THE IMPLICATIONS OF PERCEIVED INJUSTICE CLIMATE ON ORGANIZATIONAL TRUSTWORTHINESS AND JOB OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPLICATIONS OF PERCEIVED INJUSTICE CLIMATE ON ORGANIZATIONAL TRUSTWORTHINESS AND JOB OUTCOMES

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Thesis Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Syeda Arzu Wasti

Keywords: psychological climate, perceived injustice, organizational trustworthiness, idiosyncratic deals

This thesis investigates the implications of perceived injustice climate on impression management and voice through perceived organizational trustworthiness and on organizational commitment through idiosyncratic deals (I-deals). In addition, employee traditionality, paternalistic top management and the value of the employee to the firm are investigated as moderators in these relationships. Perceived injustice climate is operationalized using the "*Patron Şirketi*" climate scale developed by Koçak, Wasti, Yosun, Bozer and Dural (PPŞC; 2014). One preliminary qualitative and a main quantitative study are conducted in order to test the proposed relationships. With use of SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) the moderated mediations are tested. The hypothesis that traditionality moderates the negative effect of perceived injustice climate (operationalized as PPŞC) on perceived organizational trustworthiness is supported. The positive effect of PPŞC on the use of I-deals, which in turn increases affective and continuance organizational commitment is also supported, but only in case when the employee is valuable to the supervisor. However, the proposed effects of PPŞC on impression management and voice through perceived organizational trustworthiness as moderated by traditionality and/or paternalism were not supported. Nevertheless, post hoc analyses that explored the possibility that impression management behaviours may have been perceived as citizenship behaviours suggest that the effect of PPŞC on perceived citizenship through perceived organizational trustworthiness is alleviated when moderated by traditionality and/or paternalism. Contributions of exploring perceived injustice climate, its particular operationalization in this thesis are discussed and further directions of research are suggested.

ÖZET

ALGILANAN ADALETSİZLİK İKLİMİNİN ÖRGÜTSEL GÜVENİLİRLİK VE İŞ SONUÇLARI ÜZERİNE ETKİLERİ

ALEKSANDRA KANER

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Anahtar kelimeler: psikolojik iklim, algılanan adaletsizlik, örgütsel güvenilirlik, kişiye özgü anlaşmalar

Bu tez, algılanan adaletsizlik ortamının, örgütsel güvenilirlik algıları aracılığıyla izlenim yönetimi ve seslilik üzerindeki etkilerini ve kişiye özgü anlaşmalar aracılığıyla örgütsel bağlılığa etkilerini incelemektedir. Ayrıca çalışanın gelenekselliğinin, paternalist üst yönetim algılarının ve çalışanın firma için değerinin bu ilişkilerdeki biçimleyici rolü de araştırılmaktadır. Algılanan adaletsizlik, Koçak, Wasti, Yosun, Bozer ve Dural (2014) tarafından geliştirilen "Patron Şirketi" ölçeği kullanılarak ölçülmüştür. Önerilen ilişkileri sınamak için bir nitel ve bir nicel çalışma yürütülmüş, nicel çalışmada SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) kullanılarak durumsal aracılık etkileri test edilmiştir. Patron Şirketi ölçeği ile ölçümlenen algılanan adaletsizliğin, örgütsel güvenilirlik algıları üzerindeki olumsuz etkisinin gelenekselik tarafından zayıfladığı hipotezi desteklenmiştir. Algılanan adaletsizliğin kişiye özgü anlaşmalar üzerindeki olumlu etkisi ancak çalışanın yöneticisi için değerli olduğu durumlarda çalışanın örgütüne duygusal ve devamlılık bağlılıklarını arttırmaktadır. Ancak, Patron Şirketi ölçeği ile ölçümlenen algılanan adaletsizliğin izlenim yönetimi ve algılanan örgütsel güvenilirlik aracılığıyla seslilik üzerinde önerilen etkisi, gelenekselik ve/veya üst yönetimin paternalizmi tarafından biçimlenmemektedir. Bununla birlikte, izlenim yönetimi davranışlarının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları olarak algılanma olasılığını araştıran *post hoc* analizler, algılanan örgütsel adaletsizliğin, güvenilirlik algıları aracılığıyla çalışanın vatandaşlık davranışlarını yordadığını, bu ilişkilerin gelenekselik ve üst yönetimin paternalizmi tarafından biçimlendiğini göstermektedir. Bu bulgular ışığında algılanan adaletsizliği araştırmanın katkıları ve özellikle bu tezdeki ölçümü tartışılmış ve gelecekte yapılabilecek iyileştirmeler önerilmiştir.

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I dedicate this dissertation
to my mother
to whom it was promised to
and to my husband
who made me keep my promise

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1. INTRODUCTION

The psychological climate of an organization refers to employees' evaluation of their work environment including its structures, processes, and events (Schneider & Snyder, 1975). As such, the psychological climate can comprise the total pattern of expectancies and incentive values that exist in a given organizational setting (Litwin & Stringer, 1968, cited in Forte, 2003). However, psychological climate perceptions do not need to be about the whole organization; they can also be about the experience and meaning that employees perceive about some aspect of it. Thus, psychological climate evaluations may refer to general dimensions of the organizational environment such as leadership, roles, and communication or to specific aspects such as the climate for safety, ethics, justice or injustice (James & McIntyre, 1996; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Schneider, González-Romá, Ostroff, & West, 2017).

This thesis investigates the implications of a perceived injustice climate. Perceived injustice climate is operationalized using the scale "Patron Şirketi" climate (PPŞC), which describes a firm's climate that is characterized by arbitrariness in decisions and processes, favouritism, lack of information, and transparency (Koçak, Wasti, Yosun, Bozer & Dural, 2014). In particular, the thesis will investigate the effects of perceived injustice climate, when operationalized as PPŞC on various job outcomes in firms in Turkey. In more detail, the thesis will try to examine whether:

-The presence of a perceived injustice climate can decrease employees' perceptions of organizational trustworthiness. Organizational trustworthiness is defined as a *"psychological state comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of an organization"* (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012, p. 1174).

-Traditionality of employees moderates the relationship between perceived injustice climate and employees' perceived organizational trustworthiness. Traditionality is an individual value that emphasizes respect for hierarchy (Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin,

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2005). Employees with high traditionality values may more easily accept justice infringements occurring in organizations.

-Perceived injustice climate, by decreasing perceptions of organizational trustworthiness, increases employees' use of impression management (IM) tactics. In organizations with an injustice climate, managerial discretion is perceived in the form of disregarding universal justice principles (Chrisman, Steier, & Chua, 2006). As such, employees who do not trust the firm may be likely to use certain IM tactics to create the general appearance they believe is desired in the firm and which would grant them some security (Ashforth & Lee, 1990; Collinson, 2003; Gardner & Martinko, 1988).

-Perceived injustice climate by decreasing perceptions of organizational trustworthiness, decreases employees' use of voice. Perceived low organizational trustworthiness due to a perceived injustice climate is proposed to create an environment in which employees would feel that speaking up is unsafe or ineffective.

-Paternalism moderates the relationship between organizational trustworthiness and use of certain IM tactics as well as the use of voice. Because paternalism combines benevolence with authority (Pellegrini, Scandura, & Vaidyanathan, 2010) it can create a sense of security that can weaken the negative effect of a perceived injustice climate.

-Perceived injustice climate may encourage valuable (e.g., high performing, well liked by the superiors) employees to seek idiosyncratic deals (I-deals). I-deals are a form of customization granting employees special conditions differing from work conditions of peers doing similar work (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008). In fact, the organization would offer I-deals to valuable employees as a way to compensate for its apparent shortcomings (uncertain environment, low meritocracy). In addition, this thesis investigates whether these I-deals would affect employees' commitment to the organization.

This thesis will seek answers to these hypotheses in the Turkish context by conducting one exploratory, qualitative and one quantitative study.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

In this chapter, the literature on psychological climate will be reviewed in order to create a clear base for understanding a perceived injustice climate. In addition, the most relevant antecedents and outcomes of a perceived injustice climate will be examined. Following this, I will propose my hypotheses.

2.1. Theoretical Background

Psychological Climate. Psychological climate is an individual employee's perception of the work environment and captures the meaningful psychological representations made by individuals in relation to the structures, processes, and events that occur in the organization (Rousseau, 1988; Russo, Mascia, & Morandi, 2018). James et al. (1978, p.786) defined psychological climate as *"the individual's cognitive representations of relatively proximal situational conditions, expressed in terms that reflect psychologically meaningful interpretations of the situation."* James et al. (1977, 1978) further pointed out that psychological climate is primarily descriptive and that it involves psychological processing, abstracting, and structuring of situational perceptions and therefore the development of cognitive constructions (maps). In that way, psychological climate perceptions are employees' assessments of the meaning of the work environments situations using their personal value system (James & James, 1989). Psychological climate perceptions enable employees to interpret events, predict possible outcomes, and estimate the appropriateness of their subsequent actions (Jones & James, 1979).

When these individual psychological climate perceptions are shared among employees of a work unit organizational climate is created (Figure 1). Therefore, organizational climate can be operationalized by aggregating psychological climate perceptions of employees. For instance, the human resource management (HRM) system signals the abstract principles underlying the organizations' commonly held assumptions, ability, and intentions. It also conveys what the firm expects from the employee and what the employee is likely to gain in return (Searle et al., 2011). Ideally, HRM practices represent a strategic and coherent approach to the management of employees (Armstrong & Long 1996). When the agreement between how employees perceive the HRM system is high; that is, if there is a convergence in individual perceptions, it is possible to talk about the strength of the HRM system and its influence on the formation of an organizational climate. Nevertheless, the interest of this thesis is psychological climate and organizational climate will be addressed only to make the distinction.

Figure 1. Organizational and psychological climate
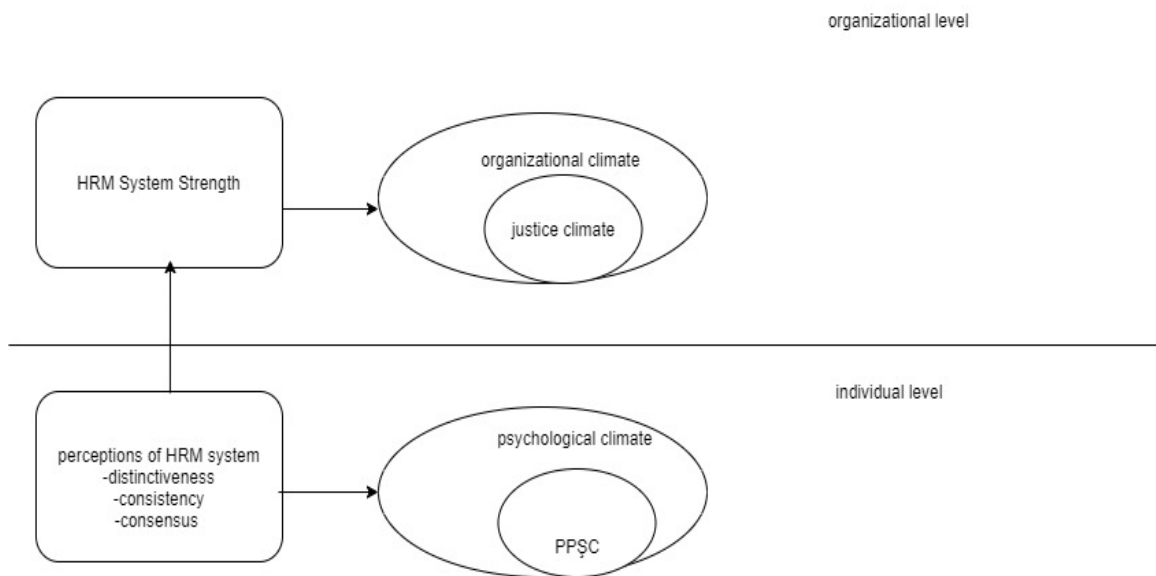
Psychological climate is a property of the individual and the individual is the appropriate level of theory, measurement, and analysis (James & Jones, 1974; Parker et al., 2003; Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Rousseau, 1988). Furthermore, because individuals respond primarily to cognitive representations of situations rather than situations per se (James et al. 1977) understanding psychological climate is very important. Nevertheless, recently there is a growing interest in organizational climate as situational attribute, which ignores

the individual's climate perceptions, adding to the need for exploring psychological climate (James et al., 1978).

Psychological climate is a multidimensional construct that is determined by those characteristics of environment that have direct and immediate ties to individual experiences (James et al., 1977, 1978; James & James, 1989). As such employees' perceptions of nearly every aspect of their work environment, including the characteristics of their jobs, physical environment, supervision, top management, and co-workers, can be perceived as components of psychological climate (Parker et al., 2003). In particular, the HRM of a firm can be viewed as communications from the employer to employee (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), and consequently can influence psychological climate (Gould-Williams, 2007; Li, Frenkel & Sanders, 2011; Rogg, Schmidt, Shull & Schmitt, 2001). More specifically, psychological climate perceptions are argued to be aligned with work-related needs, such as desire for clarity, harmony, and justice; desire for challenge, independence, and responsibility; desire for work support and recognition; and desire for friendly social relationships (Locke, 1976, as cited by James at al., 2008). The psychological climate conceptualization in this thesis primarily corresponds to employees' desire for justice and clarity as discussed in detail later on. Organizational justice was defined by Greenberg (1996) as a concept that expressed employees' perceptions about the extent to which they were treated fairly in organizations. Organizational justice has two main components, distributive and procedural justice (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). Distributive justice refers to how fairly the rewards provided to employees are distributed, and how organizational processes are managed in the light of transparent, consistent, open and ethical principles is procedural justice. In addition, there can also be a distinction of interactional justice. Interactional justice describes the interpersonal treatment employee receives at the hands of organizational decision makers (Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen, 2002). Interactional justice includes informational and interpersonal justice. Informational justice, relates to the accounts provided for justice-related events and interpersonal justice reflects perceptions of interpersonal interactions and treatment.

In this thesis, I focus on particular type of psychological climate, namely perceived injustice climate. Justice and injustice are often treated in the literature as two opposites of the same continuum, especially this is apparent in the practice of including in measures

of justice reversed codded items. Nevertheless, Gilliland, Goldman, Tripp and Beach (2000) pointed out that they are separate constructs that provoke qualitatively different reactions. Following this Greenberg and Colquitt (2013) also proposed that justice and injustice are closely related but different constructs. I will also accept that justice and injustice are very connected but distant constructs and define injustice as a violation of just treatment (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013).

Outcomes of Perceived Injustice Climates. An employee's perceptions of the organizational context can influence interactions among individuals (Griffin & Mathieu, 1997), attitudes toward organizational rewards (Griffin, 1997) and active responses to the work environment (Michela et al., 1995). Thus, psychological climates can have effects on many organizational outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels. These include leader behaviour, turnover intentions, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, employee motivation, psychological well-being, individual job performance, and organizational performance (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Gelade & Ivery, 2003; Mathieu, Hoffman, & Farr, 1993; James & Tetrick, 1986; James & Jones, 1980; Patterson, Warr and West, 2004; Parker et al., 2003; Rentsch, 1990). In this thesis I will look into how a psychological climate of injustice can affect the perceptions of organizational trustworthiness and I-deals.

Organizational trustworthiness. Because of their complexity, the concepts of trust and trustworthiness need some clarification. As early as the late 1950s and early 1960s, scholars noticed the negative effects of low trust and the importance of high trust as a prerequisite for managerial and organizational effectiveness (e.g., Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1967). In the 1970s, importance of trust was augmented by acknowledging its positive effects for problem solving (e.g., Zand, 1972) and job satisfaction (e.g., Driscoll, 1978; Muchinsky, 1977). Since the seminal paper by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), the agreed upon definition of trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party" (Mayer, et al., 1995; p. 712). It is important to point out that trust and perceived trustworthiness can be towards various foci (e.g., supervisor, team, top management). I will first review the literature on interpersonal trust and trustworthiness before focusing on trust in the organization.

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Researchers have found that high interpersonal trust has positive effects on individual, group, and organizational outcomes, such as desirable job attitudes (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Montes & Irving, 2008; Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia, & Esposo, 2008), performance (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen 2002; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Watson & Papamarcos, 2002), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (e.g., Aryee et al., 2002; McAllister, 1995; Robinson, 1996; Watson & Papamarcos, 2002) and cooperation (e.g., De Cremer & Tyler, 2005; Ferrin, Bligh, Kohles, 2007). High interpersonal trust has also been offered as an important antecedent for building social capital (e.g., Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998), increasing employee engagement and cooperation (e.g., De Cremer & Van Vugt, 2002; Kramer & Cook, 2004; Nooteboom & Six, 2003; Tyler & Blader, 2000), improving knowledge-sharing among employees (e.g., Holste, & Fields, 2010; McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003), increasing risk taking and decreasing counterproductive behaviours (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007). As such, trust has been repeatedly described as an essential lubricant for economic exchange (Gelade & Ivery, 2003; McEvily, Weber, Bicchieri, & Ho, 2006).

Mayer et al. (1995) distinguish the trustworthiness of a trustee and trust propensity as the most important antecedents of trust. Trust propensity is defined as dispositional willingness to rely on others (Colquitt et al., 2007). Trustworthiness is about the characteristics and actions of the trustee, which will lead that person to be more or less trusted. Earlier research identified a single trustee characteristic and others delineated as many as 10 characteristics (e.g., Butler, 1991) but Mayer et al.'s (1995) parsimonious model opts for three characteristics of a trustee, which are ability, benevolence, and integrity. At the individual level, ability is the group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain. Benevolence is the extent to which a party is believed to want to do good for the trusting party, aside from an egocentric profit motive. Integrity encompasses the trustor's perception that the trustee follows set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable. These three characteristics of a trustee as a set can explain a major portion of trustworthiness.

Employee trust in an organization is defined as a "psychological state comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of an organization" (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012, p. 1174). Drawing on Schoorman et al. (2007), Gillespie and Dietz (2009) elaborated how the three dimensions of interpersonal trustworthiness (i.e.

ability, benevolence, and integrity) can be applied to the organizational level of analysis. They define 'organizational ability' as involving the organization's collective competencies and characteristics that allow it to function effectively, so it can achieve its goals and meet its responsibilities. 'Organizational benevolence' is understood as an organization's genuine care and concern for the well-being of its stakeholders. Finally, 'organizational integrity' is translated as an organization's consistent adherence to a set of moral principles and codes of conduct acceptable to stakeholders. The parallels between the interpersonal and organizational trustworthiness as explained by Caldwell and Clapham (2003) are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison of interpersonal and organizational trustworthiness

Interpersonal trustworthiness	Key elements	Organizational trustworthiness factors	Similarities with interpersonal trustworthiness
Ability	-Skills -Competencies -Expertise	-Competence -Financial balance -Quality assurance	-Focuses on task -Excellence -Outcomes
Benevolence	-Benevolence -Intentions "desire to do good"	-Interactional courtesy -Responsibility to inform	-Demonstrating respect -Courtesy -Involvement
Integrity	-Character -Integrity -Fairness -Credibility	-Legal compliance -Procedural fairness	-Honours ethical requirements -Treats others fairly

In the organizational literature, one of the clearest outcomes of a perceived injustice climate is the effect that it has on organizational trust and trustworthiness. More precisely, environments where meritocratic justice rules are not consistently applied and instead the managers decide idiosyncratically (Astrachan & Keyt, 2003; Barnett & Kellermans, 2006; Chua, Chrisman & Sharma, 2003; Keleş, Özkan, & Bezirci 2011) produce negative effects on organizational trustworthiness.

Especially, the topic of favouritism in general and nepotism in particular as empirical instances of an injustice climate have been considerably researched (e.g., Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006; Chrisman et al., 2006; Mandl, 2008; Padgett & Morris, 2005). Adam Bellow's (2003) book "In Praise of Nepotism" and Jones' (2012) book "Nepotism in

Organizations" are helpful descriptions of nepotism and favouritism as often observed occurrences of injustice climate. Nepotism means neglecting meritocratic justice norms (e.g., Carmon, Miller, Raile, & Roers, 2010), nepotism and similar favouritisms are often argued to decrease perceived organizational injustice and organizational trustworthiness, and have negative effects for the firm (Bellow, 2003; Jones, 2012; Laker and Williams (2003) and Sieger, Bernhard and Frey (2011). Keleş et al.'s (2011) study of firms in Turkey found nepotism, favouritism and cronyism that give privileges to kin employees to be disturbing for the rest of organization's employees.

I-deals. I-deals are about individual employees negotiating with an employer to adapt work arrangements to better meet their personal needs (Rousseau, 2005). I-deals are not subjective understandings, such as psychological contracts (i.e., employees' beliefs regarding the nature of the exchange relationship in employment), but objective conditions that employees negotiate with employers to meet individual demands and enhance their employment arrangements (Rousseau, 2005). Therefore, I-deals are a form of customization granting employees special conditions that differ from peers doing similar work. I-deals can be for regular employees (Hornung et al., 2008), freelancers (Pink, 2002) or stars (Rosen, 1981) that seek out and bargain for special employment conditions that satisfy their personal needs and preferences. These deals can arise during on-going employment (Hornung et al., 2008) or at the time of hire or termination (Rousseau, 2005).

The defining features of I-deals include negotiation by individual workers and terms different from standard employment conditions (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). Another defining feature of I-deals is that they are intended to benefit both the employee and the firm by giving a valued worker something not otherwise obtainable through the firm's standard practices. Other forms of personalized employment arrangements, such as favouritism or cronyism, lack the mutually beneficial quality of I-deals where individual and organizational interests are served simultaneously (Rousseau, 2005). I-deals vary in content and scope from a single feature to the entire set of conditions composing the employment relationship, ranging from minor adjustments in hours or duties to highly customized, "idiosyncratic jobs" (Miner, 1987). Contents of I-deals involve a wide array of resources, from tangible and universalistic (payment, material goods) to abstract and particular (status, recognition, social support). Previous research

has identified flexible scheduling of work hours, workload reduction and special opportunities for skill and career development as especially widespread forms of I-deals (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2009; Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau & Kim, 2006).

Hornung et al. (2009) found that supervisors differentiated among I-deals as developmental, increasing work flexibility, and workload reduction. Developmental I-deals were mostly influenced by employee initiative. Supervisors viewed these I-deals to have positive implications for employee motivation and performance. Increasing work flexibility, I-deals were influenced by structural conditions such as the type of work the employee performed. Supervisors use these I-deals to enhance work-life balance benefits. Furthermore, according to Hornung et al. (2009), supervisors tend to grant workload reduction I-deals in the context of unfulfilled organizational obligations towards employees, showing how I-deals can be used by organization as a compensation for some kind of organizational shortcomings.

In the literature, injustice climates are perceived as especially fertile grounds for striking I-deals because of the lack of rules in general and arbitrary practices in particular (Rousseau, 2005). Therefore, perceived injustice climate encourages enactment of single individuals' reactions and creates ideal conditions for employees to attempt to strike I-deals. In addition, in the literature there is also an explanation as to why firms could be supporting this practice. In firms, I-deals can be used as a sort of compensation for eventual firm's inabilities or shortcomings. Firms that harbour an atmosphere of weak corporatization, low professionalism and no clear standardization can use I-deals in order to keep valuable employees (Rousseau, 2005). As such firms with perceived injustice climate could use I-deals as a way to offset the negative effect on organizational trustworthiness with the positive effects of I-deals.

Establishing the connection between perceived injustice climate and organizational trustworthiness and I-deals, I can proceed with my specific hypotheses. Therefore, in the next part building on these connections, I will propose outcomes for organizational trustworthiness and I-deals. In addition, I will propose possible moderators for these relationship.

2.2. Hypotheses

In this section of this chapter, I will develop my hypotheses. I will propose a total of three job outcomes as a second order outcomes for perceived injustice– trustworthiness and perceived injustice-I-deals relationships. I will further discuss traditionality, paternalism and the value of employee as potential moderators to the proposed relationships. Moderators can indicate a condition in which a nonsignificant direct effect becomes significant or a condition in which a significant direct effect is further strengthened or weakened (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Finally, combining the mediation and moderation effects, I will further propose moderated mediation relationships. Moderated mediation occurs either when there is a significant interaction effect in which mediation exists at some levels of the moderator but not at others, or when mediation effects are present at multiple levels of the moderator, but these effects are significantly stronger or weaker across levels (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007). All the proposed relations are presented in Figure 2 as an overview.

Figure 2. Perceived injustice climate effects on organizational trustworthiness and I-deals
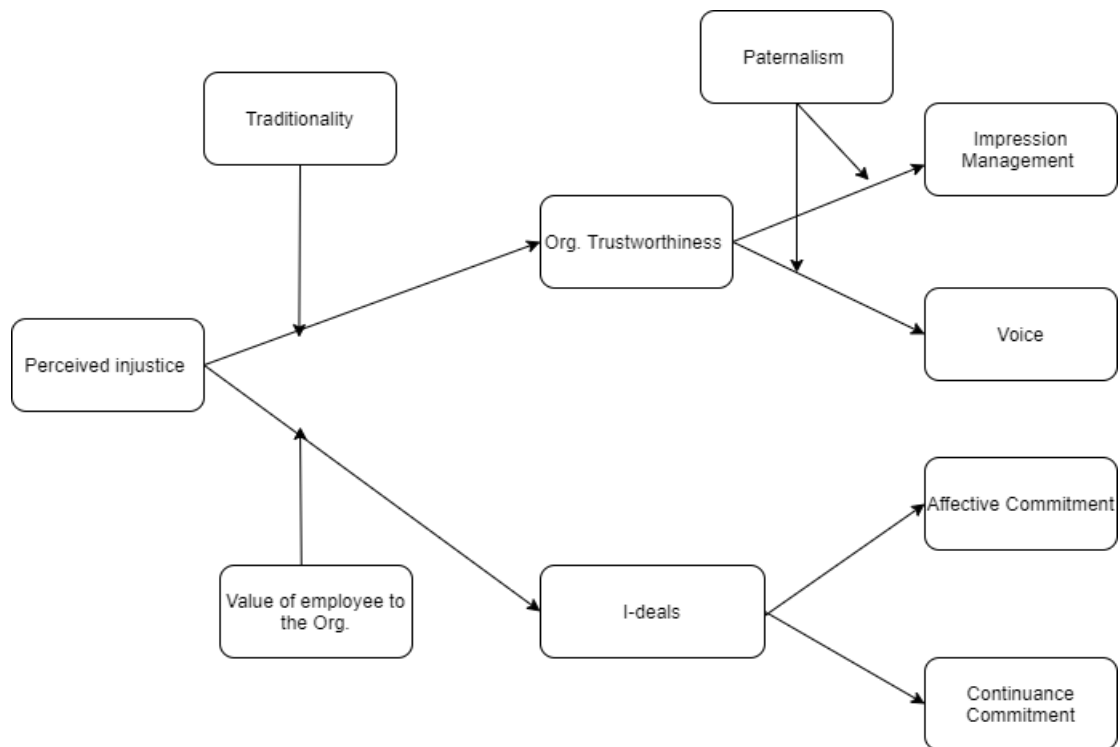
Each component of an organization's system (e.g., procedures, practices) shapes employees' psychological climate perceptions, which in turn determines their organization's trustworthiness perceptions (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Schein, 1990; Victor & Cullen, 1988). When an organization fails to meet justice standards in its conduct towards stakeholders, employees' perceptions with respect to organizational ability, benevolence and/or integrity as trustworthiness components are undermined (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009). In addition, aspects of the organizational strategy, structure, policies and processes can also shape perceived organizational trustworthiness (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009). The structure, policies, and processes meaning the rules, guidelines, and procedures governing decision-making communication, employee conduct, and HRM set the standard of what is acceptable behaviour and therefore induce organizational trustworthiness (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009). The rules, guidelines, and procedures also limit discretionary actions in organizations and therefore shape the perceptions about organizational trustworthiness.

In order to better understand the effects of a perceived injustice climate on organizational trustworthiness, the framework by Bowen and Ostroff (2004) for evaluating HRM can be used. Ostroff and Bowen (2016) pointed out that distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus are important characteristics of an effective HRM system and they intended them to be used as a way to explain the mechanism for aggregating climate perceptions. Nevertheless, Ostroff and Bowen (2016) note that these are also meaningful constructs at the individual level, and that is actually how most of the climate literature has used them. Therefore, I will also use them to explain the conditions under which an injustice climate can emerge.

Distinctiveness refers to features that allow the HRM system to stand out in the environment, thereby capturing attention and arousing interest. Bowen and Ostroff (2004) elucidate four characteristics that can foster distinctiveness: visibility, understandability, legitimacy of authority, and relevance. Visibility of the HRM refers to the degree to which human resources (HR) practices are noticeable and readily observable (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). This is a basic prerequisite for interpretation involving whether an HRM and its component parts are disclosed to employees, giving them the chance for sense-making. Practices such as favouritism and nepotism would cause the the HRM system to have low visibility, and create a perceived injustice climate.

Understandability refers to a lack of ambiguity and ease of comprehension of HRM content. Employees must be able to understand how the HR practices work, in order for the organizational communication to be efficient (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). An HRM system would have low understandability if decision making processes are not very effective; i.e., if the decisions are not advised by specialists (Colpan & Jones, 2016), or not taken by professional managers (Yildirim-Öktem & Üsdiken, 2010), or not enough time is allocated to these processes (Cater & Justis, 2010). Another cause of low understandability of an HRM system can be emotional and informal decision making (Chrisman et al., 2006; Mandl, 2008). Emotional and informal conduct of the management could create contradictions to the HRM system, and a climate of arbitrariness.

