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TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) Bilim Dalı DOKTORA öğrencisi YASİN ÖZTÜRK'nın THE RELATIONSHIP OF AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND PARTICIPATIVE CLIMATE WITH EMPLOYEE VOICE:THE MODERATING ROLE OF PERSONALITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION adlı tez çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 30.05.2013 tarih ve 2013-18/16 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / ~~oy çokluğu~~ ile Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

Bu araştırmada çalışanların "ses çıkarma" davranışını etkileyen önceller incelenmiştir. Çalışanların iş ile ilgili yapıcı fikirlerini söylemelerini kolaylaştıran durumsal ve bireysel faktörler ele alınmıştır. "Katılımcı İklim" ve "Şeffaf Liderlik" ile "Çalışan Sesi" arasında pozitif bir ilişki beklenmiştir. Ayrıca, "Örgütsel Özdeşleşme" ve "Beş Faktör Kişilik Özellikleri"nin bu ilişkiyi şartlı değişken olarak etkileyeceği öngörülmüştür. Araştırmada, Türkiye'de 11 ayrı sektörde faaliyet gösteren 31 büyük şirkette çalışan 404 beyaz yakalı katılımcıya kolayda örneklem yaklaşımı ile ulaşılarak anket yöntemi aracılığıyla elde edilen ikincil veriden yararlanılmıştır. Tüm analizler bireysel düzeyde uygulanmıştır. Faktör analizleri sonucunda bağımlı değişkenin iki boyutlu olduğu görülmüş ve "sessizlik" üzerine yürütülen güncel yazın taraması sonucunda, bağımlı değişkenin "çalışan sesi" ve "çalışan sessizliği" olarak adlandırılan iki ayrı kavram halinde ele alınması kararlaştırılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları katılımcı iklim ve şeffaf liderlik ile çalışan sesi arasında anlamlı pozitif ilişki bulunduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Öte yandan, duygusal dengenin hem katılımcı iklim hem de şeffaf liderlik ile çalışan sesi arasındaki ilişkide şartlı değişken olarak rol oynadığı; duygusal denge düşük olduğunda ilişkinin zayıfladığı görülmüştür. Bunun dışında diğer bireysel özelliklerin şartlı değişken rolü bulunamamıştır. Yapılan ek analizlerde katılımcı iklim ve şeffaf liderlik ile çalışan sessizliği arasında negatif

bir ilişki olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Bunun yanı sıra, iklim ve liderlik ile sessizlik arasındaki ilişkide örgüte özdeşleşmenin şartlı değişken etkisi ortaya çıkmıştır. Özdeşleşme düşük olduğunda, bağlamsal değişkenler ile sessizlik arasındaki negatif ilişkinin güçlendiği belirlenmiştir. Son olarak, duygusal denge ve deneyime açıklığın şeffaf liderlik ile sessizlik arasındaki ilişkide şartlı değişken etkisine ulaşılmıştır. Duygusal denge ve deneyime açıklık düşük olduğunda söz konusu ilişki güçlenmiştir. Bu araştırma, durumsal değişkenler ile çalışan sesi arasındaki ilişkide bireysel farklılıkların şartlı değişken etkisini ele alan öncü çalışmalar arasındadır. Bireysel ve bağlamsal değişkenleri bir arada ele alan bir model sunan çalışmanın sonuçları kuram ve uygulama yönünden değerlendirilmiştir.

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

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ABSTRACT

The current study examined the antecedents which lead employees to engage in voice behavior. Contextual and individual factors that encourage employees to speak up for presenting constructive contributions about work were investigated. Specifically, "Participative Climate" and "Authentic Leadership" were expected to be positively related to "voice behavior". The relationship between contextual variables (climate and leadership) and voice behavior was suggested to be moderated by individual factors (Organizational Identification and The Big Five Personality Traits). A secondary dataset which was collected via survey method was utilized. Convenience sampling approach was used to gather data from 404 white-collar participants who worked in thirty-one large organizations of eleven sectors in Turkey. All analyses were conducted at the individual level. Results of the initial factor analysis revealed that the dependent variable was two-dimensional. After reviewing the updated literature on "employee silence", it was decided to investigate "voice" and "silence" as two separate constructs. The results showed that participative climate and authentic leadership were positively related to voice behavior. In addition, Neuroticism was found to moderate the relationship of participative climate and authentic leadership with voice in such a way that the relationship became weaker when Neuroticism was high. No other moderation effects were found. Further analysis on employee silence revealed that participative climate and authentic leadership were negatively related with silence behavior. Moreover, organizational identification moderated the relationship between contextual variables and silence in such a way that the relationship was stronger

when organizational identification was low. Finally, Neuroticism and Openness to Experience were found to moderate the negative relationship between authentic leadership and silence in such a way that the relationship was stronger when Neuroticism and Openness to Experience were low. The current research is among the initial studies which examine the moderating role of individual differences on the relationship of contextual factors and voice behavior. Presenting an integrated model, theoretical and practical implications were discussed, as well.

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Since this research is a quantitative one, without the participants, I would not be able to test any of my hypotheses and obtain the results. I would like to thank to each and every single respondent for their valuable contributions to my research. I have developed my hypotheses based on the findings of the existing literature. Although I do not know almost any of them personally, I have a great respect to them and would also like to thank to all scholars who were mentioned in the references section of the thesis.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ABPS: Adjective Based Personality Scale

ALQ: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire

EVLN: Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect

FMCG: Fast Moving Consumer Goods

LMX: Leader-Member Exchange

OCB: Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OI: Organizational Identification

PERYON: Türkiye İnsan Yönetimi Derneği

RVO: Risky Voice Opportunities

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Employee voice and employee participation has a long standing history. During the recent years there has been a rapid increase of interest in these topics among academicians, practitioners, and policy-makers. Increased global competition and changes in the nature of business are creating a pressure on organizations to be more innovative, faster, and more flexible. Consequently, employers encourage more information sharing within the organization and seek feedback from employees who have the highest level of expertise in terms of the processes and outputs of the organizations (Budd, Paul, and Adrian, 2010).

The highly competitive nature of global business environments urged most organizations to regard their employees as key assets for sustainable success and long-term survival. Thanks to the increasing globalization, organizations have obtained multiple access points to economic activity inputs like capital, service, production components, know-how, and infrastructural tools and devices. Advancements in technology, increased complexity, and changing market demands forced organizations to adapt to the rules of the new game for survival. In the current era, the human capital became the key success factor of organization-wide success. Competition for talent sharply increased. This challenge can be named as "talent wars". Attracting talent became entirely challenging and the process of retraining them within the organization has now become a high cost activity.

Success in today's competitive environment is contingent upon systems of work organization that maximize the contribution of individuals who are part of front-line value chains. Employees in general have more complete knowledge about their work they perform than their superiors who supervise the work. That's because workers are significantly in a better position to understand, plan, and organize work schedules besides recognizing, naming, and intervening in problems before incidents become destructive. Therefore, in order to survive and keep the competitive advantage, current organizations need employees who do not limit themselves only with performing their formal duties but

also voice their opinions and concerns to improve their workplace and the organization (Çelik, 2008).

Harvard researchers Perlow and Williams (2003) assert that lack of voice in organizations can lead to "a high psychological price on individuals, generating feelings of humiliation, pernicious anger, resentment, and the like that, if unexpressed, contaminate every interaction, shut down creativity, and undermine productivity" (p. 53). Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, and Wilke (2004) and Van Prooijen, Karremans, and Van Beest (2006), on the other hand, suggested that participants who received a voice procedure reported more positive procedural justice judgments and procedural satisfaction than participants who received a no-voice procedure.

Allowing employees to have voice in some affairs, may be instrumental in preventing pitfalls such as groupthink (a desire to go for agreement that interferes with the analysis of problems) and helping to generate alternatives that lead to superior organizational decisions (Cosier, Dalton, and Taylor III, 1991).

Creating voice opportunities during times of transition and organizational change helps employees to believe in the fairness of the process, manage their stress, and minimize negative consequences like intention to leave or resistance to change (Brotheridge, 2003). Managers need to understand the antecedents and dynamics of employee voice if they wish to become good change leaders.

1.1. STATEMENT OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The current study aims to examine the antecedents which lead employees to engage in voice behavior. Throughout the study, voice behavior is identified as employees' discretionary and constructive contributions to their organization by performing extra-role behaviors beyond their formal job requirements (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998). Such employee behaviors involve making useful suggestions and making recommendations related to issues affecting the organization, declaring their opinions about the solutions to

problems, communicating work-related opinions even when others disagree with them or when workplace climate conflicts with their sense of what is appropriate, saying what needs to be said, and asking questions when they need to get more information in order to do their job in a better way (Premeaux, 2001; Tangirala and Ramanujam, 2008a; Van Dyne, Soon, and Botero, 2003).

Borrowing from Premaux's (2001) conceptual definition of speaking up, in this dissertation, voice is defined as "openly stating one's views and opinions about workplace issues" and identified as discretionary and constructive employee contributions to workplace issues by assuming an extra-role behavior beyond formal job descriptions (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998).

The basic research problem that this dissertation seeks to address is the following: What situational factors predispose employees to voice their opinions, ideas, and suggestions about workplace issues in spite of the potential risk of "shoot the messenger"? Besides, individual factors which interact with situational factors to increase or decrease the tendency to display voice behavior are searched. Participative climate and authentic leadership as situational variables and organizational identification and personality dimensions as individual variables are examined in terms of their influence on employee voice.

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 includes basic background information about the research field, importance and originality of the research, as well as research objectives and the proposed research model.

Chapter 2 introduces the literature review on the study concepts. It starts with the definitions of voice and then summarizes fundamental research findings observed in the existing organizational behavior literature. This is followed by the literature review on "participative climate", "authentic leadership", "organizational identification", and "big five dimensions of personality". Existing research findings indicating the relationship of the constructs with voice and the hypotheses of the study are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 3 is dedicated to the methodology and defines the research design, sample, procedures, and data collection and analysis methods used for the research.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the empirical study. This chapter also includes a comparison of the proposed and modified models based on these findings. The chapter is finalized by supplementary analysis on employee silence.

Chapter 5 evaluates and discusses the research findings and hypotheses of the study. Furthermore, limitations and suggestions for future research are also presented.

1.2. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Although employee participation is highly valued by organizations, there has been little research reported on factors leading to employee voice about workplace issues. Without understanding the antecedents of voice, it is not possible for researchers to recommend suggestions regarding how to develop interventions to encourage voice at workplace (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998).

The majority of the existing research that has examined voice has focused on the consequences of the construct (Islam and Zypur, 2005) and this resulted in limited understanding about the factors which increase voice propensity. In recent years, exemplars of work focusing on the antecedents of voice behavior appeared in the literature (e.g., see Çelik, 2008; Detert and Burris, 2007; Islam and Zypur, 2005; and Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998; 2001) but this research stream is still in the evolving phase.

Understanding voice behavior requires not only an investigation of stable individual characteristics that determine whether people speak up, but also an examination of to whom they speak and why they do or why they do not speak to that specific target (Detert and Burris, 2007). Le Pine and Van Dyne (1998) concluded that main shortcomings in voice research pertained to focusing on a single antecedent or using measures with questionable construct validity. In order to predict voice better, the authors

proposed to study the construct with research designs which include individual and contextual factors both.

Landau (2009a) pointed out that when employees wanted to make a change, in 85 % of all cases they referred to their immediate supervisors and no one reported contacting someone else if their supervisors were not receptive. Organizations targeting to benefit from employee input should cooperate with supervisors who are effective listeners that qualify as good "voice managers". Authentic leaders listen carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions. Thus, this study investigates the relationship between immediate supervisor authenticity and employee voice so as to reveal the influence of supervisor characteristics on voice behavior.

Turkey is known as a country where power distance is relatively large (Aycan et al., 2000; Hofstede, 1991) which addresses the solid hierarchical relationship between subordinates and supervisors in workplaces. In addition, reflecting the culture of the country, some proverbs such as "söz gümüşse sükut altındır" (If speaking is silver, silence is gold), "doğru söyleyeni dokuz köyden kovarlar" (All truth is not always to be told), "boş teneke çok ses çıkarır" (Empty vessels make the most noise) also seem to support remaining silent**.** Although hierarchical relations and some preconceptions against voice exist in Turkish society, Paşa, Kabasakal, and Bodur (2001) asserted that it is possible for organizations to hold different values than those held by societies due to the requirements of the tasks which should be done. As opposed to societal norms about hierarchy and silence, various means and mechanisms for employee participation are reported to exist in Turkish organizations (Çelik, 2008). As Parker et al. (2003) noted, employee climate perceptions have received significant attention in the organizational behavior literature and have been used to predict a wide range of individual and organizational level outcomes. It was found that employees working in a business unit with a stronger perception of participative climate reported a higher level of empowerment than those who perceived their business unit as non-participative (Spreitzer, 1996). Besides, Tesluk, Vance, and Mathieu (1999) reported a positive relationship between perceived participation climate and

self-reported participation in employee involvement processes. Therefore, the current study intends to shed light on perceived organizational climate and explores the role of participative climate on employee voice.

Although several theoretical and empirical studies support the overall benefit of participative climate and authentic leadership practices, the question of whether each employee equally benefits from these contextual factors remains unanswered. The interactional perspective emphasizes continuous, multidirectional interaction between individual and contextual characteristics. This perspective addresses that characteristics of people and situations should be studied as joint determinants of individual attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors (Terborg, 1981). Exploring the unique effects of contextual factors as well as individual differences on voice behavior would be promising in terms of providing insights on employee voice but following the interactional psychology perspective, the joint effect of the contextual and individual factors is expected to produce a better understanding of the phenomenon. Thus, the current study examines the moderating role of individual differences (the big five personality traits and organizational identification) on the relationship between contextual factors (participative climate and authentic leadership) and employee voice.

As Parker (1998) pointed out, personality characteristics are relatively stable traits that determine individuals' responses towards their environment and are likely to influence people's motivational states and outcomes in their work lives**.** Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) meta-analytic findings revealed that personality is related to supervisor ratings of contextual performance such as teamwork and resolving conflict. Their study also suggested that correlations between personality and contextual performance criteria are higher than correlations between personality and overall performance. Other than the characteristics of work and the empowering styles of supervisors, individual differences such as need for achievement, conscientiousness, and agreeableness are shown to affect employees' proactive behaviors at workplaces (e.g., Bateman and Crant, 1993; Parker, 1998; Seibert et al., 2001).

After decades of research on personality, although articles have appeared in the literature suggesting that the construct is too heterogeneous and incomplete (e.g., Hough, 1992), a major consensus has been formed on a general taxonomy of personality traits. The "Big Five" personality dimensions as reported by Barrick and Mount (1991) have been validated across different cultures, occupations, rating sources, and measures. Dimensions of "Big Five" are; Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. The relationship between "Big Five" and voice has been subject to research. Le Pine and Van Dyne (2001), for instance, investigated the relationship of the big five and employee voice. Their study suggested that conscientiousness and extraversion were positively related with voice whereas the relationship was negative for neuroticism and agreeableness. In the current study, following the interactive perspective, the focus of interest will be on how the "Big Five" moderates the relationship of contextual factors (participative climate and authentic leadership) with employee voice.

Organizational identification, the perception of oneness with and belongingness to the organization (Ashforth and Mael, 1989), is an important field of research in organizational behavior since it is linked with several positive consequences. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that OI is positively related to intent to remain with an organization, decreased turnover, higher length of service, and extra-role behaviors, or "acts that are not directly specified by a job description but which are of benefit to the company" (p. 493).

Burris, Detert, and Chiaburu (2008) suggested that employees who are psychologically attached to the organization speak up more than employees who are psychologically detached. In a study by Lipponen, Bardi, and Haapamäki (2008), it was found that OI moderated the relationship between openness to change and suggestion making. The positive relationship between openness to change and suggestion making became stronger when OI was high. Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008a) suggested that organizational identification moderates the relationship of personal control and voice in such a way that at low levels of personal control, the negative relationship between

personal control and voice was weaker for employees with stronger identification, and at high levels of personal control, the positive relationship between personal control and voice was stronger for employees with stronger identification.

Based on the existing research findings that organizational identification interacts with several variables to influence suggestion making and voice, it appears valuable to investigate the interaction of identification with participative climate and authentic leadership to examine its effect on voice.

Research findings on the relationship of demographics and employee voice are mixed. Although there are studies which indicate differences, some studies (e.g., Detert, Burris, and Harrison, 2010) have revealed no difference. Several demographic variables have been found to be related to employee voice including; gender, age, education, managerial status, and tenure. Research has shown that males are more likely to voice than females (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998), older employees are more likely to speak up than younger employees (Luchak, 2003), and those with higher levels of education are more likely to voice than those with less education (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998). Studies have also indicated that managers are more likely to speak up than non-managers (Kassing and Avtgis, 1999) and those with greater tenure are more likely to voice than those with less tenure (Stamper and Van Dyne, 2001). Çelik's (2008) study revealed that employee tenure was associated with voice behavior significantly and positively. Gender and education, however, made no difference in terms of voice behavior in her study. Considering these findings, it seems to be worth exploring the relationship of demographics and voice behavior.

1.3. EXPECTED THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The expected theoretical contribution of the present study will be twofold. First, it will examine contextual factors (authentic leadership and participative climate) as antecedents of voice behavior which have remained as neglected areas of research and require more empirical analysis to be conducted (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998; Van Dyne et. al., 2003). Prior studies usually focused on individual level factors such as personality (e.g., conscientiousness, proactive personality) in predicting voice while neglecting contextual level factors such as organizational climate (Çelik, 2008). As Islam and Zyphur (2005) addressed, unless multiple antecedents of voice are investigated, factors leading to that specific phenomenon cannot be understood completely, and precise practical implications cannot be suggested either. Second, the current study will be one of the first to develop a moderated model to predict voice behavior. This study attempts to highlight the role of personality differences and organizational identification in terms of strengthening (or weakening) the influence of situational factors on voice behavior.

By identifying the conditions that increase employee voice propensity and actual voice behavior, it is hoped to guide managers and organizations to develop effective managerial interventions to facilitate employee participation and help organizations to benefit from employee inputs.

1.4. THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

The model of this study is formed as depicted in Figure 1. It is based on the research problems mentioned previously and a detailed literature review of the concepts presented in the next chapter. The model shows the hypothesized relationships between the study concepts. **Hypotheses tested in the current study are listed as follows:**

Hypothesis 1: Participative climate contributes positively to voice behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Authentic leadership contributes positively to voice behavior.

Hypothesis 3a: Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high.

Hypothesis 3b: Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high.

Hypothesis 4a: Personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high.

Hypothesis 4b: Personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high.

Hypothesis 4c: Personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high.

Hypothesis 4d: Personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high.

Also, a research question is formulated as follows:

Question 1): What is the relation between demographic variables (gender, age, education, position, present and total tenure, sector) and employee voice?

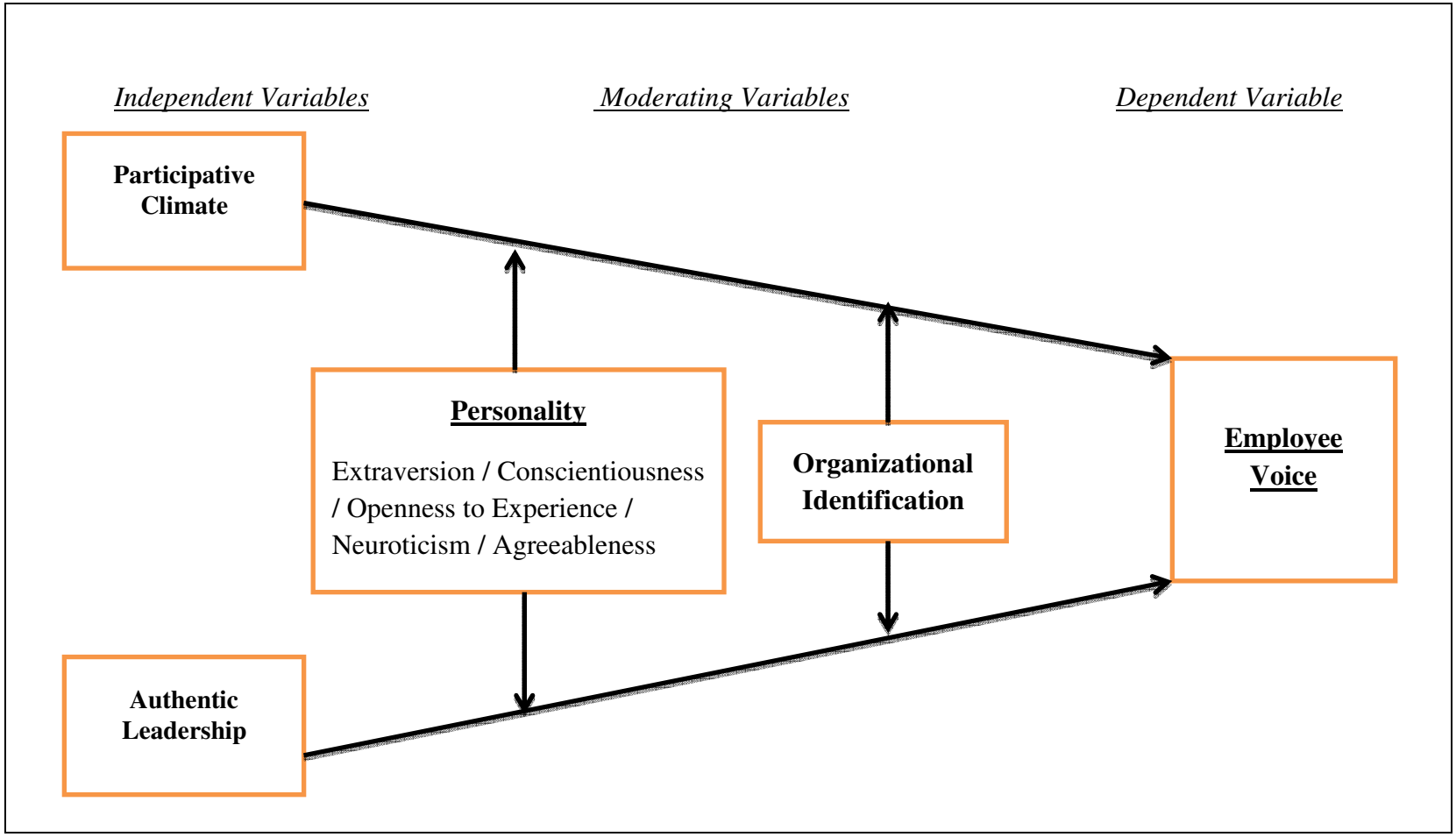

Figure 1: The conceptual research model

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. EMPLOYEE VOICE BEHAVIOR

2.1.1. Concept Definition

Voice has been used in the management literature to include everything from grievance filling and union participation to complaining and external protest (Premeaux and Bedeian, 2003) and as Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) stated, there is no one standard definition of voice in the literature. In the following section, various voice definitions including the old ones and the most recent examples are presented in order to display the full spectrum of the construct description.

The best known use of the word "voice" goes back to 1970 by a classical study of Hirschman on African railways. As an alternative option to "exit" (shifting to another alternative company) he conceptualized "voice" as a complaint by customers when a decline in the quality of the service/product occurs or an organizational inefficiency exists which deteriorates the organization (Hirschman, 1970). Since then employee voice and participation have been observed to embrace a wide range of definitions (Dundon, Wilkinson, Marchington, and Ackers, 2004) with significant contributions from different disciplinary perspectives like political science, psychology, law, management, and industrial relations (Budd et al., 2010).

The beginning and early stages of individual voice studies was dominated by Hirschman's (1970) exit-voice-loyalty framework in which dissatisfaction can be vented by quitting (an economic response) or complaining (a political response). Hirschman's model was proffered upon a theory of dissatisfaction and to this model, a fourth optional response; neglect was added by Farrell (1983). Hirschman was a forerunner of voice investigation but his analysis of motivation for responding to dissatisfaction was limited with "voice" and "exit" reactions. Voice is originally defined as "any attempt at all to change, rather than escape from an objective state of affairs" (Hirschman, 1970, p.30). In a revisit of

Hirschman's dissatisfaction framework, Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous III (1988) conceptualized voice as "actively and constructively trying to improve conditions through discussing problems with a supervisor or co-workers, taking action to solve problems, suggesting solutions, seeking help from an outside agency like a union, or whistle-blowing" (p. 601).

A connection between voice and presence of labor unions was observed in much of the early voice studies and on an individual level it was suggested that unionized employees will be less likely to quit since union membership creates an official voice platform for dealing with grievance to eliminate dissatisfaction (Budd et al., 2010).

Recently, however, increased competition, changing business environment, global decline in unionization, joint consultation, and collective bargaining increased direct employee involvement with organizational issues and upward problem solving resulted in redefining employee voice beyond the exit-voice framework that focused on venting dissatisfaction (Dundon et al., 2004; Wilkinson, Dundon, Marchington, and Ackers, 2004).

After reviewing a wide range of definitions, Dundon et al. (2004; p.1152) subdivided the meanings of voice into four main categories. First, voice can be articulated as *individual dissatisfaction* which can be aimed to a specific problem or issue with management and would confirm Hirschman's view of voice. Second, voice can be an expression of *collective organization* which is a countervailing source of power exercised to resist management through trade unions and collective bargaining. Third, there are voice arrangements that contribute to management *decision-making* and are concerned primarily with efficiency and productivity improvements (often coupled with high involvement and high commitment management initiatives through quality circles and team working). Fourth, another form of voice can be expressed through *mutuality of interest* in the form of an employee–employer partnership aimed at securing long-term viability and sustainability for the organization and its employees.

Table 1: The meaning of employee voice

Voice As:	*Purpose and articulation of voice*	*Mechanisms and practices for voice*	*Ranges of outcomes*
Articulation of individual dissatisfaction	To rectify a problem with management or prevent deterioration in relations	Complaint to line manager Grievance procedure Speak-up programme	Exit- loyalty
Expression of collective organization	To provide a countervailing source of power to management	Union recognition Collective bargaining Industrial action	Partnership- de-recognition
Contribution to management decision making	To seek improvements in work organization, quality and productivity	Upward problem-solving groups Quality circles Suggestion schemas Attitude surveys Self-managed teams	Identity and commitment-disillusionment and apathy Improved performance
Demonstration of mutuality and co-operative relations	To achieve long-term viability for the organization and its employees	Partnership agreements Joint consultative committees Work councils	Significant influence over management-marginalization and sweetheart deals

Source: Dundon, T., Wilkinson, A., Marchington, M., and Ackers, P. (2004). The Meanings and Purpose of Employee Voice. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 15(6), 1149-1170. Page: 1152.

Landau (2009a) reviewed the voice literature and cited that in order for employees to voice their concerns or make suggestions for change, key conditions exist such as displaying the need to have something to say, feeling that it is their responsibility to speak up, believing that the benefits of speaking up will outweigh the costs and risks associated with speaking up, and demonstrating the need to believe that their suggestions will be considered seriously and will possibly have some impact on the organization and its employees.

After a review of existing management literature, Van Dyne et al. (2003) noted two main streams of voice; (i) presence of processes and procedures that facilitate employee participation in decision making and (ii) speaking up as an employee behavior represented by employees proactively making suggestions for change. Their review of literature suggested that a significant size of voice research was built on EVLN (exit-voice-loyalty-neglect) framework but also a growing research stream on voice out of EVLN approach which addresses voice as proactive and constructive speaking behavior was also apparent. Literature includes a variety of voice behaviors including civic virtue (a form of citizenship behavior), advocacy participation, championing, taking charge, issue selling, and the like. All these constructs are not explicitly labeled as "voice" but they all refer to verbal articulation of ideas, information, and opinions with a constructive intent and motive to collaborate with the organization for improvement.

Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) studied voice as a form of extra-role behavior and they defined extra-role behaviors as (1) not predetermined with formal job descriptions, and (2) neither subject to be rewarded when performed, (3) nor subject to be punished when not done. They developed a typology for extra-role behavior by contrasting promotive and prohibitive behavior (encouraging something to happen vs. encouraging something to cease) on one dimension, and affiliative and challenging behavior (promoting collaboration and making the relationship stronger vs. change oriented behavior that prioritizes focusing on opinions and issues) on the other dimension. In this taxonomy, voice is positioned as promotive-challenging behavior. They defined voice as "promotive behavior that

emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize" and "making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree" (p.109). Similarly, Le Pine and Van Dyne (1998) defined voice as "speaking out and challenging the status quo with the intent of improving the situation" (p. 853).

Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) defined voice as a form of contextual performance that facilitates the context in which task performance (input-output processes involving organization's technical core) is completed by putting effort to improve organizational, social and psychological aspects of the workplace. According to this conceptualization**,** contextual performance includes activities like following organizational rules and procedures even when personally inconvenient, supporting and defending organizational objectives, and volunteering to carry out task activities that are not part of formal job description. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined 13 forms of prosocial behavior (positive social acts which are not formally specified role requirements) and defined one of the prosocial behaviors at workplace as "suggesting procedural, administrative, or organizational improvements with intent of helping the organization for achieving the goals and objectives" (p.715). Following these definitions, it can be proposed that voice is a form of prosocial behavior.

Van Dyne et al. (2003) noted that existing research has considered "voice" as a unitary concept and proposed that measuring and predicting voice is elusive. They focused on purposeful, individual level employee behaviors occurring through face-to-face interactions in work organizations. They conceptualized voice as a multi-dimensional construct which is based on three different motives (*other-oriented, self-protective, and disengaged*) and suggested three forms of voice: *Prosocial voice, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice*.

Since the majority of the existing literature on voice behavior is based on positive intentions directed to serve others, in order to differentiate this form of behavior from other behaviors guided by self-protective and disengaged motives, the term *"prosocial voice"* was used. Driving from Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Van Dyne et al. (2003) borrowed the voice definition of Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) and described *Prosocial Voice* as expressing work-related ideas, information, and opinions with a cooperative motive which is intentional, proactive, and other-oriented by nature with a focus on creating benefits to others (not to the self) such as one's organization. *Defensive Voice* is about expressing work-related ideas, information, and opinions with a motive that involves protecting the self from feared or unpleasant consequences. Employees intentionally and actively make a manipulative communication in order to shift the attention to elsewhere. In order to protect the self, an employee might propose ideas that focus on other individuals and other processes within the organization. Such communication also includes conduct such as vividly expressing explanations, accounts, or excuses that give credit to employees themselves while pointing out others for problems at work. *Acquiescent Voice* is the verbal expression of work-related ideas, information or opinions that are based on a feeling of resignation accompanied by decreased self-efficacy about being able to change the result. Employees might have different ideas, information or solutions to problems, however, due to low self-efficacy; they follow the "fine with me" approach. Instead of expressing their own views, they support the ideas presented by others. Like prosocial and defensive voices, acquiescent voice is also based on an intentional expression of ideas, information, and opinions but involves less proactive behavior as compared to the other two forms.

Premeaux (2001) introduced a specific form of employee workplace expression, namely, "speaking up" which implies "openly stating one's view or opinions about workplace issues" (p.1). She suggested that speaking up is conceptually different from other forms of workplace expressions like principled organizational dissent, whistle blowing, issue selling, taking charge or upward influence attempts which are all driven by dissatisfaction, a perceived violation of principles, and consideration of strategic issues. Speaking up, on the other hand, derives from a motive to improve organizational policies,

procedures, and processes. Speaking up does not only comprise voicing suggested or needed improvements, but also involves openly stating views or opinions about the actions or ideas of others, as well as putting forth alternative approaches or different lines of reasoning for addressing job-related issues (Premeaux and Bedeian, 2003).

Premeaux's (2001) definition of speaking up includes both proactive (e.g. making suggestions to prevent potential problems) and reactive (e.g. pointing out past problems) tendencies. She also suggested that speaking up is conceptually different from the construct of voice (Hirschman, 1970) which results from dissatisfaction. Premeaux's (2001) conceptualization of speaking up, however, is based on improving organizational effectiveness. The author emphasized that voice behavior is not dependent on hierarchical level or position authority. Individuals who speak up about workplace issues may occupy any level of the organization and are not expected to do so as part of their formal job descriptions (Premeaux, 2001).

After reviewing the broad definitions of voice behavior, it is also important to set the boundaries to explain what voice is not. First, voice behavior does not simply include complaining or suffering since such behaviors only show dissatisfaction without addressing any direction of change. Second, voice does not refer to organizationally supported formal procedures. Third, presenting ideas or providing solutions to problems as part of in-role behavior specified by official job descriptions (as in the case of consultants and change agents) cannot be named as voice (Çelik, 2008).

The current study focuses on change-oriented ideas and suggestions about work-related issues as the scope of voice. Voice behavior is conceived as an output of a cooperative motive which is intentional, proactive and other-oriented by nature with a target of creating benefits to the organization as addressed in the *prosocial voice* definition by Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998). Operational definition of the construct is borrowed from Premeaux's (2001) definition of "speak up" and voice is defined as "openly expressing

work-related ideas, information and opinions with the intent to improve organizational effectiveness".

2.1.2. Voice Studies in Organizational Behavior Literature

Ever since Hirschman's seminal exit-voice-loyalty framework appeared in 1970, the majority of the existing research conducted by organizational behavior researchers focused on voice as an improvement-oriented extra-role, or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (e.g., Van Dyne and Le Pine, 1998). Existing research has referred to three sets of antecedents of voice behavior – (1) individual differences, (2) formal and informal control mechanisms (e.g. centralized decision-making or lack of upward feedback mechanisms might discourage employees to voice their real thoughts) (Morrison and Milliken, 2000), and (3) managerial behavior (e.g. managers' fear of getting negative feedback or tendency to reject/respond negatively to employee input would decrease voice propensity) (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, and Dutton, 1998; Edmondson, 2003; Milliken, Morrison, and Hewlin, 2003). Among these, individual personality differences such as proactive personality (Crant, 2003; cited from Detert and Edmondson, 2005), self-esteem (Brockner, et al., 1998), self-efficacy (Parker, 1993) and the "Big Five" personality dimensions (e.g., Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001) have been the most frequently studied predictors of voice.

Le Pine and Van Dyne's (1998) research with work groups revealed that individuals with high levels of global self-esteem were more likely to express voice than individuals with low levels of self-esteem. Landau's (2009b) study also confirmed that voice propensity was higher for individuals with higher self-efficacy than individuals with lower self-efficacy.

Premeaux (2001), in her research about individual predictors of voice, found that willingness to speak up is positively correlated with need for achievement. Besides, it was seen that individuals with an internal locus of control, high self-esteem, and a low orientation toward self-monitoring were most likely to speak up. Çelik (2008), on the other

hand, found that persons who displayed conscientiousness and proactive personality demonstrated more voice behavior.

Rusbult et al. (1988) investigated the impact of three exchange variables (job satisfaction, investment size, and quality of alternatives) on EVLN framework and suggested that overall job satisfaction, the level of employee investment in the current job, and the quality of alternatives (other jobs or possible leave options like retirement or non-working) are positively related with active and constructive voice behavior. Under these conditions, the employee was likely to be highly motivated for improving the conditions.

Boroff and Lewin's (1997) study with employees who had been exposed to unfair treatment revealed that high levels of employee loyalty were associated with low levels of voice incidences implying that loyal employees suffer in silence. As opposed to Boroff and Lewin's (1997) strong conclusion, Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2002) argued that loyal employees do not necessarily stay silent when they come across an unfair treatment and suggested that more loyal employees may prefer to use less formal methods (e.g. communicate with the person(s) who committed the unfair treatment) to voice discontent whereas less loyal employees may prefer to use more formal methods (e.g. seeking outside assistance). Luchak (2003) claimed that employees who display loyalty to the organization through emotional and affective bonds are less likely to use representative voice (e.g. trade unions, grievance filling) but more likely to use direct voice (e.g. speak up).

Detert and Edmondson (2005) introduced the concept of risky voice opportunities (RVOs)-situations in which the individual is aware of an opportunity to speak up and in the meantime holds a belief that speaking up may lead to unpleasant consequences for him or her. The researchers argued that RVOs will be assessed both cognitively and emotionally and the employee will decide to speak up or not according to the costs involved. The results of the study conducted with the employees of a leading high-technology company revealed that cognitive appraisals of "lack of safety" associated with RVOs were often coupled with moderate to strong negative emotions. Fear was the strongest emotion, and

incidences of anger, sadness, and frustration were also reported. It was seen that the most dominant choice in relation to RVOs was withholding voice. Employees who had painful past experiences or who perceived that they will be harmed by speaking up decided to stay silent. Others who believed they had an opportunity to find an attractive alternative job elsewhere, however, decided to speak up.

Le Pine and Van Dyne (1998) conducted a research on work groups and investigated the role of contextual factors (group size, self-managed vs. traditional style of management) on voice. The findings revealed that individuals in small groups displayed more voice behavior than individuals in large groups. Besides, self-managed groups demonstrated more voice incidents than traditional work groups. Self-esteem moderated the relationship between situational variables and voice in such a way that individuals with low self-esteem were more responsive to situational factors than individuals with high self-esteem. The relationship between situational variables and voice was stronger for individuals with lower self-esteem (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998). That is, employees with low self-esteem were more likely to voice their opinions in small and self-managed groups as opposed to large and traditionally managed groups.

Top management openness is the degree to which senior leaders in the organization is believed to encourage employees to offer input and make suggestions. When top management displays openness, individuals are expected to perceive less risk associated with voicing their perspective and to be more willing to speak up. Premeaux (2001) suggested that perceived risk of speaking up was negatively correlated with openness of top management, trust in supervisor, and perceived organizational support.

Landau (2009b) reported higher voice propensity for persons working with a supervisor who was more approachable and responsive to employee voice, and for employees working in a low power distance environment.

Islam and Zypur (2005) investigated the influence of interpersonal power and social dominance orientations on employees' tendencies to voice opinions in group tasks

during a business simulation. They worked with undergraduate students who were enrolled in psychology courses and found that social dominance orientation, which is the degree to which individuals believe that social hierarchies are justified in organizational settings, fully moderated the power-voice relationship in such a way that the effect of power on voicing opinions increased with higher level of social dominance orientations.

Çelik (2008) conducted a voice behavior research with blue-collar employees. The participants of her study were 293 blue-collar employees and 103 immediate supervisors of them. The results showed that voice behavior was significantly and positively associated with psychological empowerment, enriched job characteristics, empowering managerial practices, work group interdependence, and empowering workplace climate.

Current literature is promising in terms of developing a better understanding of employee voice and the review of key findings seems to be fruitful for encouraging new studies to explore different sets of relationships between the constructs. In the following sections, voice is discussed in relation to research variables.

2.2. PARTICIPATIVE CLIMATE

2.2.1. Definition and Research Findings

Discussions of employee climate perceptions have drawn the interest of organizational behavior researchers to a great extent and the findings have been used to predict various outcome variables. Parker et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis of 121 independent samples suggested a significant positive relationship between perceived climate and individuals' work attitudes (satisfaction, commitment, and job involvement), psychological well-being, motivation, and performance.

Beginning with the famous Hawthorne experiments in 1920s, management theorists and research scholars have promoted the concept of employee participation in decision making. Employee participation promises positive outputs like high quality products, better productivity, higher employee motivation, and better employee relations

within the organization. Positive employee attitudes are attributed to intrinsic motivation derived from participation that enables employees to have greater ownership and better understanding of their job (Leana, Ahlbrandt, and Murrell, 1992).

Schneider and Snyder (1975) described organizational, or workplace climate, as a whole perception of employees about their organization. As it is implied in this definition, organizational climate is not a simple or one-dimensional construct. It may however involve different practices or applications observed in organizations. Patterson et al. (2005) also stressed the multi-dimensional characteristic of the workplace climate and noted that workplace climate represents employees' perceptions of organizational policies, practices, procedures, subsequent patterns of interactions, and behaviors that are supported by the organization (e.g., innovation, creativity, quality, service etc.).

Participative climate is created by the attitudes and behaviors of management and can be characterized by *information sharing* and *participative decision making* processes. *Information sharing* is a low-level and mostly unidirectional process since the employee receives information that is controlled or manipulated by the management and has limited initiative to display a response. *Employee participation in decision making* is a more active and interactive process which gives more responsibility to employees. The more employees feel that their involvement will have an impact on the output they will produce, the more they actively assume responsibility for organizational matters. Consequently, they are expected to be less critical about decisions and to report less organizational change cynicism (Brown and Cregan, 2008).

Angermeier, A. Boss and R. Boss (2009) have categorized organizational systems at four different levels from authoritarian to participative (exploitive authoritarian, benevolent authoritarian, consultative, and participative). They noted that extensive subordinate-superior interaction, accurate and intensive up-down and within peers communication, organization-wide decision making, and goal establishment by group discussion are key characteristics of participative systems. Their study conducted in

healthcare organizations suggested that employees in highly participative work climates provided better customer service, committed fewer clinical errors, displayed lower burnout, and showed lesser turnover intention than those working in authoritarian climates.

Huang, Van de Vliert, and Van der Vegt (2005) defined participative climate as "employees' collective perception of the extent to which new ideas, suggestions, and even dissenting views are encouraged by management" (p.463) and proposed a social-type voice mechanism, which may increase the likelihood of voice and decrease organization-wide opinion withholding.

Riordan, Vandenberg, and Richardson's (2005) definition of employee involvement climate is characterized by a work environment where all employees have developed a recognition that (a) they have control over or say in decisions that affect their work which means they have the power to make decisions (participative decision making); (b) they have information about the organization and its goals, and plans are shared with them (information sharing); (c) they are provided with the necessary training to perform the job (training); and (d) they are given rewards which are based on their participation in decision making, sharing of information and use of skills offered through trainings (performance-based rewards).

Research findings revealed that perceived employee involvement climate was related to increased financial performance, increased employee loyalty or organizational commitment, and reduced employee turnover. Participative climate and access to information, on the other hand, were positively related with commitment (Çöl and Ardıç, 2008).

Guzley (1992) investigated the relationship between perceived organizational climate (in terms of communication, decision making, leadership, motivation, and goal setting) and organizational commitment (accepting organizational goals and values, maintaining membership with the organization, and exerting effort on behalf of the organization) and suggested a positive relationship between the two. Among all

dimensions, participative decision making was found to be the most significant determinant of commitment. Guzley's (1992) study also revealed that communication climate (characterized by perception of superior-subordinate communication, quality of information, upward communication opportunities, and reliability of information) as a sub-dimension of organizational climate was also related with commitment.

Participative climate has a stronger effect on employee satisfaction and performance than participation in specific decision making processes (Miller and Monge, 1986). The experience of participation in an involvement program may reinforce employees' positive attitudes towards their jobs and organizations (Leana et al., 1992). Participative climate leads to higher job satisfaction and less intention to quit (Jackofsky and Slocum, 1987).

Richardson and Vanderberg (2005) indicated that involvement (the power to act and make decisions about business issues, information about business goals and results, rewards tied to performance, and relevant work knowledge gained through training) is associated with desired employee behaviors like less absenteeism and more OCB (non-core behaviors directed at benefiting the unit and organization). The authors examined OCB at work unit level and indicated a positive significant relationship between work units' collective perception of involvement climate and manager-rated actual OCB at work unit level. They also proposed that managers' transformational leadership style, as perceived by employees, enables a framework for sense-making and may help employees to develop perceptions of involvement climate.

Tesluk et al. (1999) hypothesized that district and unit level participative climates influence individual work-related attitudes and participation in the employee involvement processes. They noted that participative climate is positively related with extrinsic job satisfaction and employee beliefs in improvability (e.g. belief that things will be better).

2.2.2. Participative Climate and Employee Voice

Huang et al. (2005) conducted a cross-cultural study in 24 countries to explore the role of power distance on voice behavior and concluded that both formalized employee involvement (e.g. quality management meetings, management change meetings, product quality analysis activities, team-building programs) and participative climate encouraged employees to voice their opinions in countries with a small power distance. In high power distance cultures, formalized involvement schemas worked only under a strong perceived participative climate. As noted before, since Turkey is known as a country where power distance is relatively large (Aycan et al., 2000; Hofstede, 1991), employees' perceptions of participative climate might be a key enabler to suppress the natural tendency for silence and encourage voice behavior.

Parker (1998) noted that increased quality of communication as part of a participative climate predicts the development of greater self-efficacy. She concluded that the more people feel that they are informed, listened to, and encouraged to speak; the more likely they will develop confidence in performing a wide range of proactive, interpersonal, and integrative tasks. Two-way communications create a supportive context in which employees will be more likely to explore their work environment for "having something to say" which is the first prerequisite of voice. Employees with higher self-efficacy and with newly acquired knowledge would nurture the intent for voice behavior.

An organizational climate which involves participative decision making is related with more positive employee outcomes and decreases negative consequences of job insecurity. Participative decision making offers employees greater control over their own job and better understanding of organizational decision making (Probst, 2005). Perception of communication effectiveness is positively related with feelings of positive trust climate. Existence of a communication gap is expected to diminish the likelihood of managers to be perceived as reliable sources which in turn may reduce trust. Building trust revolves around participative decision making, open communication and supportive leadership behaviors

(Zeffane, 2010). Since voice is a challenge to status quo and includes the risk of experiencing personal cost; through creating trust climate, communication effectiveness might be a facilitator of voice behavior.

Thus, the following hypothesis has been developed:

Hypothesis 1: Participative climate contributes positively to voice behavior.

2.3. AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP

2.3.1. Concept Definition

Prior research and theory about the influence of leadership on employee voice has focused on two types of leaders and two associated modes of influence. First, the majority of research has been observed to focus on direct impact of immediate supervisors (e.g. Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, and Roth, 1992). Secondly, top management as a key factor of influence on voice perceptions and behaviors has been reported (e.g. Morrison and Milliken, 2000).

As Detert and Trevino (2010) suggested, immediate supervisors strongly influence employee voice perceptions and do more than merely reinforce an overall climate for speaking up set by leaders at the top. The interviews conducted by the authors within a multinational company in high-tech industry business revealed that 93% of the participants gave one or more examples coded as either supportive or inhibiting behavior by an immediate boss. It also became clear that immediate supervisors influenced followers' voice perceptions by effectively or ineffectively serving as intermediaries between employees and top leaders. This study revealed the strong effect of immediate supervisor on employee voice. Employee perceptions of how the immediate supervisor manages employee voice predict the likelihood that the employee will voice upward. A supervisor who is perceived by subordinates as a person who makes consistent, accurate, and reversible decisions, is fair and unbiased in reaching decisions, is easy to approach, encourages participation by all employees, manages employee voice in a timely manner,

and is not retributive to employees who voice would lead employees who are more likely to voice (Saunders et al., 1992).

Top management has the power to shape the organizational structure and policies. Milliken and Morrison (2000) suggested that senior executives may have different views and beliefs on the value of employee input. Executives with a fear of receiving negative feedback from subordinates, having strong confidence that management knows the best about most issues of organizational importance, or holding pessimistic beliefs about the nature of employees (such as employees are self-interested and untrustworthy) are most likely to promote that consensus is a sign of organizational health, whereas disagreement and dissent should be avoided. Companies with such executives might be characterized with centralized decision making and lack of formal upward communication channels. On the contrary, senior managers who value employee input and believe that multiple points of view relates positively to decision quality and to subsequent organizational performance are going to structure the organization with formal upward information channels and de-centralized decision making. Such organizations will be more successful in eliciting honest upward communication throughout the organization.

Authentic leaders objectively analyze relevant data and explore others' opinions before making a decision, they are clear and open about their perspectives and receptive to differing views, their actions are consistent with their expressed values and ethical standards, and they communicate openly and honestly with others (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumba, 2005; Wong, Laschinger, and Cummings, 2010). Consequently, authentic leaders are able to develop trust-based relationships with their subordinates and make them feel comfortable in their roles and so have the potential to enhance the necessary conditions for employee voice. Therefore, managerial authenticity would be a potential source of encouraging follower voice within the organization.

Since authentic leadership research is relatively young and has drawn the interest of researchers in recent years, it is critical to address the conceptual, theoretical and

practical boundaries of the construct before proposing the related hypothesis on employee voice.

The concept of *authenticity* (the idea of "being true to oneself, not others") has pulled significant attention in post-Enron times. Although the word *"authenticity"* has its roots in the ancient Greece as "authentikos" (one who acts independently) multiple meanings of authenticity have been historically examined in philosophy and psychology literature. While philosophical approaches shed the light on individual virtues and ethical choices; the focus of psychology was on individual traits/states and identities. Philosophical meanings of authenticity were explored through leadership studies in 1960's and more recently psychological meanings of the concept were debated in terms of authenticity and pseudo-authenticity of transformational leaders (Erickson, 1995; Harter, 2002). Recently, a growing body of authenticity studies has been observed to be involved with a developmental perspective that emphasizes positive organizational context on the one hand, and self-awareness and self-determination of leaders on the other (Novicevic, Harvey, Buckley, Brown, and Evans, 2006). The ideas originating from humanistic psychology provided the intellectual ground for contemplating about authentic leadership development (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). The recent anthology about authentic leadership development based upon the Inaugural Summit hosted by the Gallup Leadership Institute at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 2004 has increased interest in authenticity. Besides, The Leadership Quarterly Journal published a special issue on authentic leadership development which can be seen as a reflection of the interest in this field (2005).

Before addressing the research findings on authentic leadership and hypothesizing the relationship with voice, a wide spectrum of authentic leadership definitions are presented for the benefit of the readers.

Harter's (2002) definition of authenticity implies that "one acts in accord with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings" (p. 382).

Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May (2004) define authentic leaders as "those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character" (cited from Avolio and Gardner, 2005; p. 321).

Luthans and Avolio (2003) defined the construct of *authentic leadership* in organizations as "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (p.243). Authentic leaders are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and they give priority to developing employees to become leaders.

Kernis (2003) identified four core elements of authenticity; *self-awareness, unbiased processing, relation authenticity, and authentic behavior/action*. Although research from the field of cognitive psychology suggests that human beings are biased information processors, Avolio and Gardner (2005) preferred to use *"balanced processing"* as opposed to "*unbiased processing"*. Instead of arguing that authentic leaders and their followers are free from bias, they put emphasis on utilizing multiple perspectives through a relatively balanced process while assessing information. Similarly, they preferred to use *relational transparency* which sounds more descriptive than relation authenticity and pointed out close information sharing between the leader and the followers. Avolio and Gardner's (2005) model dedicated greater attention to various aspects of leader and follower self-awareness (e.g., values, emotions, goals, and motives) and to the relationship between achievement of sustainable performance and follower outcomes such as trust, engagement, well-being.

Michie and Gooty (2005) emphasized the impact of values and emotions on leader authenticity and proposed that positive other-directed emotions, such as gratitude and

appreciation will motivate authentic leaders to behave in accordance with self-transcendent values such as honesty, loyalty, and equality. They proposed that authentic leadership involves transparency, altruistic actions, and behavioral consistency.

According to Shamir and Eilam (2005), authentic leadership requires a heightened level of self-awareness. They have addressed four key characteristics of authentic leaders: (1) authentic leaders are true to themselves, (2) authentic leaders are motivated not to attain status or personal benefits; but are motivated by personal convictions, (3) authentic leaders lead from their own personal point of view, and (4) the actions of authentic leaders are based on their personal values.

Luthans and Avolio (2003) identified the positive psychological capacities of confidence, optimism, hope, and resilience as personal resources of the authentic leader and stated that when a positive organizational context triggers these capacities, heightened self-awareness and self-regulatory behaviors occur. Avolio and Gardner (2005) proposed that self-awareness is not a final destiny but is an emerging state which continues to develop as leaders become more aware of their unique talents, strengths, sense of purpose, core values, beliefs and desires.

May, Chan, Hodges, and Avolio (2003) provided an extensive discussion of the *moral/ethical* component and proposed that authentic leaders follow an ethical and moral decision making process by developing and sticking to moral capacity, courage, and resilience to address ethical issues and display authentic actions. Authentic leaders align their values with their intentions and actions through self-regulation and make their values, motives and goals transparent to followers. Authentic leaders "lead by example" as they perform transparent decision making, demonstrate confidence, optimism, hope and resilience, and express consistency between their words and actions (Avolio and Gardner, 2005).

In sum, authentic leadership characteristics can be grouped under three dimensions; *transparency* (Avolio et al., 2004), *altruistic actions* (Michie and Gooty, 2005), *behavioral consistency* (Gardner et al., 2005).

Transparency refers to open articulation of one's beliefs, values, and attitudes. Another term used in the literature is *relational transparency* which involves engaging in open communication and disclosing information about the self (Gardner et al., 2005). The construct also involves transparent articulation by leaders about their own weaknesses and limitations (Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang, 2005; May et al., 2003).

Altruistic action refers to prosocial behaviors, expression of selfless service, in the best interest of followers and other stakeholders. Treating others with respect and a fair manner, giving up self-interest for the benefit of the group, and remaining open to other people's ideas are typical altruistic behaviors of authentic leaders (Michie and Gooty, 2005).

Behavioral consistency refers to aligning actions with stated beliefs, values, and attitudes. Authentic actions are guided by the leaders' true self as opposed to environmental contingencies or pressures from others (Gardner et al., 2005). Illies et al. (2005) suggested that personal integrity is a core characteristic of authentic leadership. Shamier and Eilam (2005) stated that authentic leadership involves behaving in ways that are consistent with one's self concept.

After reviewing the existing literature, Gardner et al. (2005) proposed a theoretical frame for authentic leadership involving four components; (1) *self-awareness, (2) balanced processing, (3) relational transparency,* and *(4) ethical/moral conduct*. In the present study, Gardner et al.'s (2005) model as explained below will be used for the operational definition of leadership authenticity.

Avolio and Gardner (2005) define *self-awareness* as "understanding own talents, strengths, sense of purpose, core values, beliefs and desires" (p. 324). Gardner et al. (2005)

noted that four characteristics of self-awareness that are especially related to authentic leadership development are values, cognitions regarding identity, emotions, and motives/goals. Self-awareness is related to self-clarity, self-views, and self-certainty. Authentic leaders are more likely than others to possess trustworthiness, integrity, credibility, respect for others, fairness, accountability as core personal identity images and they see themselves as positive role models for others (Gardner et al., 2005). Authentic leaders are also aware of their weaknesses and in order to compensate for their weaknesses, they choose to work with capable followers, and build a participative organizational climate where everyone can voice his/her opinions (Avolio and Gardner, 2005).

Balanced processing refers to what extent individuals objectively view information about themselves currently and in the future, and how they determine decisions (Avolio, 2007). It involves unbiased collection and interpretation of self-related information. Authentic leaders neither exaggerate nor ignore the reality. They use balanced processing of self-relevant and other information when they reach perceptions about themselves and others. Avolio and Gardner (2005) suggested that "because they assess the information in a relatively balanced manner, they are able to consider multiple sides of an issue and multiple perspectives" (p.317).

Relational transparency indicates that the leader is trustworthy, shows openness, and displays self-disclosure in his/her relationships. The model developed by Gardner et al. (2005) predicts that authentic leaders develop authentic followers who experience trust, integrity, and commitment to core ethical values in their relationships with the leader (reciprocal relationship). As leaders' self-awareness and self-acceptance increase, leaders become more transparent in communicating their values, identity, emotions, goals, and motives to others. They display positive models for their followers through their actions, words, emotions, motives, goals, values, and concern for followers' growth and development.

Ethical/moral conduct refers to what degree the leader sets a high standard for moral and ethical conduct for his/her decisions and behaviors (Gardner et al., 2005). Authentic leaders' actions are not displayed as a reaction to external forces or expectations but are internally driven and aligned with their values. Authentic leaders demonstrate the discipline to convert core values into consistent actions such that they say what they mean and mean what they say, thereby they are able to manage tensions and confront conflicts between their personal values and organizational responsibilities (Zamahani, Ghorbani, and Rezaei, 2011).

2.3.2. Authentic Leadership and Other Leadership Styles

As presented in the previous section, although the word "authenticity" has a long history starting from ancient Greece, authentic leadership development is a relatively young area of research in the organizational behavior literature. Avolio and Gardner (2005) contrasted authentic leadership with other forms of leadership (transformational, charismatic, servant, and spiritual leadership) in order to address the unique nature of the new emerging leadership construct. A full spectrum review of different leadership styles to date is beyond the scope of this dissertation. In this section, authentic leadership is briefly compared and contrasted with other basic positive leadership styles.

