

EXAMINING BEHAVIORAL RESPONSES TO INDIVIDUAL JOB
INSECURITY AND JOB INSECURITY CLIMATE

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INSECURITY AND JOB INSECURITY CLIMATE**

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ABSTRACT

EXAMINING BEHAVIORAL RESPONSES TO INDIVIDUAL JOB INSECURITY AND JOB INSECURITY CLIMATE

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Having a job is essential in numerous ways for many individuals to sustain their lives. Perceiving a threat regarding the future of the job (i.e., job insecurity), on the other hand, is one of the most substantial work stressors associated with many adverse impacts. Job insecurity has traditionally been viewed as an individual experience; however, there can be a climate of job insecurity representing a collective concern. The overall aim of this thesis was to examine the job insecurity construct and its relation to employee behaviors. Two empirical studies were conducted to investigate this aim. Study 1 tested the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct and how different dimensions relate to exit, voice (considerate), loyalty, and neglect in a sample of employees in Turkey. The results showed that job insecurity had a four-dimensional structure containing individual and climate job insecurity, both with the concerns about losing the job itself (quantitative job insecurity) and valuable job features (qualitative job insecurity). Different dimensions had distinct relationships with behaviors, and job insecurity climate had incremental validity beyond individual job insecurity in

explaining exit and loyalty. Study 2 investigated the effects of job insecurity dimensions on different voice responses in a sample of unionized employees in Turkey. The results indicated that qualitative aspects of job insecurity were more potent in predicting unionized employees' voice than quantitative aspects. Overall, the findings demonstrate the importance of considering the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct to reach a better understanding of this phenomenon and its effects on employee behaviors.

Keywords: Job Insecurity Climate, Exit, Voice, Loyalty, Neglect

ÖZ

BİREYSEL İŞ GÜVENCESİZLİĞİ VE İŞ GÜVENCESİZLİĞİ İKLİMİNE KARŞI GÖSTERİLEN DAVRANIŞSAL TEPKİLERİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

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İş sahibi olmak, birçok bireyin hayatını devam ettirebilmesi için çeşitli bakımlardan gereklidir. Öte yandan, işin gelecekteki durumuna ilişkin bir tehdit algılamak ise (iş güvencesizliği) pek çok olumsuz sonuç ile ilişkili bulunan önemli iş stresörlerinden birisidir. İş güvencesizliği geleneksel olarak bireysel bir deneyim olarak değerlendirilmiştir; ancak, toplu bir endişeyi temsil eden bir iş güvencesizliği iklimi deneyiminden de söz etmek mümkün olabilir. Bu tezin genel amacı, iş güvencesizliği algısının yapısını ve bu algının çalışanların davranışları ile olan ilişkisini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, mevcut tez kapsamında iki görgül çalışma yapılmıştır. Çalışma 1, Türkiye'deki çalışanlardan oluşan bir örneklem üzerinde, iş güvencesizliği yapısının boyutsallığını ve farklı boyutların işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme (düşünceli), sadakat ve kayıtsızlık ile olan ilişkisini test etmiştir. Sonuçlar iş güvencesizliğinin her ikisi de işin kendisini (nicel iş güvencesizliği) ve değerli iş özelliklerini kaybetme (nitel iş güvencesizliği) yönlerini içeren bireysel iş güvencesizliği ve iş güvencesizliği iklimi algılarından oluşan dört boyutlu bir yapıya

sahip olabileceğini göstermiştir. Dört iş güvencesizliği boyutunun araştırma kapsamında incelenen davranışlar ile farklı şekillerde ilişkilendiği ve iş güvencesizliği ikliminin işten ayrılma ve sadakat tepkilerini yordama konusunda bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısının ötesinde artan bir geçerliğe sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Çalışma 2, Türkiye'de sendikalı çalışanlardan oluşan bir örnekleme iş güvencesizliği boyutlarının farklı sesini yükseltme tepkileri üzerindeki etkisini araştırmıştır. Sonuçlar iş güvencesizliğinin nitel yönlerinin, sendikalı çalışanların sesini yükseltme tepkisini tahmin etme konusunda nicel yönlere göre daha etkili olabileceğini göstermiştir. Genel olarak bulgular, iş güvencesizliği olgusunu ve bu olgunun çalışanların davranışsal tepkileri üzerindeki etkilerini daha iyi anlayabilmek için iş güvencesizliği yapısının boyutsallığını dikkate almanın önemine işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İş Güvencesizliği İklimi, İşten Ayrılma, Sesini Yükseltme, Sadakat, Kayıtsızlık

To all employees struggling with precariousness

To my dear son Toprak

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL OVERVIEW

Work is a crucial aspect of life for many individuals, as it fulfills fundamental human needs by providing financial resources, ensuring personal development opportunities, allowing individuals to establish social contacts, and configuring the time (Blustein, 2008; Jahoda, 1982; Warr, 1987). The threat of losing this valuable resource, the job insecurity perception, can be destructive since it reveals the probability that all these gains brought by the work are endangered. The concern about the future of the job has been a stress resource for those who experience it, and this experience has been in focus for research over the past three decades. The precarious employment situation that has arisen from the technological, economic, and political changes surrounding the labor market are among the drivers of this concern (Benach et al., 2014). In particular, technological developments leading to automatization and flexible employment contracts, global competition raising the demand on the employees to do more with less, and global economic crises bringing organizational downsizing, restructuring, and outsource laboring have increased the concerns of job loss among the workforce (Benach et al., 2014; Kalleberg, 2011).

The immediate job loss is emphasized among the main stressful life events like the death of a spouse, divorce, and personal injury or illnesses (Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Scully, Tosi, & Banning, 2000). Even if individuals have not yet lost their job, the prolonged threat to the continuity of the job is a vital work stressor that is associated with detrimental outcomes as much as or even more than unemployment (De Witte, 1999; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Griep et al., 2015). A large number of studies have shown the adverse impact of job insecurity on employees' well-being, health, job, and organizational attitudes, and, despite relatively few in numbers (Sverke, Låstad,

Hellgren, Richter, & Näswall, 2019; Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015), also on employee behaviors (see Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2019, Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002, for meta-analyses).

Individuals respond to stressful environmental conditions in different ways. In the organizational behavior literature, researchers have often utilized the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect (EVLN) framework (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982) to explain employee reactions to dissatisfying employment conditions (e.g., Farrell, 1983; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). The EVLN framework mainly asserts that individuals react to organizational problems by leaving the organization (exit), trying to affect the organization in the desired way (voice), staying loyal to the organization (loyalty), or protesting through neglect (neglect).

The EVLN model has also found a place in the job insecurity literature (e.g., Berntson, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010; Davis-Blake, Broschak, & George, 2003; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). In general, findings indicate that job insecurity is associated with increased exit (Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001) and decreased loyalty (typically measured in the form of organizational commitment; Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003). Although the job insecurity and neglect relationship has been comparatively less studied, findings showing the positive relations between organizational downsizing and long-term sick leave (Vahtera, Kivimaki, & Pentti, 1997) and between job insecurity and avoidance (Roskies, Louis-Guerin, & Fournier, 1993) allow inferences about this relationship. When it comes to job insecurity and voice relationships, the results are mixed. The disparate findings regarding that relationship (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001) display the need for a more detailed examination of the voice response and its relationship with job insecurity.

A notable issue with job insecurity is how this phenomenon is conceptualized. Job insecurity has typically been defined as a “sense of powerlessness to maintain desired

continuity in a threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p. 438). What is perceived under threat in this definition may be the job itself (i.e., quantitative job insecurity) or valuable job features (i.e., qualitative job insecurity) (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 1999). Besides, although job insecurity has been considered as an individual phenomenon, recent studies have emphasized that such insecurity perceptions may also be understood as a collective perception (i.e., job insecurity climate, see Jiang & Probst, 2016; Låstad, Berntson, Näswall, Lindfors, & Sverke, 2015; Låstad, Näswall, Berntson, Seddigh, & Sverke, 2018; Låstad, Vander Elst, & De Witte, 2016; Mauno, De Cuyper, Tolvanen, Kinnunen, & Mäkikangas, 2014; Sora, Caballer, Peiró, & De Witte, 2009; Sora, De Cuyper, Caballer, Peiró, & De Witte, 2013). These variations in defining job insecurity indicate that this phenomenon’s conceptual structure needs to be better understood; herewith, the theoretical formulations surrounding it may be established more firmly. With the overarching aim to increase the existing knowledge on job insecurity, the present thesis aimed to look at the job insecurity construct with a more holistic approach, test its dimensionality, and examine the associations between job insecurity dimensions and employees’ exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses.

While structuring this thesis and collecting data, job insecurity was already a challenging situation that employees had to handle. However, the COVID-19 pandemic, which emerged after the research data were collected, perhaps made the job insecurity issue even more severe. Although our current knowledge about the COVID-19 pandemic and its possible impacts on the world are not definitive to arrive at conclusions, the available information indicates that it will have widespread effects on the global economy and labor market conditions. A recent report of the International Labor Organization (ILO, June 2020) pointed to the impacts of COVID-19 on labor market disruptions in the first half of 2020. The report emphasizes the effects of workplace closures. It also points out that the vast majority of employees worldwide (93%) continue to live in countries where some form of workplace closure is being implemented. The report also mentions the working-hour loss by stating that during the first quarter of 2020, an estimated 5.4% of global working hours, which equals 155 million full-time jobs, were lost relative to the fourth quarter of 2019. This unexpected

and unique situation that the world faces nowadays can be expected to produce dramatic impacts on the labor market, and apparently for employees and organizations. Speculatively, similar to the Great Recession period experienced in 2008, organizational policies may have a new wave of transformation due to the economic turmoil stemming from company closures and low organizational efficacy associated with working hour losses. Although it is hard to predict the future of the labor market conditions in this uncertain environment, it is quite apparent that unemployment and job insecurity will continue to be conspicuous employment issues in the future.

1.1. The Present Thesis

In the relevant literature, job insecurity has often been described as an individual concern about losing one's current job, and the potential effects of this concern on individuals and organizations have been examined in many studies. Although the concern about losing the current job has found its place in the first depictions of job insecurity (e.g., Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984), the concern about losing valued job features – and especially its potential influence on employees' behavioral responses – has received only a limited research interest (Sverke et al., 2019). Beyond that, the recent approach defining job insecurity as a collective experience has brought a different perspective to this phenomenon and pointed to a new research area.

On this ground, the present thesis aimed to contribute to an increased understanding of the job insecurity construct by testing the construct distinctiveness of individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate and examining how different job insecurity dimensions relate to employee behaviors on two different samples.

Figure 1 presents the constructs and relationships investigated in the thesis. It demonstrates that job insecurity can exist in the form of individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate, both with quantitative and qualitative dimensions; the figure also indicates that these dimensions may be associated with exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. Given the contradictory findings regarding voice and its relationship with job

insecurity (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001), this specific response was handled in detail by including different voice forms (i.e., considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation) as can be seen in the conceptual model examined in this thesis. The associations between job insecurity dimensions and these four voice responses were examined among unionized employees in Turkey. In the union context, perceived union support was considered an essential factor that may affect the effect of job insecurity on employee voice, so it was included as a moderator in the model. The demographic variables age, gender, education, and sector were controlled in the analyses to eliminate their possible effects on the associations between job insecurity and the outcome variables.

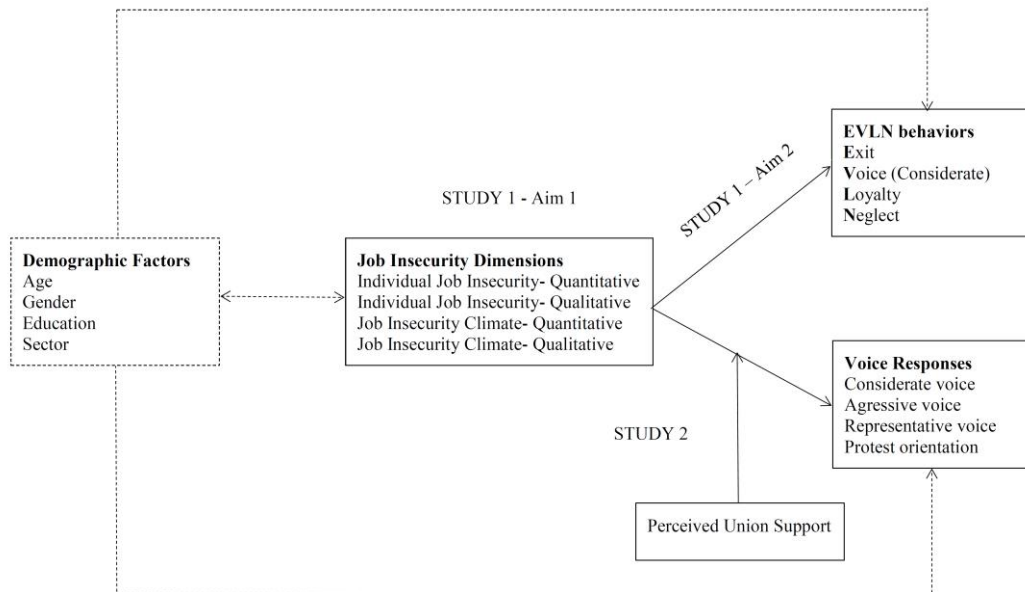


Figure 1 Overview of the constructs and relationships examined in the thesis.

In this thesis, two empirical studies were conducted to examine three specific aims using two data sets.

The *first aim* was to investigate the factor structure of the job insecurity construct and test whether it comprises four dimensions, including individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate, both with quantitative and qualitative aspects. These four dimensions can be seen in the job insecurity dimensions box in Figure 1, and the first aim was tested in Study 1 - Aim 1.

The *second aim* was to explore the effects of the four job insecurity dimensions on exit, voice (i.e., considerate voice), loyalty, and neglect and investigate whether job insecurity climate can have incremental validity over individual job insecurity in predicting these outcomes. The second aim is illustrated in Figure 1 by the arrows from the job insecurity dimensions box to the EVLN behaviors box and tested in Study 1 - Aim 2.

The *third aim* was to look at the voice construct in more detail and examine the relationship between the four job insecurity dimensions and considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation. The specified relationships were investigated in Study 2 on data collected from unionized employees in Turkey. Perceived union support was examined as a moderator. In Figure 1, the arrows from the job insecurity dimensions box to the voice responses box and from perceived union support to the arrow between job insecurity dimensions and voice responses boxes display the third aim.

CHAPTER 2

INTRODUCTION

2.1. The Job Insecurity Construct

In this chapter, a literature review on the job insecurity construct is presented to provide a theoretical basis for the two studies in which the aims of this thesis were examined. In this regard, the issues emphasized in this chapter concern how job insecurity is defined, what its dimensions are, how it is measured, what its consequences and the moderators shaping its effects are.

2.1.1. Defining Job Insecurity

Like the changes and transformations seen in working-life, the job insecurity phenomenon has been defined in various ways. Although original research attention focusing on the predictability regarding the future of one's job focused on job *security* as a motivator in extensive work climate inventories (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Ivancevich, 1974; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970), subsequent research since the 1980s turned to view job *insecurity* as a work stressor (De Witte, Pienaar, & De Cuyper, 2016). Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's (1984) research on job insecurity brought a systematic approach to this subject. Since then, empirical research addressing job insecurity as a stressor has flourished, as seen in several literature reviews (e.g., De Witte, 1999, 2005; Lee, Huang, & Ashford; 2018; Llosa, Menéndez-Espina, Agulló-Tomás, & Rodríguez-Suárez, 2018; Shoss, 2017) and meta-analyses compiling the results of the individual studies (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002, 2019), resulting in substantial theoretical advancement.

Different scholars have put forth their specific job insecurity definitions in their studies. Yet, the most cited definitions can be exemplified as “perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p. 438); “concern about the future permanence of the job, or sometimes a concern about a significant deterioration in conditions of employment” (Van Vuuren & Klandermans, 1990, p. 133); “a fundamental and involuntary change concerning the continuity and security within the employing organization” (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002, p. 27); “employees’ perceptions about potential involuntary job loss” (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008, p. 492); and “subjectively perceived and undesired possibility to lose the present job in the future, as well as the fear or worries related to this possibility of job loss” (Vander Elst, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2014, p. 365). Though different emphases seem to be prominent in different descriptions, there are some common points. Particularly, these definitions suggest that there are some critical elements of job insecurity, such that it is a subjective experience, representing uncertainty about the future, and involving the notions of threat, involuntariness, powerlessness, and lack of control (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Lee et al., 2018; Llosa et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2019).

The subjectivity of job insecurity has been explained with the claim that individuals may experience different levels of job insecurity under the same objective conditions (Van Vuuren, Klandermans, Jacobson, & Hartley, 1991). Although there are studies defining job insecurity as an objective phenomenon – assuming that individuals perceive job insecurity to the same degree under the same contextual conditions like unemployment and temporary employment rates (e.g., Büssing, 1999; Pearce, 1998) – the subjective experience approach has become predominant in the organizational psychology literature (e.g., Ashford et al. 1989; De Witte, 1999; Hellgren et al., 1999). In this respect, as suggested by Sverke and Hellgren (2002), job insecurity has been viewed as a function of the interaction between the objective situations and individuals’ interpretations about these situations by following the interactionist theories (e.g., Ekehammar, 1974; Endler & Magnusson, 1976).

Uncertainty is the other common element in different job insecurity definitions (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Lee et al., 2018; Llosa et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2019). Job insecurity is about the concern of job loss, which is probable to happen in the future but has not yet occurred (e.g., De Witte, 1999; Jacobson, 1991; Probst, 2003; Sverke et al., 2002). As such, job insecurity differs from actual job loss where the situation is definite; individuals have already lost their jobs. This job insecurity element reveals the stressful state of this phenomenon, given that even uncertainty alone is a stress factor (De Witte, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The notion of threat, involuntariness, powerlessness, and lack of control are the other critical points in the job insecurity definitions (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Lee et al., 2018; Llosa et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2019). In the job insecurity situation, stability and continuity of the current job are perceived under threat (e.g., De Witte, 1999; Heaney, Israel, & House, 1994; Hellgren et al., 1999; Probst, 2003). This threat is involuntary and undesirable (e.g., De Cuyper, Mäkikangas, Kinnunen, Mauno, & De Witte, 2012; De Witte, 1999; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Moreover, individuals often feel powerlessness and in lack of control in that specific situation since it is not easy (or even impossible) to stop something uncertain – or even to engage in coping with it (Lee et al., 2018; Llosa et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017).

Consequently, although job insecurity has been defined in different manners, these common points in the definitions allow a better understanding of this phenomenon.

2.1.2. Dimensions of Job Insecurity

Over the years, job insecurity has been treated as both a unidimensional and multidimensional construct (Lee et al., 2018; Sverke et al., 2002). In the unidimensional formulations, the focus has typically been on the concern about losing the job itself (e.g., Borg & Elizur, 1992; Huang, Lee, Ashford, Chen, & Ren, 2010; Huang, Niu, Lee, & Ashford, 2012; Probst 2003; Sverke et al., 2004). By emphasizing that a unidimensional measure cannot adequately capture the multifaceted nature of

the job insecurity construct, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) offered a broader job insecurity concept. Explicitly, they stated that job insecurity embodies the threats to the job itself and to valued job features, as well as the sense of powerlessness to handle these threats. By proceeding with this view, Ashford et al. (1989) proposed five dimensions that unite different job insecurity aspects. The dimensions they emphasized were the importance of the job, the likelihood of losing it, the importance of distinct job features, the possibility of losing them, and perceived powerlessness to anticipate the loss. Afterward, Hellgren and colleagues (1999) made a distinction between quantitative and qualitative forms of job insecurity perception by defining them as the “concerns about the continued existence of one’s job (quantitative insecurity) and important job features (qualitative insecurity)” (p. 179).

Recently, research has begun to attract attention to the climate of job insecurity by noting that job insecurity can be a shared perception among employees in workgroups and organizations (e.g., Sora et al., 2009, 2013), and that it can take the form of “psychological collective climate, i.e. as individuals’ perceptions of the climate around them” (Låstad et al., 2015, p. 204). This attempt added to the dimensionality of job insecurity construct by differentiating between individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate. Accordingly, Låstad and coauthors (2015) showed that job insecurity has a four-factor structure consisting of individual and climate job insecurity, both with quantitative and qualitative aspects. However, testing this structure in just one context cannot show whether this structure is generalizable to other contexts. Only after validating this factor structure in different settings it can be concluded that individual and climate job insecurity are distinct dimensions under the umbrella of the general job insecurity construct.

2.1.3. Measurement of Job Insecurity

Diverse job insecurity conceptualizations have brought along different measurement instruments to assess job insecurity. Specifically, researchers have used both single-

item and multi-item scales to measure this phenomenon (see Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017, for review studies).

By mostly focusing on the quantitative aspect of job insecurity, the single-item measures generally ask for the probability of losing the job itself (e.g., De Witte, 1999; Roskies et al., 1993). Among the multi-item measures, on the other hand, some scales focus only on the quantitative (e.g., Johnson, Messe, & Crano, 1984; Probst, 2003) or the qualitative aspect of job insecurity (e.g., Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975; Van den Broeck et al., 2014), while others incorporate these two aspects together (e.g., Ashford et al., 1989; Hellgren et al., 1999; O'Neill & Sevastos, 2013). Whereas in some measures the emphasis is either on the cognitive ("I perceive"; e.g., Caplan et al., 1975; Oldham, Kulik, Stepina, & Ambrose, 1986) or the affective ("I worry"; e.g., Huang et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 1984) aspects of job insecurity, others contain items representing both (e.g., Borg & Elizur, 1992; Hellgren et al., 1999; Probst, 2003; Sverke et al., 2004). As argued by Shoss (2017), the issues highlighted in different scales concern perceived control (e.g., Ashford et al., 1989; O'Neill & Sevastos, 2013), uncertainty (e.g., Caplan et al., 1975; Probst, 2003), and time frames (e.g., "probability of losing one's job in the next year," e.g., Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990).

Among the existing job insecurity scales, De Witte's (2000; see Vander Elst et al., 2014) unidimensional 4-item scale along with Hellgren et al.'s (1999) two-dimensional (quantitative and qualitative job insecurity), 7-item scale have been the most frequently used ones (Shoss, 2017). Both embody the cognitive and affective experiences of job insecurity; they are practical to use in research, so they have been utilized in many studies and received support as reliable and valid instruments (Lee et al., 2018).

Remarkably, all the job insecurity scales mentioned above assess individual job insecurity by providing no mention of the climate of job insecurity. Regarding the measurement of job insecurity climate, on the other hand, there are two different approaches. In the first approach, job insecurity climate is treated as aggregated

perceptions of individual job insecurity and measured by combining individuals' ratings on individual job insecurity scales to the organizational or work-unit level (De Cuyper, Sora, De Witte, Caballer, & Peiró, 2009; Jiang & Probst, 2016; Sora et al., 2009, 2013). In contrast, in the second approach, individuals' perceptions of job insecurity climate around them are measured directly at the individual level using the "job insecurity climate" scale developed for this aim (Låstad et al., 2015, 2016, 2018). These two approaches used to measure the job insecurity climate are discussed in detail in Study 1.

2.1.4. Consequences of Job Insecurity and the Mechanisms Explaining Them

In the job insecurity literature, a considerable amount of cross-sectional and longitudinal research has examined the consequences of job insecurity on individuals and organizations. Comprehensive meta-analyses have brought the individual study findings together, thus providing essential information on this regard (see Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002, 2019).

In general, researchers have used stress and social exchange theories as well as job preservation, and proactive coping perspectives to explain the effects of job insecurity on various outcome variables (Shoss, 2017). Based on stress theories (e.g., Hobfoll, 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), job insecurity is suggested to lead to strain outcomes by threatening the manifest (e.g., income) and latent (e.g., status) benefits of work (De Witte, 1999; Sverke et al., 2002; Vander Elst, Näswall, Bernhard-Oettel, De Witte, & Sverke, 2016), thereby creating an environment of uncertainty (De Witte, 1999) and violating basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Vander Elst, Van den Broeck, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2012; Van den Broeck et al., 2014). Beyond being an individual work stressor, job insecurity is also a contextual stressor experienced by members of an organization (Sora et al., 2009, 2013).

Based on social exchange theories (Blau, 1964; Cook, 1987; Ekeh, 1974; Emerson, 1972, 1981), job insecurity is argued to lead to an "imbalance in the exchange

relationship between employee and employer” (Shoss, 2017, p. 1926). In this perspective, job insecurity is considered to entail detrimental consequences by creating a breach of the psychological contract between employers and employees (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Piccoli, De Witte, & Reisel, 2017; Vander Elst et al., 2016) and generating a perception of injustice by breaking the effort–reward balance between these two sides (Piccoli & De Witte, 2015).