Legitimacy of the HRM is the third characteristic of distinctiveness and it refers to the authority that makes individuals willing to submit to the necessities of cooperative systems (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989). An HRM system having a legitimate authority in an organization is the basis for a justice climate. Undermining its authority and therefore questioning the legitimacy of HRM practices can create perceptions that justice considerations are not important.

Finally, the relevance of the HRM system refers to whether the situation is defined in a way that employees see the situation as relevant to an important individual or organizational goal (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989). For instance, although one can easily measure whether a training program is present in the organization, it is difficult to declare its relevance objectively. The reason for this is that the HR manager may find the training program very relevant to achieve organizational goals, whereas line managers might have other and more important needs depending upon the situation in their business unit. If the HRM system's aim of creating a justice climate is overshadowed by other goals in organization, the relevance of these practices could also be questioned. If in an organization, there is a multitude of goals and interests, it would be difficult for employees to see the relevance of HRM goals.

Furthermore, for organizational trustworthiness perceptions not to be damaged, employees need to perceive the messages conveyed in the HRM practices as stable across time and place. This is described by Bowen and Ostroff (2004) as consistency.

Consistency is what allows for formalization and standardization of organizational conduct. Features needed for establishing consistent relationships over time, people, and contexts are instrumentality, validity, and consistent HRM messages. Instrumentality refers to establishing clear causal relationship between the HRM system's desired work behaviours and associated employee consequences. In other words, employee's performance in accordance to the preferred behavioural pattern is rewarded. Validity of HRM practices is also important because employees try to determine the validity of a message in making attributions (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). HRM practices also must display consistency between what they claim to do and what they actually do in order for them to help create a strong situation. Therefore, consistent HRM messages means HRM messages should not be easily changing or contradicting each other. This is referred to as compatibility and stability of the signals sent by the HRM practices to employees (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). If the causal relationship between HRM system desired behaviours and practices is weak, the HRM system is not always able to do what it claims to be doing and the HRM messages can be easily changing and contradicting each other, the HRM system would be perceived as inconsistent resulting with perceived injustice climate. Example for an inconsistent HRM is the case of low and selective adherence to HRM rules (Chrisman et al., 2006; Mandl, 2008). As a result, HR practices are experienced as selectively applicable just for some employees, creating injustice climate.

The last characteristic of HRM strength is consensus. Consensus is a result of agreement among employees and as such would not be relevant for this thesis, which is at the individual level. Nevertheless, resulting from low distinctiveness and low consistency of decision making and HR practices, perceived injustice climate can be described as an environment of uncertainty, arbitrariness, favouritism, lack of information, and lack of transparency.

Having established the connection between perceived injustice climate and organizational trustworthiness I will continue by breaking down the specific factors of trustworthiness that are affected by perceived injustice climate, before proceeding to possible moderators and outcomes. Specifically, I will claim that perceived low consistency of the policies and processes in design and implementation denote reduced organizational integrity, whereas their low understandability and relevance signal low organizational ability (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009). Therefore, perceived injustice climate will diminish

employees' perceptions of integrity and ability as components of organizational trustworthiness.

Ideally, organizational distribution of rewards should mostly be based on the rule of equity (Adams & Freedman, 1976; Freedman & Montanari, 1980). That is, the merit or contribution of the employee should be the primary determinant of the amount of the reward. Nevertheless, in perceived injustice climate there is less regard for equity as a distribution rule, and there are higher instances of favouritism and cronyism. Because of these particularistic distribution rules as well as the lack of a clear agreement on the part of employees regarding employees' rights, and desired behaviour in the firm, I propose that in perceived injustice climate perceived organizational integrity would be low.

However, the prevalent preferential system and ineffective decision making processes will not only cause questioning the integrity of the firm (Laker & Williams, 2003; Sieger et al., 2011), but also the weakening of the organizational ability perceptions of the employees. The coherence and effectiveness of the strategy affects the interpretation of organizational competency (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009). In perceived injustice climate firms, not all managers are likely to be chosen based on competence and capabilities; on the contrary, managers can very often be appointed based on favouritism (Segon, 2010). In addition, because the management styles often incorporate arbitrariness and lack of transparency this will further shake the trust in the ability of the management and therefore in the organization (Mandl, 2008; Segon, 2010).

I further argue that the negative effects of perceived injustice climate on organizational integrity and ability perceptions or together on organizational trustworthiness may be attenuated with some moderators. Firstly, I propose that the negative effect of perceived injustice climate on organizational trustworthiness will be moderated by traditionality. Traditionality is an individual value that emphasizes respect for hierarchy (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Traditionality as an individual difference has already been examined in the context of justice. Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) investigated how the relationship between organizational distributive and procedural justice and OCB is moderated by traditionality versus modernity and found that the positive effect of organizational justice on OCB was strongest in case of low traditionality. In other words, in case of high traditionality the detrimental effects of lack of justice are mitigated (Farh et al., 1997). The authors argued

that this may be due to the fact that high adherence to traditionality is characterized by submissiveness and hierarchical obedience, and therefore would mean accepting and not questioning the firm, as representing authority (Huo, Luo, & Tam, 2014). In addition, employees high on traditionality give big importance to harmony and to avoiding conflicts with authority. As such, employees with high traditionality values tend to be more accepting of justice infringements by the organization or top management. Therefore, I argue that the effect of perceived injustice climate would be weakened by traditionality values. The low integrity or the low ability implied in perceived injustice climate would be more tolerable or less disputed from the perspective of high traditionality employees because they would be less inclined to question authority:

H1: The negative effects of perceived injustice climate on organizational trustworthiness will be moderated by employees' traditionality. Specifically, in case of high traditionality the negative effect of perceived injustice climate on trustworthiness will be decreased.

I also propose impression management (IM) and voice as possible outcomes of a perceived injustice climate when mediated by organizational trustworthiness. IM is the process by which people control the impressions others form of them and it plays an important role in interpersonal behaviour (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008; Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 2002). People care about how they are seen by others, and this is of particular concern in organizations (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Successful self-presentation is considered a critical part of being hired. After being hired employees are often concerned with projecting the right image to their superiors, colleagues, and subordinates, because how they are viewed by others can often affect how well they are liked and whether they are seen as competent and committed, and it can influence the rewards and promotions they receive (Bolino et al. 2008; Bolino, Long, & Turnley, 2016).

Organizational behaviour research on many occasions confirmed a positive relationship between IM and work outcomes (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). A great deal of research has sought to better understand the ways in which IM affects evaluations of job performance and career success. In a laboratory experiment, Wayne and Kacmar (1991) used a confederate subordinate who engaged in high or low levels of IM and performed at high,

average, or low levels. They found that subordinates who engaged in IM received more favourable performance appraisal ratings than others who did not. In addition, they found that IM had a significantly positive relationship with the number of compliments, recommendations, and jokes and a significantly negative relationship with the number of criticisms offered by the supervisor in the performance appraisal interview session.

In an effort to organize the IM research, Jones and Pittman (1982) developed a broad model aimed at capturing the wide variety of IM behaviours identified by earlier researchers. They identified five theoretical groupings of IM strategies that individuals commonly use. Their model includes *self-promotion*, which is used by employees to point out their abilities or accomplishments in order to be seen as competent by observers; *ingratiation*, when employees do favours or use flattery to elicit an attribution of likability from observers; *exemplification*, whereby employees self-sacrifice or go above and beyond the call of duty in order to gain the attribution of dedication from observers; *intimidation*, where employees signal their power or potential to punish in order to be seen as dangerous by observers; and *supplication*, where employees advertise their weaknesses or shortcomings in order to elicit an attribution of being needy from observers.

Another way to classify IM strategies is in accordance to their targets, for instance, they can be supervisor or work oriented (self oriented). This is also the classification that I will use in this thesis. According to this classification, employees can often use strategies as ingratiation (subordinate communicating feelings of liking and admiration to a supervisor), and doing favours for supervisor, because a supervisor who feels liked and admired will like that subordinate more. While supervisor oriented ingratiatory IM behaviour is enhancing behaviour directed toward one's supervisor, work oriented IM behaviour is focused on self-promotion, such as alerting to their own accomplishments, that is intended to highlight their job competence and work performance (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). Therefore, self oriented IM can often overlap with work oriented IM (e.g., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Ferris et al., 1994; Turnley & Bolino, 2001).

Kacmar, Delery, and Ferris (1992) investigated IM directed at different targets in the context of employee selection. They made a distinction between verbal IM tactics as self-focused IM (job applicants choosing to direct the focus of the conversation to themselves)

or other-focused IM (job applicants focusing the conversation on the interviewer or the company) tactics. Examples of self-focused IM tactics include exemplification (convincing the interviewer that his or her behaviour is good enough to use as a model for others), entitlement (claims about being responsible for past achievement), and self-promotion (demonstrating one's own qualifications). In contrast, examples of other-focused IM tactics include other-enhancement similar to ingratiation (flattering the interviewer or organization) and opinion conformity (agreeing with comments made by the interviewer). Kacmar et al.'s (1992) study contrasted theses two sets of IM tactics used by applicants and observed their effects on interviewer decisions in a controlled laboratory experiment. An applicant who employed self-focused-type impression management tactics was rated higher, received more recommendations for a job offer, and received fewer rejections than when he/she used other-focused-type tactics. Similar to Kacmar et al. (1992), Cheng and Fang (2008) revealed that only work oriented IM tactics exerted a significant moderating effect on the relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and performance ratings. According to their findings when perceptions of organizational politics are low, employees who engage in high levels of work oriented IM tactics are more likely to gain better ratings than those who employ low level of IM tactics.

The literature also shows that contexts high in ambiguity and low regard for fairness like injustice climates can increase the use of IM tactics (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Merkl-Davies & Niamh, 2011). Collinson (2003) stated that contexts of institutionalized inequality could be fertile environments for use of IM. Looking at manager-subordinate relationships Wayne and Green (1993) found that if their relationship was characterized by low levels of trust, interaction and support the use of IM increased. Van Iddekinge, McFarland, and Raymark, (2007) also found support that an environment with clear rules diminished whereas ambiguous environment increased the use of IM.

Firms with a perceived injustice climate can be characterized by institutionalized inequality, task ambiguity, and an unclear reward system. This kind of environment can therefore motivate employees to increasingly use IM (Ashforth & Lee, 1990). Although there are several studies that show supervisor oriented IM to be effective (e.g., Han & Altman, 2009; Judge & Bretz, 1994), I propose that employees are more likely to resort to work oriented IM. Supervisor oriented tactics include non-job-related behaviours by

the employee to please the supervisor, such as taking an interest in the supervisor's personal life and doing personal favours for the supervisor. This kind of involvement in supervisor's personal life can be possible just for employees with very close relationships with their supervisor (Xin, 2004; Wayne, & Liden, 1995). Therefore, I chose to concentrate on IM work as an IM tactic that would be more relevant to all employees.

Work oriented IM involves behaviours and verbal statements related to the employee's performance on the job. These tactics often involve the presentation of performance-related information in a way that attempts to impress others (e.g., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). In particular, employees who engage in work oriented IM tactics tend to take responsibility for positive events (even when they are not solely responsible), tend to make negative events for which they are responsible seem less negative than they truly are, and try to play up their accomplishments and credentials (Bolino et al., 2006). The perception that the organization is not awarding by merit and not being clear how the reward systems work will decrease employees' organizational integrity perceptions; furthermore, the perception that the organization is not capable of judging who should be rewarded in perceived injustice climate will decrease employees' organizational ability perceptions. Thus, I propose that in a perceived injustice climate, mediated by trustworthiness, work oriented IM would be increasingly used.

Nevertheless, many studies so far have shown the importance of cultural values in the use of IM tactics (Bailey, Chen, & Dou, 1997; Han & Altman, 2009; Hwang, 1987; Walder, 1986; Zhang, Song, Hackett, & Bycio, 2006). When employees are high on traditionality values, they will be more accepting of authority and hence of the injustice depicted by perceived injustice climate, so the effect of perceived injustice climate on work oriented IM through trustworthiness may be weakened. This means that perceived injustice climate increases use of work oriented IM through trustworthiness, but in case of employees with high traditionality values this effect would be less than the case of employees with low traditionality values. Therefore, perceived injustice climate effect on trustworthiness that would normally result in increased use of work oriented IM would be attenuated in case of traditionality.

H2: The effect of perceived injustice climate on work oriented IM through organizational trustworthiness will be weakened by employees' traditionality values. Specifically, in

case of high traditionality the positive effect of perceived injustice climate on work oriented IM through trustworthiness will be decreased.

Although trustworthiness dimensions of integrity and ability, when low, have negative outcomes like increased used of work oriented IM, organizations with paternalistic management may portray a sense of benevolence that can mitigate these negative outcomes (Steier & Muethel, 2014). Gelfand, Erez, and Aycan (2007) define paternalism as a *"hierarchical relationship in which a leader guides professional and personal lives of subordinates in a manner resembling a parent, and in exchange expects loyalty and deference"* (p. 493). Paternalism is a managerial style mostly prevalent in Asian, Middle-Eastern, and Latin American cultures (Kim, 1994; Uhl-Bien, Tierney, Graen & Wakabayashi, 1990). In an empirical study, Aycan et al. (2000) found India, China, Pakistan, and Turkey to be high on paternalistic values, which means managers in these countries often use a parental attitude towards employees in order to portray a sense of benevolent intention and caring (Aycan et al., 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Other studies on paternalism emerging from Asia also have opposed Weber's purely authoritarian view and argued that paternalistic management is a way of providing support, protection, and care for subordinates (Redding, Norman, & Schlander, 1994). According to Aycan et al. (2000) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) paternalism represents a relationship in which subordinates willingly reciprocate the care and protection of paternal authority by showing conformity.

Aycan (2005) claims that paternalism humanizes the workplace and establishes more flexible management systems instead of rigid and contractual relationships between employers and workers. Pellegrini and Scandura's (2008) review on paternalism identified trust as one of the more important outcomes of paternalism. Uhl-Bien and colleagues (1990) also claim that paternalism, as opposed to economic motivation, can foster affective trust among workers and managers, cooperation throughout the organization, group harmony, and lifetime employee commitment. Therefore, in firms with perceived high paternalism the decreased trustworthiness perceptions due to the perceived injustice climate would be compensated with a feeling of security (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008) and employees would feel less need to use work oriented IM. Thus, the perceived injustice climate effect on trustworthiness that would normally result in

increased use of work oriented IM would be attenuated in case of paternalistic management style.

H3: Perceived injustice climate effect on work oriented IM through organizational trustworthiness will be weakened when the employees perceive high paternalism. Specifically, in case of high paternalism the positive effect of perceived injustice climate on work oriented IM through trustworthiness will be decreased.

Summarizing all previous hypotheses, the thesis will claim that the effect of a perceived injustice climate on work oriented IM through organizational trustworthiness will be moderated by traditionality and paternalism. Having both high traditionality and high paternalism would even further decrease the effect of perceived injustice climate through trustworthiness on work oriented IM.

H4: Perceived injustice climate effect on work oriented IM through organizational trustworthiness will be weakened by high traditionality and paternalism. Specifically, in case of high traditionality and paternalism the positive effect of perceived injustice climate on work oriented IM through trustworthiness will be decreased.

As another outcome of interest, I will examine the effect of a perceived injustice climate on employees' voice behaviour through trustworthiness. Voice, as an important part of organizational justice, reflects the opportunity for input via decision procedures that allows employees to express their views (Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1985). This type of voice is not the interest of this thesis, which is focusing on discretionary voice behaviour defined by LePine and Van Dyne (1998) as "non-required behaviour that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge with the intent to improve rather than merely criticize" (p. 854). A key assumption within this voice literature is that the behaviour is intended to be constructive and pro-social (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). In other words, the driving motive for voice is the desire to help the organization or work unit perform more effectively or to make a positive difference for the collective (Ashford, Sutcliffe, & Christianson, 2009; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Therefore, voice can include promotive voice, which involves the expression of both constructive suggestions and concerns or expressions of ways to improve existing work practices and procedures to benefit organizations; and prohibitive voice, which is about the expressions of

individuals' concern about existing or impending practices, incidents, or behaviours that may harm their organization (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012).

The literature emphasizes that voice reflects a deliberate decision process whereby the individual considers both positive and negative consequences (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Detert & Burris, 2007; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). The two key outcome-related considerations are whether speaking up is likely to be effective (this is often referred to as the perceived efficacy of voice) and the individual's judgment about the risks or potential negative outcomes associated with speaking up (which is often referred to as the perceived safety of voice). These two judgments may strengthen or attenuate the relationship between the motives to benefit or help the collective and actual voice behaviour (Morrison, 2011).

The predominant focus of the empirical research on voice has been on identifying factors that increase or decrease the extent of voice behaviour that an employee engages in, presumably by affecting employees' beliefs about whether speaking up will be effective and safe, and their motivation to contribute to the organization in constructive ways. Research has shown that individuals are particularly reluctant to convey negative information to individuals in higher status positions (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974). In fact, merely introducing a hierarchical structure into a group has been shown to impede open communication, particularly communication directed toward those in higher positions (Morrison, 2011). Theoretical discussions of employee silence have also emphasized the role of hierarchical or status differences in causing employees to believe that their input will not be taken seriously, that voice will be perceived as inappropriate, or that they will be sanctioned for speaking up (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison & Rothman, 2009; Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Organizational climate and culture may also encourage or discourage voice (Dutton, Ashford, Lawrence, & Miner-Rubino, 2002; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Therefore, voice behaviour can be greatly reduced when individuals perceive that in the organizational environment is unsafe or it is unacceptable to speak up (Detert & Burris, 2007).

Furthermore, voice is more common in groups that are self-managing (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), and in groups that adopt egalitarian practices such as rotated leadership and peer evaluations (Erez, LePine, & Elms, 2002). Tulubas and Celep (2012) examined

perceived justice, especially procedural justice as an important factor in employers' decision to speak up about organizational issues. Their study conducted in Turkey aimed to examine the effects of justice on faculty members' silence mediated by trust in supervisor. Their results showed that perceived justice (distributive, procedural, and interactive justice) predicts faculty members' silence. Furthermore, trust in supervisor was found to mediate the effect of overall perceived justice and perceived procedural justice on faculty members' silence. Extrapolating the findings of this study, I argue that firms with a perceived injustice climate, and the resulting decreased trustworthiness would not be a place of abundant use of voice. In particular, the low organizational ability perceptions in perceived injustice climate firms will imply that use of voice will be ineffective and the low organizational integrity perception will imply that use of voice is not safe, thereby reducing the frequency of actual use of voice behaviour.

Nevertheless, in the same way as traditionality is expected to mitigate the effects of perceived injustice climate (through organizational trustworthiness) on work oriented IM, high levels of traditionality would also attenuate the perceived injustice climate effect on voice through organizational trustworthiness. Employees with high traditionality are expected to be less discerning of the negative implications of perceived injustice climate on organizational trustworthiness, therefore traditionality would decrease the negative effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through trustworthiness. In case of high traditionality perceived injustice climate would be less damaging to trustworthiness perceptions, and as a result employees would be more likely to use voice compared to employees with low levels of traditionality, who would perceive greater harm from a perceived injustice climate regarding organizational trustworthiness and therefore refrain from speaking up to a greater extent.

H5: The effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through organizational trustworthiness will be weakened by employees' traditionality values. Specifically, in case of high traditionality the negative effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through trustworthiness will be decreased.

I argue that paternalism will also moderate the relationship between organizational trustworthiness and voice. The decreased perceptions of organizational trustworthiness due to perceived injustice climate would mean employees do not consider the

organization to be a safe place to speak up, nor do they have faith that the organization is able to make use of the suggestions or concerns expressed. Nevertheless, the lack in ability and integrity trustworthiness perceptions can be compensated by the paternalism. In a survey study of issue selling, Ashford et al. (1998) hypothesized and found that perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) related positively to the perceived probability of issue-selling success and negatively to the perceived risk of engaging in issue selling. Similarly, paternalistic management may create a sense of security or confidence that can diminish the negative effects of perceived injustice climate and create a perception that speaking up is safe, and can be potentially useful for the organization. In addition, according to Martínez (2003), paternalism is a positive form of leadership and as such can decrease negative practices like employee silence. Also according to Jia, Zhou, and Jiang (2019) individuals are inclined to stay silent unless they receive reassurance from the organization or supervisor that speaking up is acceptable. Paternalistic leadership by showing family-like concerns to employees is a way to make them feel safe; as such, employees reciprocate with gratitude and other beneficial behaviour like voice (Jia et al., 2019).

Summarizing all of the above, paternalistic leadership humanizes the work place (Aycan, 2001), it makes uncertain work environments feel safer and secure (Çalişkan, 2010) and consequently employees would be less likely to refrain from speaking up. Therefore, this thesis proposes that paternalism would moderate the mediated relationship between perceived injustice climate, organizational trustworthiness, and voice.

H6: The effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through organizational trustworthiness will be weakened by paternalism. Specifically, in case of high perceived paternalism the negative effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through trustworthiness will be decreased.

Merging the previous hypotheses, the thesis will also propose that perceived injustice climate effect on voice through organizational trustworthiness would be moderated by both traditionality and paternalism.

H7: The effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through organizational trustworthiness is weakened by traditionality and paternalism. Specifically, in case of

high traditionality and paternalism the negative effect of perceived injustice climate on voice through trustworthiness will be decreased.

Another outcome of a perceived injustice climate of interest to this thesis is I-deals. As pointed out previously in this chapter, supervisors tend to grant workload reduction, flexible work hours, and special developmental opportunities type of I-deals in the context of unfulfilled organizational obligations towards employees, showing how I-deals can be used by organization as a compensation for organizational shortcomings (Hornung et al., 2009; Rousseau, 2005). Firms that harbour an atmosphere of weak corporatization, low professionalism and unclear standardization use I-deals in order to keep valuable employees (Rousseau, 2005). Firms with perceived injustice climate, which can be experienced by employees as having these characteristics are an especially fertile ground for striking I-deals. In fact, the usual practices of favouritism, cronyism or shady deals that happen in firms with perceived injustice climate can be used by quality employees as bargaining chips for striking I-deals (Rousseau, 2005).

However, not all employees would be equally able to strike I-deals. Rousseau (2005) points out that I-deals are used when distinctive qualities of high status members create tolerance for their special treatment. As such, I-deals are generally offered when the I-deals are beneficial for both the employee and the employer. An employee of high distinctive value would mean an employee who is not easily replaceable, this could be because of his/her expertise, his/her effectiveness and efficiency or just because he or she is very well liked.

H8: The effects of perceived injustice climate on I-deals will be moderated by employee's value to the organization. Specifically, perceived injustice climate will have a positive effect on I-deals for employees of high value.

I-deals have been shown to have positive effects on different job outcome. The job outcome that I will focus on, as a result of I-deals is increase in employee's organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model argues that organizational commitment has three distinctive components: affective commitment (feeling emotional attachment to an organization), continuance commitment (believing that leaving the organization would be costly), and normative commitment (feeling

obligated to the organization or believing that staying is the right thing to do). Having a high level of affective commitment means enjoying the relationship with the organization and higher likelihood to stay (wanting to stay). High levels of continuance commitment means staying with an organization because of having to stay (for example, quitting the job may lead to an unacceptable length of unemployment, or losing a certain degree of status). In case of normative commitment, the employee stays because she or he feels that she or he ought to stay.

Ng and Feldman (2010) proposed that I-deals would be positively related to organizational commitment for two reasons. First, individuals who perceive their contracts as idiosyncratic may be particularly excited about being the only one (or one of the few) to receive rare and valued resources. These enhanced positive emotions would directly strengthen organizational commitment (Hornung et al., 2009). Second, perceptions of I-deals may increase employees' confidence in their employers and strengthen their bonds with them (Rousseau, 2005) whereas, a "standard" deal may signal irrelevance or disinterest to an individual's particular needs. Consequently, most of the studies that look at the effects of I-deals on commitment do so by focusing on affective commitment because affective commitment is one of the most immediate outcomes and indicators of the quality of employee-organization relationships (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001).

As pointed out previously, for valuable employees, the presence of a perceived injustice climate would mean increased possibility for I-deals, which in turn will increase their affective commitment. Therefore, the effect of perceived injustice climate on affective commitment, through I-deals would be significant for valuable employees (Meyer et al., 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rhoades et al., 2001).

H9: For valuable employees, perceived injustice climate effect through I-deals on affective commitment will be significant. Specifically, perceived injustice climate will have a positive effect through I-deals on affective commitment.

As pointed out above a high level of continuance commitment means staying with an organization because of having to stay (for example when employees feel the need to stay

with their organization because their salary and other benefits will not improve if they move to another organization). The I-deals that valuable employees have in organizations with a perceived injustice climate are unlikely to be easily achieved in another organization. Not being able to get the same favourable conditions can make employees reluctant to leave or consider leaving the organization. Therefore, perceived injustice climate through I-deals in case of valuable employees will also increase continuance commitment.

H10: For valuable employees, perceived injustice climate effect through I-deals on continuance commitment will be significant. Specifically, perceived injustice climate will have a positive effect through I-deals on continuance commitment.

3. PRELIMINARY STUDY

Prior to testing the hypotheses, I conducted a preliminary, qualitative study. This study involved the content analysis of critical incident narrations of organizational trust, which allowed me to familiarize myself with antecedents and outcomes of organizational trust in Turkish organizations.

The data for the qualitative study (Study 1) came from middle managers in 30 Turkish firms. All the participants were participants in the Turquality certification program. Turquality is a state-sponsored branding program, which has been established for companies that hold product groups with a potential of branding and competitive advantage in Turkey. The program helps them with production, marketing, sales, and after-sales services, as well as providing them with executive training and development.

Fifty-four Turquality participants, specifically 36 males and 18 females wrote down their trust experiences in their organization as part of their training program. In particular, they were provided with the definition of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and asked to narrate two critical incidents, one that increased and one that lowered their trust and commitment in their firm. The critical incident technique, since its introduction by Flanagan (1954, as cited by Münscher & Kühlmann, 2011) has proven valuable in quite a number of research disciplines, and is especially suited for collecting data on the trust (Münscher & Kühlmann, 2011). Focusing on behavioural sequences in certain contexts, critical incident technique helps avoid researching subjects' folk psychological theories about trust and instead collects comprehensive descriptions of real-life situations in which trust is created, strengthened, or destroyed (Münscher & Kühlmann, 2011).

The narrations collected were mainly unstructured data that needed to be classified by discovering patterns in it (Gremler, 2004). Therefore, an inductive category-building

process was used to classify antecedents and outcomes of trustworthiness. Using Gioia, Corey, and Hamilton's (2012) advice, firstly, "1st order terms" were coded with little attempt to distil categories. Initially around 250 1st order terms emerged from the transcripts (examples can be found in Table 2). Following Gioia methodology, a search for similarities and differences was conducted and the germane categories were reduced to a more manageable number of codes, called "2nd order themes" (Gioia et al., 2012). At that point, in addition to emergent codes from the narrations, the existing literature on the antecedents and outcomes of trust was also drawn upon to systematically summarize and aggregate the codes. The resulting glossary then was used to code the incidents.

Table 2. Glossary creation

Example of variables from 1st order	2nd order themes	Aggregated Dimensions
Visibility of HRM practices	HRM Distinctiveness	HRM characteristics
Fulfilling org. expectancies	HRM Consistency/ Expectancy	
Different privileges for departments	Procedural justice	Org. justice
Same privileges		
Blue vs. white-collar		
Not being paid on time salary	Distributive justice	
Adequacy of the explanations	Informational justice	
Respect during employment	Interpersonal justice	
No respect		
Being trusted	Employee's felt trust	Trust
Integrity	Compliance with laws	
Not learning from mistakes	Organizational ability	
Effective recruitment	Elaborate and effective recruitment and selection process	HPWS HPWS HPWS
Selection process		
Feedback	Employee development/ monitoring and appraisal, feedback, guidance and mentorship, and/or employee training and development	
Mentorship		
Training		
Appraisal		
Promotion	Career advancement, promotion (possibility) and rewarding employees	
Rewards		

Work overload		
Helping for work issues	Helping for work issues vs ignoring	POS
Valuing employees	Importance of employee	Importance of employee
Helping with personal issues	Helping for personal issues vs ignoring	Paternalism
Not being punished for a mistake	Forgiving employees	
Easy to lose your job	Job security vs job insecurity, layoff	Job security
Clear job design	Role clarity	Role clarity
Work ambiguity	Work role/clarity vs ambiguity	
Not being able to criticize work	Voice opportunity, safety and efficacy	Voice
Empowerment	Autonomy	Autonomy
Obligation to the job	Normative commitment	Commitment
Belonging	Affective commitment/Job/org. identification, belonging/	
Love for the job		
Having to staying in the org.	Continuance commitment	
Being happy with the job	Job satisfaction vs. disappointment and unhappiness, vindictive feelings	Job satisfaction
Wanting to hurt the org.		
Wanting to leave	Work withdrawal	Withdrawal & turnover
Motivation	Motivation	Motivation and performance
Increased performance	Performance	
Negative effects on personal life		

In order to check the glossary and coding, the thesis advisor randomly selected and coded 11 transcripts (20% of the total transcripts). As a result, some discrepancies were found. More precisely some of the codes were not mutually exclusive, others were unclear, and some were redundant altogether. Accordingly, the glossary was further revised and used to conduct the final coding. This final version of the glossary is made of 28 "2nd order themes" which were grouped under "14 aggregated dimensions". Table 2 has some examples of 1st order coding and shows how they were recoded into 2nd order themes and finally into aggregated dimensions.