Several researchers have suggested that authentic leadership is a root construct that underlies all existing positive leadership patterns (e.g. Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Avolio et al., 2004; Gardner et al., 2005; and May et al., 2003). On the other hand, another group of researchers proposed that there needs to be a clear distinction between authentic leadership and other leadership styles and approaches (Cooper, Scandura, and Schriesheim, 2005). Shamir and Eilam (2005) suggested that "to be distinctive and useful, the term authentic leadership has to draw attention to aspects of leadership that have not been strongly emphasized by other leadership terms and models" (p.396). More empirical research is needed to determine whether these distinctions can be made (Cooper et al., 2005).

Avolio and Gardner (2005) proposed that authentic leadership is a "root construct" and effective leaders can perform authentic leadership without necessarily adopting transformational, charismatic, servant, spiritual or other forms of positive leadership. Like other positive leadership approaches, authentic leadership theory also shed light on leader and follower self-awareness/regulation, positive psychological capital, and the moderating role of positive organizational climate. The key distinction between authentic leadership and other positive leadership forms is that authentic leaders are anchored by their own deep sense of self and they convey messages to others not with their words but with their actions.

According to Avolio and Gardner (2005), authentic leadership is more similar to transformational leadership than to any other form of leadership. Wood (2007) stated that both transformational and authentic leadership styles involve sacrificing self-interest for the group (idealized influence), showing interest to follower well-being (individualized consideration), remaining open to other people's ideas (individualized consideration), and setting an example (inspirational motivation). Although there are several similarities between the two types of leadership styles, differences also exist. Transparency does not appear to overlap much with the behavioral dimensions of transformational leadership. Authentic leaders take action to develop follower well-being, while transformational leaders do not. On the top, transformational leaders do not necessarily exhibit behaviors typical of authentic leaders like altruism, ethical decision-making, considering all relevant stakeholders' views for the decision making process, treating others fairly, and treating others with respect (Wood, 2007).

Lagan (2007) stated that authentic leadership theory is not completely independent from transformational leadership theory. Components of authentic leadership theory display similarity with the components of transformational leadership to a great extent. For instance, both authentic leaders and transformational leaders focus on leader/follower self-awareness, positive psychological capital, the facilitating role of positive organizational context, and both leaders are addressed as being positive and hopeful**.** The moral component of the authentic leadership theory, on the other hand, may be the strongest

critical distinction. Lagan's (2007) survey also proposed that charismatic leadership explained a smaller percentage of the variance in authentic leadership than transformational leadership.

Avolio and Gardner (2005) compared and contrasted authentic leadership with charismatic leadership and pointed out a significant conceptual difference between them. They proposed that authentic leaders will influence follower self-awareness of values/moral perspective through their individual character, personal example, and dedication. They are expected to energize followers by creating meaning and constructing a positive social reality for themselves and followers. A charismatic leader, however, will rely on inspirational appeals, influential presentations, or various forms of impression management (Gardner and Avolio, 1998) and benefit from rhetoric to persuade, influence, and mobilize followers.

The behavioral dimensions of transactional leadership, including initiating structure and active management by-exception, do not overlap with authentic leadership behavioral dimensions of transparency, altruism, and consistency (Wood, 2007). However, as Avolio and Gardner (2005) suggested, the two approaches do not contradict with each other and it is possible to witness a leader who is both authentic and transactional.

2.3.3. Key Findings on Authentic Leadership in Organizational Behavior Research

Since authentic leadership theory is an emerging leadership theory, before hypothesizing about the impact of leadership authenticity on employee voice, presenting the key findings related to authentic leadership practices based on existing organizational behavior research would be for the benefit of the readers.

Avolio et al. (2004) suggested that followers' satisfaction/engagement, commitment, sense of meaning, and motivation increase when leaders display transparency and behavioral consistency. Some researchers have argued that follower resilience is a unique outcome of authentic leadership (e.g., Krosgaard, Brodt, and Whitener, 2002).

Henderson and Hoy (1983) found a positive relationship between perceptions of leader integrity (behavioral consistency) and follower morale. Jensen and Luthans (2006) predicted a significant and positive relationship between employee perceptions of authentic leadership and employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work happiness. Follower trust has been linked to leader transparency and behavioral consistency (Avolio et al., 2004; Çeri Booms, 2009; Gardner et al., 2005). Other outcomes include authentic followers (Gardner, et al., 2005), follower well-being (Illies et al., 2005; Lagan, 2007), affective commitment (Lagan, 2007), and veritable, sustained performance (Avolio et al., 2004). Therefore, it may be concluded that authenticity is associated with several follower and organizational-level outcomes.

Cameron (2007) highlighted that there is a positive relationship between a leader's authentic leadership score given by a follower and a measure of follower's trust in one's leader. Norman (2006) suggested that both the leader's psychological capital (hope, optimism, efficacy, and resilience) and communication transparency impact followers' trust in and evaluation of effectiveness of the leader. An authentic leader is values-driven; when the leader is aware of and acts in accordance with values and the performed behaviors are consistent over time and across situations, the leader can positively influence follower trust levels.

According to Luthans and Avolio (2003), trustworthiness is an intrinsic feature of authentic leadership and can be viewed as an antecedent to authenticity. Perceived trust in the leader is expected to lead to higher levels of leader authenticity perception by the followers. As noted by Luthans and Avolio (2003), consistency, integrity, openness, promise keeping, and receptivity to suggestions are core components of authenticity.

Lagan (2007) emphasized that leaders seen as acting authentically were rated high on such behaviors as leading by example, empowering subordinates, and transparent action. Authentic leaders can be seen as role models by displaying self-awareness and moral

behaviors which may encourage followers to perform the same way and consequently increase the authenticity of the followers.

Wasti, Tan, Brower, and Önder (2007) claimed that when the leader is perceived to be trustworthy, followers will be inclined to show better organizational outcomes such as high performance and satisfaction and display lower turnover rates. Yoon and Suh (2003) found out that when employees demonstrated more trust in their managers, they exhibited more OCBs, especially in terms of two facets of OCB: sportsmanship and altruism. Ergeneli, Arı, and Metin (2007) suggested that trust in immediate supervisor makes work more meaningful and also enhances the self-efficacy of the followers. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) made a meta-analysis of 106 studies and analyzed the relationships between "trust in leader" and 23 different constructs. They found a significant and positive relationship between "trust in leader" and organizational commitment and belief in information provided by the leader. Çeri Booms (2009) reported that a leader who is transparent, ethical, consistent, and fair in his/her transactional actions, raises the trust levels of followers and "trust in leader" mediates the positive relationship between authentic leadership and follower organizational identification. Hofman (2007) noted that authentic leaders build confidence, trust, and benevolence in their employees by following an open communication policy, implementing open-door policy, developing task engagement, sharing relevant information with the organization, but most important of all, by sharing their own perceptions and feelings with the people with whom they work.

Whereas Luthans and Avolio (2003) proposed that trustworthiness is a prerequisite to authenticity, other studies (Çeri Booms, 2009; Hofman , 2007; and Lagan , 2007) revealed that trust is a consequence of authentic leadership practices implying that there is a reciprocal relationship between the two constructs.

Hassan and Ahmed's (2011) study confirmed the previously stated connection between authentic leadership and trust in leader-follower relationship and suggested that the higher the leadership authenticity, the more the followers develop positive attitudes

towards work and organization, e.g. engagement, loyalty, commitment, and willingness to achieve organizational goals and consider priorities.

Authentic leaders strive to understand themselves and better prepare for the future challenges, besides; by role modeling they try to help others do the same. Helping employees to better understand themselves and the organization through transparent decisions and processes fosters a positive and productive organizational climate (Luthans, 2002).

By using principles of reciprocity and value convergence, Ilies et al. (2005) suggested that authentic leaders establish positive social exchanges with their followers. They proposed that if leaders display unbiased processing of self-relevant information, personal integrity, and an authentic relational orientation, leader–follower relationships will be characterized by high levels of respect, positive affect, and trust.

Under an authentic leader, employees are more likely to obtain appreciation, recognition, and feelings of achievement (Avolio et al. 2004). These employees are then more likely to develop positive psychological capital (Hsiung, 2012).

2.3.4. Authentic Leadership and Employee Voice

Supervisor reactions are employees' greatest concern regarding voice behaviors. Since supervisors themselves are more or less accountable for organizational problems, they are likely to become the targets of criticism in the voice process (Hsiung, 2012). As supervisors hold most of the power and resources, they are more capable of changing policies and situations than ordinary employees (Detert and Burris, 2007). Therefore, when employees want to express their opinions, they must communicate with, or confront, their supervisors. Though leaders play important roles in the voice process, empirical studies on this topic are still emerging (e.g., Detert and Burris, 2007; Hsiung, 2012; Wong et al., 2010).

Knowledge related to attributes, antecedents, moderators, mediators, and performance consequences of authentic leadership is quite in an immature stage. Thus, due to commonalities between authentic leadership and other types of leadership; relevant findings about other forms of positive leadership approaches and employee voice are presented here for the purpose of hypothesis development.

Deter and Burris (2007) investigated the relationships between two types of change-oriented approaches (transformational leadership and managerial openness) and subordinate improvement-oriented voice. Findings from 3,149 employees and 223 managers in a restaurant chain indicated that controlling for numerous individual differences in subordinates' personality, satisfaction, and job demography; managerial openness (perception of subordinates that their boss listens to them, is interested in and fairly considers the ideas presented, and at least sometimes takes actions for the ideas discussed) was found to be the leader behavior most consistently related to subordinate voice. Subordinate perceptions of psychological safety mediated this positive relationship which refers to the importance of leaders for helping employees to feel secure and assume the risks of speaking up. These findings provide an insight that authentic leaders would be voice promoters since they perform balanced processing, implying that they consider others' input while making a decision which would help to create an openness perception.

Beyond specific positive leadership behaviors, the overall perceived quality of the relationship between a leader and a subordinate is found to be positively related to voice while abusive supervision is found to be negatively correlated with voice (Burris et al., 2008). Saunders et al. (1992) addressed the importance of employee perceptions of "how their managers manage voice" which is a critical factor reflecting the likelihood to "voice upward". The researchers also suggested that employees who feel that their managers are approachable and responsive to employee voice would be more likely to voice upwards than employees who are uncertain about their managers' responsiveness and approachability. Approachability and responsiveness of supervisors are likely to influence

whether an employee perceives the benefit of speaking up exceeds its costs, and his voice will be considered seriously (Landau, 2009a).

Botero and Van Dyne (2009) suggested that supervisor-subordinate relationship quality (leader-member exchange; LMX) is positively related with voice. Employees in high LMX relationships were more engaged in expressing constructive ideas, information, and opinions to suggest ways for facilitating improvement at work. Van Dyne, Joireman, and Kamdar's (2008) study confirmed the positive relationship between high quality LMX and voice relationship and the results showed that when voice was perceived as an in-role behavior, the LMX-voice relationship became stronger. Authentic leadership behaviors are expected to help to create a mutually trusted, respectful, and linking relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate which would increase the quality of LMX with more opportunities to speak and exchange information as well as ideas, and will aid employees to have direct communication with their supervisors.

Authentic leaders can make a significant impact on organizations by helping subordinates find meaning and connection at work through increasing self-awareness; by fostering optimism, confidence, and hope; by promoting transparency in relations and decision making that builds up mutual trust and commitment among subordinates; and by reinforcing participative structures and positive ethical climates (Avolio and Gardner, 2005).

According to Zhu, May, and Avolio (2004), in order to be authentic, leaders need to ensure that their actions are consistent with both their rhetoric and intentions. Consistency of actions with moral principles creates a substantial effect in terms of building mutual trust between subordinates and the leader. Authentic leaders give up their self-interests and focus on what is good for the group. Such leaders transparently involve all stakeholders in the decision making process and show a sincere respect to individuals' right to autonomy.

Wong and Cummings (2009) proposed that authentic leadership may be accepted as the core of effective management for building trust in management due to its vital focus on positive role modeling of honesty, integrity, and high ethical standards in leader-follower interactions. Their study with health care employees suggested that supportive leader behavior and trust in management are necessary for employees to be willing to voice concerns and offer suggestions to improve workplace and patient care. Moreover, their findings revealed a positive relationship between authentic leadership (relational transparency, balanced processing, and ethical behavior) and employee voice.

Authentic leaders influence their followers through several processes like encouraging identification, presenting positive models, supporting self-determination, and making positive social exchanges. Gardner et al. (2005) proposed that under such conditions, followers develop greater clarity about their values, identities, and emotions and in return, move to balanced information processing, transparent relations with the leader, and display of authentic behaviors. Consequently, an authentic relationship between the leader and the follower emerges which is characterized by open and positive exchanges, convergence of values, and development of shared/common goals.

Authentic leaders who are aware of their own strengths and weaknesses are more likely to accept their limitations in problem solving and decision making. Such leaders are more willing to welcome subordinates' inputs, and may even encourage employees to challenge their deeply held positions (Gardner et al., 2005). Authentic leaders strive to build transparent relationships within organizations and try to balance diversified and discrete information. These acts cultivate trust in employees, allowing them to share information openly, and express their true thoughts and feelings (Kernis, 2003).

Voice behavior sometimes represents an attempt to challenge the existing power structure and social routines implying that while it may be beneficial for the organization, it often involves risks and costs for individuals. Authentic leaders acknowledge their personal limitations and shortcomings, and are therefore less likely to adopt a defensive

attitude about organizational problems. They are more willing to accept discrepant viewpoints and welcome group member participation (Hsiung, 2012).

Without moral and ethical beliefs, employees may not have enough courage to speak up and take the associated risk of speaking up. Authentic leadership theory stresses the idea of leading by example (Avolio et al., 2004) and through role modeling and the process of social influence, authentic leaders' high moral standards, honesty, and integrity can affect employee beliefs and value systems (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). When organizations meet problems and challenges, employees will treat organizational welfare as an important concern, instead of focusing only on their personal benefits and risks.

Hsiung (2012) investigated the psychological process of how authentic leadership affects employee voice behaviors. The study was done with the sales personnel of a large real estate agent company in Taiwan. Multi-level data from 70 work groups of a real estate agent company suggested that authentic leadership was positively related to employee voice. The study also suggested that employee positive mood and leader–member exchange (LMX) quality mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and voice behavior, while the procedural justice climate moderated the mediation effects of positive mood and LMX quality.

Wong et al. (2010) proposed that authentic leadership and trust in the leader play an important role in terms of fostering trust, work engagement, voice behavior, and perceived quality of care. The study which was conducted with nurses in Canada suggested a significant and positive relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice.

Thus, the following hypothesis has been developed:

Hypothesis 2: Authentic leadership contributes positively to voice behavior.

2.4. ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

2.4.1. Concept Definition and Key Findings

Despite the bulk of studies indicating the potential benefits of organizational identification (OI), after long years of discussion in the academic arena, there is still significant disagreement about the nature, meaning, and measurement of OI. Ashforth and Mael (1989) define OI as "a specific form of social identification" which is one of the components of self-image and "the perception of oneness with or belongingness to the organization" (p.22). They suggested that the individual's social identity may be derived not only from the organization, but also from his or her work group, department, union, lunch group, age cohort, and so on. Edwards (2005) stated that OI involves a significant psychological linkage between the individual and the organization, whereby "the individual feels a deep, self-defining affective and cognitive bond with the organization as a social entity" (p.227).

Edwards and Peccei (2007) conceptualized OI with three subcomponents; (a) self-categorization and labeling, (b) sharing organizational goals and values, and (c) sense of attachment, belonging and membership to the organization. They proposed to combine these subcomponents into an aggregate construct since their analyses revealed high inter-correlations between the components.

OI is related with positive and desired consequences both for organizations and individuals. Examples are higher well-being, job satisfaction, and productivity (Gautam, Van Dick, and Wagner, 2004), higher affective commitment (Coşkun, 2007; Melikoğlu, 2009), lower turnover intention (Harris and Cameron, 2005), and more organizational citizenship behavior (Van Dick, Ullrich, and Tissington, 2006).

Cheung and Law (2008) proposed that identification is positively related with employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values the contributions of employees and cares about their well-being. OI is positively related with

length of service within the organization and negatively related with the size of the organization (Almonaitiené, 2007).

Positive employee attitudes display a positive relationship with OI. Ötken and Erben (2010), for instance, suggested that the more employees identify themselves with their organization, the more they are engaged to work. They claimed that sense of oneness with the organization and being attracted by organizational values and goals enable employees to find their job more meaningful, purposeful, and challenging.

Individuals who hold strong organizational identification care for the well-being and interest of their organization and are more likely to be engaged to go the extra mile on behalf of the organization. Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, and Wieseke (2006) used a multi-sample approach to investigate whether the relationship between identification and OCB is substantial and generalizes across different cultural settings as well as different occupational groups. Their study with ten different samples revealed a positive and significant relationship. Thus, employees who were more strongly identified with their organizations were also more likely to go the extra mile on behalf of their organization and to put in extra effort to help their colleagues. Identified employees can be influenced to buy organizational goals and activities which may motivate them to own the goals and feel organizational interest as their self-interest, and consequently, they can be expected to work harder to help achieving these goals (Edwards, 2005; Van Knippenberg and Sleebos, 2006). Identified employees tend to have better member adjustment, thus, they become integrated with and fit in the professional and social system of the organization they identify themselves with (Carmeli, Gilat, and Waldman, 2007).

Harris and Cameron (2005) noted that affective commitment (employees' emotional attachment to the organization) and identification are conceptually related and suggested that highly identified employees tended to be the more committed ones. Burris et al. (2008) suggested that employees who are psychologically attached (display high affective commitment) to the organization speak up more, whereas those who are

psychologically detached (who demonstrate intention to leave) speak up less. Moreover, high quality leader-member interaction was found to influence employee voice through psychological attachment.

Smidts, Pruyn, and van Riel (2001) stated that adequacy of information sharing in an organization influences perceived communication climate (openness, participation, and supportiveness) in a positive way. An open climate in which participation is encouraged may increase the feeling of being as part of the group and the experience of being considered seriously and being listened to may create feelings of self-worth (Nakra, 2006). Perceived communication climate, on the other hand, affects employees' organizational identification. Melikoğlu (2009) found that the quantity and quality of vertical communication in an organization is positively related with organizational identification. Bartels, Pruyn, de Jong, and Joustra (2007) suggested that communication climate correlates with identification at various organizational levels and has the strongest link with identification at the daily work group level and a relatively weak connection with being identified to the organization as a whole.

Sluss and Ashforth (2008) proposed that employee's identification with the supervisor (relationship identification) may be converted to subordinate's organizational identification (OI) through cognitive, affective, and behavioral mechanisms. OI establishment relies on the interaction amongst the members of the organization. Repeated interactions would lead to mutual understanding of values, mutual trust, and identification. Perceived trustworthiness of the supervisor and trust behavior of employees are positively correlated with OI (Tseng, T. Chen, and F. Chen, 2005). Katrinli, Atabay, Günay, and Güneri's (2008) survey with Turkish nurse participants suggested a significant positive relationship between the quality of leader and subordinate exchange and OI.

As Michie and Gooty (2005) noted, authentic leaders perform pro-social behaviors and expression of selfless service, in the best interest of followers and other stakeholders. Treating others with respect and a fair manner, sacrificing self-interest for the group, and

remaining open to other people's ideas are expected to reinforce mutual trust between the leader and the follower. Once employees achieve a high level of identification, they will own the problems of the organization and look for improvement opportunities**.**

Transformational leaders create a sense of empowerment (delegation of responsibility to followers, encouraging them to come up with new ideas etc.) which affects followers' personal identification with the leader and their social identification with the group (Kark, Shamir, and Chen, 2003). Barroso Castro, Villegas Perinan, and Casillas Bueno (2008) concluded that transformational leadership is related to affective commitment. They addressed that psychological empowerment mediates the positive relationship between transformational relationship and commitment. Leaders who wish to enhance positive employee attitudes should be capable of creating enthusiasm about organizational goals, fostering internalization of goals, creating a sense of choice and impact, and making employees feel that they are participants in the progress of the organization.

Transactional leadership practices are also positively related with identification (İşcan, 2006). Higher levels of identification are expected to be related with positive consequences such as higher levels of self-esteem, organization based self-efficacy, and collective efficacy. Van Dick, Hirst, Grojean, and Wieseke (2007) explored the effect of the leader on identification by addressing the interaction between leaders' identification and followers' identification. Their study suggested that leaders as role models have impact on followers, and leaders who are identified with the organization will tend to internalize organizational goals and values. Consequently, identified leaders will focus on realizing collective goals even under the absence of personal benefits which would help followers to strive for collective interest. Identified followers, on the other hand, will be more likely to follow their leaders and go the extra mile for the benefit of the organization.

2.4.2. The Moderating Role of Organizational Identification

In this section, the expected moderating role of OI between the independent variables of participative climate and authentic leadership and the dependent variable of voice will be clarified.

The literature presents studies which demonstrate the role of organizational identification as a moderator. Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008a), for instance, explored the moderating effect of organizational identification and suggested that personal control (autonomy and impact) and voice relationship is U shaped. At low levels of personal control, participant voice was operative to off-set the negative feelings of low control and at high personal control levels, voice was based on and driven by the expectancy to influence organizational results successfully. Organizational identification had no main effect on voice but interacted with personal control and moderated the relationship between personal control and voice. That is, when personal control was low, voice was lower for employees with stronger identification, and when personal control was high, voice was higher for employees with stronger identification.

In a study by Lipponen et al. (2008), it was found that OI moderated the relationship between openness to change and suggestion making. Results were valid both for self-ratings and supervisor ratings of suggestion making. The authors suggested a stronger positive relation between valuing openness to change and suggestion making at work amongst individuals who identified with the organization when compared with individuals who did not identify with the organization.

Smidts et al. (2001) reported that organizational climate emerges from common and shared perceptions of individuals within the organization. Through formal and regular information sharing regarding goals, targets, and achievements of the organization and encouraging employee input in decision making processes, an organization would reinforce a positive participative climate perception. Information sharing efforts would help employees to have a better understanding of goals, values, and achievements of the

organization as well as future challenges and selected concentration areas. Above all, participative decision making process may encourage employees to participate actively in discussions and assume an active role in forming judgments. However, in organizations which prefer a centralized decision making process or where employees feel that it is not worth to speak up because the organization does not reinforce to do so, individuals might be discouraged to voice on key organizational issues. Therefore, the first hypothesis of the study which assumed a positive relationship between participative climate and voice was suggested.

Since identified employees display intrinsic motivation to put extra mile on behalf of the organization and own organizational goals and challenges as their personal priority, better understanding of the goals and objectives of the organization as well as a positive perception regarding the receptivity of management for employee involvement is expected to be an enabler for identified employees to voice their thoughts on organizational issues. However, an employee who is weakly identified with the organization would be more concentrated on his/her personal agenda, stay indifferent to what is going on or seem reluctant to voice on the organizational issues to avoid any possible negative consequences of challenging the status quo.

Thus, the following hypothesis has been developed:

Hypothesis 3a: Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high.

Since authentic leaders are more willing to share information, express their internal feelings and thoughts, and endeavor to build transparent decision mechanisms, they can obtain more trust, loyalty, and identification from their employees (Avolio et al., 2004). Furthermore, their high moral standard, integrity, and honesty help them to develop reciprocal and long-term exchange relationships with followers. Consequently, the leader and follower will be treating each other as close partners. In order to promote trust it may

be beneficial for managers to emphasize the four components of authentic leadership, specifically behaviors such as sharing information, being open and truthful in dealing with staff, soliciting feedback from staff, involving them in decision-making, and highlighting the ethical standards behind decision processes and outcomes. Managers who have insight into their core values, are willing to portray them openly, and demonstrate how their ethical standards underpin the decisions they make communicate integrity and transparency (Wong et al., 2010). By promoting trust, authentic leaders will encourage employees to voice their ideas and opinions as the perceived risk of speaking up will be reduced. Since voice behavior is a kind of extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks, 1995), it requires an impetus or driving force. Thus, the presence of an authentic leader is expected to facilitate employees' willingness to express opinions. Therefore, the second hypothesis of the study which assumed a positive relationship between authentic leadership and voice was suggested.

An authentic leader who is able to create a relationship based on mutual trust will be perceived by the followers as being dependable, fair, ethical, and truthful. When the followers have trust in their authentic leaders, they do not need to focus on self-protection or cover their backs. Since highly identified employees tend to internalize organizational goals and values, and are more likely to be motivated to obtain higher-level organizational outcomes, they will dedicate more time and energy to organizational goals when they are supervised by authentic leaders. Besides, authentic leaders demonstrate transparent decision making, confidence, optimism, hope, resilience, and their words are consistent with their actions. Such behaviors will eliminate ambiguity and promote consistency within the organization. Highly identified employees are ready for sacrificing their personal interests and putting organizational benefits on the top of their agendas. If employees with high identification are guided by an authentic leader who is ethical, fair, honest, and transparent, they will be motivated to accept the directions set by the leader without questioning, own organizational problems, and go for the extra mile for the benefit of the organization. When a highly identified follower and an authentic leader work together, since both parties focus on collective goals and sacrifice their personal interests' for the sake of achieving

organizational results, the quality of the interaction between them is expected to be high. In such a situation, the followers would think that the potential benefit of voice behavior to organizational effectiveness will outperform the risk of challenging the status quo. Consequently, as Burris et al. (2008) suggested, high quality leader-member interaction would increase the voice propensity of the followers. On the other hand, an authentic leader would fail to develop a high quality leader-member interaction with employees who display a low level of identification since the followers' agendas would be on personal issues rather than organizational concerns and priorities. As a result, the authentic leader would not be able to activate employees who demonstrate low identification to voice on organizational issues.

Thus, the following hypothesis has been developed:

Hypothesis 3b: Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high.

2.5. PERSONALITY

2.5.1. Concept Definition and Key Findings

Personality in the organizational behavior literature has been the focus of a wide area of research interest such as; need-for-independence and responses to participative decision making (e.g., Abdel-Halim, 1983), proactive personality and career success (e.g. Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, and Crant, 2001), personality and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997), proactive personality and proactive behavior (e.g., Crant, 2000), and leader- member exchange (LMX) and internal locus of control (K. Harris, R. Harris, and Eplion, 2007).

After decades of research on personality, although articles have appeared in the literature suggesting that the construct is too heterogeneous and incomplete (e.g., Hough, 1992), a general consensus has been observed to exist on a general taxonomy of personality

traits. The "Big Five" personality dimensions as reported by Barrick and Mount (1991) have been validated across different cultures, occupations, rating sources, and measures. The Big Five taxonomy does not imply that personality differences can be reduced to only five traits but represents personality at the broadest level of abstraction and each dimension includes a large number of more specific personality dimensions (John and Srivastava, 1999). One problem is the perception that "there is no single Big Five" and some variations from one study to another are observed in terms of the labels. However, as John and Srivastava (1999) suggested, researchers' preferences about labeling the dimensions do not necessarily mean that the factor contents are different.

Since labels of the Big Five might change from one study to another, it is worth to note that in this study, the label of the Big Five as called "OCEAN" is used. The label is suggested by John and Srivastava (1999), including the first letters of the dimensions as; Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism.

In the organizational behavior literature, the Big Five personality traits have been studied in relation to dispositional coping (e.g., Roesch, Wee, and Vaughn, 2006), impression management tactics (e.g., Tabak, Basım, Tatar, and Çetin, 2010), cultural intelligence–the capacity to deal with cultural diversity (e.g., Ang, Van Dyne, and Koh, 2006), task-based and relation-based group acceptance (e.g., Joardar and Matthews, 2010), explicit social motives of achievement, power and affiliation (e.g., Engeser and Langens, 2010), ethical leader behavior (e.g., Kalshoven, Den Hartog, and de Hoogh, 2011), job performance (e.g., Barrick and Mount, 1991; Mount, Barrick, and Stewart, 1998), contextual performance (e.g., Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001), proactive behavior (e.g., Bateman and Crant, 1993), and team-oriented proactivity (e.g. Hirschfeld, Jordan, Thomas, and Feild, 2008).