The job preservation perspective states that employees may attempt to portray themselves as valuable employees to avoid losing their jobs; accordingly, they may devote extra effort to the behaviors that will be noticed by the employer, prevent counterproductive work behaviors, or put the interests of the employer before their own (Koen, Low, & Vianen, 2019; Shoss, 2017; Shoss & Probst, 2012). In other respect, the proactive coping perspective argues that employees may prepare themselves for future job loss, for example, by building networks, searching for alternative options in the market, or increasing their savings for unpleasant days (Klehe, Zikic, Van Vianen, Koen, & Buyken, 2012; Shoss, 2017). These mechanisms have shown to make both corresponding and competing predictions related to the consequences of job insecurity (Shoss, 2017).

In their meta-analyses, Sverke and colleagues (2002) proposed a conceptual framework to display the outcomes of job insecurity in four dimensions based on the focus of reaction (individual/organizational) and type of reaction (immediate/long-term). Specifically, they demonstrated that job insecurity is associated with poor well-being and health (both physical and mental), deteriorated job (job satisfaction, job involvement) and organizational attitudes (organizational commitment, trust), and increased turnover intention. A subsequent meta-analysis by Cheng and Chan (2008) verified these consequences of job insecurity and added poor performance among others. The following meta-analyses and reviews have also pointed to many other consequences of job insecurity (see Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017, Sverke et al., 2019). They involved well-being outcomes such as burnout and emotional exhaustion (De Cuyper et al. 2012; Kinnunen, Mäkikangas, Mauno, De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2014; Jiang & Probst 2016); career attitudes like career

satisfaction and commitment (Ngo & Li, 2015; Otto, Hoffmann-Biencourt, & Mohr, 2011; Otto, Mohr, Kottwitz, & Korek, 2016); behavioral outcomes like organizational citizenship behavior (Lam, Liang, Ashford, & Lee, 2015; Piccoli et al., 2017), workplace deviance (Huang, Wellman, Ashford, Lee, & Chen, 2017), safety compliance and workplace injuries (Jiang & Probst, 2016), workplace bullying (De Cuyper et al., 2009), job search behavior (Murphy, Burton, Henagan, & Briscoe, 2013) and employee voice (Berntson et al., 2010; Schreurs, Guenter, Jawahar, & De Cuyper, 2015). In addition to these outcomes, job insecurity has also been shown to be related to interpersonal contagion and spillover effects (Lee et al., 2018), indicating that employees' job insecurity experiences in the workplace may carry over into other domains and produce effects on other individuals around them (e.g., Barling, Dupré, & Hepburn, 1998; Lim & Loo, 2003; Zhao, Lim, & Teo, 2012).

While many individual studies and meta-analyses have focused on the consequences of quantitative job insecurity, there are also studies examining the effects of qualitative job insecurity perception. Precisely, the concern about losing valued job features has been shown to be associated with poor well-being and health, lower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and personal accomplishment, more emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, anxiety, and depression, and stronger turnover intention (e.g., Ashford et al., 1989; Boya, Demiral, Ergor, Akvardar, & De Witte, 2008; De Witte et al., 2010; Hellgren et al., 1999). Notably, the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and employees' behavioral responses has been investigated by only a comparatively limited research wherein the focused outcome variables were job performance (Chirumbolo & Areni, 2010), organizational citizenship behaviors (Stynen et al., 2015), and counterproductive employee behaviors (De Witte et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2014).

Job insecurity climate has been found to relate to decreased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and work involvement (Sora et al., 2009, 2013) and some behavioral safety outcomes (Jiang & Probst, 2016). In their study examining the effects of quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate separately, Låstad and colleagues (2015) showed that quantitative job insecurity

climate predicted higher levels of demands and work-family conflict, and that qualitative job insecurity climate predicted increased demands, work-family conflict, psychological distress, and impaired self-rated health.

2.1.5. Moderators of Job Insecurity

Although job insecurity is a common phenomenon in today's working life, not everyone is affected by it in the same way; which signals the existence of moderating variables that regulate job insecurity by enhancing or buffering its impact on the outcome variables. Clarifying the moderators of job insecurity is essential to recognize who is affected by job insecurity more or less under what conditions and how they react to insecurity. Meta-analyses and reviews are good sources to see the factors/conditions that adjust the effects of job insecurity. They generally emphasize individual, organizational, and environmental factors in shaping individuals' reactions to this phenomenon (see Keim, Landis, Pierce, & Earnest, 2014; Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002; Yüce-Selvi & Sümer, 2018).

The age, gender, education, job type (white- and blue-color employees), tenure, and unionization are among the individual factors potentially affecting how individuals react to job insecurity. Specifically, Sverke and colleagues (2002) showed that the associations between job insecurity and outcomes were generally stronger among manual (blue-collar) than among non-manual employees (white-collar employees), and attributed this to the reason that manual workers are generally less educated and more dependent on their current jobs. Cheng and Chan (2008) found that employees with shorter job tenure and younger ages were more inclined to leave the organization than those with longer tenure and older ages. Moreover, employees with longer tenure and older age were found to suffer more from job insecurity in terms of health outcomes than those with shorter tenure and younger age. They explained this with the investment argument that the more investment in the job one has, the harder and more painful it would be to leave the job behind.

The influence of gender is somewhat mixed in the literature. Although some studies have shown that women suffer more from job insecurity, others have demonstrated the opposite (Camgoz, Ekmekci, Karapinar, & Guler, 2016; Cheng & Chan, 2008; Richter, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010). Similarly, although it has been suggested that unionized workers would be less affected by job insecurity perceptions, the role of being a union member to buffer the effects of job security has not been supported in some studies (e.g., Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Shaw, Fields, Thacker, & Fisher, 1993; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001; Sverke et al., 2004).

The role of support derived from different sources in shaping the effect of job insecurity has also received research attention. On that issue, social support received from supervisors and/or co-workers has been shown to moderate the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction, vigor at work, non-compliant job behaviors (i.e., unfavorable job behaviors, lateness, and absenteeism), and employee in-role performance (Cheng, Mauno, & Lee, 2014; Lim, 1997; Schreurs, Van Emmerik, Guenter, & Germeys, 2012). Besides, Sverke et al. (2004) found that union support reduced the negative impact of job insecurity on physical health complaints and organizational commitment.

The effect of cultural factors in regulating how individuals react to job insecurity has also been mentioned. Probst and Lawler (2006) found that job insecurity was associated with more detrimental outcomes among employees with collectivist cultural values than among their individualist counterparts. Debus and colleagues (2012) showed that country-level enacted uncertainty avoidance (i.e., having extensive norms, rules, and procedures to dampen uncertain situations) buffered the adverse effects of job insecurity on job attitudes. Furthermore, Wang and colleagues (2014) revealed that employees with higher traditional values experienced more health-related problems than those with lower traditional values in response to job insecurity. In addition to these cultural factors, some cross-country environmental factors like regional unemployment rate (Otto et al., 2011, 2016), unemployment benefits (Anderson & Pontusson, 2007), the nature of the social welfare system (Carr & Chung, 2014; Debus et al., 2012), income inequality (Jiang & Probst, 2017), and the level of union support

(Hellgren & Chirumbolo, 2003) have been shown among the factors affecting reactions to job insecurity. Recent meta-findings of Sverke and colleagues (2019) showed the potential effects of the social welfare regime in moderating the effect of job insecurity on performance outcomes, such that the negative influence of job insecurity on performance outcomes was weaker in welfare regimes depicted by strong social protection.

2.2. Concluding Remarks

The job insecurity literature has aimed to depict the job insecurity construct by providing information on its definition, dimensionality, measurement, consequences, and moderators. In the light of this literature, in this thesis, job insecurity was defined as a subjective experience comprising a perceived, involuntary, unwanted threat in which individuals feel powerlessness and lack of control by including the critical elements of job insecurity. In terms of dimensionality, the individual and climate, quantitative and qualitative aspects of job insecurity were considered essential aspects. These aspects were measured by directly asking individuals about their individual and climate job insecurity perceptions using multi-dimensional scales featuring cognitive/affective and quantitative/qualitative aspects of job insecurity. Given that most of the studies in the literature have focused on examining the effects of individual quantitative job insecurity on well-being, health, job- and organization-related attitudes, this thesis aimed to contribute to the literature by testing the impact of individual and climate (quantitative and qualitative) job insecurity experiences on employees' behavioral responses, in the form of exit, voice (i.e., considerate, aggressive, representative voice, and protest orientation), loyalty and neglect, among non-unionized and unionized employees in the Turkish context. Considering that the research on job insecurity has been conducted mostly on data from Europe, Asia, North America, and Africa (Lee et al., 2018) – and that the findings showing that the effects of job insecurity may vary in different cultural contexts – the present thesis adds to the literature by presenting information from another cultural context. Based on the findings that demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, education, and sector) may

shape the effects of job insecurity on the outcomes variables, in Study 1 and Study 2, these variables were controlled in the analyses to eliminate their impacts on the examined relationships.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 1

INDIVIDUAL JOB INSECURITY AND JOB INSECURITY CLIMATE: VALIDATING THE CONSTRUCT AND EXAMINING EFFECTS ON EXIT, CONSIDERATE VOICE, LOYALTY, AND NEGLECT

3.1. Overview

Increasing flexibility in working-life has brought with the job insecurity perceptions among the workforce. Many employees consider that the continuity of their jobs is under threat (i.e., quantitative job insecurity), and that they will not receive what they deserve from the organization (i.e., qualitative job insecurity). Research findings indicate that these concerns may lead to detrimental outcomes for individuals and organizations (for meta-analysis results, see Cheng & Chang, 2008; Hur, 2019; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002, 2019).

Although job insecurity has been traditionally defined as an individual perception, recent research shows that it can be a facet of the climate in organizations (i.e., job insecurity climate; Låstad et al., 2015). In the first studies addressing such a climate perspective, job insecurity climate was defined as “a set of shared perceptions of powerlessness to maintain the continuity of threatened jobs in an organization” (Sora et al., 2009, p. 130) and measured by aggregating individual job insecurity ratings to the unit levels (e.g., De Cuyper et al., 2009; Sora et al., 2009, 2013). This operationalization provides information about the sources of variation in individuals’ job insecurity perceptions; however, it has been criticized as being only an indirect estimate of the unit-level construct to be measured, thus failing to reflect individuals’ job insecurity climate perceptions per se (Låstad et al., 2015; Mauno, De Cuyper,

Tolvanen, & Kinnunen, & Mäkikangas, 2014). To overcome this measurement concern, Låstad and colleagues (2015) developed the specific job insecurity climate measure, by which researchers can directly ask individuals to report their job insecurity climate perceptions at the individual level. Furthermore, they proposed that the general job insecurity construct was composed of individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate, with both having quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Their findings supported the proposed four-factor structure of job insecurity and provided evidence for the validity of this structure by showing how the four job insecurity dimensions were differentially related to various outcomes in a sample of employees working in Sweden. The present study aimed to test this four-factor representation of the job insecurity construct in the Turkish context (Aim 1).

Individuals give different reactions to unfavorable conditions. The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect (EVLN) framework suggests that they may exit from the relationship, voice to improve conditions, show loyalty, or chose to neglect (Hagedoorn, Van Yperen, Van de Vliert, & Buunk, 1999; Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988). In the organizational behavior literature, the EVLN framework has been used by researchers to explain individuals' reactions to dissatisfying employment conditions (e.g., Davis-Blake et al., 2003; Farrell, 1983; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Some studies have also utilized this framework to explain the reactions to job insecurity (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Davis-Blake et al., 2003; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). However, all the existing studies in this regard have focused on individual job insecurity perceptions, while no studies have examined job insecurity climate in relation to such responses without considering the social context and climate in which people live affect their judgments, attitudes, and behaviors to events (e.g., Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Roberts, Hulin, & Rousseau, 1978; Schneider, 1983, 1987).

Nonetheless, claiming that individuals' behaviors are only affected by their own experiences of job insecurity, and ignoring the social contexts and climate they are in, may prevent researchers and practitioners from seeing the whole picture adequately. Moving from this gap in the literature and considering the effect of the social context on individuals, this study also aimed (Aim 2) to investigate the effect of job insecurity

climate on employees' exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect responses, and to test its incremental validity in predicting these responses above and beyond individual job insecurity perceptions.

3.2. Introduction

3.2.1. Job Insecurity Climate

The job insecurity phenomenon is generally conceptualized as a subjective experience concerning the present job, including uncertainty and threat about the future, involuntariness, powerlessness, and lack of control (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010; Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017). Although job insecurity is typically defined as “perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p. 438), by mentioning its quantitative aspect, job insecurity also contains a qualitative aspect, i.e., the concern about losing valuable job features like career opportunities, specific work tasks and, wage (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren et al., 1999). Job insecurity has well-established with outcomes such as well-being and health as well as job and organizational attitudes (see Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002). In most existing studies, job insecurity is treated as an individual experience reflecting individuals' perceptions of their own situation. On the other hand, recent research emphasizes a climate of job insecurity within workgroups and organizations (Jiang & Probst, 2016; Låstad et al., 2015, 2016, 2018; Mauno et al., 2014; Sora et al., 2009, 2013).

Individuals' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors are affected by both the individual and contextual factors (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). At workplaces, employees work with others under the umbrella of similar organizational policies, practices, and procedures (Mohr, 2000). Hence, it is not surprising to expect that breathing the same air in a work environment may result in a climate perception among individuals. Given that, by mentioning the influence of climate in shared perceptions, Sora et al. (2009) made a significant contribution to the job insecurity literature. They

validated the job insecurity climate concept by showing its influence on employees' job attitudes.

In defining the job insecurity climate construct, Sora et al. (2009) made a distinction between culture and climate by stating that “culture reflects the assumptions shared in an organization, and climate shows employees' shared perceptions about the organization” (p. 128). Considering this conceptual difference, they used the “climate” term to represent employees' shared job insecurity perceptions in an organization. They built their hypothesis based on the direct consensus approach (Chan, 1998) in which individuals are asked to rate their own job insecurity perception, and subsequently aggregated the individual ratings to the unit level to form a job insecurity climate representation. However, this conceptualization has been criticized as it may not represent the real picture of how individuals perceive the climate of job insecurity at their workplaces (Mauno et al., 2014). Later, as an alternative to this measurement, Låstad and colleagues (2015) developed a specific measure to assess job insecurity climate based on the referent-shift approach (Chan, 1998), that is, asking individuals directly to report their own job insecurity climate perceptions at the individual level instead of aggregating the individual job insecurity ratings to obtain a measure of job security climate.

In developing the scale for the job insecurity climate, Låstad et al. (2015) considered the conceptual distinction between quantitative and qualitative forms in the individual job insecurity literature. Specifically, they proposed a four-factor model comprising individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate, both with quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Their findings statistically confirmed this structure and provided preliminary support for its validity by showing that the four dimensions were differently related to outcome variables using data collected in Sweden (see Låstad et al., 2015, 2018). By testing the four-factor model of job insecurity using data collected from employees working in Turkey, this study aimed to contribute to the generalizability of the four-factor job insecurity construct of job insecurity.

3.2.2. Job Insecurity and Its Associations with Demographic Variables

The roles of demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, employment contract) in predicting job insecurity have been extensively investigated by many researchers (see Keim et al., 2014, for a meta-analytic review). Age, gender, education, and sector are among the demographic characteristics that have been frequently emphasized in relation to job insecurity. Regarding age and gender, the results are conflicting. While some studies have found the relationship between age and job insecurity to be non-significant (e.g., Kinnunen & Nätti, 1994), others have found that younger employees tend to report higher levels of job insecurity than older employees (e.g., Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990). Fullerton and Wallace (2007) found a curvilinear association between age and job insecurity, where middle-aged employees perceived less security in their jobs; in contrast, younger and older employees felt more secure. About gender, although there are findings showing that women experience more job insecurity than men (e.g., Emberland & Rundmo, 2010; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2002), other studies have found that job insecurity does not differ by gender (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990).

Concerning education, research has typically found that higher education levels are associated with lower levels of job insecurity perceptions (e.g., Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Moore, Grunberg, & Greenberg, 2004; Muñoz de Bustillo & de Pedraza, 2010); however, some findings indicate otherwise (e.g., Kinnunen, Mauno, & Siltaloppi, 2010). When public and private sector employees' job insecurity perceptions are compared, results typically indicate that employees working in the private sector suffer more from job insecurity (e.g., Erlinghagen, 2008; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2002). However, it should be noted that studies focusing on the relationship between demographic variables and job insecurity mainly concern individual job insecurity and, typically, the quantitative dimension.

The emerging job insecurity climate literature also provides some information on the role of age, gender, and education on job insecurity climate perception. Låstad et al. (2015) found that quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate perceptions did

not change as a function of gender and age, while qualitative job insecurity climate perceptions were higher among employees with higher education levels.

In the present study, the relationships between the four job insecurity dimensions and the demographic variables of age, gender, education, and sector were examined to check whether different job insecurity dimensions have different relationships with the four job insecurity dimensions and to see whether the four job insecurity dimensions differ from each other in terms of their relationships with these demographic variables.

3.2.3. Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect Responses

In his seminal work, *Exit, Voice, and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations and States*, Albert Hirschman (1970) proposed a theory to explain individual responses to economic decline in organizations. He asserted that individuals (i.e., employees, customers, or citizens) respond to dissatisfying conditions experienced during organizational decline with two active behavioral responses: Exit or voice. Hirschman (1970) defined exit as the decision to withdraw from the system, and voice as the attempts to change the dissatisfying situation. In contrast to a more recent definition of a third response (e.g., Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Liljegren, Nordlund, & Ekberg, 2008), Hirschman (1970) defined loyalty as a factor that affects individuals' preference for exit or voice and argued that the presence of loyalty in the system might direct individuals to exit less and use voice more.

Subsequently, Hirschman's (1970) theoretical framework has been expanded by other researchers. Farrell (1983) proposed that in response to job dissatisfaction, individuals may also apply lax and disregarding behaviors (e.g., lateness and absenteeism) and added neglect as a fourth response to Hirschman's (1970) exit, voice, and loyalty model. Taking development one step further, by referring to Farrell's (1983) findings, Rusbult et al. (1988) defined the four response categories into a two-dimensional model with constructive/destructive and active/passive dimensions. They defined exit as "leaving an organization by quitting, transferring, searching for a different job or thinking about quitting", voice as "actively and constructively trying to improve

conditions through discussing problems with a supervisor or co-workers, taking action to solve problems, suggesting solutions, seeking help from an outside agency like a union, or whistle-blowing”, loyalty as “passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve-giving public and private support to the organization, waiting and hoping for improvement, or practicing good citizenship”, and neglect as “passively allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort, chronic lateness or absences, using company time for personal business, or increased error rate” (p. 601). In this framework, voice and loyalty are classified as constructive responses in which individuals strive for the restoration or keeping satisfactory employment conditions; exit and neglect, on the other hand, are defined as more destructive responses. Exit and voice are categorized as active behaviors since individuals take action to cope with dissatisfaction, while loyalty and neglect are defined as more passive responses. This exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect (EVLN) typology, composing of four different behavioral responses on two dimensions, has been supported both theoretically and empirically by several studies (e.g., Farrell, 1983; Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Liljegren et al., 2008; Withey & Cooper, 1989).

Subsequently, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) have modified the EVLN typology (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988) by dividing the voice response into two forms – considerate voice and aggressive voice. They defined considerate voice as the “attempts to solve the problem taking into account one’s own concerns as well as those of the organization” and aggressive voice as the “efforts to win, without consideration for the concerns of the organization” (p. 309), and demonstrated the construct distinctiveness of these two voice forms based on their differential relationships with various outcome variables. Hagedoorn et al. (1999) used the term “patience” instead of loyalty, based on the Leck and Saunders’s (1992) argument that loyalty is also used to describe an attitude, while patience – “the act of waiting optimistically” (p. 310) – is more suitable to express a behavioral response. Since the publication of Hagedoorn et al.’s (1999) modified EVLN typology, the model has been supported by some studies (e.g., Liljegren et al., 2008), but the low internal consistency of the aggressive voice subscale has been raised as a concern.

3.2.4. The Link between Job Insecurity and Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect

In the organizational psychology literature, the validity of the EVLN framework (Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988) has been tested in the context of its relationship with different predictors, such as job satisfaction (Hagedoorn et al., 1999), perceived justice (Hagedoorn, Buunk, & Van de Vliert, 1998; Van Yperen, Hagedoorn, Zweers, & Postma, 2000), and psychological contract violation (Lemire & Rouillard, 2005; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). In general, the findings of these studies provide support for the usefulness of the EVLN framework to explain individual responses to problematic situations in different organizational settings. Previous studies have also demonstrated significant associations between job insecurity and EVLN responses (see, e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001).

The link between job insecurity and exit has received considerable research attention. In many of the studies, exit has been measured as turnover intention, and the findings typically suggest that employees' propensity to leave the job or the organization increases with the increment in their job insecurity perceptions (Berntson et al., 2010; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans, & van Vuuren, 1991; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001; for meta-analyses, see Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002). Consistent with Hirschman's (1970) argument, exit is seen as "a way out" by individuals when they perceive a threat regarding the future of their jobs.

Nevertheless, individuals do not always respond to job insecurity with exit. They may choose to stay on and attempt to improve the conditions through engaging in various voice strategies, such as protesting through unions (Freeman & Medoff, 1984) or expressing disengagement in the change processes and protesting against downsizing (Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). However, the accumulated findings regarding the relationship between job insecurity and voice are mixed, with some studies finding a non-significant association (Sverke & Goslinga, 2003), and other studies reporting

positive (Sverke & Hellgren, 2001) or negative associations (Berntson et al., 2010). These different findings reveal the complex nature of voice and the need for more empirical research on this subject (see Luchak, 2003, for a discussion).

Individuals may not always choose to engage in behaviors that will bring about change, like exit or voice. By staying in a passive mode, they can choose to maintain their loyalty to their organization. In the job insecurity literature, loyalty has frequently been measured in the form of organizational commitment, as an attitude. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are indeed among the most investigated outcomes of job insecurity, where the bulk of research suggests negative associations (for meta-analyses, see Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002, 2019). In contrast, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) relabeled loyalty as patience because the act of waiting optimistically (a behavioral response) was deemed to fit better than loyalty and showed a positive relationship between job insecurity and patience. In line with Hagedoorn et al.'s (1999) operationalization, the present study treats loyalty as a behavioral response rather than as an attitude of loyalty/commitment.

Protesting through neglect (e.g., chronic lateness, absenteeism, using work time for personal business) has been suggested as a passive and destructive response displayed against dissatisfying conditions (Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988). Considering the positive association between unmet expectations and neglect (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), it seems plausible to expect that employees may apply neglectful, avoidance, and disregardful behaviors when they perceive threats regarding the future of their jobs. However, only a few studies have focused on the link between job insecurity and neglect. Present findings have shown a positive association between organizational downsizing and the risk of long-term sick leave (Vahtera et al., 1997) and between job insecurity and avoidance (Roskies et al., 1993). Findings indicating a non-significant association between job insecurity and avoidance also exist (Berntson et al., 2010). Hagedoorn et al. (1999) stated that neglect is the least common response that individuals apply in dealing with problematic events compared to exit, considerate voice, aggressive voice, and loyalty.

It is reasonable to expect that individuals share emotions, thoughts, and perceptions with others who are physically in the same place. Building on the literature stressing the importance of the social context on individuals' judgments, attitudes, and behaviors (e.g., Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Schneider, 1983, 1987), this study proposed that not only the individual concern about future of the job, but also the perceived climate of job insecurity may predict employees' exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses. Although the potential impact of job insecurity climate on these behaviors has thus far not been investigated, existing research evidence indicates that job insecurity climate may have detrimental consequences for some work-related and health-related outcomes (Låstad et al., 2015, 2018; Sora et al., 2009, 2013).

Importantly, this study addresses the conceptual distinction between quantitative and qualitative job insecurity (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren et al., 1999). The job insecurity literature has mainly been built on quantitative job insecurity, by paying less attention to qualitative job insecurity (De Witte et al., 2010, De Witte, Vander Elst, & De Cuyper, 2015; Richter, Näswall, Bernhard-Oettel, & Sverke, 2014). The reason may be the assumption that quantitative job insecurity would lead to more substantial adverse effects as the threat is about losing the entire job, not just losing some important job features (De Witte 1999; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren et al., 1999). However, findings have produced some conflicting results regarding the relative effects of two job insecurity dimensions on different outcome variables. Roskies and Louis-Guerin (1990) showed that qualitative job insecurity had stronger negative associations with well-being and work-commitment than quantitative job insecurity, based on a sample of managers. Hellgren et al. (1999) found that although both dimensions evidenced adverse effects on physical and mental health, only quantitative job insecurity predicted carry-over from work to leisure, while qualitative job insecurity predicted lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention. Other studies (De Witte et al., 2010; Richter et al., 2014) have revealed that both quantitative and qualitative job insecurity appear to be negatively associated with well-being and job satisfaction. It should be noted, however, that in all the above-mentioned studies, job insecurity was studied as an individual phenomenon. By showing that qualitative

job insecurity climate significantly predicted high demands, work-family conflict, psychological distress, and poor self-rated health, while quantitative job insecurity climate was only related to increased demands and work-family conflict, Låstad et al. (2015) signaled the differential effects of quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate on different outcome variables.