After the critical incidents were coded with the last version of the glossary, attempt was made to understand the relationships between the aggregated terms. In that way the

aggregated terms and their sub terms were categorized as antecedents, outcomes and if possible as mediators. Table 3 provides a description of antecedents emerging in trust increase and trust decrease incidents, their frequency, and a sample quotes and Table 4 contains the same information for outcomes of trust.

3.1. Antecedents of Trust in Organization

Analyzing the critical incidents, a long list of antecedents could be compiled. In the critical incidents the characteristics of HRM systems, specific HR practices, organizational justice, paternalism, job security, working conditions, importance and appreciation of employee, forgiving employees, role clarity, employee voice and autonomy were all frequently mentioned reasons for trust increase and decrease. Regarding the content of the antecedents, the HRM literature was used to systematically categorize the characteristics of HRM systems and HR practices that appeared in the critical incidents.

Regarding frequency of occurrence, *HRM system/consistency* (agreement between what was said and what was done)*,* was mentioned by 10 respondents (18%) as trust building and 12 respondents (22%) mentioned its lack as trust decreasing, as exemplified with the following quotes:

> "4 years ago, one of our maintenance foremen was diagnosed with soft tissue cancer and was informed by the doctors of the gravity of the situation…... During this sad incident, HR and top management showed that it acted in line with the vision and values, in a consistent manner" (respondent no.54; trust increase incident).

> "The management was not consistent: The aim of hiring me and the fact that my proposals were ignored and no action was taken are absolutely inconsistent. If the factory wasn't ready for change, why was I hired and if there was such resistance, why weren't the people who were resisting convinced in an appropriate manner or dismissed; these are some questions that preoccupy me" (respondent no.18; trust decrease incident).

HRM system/distinctiveness (denoting visibility and transparency of HR practices, understandability of the content of these practices, the legitimacy of the authority that imposes these practices, and the relevance and usefulness of these practices) was mentioned considerably less than the *HRM system/consistency* component. Only one respondent (2 %) explicitly mentioned *HRM system/ distinctiveness* as a trust building antecedent, and another (1 respondent, 2%) mentioned its lack as trust decreasing:

> "Each year, before the assessment starts, we meet with both management positions and employees separately to remind them of the system and the procedures as well as to talk about the issues they should be careful about when making the assessments" (respondent no. 5; trust increase incident).

> "Human resources management is unfortunately almost non-existent. There have been some very good efforts but they are not sufficient." (respondent no.33; trust decrease incident).

The fairness narrations were coded as *procedural justice; distributive justice; informational justice and interpersonal justice.* Four respondents (8%) mentioned *procedural justice* representing fairness of the procedures used in the organizations as a trust-building antecedent and 12 respondents (22%) mentioned its absence, especially in cases of inequality between employees, as a trust-decreasing antecedent:

> "The incident which resulted in breaching my trust … Even though these side benefits of employees, which are used as tools for better performing their responsibilities and additional motivation, are defined by rules, in practice these rules show flexibility based on the person, their immediate supervisor or HR manager." (respondent no.5; trust decrease incident).

Four respondents (8%) mentioned *distributive justice* as fairness of resource distribution (such as pay, rewards, promotions and the outcome of dispute resolutions) as trust building incidents. Its absence, as lack of fairness in resource distribution, including cases of favouritism (cronyism and nepotism) was mentioned by 11 respondents (20%) as trust destroying, as exemplified with the following quote:

"New managers who are recent hires being paid more than others in the same position (disregard for knowledge of the job, tenure, work that had been done)." (respondent no.39; trust decrease incident).

Interpersonal justice as employees' perceptions of respect and propriety in the way they are treated by the organization during employment or layoffs; and *informational justice* as adequacy of the explanations given by the organization in terms of their timeliness, specificity, and truthfulness were also mentioned antecedents. Only one respondent (2 %) mentioned interpersonal justice as trust building but its absence was deemed as trust destroying by 12 respondents (22%):

"One of the issues I've experienced and haven't forgotten, an issue that I've made an effort to improve is the way the relationship is terminated between the company and colleagues/ friends, with whom we were forced to go our separate ways with. The way these friends were treated between 2008-2010 breached my trust. Friends who worked in the company for long years, who were even rewarded for completing 15 years were removed from their posts, their relationship with the company discontinued and even their PC use was blocked as if in a fire sale when they were in the interview room" (respondent no.3; trust decrease incident).

Informational justice was mentioned by 2 respondents (2%) as trust building and by 13 respondents (26%) as trust decreasing, as shown in the sample quotes below:

"I attribute the constructive management of this process to the open communication within the organization" (respondent no.39; trust increase incident).

"I nominated myself to that position and I thought I deserved this. I also subsequently voiced this. The fact that I was continuing in the Turquality program and that I had developed myself further also helped with this of course. Ok, I told myself, I will reach another point in my career aspirations. But when I saw a job posting on an HR website for an Export Manager, I was seriously disappointed" (respondent no.41; trust decrease incident).

Other frequently mentioned antecedents of trust are high performance work practices or HPWP (Searle et al. 2011, Vanhala & Dietz, 2015). According to the literature, there is a universalistic HRM approach, which focuses on horizontally integrating the practices that internally fit together and mutually support each other to create synergistic effects for improving organizational performance irrespective of the overall organizational strategy that is adopted (Delery & Doty, 1996). The most prominent of examples of these practices are called HPWP (Huselid, 1995). Despite the fact that there are differences in the particular organizational objectives that they aim to facilitate, they can usually be viewed as similar because they all are making an investment in employees. Using this literature in the critical incidents, three types of HPWP were identified: *elaborate and effective recruitment practices; developmental practices;* and *career advancement, promotion and rewarding. Elaborate and effective recruitment practices* regarding what position the firm will have to fill, and how to fill them were perceived as trust building by four respondents (7%):

> "For one year, young employees work in different departments and determine the department where they will have the highest productivity with the help of HR procedures. This approach and model is one of the things that make me feel the importance my company bestows on people and makes me feel confident/trustful" (respondent no.3; trust increase incident).

Developmental practices including all types of appraisal, feedback, guidance and mentorship, or employee training and development were described as trust building by five (9%) and their lack as trust decreasing by two respondents (4%):

> "The fact that the participants in the Turquality Manager Development Program were sent to training without a pre-condition, signing a protocol etc., a written commitment. Encouraging employees who have been in the company less than 6 months to participate in the training with the proposal of the CFO and the approval of the General Manager and the expectation of adding value to the company in return being sufficient" (respondent no.53; trust increase incident).

Nevertheless, very often-inferred group of HPWP in the critical incidents were *career advancement, promotion and rewarding* practices. Five respondents (9%) reported them

as trust building and their absence was reported as trust decreasing by three respondents (5%):

> "My eyes almost popped out of my head when I saw my new salary. It was a very unexpected raise" (respondent no.16; trust increase incident).

Helping employees for personal issues as an antecedent that includes organizational paternalistic attitudes was often mentioned in the trust building/decreasing incidents. More precisely, it was mentioned by 11 (20%) as trust building:

> "In 2006, I lost my father whom my bosses knew closely and frequently socialized with, the fact that my boss understood the difficulties I was going through from my demeanour and behaviour, that he spoke to me directly and told me that I could always ask for his material and emotional support and that when I did ask for his support I saw that he wasn't just saying this but that he was genuine, made my trust in the company and in the management rise to a very high level "(respondent no. 24; trust increase incident).

Three respondents (5%) saw helping for work issues as important for trust building and its absence was seen as trust decreasing by other three respondents (5%):

> "…the way in which the company sent us to training breached my trust. Even though the training was in Tuzla, we spent 7 hours on the road for each training session and no solution was offered for this." (respondent no.14; trust decrease incident).

Importance and appreciation of employee is another antecedent whose presence was pronounced as trust building by eight (15%) and its absence by three respondents (5%) as trust decreasing:

> "One of the things that caught my attention the most when I started working at Company X was "Employee Centricity" being identified as a corporate value. The inscription that catches one's eye when one first walks is stated "Hand in hand with

our employees, our future is secure" These two factors clearly showed the people-oriented approach of X" (respondent no. 26; trust increase incident).

Seven respondents (13 %) described *job security* as relevant for trust building and four respondents (7%) described job insecurity as trust decreasing factor:

"From the first day in the company, I learned that the employee profile in the company was at least 5 years of tenure, in fact almost half the company was working there for 10 years. As a first impression, it made me realize how developed employees' trust in the company was" (respondent no.19; trust increase incident).

Good working conditions were part of the trust building narrated incidents of two respondents (4%), and bad working conditions and work overload was mentioned in trust erosion incident of one respondent (2%):

"both of them thought their work was my primary responsibility and told me that was how I should act, I was certain I had lost my intrinsic motivation and my commitment to my company and my department, I was working unhappily, I did not find myself productive because I couldn't focus and kept getting interrupted by different tasks" (respondent no.46; trust decrease incident).

Furthermore, *forgiving for employees' shortcomings or mistakes and standing by its employees* was another mentioned antecedent. Three respondents (5%) mentioned not punishing or even justifying employees' mistakes as important:

"April of 2012, a colleague in our department almost died in a car accident due to his/her fault (driving under the influence and seat belt violation). He/she had to undergo several operations because of that serious accident. As a result, she/he could not work for 9 months. It was a very busy period for us at work, so the loss of one person's output made things pretty difficult for us. Someone from the human resources department spoke to us and told us that they believed our colleague would be able to come back and that no one would be hired to replace him/her under any conditions and she/he would not be fired. Our colleague did return to work after a year even if she/he had partial loss of sight; and she/he did not fear losing his/her

job. This incident, which reveals an image of the company as one who stands by its employees, has increased my trust in the company" (respondent 45; trust increase incident).

Five respondents (9%) also pointed out absence of opportunity, safety and efficacy to express constructive challenges (voice) as trust decreasing:

"However our managers did not receive these criticisms well, stating that this had been the way of doing things for long years, they appeared closed off to the possibility of change" (respondent no.8).

In addition, one respondent (2%) deemed efficacy or safety of voice as trust building. *Role clarity* as clearly defined duties and responsibilities that accompanies the assigned position was important trust building antecedent for two respondents (4%) and its absence was pointed out to be trust decreasing by one (2%):

"My position in the company was Financial and Administrative Affairs Manager. Our team was not very large. We were able to manage all administrative and financial processes with five people. Top management appreciated our work and, as a result, kept giving us new responsibilities. However, after a while, familial responsibilities of company shareholders were also given over to me. For example, if the larger shareholder and his family were going to France for vacation, I was tasked with writing and sending the consulate applications. I was asked to monitor the cleaning of the bathrooms and general office space" (respondent no.10; trust decreasing incident).

Two respondents (4%) mentioned *job autonomy* as trust building and its absence was seen as trust decreasing by three (5%):

"I chose to work for this company, which created a large area of responsibility and manoeuvre that was parallel to my previous work, which offered important powers in locations within the global structure" (respondent no.21; trust increasing incident).

Table 3. Emerging antecedents of trust

Emergent antecedents	Respondents	Description	Sample quotes
HRM system/ Consistency	22 (40%)	Agreement between what was said and what was done	*After 4 months in that position, I am now in my current position as Brand Project Responsible in charge of the implementation of a Skin Care Project. ...this is proof that HR kept its word and realized my transfers.*
HRM system/ Distinctiveness	2 (4%)	Visibility and transparency of HR practices, understandability of the content of these practices, the legitimacy of the authority that imposes these practices, and the relevance of these practices	*What I mean by faulty employee selection leading to high turnover is that as an HR policy, the right person, in the right number, right way and time being hired doesn't always work. An operations staff member who doesn't speak a foreign language being hired for the Foreign Trade Department and then being dismissed a short time later on the basis that she/he doesn't speak a foreign language and does not have the necessary attributes for the position may be an example of this issue.*
Procedural justice	16 (30%)	Fairness of the procedures used in the organizations	*I am against double standards not just in the professional sphere ... I believe that especially in the professional life internal company rules must be determined.*
Distributive justice	15 (28%)	Fairness of resource distribution such as pay, rewards, promotions and the outcome of dispute resolutions	*... even though I showed very high performance and had 110% target actualization, I was paid the same bonus as sales reps who made 80% of their budget targets. My expectation is that, sales is a team job but, sales reps who exceed their budget target are evaluated in a more fair bonus system relative to those who do not exceed targets.*
Interpersonal justice	14 (26%)	Just treatment and respect during employment or lay offs	*.... they told him/her s/he could quit if s/he didn't want to work under these conditions. They forced our colleague to resign by making things difficult. This incident damaged my trust in the company.*
Informational justice	13 (24%)	Adequacy of the explanations given in terms of their timeliness, specificity, and truthfulness	*The economic crisis in Europe, harsh winter conditions that led to a large decrease in commercial vehicle air suspension sales had led to the necessity to terminate one of the 3 engineers working under me. Actually, this necessity was communicated to me one day prior by my manager.*
Paternalism	11 (20%)	Organization that helps their employees with personal issuers	*The incident occurred at my current company during the short period I've been working there that made me trust in it. Our secretary apparently had a traffic accident about a year ago. It was a serious accident. S/he was in the ICU and hospitalized for a long time. S/he was told s/he could start working after recovering fully, 7 months later and s/he was hired back even though we already had a secretary.*
Importance and appreciation of employee	11 (20%)	Org. that shows employees that they are important and appreciated	*upper level managers are disregarding the value of people working at lower levels.*
Job security	11 (20%)	Having the assurance that their job will remain stable	*The most important factor ensuring my trust in the company is that I have no fear of being laid off as long as I do my job*
HPWP/ career advancement,	8 (15%)	Increase in salary, rewards, authority,	*After I started working, even before I had completed 1 full year, they offered me many*

promotion and employee rewarding		job duties and responsibilities	*opportunities they had not even promised during the interview process.*
HPWP/ developmental practices	7 (13%)	Monitoring and appraisal, feedback, guidance and mentorship, and/or employee training and development	*When I was informed that I would participate in the Turquality program my trust in the company had really increased and I thought there would be forward-looking career planning for me and that there would be something like an investment made.*
HPWP/ elaborate and effective recruitment	4 (7%)	Elaborate process of deciding what position the firm will have to fill, and how to fill them	*Based on the interviews during the entry process it seemed that the HR process and career planning was very trustworthy, motivation inspiring and having a vision that values employees. Everything that was described during the HR process appeared by the book and resulted in increasing my excitement.*
helping for work issues vs ignoring employees	6 (10%)	Org. that helps their employees with work issues	*I was sent to Johannesburg...On the day of my arrival, my computer was stolen. I reported the situation to my company and within two weeks, my company had sent me a new computer with all the programs and my mail set up.*
Voice	6 (10%)	Opportunity, safety and efficacy to expresses constructive challenge with the intent to improve rather than merely criticize	*In a meeting about planning, I communicated the mistakes and deficiencies that were being committed with evidence to my boss and to the other people present in the meaning, but those on the other side went into a denial phase during the meeting, and my boss was just watching. At the end of the meeting, nothing had changed about the problems.*
Job autonomy	5(9%)	Sense of control in relation to one's work and an active orientation to one's work role	*Reaching the Team Leader position, by virtue of taking more initiative and having more say-so, led to my intrinsic motivation increasing, me taking hold of my work more firmly and, as a result, my commitment to the company growing both affectively and normatively and my trust in the company increasing substantially.*
Role clarity	3(5%)	Clearly defined duties and responsibilities that accompanies the assigned role/position	*In summary, the career plan the company had drawn for me was clear, as was the one I drew for myself... Even during the first interview, they had explained the situation to me clearly, repeatedly emphasized their expectations from me and where I could be in the near future.*
Good working conditions	3 (5%)	Satisfying pay, work hours, interesting work, co-workers and managers, being paid on time, short commute to work	*The first 6 months after I started working, everything was very nice. My salary had increased 50% compared to my previous job. In terms of working hours and conditions, everything was very good. All managers were very well-educated and polite/well-mannered.*
Forgiving for employees shortcomings or mistakes	3 (5%)	Org. forgiving employees for a mistakes or shortcoming, or standing by its employees	*I was assigned as the North America Marketing Manager. Even though, as part of my responsibilities, I had to travel to my region at least once a month, conduct various analyses and customer visits, I was twice turned down for a visa... Even though I was new, not only did the company not transfer the market to someone else but they also did not implement any practices that would adversely affect my motivation....*

3.2. Outcomes

The outcomes of increased trust are shown in Table 4. It should be noted that participants were provided with a definition of organizational commitment and explicitly instructed to narrate trust incidents that lowered their commitment. Therefore, the results for outcomes were likely to over represent commitment. Indeed, trust increase was reported to increase *affective commitment* in 17 incidents (32%) and *normative commitment* in 11 incidents (20%). An example follows:

> "Treating not only white collar but all employees with fairness and their understanding attitude toward those who are going through tough times, their emotional and material support have made me commit to my company both affectively and normatively" (respondent no.19)

Trust decrease resulted in decreased in *affective commitment* in four (7%) incidents and *normative commitment* also in four incidents (7%). In addition, decrease of trust in three reported cases (5%) meant transforming *affective* into *continuance commitment:*

> "3 months after the South Africa business trip, when I returned to work, I saw that the regions I was responsible for had been transferred to another colleague.... I had left my spouse and my 2-year-old son when I went to South Africa and that had been a sacrifice I had made for the company. What I saw on my return completely overturned the trust I had developed while I was there. ….. It wasn't at all fair to have my seat taken by someone else without my knowledge…. My affective commitment to the company had increased after the nice incident in South Africa. My experience on my return transformed it to continuance commitment, to a necessity" (respondent no.48).

In addition to commitment, trust increase according to seven respondents (13%) was followed by increase in motivation and productivity, and trust decrease according to 20 (32%) was a reason for decrease in motivation and productivity:

"My intrinsic motivation was falling, my productivity was decreasing, my trust in the company was being breached" (respondent no.51).

"Even though I know that the relationship between the company and employees is a professional one, I believe employees should always have positive feelings toward their companies and that these positive feelings will eventually yield beneficial results for the company. In the reverse situation, I see that they carry a grudge against the company and when they have the opportunity they make a highly motivated effort to harm the company as much as possible" (respondent no.3).

Nine respondents (15%) also reported that due to decreased trust in the firm they withdrew and stopped performing to full ability, or even decided to leave the firm:

"I started thinking why I am in this company after all; I will only do what is told. In fact, that night I even considered quitting my job" (respondent no.16).

Trust as mentioned above, also affected job satisfaction. Increased trust increased job satisfaction in 6 respondents' narrations (10%) while reduced trust brought disappointment and unhappiness or even vindictive feelings in 3 (5%) respondents' narrations: "The attitude of my company both increased my trust and made me happy".

Table 4. Emerging outcomes of trust

Emergent outcomes	Respondents	Description	Sample quotes
Commitment/ affective commitment/job/org. identification, belonging	21(39%)	Emotional attachment to the organization, as/or feeling of belongingness; being proud of the organization	*Providing an individual with a good career plan and him realizing this/ being made to realize it, ensures that affective...commitment is realized.*
Commitment/ normative commitment	15(28%)	Feeling obligated to stay with the organization	*The sacrifice of the company in order to win me over resulted in my commitment increasing, my normative commitment being reinforced.*
Commitment/ continuance commitment	3 (5%)	Leaving the organization would be costly for employee	*However, the systemic practices in these companies weren't always just. For this reason, commitment to the company persisted as long as wages increased and expected promotions were given.*
Motivation and performance	27 (45%)	Increase (decrease) of employee's motivation and productivity	*The trust/confidence my supervisor and our boss showed in me and their appreciation of my work motivated me further and simultaneously increased my self-confidence and my trust in the company.*
Work withdrawal and turnover	9 (17%)	Due to company conduct employees may withdraw into him/herself and not perform to full ability, or they decide to leave the company	*As I explained in the example, inconsistency and deficiencies in communication management result in serious loss of trust in employees and leads to loss of experienced employees.*
Job satisfaction vs. disappointment and unhappiness, vindictive feelings	9 (15%)	A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences	*Right after that conversation, he took me to the private friendship meeting with the company owners. That moment was when everything, happiness reached the zenith.*

3.3. Discussion

In this chapter, I summarized the insights I gleaned from an exploratory analysis of data on organizational trust that was collected prior to this thesis proposal. This data was particularly useful for identifying antecedents of organizational trust (as the narrated outcomes were somewhat influenced by the nature of the task instructions given to the participants) in the Turkish context. In what follows, the evidence will be summarized and connections between this thesis propositions and the findings of the qualitative study will be highlighted.

How the respondents in the critical incident study described the relationship between antecedents of organizational trust and trust can be also seen in Figure 3. This model was created not only by taking into account the most often mentioned reasons for organizational trust and the most often stated outcomes, but also by considering the organizational behaviour literature for categorizing them.

Figure 3. A model of organizational trust based on the preliminary study
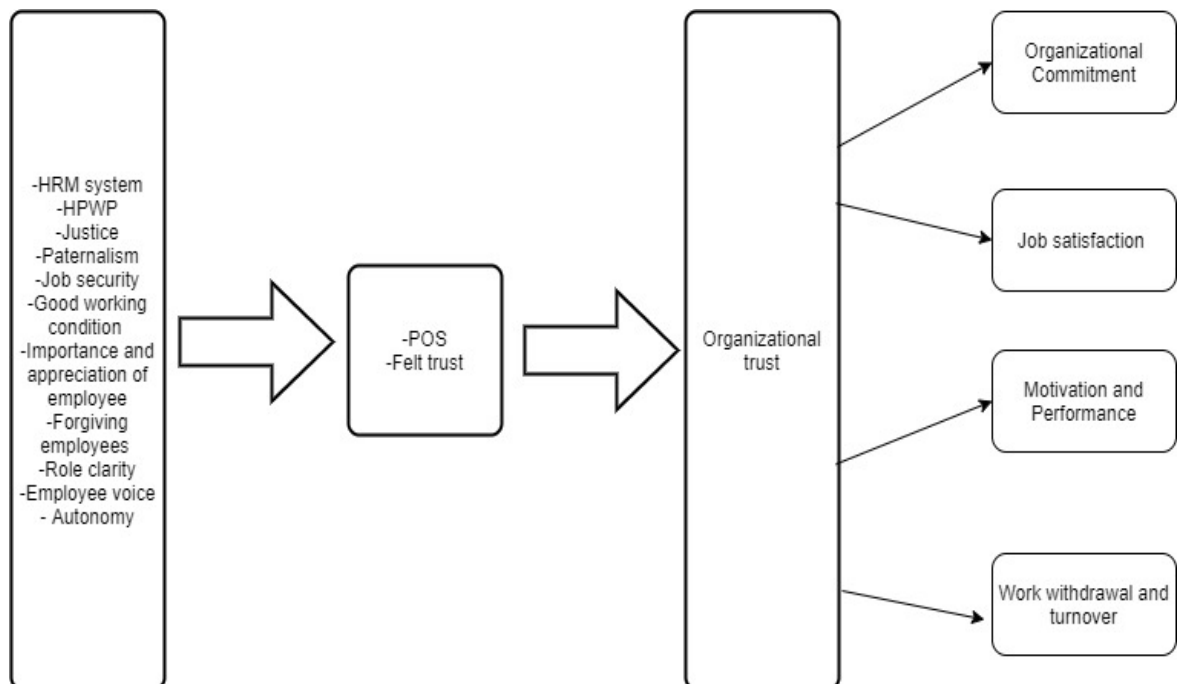
Because this is critical incident data, it is hard to talk with certainty about the mediating role of the variables described in the narrations; therefore, the organizational behaviour (OB) literature was extensively consulted to build the model above. In the OB literature there is evidence on the mediating role of felt trust in the relationship of trust antecedents and trust. In his seminal work, Deustch (1958) has argued that being trusted is always reciprocated by trust. Wasti, Tan, and Erdil (2011) in a qualitative study conducted in Turkey and China noticed that if supervisor showed that he or she trusts the subordinate by disclosing more of his/her personal life, the subordinate would trust in kind. Lam and Lau (2008) and Brower, Schoorman, and Tan (2000) showed how felt trust from the manager is associated with higher levels of performance and OCB. In the critical incidents, felt trust was a very commonly mentioned mediator between trust antecedents and trust:

> "I started my new assignment in January 2006 as the first person in our company to be promoted two steps at once. The trust/confidence my supervisor and our boss showed in me and their appreciation of my work motivated me further and simultaneously increased my self-confidence and my trust in the company" (respondent no.20).

Furthermore, with the help of OB literature, the mediating role of perceived organizational support can also be proposed. POS is an employee's general belief that their work organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). According to Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) POS creates trust that the organization will fulfil its exchange obligations and notice and reward employee's efforts made on its behalf. Similarly, Kurtessis et al. (2017) point out that high POS employees express more trust in the organization. Likewise, according to Stinglhamber, De Cremer and Mercken (2006) positive work experiences provided by the organization (e.g., fair treatment) would make the employee believe that the organization values his or her contributions and well-being, which in turn creates a general trust feeling toward the organization. Although POS was not explicitly mentioned by the respondents its antecedents were pointed out repeatedly: fairness, supervisor support, organizational rewards and favourable job conditions (coded as *helping employees with personal issues, helping employees with work issues, job security, good*

working conditions, importance and appreciation of employee, forgiving employees, role clarity, employee voice and autonomy).

3.3.1. Linking the Qualitative Data to the Thesis model

The qualitative data was not collected with the thesis research in mind; however, it still provides some support to the proposed model. The incidents strongly support the relevance of HRM consistency and organizational justice as antecedents to organizational trustworthiness. Regarding outcomes of trust, the qualitative data has limitations. Nevertheless, the proposed thesis model in terms of affective commitment and performance is supported by the incidents. Naturally, it was not expected that narrators would reveal IM behaviours in the qualitative study. Interestingly, in the critical incident study, voice appeared as an antecedent of POS and trust. However, the participants are in effect mentioning the perception of safety and efficacy of voice and voice can still be argued to be an outcome of trust.

Regarding the moderators proposed in the model, the critical incidents do not disclose much about the role of traditionality of employee. However, the incidents in general do not reveal much information regarding the role of individual differences. In the incidents, the positive effects of paternalism were mentioned (under the theme of *helping employees with personal issues*) as antecedent of trust, while in the dissertation it is a moderator of the relationship between trustworthiness and its outcome. One reason for this it could be that respondents in the critical incidents are unable to make moderating propositions; therefore, I cannot assume incompatibility between the qualitative evidence and the proposed theoretical model.

Finally, regarding I-deals, because of the nature of the concept I could not with absolute certainty code for it in the critical incident narration. Nevertheless, it seems that some HPWP developmental practices like training opportunities could possibly be instances of I-deals. Also under POS, there are critical incidents that could be listed as I-deals, because very often the support that the employees feel from the organization is due to special treatment they received. In addition, very common but not explicitly expressed I-deals are coded under justice and point to the presence of resentment to the fact that some

employees have special treatment in the organizational environment. However, because there are not enough details about the nature of the HPWP or POS arrangements, or special treatments to other employees I could not classify them as I-deals.

4. MEASUREMENT

In this chapter, I will explain my independent variable, first and second order dependent variables and their moderators. Also I will present the scales that I will use to measure these variables. Following this I will report 4 pilot studies that were conducted in order to validate the scales.

4.1. Variables

The independent variable: perceived injustice climate. The construct of perceived injustice climate will be measured with a Turkish emic scale: perceived patron şirketi climate; PPŞC). The practice of using an emic scale for measuring a universal concept is common in cross-cultural research (e.g., Farh et al., 1997). "*Patron Şirketi*" is a very popular Turkish idiom that refers to a locally common work environment, that of an owner-managed firm. In view of this idiom's popularity, Koçak et al. (2014) developed a scale, namely PPŞC to capture employees' perceptions of proximal organizational processes and events that typified an owner-managed firm. For the development of the scale items, Koçak et al. (2014) used an inductive method due to the lack of sufficient theoretical basis in the literature. Initially, through one-on-one interviews with employees and company owners, they examined the content of the "*Patron Şirketi*" idiom, and how it differs from neighbouring concepts. Then, Koçak et al. (2014) analysed the content of sites on the internet that contain the relevant term. In light of these content reviews, 62 statements reflecting the PPŞC were compiled. To test how well the compiled statements reflect the PPŞC, Koçak et al. (2014) put all these statements to a vote with a wiki survey

(Salganik & Levy, 2012). From all these statements in the wiki survey, in each round, participants rated between randomly chosen two statements to indicate which of them reflected PPŞC better. Koçak et al. (2014) pointed out that one of the most useful attributes of this survey program was that the participants could write new statements that they thought better reflected the PPŞC as many times as they want. In this way, it enabled the participants to evaluate the existent phrases, but also to create statements about PPŞC with their own words and understanding. As a result, Koçak et al. (2014) obtained a total of 4 962 ratings from white-collar full-time employees. Based on the responses Koçak et al. (2014) listed all the statements in the order of being rated as the most reflective to the least reflective description of the PPŞC. Then Koçak et al. (2014) selected as the PPŞC, statements that were rated as being a better description of PPŞC at least 50% of the time in the rating rounds. In this way, a 23-item PPŞC scale was created. Nevertheless, in their scale validation, Koçak et al. (2014) reduced these 23 items of the scale to 16.

The PPŞC scale items were supposed to represent a four factor scale comprised of lack of transparency, favouritism, intervention, and arbitrariness (Koçak et al., 2014). The first dimension, labelled as lack of transparency of management refers to employees' lack of knowledge about the decision mechanisms of the senior management and parallel to this, employees' lack of knowledge about the financial situation and future direction of the organization. A sample item is "how top management operates is not transparent to employees". The second dimension arbitrariness refers to lack of consistency or clarity about the responsibilities of employees as well internal practices irrespective of whether they are company procedures, rules, or job descriptions. A sample item is "employees are expected to do tasks that are not their responsibility". Third, favouritism refers to personal relationships being more important than merit in recruitment and internal promotions. A sample item is "pay and promotion decisions are determined by employees' closeness to top management". Finally, intervention as the fourth dimension is the style of management in which decisions cannot be taken without consulting senior management regardless of the area of expertise or level of the organization, and the senior management has the final word in most decisions, whether important or trivial. A sample item is "Employees feel the intervention of top management in all issues". However, Koçak et al. (2014) could not find support for a four-factor scale, instead their Exploratory Factor Analysis supported a three-factor solution.