In studies of job performance (e.g., Barrick and Mount, 1991; Mount et al., 1998), the Big Five dimensions have been found tobe related to important outcomes in the

workplace. Conscientiousness has emerged as the only general predictor of job performance, while other dimensions are related to more specific aspects of job performance. For example, Agreeableness and Neuroticism predict performance in jobs where employees work in groups, whereas Extraversion predicts success in sales and management positions. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) suggested that both task performance and contextual performance contribute to overall performance and proposed that personality variables had a higher correlation with contextual performance than task performance. Personality traits affect contextual performance through their effects on contextual knowledge, skills, and habits. Individuals with high extraversion and agreeableness traits will be more likely to have contextual knowledge which is the knowledge of facts, principles and procedures for effective action for collaborating with others and providing help when needed. Similarly, highly extrovert and highly agreeable individuals will be more likely to have skills for carrying out effective actions for helping others and coordinating with them. Contextual work habits which are patterns of responses enabling effective performance for contextual work situations seem to be mostly associated with high extraversion and high agreeableness on the part of employees (Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmidt, 1997).

Hirschfeld et al. (2008) conceptualized team-oriented proactivity as a propensity to "make things better" in a team by assuming a significant workload, making exceptional task contributions, and helping others perform in better ways (p. 388) and proposed that team-oriented proactivity is positively related with extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience.

After presenting the key research findings about personality with a focus on the Big Five, each component of the construct will be briefly described. Big Five personality dimensions display significant relationships with voice, thus, these findings will also be reported in this section.

Extraversion implies an energetic approach toward the social and material world and involves traits such as sociability, activity, assertiveness, and positive emotionality (John and Srivastava, 1999). Barrick and Mount (1991) defined extroverts as being sociable, gregarious, talkative, assertive, and active. They concluded that extroverts are good in interacting with others, and are more comfortable as well as better skilled in communicating their thoughts. Karkoulian and Osman (2009) described extraversion as one's ease with relationships and proposed that extroverts are more likely to be friendly, sociable, confident, and outgoing, while introverts are reserved, quiet, shy, and distant.

Bateman and Crant (1993) defined proactive behavior as a dispositional construct that addresses differences among individuals in terms of the extent to which they act to influence their environment. They proposed that proactive behavior disposition is positively related with extraversion. Voice behavior which can be seen as a proactive behavior that involves risk taking incorporates an attempt to challenge the status quo**.** As such, it requires willingness to speak up and be counted. Since extroverts will be less inhibited by conformity pressures, they will be more willing to express change-oriented opinions. Research findings confirmed this suggestion. Le Pine and Van Dyne (2001) studied the effects of the Big Five dimensions on voice behavior and concluded that the more extroverted were the participants the more likely were they engaged in voice behavior (r=.36).

Agreeableness involves a prosocial and communal orientation and includes traits like altruism, trust, and modesty (John and Srivastava, 1999). Traits such as being courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, and tolerant are also associated with this dimension (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Karkoulian and Osman, 2009). Agreeable individuals are warm, likeable, emotionally supportive, and nurturing (Ang et al., 2006). Agreeableness demonstrates how individuals can relate to others, and how considerate they are of others' opinions and feelings. Without agreeableness, individuals tend to be cold and aggressive. Hirschfeld et al. (2008) addressed a significant positive relationship between agreeableness and individual perceptions of team cohesion.

Because agreeable people value cooperation, seek out group cohesion, and conform to norms, they are not expected to create disputes and upset interpersonal relationships. Compliance with rules, not arguing with others, and maintenance of social harmony are the key motives of highly agreeable individuals. Actors who are engaged in voice behavior must be change oriented, willing to risk upsetting the status quo, and inclined to harm group cohesion at least in the short term. Highly agreeable individuals may tend to go along with suggestions made by others and prefer "fine with me" approach. Consequently, they leave in peace and support the status quo. Mushonga and Torance (2008) noted that highly agreeable individuals seek to establish meaningful relations with others and are more likely to be resistant to any changes and suggested initiatives. Confirming these suggestions**,** Le Pine and Van Dyne (2001) found a negative correlation between agreeableness and voice (r=-.16)

Conscientiousness refers to socially prescribed impulse control and is the source of task and goal-directed behaviors like thinking before acting, following norms and rules, planning, and prioritizing tasks (John and Srivastava, 1999). It involves behaviors associated with a strong sense of purpose, obligation, and persistence. Highly conscientious individuals are achievement-oriented and dependable. They have traits such as being planned, organized, persistent, hardworking, careful, thorough, and responsible (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Existing research revealed a positive relationship between conscientiousness and citizenship performance (e.g., Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001). The positive relationship is also significant for supervisor-rated OCB (Hattrup, O'Connell, and Wingate, 1998; Organ and Ryan, 1995). Research has shown that conscientiousness predicts more proactive behavior (Bateman and Crant, 1993), higher levels of altruism (Konovsky and Organ, 1996), and volunteering for extra work (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994).

Voice behavior requires that individuals spend effort for speaking up and expressing suggestions that they might have. If individuals are dependable, they feel responsible and are more likely to make such investment. Those who are conscientious tend

to be achievement-oriented and are more willing to be engaged in communication for conveying ideas with an intention to improve the situation. They also display persistency about making sure that their ideas are understood within the organization. Mushonga and Torance (2008) noted that conscientious individuals have the courage to challenge the authority and are more likely to speak up when they feel that the leader or the organization is losing sight of the organization's mission and goals. Le Pine and Van Dyne's (2001) laboratory study revealed a positive relationship between voice behavior and conscientiousness (r=.26), providing evidence for the above mentioned assumptions.

Neuroticism is the opposite of emotional stability and is characterized by negative emotions, such as feeling anxious, nervous, sad, and tense (John and Srivastava, 1999). Barrick and Mount (1991) reported that common traits associated with this factor include being anxious, depressed, angry, embarrassed, emotional, worried, and insecure. Karkoulian and Osman (2009) studied individuals' ability to resist stress and proposed that individuals scoring low on emotional stability (highly neurotic ones) are more likely to be worried, nervous, depressed, and insecure. Their study also indicated a negative relationship between neuroticism and interpersonal trust. Highly neurotic individuals tend to perceive ordinary situations as threatening and difficult. They are fearful and do not trust others easily.

When individuals engage in voice behavior, they draw attention to themselves. Being the center of attention requires a stable disposition and a low level of insecurity and fear. Individuals who are insecure or easily embarrassed may hesitate to speak up and express ideas for change. Employees who are emotionally stable (low in neuroticism), on the other hand, will be capable of making suggestions for change because they do not feel helpless (i.e., they believe that they can influence the situation) and have higher levels of self-worth. This reasoning is consistent with prior research that found a positive relationship between self-esteem and voice behavior (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998) and a negative relationship (r=-12) between neuroticism and voice (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001).

Finally, *Openness to Experience* refers to the breadth, originality, and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life (John and Srivastava, 1999). As Barrick and Mount (1991) noted, this dimension has been the most difficult to identify. This dimension is the least understood aspect of personality in the literature on the Big Five model (Digman, 1990). Ang et al. (2006) cited that research findings about openness to experience are related to few job outcomes and the findings are quite unexpected. Inconsistent and limited findings related to this personality dimension suggest that further examination is warranted. Traits commonly associated with openness to experience include being imaginative, cultured, curious, original, broad-minded, intelligent, and artistically sensitive (Barrick and Mount, 1991). As Karkoulian and Osman (2009) noted, openness to experience deals with one's attraction to, and interest in new things. Highly open individuals are sensitive, imaginative, inquisitive, and creative. Those low in terms of openness to experience are conservative and are more comfortable with familiar environments.

Individuals high in openness to experience should be willing to consider divergent opinions and different perspectives. They tend to feel pleasant about new experiences and would actively seek opportunities to learn new things; they value change. Voice behavior is basically change oriented and thus places high value on brand new perspectives and innovations. Accordingly, it may be suggested that those who are high in openness will invest effort in considering a variety of alternatives rather than simply supporting the status quo. However, research findings on openness to experience are mixed and further research is necessary to clarify its relationship with voice.

Personality dimensions are also expected to display relationships with participative climate and authentic leadership. In the following paragraphs, assumptions and actual findings related to the relationship of these constructs will be mentioned.

Participative climate is supposed to be related to personality dimensions such as extroversion. Highly *extrovert* people tend to be sociable, optimistic, outgoing, energetic,

expressive, active, and assertive (Barrick and Mount, 1991). They look for the company of others and prefer a high degree of social interaction with a wider range of people. On the contrary**,** people who demonstrate low extraversion tend to be quieter and more reserved. They prefer to work alone or with few individuals instead of large groups. As Benoliel and Somech (2010) suggested, working in a participative environment tends to foster more interaction among team members and requires individuals who have significant social skills. Participative environment has the potential to provide equal opportunity for involvement of managers and their subordinates in information processing, decision making, or problem solving processes. The added responsibility and accountability generated by participative management practices may be perceived by highly extrovert employees as more rewarding and challenging.

Authentic leaders may encourage and be a role model to subordinates to also act authentically. Fleeson and Wilt (2010) investigated the relevance of the Big Five for subjective authenticity (self-judgment that personal behavior is in accordance with the true self) and based on the trait theory, they claimed that authenticity exists when a person acts in a way that is consistent with the traits, whereas authenticity does not exist when a person's behavior is inconsistent with his/her traits. Their findings suggested that authenticity was consistently associated with acting in a highly extroverted, agreeable, conscientious, emotionally stable (low neuroticism), and intellectual (openness to experience) way. When the follower behaviors are based on the true-self, it will be more likely to involve authentic characteristics like balanced processing, self-awareness, relational transparency, and ethical/moral acts. Besides, authenticity of the followers will be more likely to increase voice.

2.5.2. The Moderating Role of Personality

In the previous section, personality with reference to key research findings has been presented and its relationship with employee voice, participative climate, and authentic leadership has been discussed. In this section, the focus will be on the moderating

role of personality dimensions on the relationship of participative climate and authentic leadership with employee voice.

Personality characteristics' moderating roles on several relationships have been revealed in a variety of studies. Kenis (1978) argued that personality characteristics of subordinates have a moderating effect on their responses to leadership styles. It was seen that considerate and participative behaviors displayed by supervisors were found to be more effective and more satisfactory by subordinates who had a higher need for independence and demonstrated lower authoritarianism. Subordinates who had a lower need for independence and demonstrated higher authoritarianism, however, found such supervisor behaviors less effective and less satisfactory.

Participative climate creates positive outcomes as discussed in the previous sections, however, as Benoliel and Somech (2010) proposed, participative climate may not be suitable for all employees and may produce different results depending on employees' personality traits. Their study with a sample of teachers revealed that personality dimensions of *extraversion*, *agreeableness, conscientiousness,* and *neuroticism* had a moderating impact on the relationship between participative climate and teacher performance, satisfaction, and strain. Participative management was positively associated with performance for highly extrovert, highly agreeable, and highly conscientious teachers. Neuroticism and openness to experience did not have a moderating effect on the relationship of participative management and performance. The researchers also noted that highly agreeable and highly conscientious teachers were more satisfied with participative climate and no moderation effect was observed for other dimensions. Highly neurotic teachers displayed greater strain under higher levels of participative management whereas for highly conscientious teachers participative climate was negatively related with strain. The findings presented here revealed that there might be systematic differences in terms of personality dimensions that account for employees' preferences for different decision making processes and management styles. Therefore, it can be concluded that it is worth

investigating the role of personality on the relationship of participative climate and employee voice behavior.

As mentioned above, *extraversion* moderated the positive relationship between participative management and performance in such a way that the relationship was stronger for highly extroverted teachers (Benoliel and Somech, 2010). Given extroverts' desires for social situations, it seems rational that they would have even stronger preferences for participative environments and team-oriented cultures (Stevens and Ash, 2001). Since extroverts have the necessary social skills to interact with other members of the organization, they might feel that participative climate sets the right ground to express their selves where they would be able to benefit from participative climate more than others in the organization. As a result, highly extroverted individuals may attempt to display voice behavior more frequently. In contrast, employees with low extraversion prefer to work under little stimulation and may see the demands of participative climate as a confusion of responsibility. Participative climate might also be perceived as a threat to their well-being and might create higher levels of stress. Consequently, employees who score low on extraversion might feel less comfortable with participative environment and appear less likely to exhibit voice behavior besides revealing a natural tendency to withhold their thoughts and ideas.

Authentic leaders enable a trust-based high quality LMX with their followers by means of balanced processing, ethical decision making, and transparency in relations. They prefer to have transparent relationships with followers and show openness and display self-disclosure in their relationships with subordinates. An authentic leader is expected to explore others' opinions before making a decision and is open about divergent perspectives and receptive to new ideas. Such leaders reinforce a culture where everyone can voice his/her opinions. Since extrovert individuals prefer a proactive communication style and interaction with others, they will be stimulated by such leadership practices. Working with such a supervisor, would make them feel more comfortable about and skilled in communicating their thoughts. Extrovert followers would be more likely to develop a

similar, authentic relationship with the leader since they have the necessary social skills to interact with others. Such reciprocal relationships will facilitate employees' trust, integrity, and commitment to the leader and they would be more engaged in voicing their ideas on relevant organizational issues. Fleeson and Wilt (2010), on the other hand, noted that introvert individuals will experience a strong challenge in presenting themselves authentically when an authentic leader shows a personal disclosure. Introverts would fail to respond in the same way to the leader. When the authentic leader enables all different ideas to be discussed freely and openly, there might be too much noise and stimulation within the group and an introvert would perceive a threat to his/her wellbeing. Consequently, an introvert would feel uncomfortable with authentic leadership practices like balanced processing or transparent relations and would prefer to hold his ideas instead of voicing them.

Highly *conscientious* individuals would have stronger self-efficacy beliefs about meeting situational demands and tend to accept responsibility for problems that arise and persevere in working even when facing obstacles and risks. Such individuals are achievement-oriented and more willing to engage in conversations about ideas intended to improve the situation and are persistent about making sure that their ideas are well understood. Voice behavior requires that employees' expend effort for speaking up and expressing ideas they may have and highly conscientious individuals assume responsibility to make such an investment (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001). Benoliel and Somech's (2010) findings suggested that for highly conscientious teachers, participative management was positively associated with performance and satisfaction and negatively associated with strain. Participative management may lead to higher levels of performance and satisfaction among individuals who are highly conscientious since they would be able to benefit from participation opportunities to feed their higher-order needs, such as the need for more challenging, meaningful, and broadly defined work. Individuals who are highly conscientious would be quite comfortable with a participative climate since it would provide employees with more responsibility for making decisions. Highly conscientious individuals are confident about meeting situational demands and tend to be prepared for

taking responsibility to handle problems that exist in the organization. Such individuals will be able to voice their ideas and thoughts, and feel satisfied when their thoughts are considered and understood. An individual with a low level of conscientiousness, however, may not see participative climate as an opportunity to demonstrate additional responsibility for organizational issues and avoid making extra effort for voice behavior.

Highly *conscientious* employees are persistent, organized, dependable, and responsible and would have a basic desire to lead and influence others to alter the environment. Authentic leaders are aware of their weaknesses and in order to compensate for their weaknesses, they choose to work with talented followers and build an open communication climate where everyone can voice his/her opinions (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). Authentic leaders through their balanced processing approach will enable highly conscientious employees to be engaged in action for the intent of creating a positive change in the workplace. Employees who do not display conscientiousness, however, would not seem to be influenced by the attempts of the authentic leader since they would be reluctant to assume additional responsibilities.

Highly *neurotic* individuals experience more negative life events than do other individuals because of their negative nature (Magnus, Diener, Fujita, and Pavot, 1993) and they may miss opportunities to see meaning in their work and may feel themselves incompetent in terms of coming up with new ideas and approaches to solve problems. Benoliel and Somech (2010) acknowledged that highly neurotic teachers reported greater strain under higher levels of participative management (which is defined as joint decision making or shared influence in decision making by a superior and a subordinate). Highly neurotics often avoid social situations and tend to display deficiencies when working with others (Mushonga and Torance, 2008). Chiaburu, Marinova, and Van Dyne (2007) argued that since voice behavior is a challenge against status quo, employees will try to estimate the cost of speaking before they engage in voice behavior. Existence of psychological safety in the workplace (the belief that risky behaviors like voice will not end up with a personal harm or cost) is a key enabler of voice behavior. In the absence of psychological

safety, individuals may choose to withhold voice behavior. Individuals with a high level of neuroticism tend to perceive ordinary situations as threatening and will be likely to experience difficulties for trusting others. Such employees will feel more suspicious about the perceived participatory opportunities in the climate and the transparent attitudes of the authentic leader and consequently will withhold their voice. Emotional balance, on the other hand, would make individuals to feel secure about their actions and lead them to be less threatened in risky situations. Thus, employees, with a low level of neuroticism are expected to be willing to voice more often in the presence of a participative context and an authentic leader where attempts to improve organizational conditions would be facilitated.

Individuals high on *agreeableness* tend to be more conforming and passive. They probably feel more comfortable in centralized organizations where decisions are made by higher levels of management within the organization and it is not expected from them to provide any input for the decision making process (Lievens, Decaesteker, Coetsier, and Geirnaert, 2001). Since participative climate welcomes employee input for the decision making process and voice requires querying the status quo and challenging the authority, such a context is much more suitable for employees who demonstrate a low level of agreeableness. Multiple perspectives may create feelings of discomfort, damage the employee's image, or harm social relationships for individuals who demonstrate a high level of agreeableness. Because individuals who are highly agreeable value harmony and alignment within the organization, they may perceive the participative climate as a threat to harmony and would not feel comfortable in it. Consequently, it can be proposed that participative climate does not provide the right ground for highly agreeable employees. Although a participative climate would facilitate voice behavior for individuals who display low agreeableness and are already prepared for questioning organizational issues, the reverse would be relevant for employees scoring high on agreeableness.

Authentic leaders are aware of their strengths as well as their weaknesses and in order to compensate for their weaknesses, they choose to work with capable followers, provide subordinates with voice, ask for and listen to their inputs, allow employees to be

involved in decision making, and objectively analyze all perspectives before making a decision. Employees who display a low level of agreeableness are likely to regard such a management style as an opportunity to verbalize their divergent opinions. An authentic leader's efforts, however, might create confusion and tension between group members and may harm the harmony within the group. Since highly agreeable individuals care for others and appreciate harmony within the group, and voice is about upsetting the status quo and interpersonal relationships, at least in the short term, such individuals would not feel comfortable with balanced processing practices of the leader and may prefer to hold their ideas and remain silent.

Participative management is about challenging traditional practices and encourages autonomy, openness to new suggestions or ideas, and novel objectives (West, 2002). Traits such as divergent thinking, flexibility of thought, creativity, and originality, all of which characterize highly open individuals, may foster their ability to adapt to a participative management environment as they are likely to take the initiative to innovate and will feel challenged in such a context (Benoliel and Somech, 2010). Stevens and Ash (2001) reported that individuals with higher levels of openness to experience preferred participative management styles more than individuals with lower levels of openness to experience. Employees with higher levels of *openness to experience* would feel themselves more comfortable in a participative climate and would be more likely to voice their divergent ideas, innovative solutions, and original proposals in relation to organizational issues. On the contrary, individuals with lower levels of openness to experience would prefer to go with the "status quo" and prefer to adopt familiar ways of doing things. A participative climate in which divergent ideas and novel proposals are discussed would increase uncertainty about the soundness of the decisions for employees with lower scores on openness to experience and they would view the environment as threatening and stay silent when organizational issues are discussed.

Authentic leaders do not fear from getting negative feedback from their subordinates. They objectively analyze relevant data and explore others' opinions before

making a decision; they are clear and open about their perspectives and receptive to differing views (Gardner et al., 2005; Wong et al., 2010). Since highly open individuals have a natural tendency for trying new things, an authentic leader will mobilize these individuals to voice their thoughts through balanced processing. Highly open individuals would feel comfortable in voicing their divergent perspectives and original ideas since the leader reinforces voice behavior with being a good voice manager. Those with lower scores on openness to experience, on the other hand, when supervised by an authentic leader, would feel an additional responsibility which they would not like to assume. Under these conditions, such employees would not be likely to display voice behavior.

Based on the above findings and statements, it is hypothesized that employee personality will influence voice behavior through its interaction with participative climate and authentic leadership. In other words, personality will act as a moderator in the relationship between voice behavior and the independent variables of participative climate and authentic leadership.

Thus, the following hypotheses have been developed:

Hypothesis 4a: Personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high.

Hypothesis 4b: Personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high.

Hypothesis 4c: Personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high.

Hypothesis 4d: Personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high.

CHAPTER III: METHOD

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

Convenience sampling approach was used to reach the participants of this study. Nearly 2000 surveys were sent out or given to employees working in different sectors, departments and positions. There were 444 surveys filled out and returned back. At the end of the data gathering process we ended up with 404 usable questionnaires for further statistical analysis.

The employees were from 31 large organizations from different sectors like banking and finance, information technology-telecommunication, consultancy, education, healthcare, Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG), service, tourism, public, and production industry (including automotive, cookware, packaging, glass industry, textile, energy, chemistry, construction hardware, and printing). The allocation of the participants in terms of sectors can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: The distribution of the participants in terms of the industries they work

Sector	Frequency	Percentage
Consultancy	16	3.96
Education	21	5.20
Financial	20	4.95
FMCG	24	5.94
Healthcare	25	6.19
Production	93	23.02
Public	16	3.96
Service	16	3.96
IT-Telecom	23	5.69
Tourism	143	35.40
Missing	7	1.73
Total	**404**	**100.0**

Participants who reported themselves as working at white-collar roles were included in the survey. The respondents occupied different positions such as office staff, specialist, middle-level management, and top management. The distribution of the participants in terms of the positions they hold can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3: The distribution of the participants' positions

Position	Frequency	Percentage
Technician and staff	108	26.7
Specialist, senior specialist	153	37.9
Middle management (supervisor, assistant manager, manager)	119	29.5
Top management (director and top executive)	17	4.2
Missing	7	1.7
Total	**404**	**100.0**

The respondents were from various departments including commercial (sales and marketing), corporate (finance, legal, human resources, information technology, administration, training), and operations (production, planning, quality, supply chain, research and development). The distribution of the participants' departments is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: The distribution of the participants' departments

Departments	Frequency	Percentage
Sales and Marketing	76	18.8
Finance, Legal, IT	60	14.9
HR, Training, Administration	93	23.0
Production, Planning, Quality, Supply chain, Research and Development	133	32.9
Other	33	8.2
Missing	9	2.2
Total	**404**	**100.0**

Almost all of the respondents (95%) were from privately held companies. More than half of them (60.4%) were from privately owned domestic companies. The distributions of the participants' company capital structure are as seen in Table 5.

Table 5: The distribution of the participants' company capital structure

Company capital structure	Frequency	Percentage
Domestic private	244	60.4
Joint-venture (domestic and foreigner)	34	8.4
Foreigner	106	26.2
Public owned	15	3.7
Missing	5	1.2
Total	**404**	**100.0**

The questions regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants included age, gender, education level, present tenure, dyadic tenure (duration of work relationship with direct supervisor), and total work experience. The descriptive statistics related to the demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: The demographic characteristics of the participants

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum		
Age	400	33.26	6.86	20	60		
Tenure in the organization (years)	398	6.27	5.75	.50	30		
Tenure with the first supervisor (years)	397	4.30	4.63	.50	25		
Total experience (years)	398	11.15	6.67	1.00	31		
Gender		**Male**	**Female**				
Frequencies	400	232	168				
Education		**PhD**	**Masters**	**Undergrad**	**College**	**High S**	**Below High S**
Frequencies	399	8	86	166	26	85	28

3.2. INSTRUMENTS

3.2.1. Authentic Leadership Scale

The authentic leadership scale is developed by Gardner et al. (2005). It has four components, namely, self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and ethical/moral. Self-awareness and ethical/moral dimensions have 4 items each whereas transparency has 5 and balanced processing has 3 items. Thus, in total, 16 ALQ items are used for this study.

The scale was translated into Turkish by Çeri Booms (2009). As she noted, she contacted with the developer of the scale, "Prof. Bruce Avolio" by e-mail and through an intensive online dialogue with the professor, she made some minor changes and the scale took its final form. As the researcher stated, the factor analysis yielded four factors as was the case in the original scale. However, the compositions of items in each factor were not totally identical to the original composition of items. Since there was a significant match

between her results and original factors, she preferred to label the factors with their original names (Çeri Booms, 2009). Çeri Booms (2009) found an alpha coefficient of 0.901 for the Turkish version of the instrument. In order to eliminate the risk of wrong perceptions; fine tuning was done in the present study for Turkish items following the suggestions of Çeri Booms (2009).

The response scale of the questionnaire in Çeri Booms's (2009) study was 1 "never" to 6 "always". In the current study, it was decided to change the response alternatives of the scale as 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) since based on a convenient sample trial, "disagree" and "agree" proved to be more sensible to the participants than "never" to "always". Higher scores indicated higher perceived authenticity of the leader. Of the 16 items, 3 were reverse scored (items numbered 2, 6, and 10). The 16 item Turkish version of the ALQ can be seen in the Appendix section. The factor structure and the reliability of ALQ will be presented in the results section.

3.2.2. Participative Climate Scale

Participative Climate Scale consists of 9 items and includes items related to participative decision making and communication climate. For the purpose of measuring participative decision making, 4 items were taken from Newman's (1977) "Perceived Work Environment (PWE)" scale and for the communication climate, 5 items were taken from Vakola and Bouradas (2005). Since Turkish forms of the items did not exist, the translation was done by the researcher under the supervision of an academic jury of three experts in management, psychology, and organizational behavior domains. The response scale of the questionnaire in this study ranges from 1 "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree". Higher scores indicate higher participation. The 9 item Turkish version of the scale can be seen in the Appendix. The factor structure and the reliability of the Participative Climate Scale will be presented in the results section.

3.2.3. Organizational Identification Scale

Organizational Identification was assessed with the Turkish translation of Mael and Ashforth's (1992) 6 item organizational identification scale. Although a wide variety of organizational identification scales exist, Mael and Ashforth's (1992) organizational identification scale is the most commonly used one and it is also more to the point (Melikoğlu, 2009). Mael and Ashforth (1992) reported an alpha coefficient of 0.87 for this instrument. Melikoğlu (2009) found an alpha coefficient of 0.815 for the Turkish version of the instrument. The response scale of the questionnaire in this study ranges from 1 "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree". The higher the score, the more identification an individual has. The 6 item Turkish version of the scale can be seen in the Appendix. The factor structure and the reliability of the scale will be presented in the results section.

3.2.4. Personality Scale

John and Srivastava (1999) stated that findings accumulated since mid-1980's showed that five factors of personality replicate across different types of subjects, raters, and data sources, in both dictionary-based and questionnaire-based studies. They concluded that it does not matter whether dimensions as Extraversion or Agreeableness are measured with trait adjectives, short phrases, or questionnaire items. Thus, it became apparent that the Big Five dimensions have the same conceptual status as other personality constructs.

Bacanlı, İlhan, and Aslan (2009) developed a bipolar personality scale based on Five Factor Theory with fewer items using appropriate adjective pairs. Their instrument, *Adjective Based Personality Scale* (ABPS), consists of 40 items; Neuroticism-7 items (items numbered 44, 49, 54, 59, 64, 69, and 74), Extraversion-9 items (items numbered 45, 50, 55, 60, 65, 70, 75, 80, and 82), Openness to experience-8 items (items numbered 46, 51, 56, 61, 66, 71, 76, and 79), Agreeableness-9 items (items numbered 47, 52, 57, 62, 67, 72, 77, 81, and 83), and Conscientiousness-7 items (items numbered 48, 53, 58, 63, 68, 73, and 78). They reported that Adjective Based Personality Scale (ABPS) has satisfactory

psychometric properties since internal consistency coefficients of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness were .73, .89, .80, .87, .88 respectively; and test-retest coefficients were .85, .85, .68, .86, .71 respectively.

In ABPS each item is formed by one pair of adjectives and the respondents are asked to rate which adjective is more relevant to them on a 7-point Likert-type scale. The respondent can make a single choice for each pairs of adjectives on the scale. If the respondent chooses the adjective on the left-side as "totally suitable" for him or her, he/she gets 1. Respondents who select the adjective on the right-side as "totally suitable", on the other hand, get 7. The higher the score, the stronger the personality dimension is. The 40 item ABPS can be seen in the Appendix.