This study mainly focused on the job insecurity climate construct and its relations with the EVLN responses. Based on the past findings on both individual and climate job insecurity and arguments presented above, the following hypotheses were developed in this study:

Hypothesis 1. Quantitative job insecurity climate is related to higher levels of exit (*H1a*) and neglect (*H1b*), and lower levels of considerate voice (*H1c*) and loyalty (*H1d*).

Hypothesis 2. Qualitative job insecurity climate is related to higher levels of exit (*H2a*) and neglect (*H2b*), and lower levels of considerate voice (*H2c*) and loyalty (*H2d*).

This study also aimed to test the incremental validity of job insecurity climate beyond individual job insecurity perception in predicting employees' exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses. Hence, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 3. Job insecurity climate predicts exit (*H3a*), considerate voice (*H3b*), loyalty (*H3c*), and neglect (*H3d*) above and beyond the effect of individual job insecurity.

3.3. Method

3.3.1. Participants and Procedure

Ethical approval for this thesis was obtained from the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of Middle East Technical University, Turkey (see Appendix A). Data was collected through an online survey with a snowball data collection method between

May and September 2019. Participants were 245 employees (51% women, $M_{\text{age}} = 34$, age range: 19-59, $M_{\text{tenure}} = 5$ years, tenure range: 1-27 years) working in different organizations in Turkey. The only inclusion criterion was that the participants should be employed (excluding self-employed employees). Participants were not provided any incentives for their participation. They were informed that their answers would be treated confidentially, that their participation in the study was completely voluntary, and that they could discontinue their participation in the survey at any time (see Appendix B, for the informed consent form).

The items of the scales were translated into Turkish by three researchers who have graduate-level psychology education and good commands of English. Then the research team chose the best item translations based on their semantic similarities with the original ones. The back-translation from Turkish to English was done by a bilingual person who was unfamiliar with the original English item wordings. The research team formed the appropriate Turkish translations for each item based on the compilation of the translated and back-translated information. After this translation process, the scales were uploaded to an online research platform, Qualtrics. The study was announced on different platforms. The social media platforms were also used to recruit participants. Volunteering participants first provided informed consent online and then proceeded with the survey package online.

3.3.2. Measures

3.3.2.1. Individual Job Insecurity

Individual quantitative job insecurity was measured by the 3-item subscale and qualitative job insecurity by the 4-item subscale developed by Hellgren et al. (1999). Example items were “I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to” for quantitative job insecurity and “I feel that [the organization] can provide me with a stimulating job content in the near future” (reverse coded) for qualitative job insecurity. Higher scores indicate higher levels of quantitative and qualitative job

insecurity. The Cronbach's alphas equaled .64 and .74 for individual quantitative and qualitative job insecurity, respectively (see Appendix C).

3.3.2.2. Job Insecurity Climate

The quantitative and qualitative forms of job insecurity climate were assessed with the 4-item subscales developed by Låstad et al. (2015). Example items were "At my workplace there is a general feeling that someone/several people are going to lose their jobs" for quantitative job insecurity climate and "At my workplace there are many who are worried about receiving less stimulating work tasks in the future" for qualitative job insecurity climate. Higher scores indicate higher quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate perceptions. The Cronbach's alpha was .88 for quantitative job insecurity climate; and .82 for qualitative job insecurity climate (see Appendix D). Participants rated individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate scales by using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), in contrast to the original five-point rating scale used for these measures. This provided participants a wider range of stimuli and increased the variance in the measures. Also, rating scales with seven or more points have been shown to be superior in terms of reliability, validity, discriminating power, and respondent preferences (Preston & Colman, 2000).

3.3.2.3. Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect

Hagedoorn et al.'s (1999) exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect subscales were used to assess these behavioral responses. Before responding to EVLN items, participants were provided with the following instruction:

Every employee occasionally faces some challenges in the workplace. This study focuses on job insecurity, which is one of the problematic issues employees confront in the workplace. Anxiety of dismissal or losing important job features such as salary, promotion, status, and promotion are among the problems one may encounter in the working life. Employees can react differently across these situations. Below there are some behaviors that employees engage in as a response to experiences of job insecurity. Please state the level you would apply these behaviors in case you perceived job insecurity.

After this instruction, items were presented to the participants. Example items are “consider possibilities to change jobs” for exit; “try to think of different solutions to the problem” for considerate voice; “optimistically wait for better times” for loyalty (defined as patience by Hagedoorn et al., 1999); and “put less effort into your work than may be expected of you” for neglect (see Hagedoorn et al., 1999, p. 314-315 for all items). Like in the original form, a 7-point Likert scale (1 = definitely not, 7 = definitely yes) was used as the response scale (see Appendix E).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed in order to test the factor structure of the EVLN measure. The results indicated that the four-factor EVLN model composing of exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect had a satisfactory fit to data (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2(293) = 668.85$, $p < .001$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .073, SRMR = .076). The Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency values of the four responses were .86 for exit, .92 for considerate voice, .84 for loyalty, and .83 for neglect.

3.3.2.4. Demographic variables

Participants were asked to report their age (in years), gender (0 = man, 1 = woman), education level (0 = lower education, 1 = four years university degree or more), tenure (in years), and sector they were working in (0 = public sector, 1 = private sector).

3.3.3. Data Analysis

3.3.3.1. Dimensionality of the Job Insecurity Construct

The missing values (1.14% of the data set) were imputed using the EM algorithm based on Tabachnick and Fidell (2014)’s recommendations. To examine the latent structure of the job insecurity construct, the adequacies of the five alternative models were examined with CFA analyses using LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). As the preliminary analysis indicated non-normality in the data, the robust maximum-likelihood estimations were reported. The proposed four-factor model was compared

to a one-factor model (where all items were specified to load on a single factor), a two-factor model distinguishing between individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate, and another two-factor model where all quantitative items (individual and climate) formed one factor and all qualitative items (individual and climate) formed the other. The four-factor model was also compared with a second-order model where all four first-order factors, in turn, were specified to load on a higher-order general job insecurity factor (see Table 1, for the tested alternative models). The four first-order models were formed based on the reasonable alternative representations of relations between the items and the factors; and the second-order model was constructed by considering the high inter-factor correlations shown by the previous studies (e.g., Låstad et al., 2015).

Table 1 Alternative Factor Solutions for the Job Insecurity Construct

Model	Description
1. One-factor	All items were placed under one factor
2. Two-factor (I/C)	All individual JI items were placed on factor 1; and all JI climate items were placed on factor 2
3. Two-factor (Qt/Ql)	All quantitative JI items were placed on factor 1; and all qualitative JI items were placed on factor 2
4. Four-factor	Individual JI and JI climate, both with quantitative and qualitative dimensions
5. Second-order	An overall second-order factor composing of four JI dimensions with the associated items

Note. JI: Job insecurity; I/C: Individual/Climate; Qt/Ql: Quantitative/Qualitative.

To evaluate model fit, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995), and the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) were used in addition to the chi-square fit statistics. The cut-off criteria indicating good fit were as follows: CFI should be close to .95; RMSEA should be lower than .06, and SRMR should be lower than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Differences between models were evaluated based on Satorra-Bentler χ^2 differences and CFI. The scaling correction factor was

calculated on the macro file of Bryant and Satorra (2013) in order to conduct the Satorra-Bentler scaled difference χ^2 test (see Bryant & Satorra, 2012; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). A significant change in Satorra-Bentler χ^2 test or a difference between CFI of .01 or more (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002) indicate that the compared models are statistically different.

Internal consistency coefficients of the job insecurity dimensions were evaluated using Cronbach alpha values. Values higher than .70 were evaluated as having acceptable internal consistency (e.g., Nunnally, 1978). In order to examine the discriminant validity of the job insecurity construct, correlation analyses were conducted in LISREL 8.8 for each demographic characteristic (age, gender, education, and sector) separately. For this, a model where all correlations were freely estimated was compared with a model in which the association between that demographic characteristic was constrained to have identical associations with all four job insecurity dimensions, by using the χ^2 difference test to check the discriminant validity of the four job insecurity dimensions.

3.3.3.2. Predicting Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect Responses

Four separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for the exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect responses. The analyses were run in two pre-determined steps to examine the effect of quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate on these four responses and test their additional variance in predicting them. Accordingly, the control variables (i.e., gender, age, education, and sector) and individual quantitative and qualitative job insecurity were entered into the analysis in Step 1, while quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate were added to the model in Step 2.

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Dimensionality of Job Insecurity Construct

The model comparisons revealed that the proposed four-factor model differentiating individual quantitative ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.43$) and qualitative ($M = 4.11$, $SD = 1.42$) job insecurity, and quantitative ($M = 2.3$, $SD = 1.61$) and qualitative ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.55$) job insecurity climate dimensions provided a good fit to data (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2(84) = 188.62$, $p < .001$, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .06). The four-factor model also outperformed the alternative models (see Table 2, for the model fit indices of the five tested models).

Table 2 Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Alternative Models

Model	df	Satorra-Bentler					Model comparisons		
		χ^2	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	Model	Scaling correction	Scaled $\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	
1. One-factor	90	746.79*	.74	.15	.17		553.89		
2. Two-factor (I/C)	89	735.25*	.75	.14	.17	2 vs 1	530.49	18.56(1)*	
3. Two-factor (Qt/Ql)	89	415.75*	.87	.12	.12	3 vs 1	363.82	451.85(1)*	
4. Four-factor	84	188.62*	.96	.06	.07	4 vs 3	180.42	517.21 (5)*	
5. Second-order	86	217.08*	.95	.09	.08	4 vs 5	207.18	54.94 (2)*	

Note. $N = 245$. * $p < .001$. I/C: Individual/Climate; Qt/Ql: Quantitative/Qualitative.

The factor loadings were moderate to high and ranged from .45 to .86, and the inter-factor correlations ranged from -.02 to .57 for the four-factor model (see Table 3). These findings provided support for the dimensionality of job insecurity by indicating that the items developed for the four dimensions measure different aspects of job insecurity perception. All dimensions except individual quantitative job insecurity (.64) were found to have acceptable Cronbach alpha internal consistency values ranging from .74 to .88.

Table 3 Standardized Factor Loadings and Factor Correlations from the CFA

Label	Item	JI- quantitative	JI- qualitative	JI climate- quantitative	JI climate- qualitative
JI-quantitative					
3	I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future	.71*			
2	There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come	.68*			
1	I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to	.45*			
JI-qualitative					
2	My future career opportunities in [the organization] are favorable (R)		.76*		
1	I feel that [the organization] can provide me with a stimulating job content in the near future (R)		.66*		
3	My pay development in this organization is promising (R)		.66*		
4	I believe that [the organization] will need my competence also in the future (R)		.50*		
JI climate-quantitative					
3	Many people are worried about losing their jobs at my workplace			.86*	
2	At my workplace there is a general feeling that someone/several people are going to lose their jobs			.84*	
1	At my workplace there is a general feeling of anxiety over being let go			.79*	
4	At my workplace people often talk about whether they will be able to keep their job			.75*	
JI climate-qualitative					
2	Many people at my workplace express anxiety over their career development in the organization				.78*
1	There are many who are worried about work conditions becoming worse				.75*
4	At my workplace there are many who are worried about receiving less stimulating work tasks in the future				.74*
3	At my workplace there is a general feeling of anxiety over future pay growth				.68*
<i>Inter-factor correlations</i>					
	JI-qualitative	-.02			
	JI climate-quantitative	.57*	-.07		
	JI climate- qualitative	.28*	.27*	.49*	

Note 1. $N = 245$. $*p < .001$. JI: Job insecurity.

Note 2. Factor loadings are standardized parameter estimates. The items were sorted by the order of factor loadings.

Table 4 presents correlations between the four job insecurity dimensions and the demographic characteristics of age, gender, education, and sector. The χ^2 difference test results show that the four job insecurity dimensions differed from each other in terms of their correlations with education ($\chi^2(3) = 6.68, p = .08$) and sector ($\chi^2(3) = 35.01, p < .001$). Specifically, education level was negatively correlated with both quantitative dimensions, but unrelated to the qualitative ones. This suggests that employees with higher education levels tend to perceive less threat about losing their jobs and perceive a climate in this sense; however, when it comes to the threats to valued job features, education level appears not to make a difference. Regarding sector, employees working in the private sector tended to report more quantitative job insecurity (individual or climate), and less qualitative individual job insecurity than employees working in the public sector. Although the relationships of the four job insecurity dimensions with age and gender did not vary significantly, the different associations of job insecurity dimensions with education and sector provides information that the dimensions will differ from each other. Besides, the non-significant inter-factor correlations between quantitative and qualitative dimensions of individual job insecurity, and between individual qualitative job insecurity and quantitative job insecurity climate signaled the distinctiveness of these dimensions.

Table 4 Correlations between the Job Insecurity Dimensions and Demographic Variables

	JI- quantitative	JI-qualitative	JI climate- quantitative	JI climate- qualitative	$\chi^2(df=3)$
Age	-.04	.07	.02	.00	2.09
Gender (woman)	.05	.12	-.05	.05	4.64
Education (university)	-.15*	.07	-.13*	.00	6.68 ^a
Sector (private)	.17**	-.27***	.24***	-.10	35.01***

Note 1. $N = 223$ (Listwise deletion was applied). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, a. $p = .08$.

Note 2. JI: Job insecurity. Age: in years; gender: 0 = man, 1 = woman; education: 0 = lower education, 1 = four years university degree or more; sector: 0 = public sector, 1 = private sector.

3.4.2. Predicting Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect

Means, standard deviations, and the correlations among demographic variables, job insecurity dimensions, and EVLN responses are displayed in Table 5. Regarding demographic variables, education and sector had significant associations with job insecurity dimensions and outcome variables. Higher education was related to lower levels of quantitative job insecurity (both individual and climate), and loyalty; and higher levels of exit. Moreover, private sector employees reported greater quantitative job insecurity (both individual and climate) and considerate voice, and lower individual qualitative job insecurity than public sector employees. Hence, education and sector were controlled in the main analyses to eliminate their effects in testing the study hypotheses.

The results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 6. In Step 1, the control variables (education and sector) and the two individual job insecurity dimensions (quantitative and qualitative) explained 13, 11, 16, and 4 percent of the variance in exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect, respectively. Individual quantitative job insecurity was positively related to exit ($\beta = .22, p = .001$) and neglect ($\beta = .18, p = .006$), suggesting that when employees perceive threats to the continuity of their jobs, they show higher preference for quitting the job and protesting with neglect. On the other hand, individual qualitative job insecurity was found to be positively associated with exit ($\beta = .20, p = .002$), and negatively associated with considerate voice ($\beta = -.30, p < .001$) and loyalty ($\beta = -.32, p < .001$). The latter finding indicates that employees who perceive threats to losing valued job features are more prone to make use of the job quit option and show less considerate voice and loyalty to the organization.

After adding the two job insecurity climate dimensions in Step 2, the explained variances were 19, 12, 23, and 6 percent for exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect, respectively. Quantitative job insecurity climate was associated with higher levels of loyalty ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) and neglect ($\beta = .22, p = .016$), indicating that a

social climate characterized by a concern about losing the job may increase employees' loyalty and neglect responses. Qualitative job insecurity climate was related to higher levels of exit ($\beta = .20, p = .008$) and lower levels of loyalty ($\beta = -.30, p < .001$), suggesting that when employees work in a climate of concern about the deterioration of the job conditions, their tendency to quit the job increases, whereas their loyalty to the organization decreases. These findings provided support for *H1b*, *H2a*, and *H2d*. As quantitative job insecurity climate was not predictive of exit and considerate voice, and predicted loyalty in the opposite direction, and qualitative job insecurity climate did not predict considerate voice and neglect in significant manners, *H1a*, *H1c*, *H1d*, *H2b*, and *H2c* did not receive support.

Moreover, in Step 2, the increments in the explained variances were significant for exit ($\Delta R^2 = .06, \Delta F = 8.29, p < .001$) and loyalty ($\Delta R^2 = .07, \Delta F = 10.63, p < .001$). This provided support for *H3a* and *H3c*, whereas there was no support for *H3b* (considerate voice) or *H3d* (neglect).

Table 5 Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender (woman)	.51	.50												
2. Age	33.81	8.08	-.19**											
3. Education (university)	.70	.46	.16*	-.04										
4. Sector (private)	.66	.47	-.12	-.02	-.31***									
5. JI-quantitative	2.89	1.43	.03	-.06	-.18**	.17**	(.64)							
6. JI-qualitative	4.12	1.42	.09	.07	.06	-.27***	-.02	(.74)						
7. JI climate-quantitative	3.00	1.61	-.07	.02	-.17**	.26***	.57***	-.07	(.88)					
8. JI climate-qualitative	4.06	1.55	.02	.03	-.01	-.11	.28***	.27***	.49***	(.82)				
9. Exit	3.81	1.55	.04	-.13	.15*	.12	.20**	.15*	.27***	.30***	(.86)			
1. Considerate voice	4.92	1.23	-.04	.06	-.11	.14*	-.01	-.32***	.08	-.00	-.04	(.92)		
11. Loyalty	3.85	1.36	-.07	.06	-.25***	.10	.09	-.31***	.17**	-.20**	-.16*	.30**	(.84)	
12. Neglect	2.58	1.35	-.10	-.09	.05	.00	.17*	-.04	.19**	.03	.30***	-.16*	-.01	(.83)

Note 1. Pairwise deletion was applied in the analysis. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Note 2. JI: Job insecurity. Job insecurity, exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect were rated on 7-point Likert scales.

Gender: 0 = man, 1 = woman; age: in years; education: 0 = lower education, 1 = four years university degree or more; sector: 0 = public sector, 1 = private sector.

Note 3. Cronbach's alpha values of the scales were presented into diagonals.

Table 6 Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

	Exit		Considerate Voice		Loyalty		Neglect	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Step 1								
Education (university)	.24***	.24***	-.08	-.08	-.24***	-.23***	.08	.08
Sector (private)	.21**	.20**	.04	.04	-.07	-.14*	-.02	-.06
JI-quantitative	.22**	.09	-.03	-.08	.05	-.03	.18**	.10
JI-qualitative	.20**	.15*	-.30***	-.32***	-.32***	-.24***	-.04	-.01
Step 2								
JI climate-quantitative		.11		.04		.31***		.22*
JI climate-qualitative		.20**		.09		-.30***		-.11
<i>F</i>	9.07***	9.19***	7.16***	5.25***	10.73***	11.28***	2.12	2.43*
<i>R</i> ²	.13	.19	.11	.12	.16	.23	.04	.06
ΔF		8.29***		1.37		10.63***		2.97 ^a
ΔR^2		.06		.01		.07		.02

Note 1. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, a. $p = .05$.

Note 2. JI: Job insecurity. Education: 0 = lower education, 1 = four years university degree or more; sector: 0 = public sector, 1 = private sector.

Note 3. Standardized regression coefficients were presented. For each outcome variable, the df was 234 for Step 1 and 232 for Step 2.

3.5. Discussion

3.5.1. Dimensionality of the Job Insecurity Construct

While individual perceptions of job insecurity have been the focus of research for more than three decades (De Witte et al., 2016), and there have been suggestions that employees may worry both about job loss as such and the potential loss of valued job features (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren et al., 1999), the job insecurity climate construct and its effects on employees has been studied for only about a decade (see De Cuyper et al., 2009; Jiang & Probst, 2016; Låstad et al., 2015, 2016, 2018; Sora et al., 2009, 2013). Although job insecurity climate has been operationalized in different ways, the common point is that the studies have been conducted using data collected from employees working in a few European countries (i.e., Belgium, Spain, and Sweden). However, even among European countries, some differences have been observed in terms of job insecurity perceptions, where both cultural differences and dissimilarities regarding labor market characteristics have been mentioned as important factors affecting individuals' perceptions of job insecurity (see Erlinghagen, 2008; Keim et al., 2014; Sora et al., 2009). Hence, there is a need to examine individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate in other contexts to support the generalizability of job insecurity experiences across countries and cultures. The first aim of the present study was therefore to test the psychometric properties of measures of quantitative and qualitative individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate and validate them in the Turkish context. Considering the cultural and labor market differences between Turkey and the above-mentioned European countries (see Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; OECD statistics 2020a, 2020b, 2020c, & 2020d), findings of this study are believed to contribute to the job insecurity literature.

As a result of the statistical comparisons between plausible alternative models, the findings revealed that the four-factor job insecurity construct that differentiates individual quantitative and qualitative job insecurity and quantitative and qualitative

job insecurity climate was the best-fitting model. This model outperformed the alternative models contrasting individual experiences to experiences of a job insecurity climate, distinguishing between quantitative and qualitative aspects, a one-factor model, and a second-order model testing a higher-order job insecurity construct to give rise to the four dimensions. Hence, it appears that individuals are able to make a distinction between their own concerns and the climate about job insecurity and between concerns regarding the job as such and valued features of the job. This suggests that the job insecurity representation in individuals' minds may be four-cornered. Apparently, it is needed to think more comprehensively about job insecurity perceptions, as it may represent more than individuals' own concerns about job loss. Individuals may perceive a form of job insecurity even if their jobs are not objectively being threatened (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), or by just witnessing the presence of temporary workers in the organization even if they have permanent contracts (De Cuyper et al., 2009). Therefore, the perceptions of the surrounding climate should also be taken into account while trying to understand the job insecurity phenomenon, the factors predicting it, and its consequences.

In general, the Cronbach alpha values showed that the internal consistencies of the four job insecurity dimensions were generally adequate, while individual quantitative job insecurity had a somewhat low reliability, with $\alpha = .64$. Although Nunnally (1978) has suggested that the alpha value for an acceptable internal consistency should be greater than .70, the value of .64 can actually be considered as sufficient for research (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, & Cummings, 1993).

To conclude, the findings of the confirmatory factor analyses and the reliability estimates indicate that the four dimensions of job insecurity can be reliably assessed also in the Turkish context. The differentiating relationships of the four job insecurity dimensions with educational level and sector, and the observed non-significant inter-factor correlations signaled the distinctiveness of the four job insecurity dimensions, thus indicating support for discriminant validity. The finding that employees with higher education levels tended to perceive less threat about losing their jobs are in line

with previous findings showing that employees with higher education feel more secure in their jobs compared to those with less education (e.g., Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Låstad et al., 2015; Moore et al., 2004; Muñoz de Bustillo & de Pedraza, 2010). Generally, the fact that employees with higher education tend to have more choices and options in the labor market may be an explanation for this (Keim et al., 2014). However, while the same pattern was observed also for quantitative job insecurity climate (i.e., perceiving a climate concerning risk for job loss), this was not found for qualitative job insecurity climate (i.e., a climate concerning the risk of losing job features), which indicates that the association between education and job insecurity depends on the job insecurity dimension. The results also showed different correlational patterns between job insecurity dimensions and sector, such that, employees working in the private sector tended to report more quantitative job insecurity (individual or climate), supporting the literature (e.g., Erlinghagen, 2008; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2002), but less qualitative individual job insecurity than employees working in the public sector. Thus, private sector employees' anxiety seems to be more related to the risk of job loss, while public sector employees appear to be more concerned about the deterioration of the job conditions. This is in line with Chirumbolo and colleagues' (2020) argument that mostly having permanent contracts with the organization, perceiving higher levels of stability due to the bureaucratic, routine-bound and constrained nature of the jobs, and being less dependent on the external market forces make public sector employees less likely to suffer from the threat of losing their jobs, whereas the difficulty of acquiring career development and salary growth affects them negatively due to the threat of worsening job conditions.

On the other hand, the four job insecurity dimensions did not differ from each other in terms of their correlations with age and gender. These demographic characteristics were not significantly correlated with any of the job insecurity dimensions. In their meta-analytic review, Keim and colleagues (2014) showed that the relationships of age and gender with job insecurity are moderated by countries of origin and unemployment rates. So, in Turkey, with the unemployment rate of 12.8% (TÜİK, Nisan 2020), there may be other factors (e.g., perceived employability, employment contract, family

responsibilities), rather than age and gender, which affect employees' perception of job insecurity.

3.5.2. Predicting Exit, Considerate Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect

The results regarding the dimensionality of job insecurity revealed that employees could make a distinction between their own concerns and the climate of losing the job and losing valued job features. In addition to testing the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct, this study also aimed to examine the impact of job insecurity climate perceptions on employees' exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses above and beyond the effects of individual job insecurity.

With respect to the first hypothesis, findings revealed that after controlling for the effects of education, sector, and individual job insecurity, quantitative job insecurity climate significantly predicted higher levels of loyalty and neglect, while qualitative job insecurity climate predicted higher levels of exit and lower levels of loyalty. In light of these findings, exit seems to be a response that employees may apply in case of collective job insecurity perceptions. The point to be considered here is which specific dimension is taken into consideration. It was shown that employees tended to respond to job insecurity climate with exit if the perceived climate was characterized by a collective concern over losing valued job features rather than losing the job entirely. This finding represents a different picture from the findings in the individual job security literature, which often shows a significant relationship between job insecurity and exit, but typically by focusing on the quantitative dimension (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). However, the present findings support the claim that qualitative job insecurity climate might be more prominent than the quantitative form in predicting specific outcomes (Låstad et al., 2015). Consequently, at least for this sample, a climate of concern on work conditions getting less favorable in the future seems to direct employees to think about leaving the job or the organization.