Koçak et al. (2014) developed PPŞC scale without reference to its level of applicability; nor did they label it as a justice scale. I will propose that this scale is a suitable measure for perceived injustice climate. Much of the research in organizational behaviour measures perceptual variables (e.g., job characteristics, leader behaviour) that could reasonably be construed as dimensions of perceived justice climate (Parker et al., 2003). As explained by James et al. (1977, 1978) psychological climate perceptions are based on work values because people perceive attributes that they care about. Hence, justice is one of them and thereby the work environment is described by reference to practices, events related to justice. In that way the proposed dimensions of PPŞC correspond to specific justice or more precisely injustice perceptions. Arbitrariness of procedures and favouritism correspond to a particular evaluation of procedural injustice. Lack of transparency represents a particular evaluation of informational injustice. Excessive management intervention representing employees' perception that they do not have the discretion they are entitled to corresponds to perceptions of procedural injustice (Koçak et al., 2014).

In addition, to further support my claim of PPŞC being a suitable measure for injustice climate I compared the items of PPŞC to items from different scales of justice. In that way I found the items of PPŞC scale to be very similar to items from justice scales by Ambrose and Schminke (2009); Colquitt (2001); Donovan, Drasgow, and Munson (1998); Ehrhart (2004); Moorman (1991); Naumann and Bennett (2000, 2002); Niehoff and Moorman (1993); Ramamoorthy and Flood (2002). Finally, to further strengthen my claim that PPŞC is a good measure of perceived injustice climate and to support its construct validity, I will try to show why PPŞC is distinct than constructs such as firm ownership, organizational structure, and paternalism.

PPŞC and family businesses. Family businesses are businesses where ownership is concentrated mostly within a single family (Koçak et al., 2014). Empirical studies in the corporate governance literature make the family business classification by calculating the share ownership ratios and the family's control over the board of directors (Koçak et al., 2014). According to this criterion, family businesses constitute approximately 95% of the companies registered in Turkey (data by the Statistics Institute of Turkey and the Istanbul Chamber of Commerce, 2017).

In the corporate governance literature, the managerial differences of family businesses from other companies and the fact that these companies have some advantage have attracted much attention (Carney, 2005, Dyer & Whetten, 2006). Studies in this area have suggested that family businesses should not only be measured by ownership criteria, but also by considering some managerial characteristics (Chua, Chrisman, & Sharma, 1999). A frequently used scale is the F-PEC scale (Family-power, experience, culture), which was created by Astrachan, Klein, and Smyrnios (2002) and then validated by Klein et al. (2005). The power subscale of F-PEC measures the importance of the owning family in the ownership, governance and management of the firm (e.g., please indicate the proportion of share ownership held by family and nonfamily members). The experience subscale looks at the number of active family generations in ownership, governance and management as well as number of contributing family members (e.g., what generation owns the company?). The culture subscale looks at the overlap of family and business values and the family business commitment (e.g., to which extent your family and business share similar values?). In a literature review study conducted by Frank, Lueger, Nosé and Suchy (2010) the F-PEC scale was also recognized as the most commonly used and generally accepted tool in this regard. Therefore, Koçak et al. (2014) looked at F-PEC in comparison to PPŞC scale in order to establish the difference. As a result, Koçak et al. (2014) suggested that ownership and governance characteristics of companies can affect the management styles exhibited in the company and thus the degree of injustice climate, especially if operationalized as PPŞC, but still these scales measure separate concepts.

Obviously the distinguishing characteristic of the family business is the relevance of the owning family in the business. In the conceptualization of the PPŞC scale, there is no importance of whether the firm is owned by family business or not. On the contrary, all type of business can create a climate that can be measured as PPŞC, although the family firm may be more inclined to do so. One reason for why family firms would score high on PPŞC could be that in family business often there is conflicting business and family interests. Family firms by focusing on family values and achieving family commitments may be inclined to resort to favouritism and lack of transparency. Furthermore, because family interests are not explicitly declared, there can be unpredictability and ambiguity in family firm's decision making processes (Mandl, 2008).

PPŞC and paternalism. Another similar concept that PPŞC may be confounded with is paternalism. According to Pellegrini and Sandura (2008) there is a proliferation of diverse definitions and perspectives on paternalism. Taking Aycan's (2006) perspective, Koçak et al. (2014) describe paternalism as leadership based on benevolence resembling a father's attitude to his children. Therefore, whereas paternalism encompasses parental attitude of the manager to the employee, PPŞC scale does not measure paternal type of behaviours. This is also confirmed in Koçak et al.'s (2014) study where respondents classified statements like *'Employees are like family',* which may be included in the concept of paternalism as furthest from the scale of PPŞC.

PPŞC and organizational structure. The lack of transparency, arbitrariness and intervention that are measured by PPŞC can be confused with characteristics of companies that are just not bureaucratic and have low formalization (Oldham & Hackman, 1981), or have organic structures (Covin & Slevin, 1988). Nevertheless, while organizational structure can effect how employee perceive the organization, structure and psychological climate are not the same thing. Similarly, Koçak et al. (2014) theorize that even organizational environments with highly formalized structure can be graded high on PPŞC scale. For example, occurrences like favouritism and nepotism that are measured by PPŞC can be found in all types of organization, even in very formalized ones (Isaed, 2016).

PPŞC and professionalism. Lack of professionalism is another construct similar to PPŞC. Organizational professionalism is about the discourse of control used increasingly by managers in work organizations, rational-legal forms of authority, standardized procedures, hierarchical structures of authority and decision-making, managerialism, accountability and externalized forms of regulation, target-setting and performance review, linked to Weberian models of organization (Evetts, 2013). When Melnik, Petrella and Richez-Battesti (2013) developed the professionalism index, they considered some practices that lead to evaluations about justice. As a result, in addition to measuring practices like appraisal interviews, quality management, job alternating systems which are not evaluations about justice, practices like incentives schemes and information sharing which are evaluations about justice were included. Because the notion of ethics is incorporated in the organizational professionalism, the lack of organizational professionalism would mean an environment suitable for the emergence of injustice

climate. As such professionalism, or more precisely, the lack of it can be argued as an antecedent of PPŞC.

Having explained the reasoning behind my use of a relatively new scale, the PPŞC as a measure of perceived injustice climate, I will continue by describing the variables that will be my first order dependent variables and their measurements. This will be followed by listing my second order dependent variables and moderators together with their measurements.

First order dependent variables. This thesis will measure employees' assessment of top management's trustworthiness as a first order dependent variable. Mayer et al.'s (1995) model identifies three characteristics of a trustee, which are ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability is group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain. Benevolence is the extent to which a party is believed to want to do good for the trusting party, aside from an egocentric profit motive. Integrity involves the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable. Nevertheless, as already explained in the hypotheses only ability and integrity as components of trustworthiness are relevant for this thesis. Therefore, using items from Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (1996) as published in Mayer and Davis (1999) perceptions about the ability and integrity of the top management will be used. A sample item for integrity is "sound principles seem to guide top management's behaviour". A sample for ability item is "Top management is known to be successful at things it tries to do".

I-deals as the other first order dependent variable will be measured by contract idiosyncrasy scale (Ng & Feldman, 2010). This scale is based on six key elements: level of pay, advancement opportunities, training, career development, job security, and support with personal problems. An example item from the six I-deals item used is "the organization promises support for personal problems that most employees in my team/unit do not get".

Nevertheless, because I-deals differ in different parts of the world (Raghuram, London & Larsen, 2001) additional I-deal items were necessary. Raghuram et al. (2001) showed that there are significant cultural differences in use of I-deals like flexible employment

practices. In order to measure I-deals in Turkey, five in depth interviews were conducted with employees from family firms in Turkey to capture indigenous aspects of I-deals. Based on these in-depth interviews four indigenous I-deals items were added. One of these items is: "I am exempt from formalities that employees need to obey".

Second order dependent variables of trustworthiness. Because work oriented IM is a type of IM behaviour that is available for all employees I will use it as a suitable measure of IM. In order to measure work oriented IM, 4 items from the scale by Wayne and Green (1993) were used. Sample item is "arrive at work early in order to make a good impression".

The dependent variable voice will be measured with promotive and prohibitive voice subscales by Liang et al. (2012). The original promotive and prohibitive voice subscales have 5 items each. However, three of these items, which were deemed too general and a fourth item (prohibitive voice item) referring to embarrassing others (which has a very strong meaning in Turkish context) were dropped. Thus, 3 items for promotive and 3 items for measuring prohibitive voice subscales were chosen. A sample item for promotive voice is "proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit" and for prohibitive voice is "advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviours that would hamper job performance".

Second order dependent variable of I-deals. The dependent variable organizational commitment will be measured by Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) organizational commitment scale that measures affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment referring to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization will be measured by three items. A sample item is "I feel strong emotional attachment to this organization". Normative commitment referring to the sense of obligation to the organization, will also be measured with three items. A sample item is: "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now".

Previous studies conducted in North America (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990; Lee, Allen, Meyer & Rhee, 2001) found that continuance commitment consists of two correlated but often distinguishable sub-dimensions, one reflecting low perceived alternatives

(CCLoAlt), and the other reflecting high personal sacrifice (CChiSac). Three items will be used to measure CCLoAlt, and three items will be used to measure personal sacrifice CChiSac. A sample item for CChiSac is "Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decide to leave my organization now" and for CCLoAlt "The only negative consequence of leaving this organization would be scarcity of alternatives".

Moderators. In this thesis there are three moderator variables: traditionality, paternalism and value of employee. Employees with traditional values believe that relationships should be hierarchically maintained and that harmony is highly important; furthermore, conflicts with authority should be prevented even at the expense of less productive performance. For this thesis, five items from the original Chinese Individual Traditionality Scale (CITS; Yang, Yu, & Yeh, 1989) were selected by taking into account their suitability for the Turkish context. Although the scale is based on Confucian values, Spreitzer et al. (2005) used it successfully outside of Asian context by examining how the value of traditionality moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness for leaders from Asia and North America. A sample item is "the best way to avoid mistakes is to follow the instructions of senior persons".

Paternalism describes subordinates' willingness to reciprocate the care and protection of paternal authority by showing conformity. Aycan (2006) points out that paternalism "can be construed at individual (e.g., paternalistic leadership), organizational (e.g., paternalistic organizational culture and practices), and socio-cultural levels (e.g., paternalism as a cultural dimension). Therefore, researchers can utilize it at different levels of analysis (Aycan, 2006). Having this in mind I adapted her paternalistic leadership scale as paternalistic top management scale. In that way the eight paternalism items are evaluating top management. Sample item is "top management places more importance on loyalty than performance in evaluating employees". In private e-mail correspondence with Aycan, she also confirmed that this kind of adaptation to upper management does not seem theoretically problematic. Nevertheless, because of the adaptation before using it for testing hypotheses first I will validate the scale, as described later in this chapter.

Regarding the final moderator, the value of the employee, it should be pointed out that employee can be perceived as valuable due to his/her expertise; his/her effectiveness and

efficiency or if he or she is very well liked. Therefore, one way to measure value of employee was 4-item performance scale by Wayne and Liden (1995). A sample item is "this subordinate is superior to other subordinates".

Nevertheless, according to I-deals theory being liked by the supervisor can also be an indicator of being a valuable employee. Therefore, in addition to performance I decided to have one more measure of employee value, that can account for other way that employee can be perceived as valuable. Vilela, González, Ferrin, and Araújo (2007), Wayne and Ferris (1990), and Wayne and Liden (1995) examined the effects of IM tactics on supervisor liking, perceived similarity, and ratings of employee performance and their results can be suggestive of IM being a good condition for striking I-deals and suitable measure for value of employee. Their findings indicated that IM tactics focused on one's supervisor were positively related to supervisor liking and perceived similarity. Consequently, I chose to use supervisor oriented IM subscale (Wayne & Liden, 1995) as a second measure of employee value.

Because IM tactics employed in the United States and Western Europe can differ in some details from IM tactics from other parts of the world (Pollach & Kerbler, 2011; Spong & Kamau, 2012; Walder, 1986), some items needed adjustments for the Turkish context. For example, an original item says "Do personal favours to me (for example, getting me coffee or coke, etc.)" which is not considered truly a favour for the Turkish context, was adapted in the following way: "Do personal favours to me (for example, something that I need for my wife/child etc.).

4.2. Ethics Approval

Before conducting the research, the survey form was submitted for approval to Sabanci University Research Ethics Boards (Appendix A). Confidentiality of the data collected and no harm to participants was assured. Following the approval, the data collection process started.

4.3. Scale Validation

Except for the PPŞC, IM, I-deals and paternalism scales, the variables were largely measured through scales tested previously in the literature. The scales that did not have a Turkish version were translated into Turkish by the thesis advisor and they were back-translated by an independent translator. When the original scale and back-translation were compared there were deemed very similar.

All measures had 5-point Likert response scales (1-*strongly disagree* -5 *strongly agree*). The English and the Turkish version of the items can be found in Appendix C. Given that some items of some scales were slightly modified, mostly to fit the Turkish context and because there is limited information regarding the psychometric properties of many of these scales in the Turkish language and context, scale validation was needed. Therefore, before hypothesis testing, the reliability and validity analyses of the scales were conducted. Reliability was assessed by Cronbach alpha where a value above .70 has been considered adequate (Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004) and construct validities were tested by factor analyses. Because Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) can show whether items load on the non-hypothesized factors (Kelloway, 1995) it was used for scales that were adjusted to the Turkish context (e.g., IM), or to which new emic items were added (e.g., i-deals) or in case of modified scales (e.g., paternalistic top management) or newly developed scales (e.g., PPŞC scale). Both Principal Axis Factoring and Maximum Likelihood with oblimin rotation were conducted to check the factor structure (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Tabachnik & Fidell, 1996), but when the results of Principal Axis Factoring did not differ much from the results from Maximum Likelihood EFA just Maximum Likelihood EFA was reported.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was considered appropriate for scales that have a strong theory underlying their measurement model (Hurley, Scandura, Schriesheim, Brannick, Seers, et al., 1997; Williams, 1995) and therefore was used to validate the organizational trustworthiness and commitment scales. Nevertheless, for IM as a scale not used much in Turkish context, in addition to EFA, CFA was also conducted.

In order to conduct scale validations, data from independent samples was collected from which four pilot data sets were compiled. Details about the pilots and the scale validations follow.

Pilot 1. Pilot 1 was compiled from a convenience sample of 200 employees who answered to procedural and distributive injustice, trustworthiness, paternalistic top management and PPŞC scales. Of the respondents 64 (32%) were female, 120 (62%) were male and 16 (6%) did not disclose their gender. In terms of education most of the respondents had a university degree 128 (64% respondents), 15 (7.5%) had a postgraduate degree and just 25 (12.5 %) had high school education, 17 (8.5) had middle school, 1 (0.5) had primary school and 14 (7 %) did not disclose their education.

For paternalistic top management and PPŞC scales EFAs using Principal Axis Factoring and Maximum Likelihood with oblimin rotation were conducted to check the factor structure (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Tabachnik & Fidell, 1996). Supporting previous research for paternalism, the adjusted 8 items from the paternalistic top management scale loaded on one factor (Aycan, Kanungo, & Sinha, 1999; Aycan 2000). To further examine paternalistic top management scale, I also looked if it correlates with organizational benevolence (Table 6). Hinkin (1998) points out that in addition to content validity and check of internal consistency, construct validity can be further established by finding evidence of correlation with scales that are assumed to be similar (convergent validity). Paternalistic top management, just as it would be expected for paternalism highly correlated with organizational benevolence (Aycan 2006; Tone 2018).

The PPŞC scale was composed of 16 items. As a new scale so far it was only validated with a small sample (n=80) by its authors (Koçak et al., 2014). Koçak et al. (2014) could not find support for the four-factor model. When I analysed this scale with a new sample (pilot 1), the 16 items loaded on 3 factors but not always as expected. With Maximum Likelihood EFA (Table 5a), the transparency scale and favouritism scale loaded on separate factors but intervention and arbitrariness merged into one factor. PPŞC10 and PPŞC5 did not load significantly on any factor.

Table 5a. Maximum Likelihood EFA PPŞC items (Pilot 1)

Item	F1	F2	F3
PPŞC15 Rule change often	**.81**		
PPŞC16. Not clear where employees responsibly starts and finishes	**.80**		
PPŞC8. HR practices are not transparent for the employees.	**.60**		
PPŞC11. Employees feel the intervention of top management in all issues.	.50		
PPŞC1. Employees' discretion in decision-making is unclear.	**.49**		
PPŞC7. Employees are expected to do tasks that are not their responsibility.	**.48**		
PPŞC9. Even if there are procedures, their implementation is arbitrary.	**.45**		
PPŞC2. Because middle management has limited authority, employees may have to be accountable directly to top management.	.44		
PPŞC12. Top management interferes with employees' areas of responsibility		-.91	
PPŞC4. Employees are insufficiently informed about decisions regarding the future of the company.		-.69	
PPŞC3. Employees are insufficiently informed about topics like the financial situation of the company.		-.42	
PPŞC5. How top management operates is not transparent to employees.			
PPŞC14. Personal relationship determine pay and promotion.			**-.77**
PPŞC6.Whether one is close to top management matters in employee selection decisions.			**-.62**
PPŞC13.Some employees are protected by the top management.			**-.58**
PPŞC10.Top management monitors even daily (mundane) internal operational decisions.			
Variance explained (%)	37.8	6.32	4.47
Cumulative variance explained (%)	37.8	44.15	48.62

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

The Principal Axis Factoring EFA (Table 5b) also gave a 3-factor solution. The favouritism items loaded on a single factor, but PPŞC8 from transparency scale and PPŞC14 from intervention scale loaded on the intervention/arbitrariness scale. In addition, PPŞC10 and PPŞC2 did not have significant loadings.

Table 5b. Principal Axis Factoring EFA PPŞC items (Pilot 1)

Item	F1	F2	F3
PPŞC14. Personal relationship determines pay and promotion	**.84**		
PPŞC6. Whether one is close to top management matters in employee selection decisions.	**.79**		
PPŞC15.Rule change often	**.71**		
PPŞC16. Not clear where employees responsibly start and finishes.	**.69**		
PPŞC13. Some employees are protected by the top management.	**.68**		
PPŞC8. HR practices are not transparent for the employees.	**.61**		
PPŞC7. Employees are expected to do tasks that are not their responsibility.	**.58**		
PPŞC12. Top management interferes with employees' areas of responsibility	.57		
PPŞC9. Even if there are procedures, their implementation is arbitrary	**.48**		
PPŞC1. Employees' discretion in decision-making is unclear.	**.48**		
PPŞC5. How top management operates is not transparent to employees.	**.46**		**-.45**
PPŞC2. Because middle management has limited authority, employees may have to be accountable directly to top management.		-.90	
PPŞC4. Employees are insufficiently informed about decisions regarding the future of the company.		-.70	
PPŞC3. Employees are insufficiently informed about topics like the financial situation of the company.	.45		.58
PPŞC11. Employees feel the intervention of top management in all issues.			.41
PPŞC10.Top management monitors even daily (mundane) internal operational decisions.			
Variance explained (%)	39.22	5.16	3.84
Cumulative variance explained (%)	39.22	44.38	49.36

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

The fact that most of the items loaded together, while others had low factor loadings or had insignificant loadings, raised the possibility that this scale would benefit from an examination of item content for possible revision. Specifically, it appeared that PPŞC2 was unclear and too wordy, PPŞC3 and PPŞC4 were not applicable to all employees. PPŞC10, PPŞC11 and PPŞC12 items were more about micro management. Thus, it seemed appropriate that these items be dropped. As a solution a new shorter 10 items PPŞC scale was formed and analysed. Composed from PPŞC1, PPŞC5, PPŞC6, PPŞC7,

PPŞC8, PPŞC9, PPŞC13, PPŞC14, PPŞC15 and PPŞC16 the revised PPŞC scale gave a clear one-factor solution.

In order to further validate PPŞC scale I also looked at the correlation between PPŞC and perceived organizational injustice. Perceived violation of justice was measured with Colquitt., Long, Rodell, and Halvorsen-Ganepola's (2015) scale. For the purpose of this study, four items from the procedural injustice subscale and three items from the distributive injustice subscale were used. A sample item for procedural injustice is "it is not possible to appeal the decisions of upper management" and a sample item for distributive injustice is "employees' earnings do not reflect their performance".

PPŞC being composed of favouritism (violation of justice) and arbitrariness, I expected it to correlate positively with procedural and distributive injustice scales. Table 6 displays the descriptive statistics for distributive injustice, procedural injustice, paternalistic top management and PPŞC scale scores calculated with pilot 1 (N = 200). The coefficient alpha of each scale is reported in parentheses in the diagonal. The one-dimensional paternalism scale had reliability α = .86. In addition, the one-dimensional PPŞC scale had acceptable reliability of α = .90.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics Pilot 1

Variables	No of item	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1.Distributive injustice	3	3.5	.93	(.90)				
2.Procedural injustice	4	3.1	.80	.70**	(.82)			
3.Paternalistic top manag.	8	3.1	.76	-.57**	-.71**	(.86)		
4. PPŞC	10	3.2	.76	.69**	.83**	-.71**	(.90)	
5. Organizational benevolence	5	3.0	.98	-.68**	-.75**	.85**	-.80**	(.94)

Note. Reliabilities are reported in parentheses in the diagonal. **$p<.01$. *$p<.05$. † $p<.10$ (two tailed tests).

Although the high correlation of distributive and procedural injustice with PPŞC scale contributes to its convergent validity, PPŞC scale's high negative correlation with paternalistic top management needs further examination. In order to check if respondents

can distinguish between PPŞC and paternalistic top management items, EFA was conducted including both scales (Table 7a). As shown in Table 7a the paternalistic top management scale items clearly loaded on a separate factor, confirming the differentiation (Gerring, 1999) and distinguishability between the two scales.

Table 7a. Maximum Likelihood EFA paternalistic top management and PPŞC items (Pilot 1)

Item	F1	F2	F3
P2 Family environment in the workplace	-.76		
P8 Attends special events	-.71		
P4 Responsible as if they are his children	-.69		
P7 Help with non-work	-.66		
P6 Mediator in personal life	-.57		
P5 Expects loyalty and deference in exchange for his care	-.55		
P1 Importance of loyalty	-.55		
P3 Believes that he knows what is best	-.50		
PPŞC16 Responsibility not clear		.94	
PPŞC15 Rules change		.74	
PPŞC1 Emp. discretion		.68	
PPŞC8 No transparency of HR tasks		.57	
PPŞC7 Task which are not their responsibility		.52	
PPŞC9 Arbitrary implementation of procedures		.49	
PPŞC5 No transparency		.46	
PPŞC14 Personal relationship determine pay and promotion			.65
PPŞC13 Employees can be protected by top management			
PPŞC6 Close to top in advancement			

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

Nevertheless, I did find PPŞC loading on two factors (Table 7a), but this did not happen without PPŞC15 (Table 7b). The item PPŞC15 was causing a split in PPŞC items when their factor structure is examined together with paternalistic top management. As shown in Table 7b in the Principal Axis Factoring EFA of the paternalistic top management scale

and PPŞC without PPŞC15 the two scales loaded on separate factors. Although it is not entirely clear why this difference is happening, it is possible that the reference to workplace rules is interpreted differently across samples. PPŞ15 item expressed as "top management frequently changes the rules" can be representing a PPŞC but "rule change often" could be also an indicator of a company functioning in a very volatile markets (e.g. electronics company). Therefore, PPŞC 15 can benefit from rephrasing.

Table 7b. Principal Axis Factoring EFA paternalistic top management and PPŞC items without PPŞC15 (Pilot 1)

Item	F1	F2
P2 Family environment in the workplace	-.76	
P8 Attends special events	-.72	
P7 Help with non-work	-.67	
P4 Responsible as if they are his children	-.66	
P6 Mediator in personal life	-.58	
P5 Expects loyalty and deference in exchange for his care	-.57	
P3 Believes that he knows what is best	-.52	
P1 Importance of loyalty	-.51	
PPŞC16 Responsibility not clear		.88
PPŞC1 Emp. discretion		.72
PPŞC7 Task which are not their responsibility		.61
PPŞC8 No transparency of HR tasks		.60
PPŞC13 Employees can be protected by top management		.55
PPŞC14 Personal relationship determine pay and promotion		.53
PPŞC5 No transparency		.51
PPŞC9 Arbitrary implementation of procedures		.50
PPŞC6 Close to top in advancement		.43

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

In order to show that PPŞC is a suitable scale for measuring injustice climate, I also conducted EFA with PPŞC together with both distributive and procedural injustice scales

(Table 8). As shown in Table 8 the procedural and PPŞC scale items clearly loaded on a same factor, confirming the indistinguishability between the two scales.

Table 8. Maximum Likelihood EFA distributive and procedural injustice and PPŞC items (Pilot 1)

Item	F1	F2
PPŞC15 Rules change	.82	
PPŞC5 No transparency	.81	
PPŞC16 Responsibility not clear	.81	
PJ2 Not considering employees views	.77	
PPŞC6 Close to top for advancement	.75	
PPŞC8 No transparency of HR tasks	.70	
PPŞC13 Employees can be protected by top management	.69	
PJ3 Not consistent	.68	
PPŞC14 Personal relationship determent pay and promotion	.67	
PPŞC1 No emp. Discretion	.60	
PJ4 Does not ask employees views	.59	
PPŞC9 Arbitrary implementation of procedures	.55	
PJ1 Not possible to appeal	.50	
PPŞC7 Task which are not their responsibility	.49	
DJ3 Earnings are not appropriate for the work done		-.95
DJ2 Employees earnings does not reflect their efforts		-.86
DJ3 Earning does not reflect performance		-.66

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

Before conducting CFA on organizational trustworthiness items, a set of EFAs were conducted. When EFAs were conducted on integrity and ability items all 9 items loaded on one dimensional trustworthiness scale with reliability $\alpha = .95$. But as pointed out previously, CFA was also used to validate the organizational trustworthiness scale. To test the adequacy of the results, the chi-square statistic was examined. In addition, the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) were inspected. Furthermore, different factor solutions models were compared

with regard to their model fit. Organizational trustworthiness CFA did show good model fit indicators for one factor solution (integrity and ability items together). Nevertheless, two-factor solution with ability as one factor and integrity as another showed improvement on the one factor model (Table 9).

Table 9. CFA, goodness-of-fit indicators for organizational trustworthiness (Pilot 1)

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA
Single Factor	116.3	27	4.31	.94	.129
Two Factor	71.48	26	2.75	.97	.094

Although organizational trustworthiness is composed from two factors (integrity and ability) I used their means to calculate the overall trustworthiness score (the mean of the ability and integrity) for the sake of parsimony. This kind of practice already exists in the organizational trustworthiness literature (Ma, Hancock, Lim Mingjie & Naaman, 2017).

Pilot 2. IM, voice, and performance scales were validated by factor analysis with pilot data collected from 233 supervisors, which were selected by convenience sampling from different companies in Turkey. The respondents were asked to answer about the IM, voice and performance of one of their subordinates. Of the respondents 189 (81%) were male and 44 (19%) were female.

Performance scale with both Principal Axis Factoring and Maximum Likelihood with oblimin rotation EFAs resulted in the expected unidimensional factor solution.

Voice. When EFA was conducted on the voice scale it loaded on a single factor although a two-factor solution was expected (Liang et al., 2012). Both EFAs Principal Axis Factoring and Maximum Likelihood with oblimin rotation resulted in a clear unidimensional factor solution.

IM. My hypotheses include only two dimensions from IM (work and supervisor oriented) nevertheless I tested the three IM subscales with this pilot. The 14-item scale loaded on 3 factors. The factor structure is reproduced in Table 10. The first factor was supervisor oriented IM (personal closeness, praising and favours), and the second factor was work oriented IM. The third factor was made up from 3 items: friendly, polite and model

employee (self oriented IM). Because of the nature of self oriented IM items, it is possible that supervisors may not perceive the items from the third factor as IM items, but perceived them as regular and expected subordinate behaviours, so there are face validity concerns about this factor. However, given that my hypotheses are just about work oriented and supervisor oriented IM the face validity of IM self was not a problem.

Table 10. EFA IM items (Pilot 2)

Item	F1	F2	F3
IM5. Take an interest in my personal life.	**.83**		
IM1. Do personal favours to me (for example, doing something for my wife or son.).	**.80**		
IM2. Offer to do something for me, which he is not required to do.	**.74**		
IM3. Compliment me on my dress.	**.73**		
IM4. Praise me for my accomplishments.	**.66**		
IM13. Praise my ideas.	.55		
IM6 Try to be polite when interacting with me.		**.85**	
IM7. Try to be friendly when interacting with me.		**.80**	
IM8. Try to act as a "model" employee, for example, never taking longer than establish time for lunch		**.45**	
IM12. Work later than the regular hours in order to make a good impression.			**.83**
IM14. Accentuate his/her job performance when describing it to me.			**.66**
IM11. Arrive at work early in order to make a good impression.			**.56**
IM10. Let me know that he wants to do a good job.			.55
IM9. Work hard when knowing that I will see the results.			**.49**
Variance explained (%)	37.61	7.96	8.61
Cumulative variance explained (%)	37.61	45.92	54.10

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

As a follow up, CFA on this scale was conducted and results are in Table 11. Based on the EFA three factor solution using CFA was tested and seemed acceptable.

