found as scored significantly higher than the employee group and the technical personnel group for the all study variables and their dimensions.

In terms of participants' tenure levels, only significant difference among the groups revealed for the work engagement and its dimensions, vigor and absorption. The participants that have up to 5 years tenure scored less work engagement, vigor and absorption levels than the all of the other groups that have more tenure on business life. Also the participants that have tenure between 5 to 10 years scored significantly less work engagement and vigor levels than the other groups that have more tenure from them in business life. These result strikingly revealed that tenure in business life increases the individuals work engagement, vigor and absorption levels.

6. CONCLUSION

The results of the study made several contributions to the literature, with exploring the two important job resources such as employee participation in decision making and organizational justice and their positive impact on the levels of work engagement.

The results of the study provided proof for the two job resources relationship with work engagement positively. Employee participation in decision making and organizational justice were found to have positively related with the levels of work engagement.

Maybe the most important finding was exploring the mediating role of the two dimensions of organizational justice on the relationship of employee participation in decision making on work engagement, since there were no study that exactly showed that relationship. Despite the relevance of employee participation in decision making and procedural justice, since both concept refer to the ability to influence the decision making procedures with the voice and possibility of choice, the previous studies that included the two variable mostly studied them as employee participation in decision making the antecedent of procedural justice (Sikora, 2002). In this study, we also added the interactional justice, the justice type that refers to the quality of the communication among the organization because the participation in decision making also affect the communication channels and their performance via the sharing of valuable information throughout the organization.

The results gave comprehensive support for the mediating role of both dimensions as procedural and interactional justice on the influence of employee participation in decision making on work engagement. These results can be interpreted as employee participation in

decision making's positive impacts on work engagement is not only appears through increasing the perceptions related with the decision making procedures (procedural justice), but also appears through increasing the quality of the interrelations and information sharing among the hierarchical levels of the organization (interactional justice).

These results that bring light to the paths to work engagement are important, because work engagement is an essential topic for business organizations with its various positive outcomes like satisfaction, commitment, performance and productivity. Engaged employees tend to invest their full mental and psychological capacity to the organization, which improves their performance in their work. So in order to increase the overall performance of the whole organization through the increased positive outcomes of the individuals in that organization, the organizations should carefully analyze the paths to establish an engaged workforce, which paths pass through the increased perceptions of justice and participation availabilities.

7. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

First limitation of our study was the scope of the sample, since was composed of one organization only. Making the same study on an inter-organizational concept, especially with different sectors of operation might deepen the insight related with the variables and their relationships. Also to make a generalized assumption, further researches among different samples working in different organizations that operate in different sectors should be implemented.

Another limitation of our sample comes from the political concerns of the participants. Since the organization is a public municipality, gathering the actual and the true feelings of the participants is an issue. Our study's demographic question related with the private sector experience showed significant difference in results, so in light of this finding, enlarging the concept to the private sector, especially white collar employees may reveal interesting results. Enlarging the sample with including both public and private sector employees and comparing them can also be useful to understand the differences.

Also our sample was consisted of close cultural backgrounded participants. According to the important findings of the contribution of cultural differences on study variables, a study

especially comparing a collectivist Eastern culture with an individualistic Western culture among the same research model should lead a more comprehensive understanding.

Maybe another limitation can be told as the limited involvement of the job resources in the model. There are some comprehensive researches about the antecedents of work engagement like Saks (2006), or Wollard and Shuck (2011), but there are so much job and personal resources to be taken into account, so every study acts like a brick on the walls of the construct of work engagement.



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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

Değerli Katılımcı;

Bu anket, T.C. Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yönetim ve Organizasyon (İng.) Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden Elgün Emre Yamaner'in yüksek lisans tez çalışmasına aittir. Toplanacak bilgiler, çalıştığınız kurum ile ilgili düşüncelerinizi belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Aşağıdaki **ifadeleri çalıştığınız kurum için değerlendiriniz**, bu ifadelere **ne derecede katıldığınızı** uygun kutuya işaretleyerek belirtiniz (Burada **önemli olan kurumu çok iyi tanımanız değil, kurum hakkında ilk anda aklınıza gelen fikirleriniz ve izlenimlerinizdir**). Soruların **herhangi bir “doğru” veya “yanlış” cevabı yoktur**, ancak çalışmanın doğru sonuca ulaşması adına samimi düşüncelerinizi, **hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayacak** şekilde vermeniz gerekmektedir.