The EVLN model defines voice as another behavioral response displayed in response to dissatisfying conditions (Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988). In the current study, we measured considerate voice, that is, “attempts to solve the problem taking into account one’s own concerns as well as those of the organization” (Hagedoorn et al., 1999, p. 309), and found that neither of the two job insecurity climate dimensions significantly predicted considerate voice. In the face of this result and the contradictory findings regarding the link between job insecurity and employee voice in the individual job insecurity literature (see Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001), it may be that the complex nature of voice (Barry & Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015; Luchak, 2003; Morrison, 2011, 2014) requires more in-depth analyses, focusing on different aspects of voice.

In this study, loyalty (measured as patience) was shown as another response employees engage in when experiencing a climate of job insecurity. The remarkable point in the findings was that the sign of the effect on loyalty varied across the two job insecurity climate dimensions, such that quantitative job insecurity was positively related to loyalty; in contrast, qualitative job insecurity climate demonstrated a negative association. In the individual job insecurity literature, job insecurity has generally been revealed to be associated with decreased loyalty (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Sverke et al., 2002), although findings showing that it is unrelated with loyalty also exist (Barling & Kelloway, 1996; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). In this respect, Sverke and Hellgren (2001) claimed that while damaged loyalty can be a natural consequence of job insecurity, increased loyalty can be evaluated as an indicator of efforts to resolve uncertainty. It should be noted, however, that in almost all of the studies in the job insecurity literature, loyalty has been defined as an attitude, referring to an employee’s level of attachment to the organization (Luchak, 2003) and measured in the form of organizational commitment. In the current study, however, Hagedoorn et al.’s (1999) patience scale was used to measure loyalty as a behavioral response, referring to “the act of waiting optimistically” (p. 310). Considering the findings in the current study, it can be said that there may be differences in the prediction of loyalty based on which job insecurity dimension is the focus and how loyalty is measured. At least for this sample, it seems that employees’ act of optimistic waiting increases when the

collective concern is about the continuity of the job itself, but that it tends to decrease when insecurity is about losing valued job features.

Furthermore, the results of this study displayed that quantitative job insecurity climate predicted the neglect response positively. This finding suggests that working in an environment where individuals have concerns about losing their jobs may increase individuals' tendency to engage in avoidance and disregardful behaviors. In addition to supporting the findings that individual job insecurity predicts avoidance positively (Roskies et al., 1993), this result also contributes to the relevant literature by showing that collective perceptions in this regard may produce effects that are similar to those concerning individual perceptions. Herewith, the present findings showed that working in a climate in which individuals suffer from job loss threat may lead employees to behave destructively, and, in addition, revealed the need to consider the collective worry of losing the job to reach a better understanding of employee neglect behavior.

When it comes to the prediction that job insecurity climate has an incremental effect beyond the effects of individual job insecurity in predicting employees' exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect responses, the findings of this study provided mixed support. On the one hand, it was found that job insecurity climate perceptions explained additional variance in exit and loyalty responses beyond the effects of individual job insecurity perceptions; on the other hand, no such incremental explained variance was observed for considerate voice or neglect. This suggests that a perceived climate of insecurity about losing the job itself or valued job features may explain individuals' exit and loyalty responses to a greater extent than employees' individual concerns. Therefore, while investigating the individual reactions to job insecurity, social contexts and the collective perceptions should not be ignored, as individuals are adaptive organisms who are affected by others' experiences (e.g., Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). The interaction between individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate is beyond the scope of this study, but it seems an important research topic for future research. The overlap and divergence between individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate may be associated with different outcomes.

3.5.3. Limitations and Direction for Future Research

It is possible to mention some limitations of this study. Firstly, the cross-sectional design of this study makes causal inferences about the relationships between the study variables impossible. Although earlier findings are persuasive in terms of showing that job insecurity (individual) is likely to influence employees' behavioral responses rather than vice versa (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001), future research may benefit from longitudinal designs to test the direction of the effects, as well as to investigate the effects over time. Secondly, common-method variance that may occur depending on self-report measures of both predictors and outcomes can be considered a limitation (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006). As individuals' perceptions are the main focus of this study, asking them directly about how they perceive seems to be more logical than using other data collection methods. However, future research may use additional methods to avoid this limitation. Thirdly, the data of this study has been collected through a convenience/snowball sample. This method may be considered to limit the representativeness of the findings. Being aware of this limitation, the online data collection method was chosen as it provides greater sample diversity, easier access, and convenience, as well as lower costs and time investment (Benfield & Szlemko, 2006). Despite this, the present findings await replication using random samples or population studies in a single organization from different countries before any firm conclusions can be drawn regarding the possibility of generalizing the results of this study. Lastly, in this study, the job insecurity measure's validity was checked based on the correlations of the four job insecurity dimensions with the demographic variables and their relationships with the EVLN responses. For more in-depth support on its validity, future studies may examine its association with other variables with whom job insecurity has well-established associations (e.g., job satisfaction).

3.5.4. Concluding Remarks

Despite the limitations stated above, this study contributes to the job insecurity literature in some critical respects. First of all, the results support the distinction between individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate in a Turkish context. This result makes it possible to conclude that job insecurity is not only an individual phenomenon and does not only host concerns about potential job loss. Instead, it has a four-dimensional structure comprising individual and collective concerns about losing the entire job and valued job features. The results revealed that these four job insecurity dimensions could be reliably assessed in a Turkish context. This study also contributes to the literature by examining how job insecurity climate perceptions relate to employees' exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect behaviors, above and beyond individual job insecurity. It also showed the need for more research on the job security climate, its predictors, effects, and the factors shaping these effects.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 2

VOICE IN THE UNION CONTEXT: INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTS OF JOB INSECURITY AND PERCEIVED UNION SUPPORT

4.1. Overview

Voice is among the behavioral responses that individuals may resort to in the face of dissatisfying encounters at work (Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988). It is seen as “an inherent or generic need for workers [...] Much like the basic need to communicate or to travel, voice is something whose demand is fairly constant” (Gomez, Bryson, Willman, 2010, p. 398). The early definitions conceptualized voice as an active and constructive attempt to change the unfavorable employment conditions for the benefit of the organization (Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988). Later, it has been described in different ways. For example, in employment relations literature, voice has been treated as a collective and less constructive behavior, defined as “a mechanism to provide collective representation of employee interests” (see Barry & Wilkinson, 2016, p. 261). Budd (2014) suggested that voice is not only a constructive process, but also a vehicle for employee self-determination. Moreover, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) showed that it had a destructive aspect (i.e., aggressive voice) beyond being a constructive reaction (i.e., considerate voice). Accordingly, in the previous decade, some scholars have criticized viewing employee voice only as a pro-social, constructive, and individual behavior (see, e.g., Barry & Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015). Following this, a stream of research arguing that employee voice should be handled more extensively to reflect individual and collective; constructive and destructive aspects have emerged. Wilkinson and colleagues (2014) described employee voice as “the ways and means through which

employees attempt to have a say and potentially influence organizational affairs about issues that affect their work and the interests of managers and owners” (p. 5). By following this broader conceptualization of voice, the present study focused on considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation as being different voice mechanisms that reflect individual prosocial employee behaviors and behaviors that may challenge organization/management, either individually or through collective actions.

While the negative relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction has been revealed in many studies (e.g., Cheng & Chan, 2008; Jiang & Lavyesse, 2018; Sverke et al., 2002) – and voice being a behavioral response exhibited against job dissatisfaction (e.g., Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988) – only a few studies have investigated the relationship between job insecurity and voice.

Notably, most of these studies have focused exclusively on quantitative individual job insecurity, not taking into account the qualitative individual job insecurity or job insecurity climate dimensions, and handled voice in narrow concepts by mainly focusing one aspect of it (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Schreurs et al., 2015; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). However, findings in Study 1 pointed to the importance of considering conceptual variation in job insecurity to be able to comprehend job insecurity and employee behavior association adequately.

The present study mainly focused on unionized employees’ voice behavior in response to job insecurity. The main question was “how do unionized employees make their voices heard in the face of job insecurity?”. Job insecurity was conceptualized as the four-dimensional structure that includes individual and climate job insecurity with quantitative and qualitative dimensions, as clearly demonstrated in Study 1. Voice was treated in four aspects, considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation, to include the constructive/destructive, individual/collective elements. Considering the role of social support in regulating the effects of job insecurity (e.g., Cheng et al., 2014; Lim, 1996), in the union context, perceived union

support was thought to have an essential role in the job insecurity and voice relationship, so it was tested as a moderator.

4.2. Introduction

4.2.1. Employee Voice

Since the voice construct was introduced to the organizational behavior literature by Hirschman (1970), it has been conceptualized in numerous ways. It was first defined as “any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs, whether through individual or collective petition to the management directly in charge, through appeal to a higher authority with the intention of forcing a change in management, or through various types of actions or protests, including those that are meant to mobilize public opinion” (Hirschman, 1979, p. 30). It has subsequently been described as an active and constructive response that includes the actions to discuss the existing problems with the supervisors, take responsibility for solving problems, develop suggestions, and seek support from external organizations such as unions to improve conditions (Rusbult et al., 1988). Although voice was conceptualized broadly in these initial definitions, it was typically covered in a narrower scope in the subsequent descriptions. In general, employee voice has evolved in two parallel literatures. On the one hand, in the organizational behavior literature, voice has been evaluated as an individual, discretionary, and pro-social extra-role behavior, by following the works by Van Dyne et al. (1995) and Van Dyne and LePine (1998) (see Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012; Morrison, 2011, 2014, for review studies). On the other hand, in the employment relations and human resource management literature, it has been approached as a collective response by adopting Freeman and Medoff’s (1984) view in which unions were seen “as the main instrument of voice” (see Barry & Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015, for review studies).

In the organizational behavior literature, especially in the last 20 years, a lot of research has been conducted on employee voice behavior (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne; 2009;

LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; Van Dyne et al., 1995). These studies' findings have been presented together in substantial review studies (see Klaas et al. 2012; Morrison 2011, 2014). However, the manifestation of voice in the organizational behavior literature as an individual and pro-social response has been criticized for squeezing it into a narrow space. The critics mainly argue that besides being an individual and constructive response that considers the organization's benefits, employee voice has a broader structure, including various other ways for employees to challenge organizational applications either individually or through collective actions (see Barry & Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015; Mowbray, Wilkinson, & Tse, 2015).

In this regard, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) asserted that voice can be divided into two forms based on its constructiveness level. The considerate voice is a more constructive form in which people consider both their own concerns and those of the organization, and aggressive voice is a less constructive form in which people are motivated to win but do not care about the organization's concerns. The positive correlation of job satisfaction with constructive voice and the negative correlation with destructive voice have pointed to the distinctiveness of these two voice forms.

Besides, Luchak (2003) made a distinction between individual (i.e., direct voice) and collective forms (i.e., representative voice) of voice responses based on the selected methods of dispute resolution. Direct voice was defined as the "efforts by employees to bring about change through two-way communication with another member of the organization (e.g. when an individual discusses a problem with a supervisor or team member)" while representative voice was described as the "efforts to communicate indirectly through a third-party representative or process (e.g. a union steward, filing a grievance)" (Luchak, 2003, p. 118). While direct voice is considered as a more preventive approach that satisfies the interests of the two parties by providing more potential to resolve the dispute, representative voice is stated as a more reactive approach with less potential in this regard. Luchak (2003) pointed out that these two forms of voice are distinctive by demonstrating that the type of employee organizational attachment influences the chosen form. Specifically, employees who

feel connected to the organization through an affective and emotional link were shown to be more likely to utilize direct voice rather than representative voice, while those who are attached for rational and calculated reasons are more likely to use representative voice compared to the direct voice.

In a more recent study, Pauksztat and Wittek (2011) defined representative voice as “actions in which one or more speakers represent others when speaking up about a problem at the workplace or making a suggestion” (p. 2222), and showed that the existence of shared problems is the best predictor of this type of voice. Additionally, protesting against unfavorable conditions has been handled as an aspect of employment voice (see Kladermans, Van Vuuren, & Jacobson, 1991; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). This aspect touches the political (Sverke & Hellgren, 2001) and collective (Walker & Mann, 1984) sides of employee voice beyond being an individual response. The protests, demonstrations, street-walks, and strikes against adverse conditions reflect the protesting aspect of the voice response.

With the awareness of these theoretical nuances in the operationalization of voice, the present study aimed to focus on constructive vs. destructive and direct (individual) vs. representative (collective) voice aspects by including considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation into the scope of this study.

4.2.2. Job Insecurity and Voice Responses among Union Members

In an organizational behavior literature-centered review, Morrison (2011) proposed a theoretical model for employee voice, in which determinants and outcomes of voice as well as the mechanisms producing the effects are explained. This model mainly argues that employees’ motive to help the organization may affect their voice responses, and their perceived cost/benefit of voicing themselves shapes this association. It is stated that employee cost/benefit evaluation depends both on individual factors like job attitudes, personality, demographics, and experience, and on contextual factors such as organizational structure, organizational culture,

collective-level beliefs, and relationship with supervisor. The results of employee voice in terms of individuals (e.g., learning and improvement, impact on co-workers) and organizations (e.g., felt control, job attitudes, stress) have also found their place in the model. In a similar fashion, Klaas et al. (2012) specified trait-like individual differences, work-related factors like satisfaction, commitment, and, loyalty, and organizational culture as the determinants of employee voice. The other theoretical side – the employment relation literature-centered stream – has looked at the picture from a wider angle. This includes adding the effects of the organization’s external environment (e.g., economy, employee rights, union organization, and cultural-orientation), the role of policies and strategies that organizations develop for human resources management, and by opening parentheses for the other types of voice forms different from individual voice (i.e., collective voice, direct voice, representative voice) (see Kaufman, 2015).

Employees do a cost/benefit analysis in their minds when deciding whether to raise their voices or not. The tendency to voice may drop when the perceived cost/benefit is high; however, another point to note is what the perceived gain will be. In cases where personal gains are obvious, individuals can be expected to voice (Morrison, 2011, 2014). Schreurs et al. (2015) argued that “such costs and gains are exacerbated in high-stake situations, for example, in situations of organizational change that evoke feelings of job insecurity” (p. 1108). While the job insecurity and voice literatures continue to progress separately, these two phenomena have rarely been considered together. Besides, the findings of the existing studies produce ambiguities regarding the associations between the phenomena.

The association between job insecurity and voice behavior attracted research interest especially in the early 2000s (Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). Studies were mainly based on Hirschman’s exit, voice, and loyalty framework, but they assessed voice differently in general. Specifically, Berntson et al. (2010) measured “employees’ perceptions of their ability to affect decisions in the organization” (p. 220) to represent voice. They found that job insecurity was negatively related to voice after controlling for age, gender, and education level. This

result was in contradiction with Sverke and Hellgren's (2001) finding showing that job insecurity was positively associated with voice that was measured by disengagement in the downsizing goal and protest against the downsizing process. Importantly, this study showed that union members resorted voice (disengagement in the downsizing goal) less compared to non-unionized employees and, building on this finding, the authors suggested that "the collective support derived from union membership may make individual voice expressions less important" (p. 167). In the other study, Sverke and Goslinga (2003) investigated unionized employees' voice responses to job insecurity using data collected from four European countries (Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, and Sweden). They asked participants about their involvement in union activities and their intentions to take part in union activities to represent the voice response. Job insecurity was not found to be related to these measures in any of the countries. The authors concluded that "voicing one's concerns through active involvement in union affairs does not appear to be a frequent strategy to cope with job insecurity" (p. 258). In a more recent study approaching voice as an extra-role behavior in accordance with the organizational behavior literature, Schreurs et al. (2015) found that job insecurity was negatively associated with employee voice.

Apparently, with these contradictory findings it is quite challenging to arrive at firm conclusions regarding the association between job insecurity and voice. One reason for such ambiguity in results may be attributed to the operationalization of voice. Moving from this point, and in line with Gorden's (1988) argument that voice is a multi-dimensional construct containing active, passive, destructive, and constructive components, this study aimed to examine the relationship between job insecurity and voice by using different voice measurements in the literature. Importantly, in the research presented above, only the individual quantitative job insecurity was taken into consideration. In contrast, the present study aims to look at this issue from a more comprehensive window by including also other aspects of job insecurity and their possible relationships with different voice responses.

4.2.3. The Moderating Role of Union Support

The role of social support has received considerable research attention in research on the relationship between work stressors and strain reactions (see, e.g., Callan, 1993; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; House, 1981; Lim, 1996; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). It has been stated that the effect of social support on stress and its consequences is threefold: Social support may have a direct impact on the stressor itself or on the outcome, or it can moderate the relationship between the stress factor and the outcome variable (House, 1981; Lim, 1996; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). Although the direct effects of social support on stress factors and outcome variables are somewhat consistent, the literature hosts contradictory findings regarding the moderating (or buffering) role of social support (e.g., Cheng et al., 2014; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Lim, 1996; Mak & Mueller, 2000; Sverke et al., 2004; Van den Tooren & de Jong, 2014). It seems that the moderating role of social support varies depending on the source of support (e.g., family, friends, supervisors, and colleagues) and the outcome variables under investigation (e.g., well-being, health-problems, and organizational outcomes) (Lim, 1996).

The subject of social support has also found its place in the job insecurity literature. Although social support has been proposed as a stress-buffering factor (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984), there are contradictory findings about its interaction with job insecurity. Although some studies indicate that employees who receive higher support from family, friends and colleagues tend to suffer less from job insecurity perceptions (Cheng et al., 2014; Lim, 1996), others could not support the stress-buffering effect of social support (e.g., Mak & Mueller, 2000; Van den Tooren & de Jong, 2014).

Union support has been conceptualized as another form of social support in addition to the support obtained from family, friends, supervisors, and colleagues (Armstrong-Stassen, 1993; Shore, Tetrick, Sinclair, & Newton, 1994; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Sverke et al. (2004) mentioned that unions are expected to enable employees with a social context to discuss the events at work, provide protection for the interests of

employees (instrumental support), and create a link for information sharing between management and the workforce (informational support). When employees think that the union has fulfilled these tasks, they are expected to perceive union support. The perceived union support has been considered a critical moderator that can alleviate the detrimental effects of job insecurity (e.g., Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Sverke et al., 2004). However, findings regarding the stress-buffering role of union support are complicated. Although Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) mentioned that “if no help is offered by unions in terms of protecting jobs or guaranteeing payouts, the more difficult it will be to cope with job insecurity” (p. 58), they did not support the stress-buffering effect of union support on employees’ psychological health. Similarly, using data collected among unionized employees from three European countries (Italy, the Netherlands, and Sweden), Hellgren and Chirumbolo (2003) showed that union support did not alleviate the negative impact of job insecurity on mental health complaints. Moreover, although union support appeared to reduce the negative impact of job insecurity on some variables (physical health complaints and organizational commitment), Sverke et al. (2004) were not able to conclude that union support alleviates the negative effects of job insecurity due to the non-significant moderating effects on other individual, organizational, and union-related outcome variables. These results may suggest that perceived union support does not moderate the impact of job insecurity. Nevertheless, this inference can vary depending on which job insecurity dimension is in focus and which outcome variables are being investigated.

In the light of the literature presented above, Study 2 in this thesis aims to explore whether and how the four job insecurity dimensions are related to considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation among union members in Turkey, and whether perceived union support can moderate the investigated associations.

4.3. Method

4.3.1. Participants and Procedure

Paper-and-pencil questionnaires were administered to the Turkish Metal Union members during training seminars organized by the union in August 2019. Before the data collection, the Research and Education Center of the Turkish Metal Union was contacted, and permission to collect data from the members was obtained. Participants were 172 union members (92% men, $M_{\text{age}} = 38$, age range: 25-51, $M_{\text{organizational tenure}} = 13$ years, organizational tenure range: 2 months-29 years) working in the metal industry in Turkey. No incentive for participation was provided. Participants were informed that their answers would be treated confidentially, that their participation in the study was entirely voluntary, and that they could discontinue their participation in the survey at any time (for the informed consent form, see Appendix A). The missing values (3.91% of the data set) were imputed using the EM algorithm based on the recommendations by Tabachnick and Fidell (2014).

4.3.2. Measures

4.3.2.1. Individual Job Insecurity

Individual quantitative job insecurity was measured with the 3-item subscale ($\alpha = .69$) and individual qualitative job insecurity was assessed by the 4-item subscale ($\alpha = .74$) developed by Hellgren et al. (1999). Example items were “I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to” for individual quantitative job insecurity and “I feel that [the organization] can provide me with a stimulating job content in the near future (reverse coded)” for individual qualitative job insecurity subscales. Items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale ($1 =$ strongly disagree, $7 =$ strongly agree). Higher scores obtained from the subscales indicate higher levels of individual quantitative and qualitative job insecurity perceptions, respectively (see Appendix C).

4.3.2.2. Job Insecurity Climate

The quantitative and qualitative dimensions of job insecurity climate perceptions were assessed with the 4-item subscales developed by Låstad et al. (2015). Example items were “At my workplace there is a general feeling that someone/several people are going to lose their jobs” for quantitative job insecurity climate ($\alpha = .87$) and “At my workplace there are many who are worried about receiving less stimulating work tasks in the future” for qualitative job insecurity climate ($\alpha = .85$). Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Higher scores indicate higher levels of quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate perceptions, respectively (see Appendix D).

The confirmatory factor analysis results in this data set showed that the four-factor structure of job insecurity (i.e., individual job insecurity quantitative and qualitative, job insecurity climate quantitative and qualitative) fit the data well (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2(84) = 139.10, p < .001, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07$).

4.3.2.3. Employee Voice

Four types of voice responses, namely considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation were measured in this study. Similar to the statement used by Hagedoorn et al. (1999), the different behavioral responses were presented as follows:

Every employee occasionally faces some challenges in the workplace. This study focuses on job insecurity, which is one of the problematic issues employees confront in the workplace. Anxiety of dismissal or losing important job features such as salary, promotion, status, and promotion are among the problems one may encounter in the working life. Employees can react differently across these situations. Below there are some behaviors that employees engage in as a response to experiences of job insecurity. Please state the level you would apply these behaviors in case you perceived job insecurity.

Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = definitely not, 7 = definitely yes). Higher scores obtained from the relevant scale indicate higher levels of voice in that specific form (see Appendix F, for the voice responses scale).

4.3.2.3.1. Considerate Voice

The 11-item ($\alpha = .93$) considerate voice subscale of Hagedoorn et al.'s (1999) EVLN measure was used to assess the considerate voice response. An example item is "try to think of different solutions to the problem".

4.3.2.3.2. Aggressive Voice

The aggressive voice response was assessed by a 7-item ($\alpha = .61$) aggressive voice subscale developed by Hagedoorn et al. (1999). An example item is "deliberately make the problem sound more problematic than it really is".

4.3.2.3.3. Representative Voice

It was measured by the item that states "to perform a representational role (e.g., union representative) on behalf of a third-party institution (e.g., union)", which was used by Luchak (2003).

4.3.2.3.4. Protest Orientation

Employees' protest orientation was assessed by two items used by Walker and Mann (1987). The items were "attending to protest meetings or marches that are permitted by the authorities" and "refusing to obey a law that one thinks is unjust". Protest orientation score was calculated by averaging the ratings given to these two items.

4.3.2.4. Perceived Union Support

Perceived union support was measured with the question “Does your union membership help you maintain the job security you perceive?”. Participants rated this item on a 7-point Likert scale (*1* = definitely no, *7* = definitely yes).

4.3.2.5. Demographic variables

Participants were asked to answer some demographic questions including age, gender (0 = man, 1 = woman), education level (0 = lower education, 1 = four years university degree or more), and organizational tenure.

4.3.3. Data Analysis

In order to observe the main effects of the four job insecurity dimensions in relation to the four voice responses (i.e., considerate voice, aggressive voice, representative voice, and protest orientation), hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted in SPSS for each voice response separately. The analyses were run in two pre-determined steps. In Step 1, gender and age were entered to the analyses as control variables to exclude their effects on the dependent variables; in Step 2, the four job insecurity dimensions were added to the model. These regression analyses enabled observing the specific amount of variance explained by the four job insecurity dimensions on the four voice responses beyond the effects of gender and age. The potential moderating role of perceived union support on the relationship between job insecurity dimensions and voice responses was tested using SPSS Process macro version 3.4 (Hayes, 2017). Before creating interaction terms, the means of job insecurity dimensions and perceived union support were centered.

4.4. Results

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables are presented in Table 7. Gender and age were found to have significant correlations with some study variables. Particularly, women reported higher levels of individual qualitative job insecurity than men, and older people reported less aggressive voice and less protest orientation than younger participants. So, gender and age were controlled in the primary analyses to eliminate their effects on the examined relationships.