Table 11. CFA, goodness-of-fit indicators for IM (Pilot 2)

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA
Three Factor	162.8	51	3.19	.91	.097

Table 12 displays the descriptive statistics for voice, IM and performance calculated with pilot data 2 (N = 233). The coefficient alpha of each scale is reported in parentheses in the diagonal. Performance scale has reliability $\alpha = .93$, voice scale has also acceptable scale reliability ($\alpha = .90$). Supervisor oriented subscale of IM scale (IM supervisor) has reliability $\alpha = .89$ and the work oriented IM subscale (IM work) has reliability $\alpha = .79$. Self oriented scale of IM has reliability $\alpha = .73$.

Table 12. Descriptive statistics for Pilot 2

Variables	No of items	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Performance	4	3.4	1.0	(.93)				
2. Voice	6	3.5	.80	.14	(.90)			
3. IM supervisor	5	2.6	1.0	.06	.30**	(.89)		
4. IM work	4	3.1	1.14	.17	.31**	.46**	(.79)	
5. IM self	3	4.1	.76	.02	.22**	.36**	.35**	(.73)

Note. Reliabilities are reported in parentheses in the diagonal. **p<.01. *p<.05. † p<.10 (two tailed tests).

Pilot 3. This pilot data was compiled from 85 dyads from different companies. With convenience sampling supervisors were selected and asked to answer about the formalization of the firm and a specific subordinate's performance, use of IM and voice. The subordinate that the supervisor chose responded to the PPŞC, injustice and paternalistic top management scales. Of the supervisors 70 (82%) were male and 15 (17.6%) female and of the subordinates 50 (58.8%) were male, 31 (36.5%) female and 4 (4.7 %) did not report their gender.

This pilot was used for further validation of PPŞC scale and paternalistic top management scale and for conducting a CFA on organizational commitment. As previously pointed out PPŞC is expected to correlate with injustice scale. In addition, PPŞC scale is expected to correlate with the formalization scale. Because organization formalization underlines the degree to which rules, job description, procedures, communications are formalized or written down (Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, & Turner 1968) it would be expected for PPŞC to negatively correlate to formalization. Formalization was measured with 5-item scale by Oldham and Hackman (1981). A sample item is: "The organization has a very large number of written rules and policies".

Also because of the high correlation of PPŞC and paternalistic top management in the pilot 1, the correlation of paternalistic top management with PPŞC in this data (pilot 3) was checked. Again, paternalistic top management was negatively correlated with PPŞC (Table 13).

From Table 13 we can see that PPŞC is highly correlated to procedural and distributive injustice as expected and therefore supporting PPŞC's convergent validity. Not finding a significant negative correlation of PPŞC with formalization could be due to the sample size. Nevertheless, looking at the correlation in the main data (Table 18) the expected negative correlation between PPŞC and formalization was found, further supporting the scale's validity.

Table 13. Descriptive statistics for Pilot 3

Variables	No of items	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Distributive injustice	3	3.4	.93	(.88)				
2. Procedural injustice	4	2.9	.73	.61**	(.77)			
3. Formalization	5	3.6	.77	-.07	.07	(.78)		
4. Paternalistic top manag.	8	3.3	.62	-.44**	-.52**	.00	(.80)	
5. PPŞC	10	2.9	.66	.63**	.81*	-.02	-.55**	(.86)

Note. Reliabilities are reported in parentheses in the diagonal. **p<.01. *p<.05. † p<.10 (two tailed tests).

Pilot 3 was also used for conducting CFA on organizational commitment. My hypotheses include only two dimensions from organizational commitment (affective and continuance commitment); nevertheless, I tested the full scale with this pilot. The one-factor solution did not give acceptable results. The two-factor model was built by grouping the affective commitment and normative commitment as one factor and continuance commitment sub-factors as a second factor. The three-factor model separated the affective commitment items as separate factor from normative commitment and gave acceptable model fit indicators and it was an apparent improvement on the two-factor model (Table14).

Table 14. CFA, goodness-of-fit indicators for commitment (Pilot 3)

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA
Single Factor	115.4	51	2.26	.76	.145
Two Factor	112.7	53	2.12	.78	.137
Three Factor	80.0	51	1.56	.89	.097

Pilot 4. This pilot data was collected from several firms that took part in the Turquality program. The sample size was n=165. 103 or 62.4% were male, 45 or 27.3% were female and 17 (10.3%) did not disclose their gender. This data was used in order to conduct EFA for I-deals. The result of EFAs Maximum Likelihood with oblimin rotation can be found in Table 15.

As shown in Table 15 all items loaded together except two cultural specific items. The two cultural specific items containing exemptions from rules were perceived by respondents as separate factor. This was not expected and therefore in order to check if this is just sample specific case I-deals EFAs was conducted on the main data and all items loaded on one factor as expected, with reliability $\alpha = .88$.

Table 15. EFA I-deals items (Pilot 4)

Item	F1	F2
IA3. Upper management allow me to have access to more information and sources than many of the people in my team and department.	.76	
I1. This organization promises support for personal problems that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	.74	
I6. This organization promises me a level of job security that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	.71	
IA1. Upper management have allowed me more access to them than most of the people in my team and department.	.70	
I4. This organization promises me skill training that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	.61	
I5. This organization promises me career development opportunities that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	.60	
I3. This organization promises me advancement opportunities that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	.59	
I2. This organization promises me a level of pay that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	.56	
IA4. Upper management allow me to have exemptions to most of the rules that many people in my team and department must adhere to.		.85
IA2. Upper management allow me to have exemptions to most of the procedures that many people in my team and department must adhere to.		.63
Variance explained (%)	42.05	6.117
Cumulative variance explained (%)	42.05	48.167

Note: Loadings less than .40 are not shown

5. RESULTS

In this chapter, I will describe the main study. Firstly, I will present the sampling procedures, then I will provide the descriptive statistics for the main data. This will be followed by presentation of the results and some post hoc analyses.

5.1. Data

The main data was collected using purposive sampling from firms in 5 big cities (Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara, Bursa, and Adana). In order to test the hypotheses, firms that have some kind of an HR department were selected. Generally, industry reports recommend hiring a full-time human resource staff member at around 40 employees (https://online.csp.edu/blog/business/does-your-company-need-an-hr-department), as such only firms with 40 employees and more were considered suitable for the study.

5.2. Procedures

The white-collar employees and their direct supervisors in the selected firms were the participants in the study. Following Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) and Dansereau, Alutto, and Yammarino (1984) data was collected from supervisor subordinate dyads, by asking supervisors to answer the survey intended for supervisors and selecting from their immediate subordinate respondents to answer the surveys intended for subordinates and then matching their responses (Graen, 1976). Only one subordinate per supervisor and maximum of three supervisors (therefore dyads) per company were used in compiling the

main data. If more than three dyads per a company or more than one dyad per a supervisor was available, the dyads used were randomly selected.

Data was collected by on-line surveys and paper/pencil surveys. The paper/pencil survey data was collected by asking dyads to fill up the survey in their place of work. Each participant was asked if they are willing and able to allocate 15 minutes for the survey, while informing them about the goal of the study and data confidentiality. After the surveys were collected the dyads were marked by code. With this kind of method paper/pencil survey data from 275 dyads were collected. From the 275 dyads data, 250 dyads data were collected by professional data collection company (Optimist Araştırma, at the time in possession of following certificates: ISO 20252:2012 Pazar, Kamuoyu ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Kalite Belgesi ve GAB 2014 Türkiye Araştırmacılar Derneği Güvenilir Araştırma Belgesi) and 25 dyads data was collected by the author. To monitor the authenticity of the data collected, the professional data collection company requested the respondents' personal contact information. In that way, random checks for true submissions were conducted.

Parallel to the collection of data by paper/pencil surveys, on-line data collection was also conducted. Supervisors in executive education programs who wished to participate in the study made e-mail addresses of their subordinates available, so dyads could be formed. Afterwards links to the Qualtrics on-line version of the survey, identical to the paper/pencil survey, were sent by the author to the supervisors and subordinates in the dyads. As a result, data from 80 dyads was collected. The data from the on-line surveys was merged with the data from the paper/pencil surveys and the final data sample of 355 supervisor-subordinate dyads was formed. There were no apparent differences in the demographics between the on-line surveys and paper/pencil sample data.

5.3. Surveys

Each survey included a cover page explaining the general purpose and procedures of the research and a questionnaire containing instructions and items. The supervisor and subordinate survey can both be found in Appendix B.

Supervisor survey. With this survey demographic and occupational information about the supervisors and the characteristics of the firm in which they work were collected. More specifically supervisors answered questions about their gender, education and their position. They also specified the length of their overall work experience as well as how long they have been employed in the present firm. Firms' ownership (domestic or foreign), partnership structure, size, and sector of the firm were also asked as part of the supervisor survey. In addition, the supervisors rated the formalization of their organization as well as the performance, use of voice, and IM of a certain employee (his/her dyad match).

All items used in the supervisor survey had 5-point Likert (1-*strongly disagree* to 5 *strongly agree*) response scales. Nevertheless, there was a small problem with the performance response scale. This scale initially had reverse items (*higher* score meaning *lower* performance) and this scoring was deemed potentially confusing and therefore was changed (higher score meaning higher performance) during the data collection process. Therefore, only dyads using the corrected scale scoring for performance was used in testing hypotheses with performance as variable.

Subordinate survey. The subordinate survey also asked the subordinate about their gender, education, the length of their total work experience as well as their position and tenure in the company. In addition, this survey also measured their perceptions of PPŞC, organizational injustice, ability and integrity (as measure of organizational trustworthiness), organizational commitment, I-deals, traditionality and paternalistic top management. For all items in the subordinate survey 5-point Likert response scales (1-*strongly disagree* -5 *strongly agree*) were used.

5.4. Control Variables

Becker (2005) points out that control variables are just as important as dependent and independent variables. His argument is that improperly included variables in the model can create misleading findings. Furthermore, the reason to include control variables is to exclude alternative explanations while testing hypotheses with explanatory variables,

therefore the inclusion (and interpretation) of control variables needs to be theoretically motivated.

Based on the theory, I can argue that some control variables are needed in my model. In case of organizational trustworthiness, I can assume that supervisor demographics could be relevant. Because trust in the top management is an abstract concept, subordinates often use the trust directed to the supervisor as a way to evaluate the trustworthiness of the top management (Costigan, Insinga, Berman, Kranas, & Kureshov, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Thus, it may be important to control for supervisors' characteristics that can affect employee perceptions of supervisor trustworthiness. According to Lam and Lau (2008) and Tsui, Porter, and Egan (2002), the relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate should be more positive when the demographic differences between them are consistent with relational norms (e.g., the supervisor is better educated). Furthermore, education is associated with prestige and is a proxy for training and knowledge (Tsui et al., 2002). Therefore, higher education would mean more positive trustworthiness evaluation of the supervisor.

In case of I-deals, we can argue controlling for subordinate gender to be important, because flexibility of work arrangements can be very dependent on employee gender (Çalişkan & Torun, 2019; De Munck & Schalk, 2012). Also dyad gender composition would be relevant because the dynamics of the dyad would be different (Balliet, Li, Macfarlan & Vugt, 2011). Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and social categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wetherell, 1987) suggest that there would be more trust and support in homogenous dyads. Balliet et al. (2011) point out that the gender of the employees in the dyads can affect cooperation between employees. Therefore, supervisor and subordinates' gender data that was collected from the survey was used to create dummy variables for dyad gender composition.

Furthermore, the subordinate tenure may affect the ability or chances to strike I-deals as well as level of commitment that is proposed as an outcome of I-deals. This is also in accordance with Chaudhry, Prajya, Anand, and Liden's (2011) I-deals research, where they recommend controlling for employee tenure. In addition, English, Morrison, and Chalon (2010) acknowledge the relevance of tenure when researching commitment.

Supervisor tenure could also be important. Based on the time spent in the company the supervisor will be more or less able to grant flexible work arrangements, workload reductions or developmental opportunities. Supervisor work experience in total can also be relevant in supervisor's attitude towards I-deals (Rousseau; 2005). Because, I-deals are not really covered in management manuals, supervisors dealing with I-deals would be mostly based on work experience. Supervisors with longer work experience would be more experienced in managing and using I-deals.

Although is theoretically justifiable to use the above-mentioned control variables if they are not statistically significant or, more importantly, if their inclusion does not change the estimates of explanatory variables I will contemplate not using them and choose the more parsimonious model without them.

5.5. Sample Characteristics

Firm characteristics can be found in the Table 16. The majority of the firms in the sample was locally owned (82.8%) and private (90.4%). 61.6% of the firms had number of employees in the range of 51-250. Also as shown in Table16, the firms in the sample had a very diverse partnership structure.

Table 16. Firm characteristics

Ownership		
Local	103	82.8 %
Foreign	4	3.4%
Local with foreign partnership	16	13.2%
Not reported	2	0.6%
Partnership		
One owner	37	29.6%
Two relatives as partners	16	12.8%
Two partners, not relatives	17	13.6%
More than two partners, all relatives	18	14.4%
More than two partners, with at least one not relative	21	16.8%
Holding	15	12%

Not reported	1	0.8%
Public company		
Public	10	8%
Private	113	90.4%
Not reported	2	1.6%
Number of employees		
51-250	77	61.6%
251-500	16	12.8%
501-1000	12	9.6%
10001+	18	14,4%
Not reported	2	1,6 %

The supervisor and subordinate demographics can be found in Table 17. Most supervisors (295 or 83.1%) and 199 (56%) subordinates had a university degree or postgraduate education. The supervisor sample was mostly male (260 or 73.2%). In the subordinate sample, male and female representation were comparable.

Table 17. Supervisor and subordinate characteristics

Supervisors			Subordinates		
Gender					
Female	93	26.2%	Female	162	45.6%
Male	260	73.2%	Male	188	53 %
Not reported	2	0.6%	Not reported	5	1.4%
Relationship to the owner					
Just employee	327	92.1%	Just employee	325	91.5%
Owner or partner	19	5.4%			
Relatives to the owner	7	2%	Owner/partner	1	0.3%
Not reported	2	0.6%	Not reported	29	8.2%
Education					
Primary or middle school	6	1.7%	Primary or middle school	52	14.7 %
High School	52	14.7%	High School	70	19.7%
University	232	65.5%	University	196	55.4%
Post graduate	62	17.5	Post graduate	34	9.6%
Not reported	2	0.6%	Not reported	2	0.6%

From the 355 dyads, in one dyad the subordinate was owner/partner of the company (Table 17) making it unsuitable for our research. Consequently, 354 dyads were left for the final analysis.

Table 18. Correlations and descriptive statistics in the thesis data

Variables	N	M (S.D.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Formalization	354	3.76 (0.93)											
2. IM supervisor	354	2.96 (1.07)	.20**										
3. IM work	354	3.27 (0.92)	.28**	.66**									
4.Voice	354	3.75 (0.75)	.34**	.37**	.42**								
5.AC	354	3.72 (0.90)	.06	.16**	.15**	-.01							
6.CC	354	2.71 (0.90)	.06	.081	.16**	.00	.15**						
7.I-deals	354	2.65 (0.82)	-.08	.05	.12*	-.01	.28**	.49**					
8. Paternalistic top management	354	3.60 (0.75)	.10	.24**	.28**	.17**	.54**	.31**	.37**				
9.PPŞC	354	3.69 (0.83)	-.26**	-.22**	-.25**	-.17**	-.47**	.01	.05	-.48**			
10.Traditionality	354	3.03 (0.92)	.05	.23**	.32**	.01	.24**	.38**	.32**	.35**	-.09		
11.Org. trustworthiness	354	3.71 (0.76)	.13**	.19**	.25**	.13*	.55**	.19**	.24**	.80**	-.62**	.25**	
12.Performance	279	3.81 (0.73)	.28**	.37**	.34**	.60**	.00	-.15*	-.20**	.73	-.16**	-.07	.15*

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)   **correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The correlations and descriptive statistics of the variables in the main data (354 dyads) can be found in Table 18. The correlations and descriptive statistics in the Table 18 can also help address couple of important questions. One issue is whether the supervisors mostly selected favourite employees. Based on the Table 18 we can see that the mean of the IM supervisor is not very high. This can be seen as a possible sign that the superiors were not choosing exclusively favourite subordinates. This is reconfirmed by the standard deviation of IM supervisor being 1.07, which shows that there is a big variance between their conduct as reported by their superiors. All these indicate that the sampling method used did provide variance in the subordinate sample.

Looking at all the correlations in Table 18, I conclude that most of the correlations are as expected. PPŞC is negatively correlated to formalization. Also PPŞC is negatively correlated to paternalistic top management, organizational trustworthiness, and voice. However, there is a negative correlation between IM work, IM supervisor and PPŞC. Normally I was assuming a positive correlation as explained in my hypotheses (Chapter 2). Nevertheless, the OB literature on many occasions talks about difficulties in measuring IM because of the measurement overlap with OCB (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994; Wayne & Green, 1993) which can explain this negative correlation. When IM is not self-reported like in this thesis, it becomes almost impossible to be sure if it is a case of OCB or IM. Therefore, one possibility could be that the IM measure did not really capture IM, but rather is measuring OCB.

Indeed, there are multiple examples in the OB literature where OCB was measured when intending to measure IM (and the other way around). In 1983, Bateman and Organ introduced the construct of OCB, drawing upon concepts of extra-role behaviour proposed by Katz and Kahn (1966). Organ describes OCB as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (1988: 4). Since its introduction, the topic was researched extensively allowing researchers to notice that engaging in OCB might be at the same time quite impression enhancing (e.g., Eastman, 1994; Ferris et al., 1994). Employees who engage in OCB are likely to be favourably perceived by their supervisors and/or co-workers therefore making it difficult to differentiate IM strategies from OCB (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Wayne and Green (1993) noted that IM behaviour is correlated with altruistic OCB, confirming that there is

a link between these concepts. Similarly, Schnake (1991) points out that unless the motive behind OCB is revealed, IM behaviours can be coded as OCB and OCB can be categorized as IM in some cases.

The correlation between IM work and performance in the "corrected performance scale" thesis data is r (279) =0.344, $p<0.000$ (Table 18). Similarly, the correlation between IM supervisor and performance in the "correct performance" measure thesis data is r (279) =0.368, $p<0.000$ (Table 18). These correlations also support the speculation that IM work as well as IM supervisor are probably capturing a sizable aspect of desirable performance. Therefore, in light of the literature and looking at the IM correlation to performance measure in the data (Table 18), I have to acknowledge the possibility that this thesis measures of IM work and IM supervisor could be capturing elements of OCB.

Table 19. PPŞC descriptive statistics based on ownership and size

| | | | PPŞC | |
		Number of dyads	M	(S.D.)
Company ownership	*local ownership*	293	2.72	(0.86)
	mixed ownership	47	2.55	(0.62)
	foreign ownership	12	2.45	(0.63)
Company size	*51-250 employees*	217	2.57	(0.82)
	251-500 employees	45	2.96	(0.68)
	501-1000 employees	34	3.00	(0.85)
	1000+ employees	55	2.75	(0.86)

Before proceeding to hypotheses testing I also looked at PPŞC based on company ownership and based on company size as reported by the dyads in the main data (Table 19). The table shows that local ownership does coincide with higher reported PPŞC but size of the company does not seem to be an indicator of a patter for PPŞC.

5.6. Hypotheses Testing and Results

In this part I will present the software that I will use for hypotheses testing. Following that I will report the hypotheses testing results.

5.6.1. Statistical Software

For testing the moderation hypotheses, I used SPSS and for conditional process analysis I used PROCESS (Hayes, 2018). Model estimation is typically undertaken with ordinary least squares regression-based path analysis, such as implemented in the popular PROCESS macro for SPSS and SAS (Hayes, 2018), or using a structural equation modelling program. PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) statistical software is widely used in social, business, and health sciences for estimating direct and indirect effects in single and multiple mediator models (parallel and serial); two-way and three-way interactions in moderation models along with simple slopes and regions of significance for probing interactions; as well as conditional indirect effects in moderated mediation models with a single or multiple mediators or moderators.

Hayes, Montoya, and Rockwood (2017) discuss the difference between PROCESS and structural equation modelling and show by way of example that, for observed variable models, the choice of which to use is irrelevant because the results are largely identical. I chose PROCESS macro program because it is easy to use and it can be used for analysing many types of different models (mediation, multi-mediation, mediation-moderation, moderation-mediation).

5.6.2. Results

Moderation can indicate conditions in which either an insignificant direct effect can become significant or a significant direct effect is significantly weakened or further strengthened (Welsh, Ellis, Christian, & Mai, 2014). H1 predicted that the detrimental effects of PPŞC on organizational trustworthiness would be significantly weakened by employees' traditionality.

Figure 4. Conceptual model of the hypotheses 1-4
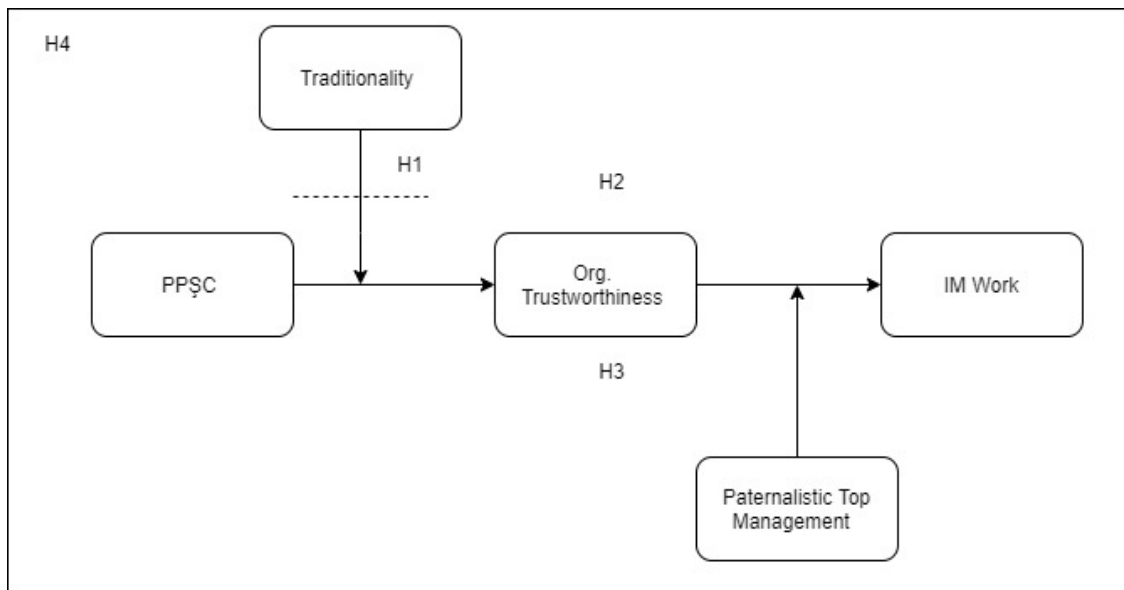
H1 prediction was tested using ordinary least squares regression. Following Dawson (2014), the moderator and the independent variables (except supervisor and subordinate education, which are not continuous variables) were mean-centered. The results of the hierarchical linear regression indicated a significant interaction between PPŞC and traditionality on organizational trustworthiness, $\beta = 0.207$ $p = 0.00$, indicating support for H1 (Table 20).

Table 20. Coefficient estimates for traditionality moderation model

	First stage (dependent variable= Organizational Trustworthiness)					
	Step 1			Step 2		
Variable	β	SE	t	β	SE	T
Constant	4.26	0.18	23.18**	4.133	0.178	23.28**
Sup. Education	-0.11	0.05	-1.20*	-0.09	0.05	-1.74
Sub. Education	-0.07	0.04	-1.71	-0.04	0.04	-1.17
Sub. Tenure	-0.07	0.01	-1.08	-0.01	0.01	0.78
PPŞC	-0.59	0.04	-15.47**	-0.59	0.04	-16.0**
Traditionality	0.15	0.04	4.00**	0.145	0.04	4.03**
PPŞC x Traditionality				0.21	0.04	5.40**
R^2		0.48			0.52	
ΔF		131.1**			29.14**	

Note. N= 323. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. *p<0.05. **p<0.01

As predicted, when PPŞC is high, perceived organizational trustworthiness decreases, but this decrease is attenuated if employees' traditionality is high. Furthermore, as shown in Table 20 the control variables of supervisor education, subordinate education and tenure were not significant so they were dropped in the rest of the analyses.

Figure 5 further shows the interaction effect of PPŞC and traditionality on organizational trustworthiness. The effect of PPŞC for low or 16th percentile (navy line), moderate or 50th percentile (green line) and high or 84th percentile (yellow line) value of traditionality on organizational trustworthiness are displayed. The interaction is significant for all values of traditionality.

Figure 5. Interaction plot of PŞCC climate and traditionality on organizational trustworthiness
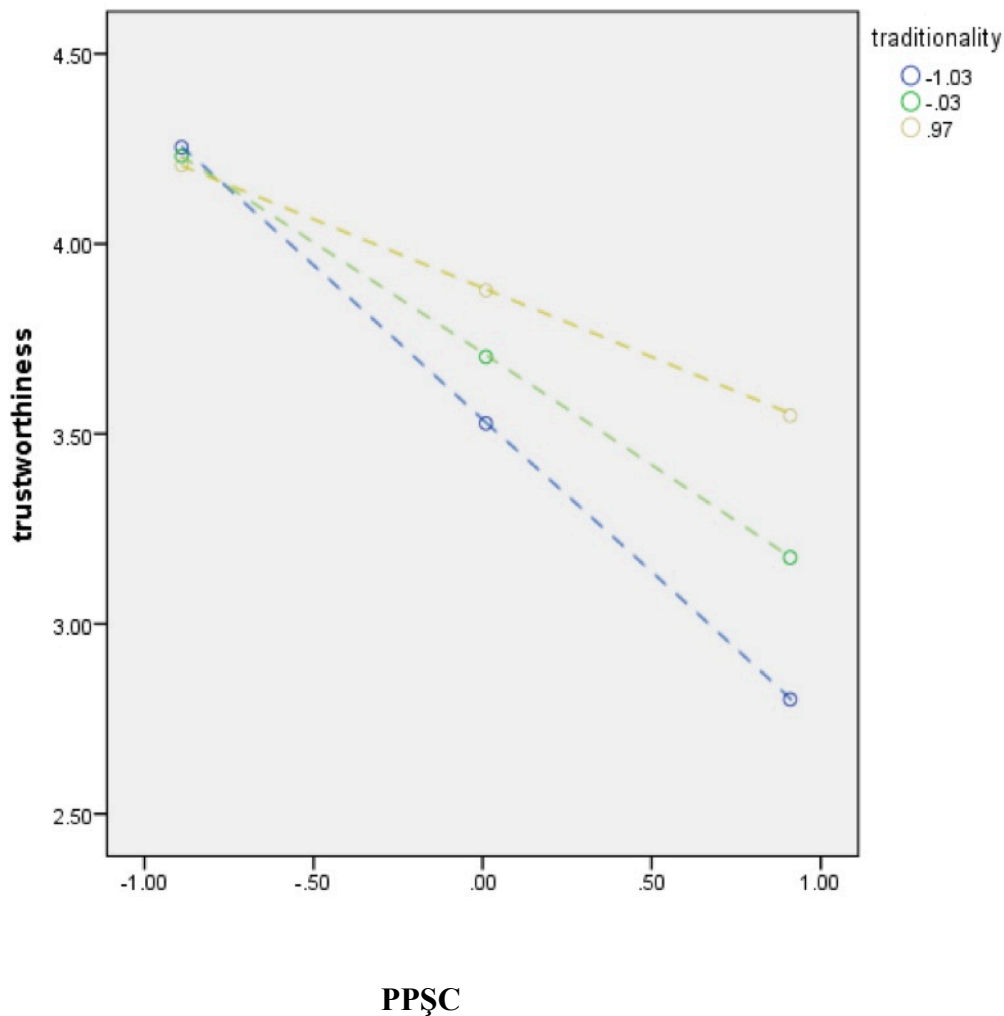
PPŞC

H2 predicted that traditionality would moderate the mediated relationship between PPŞC, organizational trustworthiness and IM work. Before testing H2, first the relationship of PPŞC on IM work via organizational trustworthiness was tested. In order to do that, a test of simple mediation model was conducted using Model 4 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018). As Preacher and Hayes (2008) recommended, the indirect effect was estimated using unstandardized coefficients and utilizing bootstrapping procedures with 5000 resamples to place 95% confidence interval (CI) around the estimates of the indirect effect. Bootstrapping provides evidence of mediation if the bias-corrected 95% confidence interval excludes zero for indirect effect. In that manner the results showed a significant indirect effect of PPŞC effect on IM work through organizational trustworthiness (β = -0.1417; Boot LLCI =-0.2392, Boot ULCI= -0.0449). The direct effect is not significant (β = -0.0887; Boot LLCI =-0.2356, Boot ULCI= 0.0581), which means that PPŞC is not related to IM work independently of a mediator.