Since Five Factor model is a widely accepted model utilized by several personality instruments, and Bacanlı et al. (2009) reported that ABPS has appropriate psychometric properties, no factor analysis was conducted in the present study. However, reliability tests were executed to test the internal consistency of items. Findings related to the reliability analysis are presented in the results section.

3.2.5. Employee Voice Scale

Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) noted that self-reported voice propensity is stable over time and positively related to peer and supervisory ratings of voice behavior. Based on the fact that self-reporting would be a way of gathering data on employee voice, a new scale was constructed to measure voice behavior. A 12-item employee voice scale was developed by the researcher by means of adapting items of several questionnaires. The scale comprised of 5 items that were adapted from Premeaux's (2001) *Willingness to Speak Up* measure, 6 items adapted from Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) preliminary item proposals on forms of voice and silence, and 1 item adapted from Tangirala and Ramanujam's *Employee Silence Scale* (2008b). The adapted items were reviewed and

confirmed by a jury of three academicians who were experts in psychology, business management, and organizational behavior areas.

The items were responded on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (always). Four items of the scale were reverse coded (items numbered 32, 34, 37, and 41) and higher scores on the scale refer to more frequent voice behavior. The scale can be seen in the Appendix. Exploratory factor analysis and reliability tests were executed. The factor structure and the reliability of the scale will be presented in the results section.

3.2.6. Social Desirability Scale

As P. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and N. Podsakoff (2003) noted, common method variance (i.e., variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent) is a potential problem in behavioral research because it provides an alternative explanation for the observed relationships between measures of different constructs that is independent from the one that was hypothesized. Among all response set biases, social desirability (the tendency on the part of individuals to present themselves in a favorable light, regardless of their true feelings about an issue or topic) arguably is the most pervasive confounder or nuisance factor of self-report personality measures and thus should be controlled (Tran, Stieger, and Voracek, 2012). Social desirability serves as a suppressor variable that hides the true relationship between variables, or acts as a moderator variable that influences the nature of the relationships between the variables. In order to make sure that the observed relations between the variables are free from social desirability, the Turkish form of *The Social Desirability Scale-17* (SDS-17) is included in the survey questionnaire.

The Social Desirability Scale-17 (SDS-17) was developed by Stöber (2001) to assess socially desirable responses of the participants to 17 items (e.g., "I would never live off other people" or "In traffic I am always polite and considerate of others"). Higher scores obtained from the scale demonstrate the tendency to portray oneself in a positive manner.

The scale was translated into Turkish by Durak and Coşkun (2010). Unlike the original scale of Stöber (2001), Durak and Coşkun (2010) preferred to use a five-point Likert type scale instead of the true-false format. They also excluded two items which had lower item-total correlations; therefore the scale was composed of 15 items. For the final version of the scale, Durak and Şenol-Durak (2010) reported an internal consistency coefficient of .77, and the corrected item-total correlations ranged from .24 to .54.

When all items of the scale were reviewed by a jury of academicians, it was decided to exclude one of the items due to risk of misperception by the participants and the remaining 14 items were used as translated by Durak and Coşkun (2010). Participants were expected to mark their responses on a six- point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Five items were reverse coded (items numbered 84, 87, 88, 92, and 97). Higher scores revealed higher social desirability concerns on the part of respondents. It is suggested that a lack of social desirability bias is evidenced by correlations in the range of +-.10 to +-.40 between a particular scale and the social desirability scale (Premeaux, 2001). The scale can be seen in the Appendix. Reliability tests are presented in the results section.

3.3. PROCEDURE

Initially, the finalized survey questionnaire was reviewed by a jury of three academicians and the approved version was shared with 11 full-time white-collar professionals of a cookware production company to see whether the questionnaire items were understood clearly. The feedback provided by the respondents indicated that completing the questionnaires lasted 15 minutes on average. Once it was confirmed that the items were easily understood as it was aimed, the data collection process continued with the approved questionnaires.

The data collection was pursued by three means: by distributing the questionnaires to employees during soft-skill training sessions of companies; by administering questionnaires during a daily visit to the companies; and by delivering the survey (in a

word document form) via e-mail to the social network of the researcher from a networking platform (LinkedIn) and PERYON (Türkiye İnsan Yönetimi Derneği) e-mail groups.

The companies which the researcher visited were called by telephone and the aim of the study was explained to human resources managers. The employees of the companies in tourism sector were given the questionnaires during a soft-skill development training session. They were told that the data will only be used for scientific purposes and confidentiality was guaranteed. It was requested from the participants to fill out the questionnaires during the day and turn them back in a closed envelope. Data collection with this method lasted for 2 months within 8 training sessions in Bursa and 155 surveys (35 % of the total response rate) were gathered by this way.

Six industrial production companies in cookware, security and safety systems, metal production, and automotive in Istanbul, İzmit, Bursa, and Düzce were also visited by the researcher. The researcher had professional connections with the human resources teams of the companies and the purpose of the research was communicated to human resource managers through face to face contacts. Once the necessary approvals were completed within the companies, human resources teams were sent e-mail messages inviting employees to participate in the survey. It was mentioned that participation was voluntary and the study would be conducted by the researcher. A week after the announcement, the researcher visited the sites and employees of the companies who accepted to take part in the administration of the survey were given the questionnaires and envelopes. The respondents were told that the data would only be used for scientific purposes and it was expected from them to fill out the questionnaires in the same day and put the filled out questionnaires in a closed envelope. Within a 2 months' time period, six site visits were done and 91 surveys (20 % of the total response rate) were collected by the researcher.

Moreover, the researcher e-mailed the word documents of the questionnaires to his connections working in different companies via LinkedIn network and PERYON e-mail

groups. The questionnaires were filled out and sent back to the researcher via an anonymous e-mail address created and monitored by the researcher. 198 of the questionnaires in this research (45 % of the responses) were collected through this method.

There were 444 questionnaires gathered through the above mentioned means, however, 40 of these were not usable. Thus, 404 questionnaires were utilized for statistical analyses.

In order to control whether the data collection method affected the responses of the participants, One-way ANOVA analysis was conducted among the 3 groups of respondents and no differences were found among the groups.

3.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The data was analyzed by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-version PAWS Statistics18). The normality and linearity tests were done. Factor analysis was performed with principal components model and internal consistency of the scales were evaluated by computing coefficient alphas. Pearson correlations were presented for descriptive purposes and regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses. To test the demographic differences for voice, T-test and One-way ANOVA were used.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

In this section, the results of the data analysis are presented. First of all, the factor analyses of the scales (except for the personality scale) were conducted by principal components model. The internal reliabilities of the subscales were tested through computing Cronbach α coefficients. Since the sample size was large and test results revealed that the distribution of responses was close to normal distribution, it was assumed that the data meets the normality and linearity assumptions. Consequently, parametric tests were executed for the data. Pearson correlations were computed for descriptive purposes and regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses.

4.1. FACTOR AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCY ANALYSES

Before examining the relations between variables and testing the research model, factor analyses and internal consistency tests were executed. Each step in the factor analysis was implemented by one-item-at-a-time basis through discarding any item which loaded on more than one factor with a .10 or less difference, or had a loading that was less than .50. Those factors with Eigen values of 1.00 or more were taken into consideration in total variance explained. Coefficients of Cronbach α close to .70 were considered as sufficient for internal consistency. The findings are presented in the below section.

4.1.1. Factor Analysis of Employee Voice

Since Employee Voice Scale was adapted by the researcher and no validity and reliability measures were available, an exploratory factor analysis was implemented for the scale. Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation was conducted and the analysis yielded two factors. None of the items were eliminated. When the emerging factors were examined, it was observed that while 8 items loaded under the first factor, reversed coded 4 items gathered under the second factor. In order to ensure that this result was not due to reverse coding, rather it was the sign of a different construct, the factor analysis was repeated. In the second analysis, the reverse coded 4 items were kept as they were marked

by the participants, but the remaining 8 items were reverse coded. Again two factors that were exactly the same as those yielded in the first analysis were observed. Finally, in the last analysis in which all items were kept as they were originally marked by the participants, the same results were obtained. Independent of coding, in all cases two factors emerged. After obtaining the same two-factor structure with identical items collected under each factor, an updated literature review was done. Updated review suggested another construct named "*silence"*. Although silence was seen as "lack of voice" (Çakıcı, 2007) or an indicator of loyalty (Bryant and Cox, 2004); Morrison and Milliken (2000) and Pinder and Harlos (2001) viewed *"silence as a separate construct"* and became the first researchers who explored it. They defined the concept as intentionally withholding ideas, information, and opinions with relevance to improvements in work and work organizations. Consequently, it was decided to label these two factors found in the factor analysis as; "*voice"* and "*silence"*.

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy was higher than .50 (observed as .919) and Bartlett test value was significant for this analysis, showing that it is statistically appropriate to rely on the results of the factor analysis. Moreover, the results showed that the emerging two factors explained 58.19 % of the total variance. The Eigen values were higher than 1.00 (5.61 for "voice" and 1.37 for "silence"). As seen in Table 7, coefficients of Cronbach α suggested that the scale is reliable for *"voice"* as well as *"silence"*.

Based on the findings of the factor analysis of the employee voice scale, it was decided to execute the hypothesis testing on voice behavior with 8 items that form the "voice" factor.

Table 7: The factor structure of the Employee Voice Scale

Factor		Items	Factor Loadings	Explained Variance	Cronbach α
Voice	39.	I speak up with ideas for new projects that might benefit the organization	.809	38.11	0.90
	33.	If I have solutions to problems I express them	.764		
	35.	I express my ideas about how to improve the work	.752		
	42.	I make recommendations concerning issues that affect the organization.	.748		
	40.	I say things that need to be said	.744		
	43.	I speak up when workplace happenings conflict with my sense of what is appropriate	.725		
	38.	I communicate my opinions about work issues even if others disagree	.683		
	36.	I speak up if I feel that a plan or idea will not work	.681		
Silence	32.	I stay silent if all others agree on a plan that I feel it won't work	.750	20.08	0.71
	37.	I keep quiet instead of asking questions when I need to get more information that I need to do my job in a better way	.731		
	34.	I remain quiet and not express my ideas in discussions of controversial issues	.709		
	41.	Even I know what needs to be done. I keep ideas about solutions to problems to myself	.634		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin			.919		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square	2103.470		
		Df	66		
		Sig.	.000		

N:404

4.1.2. Factor Analysis of Participative Climate

As noted before, items of the scale were taken from two different sources; 4 items from Newman's (1977) *Perceived Work Environment Scale*, and 5 items from Vakola and Bouradas' (2005) *Communication Opportunities Scale*. Items were translated by the researcher and exploratory factor analysis and reliability tests were executed.

Although items were taken from different scales and the instrument was presumed by the researcher to be two dimensional, Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation revealed that the scale was one-dimensional. Since item loadings were between .71 and .84, all items were maintained. The Eigen value of the factor was higher than 1.00 (5.35). Since the emerging factor was composed of both the participative decision making and the information sharing items, the factor was named as *"participative climate"*.

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy was higher than .50 (observed as .920) and Bartlett test value was significant for this analysis, showing that it is statistically appropriate to rely on the results of the factor analysis. Moreover, the results showed that the emerged factor explained 59.44 % of the total variance (Table 8).

Table 8: The factor structure of the Participative Climate Scale

Factor		Items	Factor Loadings	Explained Variance	Cronbach α
Participative Climate	29.	Organizational changes are communicated adequately to the employees	0.842	59.44	0.91
	28.	The company keeps employees informed regarding its mission, plans, and progress	0.800		
	31.	There is an adequate communication between employees and top managers of this company	0.792		
	23.	There is the opportunity to take part in deciding what the work methods, procedures, and goals will be	0.791		
	26.	Managers and supervisors ask for the advice of their employees when making decisions that affect the employees	0.763		
	25.	Most employees take part in making the decisions that affect their unit	0.761		
	30.	Communication with colleagues from other departments is satisfactory	0.734		
	27.	There is a systematic and organized exchange of knowledge and experience among employees in this company	0.730		
	24.	Important decisions are made by employees closest to the situation	0.719		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin			.920		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square	2065.761		
		Df	36		
		Sig.	.000		

N: 404

4.1.3. Factor Analysis of Authentic Leadership

Çeri Booms (2009), the researcher who adapted the Authentic Leadership Scale noted that after the factor analysis, 4 factors (Transparency, Ethical/Moral, Balanced Processing, and Self-Awareness) as they existed in the original scale were found. However, the compositions of items in each factor were not totally identical to the original composition. Since there was a significant match between her results and the original factors, she preferred to label the factors with their original names (Çeri Booms. 2009).

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted for the present research. Initial factor analysis results revealed that 3 reverse-coded items of the authentic leadership scale formed another factor. These items, however, were originally placed under different factors. As Woods (2006) noted, many self-report measures include some items worded in the direction opposite to that of other items. These so-called reverse-worded (RW) items can reduce the reliability and validity of a scale, and frequently form a separate factor that does not appear to be substantively meaningful. Therefore, it was decided to discard reverse-coded items from the scale. Also, three more items were eliminated due to cross-factor loadings. The numbers of discarded items were 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 (see Appendix 1).

Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation revealed that the remaining 10 items were loaded under a single factor. The Eigen value of the factor was 5.44. The single factor consisted of 1 item from Ethical/Moral factor, 1 item from Balanced Processing, 4 items from Relational Transparency, and 4 items from Self-Awareness. Thus, the factor was named as *"authentic leadership"*.

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy was higher than .50 (observed as .923) and Bartlett test value was significant for this analysis, showing that it is statistically appropriate to rely on the results of the factor analysis. Moreover, the results showed that the emerged factor, explained 54.44 % of the total variance. Since

Cronbach α was observed as .90, it was concluded that the single factor form may be seen as a reliable scale of Authentic Leadership (Table 9).

Table 9: The factor structure of the Authentic Leadership Scale

Factor		Items	Factor Loadings	Explained Variance	Cronbach α
Authentic Leadership	12.	Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions	.819	54.44	0.90
	16.	Shows he or she understands how specific actions impact others	.770		
	15.	Knows when it is time to reevaluate his or her positions on important issues	.760		
	4.	Tells you the hard truth	.756		
	14.	Accurately describes how others view his or her capabilities	.737		
	11.	Analyzes relevant data before coming to a decision	.726		
	1.	Says exactly what he or she means	.717		
	5.	Displays emotions exactly in line with feelings	.700		
	3.	Encourages everyone to speak their minds	.694		
	13.	Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others	.688		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin			.923		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square	2005.263		
		Df	45		
		Sig.	.000		

N:404

4.1.4. Factor Analysis of Organizational Identification

Although factor analysis and reliability tests of the scale were reported by Melikoğlu (2009), exploratory factor analysis and reliability tests were executed to examine whether the scale displays sound characteristics for the current sample group.

Table 10: The factor structure of the Organizational Identification Scale

Factor		Items	Factor Loadings	Explained Variance	Cronbach α
Organizational Identification	21.	When somebody praises my company, it feels like a personal compliment	.811	55.73	0.84
	20.	I see my company's success as my own success	.807		
	19.	When I talk about my company, I usually say "we" rather than "they"	.773		
	18.	I am very interested in what others think about my company	.754		
	17.	When somebody criticizes my company it feels like a personal insult	.699		
	22.	If a story in the media appears that criticizes my company, I'd feel embarrassed	.615		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin			.818		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square	919.617		
		df	15		
		Sig.	.000		

N:404

Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation results revealed that as expected the scale was one-dimensional. Since item loadings were higher than .50 (between .81 and .61) all items were included. The Eigen value of the factor was 3.34.

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy was higher than .50 (observed as .818) and Bartlett test value was significant for this analysis, showing that it is statistically appropriate to rely on the results of the factor analysis. As seen in Table 10, the results showed that the emerged factor, explained 55.73 % of the total variance.

4.1.5. Reliability Analysis of Adjective Based Personality Scale

Five Factor model is a widely accepted model used in several measurements of personality and these five factors have been found to replicate across different types of subjects, raters, and data sources in both dictionary-based and questionnaire-based studies (John and Srivastava, 1999). It has been reported by Bacanlı et al. (2009) that ABPS has relevant psychometric properties. Therefore, no factor analysis was conducted in the present study. However, reliability tests were implemented to examine the internal consistency of the scale (Table 11).

Table 11: The reliability analysis of the Adjective Based Personality Scale

Factor	Number of Items	Items Deleted	Cronbach α
Big Five	40		0.87
Neuroticism	7		0.67
Extraversion	9		0.84
Openness to Experience	7	1	0.80
Conscientiousness	7		0.82
Agreeableness	9		0.82

N:404

The results of the reliability analysis confirmed that the scale as a whole as well as sub-factors were reliable for the current subject group. For all the factors except Openness to Experience, when any of the items were deleted, no significant increase was observed in Cronbach α. Initial Cronbach α for Openness to Experience was observed as .775 and when 1 item from this factor (conservative vs. liberal) was deleted, Cronbach α increased to .80. Therefore, it was decided to exclude this pair of adjectives from Openness to Experience factor.

4.1.6. Reliability Analysis of Social Desirability Scale

Social Desirability Scale is included to ensure that responses are free from common source bias. Thus, no hypotheses were proposed regarding its relationship with any other variable in the model and factor analysis was not executed for that reason. Although Durak and Durak (2010) reported that the internal consistency of the scale was found as .77, a coefficient of Cronbach α as .69 was obtained in this study for the 14-item scale. When 3 items were discarded, Cronbach α increased to .74. It was decided to eliminate the three items (I sometimes litter; There has been an occasion when I took advantage of someone else; I would never live off other people) which decreased reliability, and finally, social desirability scores were calculated for the remaining 11 items.

4.2. MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, and CORRELATIONS of VARIABLES

The means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables are presented in Table 12. In general, significant correlation coefficients which are in the anticipated direction have been obtained.

Pearson correlations indicate us whether multicollinearity exists between the independent variables. In order to avoid multicollinearity in multiple regression analyses, the variables that have at least .70 correlations between each other should not take part in the analysis (Sipahi, Yurtkuru, and Çinko. 2006). Since only two dimensions of the

personality scale (Extraversion and Openness to Experience) displayed a Pearson coefficient close to the threshold level, it was concluded that multicollinearity did not pose a problem for the analysis.

It was observed that social desirability bias did not appear to create a threat for study results. Prior research suggested that a lack of social desirability bias is evidenced by correlations in the range of +-.10 to +-.40 (Premeaux, 2001). In the current study, correlations with the social desirability scale were within the defined range except for four personality dimensions. When correlations of personality dimensions with social desirability scale were examined, it was seen that Extraversion displayed a correlation below .40. Other personality dimensions, however, demonstrated correlations ranging between .40 and .53. Since the coefficients were not very high, it was concluded that the data was not substantially contaminated by the efforts of participants to present them in a favorable way.

Table 12: Means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables

Measures	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Voice	4.59	.95	1										
2. Silence	2.21	.89	-.520**	1									
3. Authentic Leadership	3.96	1.02	.163**	-.117**	1								
4. Participative Climate	3.76	1.12	.154**	-.120*	.494**	1							
5. Organizational Identification	4.45	1.05	.236**	-.113**	.297**	.338**	1						
6. Extraversion	5.35	.90	.545**	-.403**	.076	.108*	.196**	1					
7. Agreeableness	5.62	.86	.295**	-.186**	.187**	.156**	.242**	.431**	1				
8. Neuroticism	3.18	.92	-.184**	.197**	-.051	-.179**	-.087	-.182**	-.347**	1			
9. Openness to Experience	5.59	.87	.509**	-.333**	.105*	.084	.170**	.702**	.548**	-.186**	1		
10.Conscientiousness	5.71	.89	.414**	-.344**	.154**	.099*	.302**	.575**	.501**	-.213**	.603**	1	
11.Social Desirability	4.42	.64	.360**	-.221**	.213**	.224**	.262**	.361**	.536**	-.406**	.413**	.444**	1

Note: Personality items are scored on a 1 to 7 point scale. All other variables are scored on a 1 to 6 point scale

N: 404

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHICS AND EMPLOYEE VOICE

Before testing the hypotheses, the research question regarding the relation between demographic variables (gender, age, education, position, present and total tenure, and sector) and employee voice was tested.

Regarding the education level and voice behavior, One-way ANOVA test results revealed that mean values increased with the level of education, however, the differences between groups were not significant (p=.184). Demographic variables of gender, age, present tenure, total tenure, and sector did not demonstrate significant differences in terms of voice. The only demographic variable that was significantly related to the level of voice was employees' position. One-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the mean values of voice were higher for employees who occupied higher positions in the organization. Specifically, observed mean values were 4.34 for technicians and staff, 4.53 for specialists and senior specialists, 4.77 for middle-level management, and 5.17 for top executives. The observed between group differences were statistically significant (p=.000).

4.4. HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Pearson correlation coefficients indicated that multicollinearity and social desirability bias were not major concerns, thus, it was possible to pursue the analyses safely. In order to test our hypotheses, simple regression and multiple regression analyses were conducted. Probing Procedure of Aiken and West (1991) was utilized for testing the moderator effect.

The hypothesis testing results are as follows:

4.4.1. The relationship between participative climate and employee voice

In order to test Hypothesis 1 ("Participative climate contributes positively to voice behavior"), a linear regression analysis was conducted. As it can be seen in Table 13,

participative climate was positively related (Beta=.154; p=.002) with voice, however, it can only explain 2.1 % of the total variance in voice behavior (F=9.809, p<.05). Thus, ***Hypothesis 1 was supported.***

Table 13: The effect of participative climate on employee voice

Dependent Variable	Employee Voice			
Independent Variable	Participative Climate			
Adjusted R^2: 0.021	**F test:** 9.809		**Significance:**	.002
Variable in equation		**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Participative Climate		.154	3.132	.002

N: 404

4.4.2. The relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice

In order to test Hypothesis 2 ("Authentic leadership contributes positively to voice behavior"), a linear regression analysis was conducted again. As presented in Table 14, authentic leadership was positively related (Beta=.163; p=.001) with voice, however, it can only explain 2.4 % of the total variance in voice behavior (F=11.006, p<.05). Thus, ***Hypothesis 2 was supported***.

Table 14: The effect of authentic leadership on employee voice

Dependent Variable	Employee Voice			
Independent Variable	Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2: 0.024	**F test:** 11.006		**Significance:**	.001
Variable in equation		**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership		.163	3.317	.001

N: 404

4.4.3. The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between participative climate and employee voice

Hypothesis 3a ("Organizational identification moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high") was tested by hierarchical regression analysis. First, standardized scores for the independent variable (participative climate) and the moderating variable (organizational identification) were computed by subtracting the mean values from responses. The interaction term was computed by multiplying standardized scores of variables. As seen in Table 15 (Step 1 is presented in Table 13), although the explanatory power of step 3 was weak (Adjusted R^2 =.064), the model was significant for the interaction of participative climate and organizational identification (Beta=.104; p=.041).

Table 15: The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between participative climate and employee voice

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 2			.057	0.038	13.14	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.071	.084			1.639	.102
Organizational Identification	.187	.207			4.036	.000
Step 3			.064	0.01	10.3	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.079	.094			1.824	.069
Organizational Identification	.212	.235			4.438	.000
Participative Climate* Organizational Identification (interaction)	.071	.104			2.049	.041

Dependent Variable: Employee Voice

Since the interaction was significant, two-way interaction effects for standardized variables were plotted as seen in Figure 2, and the Probing Procedure suggested by Aiken and West (1991) was conducted to make a final decision regarding the confirmation of Hypothesis 3a.

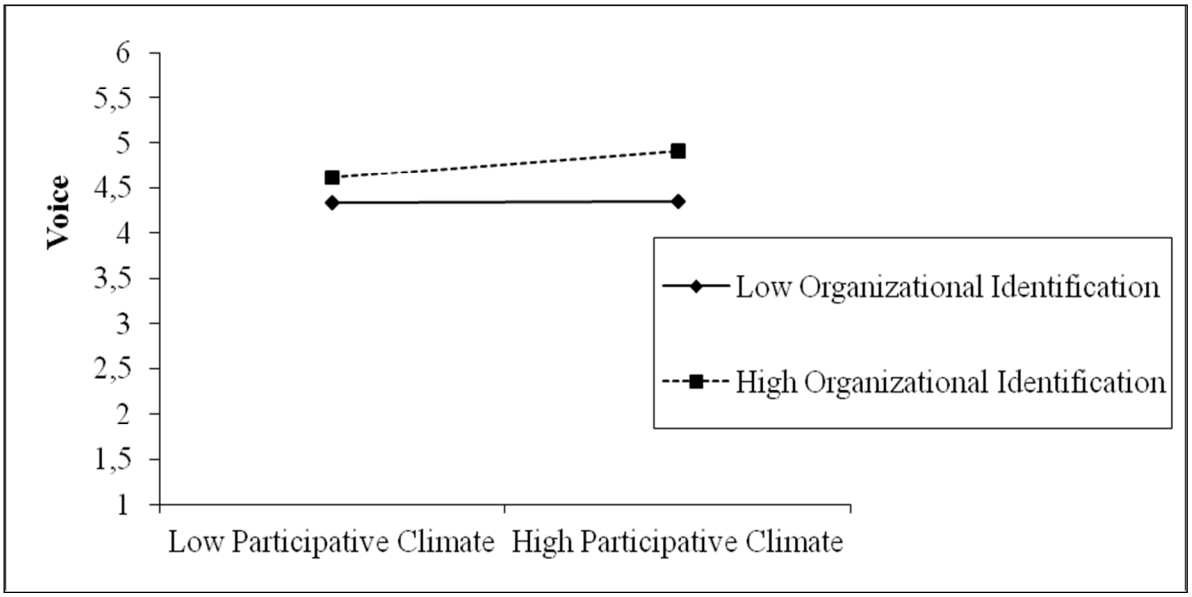

Figure 2: The interaction of participative climate and organizational identification in terms of their effect on employee voice

Median value of organizational identification was identified as 4.67 and two separate regression analyses were executed for cases with identification scores equal to or smaller than the median and for cases with identification scores greater than the median. Although the standardized Beta value was higher for employees with higher identification scores (B=.131) than employees with lower identification scores (B=.113), both regression equations revealed insignificant results for participative climate and voice relationship (p>.05). Thus, ***Hypothesis 3a was not supported.***

4.4.4. The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice

To test Hypothesis 3b ("Organizational identification moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high"), hierarchical regression analysis was conducted with standardized scores of authentic leadership, organizational identification, and their interaction. As seen in Table 16 (Step 1 is presented in Table 14),

in step 3, the interaction coefficient was not significant (p=.602). Thus, ***Hypothesis 3b was not supported.***

Table 16: The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 2			.060	.039	13.974	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.095	.102			2.020	.044
Organizational Identification	.186	.206			4.064	.000
Step 3			.059	.001	9.390	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.095	.102			2.019	.044
Organizational Identification	.189	.210			4.093	.000
Authentic Leadership* Organizational Identification (interaction)	.022	.026			.522	.602

Dependent Variable: Employee Voice

4.4.5. The moderating role of personality on the relationship between participative climate and employee voice

Hierarchical regression analyses with standardized scores of independent and moderating variables were conducted to test Hypothesis 4a proposing that personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high. As presented in Table 17 (Step 1 is presented in Table 13), interaction coefficients were not significantly different than zero ($p > .05$) for all of the equations. Therefore, without any further analysis it was concluded that ***Hypothesis 4a was not supported.***

Table 17: The moderating role of personality on the relationship between participative climate and employee voice

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 2			.303	.282	88.484	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.082	.097			2.307	.022
Extraversion	.565	.535			12.775	.000
Step 3			.302	.001	59.137	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.078	.092			2.174	.030
Extraversion	.562	.532			12.684	.000
Participative Climate* Extraversion (interaction)	.031	.033			.783	.434
Step 2			.180	.161	45.358	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.097	.114			2.525	.012
Conscientiousness	.433	.403			8.888	.000
Step 3			.185	.007	31.583	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.092	.109			2.404	.017
Conscientiousness	.431	.401			8.881	.000
Participative Climate* Conscientiousness (interaction)	.081	.084			1.864	.063
Step 2			.268	.248	74.762	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.095	.112			2.626	.009
Openness to Experience	.546	.500			11.680	.000
Step 3			.271	.005	50.993	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.085	.101			2.331	.020
Openness to Experience	.543	.497			11.646	.000
Participative Climate* Openness to Experience (interaction)	.070	.072			1.670	.096

Table 17 (continued)

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Participative Climate	.106	.125			2.534	.012
Neuroticism	-.167	-.161			-3.254	.001
Step 3			.054	.012	8.650	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.107	.127			2.575	.010
Neuroticism	-.153	-.147			-2.966	.003
Participative Climate* Neuroticism (interaction)	-.093	-.110			-2.260	.024
Step 2			.095	.075	22.087	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.094	.111			2.310	.021
Agreeableness	.309	.278			5.794	.000
Step 3			.109	.016	17.355	.000
					t	
Participative Climate	.094	.111			2.325	.021
Agreeableness	.312	.281			5.894	.000
Participative Climate* Agreeableness (interaction)	.123	.126			2.685	.008

Dependent Variable: Employee Voice

Hypothesis 4c proposing that personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high was tested with the same approach used in testing Hypothesis 4a. As seen in Table 17, the results revealed that Beta coefficients of interactions were significantly different than zero for Neuroticism (Beta=-.110; p=.024) and Agreeableness (Beta=.126; p=.008). Since the interaction was significant, two-way interaction effects for standardized variables were plotted as seen in Figure 3 and Figure 4. Probing Procedure suggested by Aiken and West (1991) was conducted to make a final decision regarding the confirmation of Hypothesis 4c.