Prior to conducting the hierarchical multiple regression analyses, potential multicollinearity among the study variables was tested but these analyses found no indication of multicollinearity. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 8.

As concerns considerate voice, the demographic control variables entered in Step 1 (gender and age) explained no significant proportion of the variance. In Step 2, the four job insecurity dimensions explained 24 percent of the variance. Individual qualitative job insecurity was negatively related to considerate voice ($\beta = -.49, p < .001$), suggesting that participants who perceived threats to losing valued features of their jobs reported lower considerate voice. No other job insecurity dimension was significantly related to this outcome. In total, the two steps accounted for 25 percent of the variance in considerate voice.

Concerning aggressive voice, the control variables accounted for five percent of the variation. Age had a negative association ($\beta = -.20, p = .02$), showing that older people tended to report lower levels of aggressive voice. The job insecurity dimensions entered in Step 2 explained an additional 11 units of the variance in aggressive voice after controlling for Step 1. Qualitative job insecurity climate was positively associated with aggressive voice ($\beta = .19, p = .04$), thus indicating that the experience of a climate of losing valuable job features was connected with higher levels of aggressive voice. The two steps accounted for 16 percent of the variance in aggressive voice.

When it comes to representative voice, the control variables in Step 1 did not account for a significant portion of the variation while the job insecurity dimensions entered in Step 2 explained eight units of the variance. Representative voice was significantly predicted by the two qualitative dimensions of job insecurity, but the signs of these relationships were different. In particular, individual qualitative job insecurity was negatively related to representative voice ($\beta = -.21, p = .02$) while job insecurity climate qualitative had a positive association ($\beta = .21, p = .03$). These results indicate that if losing valuable job features is one's own concern, the tendency to report representative voice decreased, while it was higher when this is a collective concern at the workplace. Step 1 and 2 together explained nine percent of the variance in representative voice.

As for the protest orientation, neither the control variables (Step 1) nor the job insecurity dimensions (Step 2) accounted for any significant portion of variance. No job insecurity dimension was significantly related to this type of voice. In total, Step 1 and 2 explained five percent of the variance in protest orientation together.

The results concerning the potential moderating role of perceived union support on the associations between job insecurity and voice responses showed that union support was a significant moderator in only one association, namely, the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and considerate voice, $F(3, 168) = 19.86, p < .000, R^2 = .26$. The main effect of individual qualitative job insecurity on considerate voice was significant ($B = -.39, t(168) = -6.54, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.51; -.28]$), but that of perceived union support was not ($B = .10, t(168) = 1.91, p = .06, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.004; .20]$). The interaction term was significant ($B = .07, t(168) = 2.09, p = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} [.004; .14]$). Figure 2 presents a graphical representation of the interaction. The slope of the "low perceived union support" regression line was steeper ($B = -.52, t(168) = -5.89, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.69; -.34]$) than the slope of the "high perceived union support" regression line ($B = -.27, t(168) = -3.43, p = .001, \text{ CI} [-.43; -.12]$). Thus, the negative effect of individual qualitative job insecurity on considerate voice was stronger among individuals who reported lower levels of perceived union support than among those who reported higher levels of perceived union support. Perceived union support was

not found as a significant moderator of any of the other associations between job insecurity dimensions and the voice outcomes.

Table 7 Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender (woman)	.06	.24												
2. Age	37.80	6.79	-.02											
3. Education (university)	.02	.13	.16*	.15										
4. JI-quantitative	4.03	1.65	-.10	.03	.04	(.69)								
5. JI-qualitative	4.09	1.45	.20**	-.03	.05	-.01	(.74)							
6. JI climate-quantitative	4.14	1.70	.15	-.02	.03	.57***	.17*	(.87)						
7. JI climate-qualitative	4.52	1.47	.10	-.13	.03	.31***	.10	.48***	(.85)					
8. Considerate voice	5.01	1.28	-.08	.03	.00	.08	-.47***	.02	.10	(.93)				
9. Aggressive voice	3.64	1.00	-.09	-.20*	-.02	.27***	-.07	.22**	.28***	.08	(.61)			
10. Representative voice	4.56	1.95	.10	-.07	.03	.05	-.17*	.06	.20**	.33***	.19*	(-)		
11. Protest orientation	4.67	1.82	.00	-.17 ^a	-.05	.09	-.03	.11	.14	.26***	.27***	.39***	(-)	
12. Union support	5.34	1.68	-.13	-.09	.04	.04	-.23**	-.03	-.02	.25**	-.01	.15 ^b	.07	(-)

Note 1. Pairwise deletion was applied. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, a. $p = .05$, b. $p = .06$.

Note 2. JI: Job insecurity. Job insecurity dimensions, voice responses, and union support were rated on 7-point Likert scales. Gender: 0 = man, 1 = woman; age: in years; education: 0 = lower education, 1 = four years university degree or more.

Note 3. Cronbach's alpha values of the scales were presented into diagonals.

Table 8 Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses for Voice Responses

Variables	Considerate voice			Aggressive voice			Representative Voice			Protest Orientation		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Step 1												
Gender (Woman)	-.45	.48	-.08	-.38	.35	-.09	.80	.72	.10	-.03	.67	.00
Age	.01	.02	.03	-.03	.01	-.20*	-.02	.03	-.07	-.05	.02	-.17
<i>F</i>	.50			3.26*			.96			1.90		
<i>R</i> ²	.01			.05			.02			.03		
Step 2												
Gender (Woman)	-.01	.44	-.00	-.35	.35	-.09	1.00	.74	.13	-.05	.71	-.01
Age	.01	.02	.03	-.03	.01	-.18*	-.01	.03	-.05	-.04	.02	-.16
JI-quantitative	.01	.08	.01	.11	.06	.18	.02	.13	.01	.03	.12	.03
JI-qualitative	-.43	.07	-.49***	-.05	.06	-.08	-.29	.12	-.21*	-.07	.11	-.06
JI climate-quantitative	.02	.08	.03	.03	.06	.05	-.04	.13	-.03	.06	.13	.06
JI climate-qualitative	.12	.08	.14	.13	.06	.19*	.28	.13	.21*	.10	.13	.08
<i>F</i>	6.73***			4.01**			2.14 ^a			1.07		
ΔF	9.77***			4.23**			2.70*			.67		
<i>R</i> ²	.25			.16			.09			.05		
ΔR^2	.24			.11			.08			.02		

Note 1. Pairwise deletion was applied in the analyses. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, *a.* $p = .05$.

Note 2. JI: Job insecurity. Gender: 0 = man, 1 = woman; age: in years. For each outcome variable, the df is 128 for Step 1; and 124 for Step 2.

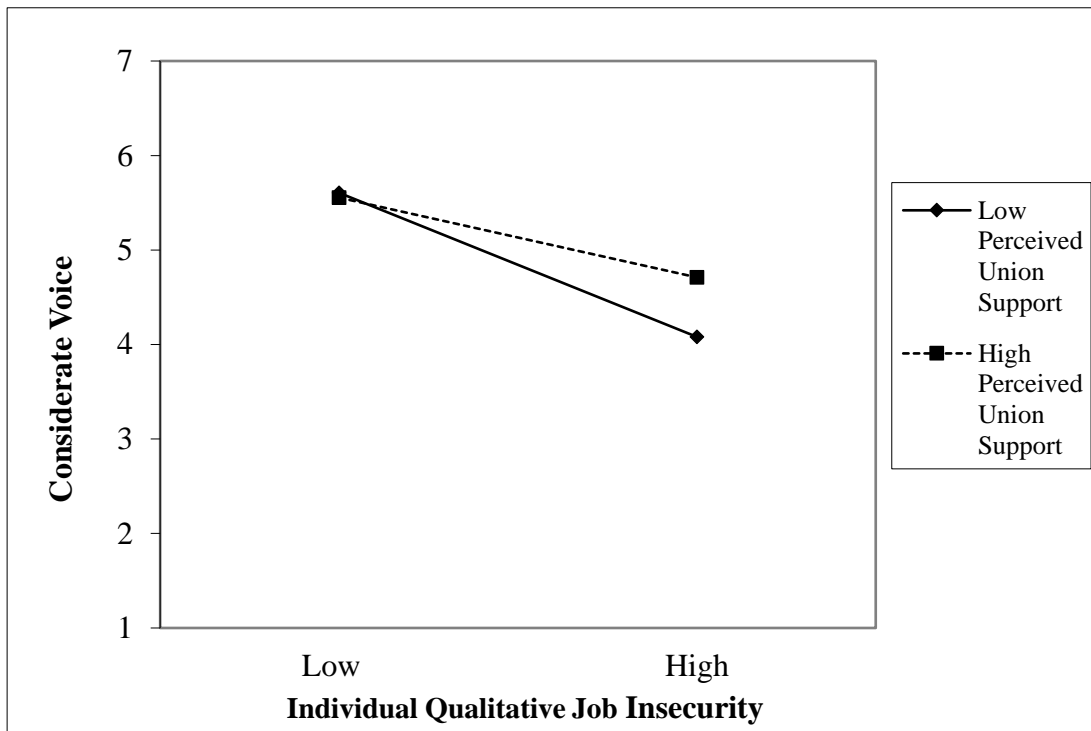


Figure 2 The moderating effects of low and high perceived union support in the relationship between individual qualitative job insecurity and considerate voice.

4.5. Discussion

The present study examined the association between job insecurity and employee voice among unionized employees in Turkey and whether perceived union support moderated this relationship. Specifically, Study 2 aimed to integrate the job insecurity and employee voice literature. Although both topics have received considerable research attention, especially in the last two decades, only a few studies have taken these two variables together and investigated their relationship. The current study looked at the relationship between job insecurity and employee voice from a broader window by going beyond a focus only on individual perceptions of potential job loss, and including different aspects of voice rather than treating it as just an extra-role behavior (as in the organizational behavior literature; e.g., Botero & Van Dyne; 2009;

LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Van Dyne et al., 2003) or collective action (as in employee relationship literature; e.g., Charlwood & Pollert, 2014; Dundon & Rollinson, 2011). The specified relationships were tested on data from a non-western country, Turkey. It was thought that this study would contribute to the generalizability of the findings in this field, particularly considering that job insecurity and voice relationship has typically been investigated using data collected from European countries or the US (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Schreurs et al., 2015; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). Moreover, considering that social support at work (e.g., Cheng et al., 2014; Lim, 1996) or from unions (Sverke et al., 2004) have been found to moderate the associations between job insecurity and outcomes, Study 2 carried out an exploratory study to examine the potential moderating role of perceived union support in the link between job insecurity and employee voice.

The current study's findings supported the four-dimensional structure of job insecurity reported by Låstad et al. (2015) on data collected from a different contextual context. This picture once again showed that addressing job insecurity only as individual concern about losing the job is the visible face of the iceberg, at least for the employee voice. Even so, this study revealed that, in general, the qualitative forms of job insecurity were more consistently related to voice behaviors as compared to the quantitative dimensions.

When looking at the findings in-depth, it was seen that individual qualitative job insecurity was associated with a decrement in considerate voice, while none of the other dimensions (quantitative job insecurity or quantitative and qualitative job insecurity climate) emerged as significant predictors. Hagedoorn et al. (1999) conceptualized considerate voice as a constructive form of voice in that employees try to find solutions for existing problems by considering both their own interests and the interests of the organization. As such, the considerate voice measure used in this study is similar to voice defined as being an extra-role, prosocial, and constructive behavior in the organizational behavior literature (e.g., Morrison, 2011; 2014; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Van Dyne et al., 2003). In that literature, the desire to help the organization perform effectively was specified as the

primary motive for engaging in this type of voice (Morrison, 2011). It is argued that when things are getting worse in the relationship with the organization, employees may choose silence, and although the motivation to strive for the organization's benefit continues to exist, such attempts may be shadowed by other motives (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). That is, employees are disrupted to express their opinions/suggestions for the benefit of the organization. Even if they have something to say, they can refrain from using considerate voice because of other motivations (see Morrison, 2011). This argument presents a reasonable explanation for the finding in this study that in case of threats to losing valuable job features (qualitative job insecurity), other motivations would prevent employees from striving for the benefit of the organization and reduce the frequency of resorting to this type of response.

An important "other motivation" may be the self-protective concern. Morrison (2011) states that "self-protective motives play a central role in the decision of whether or not to voice" (p. 383) and the findings of the current study challenge this argument that self-protective motives may adjust which type of voice individuals engage. The positive association found between qualitative job insecurity climate and aggressive voice can be explained in this context. When a perception about the loss of valuable job properties prevails in the work environment, employees may think that the psychological contract with the organization is disrupted to put them in a disadvantaged condition and the violation of the psychological contract damages the employee-employer relationship (King, 2000; Robinson et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1989). This perception may direct employees to turn to a self-protective path rather than to engage in organization-focused prosocial behavior. Hence, their motivation to strive for the organization's benefit may stay behind the motivation to look after their own interests. Therefore, although voice has been viewed as a response considering the benefit of the organization in the organizational behavior literature (see reviews by Morrison, 2011, 2014), it may also contain a less constructive and self-protective part as stated by Hagedoorn et al. (1999) and Barry and Wilkinson (2016).

Moreover, beyond displaying individual voice, employees can take a representative role by acting on behalf of the social context they are working in (e.g., Paukstat &

Witteck, 2011). In terms of representative voice, the present findings differed according to the focal job insecurity dimension. Specifically, the two qualitative job insecurity dimensions (individual and climate) were found to predict the willingness to take a representative role in a third-party institution like a union; however, the directions of the effects were different. While individual qualitative job insecurity was associated with a lower tendency to take a representative role, qualitative job insecurity climate had a positive association. This finding implies that when individuals think that the threat is directly related to them, they may find it more logical to handle it with individual coping strategies. Hence, their motivation to engage in collective action, such as being a union representative, may decrease. Dealing with individual concerns can put them back from being representative on behalf of their colleagues. In contrast, if this problem has gotten into the organization's climate, individuals may attempt to behave collectively by engaging in representative voice.

Importantly, none of the job insecurity dimensions were found to predict employee protest orientation. This result does not support Sverke and Hellgren's (2002) findings showing that insecure union members were more inclined to protest against the downsizing process than secure union members. However, it should be noted that, in their study, protest against downsizing was measured based on an attitudinal framework, but not as a behavioral response, and the distinction between secure and insecure employees was made only through the individual quantitative job insecurity dimension. Concerning the findings in the present study, there may be some plausible explanations for the absence of job insecurity effects on the protest orientation. First, although the protest orientation was framed as a behavioral response in this study, it may be an indicator of "social attitude about collective action" as stated by Walker and Man (1987). Second, job insecurity may have no effect on employee protest orientation, such that this response may be better predicted by other factors than job insecurity, such as trait-like individual differences, job satisfaction, commitment, risk and safety of voice, voice utility, voice legitimacy, the presence of aversive conditions, and culture (see Klaas et al., 2012). Third, in countries with a low unionization rate, such as Turkey (13.66 percent; Republic of Turkey Ministry of Family and Social Policies, 2020), union participation can already be thought of as a protest method.

Although Benson (2000) showed that union presence did not prevent other voice forms from appearing, the result may have been so in the Turkish cultural context. By joining a union, people have already developed a collective voice behavior, and instead of protesting themselves, they may expect the union to represent them. Here another critical point may be that employees' tendency to protest may depend on others. Some employees may consider that someone has to do something but may not be motivated enough to be that person (Withey & Cooper, 1989). This situation can be especially pronounced in the context of job insecurity climate because when employees see that everyone is struggling with the same problem, they can refrain from protesting because they think someone else will already do.

A remarkable point in the results is that neither of the two quantitative job insecurity forms significantly predicted voice among union members. A plausible explanation for this is that employees may have consciously chosen to remain silent in response to the individual and the collective threat of losing the job, as Morrison and his colleagues (2011, 2014) stated. The reason behind this may be the lack of motivation to put hands under the stone, or the evaluations of voice's cost to be high and effectiveness to be low. Such evaluations may be affected by individual and contextual factors, as Morrison and colleagues (2011, 2014) stated, or by external environment conditions like "prosperity level of the economy, laws governing employee voice, extent of trade unionism and individual versus collective cultural attitudes" (Kaufman, 2015, p. 21). An alternative explanation for the absence of significant predictive effects of the quantitative forms of job insecurity on voice is that, in support of Sverke and Goslinga's (2003) findings, employees may turn to other behavioral responses rather than voice in the face of job loss threat. Following the EVLN model (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1982, 1988), alternatives to voice can be exit, loyalty, or neglect. Accordingly, rather than engaging in individual or collective efforts to contribute to the solution of the problem, employees may choose to quit the job to leave behind the job loss threat, or they may switch to the passive mode by waiting for the threat to decrease or just let the conditions get worse. The results of Study 1 showing significant associations between quantitative job insecurity aspects and exit, loyalty, and neglect responses provided support for this claim.

When looking at the tested interaction effects, perceived union support was generally found not to have a moderating role in the associations between job insecurity and voice. The only significant moderation effect was found between individual qualitative job insecurity climate and union support in predicting considerate voice. This may suggest that although social support has been shown to have positive main effects on various outcomes (see Viswesvaran et al., 1999, for a meta-analysis), union support may not impact employees' voice responses at all. On the other hand, the findings indicating non-significant stress-buffering effects of social support in general (e.g., Beehr, Farmer, Glazer, Gudanowski, & Nair, 2003), and union support in particular (e.g., Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Sverke et al., 2004), are in line with the findings of this study. Perhaps other sources of social support, but not union support, have an impact on regulating unionized employees' voice responses.

Jackson (1992) emphasizes the importance of the match between support type, source of support, and stressor type by arguing that perceived support may alleviate the adverse impact of a stressor only if the support type matches the stressor type and the reactions against the stressor. Based on this argument, perhaps in the case of job insecurity, the support provided by the primary organization (e.g., management support, supervisor support, colleague support), rather than the support from a secondary organization (i.e., union support), will overlap more with both the stress source (job insecurity in this study) and the response type (voice in this study). Additionally, other union-related factors (e.g., union commitment, union satisfaction, and union justice) than perceived union support may be more critical in the relationship between job insecurity and voice (Sverke et al., 2004). Another possible reason may be that perceived union support has not been measured well in this study. The question we used to measure union support ("Does your union membership help you maintain the job security you perceive?") might be understood as an evaluation of whether members perceive that membership may protect their job security. Hence, it might have been understood as perceptions of union protection rather than union support. Furthermore, beyond these possible reasons, the statistical difficulties of finding proposed interactions and moderator effects in the field studies should also be considered (McClelland & Judd, 1993).

Notably, when interpreting the findings related to union members, the general union context in Turkey and the features of the metal industry, to which the sample of the study belongs, should be taken into consideration. According to the July 2020 statistics reported by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Family and Social Policies, 1 million 946 thousand 165 of 14 million 251 thousand 655 workers are union members, yielding a unionization rate of 13.66 percent. Among all employees, more than 17 percent are working on the metal industry. Among all union members, 12.27 percent are members of the Turkish Metal Union. The metal industry is one of Turkey's most critical sectors in terms of strategic importance for the country's development, its economic size, and the number of workers it employed. Considering the distribution of workers by sectors, the metal industry ranks second in terms of the total number of workers, following the trade, office, education, and fine arts industry. In general, it is a male-dominated industry in which the corporate competition between different companies is intense; the flexible working styles are widely applied, working conditions are challenging, and requires knowledge, experience, expertise, and continuous inspection during the production phase due to the nature of the jobs (Aytaç et al., 2015; E. Güllüoğlu & A. Güllüoğlu, 2019, Ünal, 2007). The Turkish Metal Union, on the other hand, has the highest number of members, close to 200.000, in the metal industry with a 12.71 percent unionization rate. It continues its activities as an authorized union in many workplaces in the automotive, white goods, electronics, iron and steel, and automotive spare parts sectors in Turkey. Turkish Metal Union offers many educational opportunities and social resources to the members. In Turkey, there may be differences between sectors and unions in terms of demographic characteristics of the workers, conditions of the sector, and the support provided by the unions. Hence, this study's results should be evaluated by considering that this study was obtained as a result of data collected from employees working in the metal industry and who are members of the Turkish Metal Union.

4.5.1. Limitations and Direction for Future Research

This study, like any research, is associated with some methodological limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of our data prevents to make causal inferences about the findings. With longitudinal data, the information provided by this study may be strengthened statistically (e.g., Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996). Second, this study relied on self-reports to measure all the variables. Relying on self-reports measures may have brought the risk to overestimate the relationships between job insecurity dimensions and voice responses because of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; Spector, 2006). Although self-reports are considered the best way to reflect employees' perceptions of job insecurity and voice responses, future studies may also benefit from other types of measures to understand the investigated associations better. However, it should be noted that there are debates on the effect of common method variance, and concerns have been raised on its relevance in organizational research (Spector, 2006). On that issue, Lance and colleagues (2010) have argued that single-method correlations may ensure a more precise picture of relationships among variables. Third, the study participants are mostly male employees working in the metal industry in one particular country, which may call the findings' generalizability into question. Future research using data from different cultural contexts and organizational settings is needed to examine the results' generalizability. Future research may also contribute to employee voice literature by developing a theoretically sound, inclusive, and psychometrically robust measure of different types of employee voice.

4.5.2. Concluding Remarks

This study looked at employee voice with a holistic approach to include both the constructive/less constructive and individual/collective forms of voice. This holistic view is considered to help researchers and practitioners understand employee voice adequately and have a clear vision of its premises and implications for individuals and organizations. It may facilitate figuring out the contradictory findings in the literature

and understanding the channels of employees' needs to make their voices heard in organizations when they experience job insecurity. By highlighting how different job insecurity dimensions predicted diverse voice behaviors among unionized employees, this study reveals that concentrating on only one voice aspect and only one job insecurity dimension can prevent researchers and practitioners from seeing the big picture. In general, the present study's findings contributed to the knowledge gap in the related literature by revealing qualitative job insecurity climate may be more important than the quantitative form in predicting employee voice.

CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The present thesis aimed to provide a deeper understanding of the job insecurity phenomenon by examining the job insecurity climate construct, its distinctiveness from individual job insecurity, and its relationship with employee behavioral responses. For this, two studies were designed to examine three research aims. The purpose of the first study was twofold. The first was to investigate the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct and the distinctiveness of individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate perceptions. The second aim was to test the predictive role of job insecurity climate on employees' exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect responses and whether job insecurity climate would have an incremental validity beyond individual job insecurity in predicting these responses. The second study aimed to examine the job insecurity and employee voice association with a more in-depth look by specifically focusing on different voice responses among unionized employees.

The main findings of the two studies on the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct and the relationships between job insecurity and exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses are discussed in the following sections together with methodological considerations, suggestions for future research, and theoretical and practical implications.

5.1. Dimensionality of the Job Insecurity Construct

In Study 1, the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct was tested in a sample of employees from different sectors and organizations in Turkey. The confirmatory factor

analysis results revealed that individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate are two distinct constructs, both having quantitative and qualitative aspects. The varying correlations of the four dimensions with each other, their specific relationships with demographic characteristics (i.e., education level and sector), and the outcome variables (shown both in Study 1 and Study 2) provide support for the distinctiveness of the four job insecurity dimensions. Besides, the confirmatory factor analysis results in Study 2 provided additional support for the four-dimensional structure of the job insecurity construct obtained in Study 1 in another sample. These findings suggest that individuals can distinguish the insecurity about their own jobs' itself and job conditions from the climate they perceive at the workplace. Hence, the results imply that people could sense the distinction of "I" and "we", as well as between threats to the "entire job" and threats to "valued job features" when expressing their levels of job insecurity. As such, this thesis supports the existence of climatic job insecurity perception at the workplaces suggested by recent studies (Jiang & Probst, 2016; Låstad et al., 2015, 2016, 2018; Mauno et al., 2014; Sora et al., 2009, 2013). It also adds to the generalizability of the four-dimensional job insecurity construct pointed out by Låstad and colleagues (2015) in a different cultural and organizational setting.

Overall, the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct displayed that characterizing job insecurity as only an individual concern of losing the job, as traditionally approached in the job insecurity literature, may indeed obstruct researchers and practitioners from making sense of this phenomenon and its effects on individuals, organizations, and societies. Therefore, looking deeper into the concept of job insecurity by including different dimensions will bring researchers, practitioners, and policymakers closer to understanding this phenomenon better and will enable reaching more secure employment conditions.

5.2. The Associations between Job Insecurity and Employee Behaviors

Upon the finding showing that individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate are two distinct constructs containing quantitative and qualitative aspects, the next step of this thesis was to examine how these dimensions relate to employees' exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses. Study 1 and Study 2 provided novel findings in this regard on two different samples.

Employees' exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses to individual job insecurity have received limited research interest in the job insecurity literature (see Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001). However, until now, it has not been investigated how job insecurity climate may affect such responses. To fill this gap, Study 1 in the present thesis scrutinized the effect of job insecurity climate in predicting exit, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect; it also examined the possible incremental validity of job insecurity climate beyond individual job insecurity in predicting these outcomes. The results displayed that the job insecurity climate may predict individuals' behavioral responses. However, the point that needs to be emphasized at this point is that the collective concern that is about losing the job entirely or losing valuable job features may be related to different reactions.