Figure 6. Conceptual model of the hypotheses 1, 5, 6 and 7
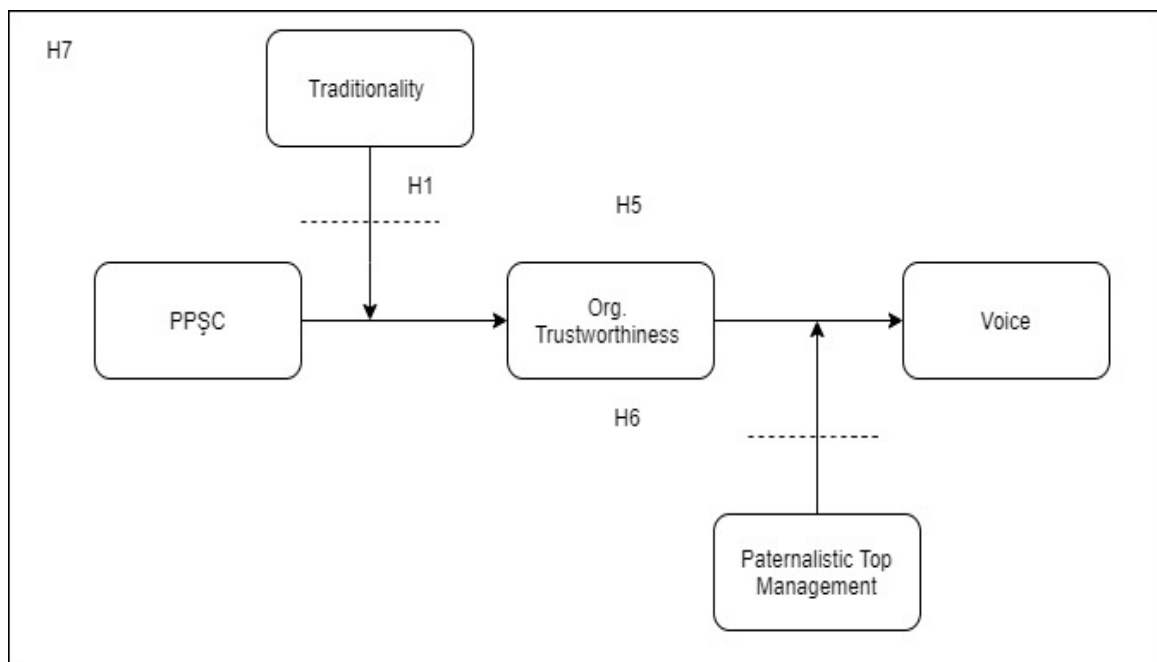
This thesis proposed that an increase in PPŞC would decrease organizational trustworthiness perceptions, which in turn would increase IM work, but the analyses showed that increase in PPŞC through perceptions of trustworthiness decreases IM work. Because the direction of the PPŞC effect was not supported, it is not necessary to test the

moderated mediations H2, H3, and H4 (Figure 5). Nevertheless, because of my concern that the IM work is not really measuring IM work but OCB instead I will address this possibility in the post hoc analyses section. Therefore, I will continue with H5 (Figure 6).

In line with the previous analysis, before testing the hypotheses with the moderating effect of traditionality and paternalistic top management, the effect of PPŞC on voice via organizational trustworthiness was tested. In order to do that, test of simple mediation model was conducted using Model 4 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). The result showed an insignificant indirect effect of PPŞC effect on voice through organizational trustworthiness (β = -0.0335; Boot LLCI =-0.1259, Boot ULCI=0.0582). Nevertheless, there was a significant total effect (β = -0.1363; Boot LLCI =-0.2298, Boot ULCI=-0.0429) meaning that there is a negative effect of PPŞC on voice without the mediation of organizational trustworthiness. Therefore, H5, H6 and H7 which propose organizational trustworthiness as a mediator cannot be supported.

Figure 7. Conceptual model of hypotheses 8-10
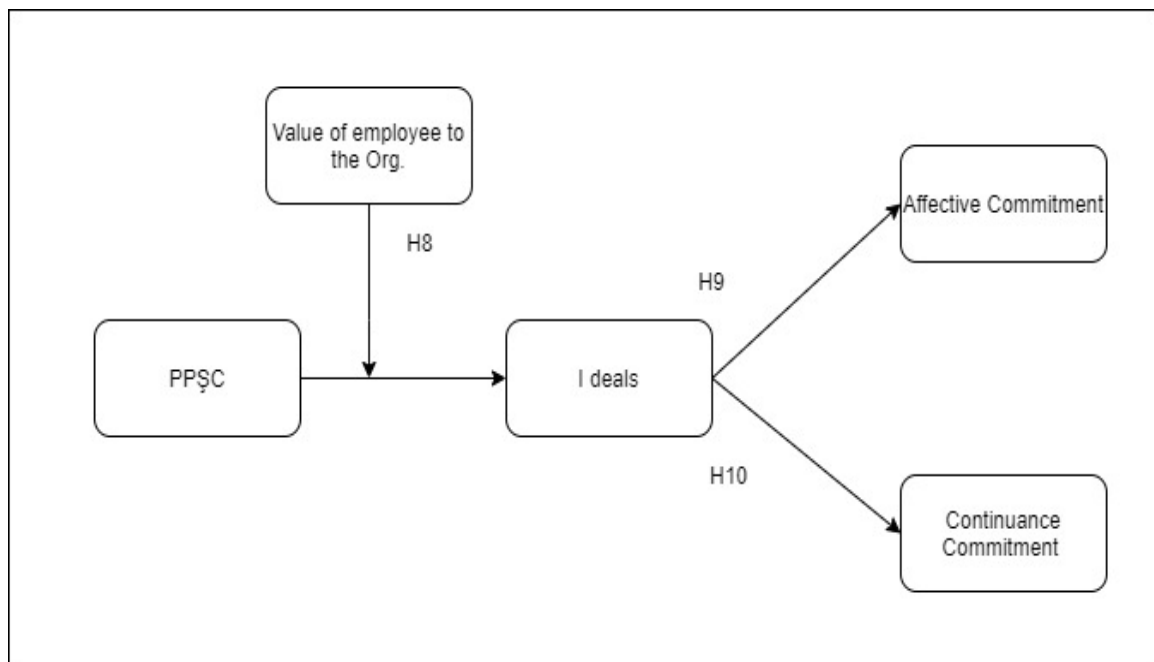
Similarly, before testing the rest of hypotheses (Figure 7) with the moderating effect of the value of employee to the organization, first the effect of PPŞC on affective commitment via I-deals was tested. In order to do that, test of simple mediation model was conducted using Model 4 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018). The result showed non

significant indirect effect of PPŞC on affective commitment through I-deals (β = 0.0150; Boot LLCI =-0.0233, Boot ULCI= 0.0550). Similarly, PPŞC effect on continuance commitment via I-deals was tested. The result also in this case showed non significant indirect effect of PPŞC on continuance commitment through I-deals (β = 0.0202; Boot LLCI =-0.0291, Boot ULCI=0.0729).

Nevertheless, the I-deals mediation hypotheses differ from the organizational trustworthiness mediation hypotheses in the following way: organizational trustworthiness mediation hypotheses proposed moderators to affect the strength of an assumed significant mediation effect, where as the I-deals mediation hypothesis proposed moderation to turn an insignificant effect into a significant effect. Therefore, not finding significant mediation effect of PPŞC on affective and continuance organizational commitment when the moderator is not included is expected. In order for I-deals mediation to be significant H8, H9 and H10 proposed that the relationship would be moderated by high value of employee to the organization. Therefore, I could proceed to testing H8, H9, and H10.

There are different ways to measure the value of employees, as discussed before. An employee of high distinctive value would mean an employee who is not easily replaceable, which can be because of his/her expertise, his/her effectiveness and efficiency or just because he or she is very well liked. Therefore, I tested the I-deals hypotheses with two different measures for value namely, performance as a proxy of employee's effectiveness and efficiency, and supervisor IM as a proxy of how well liked the employee is by the supervisor.

Because the performance scale initially had reverse scoring (higher score meaning lower performance) these performance items were deemed confusing and were changed (higher score meaning higher performance). Using the corrected performance scale resulted in only 279 usable dyads. Therefore, H8, H9, and H10 were be tested only on these 279 dyads using performance as a moderator. Nevertheless, H8, H9, and H10 were be also tested on all 354 dyads using IM supervisor as a moderator.

H8 predicted a positive effect on I-deals when employee value is high. In order to test this hypothesis first high levels of performance as moderator (between PPŞC and I-deals)

were used. Following Dawson (2014) the moderator, the independent variables and the control variables (except supervisor education and dyad gender compositions variables, which are not continuous variables) were mean-centered. The results of the hierarchical linear regression conducted to test this hypothesis indicate non significant interaction between PPŞC and performance on I-deals, *ß= 0.099, p= 0.266*, indicating that H8 is not supported (Table 21). Due to this, H9 and H10 would also be not supported.

Table 21. Coefficient estimates for performance moderation model

	dependent variable= I-deals					
	Step 1			Step 2		
Variable	*ß*	*SE*	*T*	*ß*	*SE*	*T*
Constant	3.29	0.29	11.30**	3.33	0.29	11.35**
Sup. education	-0.19	0.07	-2.59 **	-0.19	0.07	-2.57*
Sup. Tenure	0.01	0.01	1.41	0.01	0.01	1.29
MM gender dyad	-0.08	0.17	-0.47	-0.09	0.17	-0.51
MF gender dyad	-0.14	0.17	-0.87	-0.21	0.17	-1.18
FF gender dyad	-0.13	0.19	-0.67	-0.21	0.19	-0.59
Sub. Tenure	-0.01	0.01	-0.21	-0.01	0.01	-0.23
PPŞC	0.10	0.06	1.66	0.08	0.06	1.26
Performance	-0.20	0.07	-2.87**	-0.19	0.07	-2.80**
PPŞC x Performance				0.10	0.09	1.12
R^2		0.06			0.06	
ΔF		6.42			1.24	

Notes: *N*= 274. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. *p<0.05. **p<0.01

H8 was also tested with high levels of IM supervisor as a moderator (between PPŞC and I-deals). The results of the hierarchical linear regression conducted to test this hypothesis in this case indicate a significant interaction between PPŞC and IM supervisor on I-deals, *ß= 0.128, p= 0.016*, supporting H8 (Table 22). Also from Table 22, we can conclude that supervisor education and supervisor tenure are significant control variables and therefore were kept in the model.

Table 22. Coefficient estimates for IM supervisor moderation model

| Variable | First stage (dependent variable= I-deals) | | | | | |
| | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | |
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Constant	3.18	0.28	11.24**	3.25	0.28	11.51**
Sup. education	-0.20	0.07	-2.69 **	-0.21	0.07	-2.89**
Sup. tenure	0.02	0.01	2.08*	0.02	0.01	2.18*
MM gender dyad	0.02	0.16	0.13	0.05	0.16	-0.03
MF gender dyad	-0.14	0.17	-0.87	-0.16	0.17	-0.95
FF gender dyad	-0.09	0.18	-0.49	-0.11	0.18	-0.59
Sub. tenure	-0.01	0.01	-0.59	-0.01	0.01	-0.62
PPŞC	0.10	0.06	1.78	0.08	0.04	1.27
IM Supervisor	0.04	0.04	0.97	0.05	0.04	1.22
PPŞC x IM supervisor				0.13	0.05	2.43*
R^2		0.06			0.08	
ΔF		1.81			5.91*	

Notes: N= 319. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. *p<0.05. **p<0.01

Figure 8 further shows the interaction effect of PPŞC and IM supervisor on I-deals. The effect of PPŞC for low or 16th percentile (navy line), moderate or 50th percentile (green line) and high or 84th percentile (yellow line) value of IM supervisor on I-deals are displayed. The interaction is significant only for high value of IM supervisor.

Figure 8. Interaction plot of PPŞC and IM supervisor on I-deals
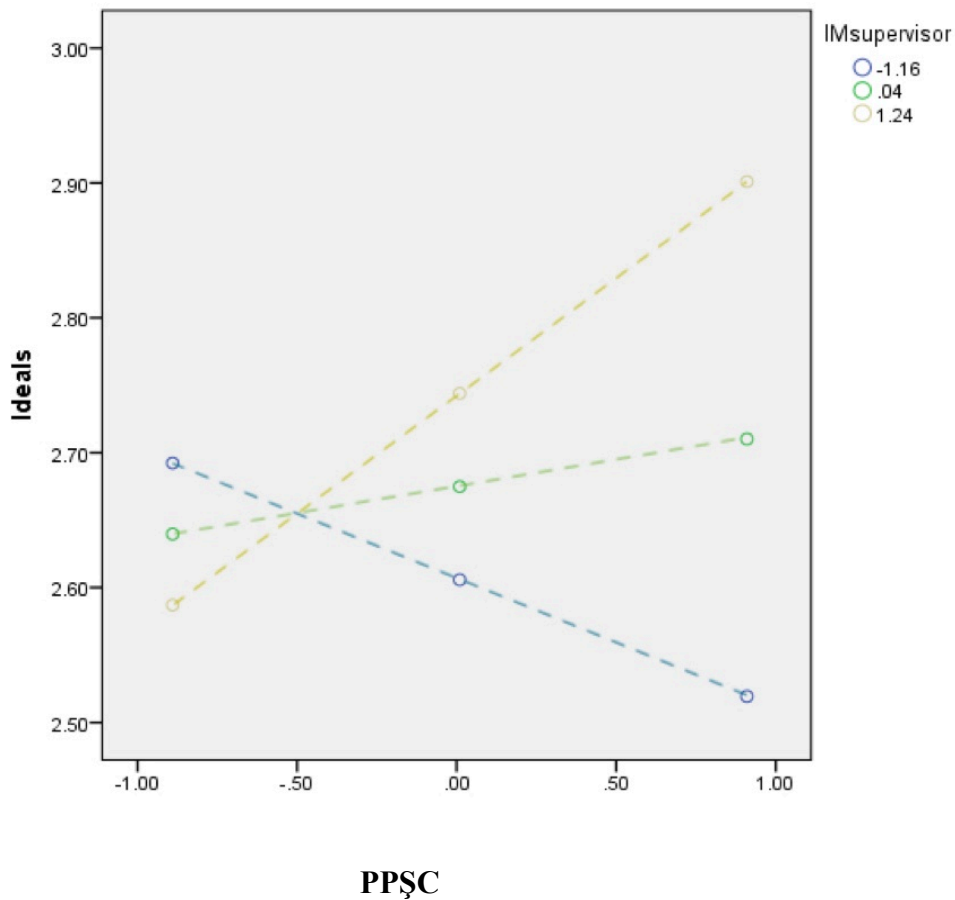
PPŞC

H9 predicts the conditional indirect positive effect of PPŞC on affective organizational commitment through I-deals to be significant only when employee is valuable for the organization, as measured with IM supervisor. In order to test moderated mediation in stage one Model 7 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was used and supervisor education and supervisor tenure were controlled for. I-deals were conditioned for different values of IM supervisor (low or in our case16[th] percentile, moderated or 50th percentile and high or 84th percentile). The results as shown in Table 23 confirm that that PPŞC effect on affective commitment through I-deals is significant only in case of high IM supervisor. Furthermore, the index of moderated mediation is 0.0397, with a bootstrap confidence interval from 0.0111 to 0.0744. Zero is not within the interval, thus the mediation is moderated and therefore supports H9.

Table 23. The indirect effect of PPŞC on affective organizational commitment through I-deals at specific levels of IM supervisor

	IM Supervisor	Effect	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
PPŞC	Low	-0.0306	0.0276	-0.0885	0.0205
	Med	0.0170	0.0198	-0.0188	0.0597
	High	0.0646	0.0280	0.0166	0.1250
Notes: N = 351 dyads; Bootstrap sample size = 5,000; values for IM supervisor are at the 16th percentile (low), the 50th percentile (med) and the 84th percentile (high). LL = Lower level and UL = Upper level bias-corrected CI (confidence interval) for α= 0.05					

H10 predicts the conditional indirect positive effect of PPŞC on continuance organizational commitment through I-deals to be significant only when employee is valuable for the organization (IM supervisor). In order to test moderated mediation in stage one Model 7 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was used and supervisor education and supervisor tenure were controlled for. I-deals were conditioned for different values of IM supervisor (low or in our case 16th percentile, moderated or 50th percentile and high or 84th percentile). The results as shown in Table 24 confirm that that PPŞC effect on continuance commitment through I-deals is significant only in case of high IM supervisor. Furthermore, the index of moderated mediation is 0.0505, with a bootstrap confidence interval from 0.0076 to 0.0970. Zero is not within the interval, thus the mediation is moderated and therefore supports the prediction of H10.

Table 24. The indirect effect of PPŞC on continuance organizational commitment through I-deals at specific levels of IM supervisor

	IM Supervisor	Effect	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
PPŞC	Low	-0.0430	0.0399	-0.1228	0.0357
	Med	0.0175	0.0281	-0.0356	0.0759
	High	0.0781	0.0383	0.0100	0.1580
Notes: N = 351 dyads; Bootstrap sample size = 5,000; values for IM supervisor are at the 16th percentile (low), the 50th percentile (med) and the 84th percentile (high). LL = Lower level and UL = Upper level bias-corrected CI (confidence interval) for α= 0.05					

The results of all the hypotheses testing can be found in Table 25.

Table 25. Results summary

	IV	DV	Mediator	Moderator		Test	Supported
				first stage	second stage		
H1	PPŞC	Org. trustworthiness		Traditionality		Hierarchical linear regression	Yes
H2	PPŞC	IM work	Org. trustworthiness	Traditionality		Model 7 in SPSS PROCESS	Yes
H3	PPŞC	IM work	Org. trustworthiness		Paternalistic top management	Model 14 in SPSS PROCESS	Yes
H4	PPŞC	IM work	Org. trustworthiness	Traditionality	Paternalistic top management	Model 21 in SPSS	Yes
H5	PPŞC	Voice	Org. trustworthiness	Traditionality		Not tested	No
H6	PPŞC	Voice	Org. trustworthiness		Paternalistic top management	Not tested	No
H7	PPŞC	Voice	Org. trustworthiness	Traditionality	Paternalistic top management	Not tested	No
H8	PPŞC	I-deals		Performance		Hierarchical linear regression	No
				IM supervisor			Yes
H9	PPŞC	Affective commitment	I-deals	Performance		Model 7 in SPSS PROCESS	No
				IM supervisor			Yes
H10	PPŞC	Continuance commitment	I-deals	Performance		Model 7 in SPSS PROCESS	No
				IM supervisor			Yes

5.7. Post Hoc Analyses

Although IM work hypotheses (H2, H3, and H4) were not supported, the moderated mediation was supported and the effect was also significant. However, the direction of the effect was not as predicted. Similarly, the moderated mediation hypotheses with voice as the outcome were not supported (H5, H6, and H7), but the total effect of PPŞC on voice was significant, meaning that there is a negative effect of PPŞC on voice without the mediation of organizational trustworthiness. In what follows, I will present some post hoc analyses based on the speculation of what the data might be revealing, and elaborate on future research directions in the next chapter.

One of the propositions of this thesis was that increase in PPŞC would decrease organizational trustworthiness perceptions, which in turn would increase IM work, but the results showed that increase in PPŞC through perceptions of trustworthiness decreases IM work. This can be explained with my already expressed speculation that IM work is actually measuring OCB. As I pointed out previously, there is a difficulty of distinguishing IM behaviours from OCBs (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al., 1994). Bolino and Turnley (1999) suggest that the main difference between these constructs is the motivational intent underlying them. That is, OCBs are thought to emerge from individuals' desires to help out their organizations or colleagues rather than to enhance their own images. When the IM is not self-reported like in this thesis these desires or intentions stay undisclosed and therefore IM work may become indistinguishable from OCB. Therefore, in light of this literature, I conducted an exploratory post hoc analyses with the assumption that IM work is in effect measuring OCB.

As advised by Hayes (2018), the conditional indirect effect of PPŞC on OCB through organizational trustworthiness as moderated by traditionality was estimated using unstandardized coefficients and bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effect. Evidence for a moderated mediation is obtained when estimates of the indirect effect transmitted through the organizational trustworthiness are found to be significantly different across levels of traditionality, which would be indicated by a significant interaction. Accordingly, trustworthiness was conditioned for different values of traditionality (low or in our case 16th percentile, moderate or 50th percentile and high or 84th percentile).

The results show that in case of PPŞC, employees perceive their organization to be less trustworthy, nevertheless as reported in Table 26, this effect of PPŞC on organizational trustworthiness (and therefore on OCB) is decreasing with the increase of employee's traditionality values. Furthermore, the index of moderated mediation is 0.0530, and it has a bootstrap confidence interval from 0.0159 to 0.0998.

Table 26. The indirect effect of PPŞC on OCB through organizational trustworthiness at specific levels of traditionality

	Traditionality	Effect	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
PPŞC	Low	-0.1942	0.0700	-0.3387	-0.0626
	Med	-0.1412	0.0501	-0.2439	-0.0460
	High	-0.0882	0.0323	-0.1567	-0.0296
Notes: N = 354 dyads; Bootstrap sample size = 5,000; values for traditionality are at the 16th percentile (low), the 50th percentile (med) and the 84th percentile (high). LL = Lower level and UL = Upper level bias-corrected CI (confidence interval) for α= 0.05					

Similarly, I explored the effects of organizational trustworthiness on OCB when moderated by paternalistic top management. In order to do this, the independent variables and the moderator were mean-centered (Dawson, 2014). The results of the hierarchical linear regression indicated a significant interaction between organizational trustworthiness and paternalistic top management on OCB, β= 0.147 p= 0.030(Table 27).

Table 27. Coefficient estimates for moderation models

	First stage (DV = Organizational Trustworthiness)						Second stage (DV= OCB)					
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 1			Step 2		
Variable	β	SE	T	β	SE	T	β	SE	T	β	SE	T
Constant	4.26	0.18	23.18**	4.13	0.18	23.3**						
Supervisor education	-0.11	0.05	-1.20*	-0.09	0.05	-1.74						
Subordinate education	-0.07	0.04	-1.70	-0.04	0.04	-1.17						
Subordinate Tenure	-0.07	0.01	-1.08	-0.01	0.01	0.78						
PPŞC	-0.59	0.04	-15.5**	-0.59	0.04	-16**						
Traditonality	0.15	0.04	4.00**	0.15	0.04	4.0**						
PPŞC x Traditionality				0.21	0.04	5.4**						
Constant							3.27	0.05	69.5**	3.20	0.06	57.1**
Organizational Trustworthiness							0.08	0.10	0.76	0.13	0.11	-1.21
Paternalistic top management							0.28	0.11	2.70**	0.32	0.11	3.02*
Org.Trust. x Patern.manag.										0.15	0.07	-2.17*
R^2		0.48			0.52			0.08			0.09	
ΔF		131.1**			29.1**						4.74*	

Note. N= 323. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. *p<0.05. **p<0.01

As a result, I could look at the whole relationship of whether the conditional indirect effect of PPŞC on OCB through organizational trustworthiness would be weaker when the employee's perceived paternalistic top management of the organization is high. Therefore, test of mediation model combined with moderation was needed to test the PPŞC effect on OCB mediated by organizational trustworthiness while paternalistic top management moderates the relationship between organizational trustworthiness and OCB. In order to test this moderated mediation Model 14 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) was used.

As a result, I got index of moderated mediation -0.0812, with a bootstrap confidence interval from -0.1634 to -0.0058. Zero is not within the interval, thus, the mediation is moderated. In order to learn for which values of the moderator the indirect effect is significant, values that correspond to 16th, 50th and 84th percentiles of the distribution of paternalistic top management, which represent low, moderate and high paternalistic top management were used. Nevertheless, when probing for these values as reported in Table 28, the confidence interval straddles zero, and the SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) program does not allow probing for other values of the moderator. This means that although the mediation is moderated the SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) the software does not allow us to test for higher values than 84th percentile of the distribution of paternalistic top management.

Table 28. The indirect effect of PPŞC on OCB through organizational trustworthiness at specific levels of paternalistic top management

	Paternalistic top management	Effect	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
Organizational Trustworthiness	Low	0.0244	0.0716	-0.1222	0.1577
	Med	-0.0467	0.0754	-0.1977	0.0975
	High	-0.0974	0.0872	-0.2767	0.0694
Notes: N = 354 dyads; Bootstrap sample size = 5,000; values for paternalistic top management are at the 16th percentile (low), the 50th percentile (med) and the 84th percentile (high). LL = Lower level and UL = Upper level bias-corrected CI (confidence interval) for $\alpha = 0.05$					

Finally, the last speculation in relationship to OCB that I addressed in the post hoc analyses is whether PPŞC effect on OCB through organizational trustworthiness would be weaker when the employee's traditionality values and perceived paternalistic top management is high. Therefore, a test of mediation combined with moderation was

needed to test the PPŞC effect on OCB mediated by organizational trustworthiness while traditionality moderates the relationship between PPŞC and organizational trustworthiness and paternalistic top management moderates the relationship between organizational trustworthiness and OCB. In order to test this moderated mediation Model 21 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) was used. The index of moderated mediation is 0.0304, with a bootstrap confidence interval from 0.0021 to 0.061. Zero is not within the interval, thus, the mediation is moderated.

Table 29. The indirect effect of PPŞC on OCB through organizational trustworthiness at specific levels of traditionality and paternalistic top management

	Traditionality	Paternalistic top management	Effect	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
PPŞC	Low	Low	0.0335	0.0990	-0.1684	0.2193
	Low	Med	-0.0639	0.1038	-0.2738	0.1352
	Low	High	-0.1335	0.1194	-0.3733	0.0913
	Med	Low	0.0243	0.0722	-0.1230	0.1602
	Med	Med	-0.0465	0.0755	-0.1990	0.0992
	Med	High	-0.0971	0.0868	-0.2727	0.0674
	High	Low	0.0152	0.0457	-0.0771	0.1029
	High	Med	-0.0290	0.0478	-0.1270	0.0631
	High	High	-0.0606	0.0552	-0.1750	0.0425

Notes: N = 354 dyads; Bootstrap sample size = 5,000; values for paternalistic top management and traditionality are at the 16th percentile (low), the 50th percentile (med) and the 84th percentile (high). LL = Lower level and UL = Upper level bias-corrected CI (confidence interval) for $\alpha = 0.05$

In order to learn for which values of the moderator the indirect effect is significant, values that correspond to 16th, 50th and 84th percentiles of the distribution of traditionality and paternalistic top management (which represent low, moderate and high traditionality and paternalistic top management). Nevertheless, when probing for these values as reported in Table 29, the confidence interval straddles zero, and the SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) program does not allow probing for other values of the moderator. Hence the mediation is moderated the SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) the software does not allow us to test for higher values than 84th percentile of the moderators.

I also explored the data in relationship to voice. In the hypotheses testing when test of simple mediation model was conducted using Model 4 in SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) in order to test PPŞC's effect on voice via organizational trustworthiness, the result showed an insignificant indirect effect of PPŞC effect on voice through organizational

trustworthiness ($ß$ = -0.0335; Boot LLCI =-0.1259, Boot ULCI=0.0582). Nevertheless, there was a significant total effect ($ß$ = -0.1363; Boot LLCI =-0.2298, Boot ULCI=-0.0429) meaning that there is a negative effect of PPŞC on voice without the mediation of organizational trustworthiness. For exploratory purposes, I tested the direct effect of PPŞC on voice as moderated by traditionality or paternalistic top management or both.

In the post hoc analyses when the PPŞC voice relationship is moderated by traditionality the results of the hierarchical linear regression indicate a non significant interaction between PPŞC and traditionality on voice, $ß$= -0.042 p =0.40 (Table 30). Similarly, when the PPŞC voice relationship is moderated by paternalistic top management the results of the hierarchical linear regression indicate not significant interaction between PPŞC and paternalistic top management on voice, $ß$= -0.114 p =0.058, (Table 30).

Table 30. Coefficient estimates for moderation models

Variable	Voice											
	H5a						H6a					
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 1			Step 2		
	$ß$	SE	T	$ß$	SE	T	$ß$	SE	T	$ß$	SE	T
Constant	3.75	0.04	95.28**	3.74	0.04	95**	3.75	0.04	95.9**	3.71	0.04	87.7**
PPŞC	-0.14	0.05	-2.86**	-0.14	0.05	-2.9**	-0.08	0.05	-1.50	-0.07	0.05	-1.25
Traditionality	0.00	0.04	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.12						
PPŞC x Traditonality				-0.04	0.05	-0.84						
Paternalistic top management							0.13	0.06	2.14*	0.17	0.06	2.7**
PPŞC x Patern. top management										-0.11	0.06	-1.89
R^2		0.02			0.03			0.04			0.05	
ΔF		4.1**			0.71**			6.4*			3.6	

Note. N= 354. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. *$p<0.05$. **$p<0.01$

Therefore, I can conclude that the speculations in relationship to OCB were supported but in relation to voice were not. The post hoc analyses indicated that PPŞC has negative effects on OCB through trustworthiness when moderated by traditionality or paternalistic top management or both. Nevertheless, neither traditionality nor paternalistic top

management appear to moderate the effect of PPŞC on voice. I will discuss the implications of these exploratory analyses further in the next chapter.

6. DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will try to discuss the results and list the contributions, strengths and limitations of the research. My research found support that I-deals mediate the relationship between perceptions of injustice and affective and continuance commitment when moderated by the value of the employee as assessed by the supervisor. In addition, my post hoc analyses found support that the perceived injustice climate-organizational trustworthiness relationship was moderated by traditionality and/or paternalistic top management. Therefore, after discussing my results, I will propose ways to build on these findings and possible new ways to approach the hypotheses that I could not confirm. After I propose some future research directions, I will discuss the strengths and limitations of my research and I will offer some practical implications for managers.

6.1. Discussion of Results

In this section, I will discuss the possible reasons behind the supported and unsupported hypotheses. I will first discuss the implications for the moderated mediation relationship between PPŞC and organizational commitment and then infer the reasons behind unsupported relationships between PPŞC and IM and PPŞC and voice. Following this I will discuss the operationalization of perceived injustice climate as PPŞC and its applicability.