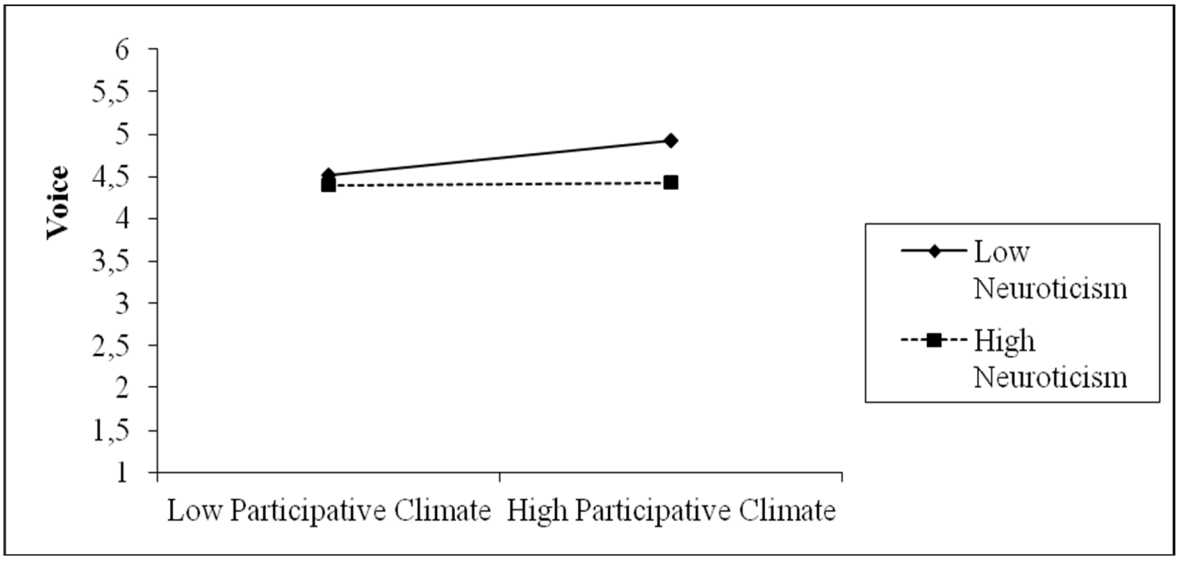

Figure 3: The interaction of participative climate and neuroticism in terms of their effect on employee voice

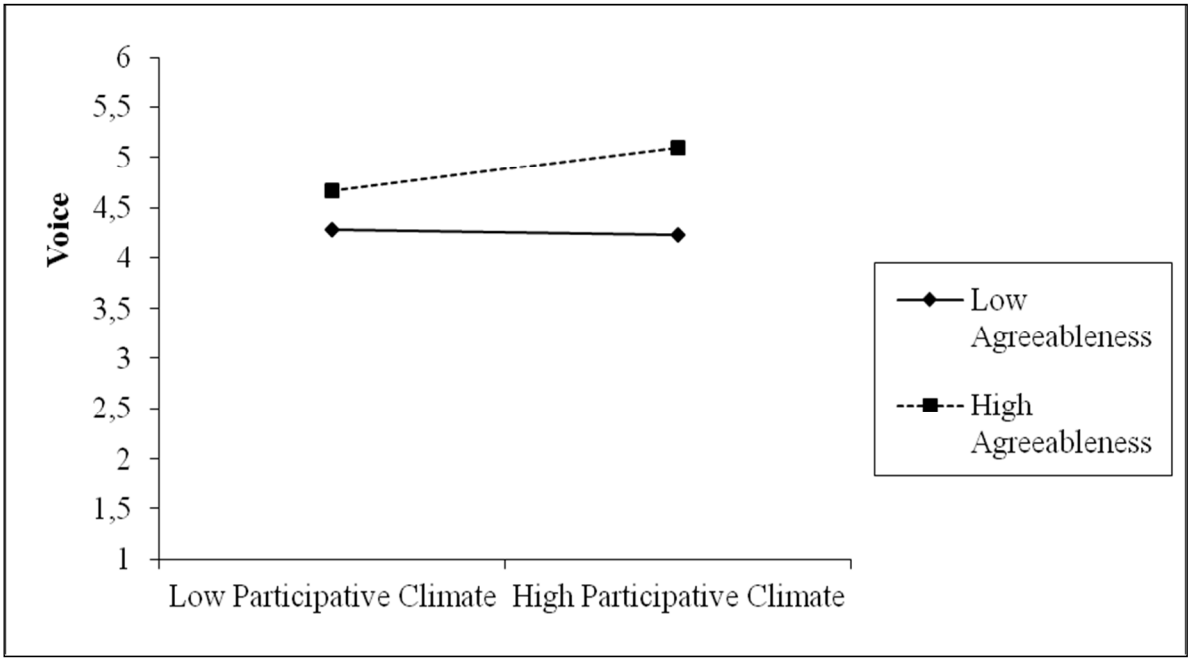

Figure 4: The interaction of participative climate and agreeableness in terms of their effect on employee voice

Table 18: The moderating role of neuroticism and agreeableness on the relationship of participative climate and employee voice

Dependent Variable		Voice			
Independent Variables		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R [2:]	0,0645	**F test:**	14,741	**Significance:**	,000
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Participative Climate			,263	3,839	,000
Case: Neuroticism<=3,14 (Selected)					
Dependent Variable		Voice			
Independent Variables		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R [2]:	-0,005	**F test:**	0,043	**Significance:**	0,835
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Participative Climate			,015	,208	,835
Case: Neuroticism>3,14 (Selected)					
Dependent Variable		Voice			
Independent Variables		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R [2]:	-0,002	**F test:**	0,536	**Significance:**	0,47
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Participative Climate			0,049	0,732	0,47
Case: Agreeableness<=5,78 (Selected)					
Dependent Variable		Voice			
Independent Variables		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R [2]:	0,062	**F test:**	12,96	**Significance:**	0,000
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Participative Climate			0,188	3,600	0,000
Case: Agreeableness>5,78 (Selected)					

N:404

As seen in Table 18, as expected, for low neuroticism cases participative climate was positively related with voice (Beta=.263; p=.000) whereas for high neuroticism cases the Beta coefficient was not significantly different than zero. Unexpectedly, for low agreeableness, the Beta coefficient was not significant (p>.05) whereas for high agreeableness cases participative climate was positively related with employee voice (B=.188; p=.000). Thus, ***Hypothesis 4c was partially supported.***

4.4.6. The moderating role of personality on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice

Hierarchical regression analyses with standardized scores of independent and moderating variables were conducted to test Hypothesis 4b proposing that personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high. As presented in Table 19 (Step 1 is presented in Table 14), interaction coefficients were not significantly different than zero ($p > .05$) for all of the equations. Therefore, without any further analysis it was concluded that ***Hypothesis 4b was not supported.***

Table 19: The moderating role of personality on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 2			.309	.285	90.901	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.114	.039			2.953	.003
Extraversion	.566	.044			12.895	.000
Step 3			.308	.001	60.782	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.118	.126			3.025	.003
Extraversion	.568	.538			12.916	.000
Authentic Leadership* Extraversion (interaction)	-.037	-.035			-.829	.408
Step 2			.178	.155	44.507	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.095	.102			2.228	.026
Conscientiousness	.428	.398			8.715	.000
Step 3		.002	.178		30.088	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.092	.099			2.158	.032
Conscientiousness	.436	.405			8.786	.000
Authentic Leadership* Conscientiousness (interaction)	.056	.050			1.097	.273

Table 19 continued

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 2			.268	.245	74.635	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.104	.111			2.590	.010
Openness to Experience	.543	.497			11.602	.000
Step 3			.266	.000	49.646	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.103	.110			2.561	.011
Openness to Experience	.543	.497			11.589	.000
Authentic Leadership*Openness to Experience (interaction)	.008	.007			.168	.867
Step 2			.053	.031	12.220	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.144	.154			3.178	.002
Neuroticism	-.182	-.176			-3.620	.000
Step 3			.061	.011	9.799	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.142	.153			3.158	.002
Neuroticism	-.176	-.170			-3.512	.000
Authentic Leadership* Neuroticism (interaction)	-.107	-.105			-2.174	.030
Step 2			.095	.073	22.116	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.104	.112			2.322	.021
Agreeableness	.305	.274			5.689	.000
Step 3			.093	.000	14.770	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	.104	.111			2.300	.022
Agreeableness	.304	.274			5.664	.000
Authentic Leadership* Agreeableness (interaction)	.023	.020			.411	.681

Dependent Variable: Employee Voice

Hypothesis 4d proposing that personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high was tested with the same approach used in testing Hypothesis 4b. The results revealed that the Beta coefficient of interaction was significantly different than zero for Neuroticism (Beta=-.105; p=.030) but for Agreeableness, the interaction term coefficient was not significant (p>.05).

Since the interaction for Neuroticism was significant, two-way interaction effects for standardized variables were plotted as seen in Figure 5 and the Probing Procedure suggested by Aiken and West (1991) was conducted to make the final decision regarding the confirmation of Hypothesis 4d.

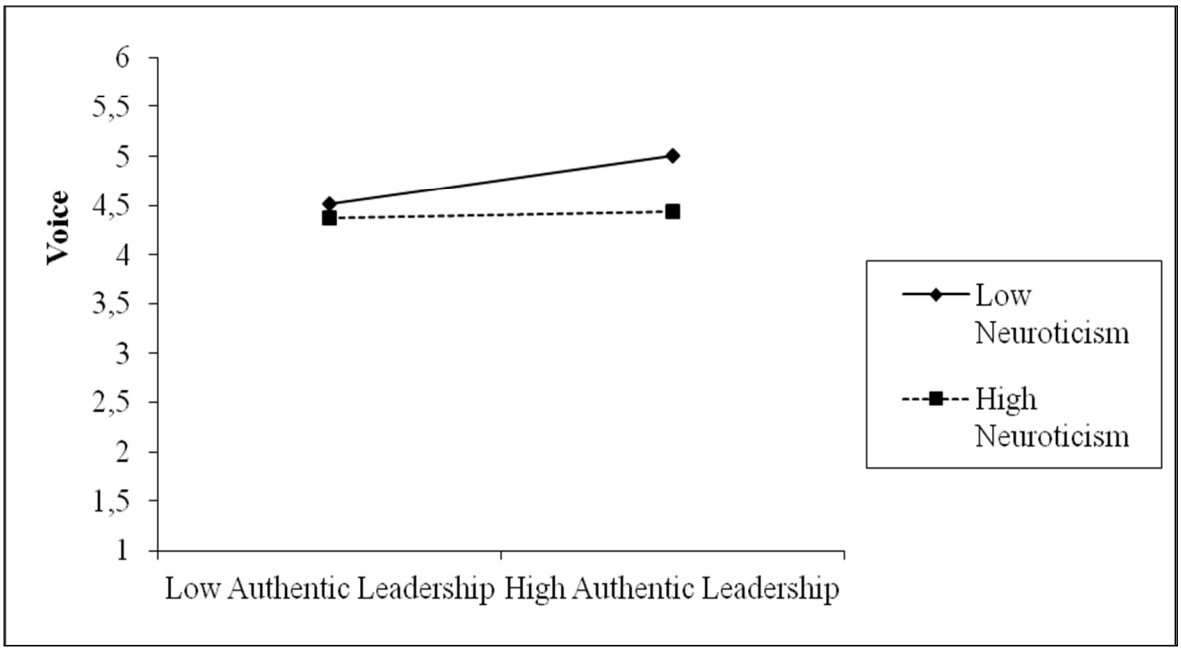

Figure 5: The interaction of authentic leadership and neuroticism in terms of their effect on employee voice

As seen in Table 20, for low neuroticism cases, authentic leadership was positively related with voice (Beta=.236; p=.000) whereas for high neuroticism cases the Beta

coefficient was not significantly different than zero. Thus, ***Hypothesis 4d was partially supported.***

Table 20: The moderating role of neuroticism on the relationship of authentic leadership and employee voice

Dependent Variable		Employee Voice			
Independent Variables		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R^2:	.051	**F test:**	11.695	**Significance:**	.001
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership			.236	3.420	.001
Case: Neuroticism<= 3.14 (Selected)					
Dependent Variable		Employee Voice			
Independent Variables		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R^2:	.005	**F test:**	1.931	**Significance:**	0.166
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership			.097	1.390	.166
Case: Neuroticism>3.14 (Selected)					

N:404

4.5. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The summary of the findings of this research are presented in Table 21. Relevant notes were also included to the benefit of the reader. The conceptual research model is presented in Figure 6 according to the results of hypothesis tests.

Table 21: Summary of the findings on employee voice

Hypothesis	Test Results	Notes
Hypothesis 1: Participative climate contributes positively to voice behavior.	Supported	(Beta=.154; p=.002)
Hypothesis 2: Authentic leadership contributes positively to voice behavior	Supported	(Beta=.163; p=.001)
Hypothesis 3a: Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high.	Not supported	OI was significantly related with voice (Beta=.207; p=.000)
Hypothesis 3b: Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high.	Not supported	OI was significantly related with voice (B=.210; p=.000)
Hypothesis 4a: Personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high.	Not supported	Extraversion (Beta=.535; p=.000), Conscientiousness (Beta=.403; p=.000), and Openness to Experience (Beta=.500; p=.000) were related with voice.
Hypothesis 4b: Personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high.	Not supported	Extraversion (Beta=.044; p=.000), Conscientiousness (Beta=.398; p=.000), and Openness to Experience (Beta=.497; p=.000) were related with voice.
Hypothesis 4c: Personality moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high.	Partially supported	Supported for Neuroticism. Unexpectedly, for high agreeableness, participative climate was positively related with employee voice (B=.188; p=.000).
Hypothesis 4d: Personality moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee voice in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high.	Partially supported	Supported for Neuroticism. Agreeableness was positively and significantly related to voice (Beta=.274; p=.000).

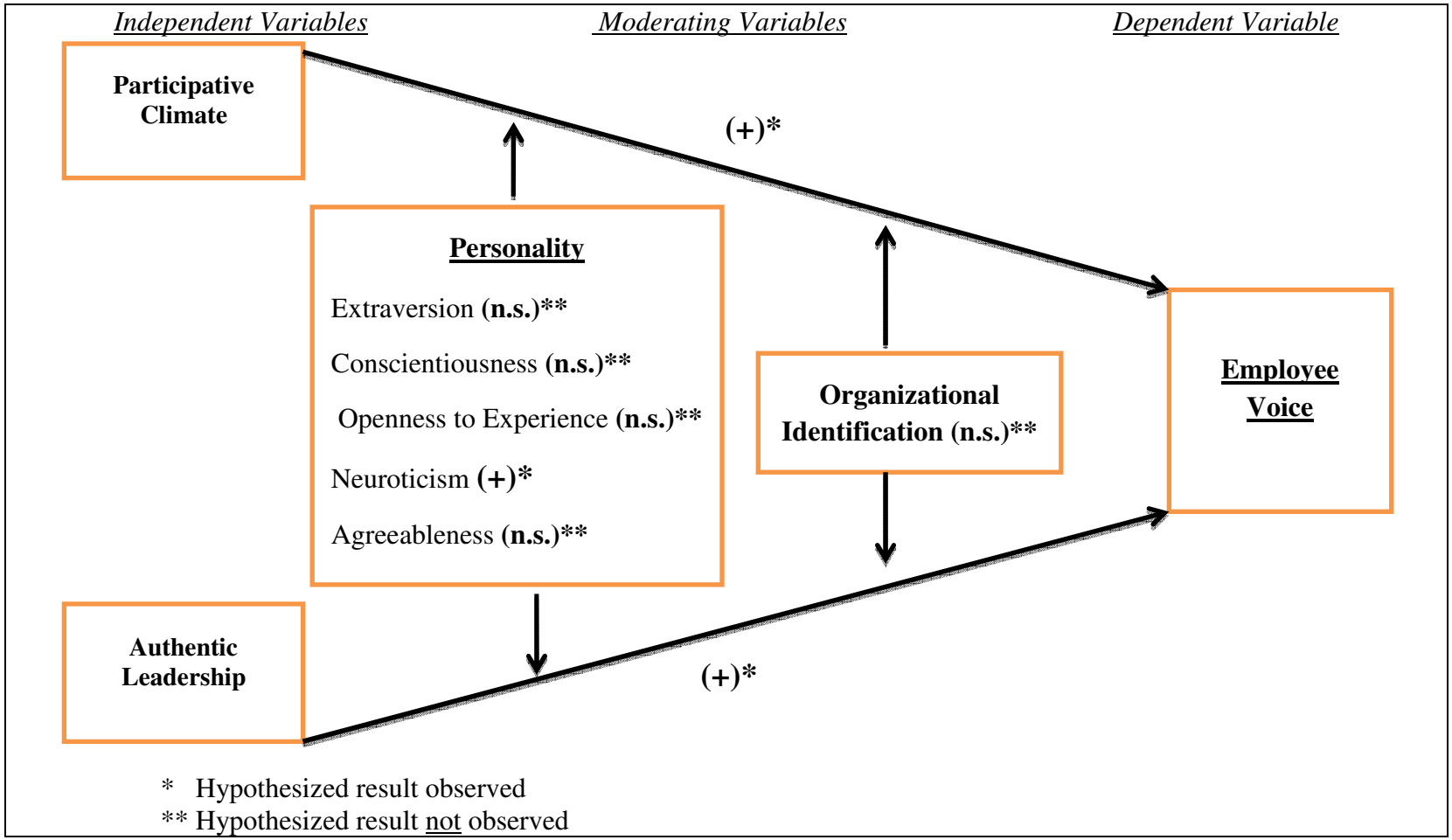

Figure 6: The conceptual research model based on the results of hypothesis tests

4.6. SUPPLEMENTARY ANALYSES ON EMPLOYEE SILENCE

As was shortly addressed within the context of the factor analysis report of the voice scale, as opposed to views that describe silence as "lack of voice" (Çakıcı, 2007) or as "an indicator o of loyalty" (Bryant and Cox, 2004), another stream of idea suggested that silence is a separate construct. Silence is defined as an intentional behavior of withholding relevant ideas, information, and opinions on work-related issues (Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Pinder and Harlos, 2001). The factor analysis of voice behavior scale revealed two separate dimensions; voice as expected, and another unexpected one named *"silence"*. Moreover, the results showed that the emerging two factors explained 58.19 % of the total variance. Cronbach α suggested that the scale was reliable for *"silence"* as well as for *"voice"*.

Based upon the new streaming silence literature and the factor analysis results, although no hypotheses were developed on silence, it was decided to execute the same analyses which were conducted to test the hypotheses on voice. Thus, the reader will be able to compare the significant relationships of the independent and moderating variables obtained for *"voice"* and *"silence"*. Only significant results are presented in this section.

4.6.1. The relationship between participative climate and employee silence

In order to explore the relationship between participative climate and employee silence, a linear regression analysis was conducted. Employee Silence was analyzed as the dependent variable; and participative climate was analyzed as the independent variable. As it can be seen in Table 22, *participative climate was negatively related* (Beta=-.120; p=.015) *with employee silence* but can only explain 1.5 percent of the total variance in silence behavior (F=5.916; p<.05).

Table 22: The effect of participative climate on employee silence

Dependent Variable		Employee Silence			
Independent Variable		Participative Climate			
Adjusted R^2:	.015	**F test:**	5.916	**Significance:**	.015
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**t**	**p**
Participative Climate			-.120	-2.432	.015

N: 404

4.6.2. The relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence

In order to investigate the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence, a linear regression analysis was conducted. As presented in Table 23, *authentic leadership was negatively related* (Beta=-.117; p=.019) *with silence* but can only explain 1.1 percent of the total variance in silence behavior (F=5.56; p<.05).

Table 23: The effect of authentic leadership on employee silence

Dependent Variable		Employee Silence			
Independent Variable		Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2:	0.011	**F test:**	5.56	**Significance:**	.019
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**P**
Authentic Leadership			-.117	-2.358	.019

N: 404

4.6.3. The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between participative climate and employee silence

Organizational identification's moderator role on the relationship between participative climate and voice behavior was tested; however, regression analysis did not confirm such an effect. Although no hypothesis was developed, in order to test if the moderating effect of organizational identification on the relationship between participative climate and employee silence is significant, hierarchical regression analysis is conducted

and the results are presented in Table 24. In the second step, when participative climate and organizational identification entered into the equation, both variables were found to be insignificant (p>.05). When the interaction term was included in the equation, as in the second step, neither participative climate nor organizational identification was significant (p >.05) but the interaction was significantly related with silence (p=.040).

Table 24: The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between participative climate and employee silence

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 1			.012		5.916	.015
					t	
Participative Climate	-.096	-.120			-2.43	.015
Step 2			.015	0.006	4.162	.016
					t	
Participative Climate	-.074	-.093			-1.771	.077
Organizational Identification	-.069	-.081			-1.545	.123
Step 3			.023	0.01	4.211	.006
					t	
Participative Climate	-.066			-0.083	-1.584	.114
Organizational Identification	-.045			-0.053	-.983	.326
Participative Climate * Organizational Identification (interaction)	.069			0.106	2.059	.040

Dependent Variable: Employee Silence

Since the interaction was significant, two-way interaction effects for standardized variables were plotted as seen in Figure 7 and the Probing Procedure suggested by Aiken and West (1991) was conducted to make a final decision regarding the moderating role of organizational identification.

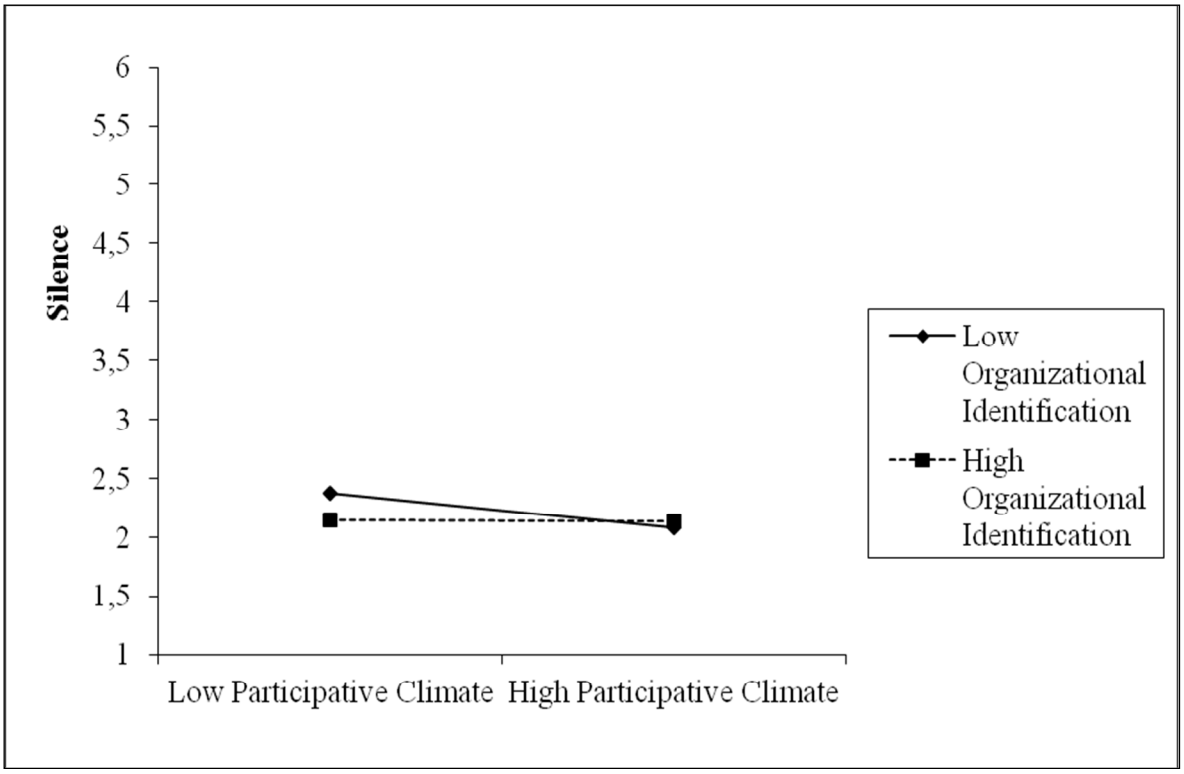

Figure 7: The interaction of participative climate and organizational identification in terms of their effect on employee silence

As seen in Table 25, the negative relationship between participative climate and employee silence was significant (Beta=-.243; p=.000) only for employees with low identification scores but the coefficient was not significantly different than zero (p>.05) for employees with high identification scores. *The findings revealed that organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee silence in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is low.*

Table 25: The relationship of participative climate and employee silence for high identification and low identification cases

Dependent Variable	Employee Silence		
Independent Variables	Participative Climate		
Adjusted R^2: 0.055	**F test:** 14.190	**Significance:**	.000
Variable in equation	**Beta**	**t**	**p**
Participative Climate	-.243	-3.767	.000
Case: Organizational Identification<= 4.67 (Selected)			

Dependent Variable	Employee Silence		
Independent Variables	Participative Climate		
Adjusted R^2: -0.001	**F test:** 0.043	**Significance:**	0.354
Variable in equation	**Beta**	**t**	**p**
Participative Climate	.071	.930	.354
Case: Organizational Identification>4.67 (Selected)			

N:404

4.6.4. The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence

As in the case of participative climate and employee silence, hierarchical regression analysis was executed with standard scores of organizational identification, authentic leadership, and their interactions. As seen in Table 26, in the third step, the interaction score was significant (p=.031) and it was plotted as presented in Figure 8.