Findings in Study 1 demonstrated that whereas quantitative job insecurity climate was associated with higher levels of loyalty and neglect, qualitative job insecurity climate was related to higher levels of exit and lower levels of loyalty, after controlling for the effects of education, sector, and individual job insecurity. These findings suggest that when the perceived climate of insecurity is about losing the job itself, employees may turn to passive behavioral responses in the forms of increased loyalty and neglect (Rusbult et al., 1988). With this, they may tend to stay in the background in a passive mode and not come to the forefoot to ensure that the dismissed ones will not be themselves. This tendency indeed can be explained by the job preservation motive by which individuals attempt to portray themselves as valuable employees for the organization (Koen et al., 2019; Shoss, 2017; Shoss & Probst, 2012). On the other

hand, when the perceived climate of insecurity relates to the deterioration of the current job conditions, employees may think that the effort–reward balance between them and the organization is disrupted; the organization will no longer give them what they deserve. This argument supports Richter and colleagues' (2014) claim that “employees who are worried about important aspects of the job may even start to worry about their overall employment situation” (p. 826). Thus, instead of staying in a passive mode, employees can take the ropes in their hands and search for different options in the labor market, which explains the increased exit and decreased loyalty to the current employer/organization. This situation seems to be linked with the proactive coping mechanisms that should be investigated in future studies. Hence, in the case of a qualitative job insecurity climate, employees may attempt to prepare for the upcoming painful days and strive to make a plan B.

Although no previous study has explicitly examined the relationship between job insecurity climate and the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect behaviors, Study 1 yielded findings show similarities with the previous studies on individual job insecurity. For instance, as found in Study 1, individual job insecurity has been found to be associated with increased exit (Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001), and some signs exist for increased neglect (Roskies et al., 1993; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Vahtera et al., 1997). In terms of their relations with loyalty, there might be a difference between individual and climate insecurity perceptions. Although past work on individual job insecurity has typically indicated that employees' loyalties decrease in response to concerns about losing the job (Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003), Study 1 revealed that when this concern is collective, the loyalty tended to increase. Investigating the theoretical mechanism explaining loyalty reactions in response to individual and climate job insecurity seems a critical research topic.

The results of Study 1 also demonstrated that the climate of job insecurity might be a collective work stressor having incremental validity beyond individual job insecurity perceptions in predicting individual and organizational outcomes (i.e., exit and loyalty responses in this sample). This finding was in line with Låstad and colleagues' (2015)

conclusions that job insecurity climate may explain additional variance in demands, work–family conflict, psychological distress, and self-rated health, over and above individual job insecurity. These results suggest that even if individuals are not concerned about the future of their jobs, working in a climate where this concern prevails can influence their health, attitudes, and behaviors. Herewith, Låstad et al., (2015) brought a new perspective to the job insecurity literature that mostly focuses on the perception of individual job insecurity.

Remarkably, job insecurity climate was not a significant predictor of considerate voice beyond the effects of education level, sector, and individual job insecurity in Study 1. This result entailed that, at least for our sample, collectively worrying about the future of the job in a workplace may not be associated with the considerate voice that employees put their hands on to deal with the problematic issue. In the face of this result, it was considered that perhaps the leading role in the relationship between job insecurity and employee voice might not belong to the job insecurity climate or the considerate representation of the voice.

Based on the critics on treating employee voice as only a pro-social, constructive, and individual behavior (e.g., Barry & Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015), in Study 2, the link between job insecurity and employee voice behavior was elaborated from a broader perspective by including both constructive/less constructive and individual/collective aspects of voice. Accordingly, the connection between the four job insecurity dimensions and different voice representations was explored among unionized employees in Turkey. In general, the results demonstrated that qualitative forms of job insecurity evidenced more robust associations with unionized employees' voice responses (except protest orientation, which was not significantly predicted by any of the four job insecurity dimensions). This result was actually in contradiction with the past findings on individual job insecurity in which quantitative job insecurity has been typically shown to have stronger relations with the outcome variables (Hellgren et al., 1999). Yet, it supported past findings on job insecurity climate, where qualitative job insecurity climate has been reported to be a more consistent predictor

of outcome variables such as psychological distress and self-rated health (Låstad et al., 2015).

Specifically, the results of Study 2 indicate that individual qualitative job insecurity was associated with diminished considerate voice (as shown in the results of Study 1), and qualitative job insecurity climate was related to increased aggressive voice. These results suggest that employees' tendency to behave in a constructive way for the benefit of the organization tends to decrease when threatened with worsening of the job conditions. When the threat is individual, the negative affect brought by the threat of worsening job conditions might result in taking a self-protective path and therefore using less constructive voice for the benefit of the organization. In that situation, employees may refrain from doing things that are good for the organization (Morrison, 2011). This situation looks like taking oneself in a passive mode and hiding the constructive suggestions behind. On the other hand, noticing this threat experienced collectively could make individuals think that the psychological contract between them and the organization has been breached, which may lead to losing motivation of striving for the benefit of the organization. In response to this collective threat, employees might blame the organization more, and rather than keeping constructive suggestions for themselves, they might turn to a more aggressive pattern. However, although Study 2 allows for such inferences, it is difficult to arrive at definitive conclusions regarding the proposed relationships, since, as far as is known, there is no finding showing how job insecurity climate relates to voice behavior at different constructiveness levels.

Study 2 further revealed critical finding regarding how job insecurity relates to representative voice. Specifically, it was found that qualitative forms of job insecurity predicted representative voice, but in different directions: While individual qualitative job insecurity was negatively associated with employees' tendency to show representative voice, qualitative job insecurity climate was positively associated with the same reaction. It seems that employees might apply individual coping strategies when the threat is directly related to their jobs; however, when they see this is a collective concern experienced also by others, then they may think it is time to react

collectively, and take responsibility for handling this climatic problem. This is in line with Paukzstat and Wittek's (2011) finding displaying that the presence of shared problems predicts representative voice.

Study 2 found no significant association between job insecurity and protest behavior among unionized employees in Turkey. This finding contradicts Sverke and Hellgren's (2002) results indicating that insecure union members protest against the organizational problems more than secure union members do. Some reasons for the absence of a significant effect of job insecurity on protest behavior may be the real lack of such an impact, the inconsistency between attitude and behavior about protesting, seeing unionization itself already as an act of protest, and the existence of moderators in this relationship. Overall, this thesis has revealed that there is a need to investigate the link between job insecurity and protest behavior in more detail.

Additionally, quantitative job insecurity was not associated with employee voice in either of the two samples in this thesis. This result was consistent with Sverke and Goslinga's (2003) finding indicating a non-significant association between quantitative job insecurity and voice. It may suggest that when faced with the danger of losing the entire job, employees may feel that voicing out will not change the possible outcome; hence they may turn their faces to other behavioral responses like searching for alternatives in the labor market, portraying themselves as loyal employees who should not be lost, or engaging in neglect, as shown in Study 1.

Furthermore, Study 2 explored the moderating role of perceived union support in the association between job insecurity and voice among unionized employees. Overall, the results showed that perceived union support did not moderate the relationship between job insecurity dimensions and unionized employees' voice responses (except for the relationship between individual qualitative job insecurity climate and considerate voice). This result suggested that in the case of job insecurity, the level of support a member receives from the union does not indeed shape his/her voice behavior. Union support has been suggested to have the potential to moderate the effects of job insecurity by enabling employees with a social context to discuss the events at work,

providing protection for the interests of employees, and creating a link for information sharing between management and the workforce (see Sverke et al., 2004). Yet, the non-significant moderation effect of the perceived union support found in this thesis is actually consistent with previous research showing non-significant stress-buffering effects of social support in general (e.g., Beehr et al., 2003) and union support in particular (e.g., Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Sverke et al., 2004). The non-significant interaction effect shown in this thesis may be attributed to the fact that union support indeed has no influence in shaping the impact of job insecurity on voice. Specifically, other sources of support different from the union support may be more critical (e.g., support from family, friends and colleagues, see Cheng et al., 2014; Lim, 1996). Also, the general difficulty of finding significant interaction effects in field studies (McClelland & Judd, 1993) may be another reason. Additionally, the item used to measure the perceived union support, “does your union membership help you maintain the job security you perceive?” might be understood as an evaluation of whether members perceive that membership may protect their job security. Thus, it might have been understood as perceptions of union protection than union support.

5.3. Methodological Considerations

The methodological issues about self-report measures, causality, and generalizability should be considered in interpreting the current studies’ findings.

Both studies in this thesis were based on self-reports. The use of self-reports is an efficient and cheap method for collecting data and is one of the best ways to attain individuals’ feelings and perceptions; yet, its validity has been criticized with its potential for common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012, Spector, 1994, 2006). The implication of the possible common method bias for the findings could have been the overestimation of the relationships between job insecurity perception and employee behavioral reactions (see Spector, 1994, for a discussion on the self-report measures). However, though the self-report method can carry such problems, the available information is insufficient to admit that collecting data with self-report is inherently

flawed (Chan, 2009; Spector, 2006). In this respect, Spector (2006) suggests that rather than encoding all studies with self-reported data as suffering from common method bias, researchers should examine each measured variable to detect the factors that may affect the sources of variance. It should be noted that most of the studies on job insecurity are based on self-report measures. The reason behind it may be that the best way to reflect people's subjective perceptions of job insecurity is to ask themselves. Nevertheless, future research should consider the findings that self-rated or supervisor-rated measures can create differences in job insecurity and outcome relationship (Sverke et al., 2019). Accordingly, they may use other data collection methods (e.g., experimental designs) and different rating sources to increase data quality.

Another methodological issue to consider is the cross-sectional nature of data in this thesis. The cross-sectional design made causal inferences about the relationships between job insecurity and the behavioral outcomes impossible, and it was unable to show the directionality of the effects. Although earlier findings are persuasive in showing that perceived job insecurity is likely to influence employees' behavioral responses rather than vice versa (e.g., Berntson et al., 2010; Sverke & Goslinga, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2001), and the adverse impacts of job insecurity on the outcome variables (i.e., contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior) were generally similar both cross-sectionally and longitudinally (Sverke et al., 2019), future research may benefit from experimental and longitudinal designs to test the causality and directionality of the effects observed in this thesis.

The generalizability of the findings reached in this thesis is another methodological issue that needs to be addressed. The data used in Study 1 and Study 2 were collected from Turkey with convenience sampling. Participants of Study 1 were mostly non-unionized employees from a wide range of professions working in Turkey. For that study, the results can be considered to represent different work situations in Turkey, as the participants' demographic distribution was quite different. However, collecting data with convenience sampling by an online research platform might have limited access to some employee groups, such as those who are less educated and unable to use the Internet. Otherwise, Study 2 participants were mostly males working in the

metal industry and members of the Turkish Metal Union. This demographic profile may call the generalizability of the findings for female unionized employees, employees working in different sectors, and members of other trade unions into question. Investigating job insecurity and behavioral responses relationships in other cultural, organizational, and union settings would contribute to the generalizability of the findings in this thesis. Especially, researching unionized employees' voice responses in the face of job insecurity using the data collected from countries with high and low union density and different social protection legislation will make a valuable contribution to the literature.

5.4. Theoretical Implications

The results of this thesis have some implications for theory and future research on job insecurity and its relation with EVLN responses.

First, as shown in the results of Study 1 and Study 2, individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate appear to be two distinct constructs, both containing quantitative and qualitative aspects. It theoretically means that job insecurity may be not only an individual phenomenon but also a collective concern as advocated by Jiang and Probst (2016), Låstad et al. (2015, 2016, 2018), Mauno et al. (2014), and Sora et al. (2009, 2013). It may also contain both the worries about losing the entire job and worsening job conditions, as mentioned by Ashford et al. (1989), Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984), and Hellgren et al. (1999). Besides, the construct of job insecurity may have a four-dimensional structure in support of Låstad et al. (2015)'s findings. Therefore, delimiting job insecurity to only an individual concern by ignoring the perception of collective job insecurity within the organization and focusing solely on worries about losing the entire job by not focusing on worsening job conditions can prevent theorists and researchers from fully comprehending the job insecurity phenomenon. By supporting the four-factor structure of the job insecurity construct in a different cultural context, this thesis has demonstrated the importance of approaching this phenomenon

from a broader perspective than typically handled in the current literature (i.e., the individual concern about losing the entire job).

Second, as far as is known, this was the first attempt to examine the predictive role of job insecurity climate on employees' exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses and test its incremental effect on these behaviors beyond individual job insecurity. By showing that the collective perception of job insecurity had significant associations with the focused behavioral outcomes, and even could explain additional variance in some of these outcomes over individual job insecurity, discloses the need for an in-depth investigation of this collective work stressor. In this sense, the present thesis underscores that the phenomenon of job insecurity climate is a subject waiting to have an elaborated conceptual clarification, and any attempts to place the construct in a nomological net by pointing to its relations with other constructs will contribute to the job insecurity literature.

Third, the novel findings obtained in this thesis concerns the potential importance of qualitative individual and climate job insecurity perceptions in predicting employees' behavioral responses compared to the quantitative counterparts. Although this specific finding needs to be cross-validated in other contexts, it has been observed that the worsening of job conditions can produce a significant motivation for employees that can affect their behaviors (e.g., Chirumbolo & Areni, 2010; De Witte et al., 2010; Stynen et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2014).

Last, by exploring different voice forms and showing that job insecurity has divergent relations with them (except protest orientation), this thesis supports the current arguments on the dimensionality of voice behavior. The findings are considered to have critical implications for the voice arena, mostly by pointing to the importance of considering constructive, less constructive, individual, and collective voice representations together (see Barry & Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015; Morrison, 2011, 2014; Mowbray et al., 2015).

5.5. Practical Implications

The precarious work characterized by uncertain, unpredictable, and risky employment conditions has become one of the defining features of today's working-life; this precariousness carries the job insecurity perception among employees with itself (Kalleberg, 2009). Such perceptions of job insecurity (individual and collective) and their effects on individuals, organizations, and societies are not likely to end; instead, they tend to accelerate, especially with significant crises affecting the building blocks of working-life such as global economic crises and the COVID-19 pandemic. This thesis' starting point was to reach a better understanding of the job insecurity construct that can be associated with profound effects. Findings revealed that job insecurity perception might compose of individual and collective perceptions about losing the job itself and valued job features that may affect employee behaviors in different manners. This suggests that practitioners and policymakers should focus on individuals' perceptions of their own job insecurity about completely losing the job or worsening job conditions and the workplace climate in these regards while developing and implementing policies. Being aware of the wind blowing in the organization will help practitioners make sense of employees' behaviors in turbulent situations (at least for job insecurity) and develop the necessary interventions for healthier work environments.

The worry about one's own potential job loss is an obvious concern. Yet, this must be enlarged since the collective fear about losing valued features of the job may have at least as adverse as or (as found in this thesis) even more negative consequences. Practitioners should make allowances for different aspects of the job insecurity perception when considering their implementations on this stressor. What makes employees think about leaving the organization drives them to a destructive rather than constructive voice and affects their loyalty may be more about the collective concern regarding the future of the job conditions than the concern about losing the job itself.

5.6. Conclusions

The current thesis's overarching aims were to examine the dimensionality of the job insecurity construct and the effects of job insecurity perceptions on employees' exit, voice (in different forms), loyalty, and neglect responses. These aims were tested through two empirical studies with two different samples in Turkey. The findings supported the four-cornered representation of job insecurity in individuals' minds. Specifically, the umbrella job insecurity construct was shown to be composed of individual's perceptions regarding their own situations and the climate of job insecurity at their workplaces about losing the job itself and valuable job features, in support of the four-factor job insecurity structure found in another cultural context (Låstad et al., 2015). Additionally, this thesis contributed to the current knowledge on the job insecurity literature by revealing that different perceptions of job insecurity may determine whether employees will involve in exit, voice (in various forms), loyalty, and neglect behaviors. Moreover, the job insecurity climate was found to have additional effects in explaining employees' exit and loyalty behaviors over and beyond the individual job insecurity perception. Beyond these, the current thesis contributed to the employee voice literature by showing that this behavioral response may have a multifaceted nature, partly since different job insecurity dimensions may predict different voice reactions. As an essential point, qualitative forms of job insecurity (individual and climate) have been revealed to have greater effects in predicting different voice responses.

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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE / ODTÜ İNSAN ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU ONAYI

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08 EKİM 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Nebi SÜMER

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Ümran Yüce SELVİ'nin "İş Güvencesizliği Karşısında Verilen Aktif/Pasif ve Yapıcı/ Yıkıcı Tepkiler: Göreli Yoksunluk ve Ekonomik Sitemi Meşrulaştırmanın Rolü" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay 2018-SOS-172 protokol numarası ile 08.10.2018 - 31.06.2019 tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

B. INFORMED CONSENT FORM / BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Bu araştırma, Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer ve Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yonca Toker eş danışmanlığında, Sosyal Psikoloji doktora programı öğrencisi Arş. Gör. Ümran Yüce Selvi tarafından yürütülen doktora tezi çalışmasıdır. Çalışmanın amacı, "**iş yaşamında karşılaşılan stresli durumların çalışan davranışları üzerindeki etkisi**" ni araştırmaktır. Sizden beklenen, ankette yer alan soruları, verilen derecelendirme ölçeklerini kullanarak cevaplamanızdır.

Anket ortalama olarak 20 dakika sürmektedir. Araştırmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Ankette sizden kimlik veya kurum belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Ankette kişisel rahatsızlık verecek herhangi bir soru bulunmamaktadır. Ancak bir sebeple kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmayı yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.
İletişim: Ümran Yüce Selvi (umrannyuce@gmail.com)

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Kabul ediyorum

Kabul etmiyorum

C. INDIVIDUAL JOB INSECURITY SCALE / BİREYSEL İŞ GÜVENCESİZLİĞİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir cümleye ne kadar katıldığınızı, aşağıda verilen 7 aralıklı ölçekten size uygun olan rakamı seçerek belirtiniz.

- 1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
- 2: Katılmıyorum
- 3: Biraz katılmıyorum
- 4: Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum
- 5: Biraz katılıyorum
- 6: Katılıyorum
- 7: Kesinlikle katılıyorum

Quantitative Individual Job Insecurity / Nicel Bireysel İş Güvencesizliği

1	İsteğimden önce işten ayrılmak zorunda kalmaktan endişeleniyorum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Önümüzdeki yıl işten çıkmak zorunda kalacağıma dair bir risk var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Yakın gelecekte işimi kaybetme konusunda huzursuz hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Qualitative Individual Job Insecurity / Nitel Bireysel İş Güvencesizliği

1	Yakın gelecekte kurumumun bana, teşvik edici (beni heyecanlandıracak) bir iş alanı/içeriği sağlayacağına inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Çalıştığım kurumda geleceğe yönelik kariyer fırsatları yeterlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Bu kurumdaki ücret artışı umut vericidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Kurumumun gelecekte de benim yeteneğime/yetkinliğime ihtiyacı olacağına inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D. JOB INSECURITY CLIMATE SCALES / İŞ GÜVENCESİZLİĞİ İKLİMİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir cümleye ne kadar katıldığınızı, aşağıda verilen 7 aralıklı ölçekten size uygun olan rakamı seçerek belirtiniz.

- 1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
- 2: Katılmıyorum
- 3: Biraz katılmıyorum
- 4: Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum
- 5: Biraz katılıyorum
- 6: Katılıyorum
- 7: Kesinlikle katılıyorum

Quantitative Job Insecurity Climate / Nicel İş Güvencesizliği İklimi

1	İşyerimde işten çıkarılmaya dair genel bir endişe hissi var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	İşyerimde birinin ya da birkaç kişinin işlerini kaybedeceğine dair genel bir his var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	İşyerimde birçok insan işini kaybetmekten endişe eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	İşyerimde insanlar sıklıkla işlerine devam edip etmeyecekleri hakkında konuşur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Qualitative Job Insecurity Climate / Nitel İş Güvencesizliği İklimi

1	İşyerimde çalışma koşullarının kötüleşmesinden endişelenen birçok insan var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	İşyerimdeki birçok insan bu kurumdaki kariyer gelişimlerine dair duydukları endişeyi dile getirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	İşyerimde gelecekteki maaş artışına dair genel bir endişe hissi var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	İşyerimde gelecekte daha az teşvik edici iş görevleri alma konusunda endişeli birçok insan var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

E. EXIT, VOICE, LOYALTY, AND NEGLECT SCALE / İŞTEN AYRILMA, SESİNİ YÜKSELTME, SADAKAT VE KAYITSIZLIK ÖLÇEĞİ

Her çalışan zaman zaman işyerinde bazı sorunlar ile karşılaşır. Bu çalışmada işyerinde karşılaşılan sorunlardan birisi olan iş güvencesizliğine odaklanılmaktadır. İşten çıkarılma endişesi veya maaş, terfi, statü, prim gibi önemli hakları kaybetme düşüncesi olarak tanımlanan iş güvencesizliği, iş yaşamında karşılaşılan önemli sorunlardandır. Çalışanlar iş güvencesizliği hissi karşısında farklı tepkiler verebilirler.

Aşağıda çalışanların iş güvencesizliği karşısında sergileyebileceği bazı davranışlar listelenmiştir. Sizden beklenen iş güvencesizliği hissettiğiniz durumda, bu davranışlara ne düzeyde başvuracağınızı verilen 7 aralıklı ölçekten size uyan rakamı seçerek belirtmenizdir.

- 1: Kesinlikle hayır
- 2: Hayır
- 3: Muhtemelen hayır
- 4: Kararsızım
- 5: Muhtemelen evet
- 6: Evet
- 7: Kesinlikle evet

Not: Aşağıdaki sorularda geçen “amir” kelimesi, işyerinde sizden ve yaptığınız işten sorumlu olan, kendisine raporlama yaptığınız kişi anlamında kullanılmaktadır.

Exit / İşten Çıkış

1	İş değiştirme ihtimalini düşünmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Aktif olarak aynı sektörde bir iş aramak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Aktif olarak farklı sektörde bir iş aramak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	İşvereni değiştirmeye niyetlenmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Gazete, internet, kariyer siteleri vb. gibi kaynaklardan başvurabileceğin iş ilanları aramak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Çalışma alanını değiştirmeye niyetlenmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Considerate Voice / Yapıcı Sesini yükseltme

1	Amiriniz ile aynı anlayışa gelmeye çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Amiriniz ile işbirliği yaparak herkes için tatmin edici bir çözüm bulmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Amiriniz ile işbirliği yaparak ideal bir çözüm bulmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Amiriniz ile birlikte, sorunlar çözülene kadar birbirinizin düşüncelerini anlamaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Amiriniz ile uzlaşmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Tamamen anlaşmaya varıncaya kadar amiriniz ile mevcut sorun hakkında konuşmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Amirinize çözümler önermek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Sorunu derhal amirinize bildirmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Hemen bir çözüm bulmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Soruna farklı çözümler düşünmeye çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Amirinizden uzlaşma talep etmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Loyalty / Sadakat

1	Bir müdahalede bulunmadan kurumun karar alma sürecine güvenmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Kurumun sizin yardımınız olmadan sorunu çözeceğine güvenmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Böyle bir sorunun, sizin problem çözme sürecine doğrudan katkınız olmadan kurum tarafından halledileceğine inanmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Sonunda her şeyin yoluna gireceğini düşünmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	İyimserce daha iyi zamanların gelmesini beklemek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Neglect / Kayıtsızlık

1	İçinizden çalışmak gelmediği için hasta olduğunuzu söylemek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	İçinizden çalışmak gelmediği için işe geç gelmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	İşinize sizden beklenenden daha az çaba göstermek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	İşinize yeterince çaba göstermemek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Katılmak istemediğiniz toplantıları kaçırmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

F. VOICE RESPONSES SCALES / SESİNİ YÜKSELTME TEPKİLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Her çalışan zaman zaman işyerinde bazı sorunlar ile karşılaşır. Bu çalışmada işyerinde karşılaşılan sorunlardan birisi olan iş güvencesizliğine odaklanılmaktadır. İşten çıkarılma endişesi veya maaş, terfi, statü, prim gibi önemli hakları kaybetme düşüncesi olarak tanımlanan iş güvencesizliği, iş yaşamında karşılaşılan önemli sorunlardandır. Çalışanlar iş güvencesizliği hissi karşısında farklı tepkiler verebilirler.

Aşağıda çalışanların iş güvencesizliği karşısında sergileyebileceği bazı davranışlar listelenmiştir. Sizden beklenen iş güvencesizliği hissettiğiniz durumda, bu davranışlara ne düzeyde başvuracağınızı verilen 7 aralıklı ölçekten size uyan rakamı seçerek belirtmenizdir.