6.1.1. PPŞC, I-deals and Organizational Commitment

The effect of perceived injustice climate when operationalized as PPŞC on organizational commitment through I-deals for valuable employees was supported when value of employees was measured by supervisor oriented IM. Therefore, supervisor oriented IM seems to be good proxy of how liked employee is by his supervisor. The supervisor oriented IM scale reported by the supervisor asks for example whether the employee in question "offers me to do something, which he/she is not required to do" or whether he/she does "personal favours to me (for example, something for my child)". This shows that in order for employee to be valued enough to receive I-deals, task performance may not be a necessary prerequisite, but other mechanisms may take precedence.

The effect of perceived injustice climate when operationalized as PPŞC on affective and continuance commitment mediated by I-deals and moderated by the value of the employee was not supported when the value of employee was measured by job performance. In addition, it was especially confusing to see that performance has a negative effect on employees receiving I-deals, when performance was regressed directly on I-deals (without including PPŞC). One possible explanation could be that job performance is not the best measure of the value of employees, and that an employee that does personal favours, is very loyal, or even spies on his co-workers is more valuable. This is also suggested by the findings where value was operationalized with a measure of supervisor oriented IM.

Why subordinates that were rated by the supervisor as high performing did not report themselves as necessary recipients of I-deals can also be explained in connection to how these employees perceived the I-deals. One possibility could be that high performing employees perceive I-deals as something they are entitled to. Therefore, they do not think of them as special treatments that the organization does for them. In that way, although they are recipients of I-deals they are acknowledging them less. A final, perhaps less likely possibility is that high performing employees are less likely to accept being recipients of exceptions of the rules or procedures. As pointed out in the measures part I added to my I-deals scale four indigenous I-deals items stating exceptions to formalities.

So I am proposing the possibility that high performers do not necessarily receive this kind of I-deals because they do not accept them.

An additional point is that in perceived injustice climate special treatment of employees can be due to I-deals but it can also be due to nepotism. Based on the I-deals literature, the distinction is that I-deals are special treatments for valuable employees whereas favouritism based on nepotism is special treatment but not based on merit. Nevertheless, the I-deals measure does not clearly make this distinction. Employees answering the survey were not informed to disregard the nepotism cases when asked if some special treatment applies just to them. Therefore, maybe the valuable employees in some cases did not report that certain treatment applies exclusively to them because employees that are beneficiary of nepotism and particularism would probably also receive these treatments making I-deals less special. Therefore, further research while using an improved I-deals measure that clearly distinguished I-deals from nepotism can be undertaken.

6.1.2. PPŞC, IM and Voice

My data and analyses suggest that I may have measured OCB when intending to measure work oriented IM. These kind of occurrences are also very often noted in the OCB literature (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Therefore, I conducted post hoc analyses in which I assumed that IM work captured OCB. In the post hoc analyses I found support for PPŞC negative effects on OCB as mediated by organizational trustworthiness. I also found support that this effect when moderated by traditionality or paternalism or both was decreasing. Although the post hoc analyses were informative about the possible implications for OCB, the question of work oriented IM is still unanswered. Therefore, IM work hypotheses could be tested in the further with an improved measure of IM work.

Furthermore, why the voice hypotheses were not supported needs to be explained. When the effect of perceived injustice climate, operationalized as PPŞC on voice via organizational trustworthiness was tested the result showed an insignificant indirect effect but there was a significant total effect meaning that there is a negative effect of PPŞC on voice without the mediation of organizational trustworthiness. The relationship between

perceived organizational trustworthiness and voice is well documented in the literature (Gao, Janssen & Shi, 2011; Karaca, 2013). So one possibility is that the supervisor assessment of voice was unable to capture this construct as intended. A second possibility is that the subordinates in this sample did not always have jobs that made voice relevant; i.e., they may have had jobs of narrow scope and limited discretion. Therefore, perceived injustice climate when operationalized with PPŞC in relationship to voice is in need of further research, especially in contexts where employee voice is relevant and by incorporating employees' job definitions as a moderator or a control variable.

In order to examine if traditionality or paternalism or both have moderation effects on perceived injustice climate when operationalized as PPŞC on voice, I tested these relationships as a post hoc analyses. These moderation hypotheses without organizational trustworthiness as a mediator were not supported, either. More precisely traditionality, contrary to expectations, did not moderate the effect of PPŞC on voice. Traditionality is about accepting hierarchy and employees high on traditionality are more likely to accept the perceived injustice climate and especially the favouritism, lack of transparency, arbitrariness, and excessive management intervention measured by PPŞC. Therefore, the original line of thought was that if employee is more accepting of perceived injustice climate due to his or her traditionality values, the negative effect of PPŞC on voice through trustworthiness should be mitigated. Nevertheless, it seems that traditionality is probably not theoretically best moderator because high traditionality employees may not be inclined to use voice under any condition. Therefore, taking organizational trustworthiness out of the equation does not make this line of thought more viable.

Regarding the second moderator, this thesis could not establish that paternalism moderated the effect of perceived injustice climate (when operationalized as PPŞC) on voice, either. Perhaps voice is not only contingent on perceived safety or effectiveness of speaking up. Different cultures may have different norms as to the respectfulness of speaking up. Thus, even if the employees perceive safety, they may still refrain from speaking up, as they may be concerned that speaking up will be considered ungrateful or disloyal.

Going back to what was supported, the total effect of PPŞC on voice also needs some reflection. Finding a total effect means that when regressing voice on PPŞC with using

OLS regression the effect of PPŞC on voice is significant (Hayes, 2018). In that way PPŞC directly causes decrease in employee suggestions for improvement or corrections for suboptimal processes. Therefore, I can assume that PPŞC by itself is a climate that contains a component that promotes silence and its effect on voice is irrelevant from organizational trustworthiness or the proposed moderators.

Consulting the voice literature, I can propose further research to distinguish between public and private voice. The focus of this thesis was public voice, but Isaakyan, Sherf, Tangirala, and Guenter (2020) propose that managers are averse to public voice and prefer acting on voice that is privately brought to them. Kozan, Ergin, and Varoglu (2014) also propose for research looking at voice to do so by making a distinction between private and public voice. The perceived injustice climate, especially when operationalized as PPŞC would be more relevant for use of private voice and therefore private voice in perceived injustice climate should be a further research topic. Additionally, the study by Zheng Li, Brad Harris and Liao, (2017) on tacit understanding of another person's expectation or unspoken voice could be also relevant. Most possibly subordinates in perceived injustice climate would be expected to be sensitive enough to detect supervisors' unvoiced expectations. Therefore, this would be another interesting avenue for future research.

6.1.3. Operationalization of Injustice Climate as PPŞC

The PPŞC scale, as originally suggested by Koçak et al. (2014) was proposed to be composed of four dimensions. Nevertheless, Koçak et al. (2014) could not find support for this. Although their small sample size might have been an explanation for their results, I also could not confirm four dimensions and instead I proposed a new, shorter one-dimension scale. Therefore, it appears that the PPŞC scale can benefit from future revisions.

PPŞC as a perceived injustice climate was measured at individual level. Nevertheless, although perceived injustice climate operationalized as PPŞC represents environment which is not transparent or consistent, there seems to be a consensus in the way employees perceive it, allowing it to be aggregated to organizational level. Therefore, researching

PPŞC on aggregated level could add to understanding of injustice climate and its implications for organizational outcomes.

Given that the measure of PPŞC has not been used in research before (except by Koçak et al., 2014), addressing its applicability can be important. I argued that PPŞC is a suitable operationalization of injustice climate for organizations within Turkey but I also proposed that this scale can be used for small and big firms around the world. Because instances of favouritism which PPŞC is directly measuring or low professionalism whose consequences are also measured by PPŞC are present in certain degree in all types of organization, I suggest PPŞC to be a fitting way to measure perceived injustice in all types of companies in any part of the world. To support this claim I will list some research that shows how well spread favouritism and low professionalism are irrelevant from company size or location.

Yildirim-Öktem and Üsdiken (2010) note that in many late-industrialized economies big businesses often suffer from low professionalism. They also point out that many of these big businesses are family business groups, which balance kinship framework with managerial enterprise (Kock & Guillen, 2001). Similarly, Colpan and Jones (2016) regarding the example of Koç group, which is the biggest business group in Turkey confirm that little importance was given to professional management. They remark that "Koç remained typical of Turkish business in his unwillingness to cede family control at the highest level of the Group, even though he sought out American management knowledge through hiring consultants, although did little to follow their advice" (p.83). Adding on this is the finding of a survey by Corporate Governance Association of Turkey (TKYD) that shows that all types of firms in Turkey to a certain degree struggle with professionalism mostly because of the owner's ego and fear to lose their influence in the management of the firms (Türkiye Kurumsal Yönetim Derneği & StratejiCo. Raporu, 2015).

In addition, evidence of use of favouritism across the globe also exists in the literature. Isaed (2016) reporting on the Jordanian context claims that favouritism is common in all kind of businesses, especially among big corporations. Windsor (2017) also talks about the very common use of favouritism in the public sector in China. Similarly, Indvik and Johnson (2012) point to use of favouritism in the United States. They claim that because

favouritism is a part of human nature, all managers in all type of organization in varying degrees use favouritism in deciding on promotions.

Finally, although this thesis largely focused on negative consequences, positive consequences of environments with high PPŞC may be future topics of research. In my thesis, by looking at I-deals I did touch upon the positive possibilities that PPŞC can create. But there are other venues to explore. PPŞC attribute of high flexibility can result in organization that is creative and innovative (Chaudhary, Rangnekar, & Barua, 2014; Dawson, González-Romá, Davis & West, 2008; Gonzalez-Roma, Davis, & West, 2005). Also PPŞC attribute of being non-strict rules environment can grant employees many possibilities. For example, in PPŞC one easy possibility for achieving personal goals would be through office politics. In companies with clear rules employees may not benefit from politics, compliments, spying, but in perceived injustice climate these could be expected and rewarding employee conducts. Therefore, how employees navigating in perceived injustice climate and how they are using this environment to their benefit also deserves attention. Most employees that are used to the unjust system, and know how to function in it and benefit from it, would not be supporting any changes away from it. To be more specific the disorder that can exist in perceived injustice climate when operationalized as PPŞC can allow freedom for pursuing personal interest more easily, and employees that learned to profit from it would not prefer to be in a firm with a different climate. This is an important aspect of perceived injustice climate (especially when operationalized as PPŞC) that I could not cover and therefore I hope that future research can address it.

6.2. Strengths and Limitations

In this part I will discuss the strengths and the limitations of this thesis in terms of methodology, measurement, and analyses. In terms of methodology I will discuss the method used, and especially the survey methodology. In terms of measurement I will examine the limitations with respect to the measurement of the variables of interest. Finally, I will discus the use of the PROCESS macro.

6.2.1. Strengths and Limitations of the Methodology

In terms of methodology, this thesis benefited from the use of multiple methods. The preliminary study used the critical incident technique, which has many advantages for researching trust (Lyon, Mšllering, & Saunders, 2015). Although in the preliminary study the data was not collected with this dissertation in mind, the real-life narrations focusing explicitly on trust formation and violation were very relevant for this research and allowed me to gain familiarity with the research setting.

Regarding the main survey study, there are also some strengths and limitations. One issue is the fact that in the sample 275 dyads were collected by paper/pencil surveys and 80 dyads were collected by on-line data collection. Nevertheless, when the demographics of the paper/pencil dyads were compared with the data from the on-line responses the samples were deemed similar. In particular, the hypotheses were tested just on the paper-pencil data and the results did not differ from the whole sample (reported in the previous chapter). This is also in accordance with Davidov and Depner (2011) conclusion that there are no differences between participants' responses in online survey and paper/pencil surveys.

The general limitations of survey methodology can also be mentioned. Survey method suffers from low validity because it is hard to tell how truthful a respondent is being, or how much thought a respondent has put in the response. The respondent can also be forgetful or not think within the full context of the situation; also, they might read differently into each question and therefore reply based on their own interpretation of the question (Patten & Newhart, 2018). Nevertheless, surveys are also relatively cost effective. Furthermore, related to the benefit of cost effectiveness is a survey's potential for generalizability, because surveys allow researchers to collect data from very large samples for a relatively low cost. Survey research also tends to be a reliable method of inquiry. This is because surveys are standardized in that the same questions, phrased in exactly the same way, are posed to participants. In addition, it is easy to replicate a survey research and by obtaining consistent results across studies the research can be supported by future research.

Another possible limitation is the sampling method. Purposive samplings are known to be of low reliability and high bias. Nevertheless, purposive sampling allowed for carefully choosing firms that fit the type of company of interest to this thesis. In that way companies with more than 40 employees were selected. In addition, the sample consisted of companies from different cities, industries and with different type of ownership, making the findings more generalizable.

Not having a possibility of randomization over the choice of subordinate is also a concern. Sometimes it was possible to request from the supervisor to answer the survey for more than one subordinate, therefore creating more than one dyad, and the dyad used for the main data was randomly chosen from the available dyads. Nevertheless, most of the time the supervisor would select just one subordinate. This selection was mainly based on availability, but the question arises if the supervisors in fact were choosing their favourite subordinates. In order to explore this, concern I looked at the standard deviation of all scale responses, which showed that the data is well spread (Table 18). In addition, I looked at the data variance for IM supervisor because it could be a good indicator of whether the subordinate in the dyads is indeed a favourite subordinate. The mean of the supervisor oriented IM was not high (Table 18). All of these showed that there is a good variance and that subordinates are not exclusively supervisors' favourites.

Regarding the strength of the study, this thesis measured most of the dependent and independent variables by different respondents. Not measuring them in same survey allows the study to avoid the biases of single-source and common method variance. Common method bias occurs when the correlations among variables can be inflated or biased because the same person assess all the variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003). In my research, the supervisor answered about IM and voice which were dependent variables and subordinates responded to the scales on the independent variables. The only dependent variable that was answered by the subordinate was organizational commitment.

6.2.2. Measurement Limitations

This thesis has certain limitations with respect to the measurement of the variables of interest. The limitations of PPŞC measure (Koçak et al., 2014) and possible future research directions have been discussed above. Therefore, I will proceed with discussing the other measurements.

Another measurement limitation was with the IM scale. This scale in fact has been a target of criticism on some occasions. Ferris et al. (1994) and Bolino and Turnley (1999) reported psychometric problems with one of the subscales. Specifically, Ferris et al. (1994) found that the self-focused tactics subscale demonstrated poor reliability and that some items did not show acceptable discriminant validity. In addition, the primary focus of Wayne and Ferris (1990) was not the development of an IM measure (the authors derived the dimensions of their scale based on the results of an exploratory factor analysis) so the exact meaning of the dimensions is somewhat unclear. For instance, Bolino and Turnley (1999) point out that the item "Disagree with your supervisor on major issues" is classified as a work oriented IM strategy, whereas the very similar item "Agree with your supervisor's major ideas" is classified as a supervisor IM strategy. Similarly, "Create the impression that you are a 'good' person to your supervisor" is labelled IM work strategy, but "Present yourself to your supervisor as being a friendly person" is labelled a self-focused strategy. According to Bolino and Turnley (1999) is not apparent why such similar pairs of items measure different IM strategies.

One more concern with this scale is that items representing other forms of IM, such as intimidation and supplication, are absent. In other words, the scale does not include items tapping the full range of IM strategies identified in previous work (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Nevertheless, because my hypotheses were just concern with work oriented IM and supervisor oriented IM, not measuring other possible IM dimension was not a problem.

Nonetheless, the IM literature suffers from not having a broadly accepted scale (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). More or less all of the IM scales have some shortcomings but Wayne and Ferris's scale (1990) is suitable for use in organizational setting (Bolino & Turnley, 1999) and can be administered as an observer measure of IM behaviour. In that way

supervisors were reporting the IM of subordinates, and therefore avoiding common method bias (DV and IV were measured by different sources).

When measuring IM also social desirability (as a tendency of respondents to choose responses they believe are more socially desirable or acceptable rather than choosing responses that are true) can be problematic. Because IM is not self-reported social desirability bias was also avoided. Yet, IM as an observant measure has other set of problems, namely regarding the validity of the measure. This measure fails to address the issue of motivational intent and, I was unable to distinguish the use of IM strategies from the performance of OCB as discussed in the previous chapters. Because of this possible overlap of the IM work measure with OCB the direction of the effect that I predicted was not supported (H2, H3, and H4). Consequently, future research could improve on the IM work measure and retest these relationships again.

Regarding the possibility of IM supervisor to be also a measure of OCB, this probability is less problematic. In the literature both, supervisor oriented IM or OCB can be a way to measure how liked or how valuable employee is to the supervisor (Vilela, et al., 2007; Vilela, González & Ferrín, 2008; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Supervisor oriented IM or OCB can both be an indicator of supervisor's fondness of the employee, therefore being a successful measure of employee value.

6.2.3. Analysis Strength and Limitations

Using the PROCESS macro as a relatively easy and dependable way to conduct the moderated mediation analyses is one of the strengths of this study. As a regression path analysis software, various effects (direct, indirect, conditional and unconditional) can easily be estimated (Hayes, 2018). Nevertheless, I did face a minor problem when trying to probe the moderated mediation for different values of the moderator when the index of moderated mediation is significant. Using the Pick-a-Point approach I tried probing using bootstrapping confidence interval for all the allowed values by PROCESS (84th, 50th, 16th percentile), but all results were passing through 0, and the same thing happened when choosing mean probing option (-1, mean, +1). Thus, although the index of moderated mediation was significant, the data did not reveal for which value of the moderator the

moderated mediation is significant. Using Johnson-Neyman did also not give me definite result. Johnson-Neyman approach can free us from arbitrariness of the choice of values for the moderator. Nevertheless, when solution is not found by Johnson-Neyman approach, its meaning is also inconclusive. Therefore, while I could confirm the hypotheses, I could not find for which values exactly the moderation is significant.

Another related possible limitation in probing using Pick-a-Point approach in PROCESS is that what is assumed to be low in one sample can be moderate or even high in another. Therefore, the fact that the low, moderate or high values of moderators are sample specific is a limitation that needs to be keep in mind when evaluating the results.

6.3. Implications for Managers

This thesis, which tackles the topic of perceived injustice climate when operationalized as PPŞC, does not just contribute to organizational research but also it has practical implications, as a helpful guideline to managers in their attempts to understand employees in organizations in Turkey. More specifically this thesis addresses and answers questions about very relevant and empirically common instances of favouritism and cronyism and their possible outcomes. As such, it could have implications for managers in how to understand these occurrences.

In addition, it creates awareness of the possibility of positive job outcomes of a textbook negative environments. Although injustice climate in theory and in managerial practice was always seen as a negative circumstance, this thesis is an example of possible benefits of perceived injustice climate when it is operationalized as PPŞC. For example, the increase in organizational commitment that it can create can be a solution for employee turnover.

Finally, this thesis can especially benefit expatriate managers in Turkey by alerting them to the possibility that individuals may experience injustice climate differently as a function of their endorsement of traditionality and paternalism values. Although the injustice perceptions are universal, traditionality values or paternalism can modify the

way they are perceived. Traditional value employees are less perceptive of the injustice and paternalistic management can be a good way for mitigating perceived low organizational trustworthiness. Therefore, on the bigger scale, it can show managers that before applying "universal" management principles in an organization, understanding the local context, and pertinent cultural values is also important.

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Sabancı
Üniversitesi

Sabancı University Research Ethics Council (SUREC)

Date: 28/02/2017
To: Aleksandra Kaner
From: Dr. Cengiz Kaya, Chairman of the Ethics Committee

Protocol Number: SOM-2017- 05
Protocol Name: "Justice and injustice in family firms"

Subject: SUREC Approval
Official Approval Date: 01/03/2017

Sabancı University Research Ethics Council has approved the above named and numbered protocol through expedited review. You are responsible for promptly reporting to the SUREC:

- any severe adverse effects
- any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others;
- any proposed changes in the research activity

Enclosed you can find the below noted approved documents.

☐ Protocol Application

☒ Informed Consent Form

If you have any questions please feel free to contact me via phone at 216-483 9666 or via e-mail at cengizkaya@sabanciuniv.edu.

Best Regards,

Dr. Cengiz Kaya
Chairman of the Ethics Committee

FRG-A410-01-03

Research and Graduate Policies Directorate
Phone: 216-483 9099 Fax:216-4839118

Title: Justice and injustice in family firms
Principal Investigator(s): Aleksandra Kaner

THIS SPACE FOR SUREC USE ONLY

☐ The protocol has been determined to be exempt from SUREC review in accordance with Sabancı University Research Ethics Council procedure.

☒ The protocol has been approved through expedited review in accordance with Sabancı University Research Ethics Council procedure.

☐ The Institutional Review Board has been approved the protocol through full review review in accordance with Sabancı University Research Ethics Council procedure.

APPROVED BY THE SABANCI UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ETHICS COUNCIL

Prof. Dr. Cengiz Kaya
SUREC Chair

Assist. Prof. Ahmet Faik Kurtulmuş
SUREC Member

Assist. Prof. Çağla Aydın
SUREC Member

Assoc. Prof. Müjdat Çetin
SUREC Member

Assist. Prof. Şerif Aziz Şimşir
SUREC Member

Prof. Dr. Zehra Sayers
SUREC Member

FRG-A410-01-03

APPENDIX B

İş Deneyimleri Anketi

Bu anket, Sabancı Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nde yürütülen akademik bir araştırmanın parçasıdır. Çalışmanın amacı, katılımcıların iş yerleri ile ilgili değerlendirmelerini ölçmektir. Size kurumsal bağlılık, destek, adalet, iş tatmini gibi konularda görüşleriniz sorulmaktadır. Anketi tamamlamak yaklaşık 20 dakikanızı alacaktır.

Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Eğer soruları yanıtlamak istemezseniz anketi bırakabilirsiniz. Cevaplarınızın TAMAMEN GİZLİ kalacağını, araştırmacılar dışında, işyerinizden ilgili kişiler dahil tüm üçüncü şahıslarla PAYLAŞILMAYACAĞINI bilmenizi isteriz. Anketin hiçbir kısmında SİZİ veya İŞYERİNİZİ TANIMLAYACAK ÖZEL BİR BİLGİ (isim vb.) İSTENİLMEMEKTEDİR. Cevaplarınız sayısal (istatistiksel) olarak değerlendirilecek ve sonuçlar sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacaktır.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Sabancı Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nden Prof. Dr. S. Arzu Wasti (awasti@sabanciuniv.edu, 216 483 9663) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz. Hak ihlali olduğunu düşünüyorsanız Sabancı Üniversitesi Araştırma ve Lisansüstü Politikalar Direktörü Cengiz Kaya'ya (cengizkaya@sabanciuniv.edu, 216 483 9666) başvurabilirsiniz.

İlginiz ve zamanınız için çok teşekkür ederiz. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sizin görüşlerinizi yansıtan ve içtenlikle vereceğiniz eksiksiz cevaplar bizim için en yararlı olanlardır.

Araştırma ile ilgili yukarıda belirtilen hususları okudum ve anladım. Bana bu onam formunun kopyasının istersem verilebileceğini biliyorum. Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman bırakabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Imza_____   Tarih_____

Aşağıdaki sorular kuruluşunuzla ilişkiniz ile ilgilidir. Lütfen HER SORU İÇİN verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi belirten sütuna çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz.

ÜST YÖNETİM ile kastımız şirket sahibi veya sahipleri, yönetim kurulu, üst düzey yöneticilerdir.

1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	5 Tamamen katılıyorum				
A1. Bu kuruluşa kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissediyorum.				1	2	3	4	5
A2. Bu kuruluşun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.				1	2	3	4	5
A3. Üst yönetim ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışana olmadığı kadar benimkişisel problemlerime destek olmaktadır.				1	2	3	4	5
A4. Kuruluşuma karşı çok güçlü bir aitlik hissim var.				1	2	3	4	5
A5. Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.				1	2	3	4	5
A6. Kuruluşumdan şimdi ayrılsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.				1	2	3	4	5
A7. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.				1	2	3	4	5
A8. Şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.				1	2	3	4	5
A9. Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın almadığı seviyede bir maaş vermektedir.				1	2	3	4	5
A10. Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda kendilerine erişim imkanı vermiştir.				1	2	3	4	5
A11. Kişisel olarak bu kuruluştan ayrılmamın maliyeti getirisinden çok daha fazla.				1	2	3	4	5
A12. Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda yükselme imkanı tanımaktadır.				1	2	3	4	5
A13. Üst yönetim beni ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın uymak zorunda olduğu formalitelerden muaf tutar.				1	2	3	4	5
A14.Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı kadar eğitim imkanı sağlamaktadır.				1	2	3	4	5
A15.Kaybedeceklerim açısından bu kuruluştan ayrılmazdım.				1	2	3	4	5
A16. Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda bilgiye/kaynağa erişim imkanı vermiştir.				1	2	3	4	5
A17. Bu kuruluştan ayrılmamın neredeyse tek olumsuz tarafı alternatif iş kıtlığı olurdu.				1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5					
Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum					
A18. Üst yönetim beni ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın uymak zorunda olduğu kurallardan muaf tutar					1	2	3	4	5
A19. Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışana vermediği kariyer sözü vermiştir.					1	2	3	4	5
A20. Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda iş güvencesi sağlamaktadır.					1	2	3	4	5
A21. Bu kuruluşta çalışmaya devam etmemin sebebi başka imkanların olmaması.					1	2	3	4	5
A22. Bu kuruluşu bırakmayı düşünemeyeceğim kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum.					1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen aşağıdaki sorular için kuruluşunuzun MEVCUT ORTAMINI düşününüz. Soruları kişisel tecrübelerinize veya gözlemlerinize göre cevaplayınız. Lütfen HER SORU İÇİN verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi belirten sütuna çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz.

ÜST YÖNETİM ile kastımız şirket sahibi veya sahipleri, yönetim kurulu, üst düzey yöneticilerdir.

1	2	3	4	5					
Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum					
B1. Üst yönetimin davranışlarını sağlam ilkeler yönlendiriyor gibi görünüyor.					1	2	3	4	5
B2. Üst yönetim çalışanlara yardım etmek için zahmetlere girer.					1	2	3	4	5
B3. Üst yönetimin hareketleri ve davranışları pek tutarlı değildir.					1	2	3	4	5
B4. Üst yönetim gerçekten çalışanlar için önemli olan şeyleri gözetir.					1	2	3	4	5
B5. Üst yönetim paydaşlarıyla olan ilişkilerinde adil olmak için çok uğraşır.					1	2	3	4	5
B6. Üst yönetim çalışanlarda sadakate, performansa verdiğinden daha fazla önem verir.					1	2	3	4	5
B7. Üst yönetimin güçlü bir adalet duygusu vardır.					1	2	3	4	5
B8. Üst yönetim işyerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.					1	2	3	4	5
B9. Çalışanların ihtiyaçları ve istekleri üst yönetim için çok önemlidir.					1	2	3	4	5
B10. Üst yönetimin yapmaya çalıştığı işlerde başarılı olduğu bilinir.					1	2	3	4	5
B11. Üst yönetim bile bile çalışanları mağdur edecek hiçbir şey yapmaz.					1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5				
Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum				
B12. Üst yönetim çalışanlar için neyin en iyi olduğunu bildiğine inanır.					1	2	3	4	5
B13. Üst yönetimin kabiliyetlerine çok güvenirim.					1	2	3	4	5
B14. Üst yönetim çalışanların iyiliğini çok kollar.					1	2	3	4	5
B15. Üst yönetim bir ebeveynin çocuğundan sorumlu olması gibi, her çalışandan kendini sorumlu hisseder.					1	2	3	4	5
B16. Üst yönetim çalışanlara gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.					1	2	3	4	5
B17. Üst yönetim çalışanlardan birinin özel hayatında yaşadığı problemlerde (örn., eşler arası problemlerde) arabuluculuk yapmaya hazırdır.					1	2	3	4	5
B18. Üst yönetim ihtiyaçları olduğu zaman, çalışanlara iş dışı konularda (örn., ev kurma, çocuk okutma, sağlık, vs.) yardım etmeye hazırdır.					1	2	3	4	5
B19. Üst yönetim çalışanların özel günlerine (örn., nikah, cenaze, mezuniyet vs.) katılır.					1	2	3	4	5
B20. Üst yönetim yapılması gereken işler konusunda çok bilgi sahibidir.					1	2	3	4	5
B21. Üst yönetim çok yetkindir.					1	2	3	4	5
B22. Çalışanlar asla üst yönetimin sözünde durup durmayacağını merak etmek zorunda kalmaz.					1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen aşağıdaki sorular için kuruluşunuzun MEVCUT ORTAMINI düşününüz. Soruları kişisel tecrübelerinize veya gözlemlerinize göre cevaplayınız. Lütfen HER SORU İÇİN katılım derecenizi belirten sütuna çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz.

ÜST YÖNETİM ile kastımız şirket sahibi veya sahipleri, yönetim kurulu, üst düzey yöneticilerdir.