Table 26: The moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 1			.011		5.56	.019
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.102	-.117			-2.36	.019
Step 2			.015	0.007	4.153	.016
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.080	-.091			-1.765	.078
Organizational Identification	-.072	-.085			-1.650	.100
Step 3			.024	0.01	4.356	.005
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.077	-.088			-1.713	.088
Organizational Identification	-.045	-.054			-.999	.319
Authentic Leadership* Organizational Identification (interaction)	.072	.111			2.164	.031

Dependent Variable: Employee Silence

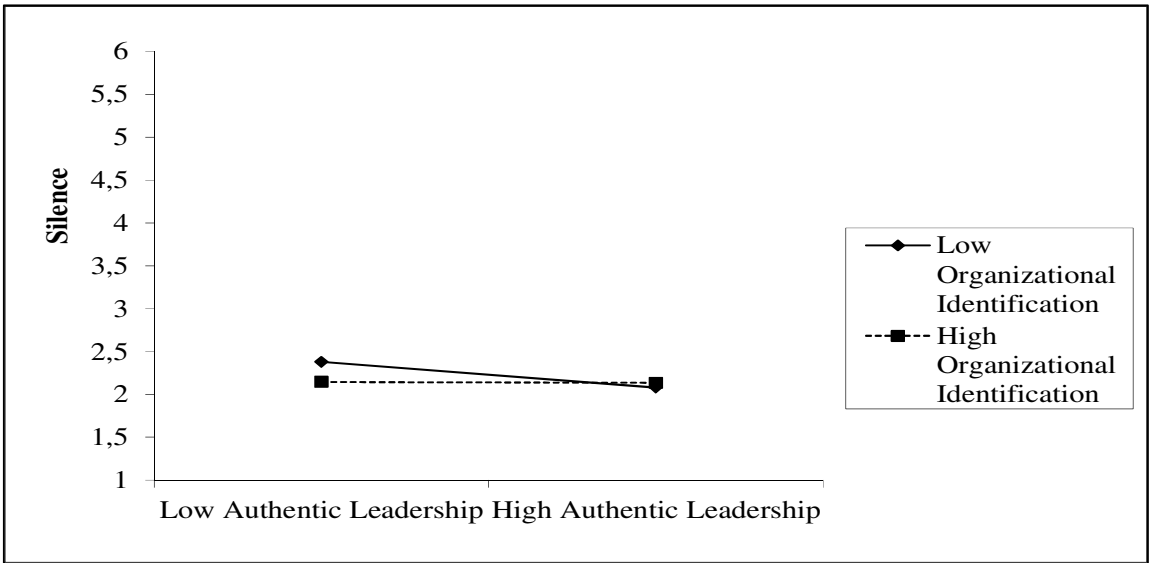

Figure 8: The interaction of authentic leadership and organizational identification in terms of their effect on employee silence

As presented in Table 27, when low identification cases were selected for the linear regression analysis, authentic leadership was found to be negatively related with employee silence (Beta=-.203; p=.002). For cases with high identification scores, the regression coefficient for authentic leadership was not significant (p>.05). *The results revealed that authentic leadership is negatively related with employee silence, and organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is low.*

Table 27: The relationship of authentic leadership and employee silence for high identification and low identification cases

Dependent Variable	Employee Silence			
Independent Variables	Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2: 0.041	**F test:** 9.725		**Significance:**	.002
Variable in equation		**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership		-.203	-3.119	.002
Case: Organizational Identification<= 4.67 (Selected)				
Dependent Variable	Employee Silence			
Independent Variables	Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2: -0.006	**F test:** 0.026		**Significance:**	0.873
Variable in equation		**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership		.012	.160	.873
Case: Organizational Identification>4.67 (Selected)				
N:404				

4.6.5. The moderating role of personality on the relationship between participative climate and employee silence

Hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that personality did not have a significant moderating role (p>.05) on the relationship of participative climate and employee silence. In Table 28, results related to the effects of the independent variable and

the moderating variables on employee silence are presented. When participative climate and personality dimensions were entered into the regression equation**,** it was observed that the coefficient for participative climate was not significantly different than zero (p=.172). When Big Five factors of personality were investigated, it was seen that Extraversion (B=-.276; p=.000) and Conscientiousness (Beta=-.163; p=.007) were negatively related with "silence" whereas Neuroticism (Beta=.125; p=.01) was positively related. The coefficients for Agreeableness and Openness to Experience were not significant (p>.05). The variables explained 19.2 percent of the variation in employee silence (F=16.909; p=.000).

Table 28: The effects of participative climate and personality factors on employee silence

Dependent Variable	Employee Silence			
Independent Variables	Participative Climate, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness			
Adjusted R^2: .192	**F test:**	16.909	**Significance:**	.000
Variables in equation		**Beta**	**t**	**p**
Participative Climate		-.063	-1.369	.172
Extraversion		-.276	-4.219	.000
Agreeableness		.107	1.858	.064
Neuroticism		.125	2.589	.010
Openness to Experience		-.071	-1.017	.310
Conscientiousness		-.163	-2.715	.007

N: 404

4.6.6. The moderating role of personality on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence

In order to test the role of personality factors on the relationship of authentic leadership and employee silence, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted and the results are presented in Table 29 (Step 1 is presented in Table 23). The interaction scores of authentic leadership with openness to experience and neuroticism were significant and the interactions are plotted in Figure 9 and Figure 10.

Table 29: The moderating role of personality factors on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Step 2			.114	.104	26.802	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.072	-.083			-1.754	.080
Openness to Experience	-.332	-.325			-6.885	.000
Step 3			.120	.009	19.403	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.080	-.091			-1.937	.053
Openness to Experience	-.330	-.323			-6.871	.000
Authentic Leadership*Openness to Experience (interaction)	.100	.096			2.044	.042
Step 2			.046	.037	10.626	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.093	-.107			-2.196	.029
Neuroticism	.187	.192			3.936	.000
Step 3			.052	.009	8.424	.000
					t	
Authentic Leadership	-.092	-.106			-2.173	.030
Neuroticism	.181	.187			3.836	.000
Authentic Leadership*Neuroticism (interaction)	.091	.096			1.967	.050

Dependent Variable: Employee Silence

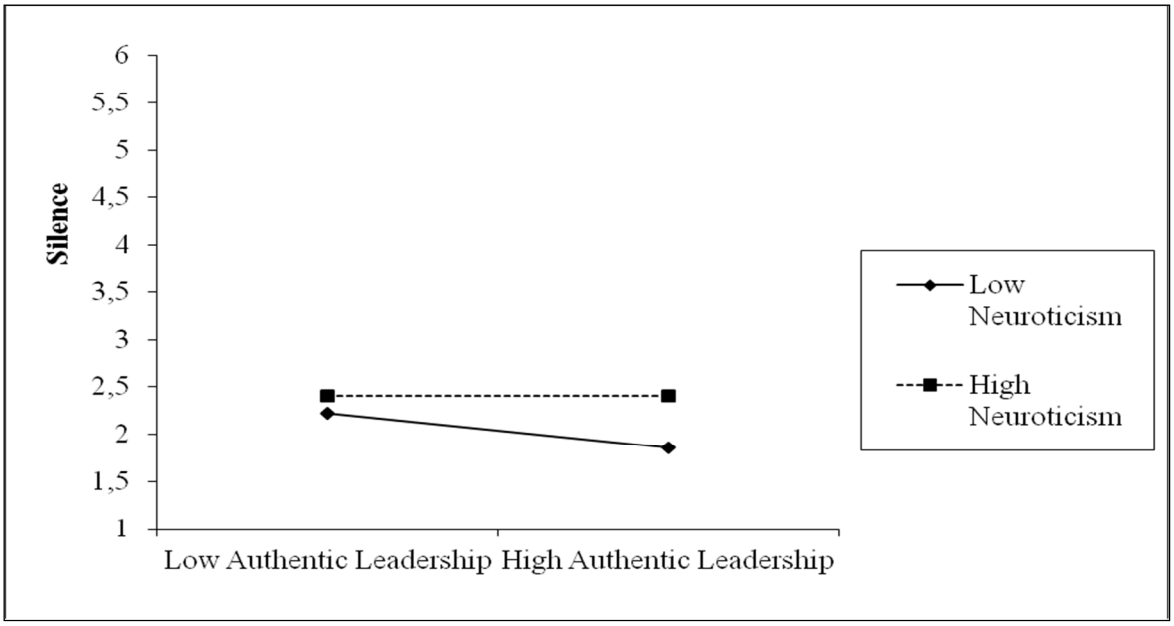

Figure 9: The interaction of authentic leadership and neuroticism in terms of their effect on employee silence

Table 30: The relationship of authentic leadership and employee silence for high and low neuroticism cases

Dependent Variable		Employee Silence			
Independent Variables		Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2:	0.024	**F test:**	5.853	**Significance:**	.016
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership Case: Neuroticism<=3.14 (Selected)			-.169	-2.419	.016
Dependent Variable		Employee Silence			
Independent Variables		Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2:	-0.001	**F test: 0.833**		**Significance:**	**0.363**
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership Case: Neuroticism>3.14 (Selected)			-.064	-.913	.363
N:404					

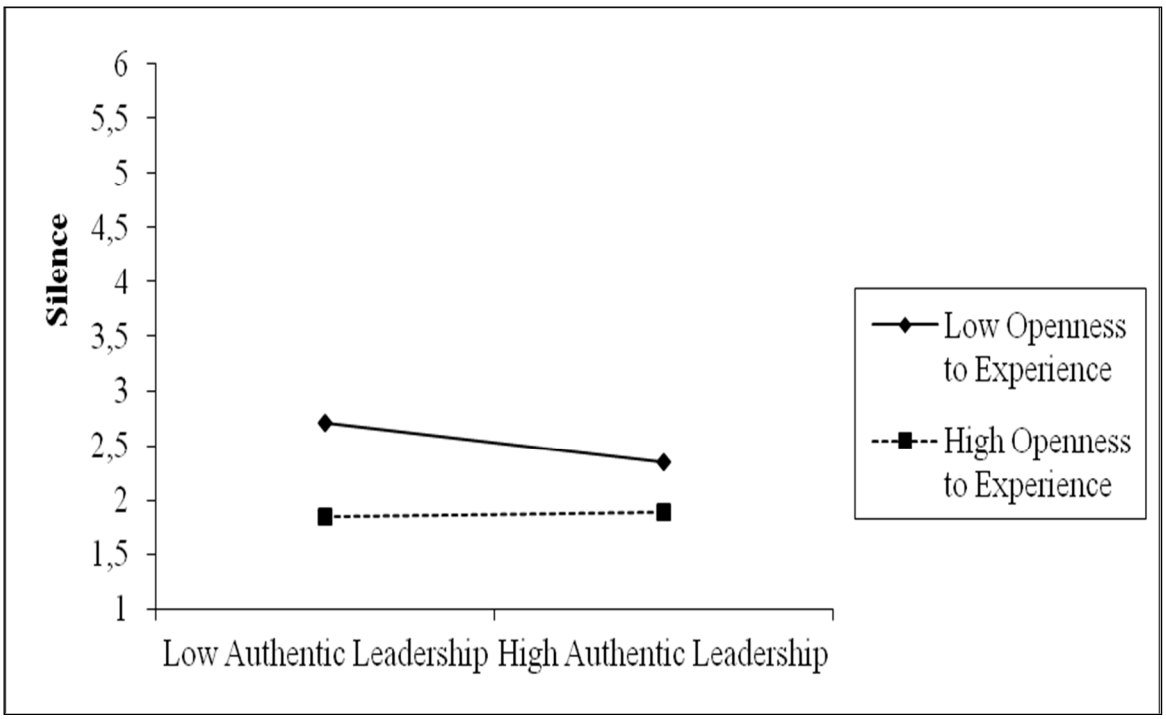

Figure 10: The interaction of authentic leadership and openness to experience in terms of their effect on employee silence

As seen in Table 31, the negative relationship of authentic leadership with employee silence was significant for employees with low openness to experience cases (Beta=-.146; p=.045). However, the coefficient was not significantly different than zero for employees with high openness to experience scores (p>.05).

Neuroticism and Openness to Experience moderate the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Neuroticism and Openness to Experience are low.

Table 31: The relationship of authentic leadership and employee silence for high and low openness to experience cases

Dependent Variable		Employee Silence			
Independent Variables		Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2:	0.016	**F test:**	4.083	**Significance:**	0.045
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership			-0.146	-2.021	0.045
Openness to Experience<=5.71 (Selected)					
Dependent Variable		Employee Silence			
Independent Variables		Authentic Leadership			
Adjusted R^2:	-0.004	**F test:**	0.157	**Significance:**	0.692
Variable in equation			**Beta**	**T**	**p**
Authentic Leadership			-0.027	-0.397	0.692
Openness to Experience>5.71 (Selected)					

N:404

4.7. SUMMARY OF SUPPLEMENTARY FINDINGS ON EMPLOYEE SILENCE

The aim of the current study was to investigate employee voice behavior by testing the proposed hypotheses but as discussed in the previous sections, factor analysis of the voice scale revealed a second factor named as silence. Therefore, statistical analyses executed on voice behavior are also implemented on silence and significant results presented in the above sections are summarized in Table 32 for the benefit of the readers. Relevant issues are addressed in the upcoming Discussion chapter.

Table 32: Summary of the findings on employee silence

Key Findings	Notes
Participative climate contributes negatively to employee silence behavior.	(Beta=-.120; p=.015)
Authentic leadership contributes negatively to employee silence behavior.	(Beta=-.117; p=.019)
Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between participative climate and employee silence in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is low.	Low OI cases: (Beta=-.243; p=.000) High OI cases: Not significant
Organizational identification (OI) moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is low.	Low OI cases: (Beta=-.203; p=.002) High OI cases: Not significant
Personality does not have a significant moderating role (p> .05) on the relationship of participative climate and employee silence but participative climate and three dimensions of the big five are significantly related to silence.	Extraversion (B=-.276; p=.000) and Conscientiousness (Beta=-.163; p=.007) were negatively related with silence whereas Neuroticism (Beta=.125; p=.01) was positively related Agreeableness and Openness to Experience were not significant (p>.05)
Neuroticism and Openness to Experience moderate the negative relationship between authentic leadership and employee silence in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when Neuroticism and Openness to Experience are low.	Low neuroticism cases: (Beta=-.169; p=.016) High neuroticism cases: Not significant Low openness to experience cases: (Beta=-.146; p=.045) High openness to experience cases: Not significant

4.8. COMPARING THE KEY FINDINGS ON EMPLOYEE VOICE AND SILENCE

In order to have a solid idea about how the variables are related to employee *voice* and *silence*, a brief review of the key findings are presented in this section.

The results revealed that as proposed in Hypothesis 1, *participative climate* contributed positively to *voice* behavior (Beta=.154; p=.002) whereas negatively to *silence* behavior (Beta=-.120; p=.015).

Hypothesis 2 proposed that *authentic leadership* contributes positively to *voice* behavior and the result was as expected (Beta=.163; p=.001). The analysis on *silence*, on the other hand, revealed that *authentic leadership* was negatively related to *silence* (Beta=-.117; p=.019).

In Hypothesis 3a it was proposed that *organizational identification (OI)* moderates the relationship between *participative climate* and employee *voice* in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger when organizational identification is high. Although the results did not support the hypothesis, *OI* was found to be significantly and positively related with *voice* (Beta=.207; p=.000).

Analyses on *silence* revealed that *OI* moderated the *participative climate* and *silence* relationship in such a way that the negative relationship was significant only for employees with low OI scores.

Similarly, in Hypothesis 3b, *OI* was expected to moderate the positive relationship between *authentic leadership* and *voice* behavior but the results did not support the hypothesis. However, *OI* was significantly and positively related with *voice* (B=.210; p=.000).

Analyses on *silence* revealed that *OI* moderated the negative relationship between *authentic leadership* and *silence* in such a way that the negative relationship was stronger for low OI scores.

Hypothesis 4a was about the role of *personality* on the relationship between *participative climate* and employee *voice*. The hypothesis stated that the relationship becomes stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience are high. Although Extraversion (Beta=.535; p=.000), Conscientiousness (Beta=.403; p=.000), and Openness to Experience (Beta=.500; p=.000) were positively related to voice, no moderation effect was observed.

Regression analysis conducted to test hypothesis 4c revealed that *personality* moderated the relationship between *participative climate* and employee *voice* in such a way that the relationship became weaker when Neuroticism was high. Unexpectedly, for high Agreeableness, participative climate was positively related with employee voice (B=.188; p=.000).

Personality did not have a significant moderating role (p>.05) on the relationship of *participative climate* and employee *silence.* However, *participative climate* and three dimensions of the *Big Five* were found to be significantly related to *silence* behavior. Whereas Extraversion (B=-.276; p=.000) and Conscientiousness (Beta=-.163; p=.007) were negatively related with *silence,* Neuroticism (Beta=.125; p=.01) was seen to be positively related.

Hypothesis 4b suggested that a moderating effect would be observed for *authentic leadership* and employee *voice* relationship in such a way that the relationship would become stronger when Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience were high. Test of the hypothesis revealed that the moderation effect was not significant, however, when entered into regression with authentic leadership; Extraversion (Beta=.044; p=.000), Conscientiousness (Beta=.398; p=.000), and Openness to Experience (Beta= .497; p=.000) were positively related to *voice*.

Hypothesis 4d stated that *personality* moderates the relationship between *authentic leadership* and employee *voice* in such a way that the relationship becomes weaker when Neuroticism and Agreeableness are high. The proposed hypothesis was only supported for

Neuroticism. Although a moderation effect was not observed, Agreeableness was found to be positively and significantly related to *voice* (Beta=.274; p=.000).

Analysis on *silence* behavior revealed that Neuroticism and Openness to Experience moderated the negative relationship between *authentic leadership* and *employee silence* in such a way that the relationship became stronger when Neuroticism and Openness to Experience were low.

The above summary reveals that research variables (participative climate, authentic leadership, organizational identification, and the Big Five) display differential relationships with employee voice and employee silence behaviors. Since the adjusted R squares were small, stepwise regression analyses were conducted to examine if the variables would demonstrate better explanatory power for the variances in dependent variables. All variables other than voice behavior and silence behavior were entered as independent variables into the model simultaneously to observe their consequential effects on dependent variables. Results of the stepwise regression analyses are presented in Table 33.

The results revealed that *Extraversion* (B=.351; p=.000), *Openness to Experience* (B=.241; p=.000), and *Organizational Identification* (B=.126; p=.002) were positively related with employee "*voice*" and explained 34 % of the variance in *voice* behavior. *Authentic leadership, participative climate, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness,* and *Neuroticism* were excluded from the model.

Employee "*silence*", on the other hand, was found to be negatively related with *Extraversion* (B=-.297; p=.000) and *Conscientiousness* (B=-.150; p=.007); and positively related with *Neuroticism* (B=.111; p=.016). These variables explained 19 % of the variance in *silence* behavior. All other variables were excluded from the model.

Table 33: Stepwise regression analysis of variables with voice behavior and silence behavior

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Dependent Variable: Voice Behavior						
Step 1			.295		169.822	.000
					t	
Extraversion	.576	.545			13.032	.000
Step 2			.325	.031	98.053	.000
					t	
Extraversion	.391	.370			6.435	.000
Openness to Experience	.272	.249			4.333	.000
Step 3			.339	.015	69.816	.000
Extraversion	.371	.351			6.126	.000
Openness to Experience	.263	.241			4.234	.000
Organizational Identification	.114	.126			3.048	.002

Table 33 continued

Variables	B	Beta	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change	F	p
Dependent Variable: Silence Behavior						
Step 1			.160		78.037	.000
					t	
Extraversion	-.399	-.403			-8.834	.000
Step 2			.177	.019	44.429	.000
					t	
Extraversion	-.304	-.307			-5.559	.000
Conscientiousness	-.169	-.168			-3.037	.003
Step 3			.187	.012	31.925	.000
					t	
Extraversion	-.294	-.297			-5.399	.000
Conscientiousness	-.150	-.150			-2.699	.007
Neuroticism	.108	.111			2.417	.016

N:404

Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050; Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

5.1. CONCLUSION

As discussed earlier, majority of voice researchers focused on the consequences of voice behavior. Although exemplar studies on the antecedents of voice behavior exist in the literature (e.g., see Çelik, 2008; Detert and Burris, 2007; Islam and Zyphur, 2005, and Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998; 2001), this research stream is still in the evolving phase. As Islam and Zyphur (2005) addressed, investigation of multiple antecedents of voice is necessary in order to understand the phenomenon completely and to suggest precise practical implications. In order to predict voice better, Le Pine and Van Dyne (1998) proposed to study the construct by involving individual and contextual factors in the research design simultaneously. Following this suggestion, the present study set out to determine the situation-based and person-based factors influencing employee voice. This is the main strength of the current study.

Previous research on speaking up and withholding ideas and thoughts stressed that top management attitudes, immediate supervisor approaches, and organizational climate were found to be relevant situational factors (e.g. Çakıcı, 2008; Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Vokola and Bouradas, 2005). Therefore, participative climate and authentic leadership as perceived by employees were included as situation-based factors in the model.

The role of perceived participative climate (information sharing and participative decision making) on employee voice behavior was examined, and as hypothesized; a significant positive relationship was observed. As Parker (1998) noted, participative climate characterized by increased quality of two-way communication at the workplace will nurture greater self-efficacy perceptions and employees will be more likely "to have something to say" about work-related issues. This can be seen as the first step towards

voice behavior. Moreover, participative decision making is known to offer employees greater control over their job (Probst, 2005).

In a secure work environment, workers feel accepted and respected. The safety felt in such situations lead the participants to have less concern about the costs of expressing their views. Edmondson (2003) emphasized that members of interdisciplinary teams were more likely to voice their opinions and concerns regarding important work issues when they worked in a climate where they experienced psychological safety about voice and employees were actively encouraged to speak up. It is also reported that employee involvement is positively related to the degree which employees find their distinct climate to be supportive of participation (Tesluk et al., 1999).

As mentioned before, Turkey is known as a country where power distance is relatively large (Aycan et al., 2000; Hofstede, 1991) and as Hofstede (1991) pointed out, individuals from a large power distance culture tend to take hierarchical inequalities for granted, they are socialized to avoid direct conflicts with those in power, and are inclined to accept the actions of those in authority uncritically (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). Consequently, they are less likely to voice their concerns to their superiors. As Huang et al. (2005) noted, since any form of involvement is novel and unexpected, management practices fostering active contribution are less effective in countries with larger power distance cultures. Therefore, in large power distance cultures, formalized involvement schemes work only under a strong perceived participative climate. As Hofstede (1991) stated, Turkey is a collectivistic society which values maintaining the harmony of the group and avoiding open conflicts. Voice is a challenge to status quo or confrontation to dominant views of the majority and includes the risk of harming the harmony with divergent ideas. Employees' collective perceptions of participative climate, the extent to which new ideas, suggestions, and even dissenting views are welcomed within the organization, might be a key facilitator of voice. In such a climate, voice behavior is encouraged by creating a safe environment which suppresses the natural tendency of the national culture towards silence arising from large power distance and concerns for harmony.

Supervisors are liable for organizational problems. Therefore, directly or indirectly they would become the targets of employee voice, which is a challenge to status quo, and they would create the most important concern for employees since during displaying voice behavior, a confrontation would occur between the two parties (Hsiang, 2012). As Landau (2009a) and Detert and Trevino (2010) pointed out, the immediate supervisor with his/her level of receptiveness would be an enabler or disabler of employee voice. Immediate supervisors strongly influence employee voice perceptions and do more than merely reinforce an overall climate for speaking up set by top level leaders. Kerfoot (2006) noted that authenticity is only perceived by others and just people who have experience with the leader can attribute authenticity to him or her. Authentic leaders objectively analyze relevant data and explore others' opinions before making a decision, they are clear and open about their perspectives and receptive to differing views, their actions are consistent with their expressed values and ethical standards, and they communicate openly and honestly with others (Gardner et al., 2005; Wong et al., 2010). In the present study, authentic leadership characteristics demonstrated by the immediate supervisor (as perceived by subordinates) were expected to indicate a positive relationship with employee voice, and as hypothesized; a significant positive relationship was observed. This finding is consistent with Saunders et al.'s (1992) proposal stating that employees' perception about the way their supervisors manage employee voice may be identified as a major determinant of upward employee voice. Similarly, Landau (2009b) reported that working with a supervisor who is more approachable and responsive to employee voice facilitates higher voice propensity on the part of employees.

Besides testing the role of situation-based factors, it was also deemed important to test the role of individual factors in terms of their influence on the relationship between situational variables and the outcome variable. Research findings proposing that personality would be related to contextual performance (e.g. Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994; Motowidlo et al., 1997), Le Pine and Van Dyne's (2001) findings on Big Five Traits and voice behavior, Burris et al.'s (2008) findings on organizational identification and speaking up, and more specifically, Tangilara and Ramanujam's (2008)

findings about the moderating role of organizational identification on the relationship of personal control and employee voice suggested that individual factors might be included in the study as moderators. Therefore, in order to explore the interaction of situational and personal factors, two individual-level variables (organizational identification and big five personality traits) were included in the model.

It was hypothesized that organizational identification moderates the positive relationship of situation-based factors (authentic leadership and participative climate) and employee voice behavior. Although the hypotheses related to the moderation effects were not confirmed, organizational identification was found to be positively related with employee voice such that employees who had higher identification scores reported more voice behavior than employees who had lower identification scores. Individuals who hold strong organizational identification care for the well-being and interest of their workplace and are more likely to be engaged in going the extra mile on behalf of the organization. It seems that independent from contextual factors (like climate or leader); organizational identification leads employees to voice their thoughts and opinions for organizational benefits. Alternatively, as Bartels et al. (2007) suggested, organizational identification is a form of group identification and may exist at different levels like work-group, business unit (within a specific location of a multi-site organization), or department. They also reported that climate appears to create a stronger impact on identification with a sub-identity of the organization where communication takes place, implying that multiple organizational identification levels might interact with contextual factors (e.g. climate and leader) to increase the propensity of voice behavior.

On the basis of the interactionist principle of trait activation theory which proposed that personality traits are expressed as responses to trait-relevant situational cues (Tett and Guterman, 2000), it was suggested that Big Five personality traits would interact with contextual factors (perceived climate and perceived leadership) to moderate the relationship with voice behavior. It was hypothesized that when Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness interacted with participative climate and authentic

leadership, the positive relationship between the contextual factors and voice would become stronger for individuals with high scores on each trait. Also, it was assumed that Neuroticism and Agreeableness would moderate the positive relationship of participative climate and authentic leadership with employee voice in such a way that the relationship would become weaker when individuals demonstrated higher scores of Neuroticism and Agreeableness.

Although no moderation effect was observed for Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness, and the hypotheses were not supported, it was found that all of the three traits were significantly and positively related to voice. The findings on Extraversion and Conscientiousness were consistent with the previous findings of Le Pine and Van Dyne (2001) which indicated a positive relationship with voice. It might be stated that individuals who are highly conscientious are by nature achievement-oriented and feel themselves responsible for contributing to solutions of organizational problems or supporting improvements. It is also possible to propose that since extroverts are more comfortable, better skilled in communicating their thoughts (Barrick and Mount, 1991), and less likely to be inhibited by conformity pressures, they will be more willing to express change-oriented opinions. Thus, regardless of the climate and the leader, conscientious and extrovert individuals are expected to display voice behavior. The positive relationship of openness to experience with voice is understandable since as Karkoulian and Osman (2009) noted, openness to experience deals with one's attraction to and interest in new things. Highly open individuals are sensitive, imaginative, inquisitive, and creative. Nevertheless, as cited by Ang et al. (2006), research findings about openness are related to few job outcomes and the findings are mixed. As such, current findings contribute to the literature on Openness to Experience trait.

The results of the current study confirmed the moderation effect for Neuroticism. That is, as expected, the positive relationship of participative climate and authentic leadership with voice was weaker for highly Neurotic individuals. Individuals with a high level of neuroticism tend to perceive ordinary situations as threatening and experience

difficulties in terms of trusting others. Besides, as Karkoulian and Osman (2009) suggested, neuroticism is negatively related to interpersonal trust and in the absence of psychological safety, individuals may choose to avoid voicing their thoughts and ideas (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001). Such insecurity on the part of Neurotic individuals prevents them from speaking up even in the presence of a climate where employees are involved in decision making processes and leaders who display transparent attitudes.

On the other hand, no moderation effect was observed for Agreeableness in the hypothesized direction. Unexpectedly, for high agreeableness, participative climate was positively related with employee voice. Contrary to the findings of Le Pine and Van Dyne (2001) who reported that agreeableness is negatively related to voice behavior, results of the current study revealed that agreeableness was positively and significantly related to employee voice. Karkoulian and Osman (2009) suggested that high degrees of agreeableness increase interpersonal trust in the workplace which facilitates knowledge sharing between the members of an organization. Since trust is the key enabler of challenging the status quo, by freely expressing ideas and thoughts, voice propensity of the highly agreeable employees would increase. The findings of Steven and Ash (2001) and Benoliel and Somech (2010) revealed that individuals with high scores on agreeableness preferred and were satisfied with participative management more than individuals with lower agreeableness scores. Shared decision making processes and open communication can help lower barriers between people and in return create an atmosphere that is likely to facilitate the exchange of ideas and thoughts. It appears that further research is needed to clarify the relationship between the two constructs, including the cultural differences attributed to the trait of agreeableness. Since employees in individualistic cultures value independence whereas those in collectivistic cultures care about harmony, it may be possible that agreeableness displays different relationships with outcome variables in distinct cultures.