- 1: Kesinlikle hayır
- 2: Hayır
- 3: Muhtemelen hayır
- 4: Kararsızım
- 5: Muhtemelen evet
- 6: Evet
- 7: Kesinlikle evet

Not: Aşağıdaki sorularda geçen “amir” kelimesi, işyerinde sizden ve yaptığınız işten sorumlu olan, kendisine raporlama yaptığınız kişi anlamında kullanılmaktadır.

Considerate Voice / Yapıcı Sesini yükseltme

1	Amiriniz ile aynı anlayışa gelmeye çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Amiriniz ile işbirliği yaparak herkes için tatmin edici bir çözüm bulmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Amiriniz ile işbirliği yaparak ideal bir çözüm bulmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Amiriniz ile birlikte, sorunlar çözülene kadar birbirinizin düşüncelerini anlamaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Amiriniz ile uzlaşmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Tamamen anlaşmaya varıncaya kadar amiriniz ile mevcut sorun hakkında konuşmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Amirinize çözümler önermek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Sorunu derhal amirinize bildirmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Hemen bir çözüm bulmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Soruna farklı çözümler düşünmeye çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Amirinizden uzlaşma talep etmek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Aggressive Voice / Agresif Sesini yükseltme

1	Amirinize sorunu olabildiğince olumsuz biçimde tanımlamak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Hakkını kazanmaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Kasten, problemin gerçekte olduğundan daha problemlili görünmesini sağlamak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	İstediğimizi almak için amirimize karşı ısrarcı olmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Amiriniz ile bir “kavga” başlatmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Amirimize haklı olduğunuzu mümkün olan tüm yolları kullanarak kanıtlamaya çalışmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Sorun için kurumu suçlamak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Representative voice / Temsili Sesini yükseltme

1	Üçüncü taraf bir kuruluştaki (örn. sendika) sorumluluk üstlenmek/görev almak (örn. sendika temsilcisi).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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Protest Orientation / Protesto Yönelimi

1	İtirazınız veya şikayetiniz ile ilgili kurum aleyhinde bir şikayette bulunmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Yetkililer tarafından izin verilen protesto mitinglerine ya da yürüyüşlere katılmak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

G. CURRICULUM VITAE / ÖZGEÇMİŞ

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Yüce Selvi, Ümran
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EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Department	Years
Ph.D.	Middle East Technical University	Social Psychology	2014-2020
M.S.	Middle East Technical University	Industrial & Organizational Psychology	2011-2014
B.S.	Middle East Technical University	Psychology	2006-2011

WORK EXPERIENCE

Years	Institution	Position
2019-2020	Stockholm University Department of Psychology	Visiting Researcher (Tübitak 2214 International Research Fellowship Programme)
2017-2020	Eskişehir Osmangazi University Department of Psychology	Research Assistant
2013-2017	Middle East Technical University Department of Psychology	Research & Teaching Assistant

PUBLICATIONS

Articles

Yüce-Selvi, Ü., & Sümer, C. (2020). An experimental inquiry about the additive effects of assigned and primed goals and their interaction with performance feedback. *Psikoloji Çalışmaları (Studies in Psychology)*, 40(1), 217-246. doi: 10.26650/SP2019-0022

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Conference Presentations

Sümer, N., & **Yüce-Selvi, Ü.** (July 2019). Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: Behavioral reactions to perceived job insecurity and the role of relative deprivation. *Oral Presentation at 16th European Congress of Psychology*, Moscow, Russia.

Arman, G., & **Yüce-Selvi, Ü.** (September 2018). Compliance in safety: The effect of perceived managerial attitudes. *Oral Presentation at 32nd British Academy of Management*, Bristol, England.

Küçükkömürler, S., & **Yüce-Selvi, Ü.** (July 2017). Perceived job (in)security among research assistants working in different positions. *Poster Presentation at 15th European Congress of Psychology*, Amsterdam, Netherlands.

Arman, G., **Yüce-Selvi, Ü.**, Aydođdu, T., & Bayır, F. N. (May 2017). İş sađlığı ve güvenliğinde algılanan tutumların rolü. *Oral Presentation at 25th National Management and Organization Congress*, Ankara, Turkey.

Kantaş, Ö., & **Yüce-Selvi, Ü.** (January 2017). On the road to job quit: Working mothers' autonomy, employment guilt, and job satisfaction. *Poster Presentation at 18th Annual Convention of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology*, San Antonio, Texas.

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Küçükkömürler, S., **Yüce-Selvi, Ü.**, & Özkan, T. (September 2016). Akademik kariyerin ilk basamağında algılanan iş güvencesi(zliđi). *Poster Presentation at 19th National Psychology Congress*, İzmir, Turkey.

Yüce-Selvi, Ü., & Sümer, N. (September 2016). Algılanan iş güvencesizliđi ve aile içi şiddet ilişkisinde evlilik doyumu ve aile içi kaos deđişkenlerinin aracı rolü. *Oral Presentation at 19th National Psychology Congress*, İzmir, Turkey.

Yüce-Selvi, Ü., & Karanfil, D. (October 2015). Kadına partneri tarafından uygulanan fiziksel ve cinsel şiddetin Hofstede'nin kültürel boyutları açısından incelenmesi. *Oral Presentation at International Conference on Social Sciences and Education Research*, Antalya, Turkey.

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Yüce-Selvi, Ü., & Sümer, H. C. (July 2014). The effects of performance feedback and both conscious and unconscious goal setting on performance: A priming study. *Poster Presentation at 28th International Congress of Applied Psychology*, Paris, France.

Bilgiç, R., Agca, H., **Yüce, Ü.** (July 2012). Counterproductive work behaviour scale for Turkish employees: A reliability and validity study. *Poster Presentation at 30th International Congress of Psychology*, Cape Town, South Africa.

H. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

BİREYSEL İŞ GÜVENCESİZLİĞİ VE İŞ GÜVENCESİZLİĞİ İKLİMİNE KARŞI GÖSTERİLEN DAVRANIŞSAL TEPKİLERİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

İş, sağladığı finansal kaynak, kişisel gelişim imkânı, sosyal ilişkiler kurma ve zamanı yapılandırma olanakları ile temel insan ihtiyaçlarının karşılamasında birçok birey için hayatın önemli bir parçasıdır (Blustein, 2008; Jahoda, 1982; Warr, 1987). Bu değerli kaynağın kaybedilmesi tehdidi – iş güvencesizliği algısı – ise işin sağladığı tüm bu kazanımları tehdit altına sokması bakımından yıkıcı sonuçlar doğurabilmektedir.

Ani iş kaybı, eş vefatı, boşanma, yaralanma ve hastalık gibi başlıca stresli yaşam olayları arasında gösterilmektedir (Holmes ve Rahe, 1967; Scully ve ark., 2000). İş güvencesizliği durumunda bireyler henüz işlerini kaybetmemiş olsalar dahi işin gelecekteki devamlılığına ilişkin algılanan uzun süreli tehdit, işsizlik kadar, hatta bazen daha fazla olumsuz sonuç ile ilişkili olabilmektedir (De Witte, 1999; Dekker ve Schaufeli, 1995; Griep ve ark., 2015). Çok sayıda araştırma, iş güvencesizliğinin, çalışanların iyilik hali, fiziksel ve zihinsel sağlığı, işe ve örgüte dair tutumları ve sayıca daha az olsa da (Sverke ve ark., 2019; Wang ve ark., 2015) çalışanların davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini göstermektedir (meta-analiz bulguları için, bkz. Chen ve Chan, 2008; Jiang ve Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke ve ark., 2002, 2019).

Bireyler stresli çevresel koşullar karşısında farklı şekillerde tepki gösterebilir. Örgütsel davranış alanyazınında, bireylerin olumsuz istidam koşulları karşısında gösterdikleri tepkileri açıklamak için sıklıkla işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık (EVLN) kuramsal çerçevesi (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult ve ark., 1982, 1988) kullanılmaktadır (örn., Farrell, 1983; Turnley ve Feldman, 1999). Söz konusu modelde, bireylerin örgütsel sorunlar karşısında sergilediği davranışsal tepkiler işten ve/veya çalışılan örgütten ayrılma (işten ayrılma), örgütü istenen şekilde etkilemeye

çalışma (sesini yükseltme), örgüte sadakat gösterme (sadakat) ve kayıtsız kalma yoluyla örgütü protesto etme (kayıtsızlık) olarak sınıflandırılmaktadır.

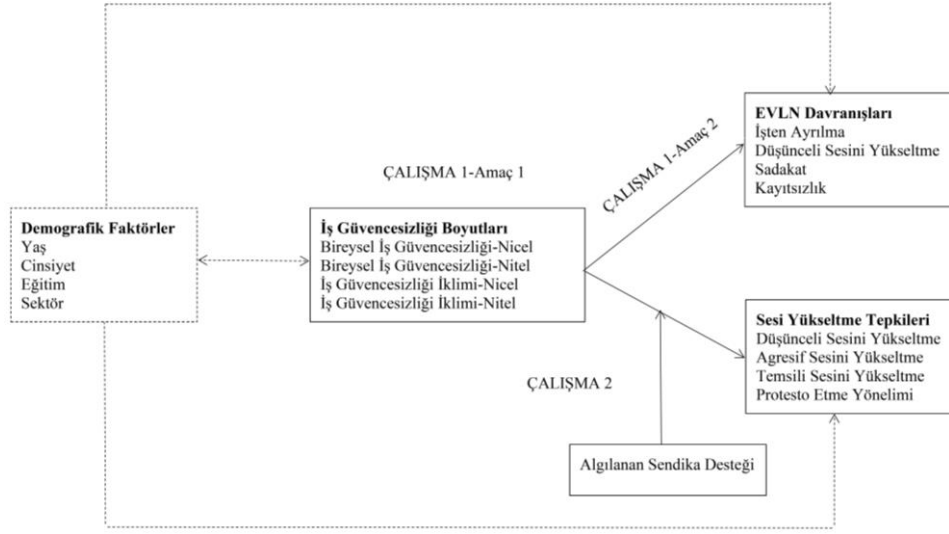
EVLN kuramsal çerçevesi iş güvencesizliği alanyazınında da kendisine yer bulmuştur (örn., Berntson ve ark., 2010; Davis-Blake ve ark., 2003; Sverke ve Goslinga, 2003; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2001). Görgül araştırma bulguları genel olarak iş güvencesizliğinin artan işten ayrılma (Berntson ve ark., 2010; Sverke ve Goslinga, 2003; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2001) ve azalan sadakat (tipik olarak örgütsel bağlılık şeklinde ölçülmüştür; Berntson ve ark., 2010; Sverke ve Goslinga, 2003) ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. İş güvencesizliği ve kayıtsızlık davranışı arasındaki ilişki görece daha az araştırılmış olsa da örgütsel küçülme ve uzun süreli hastalık izni kullanma (Vahtera ve ark., 1997) ve iş güvencesizliği ile kaçınma davranışı (Roskies ve ark., 1993) arasında bulunan anlamlı ilişkiler, iş güvencesizliği ve kayıtsızlık davranışı ilişkisi hakkında çıkarım yapılabilmesine olanak sağlamaktadır. İş güvencesizliği ve sesini yükseltme davranışı arasındaki ilişki irdelendiğinde ise alanyazında yer alan sonuçların oldukça karışık olduğu görülebilmektedir. Bu iki değişken arasındaki ilişkiye dair farklılaşan bulgular (örn., Berntson ve ark., 2010; Sverke ve Goslinga, 2003; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2001), sesini yükseltme davranışının ve bu davranışın iş güvencesizliği ile olan ilişkisinin detaylı biçimde incelenmesinin gerekliliğine işaret etmektedir.

İş güvencesizliği olgusu ile ilgili önemli bir nokta bu olgunun nasıl kavramsallaştırıldığıdır. İş güvencesizliği tipik olarak “tehdit altındaki bir iş durumunda istenen sürekliliği sürdürmek için duyulan güçsüzlük hissi” olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt, 1984, s. 438). Bu tanımda tehdit altında algılanan şey işin kendisi (nicel iş güvencesizliği) veya değer verilen iş özellikleri (nitel iş güvencesizliği) olabilir (Ashford ve ark., 1989; Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt, 1984; Hellgren ve ark., 1999). Bu ayrımın ötesinde, iş güvencesizliği geleneksel olarak bireyin kendi işinin gelecekteki durumuna ilişkin algıladığı tehdit olarak ele alınmış olsa da son araştırmalar, iş güvencesizliğinin, çalışılan ortamdaki psikolojik iklimi yansıtan kolektif bir algı (iş güvencesizliği iklimi) olarak da var olabileceğini göstermektedir (bkz. Jiang ve Probst, 2016; Låstad ve ark., 2015, 2016, 2018; Mauno

ve ark., 2014; Sora ve ark., 2009, 2013). İş güvencesizliği tanımlamalarındaki bu farklılıklar, bu olgunun kavramsal yapısının daha iyi irdelenmesinin gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Böylelikle bu olguyu çevreleyen kuramsal formülasyonlar daha sağlam bir şekilde oluşturulabilir.

Temel olarak iş güvencesizliği olgusu ile ilgili var olan bilgiyi genişletme amacı güden bu tez, bu olgunun boyutsallığını test etmeyi ve farklı boyutların (nicel ve nitel bireysel iş güvencesizliği ile nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi) çalışanların işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışları ile olan ilişkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Şekil 1 bu tez kapsamında incelenen yapıları ve ilişkileri göstermektedir. Buna göre, iş güvencesizliğinin her ikisi de nicel ve nitel boyutları içerecek şekilde bireysel iş güvencesizliği ve iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısı şeklinde var olabileceğine ve farklı boyutların çalışanların işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışlarını yordayabileceğine işaret edilmektedir. Mevcut tez kapsamında, sesini yükseltme davranışının iş güvencesizliği algısı ile olan ilişkisi, sesini yükseltme davranışının alanyazında işaret edilen dört formunu (düşünceli, agresif ve temsili sesini yükseltme ve protesto etme yönelimi) içerecek şekilde ayrıntılı olarak ele alınmıştır. Bu ilişkiler Türkiye'deki sendikalı çalışanlardan toplanan bir veri seti üzerinde test edilmiştir. Algılanan sendika desteği, iş güvencesizliği algısının sendikalı çalışanların sesini yükseltme davranışı üzerindeki etkisini şekillendirebilecek bir faktör olarak düşünüldüğünden önerilen modele düzenleyici (moderatör) değişken olarak dâhil edilmiştir. İş güvencesizliği ile sonuç değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkilerde olası etkilerini kontrol etmek amacıyla, yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim ve sektör demografik değişkenleri yapılan analizlere kontrol değişkenleri olarak dahil edilmiştir.



Şekil 1 Tez kapsamında incelenen yapılar ve ilişkilere genel bakış

Özet olarak, mevcut tez kapsamında aşağıdaki üç araştırma amacının test edilmesi hedeflenmiştir. Bu hedef doğrultusunda iki görgül çalışma tasarlanmıştır.

Birinci amaç, iş güvencesizliği olgusunun faktör yapısını incelemek ve bu olgunun nicel ve nitel yönleri içeren bireysel iş güvencesizliği ve iş güvencesizliği ikliminden oluşan dört boyutlu bir yapısının olup olmadığını test etmektir. Bu dört boyut, Şekil 1'deki iş güvencesizliği boyutları kutucuğunda gösterilmiştir. Bu amaç Çalışma 1'de test edilmiştir.

İkinci amaç, bireysel iş güvencesizliği ve iş güvencesizliği ikliminin (nicel ve nitel) çalışanların işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme (düşünceli), sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini test etmek ve iş güvencesizliği ikliminin bu davranışları açıklamada bireysel iş güvencesizliğinin ötesinde artan bir geçerliğe sahip olup olmadığını incelemektedir. Söz konusu amaç, Şekil 1'de iş güvencesizliği

boyutları kutucuğundan EVLN davranışları kutucuğuna giden ok işaretleri ile gösterilmiş ve Çalışma 1'de test edilmiştir.

Üçüncü amaç, sesini yükseltme davranışı yapısını daha detaylı şekilde ele almak ve dört iş güvencesizliği boyutu ile düşünceli, agresif, temsili sesini yükseltme ve protesto etme yönelimi arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. Belirlenen ilişkiler Türkiye'deki sendikali çalışanlardan toplanan bir veri seti kullanılarak Çalışma 2 kapsamında test edilmiştir. Çalışma 2 kapsamında ayrıca iş güvencesizliği boyutları ve sesini yükseltme davranışı formları arasındaki ilişkilerde algılanan sendika desteğinin düzenleyici rolü araştırılmıştır. Mevcut tezin üçüncü amacı, Şekil 1'de iş güvencesizliği boyutları kutucuğundan sesi yükseltme tepkileri kutucuğuna ve algılanan sendika desteğinden iş güvencesizliği ile sesi yükseltme davranışı kutucukları arasındaki ok işaretine giden iki ok işareti ile gösterilmiştir.

Giriş

İş güvencesizliği olgusu farklı araştırmacılar tarafından farklı biçimlerde tanımlanmıştır. Önceleri araştırma ilgisi daha çok bir motivasyon aracı olarak *iş güvencesine* odaklanmış olsa da (örn., Hackman ve Oldham, 1975; Ivancevich, 1974; Rizzo ve ark., 1970), özellikle 1980'li yıllardan sonra *iş güvencesizliği* kavramı üzerinde daha çok durulmuş ve bu olgu çoğunlukla bir iş stresi kaynağı olarak ele alınmıştır (De Witte ve ark., 2016). Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt'ın (1984) araştırmaları iş güvencesizliği konusuna sistematik bir yaklaşım getirmiş; sonrasında iş güvencesizliğini bir stres unsuru olarak ele alan araştırmalar çoğalmıştır. Bireysel araştırmaların sonuçlarını bir araya getiren derleme (bkz. De Witte, 1999, 2005; Lee ve ark., 2018; Llosa ve ark., 2018; Shoss, 2017) ve meta-analiz çalışmaları (Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Jiang ve Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke ve ark., 2002, 2019) bu konudaki kuramsal ilerlemeyi hızlandırmıştır.

Farklı iş güvencesizliği tanımlamalarında farklı vurgular öne çıksa da bazı ortak noktalardan bahsetmek mümkündür. İş güvencesizliğinin öznel bir deneyim olması, gelecek ile ilgili bir belirsizliği temsil etmesi, tehdit, istemsizlik, güçsüzlük ve kontrol

eksikliği kavramlarını içermesi tanımlardaki ortak unsurlardır (Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt, 2010; Lee ve ark., 2018; Llosa ve ark., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke ve ark., 2019).

Yıllar içinde iş güvencesizliği hem tek boyutlu hem de çok boyutlu bir yapı olarak ele alınmıştır (Lee ve ark., 2018; Sverke ve ark., 2002). Tek boyutlu yapılandırmalarda, odak noktası tipik olarak mevcut işin kendisini kaybetme endişesi olmuştur (örn., Borg ve Elizur, 1992; Huang ve ark., 2010, 2012; Probst 2003; Sverke ve ark., 2004). Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt (1984) tek boyutlu bir yapılanmanın iş güvencesizliğinin çok yönlü doğasını yeterince iyi açıklayamayacağını, bu olgunun, işin kendisine ve değerli iş özelliklerine yönelik tehditleri ve bu tehditlerle başa çıkma konusundaki güçsüzlük hissini içerdiğini belirtmiştir. Benzer şekilde Ashford ve arkadaşları (1989) iş güvencesizliğinin farklı yönleri birleştiren beş boyuttan (işin önemi, onu kaybetme olasılığı, farklı iş özelliklerinin önemi, onları kaybetme olasılığı ve kaybı önceden tahmin etmek için algılanan güçsüzlük) oluştuğunu ileri sürmüştür. Hellgren ve arkadaşları (1999) ise iş güvencesizliğinin nicel ve nitel biçimleri arasında bir ayrım yapmış ve bunları "işin kendisinin (nicel iş güvencesizliği) ve değerli iş özelliklerinin (nitel iş güvencesizliği) devam eden varlığı ile ilgili endişe" olarak tanımlamıştır (s. 179).

Son zamanlarda araştırmacılar, iş güvencesizliğinin çalışma gruplarında ve örgütlerde, çalışanlar arasında paylaşılan bir algı (örn., Sora ve ark., 2009, 2013) ve "psikolojik kolektif iklim, yani bireylerin çevrelerindeki iklime ilişkin algıları" (Låstad ve ark., 2015, s. 204) biçimlerinde de görülebileceğini vurgulayarak iş güvencesizliği iklimi olgusuna dikkat çekmiştir. Bu bakış açısı iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısını bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısından ayırarak iş güvencesizliği yapısının boyutsallığına katkıda bulunmuştur. Bu doğrultuda Låstad ve arkadaşları (2015) iş güvencesizliğinin nicel ve nitel yönleriyle birlikte bireysel ve iklimsel iş güvencesizliği boyutlarından oluşan dört faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak bu yapının tek bir kültürel bağlamda test edilmesi, bu yapının diğer bağlamlara genellenebilir olup olmadığını göstermekte yetersiz kalmaktadır. İş güvencesizliği olgusunun Låstad ve

arkadaşlarının (2015) işaret ettiği gibi dört faktörlü bir yapısının olup olmadığının gösterilebilmesi için daha fazla bilimsel araştırmaya ihtiyaç duyulduğu aşikârdır.

İş güvencesizliği algısının ölçülmesine ilişkin de farklılıklar mevcuttur. Aslında farklı iş güvencesizliği kavramsallaştırmalarının farklı ölçüm araçlarını beraberinde getirdiği söylenebilir. Araştırmacılar bu olguyu ölçmek için tek maddeli ve çok maddeli ölçekler kullanmıştır (derleme çalışmaları için bkz. Lee ve ark., 2018; Shoss, 2017). Tek maddelik ölçümler çoğunlukla iş güvencesizliğinin nicel yönüne odaklanarak işin kendisini kaybetme olasılığını ölçmektedir (örn., De Witte, 1999; Roskies ve ark., 1993). Diğer yandan, çok maddeli ölçekler arasında iş güvencesizliğinin yalnızca nicel (örn., Johnson ve ark., 1984; Probst, 2003) veya nitel yönüne odaklanan (örn., Caplan ve ark., 1975; Van den Broeck ve ark., 2014) ve bu iki yönü bir arada ele alan (örn., Ashford ve ark., 1989; Hellgren ve ark., 1999; O'Neill ve Sevastos, 2013) ölçekler mevcuttur. Var olan iş güvencesizliği ölçekleri arasında De Witte'nin (2000; bkz. Vander Elst ve ark., 2014) tek boyutlu dört maddelik ölçeği ile Hellgren ve arkadaşlarının (1999) iki boyutlu (nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği), yedi maddeli ölçeği en sık kullanılanlardır (Shoss, 2017).

Dikkat çekici bir biçimde yukarıda bahsedilen ölçeklerde bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısı ölçülürken iş güvencesizliği iklimi olgusuna vurgu yapılmamaktadır. Yaklaşık son on yıldır gelişmekte olan iş güvencesizliği iklimi alanyazınında ise, bu olgunun ölçülmesine dair iki farklı yaklaşımın olduğu görülmektedir. İlk yaklaşımda iş güvencesizliği iklimi bireylerin bireysel iş güvencesizliği ölçeklerindeki derecelendirmelerinin iş birimi veya örgüt düzeyinde birleştirilmesi yoluyla ölçülmektedir (bkz. De Cuyper ve ark., 2009; Jiang ve Probst, 2016; Sora ve ark., 2009, 2013). İkinci yaklaşımda ise bireylerin çevrelerindeki iş güvencesizliği iklimine ilişkin algıları bunun için özel olarak geliştirilen “iş güvencesizliği iklimi” ölçeği kullanılarak doğrudan bireysel düzeyde ölçülebilmektedir (bkz. Låstad ve ark., 2015, 2016, 2018).

İş güvencesizliğinin bireyler ve örgütler üzerindeki etkileri birçok kesitsel ve boylamsal araştırmada incelemiş, kapsamlı meta-analiz çalışmaları bireysel çalışma

bulgularını bir araya getirerek bu konuda önemli bilgiler sağlamıştır (bkz. Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Jiang ve Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke ve ark., 2002, 2019). Genel olarak iş güvencesizliği algısının çalışanların iyilik hali, fiziksel ve zihinsel sağlığı, işe ve örgüte yönelik tutumları ve performansları ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (bkz. örn., Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Sverke ve ark., 2002, 2019). Güncel meta-analiz ve derleme çalışmaları iş güvencesizliğinin diğer birçok etkisine işaret etmektedir (bkz. Jiang ve Lavaysse, 2018; Lee ve ark., 2018; Shoss, 2017, Sverke ve ark., 2019). Bireylerin iş güvencesizliği algısından farklı şekil ve düzeyde etkilenmesi, iş güvencesizliğinin sonuç değişkenleri üzerindeki etkilerini şekillendiren düzenleyici değişkenlerin varlığına işaret etmektedir. Yaş (örn., Cheng ve Chan, 2008), cinsiyet (örn., Camgoz ve ark., 2016; Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Richter ve ark., 2010), eğitim (örn., Keim ve ark., 2014), iş türü (beyaz/mavi yaka iş, Sverke ve ark., 2002), görev süresi (örn., Cheng ve Chan, 2008) ve sendikalı olma (örn., Dekker ve Schaufeli, 1995; Shaw ve ark., 1993; Sverke ve ark., 2004) gibi demografik faktörler; sosyal destek (örn., Cheng ve ark., 2014; Lim, 1997; Schreurs ve ark., 2012; Sverke ve ark., 2004); bireysellik/toplulukçuluk (Probst ve Lawler, 2006), belirsizlikten kaçınma (Debus ve ark., 2012) ve gelenekselcilik (Wang ve ark., 2014) gibi kültürel değerler ile bölgesel işsizlik oranı (Otto ve ark., 2011, 2016), mevcut işsizlik yardımları (Anderson ve Pontusson, 2007), sosyal refah sistemi (Carr ve Chung, 2014; Debus vd., 2012), gelir eşitsizliği (Jiang ve Probst, 2017) ve sendikal destek düzeyi (Hellgren ve Chirumbolo, 2003) üzerinde durulan düzenleyici değişkenler olarak ön plana çıkmaktadır.