Sizden alınacak tüm bilgiler, **tamamen gizli tutulacak, sadece akademik çalışma için kullanılacaktır**. Kurumda çalışan hiç kimse ile cevaplarınız paylaşılmayacak, cevaplarınız sadece araştırmacı tarafından çalışma için değerlendirilecektir. Cevaplarınızın gizli tutulacağına dair güveninizi sağlamak için, **anket formuna isminizi veya kimliğinizi belirtecek herhangi bir işaret yazmamanızı** önemle hatırlatırız.

Elgün Emre Yamaner'in tez çalışmasına verdiğiniz destek için teşekkür ederiz.

Tez Danışmanı
Prof.Dr. Fatma Gülrüh GÜRBÜZ

Araştırmacı
Elgün Emre YAMANER

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Çok sık	Her zaman
1. Genelde işimi nasıl yaptığımı hakkında fikrim alınır.						
2. İşimi nasıl yapacağıma kendim karar veririm.						
3. İşimde olup bitenler hakkında görüşüm alınır.						
4. İşimi etkileyen kararlar hakkında görüşüm alınır.						
5. Amirlerim fikir ve önerilerime açıktırlar ve beni dinlerler.						
6. Çalışırken kendimi enerji dolu hissederim.						
7. Yaptığım işi anlamlı ve amaç yüklü buluyorum.						
8. Çalışırken zaman akıp gider.						
9. İşteyken güçlü ve dinç hissediyorum.						
10. İşimle ilgili konularda şevk duyarım, çok istekliyimdir.						
11. Çalışırken işimden başka her şeyi unuturum.						
12. İşim bana ilham verir.						
13. Sabahları kalktığımda işe seerek giderim.						
14. Yoğun olarak çalıştığımda kendimi mutlu hissederim.						
15. Yaptığım işle gurur duyuyorum.						

16. Kendimi işime kaptırırım.						
17. Uzun zaman süreleri boyunca aralıksız çalışmaya devam edebilirim.						
18. İşim kapasitemi arttırmama yardımcı olur ve beni geliştirir.						
19. Çalışırken kendimden geçerim.						
20. İşimde zihnimi çabuk ve güçlü bir şekilde toparlarım.						
21. Kendimi işimden ayırmam zordur.						
22. İşimde bazı şeyler yolunda gitmediğinde bile sebatkarımdır-yılmam.						

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
23. İşe ilişkin kararlar yöneticiler tarafından tarafsız bir şekilde alınmaktadır.						
24. Yöneticiler, işle ilgili kararlar alınmadan önce bütün çalışanların görüşlerini alırlar.						
25. Yöneticiler, işle ilgili kararları vermeden önce doğru ve eksiksiz bilgi toplarlar.						
26. Yöneticiler, alınan kararları çalışanlara açıklar ve istendiğinde ek bilgiler de verirler.						
27. İşle ilgili bütün kararlar, bunlardan etkilenen tüm çalışanlara ayırım gözetmeksizin uygulanır.						
28. Çalışanlar, yöneticilerin işle ilgili kararlarına karşı çıkabilirler ya da bu kararların üst makamlarca yeniden görüşülmesini isteyebilirler.						
29. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim bana nazik ve ilgili davranırlar.						
30. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim bana saygılı davranır ve önem verirler.						
31. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim kişisel ihtiyaçlarıma karşı duyarlıdır.						
32. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim bana karşı dürüst ve samimidirler.						
33. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim, bir çalışan olarak haklarımı gözetirler.						
34. Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili kararların doğuracağı sonuçları benimle tartışırlar.						
35. Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili kararlar için uygun gerekçeler gösterirler.						
36. İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim bana akla uygun açıklamalar yaparlar.						
37. Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili alınan her kararı bana net olarak açıklar.						

38. Yaşınız : _____

39. Cinsiyetiniz : Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐

40. Medeni durumunuz : Evli ☐ Bekar ☐

41. Eğitim Düzeyiniz : İlköğretim ☐ Lise ☐ Üniversite ☐

Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora ☐

42. Kurumdaki göreviniz : Memur ☐ Teknisyen/Tekniker ☐ Mimar/Mühendis ☐

Şef ☐ Müdür ☐

43. Toplam ne kadar süredir çalışıyorsunuz? _____

44. Daha önce özel sektörde çalıştınız mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