As noted in Chapter 1, research findings on the relationship of demographics and employee voice are mixed. Several demographic variables have been found to be related to

employee voice including gender (e.g. Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998), age (e.g. Luchak, 2003), education level (e.g. Le Pine and Van Dyne, 1998), managerial status (e.g. Kassing and Avtgis, 1999), and tenure (e.g. Çelik, 2008; Stamper and Van Dyne, 2001). On the other hand, some studies (e.g. Detert, Burris, and Harrison, 2010) have revealed no difference based on demographics. Therefore, it is worth exploring the relationship of demographics and voice behavior to shed light on this issue. Test results indicated that voice behavior was not significantly different between groups based on gender, age, present tenure, total tenure, and sector. As the education level increased, mean values of voice behavior increased as well, however, differences between the groups were not statistically significant.

The only demographic variable that was significantly related to the level of voice was employees' position. One-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the mean values of voice were higher for employees who occupied higher positions in the organization. Kassing and Avtgis (1999) asserted that managers are more likely to speak up than non-managers and this finding is consistent with their proposal. As Hofstede (1991) and Aycan et al. (2010) addressed, power distance between the leader and the follower is relatively large in Turkey. Therefore, voice differences between managers and non-managers may be anticipated to be more pronounced in our society. Employees at lower levels of the organization are likely to be affected from power distance perceptions more than employees at higher levels. In line with role perceptions within the organization, employees at lower levels would feel themselves responsible for performing tasks as asked and defined by their superiors whereas managers would be expected to find solutions to problems that were faced by the organization. Accordingly, managers acting in a rather autonomous way, would voice their opinions in a more comfortable fashion as compared to employees occupying non-managerial positions.

Statistical analysis processes of the research revealed two key findings. Firstly, although significant relationships between the variables were observed, the explanatory power of the independent and moderating variables for observed variance in the dependent variable was not strong. Secondly, as opposed to expectations, the dependent variable was not found to be one-dimensional. Instead, factor analysis for voice behavior scale revealed that the variable was two-dimensional (*"voice"* behavior and *"silence"* behavior). Although Woods (2006) stated that reverse-worded items can reduce the reliability and the validity of a scale, and frequently form a separate factor that does not appear to be substantially meaningful; based on further review of the literature (Bryant and Cox, 2004; Çakıcı, 2007; Morrison and Milliken, 2000; and Pinder and Harlos, 2001), it was discerned that *"silence is a separate construct"* and is *"more than lack of voice"*. Therefore, reverse-coded voice items were endorsed as silence scale.

In order to expand knowledge about how employees in organizations decide to speak up or to remain silent about issues or problems that pose concern at the workplace, Journal of Management Studies published a special issue in 2003. Most of the authors who published in the special issue were interested in exploring a particular type of behavior named as silence. Milliken and Morrison (2003) defined the concept as "the manifestation of a hesitation to speak up about an issue that is of some importance to the individual but that seems risky to speak about in their organizational context" (p. 1564). Based on the facts explained here, it was decided to carry out further analysis in order to obtain a holistic view of employee voice and employee silence phenomena.

Examination of the observed results revealed a major conclusion of the current study as follows: As Van Dyne et al. (2003) proposed, employee voice and employee silence are unique concepts not simply polar opposites. If silence behavior had been the opposite of voice or the concept had been labeled as "lack of voice", than one would expect all the variables to be significantly related with both constructs in the same manner. Although some variables (e.g. participative climate and authentic leadership) were positively related with voice and negatively related with silence, the same pattern was not

seen for other variables. For instance, organizational identification did not moderate the relationship between the contextual variables and voice; however, a moderation effect was found for the contextual variables and silence. Also, openness to experience was found to moderate the relationship between authentic leadership and silence but such an effect was not found for authentic leadership and voice. The current study contributes to the newly emerging silence behavior literature by comparing this phenomenon with voice behavior and pointing out that these constructs may display differential relationships with several variables.

After testing the hypotheses via relevant statistical procedures, considering that the explanatory power was not strong, a stepwise regression analysis was conducted to identify variables which would explain the variance in employee voice better. Besides, another stepwise regression analysis was implemented for silence behavior.

When all variables' contributions to voice behavior were examined, significant relationships between voice propensity and individual-level predictors suggested that some employees possess a predisposition to speak up or withhold their thoughts and ideas, regardless of how conducive the context is for employee voice. Compared with contextual variables (climate and leadership), individual differences (personality and organizational identification) appeared more relevant to employee voice behavior. Stepwise regression analysis for silence behavior revealed a similar result, namely, individual-level variables were found to be significantly related to silence behavior whereas no significant relationship was observed for contextual variables and silence. Although the current study espoused an interactionist approach and proposed that the situation and the individual interact, findings revealed that individual differences accounted for more variance in voice and silence behaviors than the contextual factors. Increased adjusted R squares observed in stepwise regression analyses form the basis of this conclusion.

5.2. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This dissertation recognizes that due to limited research on the antecedents of employee voice, the conceptual schema addresses only one of the many possible sets of relationship alternatives involved in the decision of articulating voice or remaining silent, and since the study is neither longitudinal nor experimental, it does not infer causality.

Several limitations of this research should be noted. First, all data was collected from the same sources by self-reported surveys which rises concerns regarding common method variance. Future research should investigate the antecedents of subordinate voice by means of using data from multiple resources.

Second, voice behavior measurement was based on self–ratings of participants which could be affected by social desirability bias. Although statistical analysis revealed that social desirability bias was not a major concern, it should be emphasized that self-reported ratings represent only the tendency for speaking up but not the actual voice behavior of participants.

Third, participative climate and authentic leadership were measured by instruments evaluating the perceptions of participants because leader influence rests ultimately on what subordinates perceive their leaders to have done or been like (Bandura, 1989). However, such perceptions of the climate and leadership can be "objectively" wrong.

Finally, convenience sampling method was used for reaching the participants and all analyses for the test of the model were done at the individual level. Therefore, especially for contextual variables, lack of organizational level variables and comparisons between organizations presents another limitation of the study. Despite significant findings obtained from the dataset of the current sample, statements about generalizability necessitate new research conducted in additional settings.

5.3. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

A broad spectrum of leaders from supervisors to senior managers influences individual employee voice perceptions in both direct and indirect ways. Leaders, who truly want to know about all employee concerns and ideas related to improvement, must proactively and systematically create tools and platforms for enabling interactions with employees at multiple levels. First of all, top managers must be sure that the vision and objectives of the organization are well communicated to the bottom levels of the organization. While informing employees about organizational goals, top managers may create a positive voice perception by establishing a decentralized decision making process. Immediate superiors, on the other hand, have an important responsibility in terms of sharing the objectives of the organization with their staff. Besides, following the initiatives displayed by top level managers, they may also involve employees in the decision making and planning processes.

Immediate superiors can contribute to positive voice perceptions by being seen as approachable, receptive, open, empathic, and tolerant. They need to avoid being perceived as abusive, reserved, or intolerant for those who admit making mistakes. Organizations can assume an active role for the development of authentic leaders by helping them to increase self-awareness through coaching and mentoring processes, reinforcing balanced processing via decentralized decision making structures, and promoting transparent relations and ethical conduct.

This research indicated that person-related factors were relevant for employee voice and thus led to a suggestion that as well as situational factors, individual predispositions to speak up or withhold ideas and thoughts are important. Therefore, managers and supervisors need to focus on selecting the right person by considering person-job fit and person-organization fit domains since personality traits may affect the level of fit and influence contextual performance. Since organizational identification is positively related with voice, superiors are also expected to expend efforts to ensure that

employees are identified with their organization at multiple levels such as work-group, department, and the leader. Employees who have developed identification patterns like these would be more likely to go extra mile for the benefit of the organization.

5.4. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on Van Dyne and Le Pine's (1998) observations stressing that self-reported voice propensity is stable over time and positively related to peer and supervisory ratings of voice behavior, the current study utilized self-ratings of participants which reflected measurement of voice propensity rather than actual voice behavior. In fact, observed behaviors or supervisor ratings might produce results different than those of self-reported behaviors. For instance, Lipponen et al. (2008) showed that organizational identification was positively related with suggestion making both for self-reports and supervisor reports, however, coefficients were different than each other (r=.15 for self reports and r=.32 for supervisor reports). Instead of relying only on self-reports of voice propensity, further studies had better involve a cross-check measure of supervisor-ratings or actual behavior reporting.

The current study investigated the role of immediate supervisors' perceived authenticity as an antecedent of voice behavior and a positive relationship between the two constructs were found. Thus, transparency, altruistic actions, and behavioral consistency seem to facilitate voice behavior. But as Landau (2009a) stated, no matter how many times it is emphasized by the management that voice is encouraged; employees will stop speaking up if they do not see that such a behavior is welcome. Therefore, in future research, immediate supervisors' responses to employee voice should also be studied.

Barrick, Parks, and Mount (2005) noted that there is evidence in the literature which suggests that personality traits interact with one another to determine behavior. For instance, Witt, Burke, Barrick, and Mount (2002) reported that the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance was stronger for persons high in agreeableness than for those low in agreeableness, particularly in jobs where interaction or joint collaboration

is necessary. Such findings imply that it is worth considering the possibility that alignment of specific personality traits (e.g. conscientiousness and neuroticism) or different combinations of traits (e.g. high agreeableness and high extraversion versus low agreeableness and high extraversion) would display various interactions with contextual variables to determine the voice propensity of individuals. Since the current study tested the interaction of each trait with contextual variables separately, it may be assumed that investigating the interactions of traits with each other as well as the interactions of trait combinations with contextual variables would provide more information by means of increasing the explained variance in voice behavior. Besides, additional individual level and contextual determinants could be integrated into future investigations of employee voice. For example, individual level work-group identification and procedural justice perceptions, or group-level identification and group-level procedural justice perceptions (Tangirala and Ramanujam, 2008b) and top management attitudes (Morrison and Milliken, 2000) may be studied in terms of their effects on voice behavior.

Finally, although on the surface, expressing ideas or withholding ideas might appear to be polar opposites as suggested by the new emerging literature on silence (e.g. Bryant and Cox, 2004; Çakıcı, 2007; Morrison and Milliken, 2000; and Pinder and Harlos, 2001), the current study revealed that silence is a separate construct and is more than "lack of voice". Van Dyne et al. (2003) conceptualized employee silence and employee voice behaviors as multiple constructs based on employee motives (disengagement, fear, and cooperation) and concluded that silence is more ambiguous than voice. Hence, the observers are likely to misattribute employee motives more for silence than voice. The current study coincidentally explored silence behavior and contributed to the literature by comparing voice and silence in terms of hypothesized main effects and moderation. However, more research is required for casting light on these constructs. Therefore, further research should focus on how voice and silence are related to each other by systematically examining the effects of contextual and individual variables over different sample groups and organizations.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Survey Questionnaire (in Turkish)

Aşağıda yöneticilerle ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. İşyerinizde doğrudan bağlı bulunduğunuz ilk yöneticinizi düşünerek "Hiçbir Zaman" ile "Her Zaman" arasında verilen seçeneklerden size uygun olan seçeneği her bir ifadenin sağında bulunan boş kutulara işaretleyiniz.

Hiçbir Zaman=1 Nadiren=2 Bazen=3

Genellikle=4 Çoğu Zaman=5 Her Zaman=6

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Kastetmek istediğini açıkça söyler.						
2	Hatalarını kabul etmez. ®						
3	Herkesi düşüncelerini dile getirmesi için cesaretlendirir.						
4	Saf, katıksız gerçeği söyler.						
5	Ortaya koyduğu duyguları gerçekte hissettikleriyle birebir uyumludur.						
6	Sonuca varmadan önce farklı bakış açılarını dikkate almaz. ®						
7	Kendi temel değerlerine dayanan kararlar alır.						
8	Çalışanlarının da kendi temel değerlerine dayanan tutum ve duruş sergilemelerini ister.						
9	Aldığı zor kararları ahlaki kurallar çerçevesinde şekillendirir.						
10	Sıkı bir şekilde inandığı görüşlerinin sorgulanmasını istemez. ®						
11	Karar vermeden önce ilgili bilgileri analiz eder.						
12	İfade ettiği inançları sergilediği davranışlarıyla tutarlıdır.						
13	Diğerleriyle etkileşimini geliştirmek için geribildirim talep eder.						
14	Diğerlerinin onun yeteneklerini nasıl değerlendirdiğini tam olarak bilir.						
15	Önemli meselelerdeki görüşlerini ne zaman tekrar gözden geçirmesi gerektiğini bilir.						
16	Belirli eylemlerin diğerlerini nasıl etkilediğinin farkında olduğunu gösterir.						

Aşağıda çalıştığınız kurumla ilgili görüşlerinizi yansıtan ifadeler bulunmaktadır. "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" ile "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" arasında verilen seçeneklerden size uygun olan seçeneği her bir ifadenin sağında bulunan boş kutulara işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum=1 **Katılmıyorum=2** **Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum=3**

Biraz Katılıyorum=4 **Katılıyorum=5** **Kesinlikle Katılıyorum=6**

		1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Herhangi bir kişi çalıştığım kurumu eleştirdiğinde bunu kendime yapılmış bir aşağılama olarak görürüm.						
18	Başkalarının çalıştığım kurum hakkındaki görüşleri benim için önemlidir.						
19	Çalıştığım kurum hakkında konuşurken "onlar" değil "biz" diye konuşurum.						
20	Çalıştığım kurumun başarısını kendi başarım olarak görürüm.						
21	Herhangi bir kişi çalıştığım kurumu övdüğünde bunu kendime yapılmış bir övgü olarak görürüm.						
22	Medyada çalıştığım kurumla ilgili kötü bir haber çıksa bundan utanç duyarım.						

Aşağıda çalıştığınız kurumdaki karar alma ve iletişim süreçleriyle ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" ile "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" arasında verilen seçeneklerden size uygun olan seçeneği her bir ifadenin sağında bulunan boş kutulara işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum=1 **Katılmıyorum=2** **Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum=3**

Biraz Katılıyorum=4 **Katılıyorum=5** **Kesinlikle Katılıyorum=6**

		1	2	3	4	5	6
23	İşlerin nasıl yapılacağı, hangi yöntemlerin kullanılacağı ve hedeflerin ne olacağı konusunda çalışanların fikri sorulur.						
24	Önemli kararlar durumu en iyi bilen çalışanlar tarafından verilir.						
25	Çalışanların çoğu kendi birimlerini etkileyen kararların alınmasına katkı sağlar.						
26	Yöneticiler çalışanları etkileyecek kararları alırken çalışanların fikirlerini sorarlar.						
27	Çalışanlar arasında düzenli bilgi ve deneyim paylaşımı vardır.						
28	Çalışanlar misyon, planlar ve gelişmeler konusunda bilgilendirilir.						
29	Yapısal değişikliklerle ilgili çalışanlara yeterli bilgi verilir.						

		1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Farklı bölümler arasında istenen düzeyde iletişim vardır.						
31	Üst yönetim çalışanlarla yeterli düzeyde iletişim kurar.						

Aşağıda çalıştığınız kurumda çeşitli konulardaki yaklaşım tarzınızla ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. "Hiçbir Zaman" ile "Her Zaman" arasında verilen seçeneklerden size uygun olan seçeneği her bir ifadenin sağında bulunan boş kutulara işaretleyiniz.

Hiçbir Zaman=1 Nadiren=2 Bazen=3

Genellikle=4 Çoğu Zaman=5 Her Zaman=6

		1	2	3	4	5	6
32	İşe yaramayacak bir öneri üzerinde herkes hemfikir olursa sessiz kalmayı tercih ederim. ®						
33	Problemlere çözüm önerim varsa önerilerimi dile getiririm.						
34	Görüş ayrılıkları olduğunda fikrimi kendime saklar, sessiz kalırım. ®						
35	İşin nasıl geliştirileceği ile ilgili fikirlerimi ifade ederim.						
36	Bir planın veya fikrin işe yaramayacağını hissedersem bunu dile getiririm.						
37	İşimi daha iyi yapabilmem için daha fazla bilgi almaya ihtiyacım olduğunda soru sormak yerine sessiz kalırım. ®						
38	Çalışma arkadaşlarım benimle aynı fikirde olmasa bile işle ilgili görüşlerimi açıkça söylerim.						
39	Kuruma yararı olabilecek projelerle ilgili fikirlerimi dile getiririm.						
40	Söylenmesi gerekenleri söylerim.						
41	Problemlerin çözümü için ne yapılması gerektiğini bildiğim halde sessiz kalmayı tercih ederim. ®						
42	Kurumu etkileyecek konularla ilgili önerilerde bulunurum.						
43	Yapılan işler benim anlayışımla çelişirse kendi fikirlerimi söylerim.						

Açıklama: Aşağıda bireyleri tanımak için kullanılan sıfat çiftleri verilmektedir. Sizden istenen, her bir sıfat çiftini okuyarak size uygunluk derecesine karar vermenizdir. Her sıfat çifti için bir tek kutuyu doldurunuz. Doğru cevap yoktur, size uygun cevap vardır. Bunu dikkate alarak cevaplamaya çalışınız. Cevaplarınızı aşağıdaki örneklere göre belirtiniz.

	Çok uygun	Oldukça uygun	Biraz uygun	Ne uygun, ne uygun değil	Biraz uygun	Oldukça uygun	Çok uygun	
İçedönük		X						Dışadönük
İçedönük							X	Dışadönük
İçedönük				X				Dışadönük

Bu örneklerde,

1. **Örnek kişi kendini oldukça içedönük olarak görmektedir,**
2. **Örnek kişi kendini çok dışadönük olarak görmektedir,**
3. **Örnek kişi bu boyutlarda kararsızdır veya her iki sıfatı da kendine uzak veya yakın görmektedir, anlamına gelmektedir.**

		Çok uygun	Oldukça uygun	Biraz uygun	Ne uygun, ne uygun değil	Biraz uygun	Oldukça uygun	Çok uygun	
44	Sakin								Sinirli
45	Yalnızlığı tercih eden								Sosyal (topluluğu seven)
46	Sanata ilgisiz								Sanata ilgili
47	Kindar								Affedici
48	Düzensiz								Düzenli
49	Sabırlı								Sabırsız
50	Silik								Atak
51	Hayal gücü zayıf								Hayal gücü kuvvetli
52	(Başkalarına) kayıtsız								Yardımsever
53	Sorumsuz								Sorumluluk sahibi

		Çok uygun	Oldukça uygun	Biraz uygun	Ne uygun, ne uygun değil	Biraz uygun	Oldukça uygun	Çok uygun	
54	Rahat								Tedirgin
55	Uyuşuk, eli ağır								Canlı
56	Dar görüşlü								Geniş görüşlü
57	Rekabetçi								İşbirliği yapan
58	Hırslı değil								Hırslı
59	Tutarlı								Tutarsız
60	Durgun								Delidolu
61	Alışılmış								Yenilikçi
62	Kibirli								Alçakgönüllü
63	Dikkatsiz								Dikkatli
64	İyimser								Karamsar
65	Neşesiz								Neşeli
66	Meraksız								Meraklı
67	Asi								Uysal, yumuşak başlı
68	Gayretsiz								Gayretli
69	Huzurlu								Huzursuz
70	Arka planda kalan								Öne çıkan
71	Tutucu								Liberal
72	Acımasız								Merhametli
73	Hazırlıksız								Hazırlıklı
74	Kaygısız								Kaygılı
75	Dikkat çekmeyen								Baskın, belirgin
76	İlgileri dar								İlgileri geniş
77	Bencil								Fedakâr (diğergam)
78	Disiplinsiz								Disiplinli

		Çok uygun	Oldukça uygun	Biraz uygun	Ne uygun, ne uygun değil	Biraz uygun	Oldukça uygun	Çok uygun	
79	Yeni ilişkilere kapalı								Yeni ilişkilere açık
80	Etkisiz								Etkili
81	Hoşgörüsüz								Hoşgörülü
82	Donuk								Coşkulu
83	İnatçı								Uzlaşmacı

Aşağıda çeşitli davranışlarınızla ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" ile "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" arasında verilen seçeneklerden size uygun olan seçeneği her bir ifadenin sağında bulunan boş kutulara işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum=1 Katılmıyorum=2 Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum=3

Biraz Katılıyorum=4 Katılıyorum=5 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum=6

		1	2	3	4	5	6
84	Ara sıra yere çöp attığım olur. ®						
85	Her zaman hatalarımı açıkça kabul eder ve olası olumsuz sonuçları göze alırım.						
86	Trafikte başkalarına karşı her zaman kibar ve saygılıyımdır.						
87	Ara sıra kötümser duygu durumumu (kızgınlığımı) başkalarından çıkartırım. ®						
88	Başkasından yarar sağladığım bir durum olmuştur. ®						
89	Konuşmalarda veya sohbetlerde, başkalarını her zaman dikkatlice dinler ve onların cümlelerini bitirmelerine izin veririm.						
90	Hiçbir zaman, acil bir durumda, birine yardım etmekte tereddüt etmem.						
91	Bir söz verdiğimde, hiç bir mazeret bulmam ve sözümü tutarım.						
92	Ara sıra başkalarının arkasından kötü konuşurum. ®						
93	Hiç bir zaman başkalarının sırtından geçinmem.						
94	Stresli olduğum durumlarda bile, her zaman insanlara karşı arkadaşça ve kibar davranmaya devam ederim.						
95	Tartışmalar sırasında, her zaman objektif ve gerçekçi kalırım.						
96	Daima sağlıklı yiyecekler yerim.						

		1	2	3	4	5	6
97	Ara sıra, sadece karşılığında bir şey beklediğimden dolayı başkasına yardım ettiğim olur. ®						

Lütfen son olarak aşağıdaki bölümü cevaplandırınız.

98. Yaşınız: …..

99. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Erkek ( ) Kadın

100. Eğitim Bilgileriniz: (Lütfen en son diploma aldığınız okulu dikkate alarak işaretleyiniz)
( ) Doktora ( ) Yüksek Lisans ( ) Lisans ( ) Ön Lisans
( ) Lise / Meslek Lisesi ( ) Ortaokul ( ) İlkokul ( ) Okur yazar

101. Çalıştığınız Bölüm
( ) Satış / Pazarlama / İş Geliştirme
( ) Finans / Muhasebe / Hukuk / Bilgi Teknolojileri
( ) İnsan Kaynakları / İdari İşler / Endüstriyel İlişkiler / Özlük İşleri
( ) Üretim / Kalite / Satın alma / Lojistik / Planlama / Bakım / Ürün Geliştirme
( ) Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz ……..)

102. Pozisyonunuz (Yürüttüğünüz görevin şirket içindeki konumu)
( ) Teknisyen / Tekniker / Memur
( ) Uzman / Kıdemli Uzman
( ) Orta Kademe Yönetici (Şef / Müdür Yardımcısı / Müdür)
( ) Üst Kademe Yönetici (Kıdemli Müdür / Direktör / Üst Yönetici)
( ) Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz ……..)

103. Toplam çalışma süreniz: …….. yıl …….ay

104. Mevcut işinizdeki çalışma süreniz: …….. yıl……. ay

105. Birlikte çalıştığınız amirinizle (ilk yöneticiniz) çalışma süreniz: …….yıl……ay

106. Şirketinizin faaliyet alanı (sektörü): ……..

107. Şirketinizin sermaye yapısı
( ) Yerli sermayeli ( ) Yabancı ortaklı ( ) Yabancı sermayeli
( ) Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz ……..)

---KATILIMINIZ VE KATKILARINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ---

Appendix 2: Scales

AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP SCALE (Gardner et al., 2005)

(Transparency)

1. Says exactly what he or she means.
2. Admits mistakes when they are made.
3. Encourages everyone to speak their mind.
4. Tells you the hard truth.

(Moral/Ethical)

1. Displays emotions exactly in line with feelings.
2. Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions.
3. Makes decisions based on his or her core values.
4. Asks you to take positions that support your core values.
5. Makes difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct.

(Balanced Processing)

1. Solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions.
2. Analyzes relevant data before coming to a decision.
3. Listens carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions.

(Self Awareness)

1. Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others.
2. Accurately describes how others view his or her capabilities.
3. Knows when it is time to reevaluate his or her positions on important issues.
4. Shows he or she understands how specific actions impact others.

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION SCALE (Mael and Ashforth, 1992)

1. When somebody criticizes my company it feels like a personal insult.
2. I am very interested in what others think about my company.
3. When I talk about my company, I usually say "we" rather than "they".
4. I see my company's success as my own success.
5. When somebody praises my company, it feels like a personal compliment.
6. If a story in the media appears that criticizes my company, I'd feel embarrassed.

EMPLOYEE VOICE SCALE

Questions adapted from Premeaux (2001):

1. I speak up when workplace happenings conflict with my sense of what is appropriate.
2. I speak up if I feel that a plan or idea will not work.
3. I remain quiet and not express my ideas in discussions of controversial issues. ®
4. At work I say things that need to be said.
5. When all others agree on an idea that I feel will not work I remain quiet. ®

Questions adapted from Van Dyne et al. (2003):

1. I communicate my opinions about work issues even if others disagree.
2. If I have solutions to problems I express my opinions.
3. I speak up my ideas for projects that might benefit the organization.
4. I make recommendations concerning issues that affect the organization.
5. I express ideas about how to improve the work around here.
6. I keep ideas about solutions to problems to myself. ®

Question adapted from Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008):

1. I keep quiet instead of asking questions when I need to get more information that I need to do my job in a better way. ®

ADJECTIVE BASED PERSONALITY SCALE, In Turkish (Bacanlı et al., 2009)

Scales	**Items**
Neuroticism	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31
Extraversion	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, 39
Openness to Experience	3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 36
Agreeableness	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 38, 40
Conscientiousness	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35

1	Sakin	Sinirli
2	Yalnızlığı tercih eden	Sosyal (topluluğu seven)
3	Sanata ilgisiz	Sanata ilgili
4	Kindar	Affedici
5	Düzensiz	Düzenli
6	Sabırlı	Sabırsız
7	Silik	Atak
8	Hayal gücü zayıf	Hayal gücü kuvvetli
9	(Başkalarına) kayıtsız	Yardımsever
10	Sorumsuz	Sorumluluk sahibi
11	Rahat	Tedirgin
12	Uyuşuk, eliağır	Canlı
13	Dargörüşlü	Geniş görüşlü
14	Rekabetçi	İşbirliği yapan
15	Hırslı değil	Hırslı
16	Tutarlı	Tutarsız
17	Durgun	Delidolu
18	Alışılmış	Yenilikçi

19	Kibirli	Alçakgönüllü
20	Dikkatsiz	Dikkatli
21	İyimser	Karamsar
22	Neşesiz	Neşeli
23	Meraksız	Meraklı
24	Asi	Uysal, yumuşak başlı
25	Gayretsiz	Gayretli
26	Huzurlu	Huzursuz
27	Arka planda kalan	Öne çıkan
28	Tutucu	Liberal
29	Acımasız	Merhametli
30	Hazırlıksız	Hazırlıklı
31	Kaygısız	Kaygılı
32	Dikkat çekmeyen	Baskın, belirgin
33	İlgileri dar	İlgileri geniş
34	Bencil	Fedakâr (diğergam)
35	Disiplinsiz	Disiplinli
36	Yeni ilişkilere kapalı	Yeni ilişkilere açık

37	Etkisiz	Etkili
38	Hoşgörüsüz	Hoşgörülü
39	Donuk	Coşkulu
40	İnatçı	Uzlaşmacı

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALE

Turkish form of Stöber's (2001) Social Desirability Scale-17 (SDS-17) as translated by Durak and Çoşkun (2010)

1. I sometimes litter. ®
2. I always admit my mistakes openly and face the potential negative consequences.
3. In traffic I am always polite and considerate of others.
4. I take out my bad moods on others now and then. ®
5. There has been an occasion when I took advantage of someone else. ®
6. In conversations I always listen attentively and let others finish their sentences.
7. I never hesitate to help someone in case of emergency.
8. When I have made a promise, I keep it--no ifs, ands or buts.
9. I occasionally speak badly of others behind their back. ®
10. I would never live off other people.I always stay friendly and courteous with other people, even when I am stressed out.

11. During arguments I always stay objective and matter-of-fact.

12. I always eat a healthy diet.

13. Sometimes I only help because I expect something in return. ®