1	2	3	4	5				
Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum				
C1. Çalışanlar karar alma yetkilerinin nerede başlayıp nerede bittiği net değildir.					1	2	3	4	5
C2. Orta kademe yöneticilerin yetkisi kısıtlı olduğundan, çalışanlar üst yönetime direkt hesap vermek zorunda kalabilir.					1	2	3	4	5
C3. Çalışanlar şirketin finansal durumu gibi konularda yeterince bilgilendirilmezler.					1	2	3	4	5
C4. Çalışanlar şirketin geleceği ile ilgili alınan kararlarda yeterince bilgilendirilmezler.					1	2	3	4	5

	1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	5 Tamamen katılıyorum			
C5. Çalışanlar için üst yönetimin işleyişi şeffaf değildir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C6. Çalışanların kazançları performanslarının karşılığı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C7. Üst yönetimin aldığı kararlara itiraz edilmez.	1	2	3	4	5			
C8. Çalışanların işe alınmalarında yetkinliklerinden çok üst yönetimin yakını olmaları belirleyicidir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C9. Çalışanların görevleri olmayan işleri de yapmaları beklenebilir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C10. Çalışanlar için İK uygulamaları şeffaf değildir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C11. Çalışanların yaptığı işler ile ilgili prosedürler olsun olmasın, uygulamalar keyfidir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C12. Üst yönetim süreç uygulamaları tutarsızdır.	1	2	3	4	5			
C13. Çalışanların kazançları emeklerini, çabalarını yansıt<u>ma</u>maktadır.	1	2	3	4	5			
C14. Üst yönetim çalışanların yönetsel süreçler hakkında görüşlerini kaale almaz.	1	2	3	4	5			
C15. Üst yönetim iç işleyişle ilgili gündelik kararları dahi takip eder.	1	2	3	4	5			
C16. Çalışanlar her konuda üst yönetimin müdahalesini hissederler.	1	2	3	4	5			
C17. Üst yönetim alınacak kararlarda çalışanlara fikir sormaz.	1	2	3	4	5			
C18. Çalışanların kazançları yaptıkları işin karşılığı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C19. Çalışanların sorumluluk alanlarına üst yönetim tarafından müdahale edilir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C20. Çalışanlar içinde üst yönetimin kolladığı kişiler vardır.	1	2	3	4	5			
C21. Çalışanların maaş artışı ve terfisi gibi konular üst yönetim ile kurdukları kişisel ilişkilerle belirlenir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C22. İşyerindeki kurallar üst yönetim tarafından sıklıkla değiştirilir.	1	2	3	4	5			
C23. Çalışanların iş sorumluluklarının nerede başlayıp nerede bittiği belli değildir.	1	2	3	4	5			

Aşağıdaki cümlelere ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı öğrenmek istiyoruz. Bu sorulara doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen HER SORU İÇİN verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi belirten sütuna çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz.

1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	5 Tamamen katılıyorum				
D1. İnsanlar fikir anlaşmazlıklarında son sözü en kıdemli kişiye bırakmalıdır.					1	2	3	4	5
D2. Şirketin daha alt kademelerindeki çalışanlar üst kademelerden gelen talepleri sorgulamadan uygulamalıdır.					1	2	3	4	5
D3. Hata yapmayı önlemenin en iyi yolu büyüklerin sözünü dinlemektir.					1	2	3	4	5
D4. Üst kademelerdeki çalışanlar altlarında çalışanlar hakkındaki önemli kararları alma sorumluluğuna sahip olmalıdır.					1	2	3	4	5
D5. Başkalarının bana ne kadar saygı gösterdiği benim için önemlidir.					1	2	3	4	5
D6. Bir kadın evlilikten önce babasına, evlilikten sonra kocasına tabi olmalıdır.					1	2	3	4	5
D7. Çalışanlar firma içindeki kademelerine göre ödüllendirilmelidir.					1	2	3	4	5
D8. Devletin başkanı evin babası gibidir, tüm memleket meselelerinde vatandaş ona itaat etmelidir.					1	2	3	4	5
D9. Şirketin daha alt kademelerindeki çalışanların şirket içinde çok gücü olmamalıdır.					1	2	3	4	5
D10. Benim için itibarım önemlidir.					1	2	3	4	5
D11. Çocuklar, anne-babalarının saygı duyduğu insanları saymalıdır.					1	2	3	4	5
D11. Başkalarının benim hakkımda ne kadar olumlu düşündüğü benim için önemlidir.					1	2	3	4	5
D12. Çalışanlar amirleri ile fikir farklılıklarını ifade etmemelidir.					1	2	3	4	5
D13. İş ile ilgili konularda, yöneticilerin astlarından itaat bekleme hakkı vardır.					1	2	3	4	5

Şirketinizdeki rolünüz nedir?

Şirket çalışanı ……1   Şirket sahibi/ortağı...2   Şirket sahibi/ortağının akrabası….3

Şu andaki pozisyonunuz nedir? (örn., müdür, teknik eleman, ofis çalışanı)

_____

Mevcut şirketinizde kaç yıllık tam zamanlı iş deneyiminiz var?

_____

Toplam kaç yıllık tam zamanlı iş deneyiminiz var?

_____

Cinsiyetiniz?

Kadın…..1   Erkek ….2

Öğrenim durumunuz

İlkokul….1   Ortaokul….2   Lise.…3   Lisans…4   Yüksek lisans/Doktora.....5

Büyüdüğünüz yerin özelliklerini göz önüne alarak yetişme tarzınızı nasıl tanımlarsınız? Cevabınızı halka içine alınız

Çok kırsal 1   2   3   4   5   6   7 Çok kentsel

Anne-babanızın sosyoekonomik düzeyi nedir? 4 rakamının orta sınıfı temsil ettiğini varsayın. Cevabınızı halka içine alınız.

Çok iyoksul 1   2   3   4   5   6   7 Çok varlıklı

Kendinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız? Cevabınızı halka içine alınız.

Hiç inançlı bir insan değilim 1   2   3   4   5   6   7 Çok inançlı bir insanım

Ailenizin siz büyürkenki dönemde (5-15 yaş arası) size karşı davranışlarını nasıl tanımlarsınız.? Cevabınızı halka içine alınız.

Hiç sıkı yetiştirilmedim 1   2   3   4   5   6   7 Çok sıkı yetiştirildim

GÖRÜŞÜLEN KİŞİNİN ADI SOYADI:……………………………………………..

ÇALIŞILAN FİRMA:………………………………………………………….

TELEFONU:…………………………………………………………………..

İL:……………………………………………………………………………..

ANKETİ DOLDURAN ÜSTÜNÜN ADI SOYADI:…………………………..

ANKETÖR ADI SOYADI:…………………………………………………..

İşDeneyimleriAnketi

Bu anket, Sabancı Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nde yürütülen akademik bir araştırmanın parçasıdır. Çalışmanın amacı, katılımcıların iş yerleri ile ilgili değerlendirmelerini ölçmektir. Size kuruluşunuzun yapısı, çalışanların performansı konularında görüşleriniz sorulmaktadır. Anketi tamamlamak yaklaşık 10 dakikanızı alacaktır.

Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Eğer soruları yanıtlamak istemezseniz anketi bırakabilirsiniz. Cevaplarınızın TAMAMEN GİZLİ kalacağını, araştırmacılar dışında, işyerinizden ilgili kişiler dahil tüm üçüncü şahıslarla PAYLAŞILMAYACAĞINI bilmenizi isteriz. Anketin hiçbir kısmında SİZİ veya İŞYERİNİZİ TANIMLAYACAK ÖZEL BİR BİLGİ (isim vb.) İSTENİLMEMEKTEDİR. Cevaplarınız sayısal (istatistiksel) olarak değerlendirilecek ve sonuçlar sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacaktır.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Sabancı Üniversitesi Yönetim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nden Prof. Dr. S. Arzu Wasti (awasti@sabanciuniv.edu, 216 483 9663) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz. Hak ihlali olduğunu düşünüyorsanız Sabancı Üniversitesi Araştırma ve Lisansüstü Politikalar Direktörü Cengiz Kaya'ya (cengizkaya@sabanciuniv.edu, 216 483 9666) başvurabilirsiniz.

İlginiz ve zamanınız için çok teşekkür ederiz. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sizin görüşlerinizi yansıtan ve içtenlikle vereceğiniz eksiksiz cevaplar bizim için en yararlı olanlardır.

Araştırma ile ilgili yukarıda belirtilen hususları okudum ve anladım. Bana bu onam formunun kopyasının istersem verilebileceğini biliyorum. Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman bırakabileceğimi, bıraktığım takdirde verilerimin imha edileceğini biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Imza _____   Tarih_____

Öncelikle sizi ve iş ortamınızı kısaca tanımak istiyoruz. Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları yanıtlayınız.

Cinsiyetiniz? Kadın…..1 Erkek ….2

Öğrenim durumunuz

İlkokul/Ortaokul…….1 Lise…….2 Lisans…...3 Yüksek lisans/Doktora…...4

Şirketinizdeki rolünüz?

Şirket çalışanı ………1 Şirket sahibi/ortağı….2 Şirket sahibi/ortağının akrabası….3

Şirketinizin sermaye yapısı?

100% yerli…………1 100% yabancı……….2 Yerli ve yabancı ortaklığı………...3

Şirketinizin ortaklık yapısı?

Tek sahipli……………………….1 İkiden fazla ortak (en az bir ortak aile
İki ortak (aile fertleri)…………….2 dışı)……5
İki ortak (aile dışı)……………….3 Holding…………………………………
İkiden fazla ortak (tüm ortaklar aile …..6
fertleri)…..4

Lütfen aile ve aile dışı sahiplerin hisselerinin oranlarını yazınız: Aile % ____ Aile dışı %_____

Aile şirketiyse lütfen firmanın kurucusunu birinci jenerasyon olarak düşünürek aşağıdaki soruları yanıtlayınız:

Firmanın sahibi hangi jenerasyondur? _____

Firmanın yöneticileri hangi jenerasyondur/jenerasyonlardır? _____

Kaç aile üyesi firmada aktiftir (örn., firmada çalışan, yönetim/icra kurulunda, veya hissedar)?_____

Şirketiniz halka açık mıdır? Evet …1 Hayır...2

Şirketinizin çalışan sayısı kaçtır?
1-10………1 251-500… 4
11-50…….2 501-1000 5
51-250…...3 1001+… 6

Hangi sektörde çalışmaktasınız?_____

Mevcut şirketinizde kaç yıllık tam zamanlı iş deneyiminiz var?_____

Toplam kaç yıllık tam zamanlı iş deneyiminiz var?_____

Şuandakipozisyonunuznedir (örn., satınalmamüdürü) ?_____

Lütfen mevcut şirketinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadeleri değerlendiriniz. Verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi en iyi ifade eden rakamı halka içine alınız.

1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	5 Tamamen katılıyorum				
A1. Şirketimizin çok sayıda yazılı kuralı ve prosedürü vardır.					1	2	3	4	5
A2. Şirket yönetmelikleri ve kuralları herkesin erişimindedir.					1	2	3	4	5
A3. Şirketteki pozisyonların çoğu için yazılı görev tanımları vardır.					1	2	3	4	5
A4. Çalışanların çoğunun (ya da hepsinin) performansı yazılı olarak kaydedilir.					1	2	3	4	5
A5. İşe yeni başlayanlar için hazırlanmış bir oryantasyon programı vardır					1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen bu araştırma için seçtiğinizastınızı düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadeleri değerlendiriniz. Verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi en iyi ifade eden rakamı halka içine alınız.

Bu astım............								
1 Hiç Yapmaz	2 Seyrek Yapar	3 Bazen Yapar	4 Sıklıkla Yapar	5 Neredeyse Her Zaman Yapar				
B1. Bana kişisel jestler yapar (örneğin, eşimin/çocuğumun bir işini halleder)					1	2	3	4	5
B2. Özellikle bana yardım olsun diye görevi olmayan işleri yapmayı teklif eder					1	2	3	4	5
B3. Görünüşüm veya kıyafetime iltifat eder					1	2	3	4	5
B4. Başarılarımı metheder					1	2	3	4	5
B5. Kişisel hayatıma ilgi gösterir					1	2	3	4	5
B6. Benimle iletişiminde kibar olmaya gayret gösterir					1	2	3	4	5

B7. Benimle iyi geçinmeye gayret gösterir	1	2	3	4	5
B8. Örnek çalışan gibi davranmaya çalışır, örneğin, yemek arasını hiç uzatmaz	1	2	3	4	5
B9. Sonuçlarını göreceğimi bildiği zamanlarda çok çalışır	1	2	3	4	5
B10. İşini iyi yapmaya gayret ettiğini bana belli eder	1	2	3	4	5

Bu astım............

1 Hiç Yapmaz	2 Seyrek Yapar	3 Bazen Yapar	4 Sıklıkla Yapar	5 Neredeyse Her Zaman Yapar

C1. Görüş farklılıkları da olsa, çalışma grubuna/departmana bedelleri olabilecek problemler hakkında açıkça konuşur	1	2	3	4	5
C2. İş arkadaşlarıyla ilişkilerini olumsuz etkileyecek de olsa, çalışma grubunda/departmanda ortaya çıkan problemlere dikkat çekmeye cesaret eder	1	2	3	4	5
C3. İyi bir izlenim bırakmak için işe erken gelir	1	2	3	4	5
C4. Çalışma grubu/departman için faydalı olacak yeni projeler önerir	1	2	3	4	5
C5. Çalışma grubunun/departmanın süreçlerini iyileştirecek önerilerde bulunur	1	2	3	4	5
C6. Çalışma grubunun/departmanın işleyişini iyileştirecek yapıcı öneriler geliştirmek	1	2	3	4	5
C7. İş performansını olumsuz etkileyecek davranışları konusunda iş arkadaşlarını uyarmak	1	2	3	4	5
C8. İyi bir izlenim bırakmak için iş saatlerinden sonra da çalışır	1	2	3	4	5
C9. Fikirlerimi över	1	2	3	4	5
C10. Bana aktarırken, iyi performansının altını çizer	1	2	3	4	5

Yine aynı astınızı düşünerek lütfen şu soruları yanıtlayınız. Lütfen HER SORU İÇİN verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi en iyi ifade eden rakamı halka içine alınız.

Bu astım(ın)............									
1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	5 Tamamen katılıyorum					
D1. bu zamana kadar gördüğüm astlarımdan daha üstün niteliklere sahip.					1	2	3	4	5
D2. performansı mükemmel.					1	2	3	4	5
D3. kişisel değerlendirmeme göre toplamda çok etkin bir çalışan.					1	2	3	4	5
D4. görev ve sorumluluklarını etkin bir şekilde yerine getiriyor					1	2	3	4	5

GÖRÜŞÜLEN KİŞİNİN ADI SOYADI:…………………………………………..

ÇALIŞILAN FİRMA:………………………………………………………….

TELEFONU:……………………………………………………………………

İL:………………………………………………………………………………..

ANKETİ DOLDURAN ASTININ ADI SOYADI:………………………………..

ANKETÖR ADI SOYADI:………………………………………………………..

Formalization
Oldham and Hackman (1981)

F1	The organization has a very large number of written rules and procedures	Şirketimizin çok sayıda yazılı kuralı ve prosedürü vardır.
F2	A "rules and procedures" manual exists and is readily available within this organization	Şirket yönetmelikleri ve kuralları herkesin erişimindedir.
F3	There is a complete written job description for most jobs in this organization	Şirketteki pozisyonların çoğu için yazılı görev tanımları vardır.
F4	The organization keeps a written record of nearly everyone's job performance	Çalışanların çoğunun (ya da hepsinin) performansı yazılı olarak kaydedilir.
F5	There is a formal orientation program for most new members of the organization	İşe yeni başlayanlar için hazırlanmış bir oryantasyon programı vardır.

Impression Management
Wayne and Liden (1995) and Wayne and Green (1993)

IM1	Do personal favors to me (for example, getting me coffee or coke, etc.)	Bana kişisel jestler yapar (örneğin, eşimin/çocuğumun bir işini halleder)
IM2	Offer to do something for me, which he is not required to do	Özellikle bana yardım olsun diye görevi olmayan işleri yapmayı teklif eder
IM3	Compliment me on my dress	Görünüşüme veya kıyafetime iltifat eder
IM4	Praise me for my accomplishments	Başarılarımı metheder
IM5	Take an interest in my personal life	Kişisel hayatıma ilgi gösterir
IM6	Try to be polite when interacting with me	Benimle iletişiminde kibar olmaya gayret gösterir
IM7	Try to be friendly when interacting with me	Benimle iyi geçinmeye gayret gösterir
IM8	Try to act as a "model" employee, for example, never taking longer than establish time for lunch	Örnek çalışan gibi davranmaya çalışır, örneğin, yemek arasını hiç uzatmaz
IM9	Work hard when knowing that I will see the results	Sonuçlarını göreceğimi bildiği zamanlarda çok çalışır
IM10	Let me know that he wants to do a good job.	İşini iyi yapmaya gayret ettiğini bana belli eder
IM11	Arrive at work early in order to make a good impression	İyi bir izlenim bırakmak için işe erken gelir
IM12	Work later than the regular hours in order to make a good impression	İyi bir izlenim bırakmak için iş saatlerinden sonra da çalışır
IM13	Praise my ideas	Fikirlerimi över
IM14	Accentuate his/her job performance when describing it to me	Bana aktarırken, iyi performansının altını çizer

Promotive Voice and Prohibitive Voice
Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012)

PV1 Promotive voice	Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.	Çalışma grubu/departmanı için faydalı olacak yeni projeler önerir
PV2 Promotive voice	Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure	Çalışma grubunun/departmanın süreçlerini iyileştirecek önerilerde bulunur
PV3 Promotive voice	Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.	Çalışma grubunun/departmanın işleyişini iyileştirecek yapıcı öneriler geliştirir
PHV1 Prohibitive voice	Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.	Görüş farklılıkları da olsa, çalışma grubuna/departmana bedelleri olabilecek problemler hakkında açıkça konuşur
PHV2 Prohibitive voice	Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.	İş arkadaşlarıyla ilişkilerini olumsuz etkileyecek de olsa, çalışma grubunda/departmanda ortaya çıkan problemlere dikkat çekmeye cesaret eder
PHV3 Prohibitive voice	Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.	İş performansını olumsuz etkileyecek davranışlar konusunda iş arkadaşlarını uyarır

<div align="center">

Employee Performance
Wayne and Liden (1995)

</div>

P1	This subordinate is superior to other subordinates	Bu zamana kadar gördüğüm astlarımdan daha üstün niteliklere sahip
P2	Performance is excellent	Performansı mükemmel
P3	In your personal evaluation hi/she is very effective	Kişisel değerlendirmeme göre toplamda çok etkin bir çalışan.
P4	He is fulfilling his roles and responsibility very effectively	Görev ve sorumluluklarını etkin bir şekilde yerine getiriyor

<div align="center">

Patron Şirketi (PŞ)

Koçak, Wasti, Yosun, Bozer, and Dural (2014)

</div>

PŞ1 Intervention	Employees' discretion in decision making is unclear.	Çalışanların karar alma yetkilerinin nerede başlayıp nerede bittiği net değildir.
PŞ2 Intervention	Because middle management has limited authority, employees may have to be accountable directly to top management.	Orta kademe yöneticilerin yetkisi kısıtlı olduğundan, çalışanlar üst yönetime direkt hesap vermek zorunda kalabilir.
PŞ3 Transparency	Employees are insufficiently informed about topics like the financial situation of the company.	Çalışanlar şirketin finansal durumu gibi konularda yeterince bilgilendirilmezler.
PŞ4 Transparency	Employees are insufficiently informed about decisions regarding the future of the company.	Çalışanlar şirketin geleceği ile ilgili alınan kararlarda yeterince bilgilendirilmezler.
PŞ5 Transparency	How top management operates is not transparent to employees.	Çalışanlar için üst yönetimin işleyişi şeffaf değildir.
PŞ6 Favoritism	Whether one is close to top management matters in employee selection decisions.	Çalışanların işe alınmalarında yetkinliklerinden çok üst yönetimin yakını olmaları belirleyicidir.
PŞ7 Arbitrariness	Employees are expected to do tasks that are not their responsibility.	Çalışanların görevleri olmayan işleri de yapmaları beklenebilir.
PŞ8 Transparency	HR practices are not transparent for the employees.	Çalışanlar için İK uygulamaları şeffaf değildir.
PŞ9 Arbitrariness	Even if there are procedures, their implementation is arbitrary.	Çalışanların yaptığı işler ile ilgili prosedürler olsun olmasın, uygulamalar keyfidir.
PŞ10 Intervention	Top management monitors even daily (mundane) internal operational decisions.	Üst yönetim iç işleyişle ilgili gündelik kararları dahi takip eder.
PŞ11 Intervention	Employees feel the intervention of top management in all issues.	Çalışanlar her konuda üst yönetimin müdahalesini hissederler.
PŞ12 Intervention	Top management interferes with employees' areas of responsibility.	Çalışanların sorumluluk alanlarına üst yönetim tarafından müdahale edilir.
PŞ13 Favoritism	Some employees are protected by top management	Çalışanlar içinde üst yönetimin kolladığı kişiler vardır
PŞ14 Favoritism	Pay and promotion decisions are determined by employees' closeness to top management	Çalışanların maaş artışı ve terfisi gibi konular üst yönetim ile kurdukları kişisel ilişkilere göre belirlenir
PŞ15 Arbitrariness	Top management frequently changes the rules	İşyerindeki kurallar üst yönetim tarafından sıklıkla değiştirilir.
PŞ16 Arbitrariness	Employees' responsibilities are not clear	Çalışanların iş sorumluklarının nerede başlayıp nerede bittiği belli değildir.

*In the final scale onlu PŞ1, PŞ5, PŞ6, PŞ7, PŞ8, PŞ9, PŞ13, PŞ14, PŞ15 and PŞ16 were include

Organizational Injustice
Colquitt, Long, Rodell, and Halvorsen-Ganepola, (2015)

J1 procedural injustice	It is not possible to appeal the decisions of upper management	Üst yönetimin aldığı kararlara itiraz edilmez.
J2 procedural injustice	Upper management do not consider the views of the employees in relation to administrative operations	Üst yönetim çalışanların yönetsel süreçler hakkında görüşlerini kaale almaz.
J3 procedural injustice	Upper management procedures are not applied consistently	Üst yönetimin süreç uygulamaları tutarsızdır.
J4 procedural injustice	Upper management does not ask employees views and feelings about work procedures	Üst yönetim alınacak kararlarda çalışanlara fikir sormaz.
DJ1 distributive injustice	Employees earnings does not reflect their performance	Çalışanların kazançları performanslarının karşılığı değildir.
DJ2 distributive injustice	Employees earnings does not reflect their efforts	Çalışanların kazançları emeklerini, çabalarını yansıtmamaktadır.
DJ3 distributive injustice	Employees earnings is not appropriate for the work they complete	Çalışanların kazançları yaptıkları işin karşılığı değildir.

Organizational Commitment
Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)

AC1	I feel strong emotional attachment to this organization	Bu kuruluşa kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissediyorum
AC2	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me	Bu kuruluşun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.
AC3	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization	Kuruluşuma karşı çok güçlü bir aitlik hissim var.
NC1	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.
NC2	I would feel guilty if I left this organization now	Kuruluşumdan şimdi ayrılsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.
NC3	I would not leave the company at this time due to the responsibility I feel towards the people here	Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.
CC1 (HiSac)	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decide to leave my organization now	Şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmaya karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.
CC2 (HiSac)	Personally, leaving this company will cost more than the benefits it may bring	Kişisel olarak bu kuruluştan ayrılmanın maliyeti getirisinden çok daha fazla.
CC3 (HiSac)	I would not leave the company because of what I would loose	Kaybedeceklerim açısından bu kuruluştan ayrılmazdım.
CCLA1 (LoAlt)	The only negative consequence of leaving this organization would be scarcity of alternatives	Bu kuruluştan ayrılmamın neredeyse tek olumsuz tarafı alternatif iş kıtlığı olurdu.
CCLA2 (LoAlt)	The reason that I continue working for this organization is because I do not have other options	Bu kuruluşta çalışmaya devam etmemin sebebi başka imkanların olmaması.
CCLA3 (LoAlt)	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the organization	Bu kuruluşu bırakmayı düşünemeyeceğim kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum.

Organizational Trustworthiness
Mayer and Davis (1999)

T1I	Sound principles seem to guide top management's behaviors	Üst yönetimin davranışlarını sağlam ilkeler yönlendiriyor gibi görünüyor.
T2B	Top management will go out of his way to help me.	Üst yönetim çalışanlara yardım etmek için zahmetlere girer.
T3I R	Top management's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.	Üst yönetimin hareketleri ve davranışları pek tutarlı değildir.
T4 B	Top management really looks out for what is important to employees	Üst yönetim gerçekten çalışanlar için önemli olan şeyleri gözetir.
T5 I	Top management tries hard to be fair in dealing with others	Üst yönetim paydaşlarıyla olan ilişkilerinde adil olmak için çok uğraşır
T6 I	Top management has a strong sense of justice.	Üst yönetimin güçlü bir adalet duygusu vardır.
T7B	Employees needs and desires are very important to the top management	Çalışanların ihtiyaçları ve istekleri üst yönetim için çok önemlidir.
T8 A	Top management knows to be successful at things it tries to do	Üst yönetimin yapmaya çalıştığı işlerde başarılı olduğu bilinir.
T9 B	Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt the employees	Üst yönetim bile bile çalışanları mağdur edecek hiçbir şey yapmaz.
T10A	I feel very confident about my top management skills.	Üst yönetimin kabiliyetlerine çok güvenirim.
T11B	Top management is concerned about employee's welfare.	Üst yönetim çalışanların iyiliğini çok kollar.
T12A	Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done.	Üst yönetim yapılması gereken işler konusunda çok bilgi sahibidir.
T13A	Upper management is very capable.	Üst yönetim çok yetkindir
T14 I	Employees never have to wonder if top management will stick to its word.	Çalışanlar asla üst yönetimin sözünde durup durmayacağını merak etmek zorunda kalmaz.

I1 I scale	This organization promises support for personal problems that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışana olmadığı kadar kişisel problemlerime destek olmaktadır.
I2 I scale	This organization promises me a level of pay that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın almadığı seviyede bir maaş vermektedir.
I3 I scale	This organization promises me advancement opportunities that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda yükselme imkanı tanımaktadır.
I4 I scale	This organization promises me skill training that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı kadar eğitim imkanı sağlamaktadır.
I5 I scale	This organization promises me career development opportunities that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışana vermediği kariyer sözü vermiştir.
I6 I scale	This organization promises me a level of job security that most employees in my team/unit do not get.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda iş güvencesi sağlamaktadır.
IA1 indigenous	Upper management have allowed me more access to them than most of the people in my team and department.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda kendilerine erişim imkanı vermiştir.
IA2 indigenous	Upper management allow me to have exemptions to most of the procedures that many people in my team and department must adhere to.	Üst yönetim beni ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın uymak zorunda olduğu formalitelerden muaf tutar.
IA3 indigenous	Upper management allow me to have access to more information and sources than many of the people in my team and department.	Üst yönetim bana ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın sahip olmadığı oranda bilgiye/kaynağa erişim imkanı vermiştir.
IA4 indigenous	Upper management allow me to have exemptions to most of the rules that many people in my team and department must adhere to.	Üst yönetim beni ekibimdeki/bölümümdeki çoğu çalışanın uymak zorunda olduğu kurallardan muaf tutar.

Paternalistic Top Management
(adapted from Aycan, 2005)

P1 Loyalty expectation	Top management places more importance to loyalty than performance in evaluating employees	Üst yönetim çalışanlarda sadakate, performansa verdiğinden daha fazla önem verir.
P2 Family atmosphere at work	Top management creates a family environment in the workplace	Üst yönetim işyerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.
P3 Status hierarchy and authority	Top management believes that s / he knows what is best for his or her employees.	Üst yönetim çalışanlar için neyin en iyi olduğunu bildiğine inanır.
P4 Family atmosphere at work	Top management feels responsible from employees as if they are his or her own children.	Üst yönetim bir ebeveynin çocuğundan sorumlu olması gibi, her çalışanından kendini sorumlu hisseder.
P5 Loyalty expectation	Top management expects loyalty and deference in exchange for his or her care and nurturance.	Üst yönetim çalışanlara gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.
P6 Involvement in employees' non-work lives	Top management is prepared to act as a mediator whenever an employee has problem in his or her private life (e.g. marital problems).	Üst yönetim çalışanlardan birinin özel hayatında yaşadığı problemlerde (örn., eşler arası problemlerde) arabuluculuk yapmaya hazırdır.
P7 Involvement in employees' non-work lives	Top management is ready to help employees with their non-work problems (e.g. housing, education of the children, health etc.) whenever they need it	Üst yönetim ihtiyaçları olduğu zaman, çalışanlara iş dışı konularda (örn., ev kurma, çocuk okutma, sağlık, vs.) yardım etmeye hazırdır.
P8 Involvement in employees' non-work lives	Top management attends special events of employees (e.g. weddings and funeral ceremonies, graduations etc.)	Üst yönetim çalışanların özel günlerine (örn., nikah, cenaze, mezuniyet vs.) katılır.

Traditionality
Yang, Yu, and Yeh (1989)

Trad1	When people are in dispute, they should ask the most senior colleague to decide who is right	İnsanlar fikir anlaşmazlıklarında son sözü en kıdemli kişiye bırakmalıdır.
Trad2	The best way to avoid mistakes is to follow the instructions of senior persons	Hata yapmayı önlemenin en iyi yolu büyüklerin sözünü dinlemektir.
Trad3	Before marriage, a woman should subordinate herself to her father. After marriage, to her husband	Bir kadın evlilikten önce babasına, evlilikten sonra kocasına tabi olmalıdır.
Trad4	The president of the state is like the head of a household, subordinates should obey his decisions on all company matters	Devletin başkanı evin babası gibidir, tüm memleket meselelerinde vatandaş ona itaat etmelidir.
Trad5	Children must respect the people that their parents respect.	Çocuklar, anne-babalarının saygı duyduğu insanları saymalıdır.