Sunulan bu alanyazın ışığında, mevcut tezde iş güvencesizliği, bireylerin istenmeyen bir tehdit algıladıkları, güçsüzlük ve kontrol eksikliği hissettikleri öznel bir deneyim olarak tanımlanmıştır. İş güvencesizliği algısı bireysel ve iklimsel, nicel ve nitel yönleri ile ele alınmış, bu yönler çok boyutlu ölçekler kullanılarak bireylerin doğrudan değerlendirmesi yoluyla ölçülmüştür. Bireysel ve iklimsel (nicel ve nitel) iş güvencesizliği deneyimlerinin çalışanların davranışsal tepkileri üzerindeki etkilerinin Türkiye’de sendikalı ve sendikasız çalışanlardan toplanan iki ayrı veri seti üzerinde test edilmesi yoluyla mevcut alanyazına katkı sağlanması amaçlanmıştır. Demografik özelliklerin (örn., yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim ve sektör) iş güvencesizliğinin sonuç

değişkenleri üzerindeki etkilerini şekillendirebileceğine dair bulgulara dayanarak yapılan temel analizlerde bu değişkenlerin etkileri kontrol edilmiştir.

Çalışma 1

Bireysel İş Güvencesizliği ve İş Güvencesizliği İklimi: Yapının Doğrulanması ve İşten Ayrılma, Düşünceli Sesi Yükseltme, Sadakat ve Kayıtsızlık Üzerindeki Etkilerin İncelenmesi

İş güvencesizliği sıklıkla mevcut işin gelecekteki devamlılığına ilişkin algılanan bireysel bir tehdit olarak tanımlanmış ve bu tehdidin bireyler/örgütler üzerindeki etkileri birçok bilimsel araştırma tarafından incelenmiştir (meta-analiz çalışmaları için bkz. Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Jiang ve Lavaysse, 2018; Sverke ve ark., 2002, 2019). Nitel iş güvencesizliği (değer verilen bazı iş koşullarının kaybedilmesi/kötüleşmesi tehdidi) iş güvencesizliği olgusu ile ilgili yapılan ilk tanımlamalarda kendisine yer bulmasına karşın (örn., Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt, 1984) nicel iş güvencesizliğine göre daha az araştırma ilgisi gören bir boyut olmuştur (Sverke ve ark., 2019). İş güvencesizliği olgusunun tanımlanmasındaki nicel/nitel ayrımının ötesinde, son yıllarda bu olguya ilişkin bireysel/kolektif algı ayrımı da araştırma konusu haline gelmiştir (bkz. Jiang ve Probst, 2016; Låstad ve ark., 2015, 2016, 2018; Mauno ve ark., 2014; Sora ve ark., 2009, 2013). İş güvencesizliğinin bireyin kendi işinin gelecekteki durumuna ilişkin bir algı olmasının dışında, psikolojik iklim olarak çalışma ortamında var olabilecek kolektif bir deneyim olabileceğini ileri süren bu güncel yaklaşım, iş güvencesizliği olgusuna farklı bir bakış açısı getirmiş ve yeni bir araştırma alanına işaret etmiştir.

İş güvencesizliği algısına ve bu algının boyutsallığına odaklanan çalışmalarında, Låstad ve arkadaşları (2015), iş güvencesizliğinin, her ikisi de nicel ve nitel yönleri içeren bireysel iş güvencesizliği ve iş güvencesizliği ikliminden oluşmak üzere dört boyutlu bir yapısının olduğunu göstermiştir. Mevcut tezde, Çalışma 1'in ilk amacı, iş güvencesizliği olgusunun faktör yapısını incelemek ve her ikisi de nicel ve nitel yönleri içeren bireysel ve kolektif deneyimlerden oluşan dört faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olup olmadığını farklı bir kültürel bağlamda test etmektir.

Çalışma 1'in ikinci amacı ise iş güvencesizliği algısının çalışanların işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık tepkileri üzerindeki yordayıcı etkisini araştırmaktır. İlgili alanyazında, bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısının (genellikle nicel boyutunun) çalışanların işten ayrılma, sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışları üzerindeki etkisine odaklanan araştırmalar mevcuttur. Bu tezde ise kolektif bir deneyim olarak iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısının nicel ve nitel boyutlarının bu davranışlar üzerindeki yordayıcı etkisinin test edilmesi ve iş güvencesizliği ikliminin bu davranışları açıklamada bireysel iş güvencesizliğinin ötesinde bir etkisinin olup olmadığının test edilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu bağlamda, Çalışma 1'de test edilen hipotezler şunlardır:

Hipotez 1. Nicel iş güvencesizliği iklimi, yüksek düzeyde işten ayrılma (H1a) ve kayıtsızlık (H1b) ile düşük düzeyde düşünceli sesini yükseltme (H1c) ve sadakat (H1d) ile ilişkilidir.

Hipotez 2. Nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi, yüksek düzeyde işten ayrılma (H2a) ve kayıtsızlık (H2b) ile düşük düzeyde düşünceli sesini yükseltme (H2c) ve sadakat (H2d) ile ilişkilidir.

Hipotez 3. İş güvencesizliği iklimi, işten ayrılma (H3a), sesini yükseltme (H3b), sadakat (H3c) ve kayıtsızlık (H3d) davranışlarını bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısının etkisinin ötesinde yordar.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Mevcut tez için etik onay, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan alınmıştır (bkz. Ek A). Çalışma 1 verileri kartopu veri toplama yöntemiyle çevrimiçi bir araştırma platformu olan Qualtrics üzerinden anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Katılımcılar Türkiye'de farklı örgütlerde çalışmakta olan 245 kişiden oluşmaktadır (%51 kadın, ortalama yaş: 34, yaş aralığı: 19-59, ortalama görev süresi: 5 yıl, görev süresi aralığı: 1-27 yıl). Katılımcılar cevaplarının gizli tutulacağı, çalışmaya katılmalarının tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayandığı ve ankete katılmalarını istedikleri zaman sonlandırabilecekleri konularında bilgilendirilmiştir

(bilgilendirilmiş onam formu için, bkz. Ek B). Katılımcılara ankete katılmaları için herhangi bir teşvik sağlanmamıştır.

Ölçüm Araçları

Çalışma 1 kapsamında, iş güvencesizliği (Hellgren ve ark., 1999, bkz. Ek C), iş güvencesizliği iklimi (Låstad ve ark., 2015, bkz. Ek D), işten çıkış-düşünceli sesini yükseltme-sadakat-kayıtsızlık (Hagedoorn ve ark., 1999, bkz. Ek E) ölçekleri kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar ölçek maddelerini 7 dereceli Likert tipi ölçek kullanarak değerlendirmiştir (iş güvencesizliği maddeleri için 1 = kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 7 = kesinlikle katılıyorum; EVLN maddeleri için 1 = kesinlikle hayır, 7 = kesinlikle evet). Katılımcılardan ayrıca yaş, eğitim, cinsiyet ve çalışılan sektör bilgilerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

İş güvencesizliği boyutlarının Cronbach alpha iç tutarlık katsayıları bireysel nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği için sırasıyla .64 ve .74; nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi için ise sırasıyla .88 ve .82 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

EVLN ölçümünün faktör yapısını test etmek için doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, işten ayrılma, düşünceli sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlıktan oluşan dört faktörlü EVLN modelinin mevcut veriye tatmin edici düzeyde uyum sağladığını göstermiştir (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2(293) = 668.85, p < .001, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .073, SRMR = .076$). EVLN boyutları için Cronbach alpha iç tutarlık katsayılarının işten ayrılma, düşünceli sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık için ise sırasıyla .86, .92, .84 ve .83 olduğu görülmüştür.

Sonuç ve Tartışma

İş Güvencesizliği Yapısının Boyutsallığı

İş güvencesizliği yapısının örtük yapısını incelemek için LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog ve Sörbom, 1996) kullanılarak doğrulayıcı faktör analizi ile beş alternatif modelin veri

setine uyumu incelenmiş ve modeller birbirleri ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Model uyumunu değerlendirmek için chi-square uyum istatistiklerine ek olarak, modellerin RMSEA, SRMR ve CFI değerleri incelenmiştir. İş güvencesizliği boyutlarının iç tutarlık katsayıları Cronbach alfa değerlerine bakılarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Doğrulamalı faktör analizi sonuçları, bireysel nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği ile nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi olarak ayrılan dört faktörlü iş güvencesizliği yapısının mevcut veriye iyi uyum sağladığını ve karşılaştırma yapılan alternatif modellere göre anlamlı düzeyde daha iyi uyumluluk değerlerine sahip olduğunu göstermiştir, Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2(84) = 188.62, p < .001, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .06$.

Dört boyutlu modelde, maddelerin faktör yüklerinin .45 ile .86 arasında olduğu ve faktörler arası korelasyonların -.02 ile .57 arasında değiştiği gözlemlenmiştir. Bu bulgular dört boyut için geliştirilen maddelerin iş güvencesizliği algısının farklı yönlerini ölçtüğünü göstererek iş güvencesizliği algısının dört boyutlu bir yapısının olabileceği tezini desteklemiştir. Bireysel nicel iş güvencesizliği (.64) dışındaki tüm boyutların, .74 ile .88 arasında değişen kabul edilebilir Cronbach alfa iç tutarlık katsayısı değerlerine sahip olduğu görülmüştür.

Dört iş güvencesizliği boyutunun eğitim ve sektör demografik değişkenleri ile olan farklı ilişkileri ve boyutlar arasındaki anlamlı olmayan faktörler arası korelasyonlar, iş güvencesizliği boyutlarının ayırt ediciliğine işaret etmektedir.

İş güvencesizliğinin dört faktörlü bir yapısının olabileceğini gösteren bu bulgular, Låstad ve arkadaşlarının (2015) bulgularını desteklemekte; bireylerin kendi endişeleri ile çalışılan ortamın iklime yansıyan kolektif endişeler ve işlerinin gelecekteki devamlılığa dair endişeler ile değerli iş özelliklerinin devamlılığına dair endişeler arasında ayırım yapabildiğini göstermektedir. Bu sonuç, bireylerin zihnindeki iş güvencesizliği temsilinin dört köşeli olabileceğini göstermekle birlikte, iş güvencesizliği olgusunu tanımlarken bu olguyu sadece bireyin kendi işinin gelecekteki devamlılığına ilişkin algıladığı tehdit bağlamında düşünmenin bu olgunun tam olarak anlaşılmasını engelleyebileceğini göstermektedir.

İşten Çıkış, Sesini Yükseltme, Sadakat ve Kayıtsızlık Tepkilerinin Yordanması

Çalışma 1'in ikinci amacı doğrultusunda, iş güvencesizliği ikliminin (nicel ve nitel) çalışanların işten ayrılma, düşünceli sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışlarını yordayıcı etkisi ve bu davranışların açıklanmasında bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısının ötesinde bir etkisinin olup olmadığının test edilmesi amacıyla her bir davranışsal tepki için ayrı olacak şekilde dört hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır.

Regresyon analizlerinde, araştırma değişkenleri ile anlamlı korelasyonları bulunan eğitim ve sektör kontrol değişkenleri ile bireysel nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği boyutları birinci basamakta; nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi boyutları ise ikinci basamakta analize dâhil edilmiştir.

Birinci basamakta kontrol değişkenleri ile bireysel iş güvencesizliği boyutları, işten ayrılma, düşünceli sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık değişkenlerindeki varyansın sırasıyla yüzde 13, 11, 16 ve 4'ünü açıklamıştır. Bireysel nicel iş güvencesizliği, işten ayrılma ($\beta = .22, p = .001$) ve kayıtsızlık ($\beta = .18, p = .006$) tepkileri ile anlamlı şekilde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç mevcut işin gelecekteki varlığına ilişkin algılanan tehdit karşısında çalışanların işten ayrılma ve kayıtsızlık davranışlarına yönelme eğilimlerinin artabileceğini göstermektedir. Öte yandan bireysel nitel iş güvencesizliği, işten ayrılma ($\beta = .20, p = .002$), düşünceli sesini yükseltme ($\beta = -.30, p < .001$) ve sadakat ($\beta = -.32, p < .001$) tepkileri ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu ise değer verilen iş özelliklerinin/koşullarının kaybedileceği/kötüleceği endişesi karşısında çalışanların işten ayrılma seçeneğine yönelme eğilimlerinin artabileceğine; diğer yandan düşünceli sesini yükseltme ve örgüte sadakat gösterme eğilimlerinin azalabileceğine işaret etmektedir.

İkinci basamakta iş güvencesizliği iklimi boyutlarının (nicel ve nitel) çoklu regresyon analizlerine dâhil edilmesiyle birlikte işten ayrılma, düşünceli sesini yükseltme, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışlarında açıklanan varyanslar sırasıyla yüzde 19, 12, 23 ve 6 olmuştur. Nicel iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısı sadakat ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) ve

kayıtsızlık ($\beta = .22, p = .016$) davranışları ile anlamlı şekilde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, gelecekte mevcut işin kaybedilebileceği endişesinin hâkim olduğu bir sosyal iklimde çalışmanın, bireylerin örgüte daha yüksek sadakat gösterebileceği ve kayıtsızlık davranışına yönelme eğiliminin artabileceğine işaret etmektedir. Nitel iş güvencesizliği ikliminin ise işten ayrılma ($\beta = .20, p = .008$) ve örgüte sadakat gösterme tepkileri ($\beta = -.30, p < .001$) ile ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Dolayısıyla gelecekte değerli iş özelliklerinin kaybedileceği ve/veya mevcut iş koşullarının kötüleşeceğine dair endişelerin hâkim olduğu bir ortamda çalışmanın bireylerin işten çıkma eğilimlerinin artmasına ve örgüte gösterdikleri sadakatin azalmasına etki edebileceği görülmektedir. Bu bulgular, *H1b, H2a ve H2d*'yi destekler niteliktedir. Nicel iş güvencesizliği ikliminin işten ayrılma ve düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışlarını anlamlı şekilde yordamaması ve sadakat ile hipotez edilenin tersi yönünde ilişkili bulunması; nitel iş güvencesizliği ikliminin ise düşünceli sesini yükseltme ve kayıtsızlık davranışlarını anlamlı şekilde tahmin etmemesinden dolayı *H1a, H1c, H1d, H2b ve H2c* desteklenmemiştir.

Diğer yandan, iş güvencesizliği iklimi boyutlarının regresyon analizlerine ikinci basamakta dâhil edilmesi ile birlikte işten ayrılma ($\Delta R^2 = .06, \Delta F = 8.29, p < .001$) ve sadakat davranışlarında ($\Delta R^2 = .07, \Delta F = 10.63, p < .001$) açıklanan varyansın anlamlı düzeyde arttığı görülmüştür. Bu bulgular, *H3a ve H3c* için destek sağlamış ve işten ayrılma ve sadakat tepkilerinin açıklanmasında iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısının bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısının ötesinde bir etkiye sahip olabileceğini göstermiştir. Düşünceli sesini yükseltme ve kayıtsızlık davranışları için iş güvencesizliği iklimi bireysel iş güvencesizliği algısının ötesinde anlamlı düzeyde ilave varyans açıklamamış, dolayısıyla *H3b ve H3d* desteklenmemiştir.

İş güvencesizliği ikliminin çalışanların davranışsal tepkileri üzerindeki etkilerine işaret eden bu bulgular, bireylerin çalıştıkları ortamlardaki iş güvencesizliği iklimi karşısında işten ayrılma, sadakat ve kayıtsızlık davranışlarına yönelebileceğini göstermektedir. Ancak burada üzerinde durulması gereken önemli bir nokta, iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısının işin kendisinin (nicel) ya da değerli iş özelliklerinin (nitel) kaybına ilişkin olmasının davranış yöneliminde farklılık oluşturabilecek

olmasıdır. Öyle ki, çalışanların işten ayrılma davranışını yordayan boyut nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi algısı olabilir. Bu bulgu iş güvencesizliği ile işten ayrılma arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu gösteren, ancak tipik olarak nicel boyuta odaklanan bireysel iş güvenliği alanyazınındaki bulgulardan (örn., Berntson ve ark., 2010; Sverke ve Goslinga, 2003; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2001) farklı bir tablo ortaya koymaktadır. Bununla birlikte, bu bulgu nitel iş güvencesizliği ikliminin belirli sonuç değişkenlerini tahmin etme konusunda nicel boyuttan daha etkili olabileceği iddiasını (Låstad ve ark., 2015) desteklemektedir. Diğer yandan, sadakat davranışı hem nicel hem de nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi tarafından anlamlı şekilde yordansa da etki yönlerinin farklı olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu çalışmada işin devamlılığına dair duyulan kolektif endişe karşısında çalışanların örgüte sadakat gösterme eğilimi artarken, değerli iş özelliklerini kaybetme endişesi karşısında bu davranışta azalma olabileceği görülmüştür. Öte taraftan, bireysel iş güvencesizliği alanyazınındaki bulgulara paralel şekilde (Roskies ve ark., 1993) çalışanların kayıtsızlık davranışını yordayan boyutun nicel iş güvencesizliği iklimi olduğu bulunmuştur.

EVLN modelinde sesini yükseltme, olumsuz çalışma koşulları karşısında çalışanların başvurulabileceği davranışsal tepkiler arasında gösterilmektedir (Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983; Rusbult ve ark., 1982, 1988). Bu çalışmada düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışı, “sorunu kendi endişelerini ve örgütün endişelerini dikkate alarak çözme çabası” (Hagedoorn ve ark., 1999, s. 309) olarak ele alınmış ve bu tanım doğrultusunda ölçülmüştür. Bulgular iş güvencesizliği ikliminin (nicel ve nitel) düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışı ile anlamlı bir ilişkisinin olmadığını göstermiştir. Bu sonuç ve bireysel iş güvencesizliği alanyazınında yer alan iş güvencesizliği ile sesini yükseltme davranışı arasındaki ilişkiye dair çelişkili bulgular (bkz. Berntson ve ark., 2010; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2001) sesini yükseltme davranışının kendisi ve iş güvencesizliği ile olan ilişkisine dair derinlemesine bir analizin gerekliliğine işaret etmektedir. Sesini yükseltme davranışının karmaşık doğasının (Barry ve Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015; Luchak, 2003; Morrison, 2011, 2014) elde edilen sonuçları etkileyebileceği düşünülmektedir.

Son olarak, iş güvencesizliği ikliminin bireysel iş güvencesizliğinin ötesindeki artımsal geçerliğine ilişkin bulgular, iş güvencesizliği karşısında başvuru alan bireysel tepkileri incelerken sosyal bağlar ve kolektif algıların göz önünde bulundurulmasının önemini göstermektedir. Bu bağlamda, iş güvencesizliğinin çalışanlar ve örgütler üzerindeki etkileri incelenirken bireylerin başkalarının deneyimlerinden etkilenebilen varlıklar olduğu (örn., Katz ve Kahn, 1978; Kozlowski ve Klein, 2000) göz ardı edilmemelidir.

Çalışma 2

Sendika Bağlamında Sesini Yükseltme: İş Güvencesizliği ve Algılanan Sendika Desteğinin Etkilerinin Araştırılması

Amaç

Sesini yükseltme, bireylerin işyerinde deneyimlediği olumsuz koşullar karşısında başvurabileceği davranışsal tepkiler arasında gösterilmektedir (Hagedoorn ve ark., 1999; Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983; Rusbult ve ark., 1982, 1988). İlk tanımlamalarda sesini yükseltme davranışı olumsuz istihdam koşullarını örgütün yararını gözeterek şekilde değiştirmeye yönelik aktif ve yapıcı bir girişim olarak kavramsallaştırılmış olsa da (Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult ve diğerleri, 1988) daha sonraki yıllarda farklı şekillerde tanımlanmıştır. Örneğin çalışma ilişkileri alanyazınında sesini yükseltme "çalışan çıkarlarının kolektif temsilini sağlayan bir mekanizma" olarak kolektif ve daha az yapıcı bir davranış olarak ele alınmıştır (bkz. Barry ve Wilkinson, 2016, s. 261). Budd (2014) sesini yükseltmenin yalnızca yapıcı bir süreç değil, aynı zamanda çalışanın kendi kaderini tayin etmesi için bir araç olduğunu öne sürmüştür. Hagedoorn ve arkadaşları (1999) ise sesini yükseltme davranışının yapıcı bir tepki (düşünceli sesini yükseltme) olmanın ötesinde yıkıcı bir yönünün de (agresif sesini yükseltme) olabileceğini göstermiştir. Nitekim özellikle son on yıllık sürede sesini yükseltme davranışının sadece bireysel ve yapıcı bir davranış olarak ele alınması bazı araştırmacılar tarafından eleştirilmiştir (bkz. örn., Barry ve Wilkinson, 2016; Kaufman, 2015). Bu bağlamda, sesini yükseltme davranışının bireysel ve kolektif,

yapıcı ve yıkıcı yönleri içerecek şekilde daha kapsamlı olarak ele alınması gerektiğini savunan bir akım ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu akımı takiben mevcut çalışmada sesini yükseltme davranışının bireysel/kolektif, yapıcı/yıkıcı yönlerini temsil etmesi bakımından düşünceli sesini yükseltme, agresif sesini yükseltme, temsili sesini yükseltme ve protesto etme yönelimi tepkileri bir arada ele alınmıştır.

İş güvencesizliği ile iş tatmini arasındaki olumsuz ilişki birçok araştırma bulgusu tarafından ortaya koyulmuşken (örn., Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Jiang ve Lavyesse, 2018; Sverke ve ark., 2002) iş tatminsizliği karşısında sergilenen davranışsal bir tepki olarak gösterilen sesini yükseltme davranışının (örn., Hagedoorn ve ark., 1999; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult ve ark., 1988) iş güvencesizliği ile olan ilişkisi yeterince araştırılmamıştır. Var olan araştırmaların çoğunda ise iş güvencesizliği bireysel ve nicel bir olgu olarak ele alınmış, sesini yükseltme davranışının ise çoğunlukla sadece bir yönüne odaklanılmıştır (örn., Berntson ve ark., 2010; Schreurs ve ark., 2015; Sverke ve Goslinga, 2003; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2001). Ancak Çalışma 1 sonuçlarında gösterildiği gibi, iş güvencesizliği ve çalışan davranışı ilişkisini anlama konusunda iş güvencesizliğinin farklı boyutlarının göz önünde bulundurulması bu ilişkinin anlaşılması için kritiktir.

Bu temelde, Çalışma 2, Çalışma 1’de gösterilen dört iş güvencesizliği boyutunun Türkiye’de sendikalı çalışanların düşünceli, agresif ve temsili sesini yükseltme ile protesto etme yönelimi tepkileri üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca sosyal desteğin iş güvencesizliğinin etkilerini şekillendirmedeki etkisi (Cheng ve ark., 2014; Lim, 1996) göz önünde bulundurularak algılanan sendika desteğinin iş güvencesizliğinin sesini yükseltme davranışı üzerinde düzenleyici rolünün olup olmadığı test edilmiştir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Çalışma 2 verileri, Türk Metal Sendikası üyeleri için Ağustos 2019'da sendika tarafından düzenlenen eğitim seminerlerinde kâğıt-kalem anket uygulaması yoluyla toplanmıştır. Katılımcılar Türkiye'de metal sektöründe çalışan 172 sendika üyesidir (%92 erkek, ortalama yaş: 38, yaş aralığı: 25-51, ortalama görev süresi: 13 yıl, görev süresi aralığı: 2 ay-29 yıl). Katılımcılar cevaplarının gizli tutulacağı, çalışmaya katılmalarının tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayandığı ve ankete katılımlarını istedikleri zaman sonlandırabilecekleri konularında bilgilendirilmiştir (bilgilendirilmiş onam formu için, bkz. Ek B). Katılımcılara ankete katılımları için herhangi bir teşvik sağlanmamıştır.

Ölçüm Araçları

Çalışma 2 kapsamında, iş güvencesizliği (Hellgren ve ark., 1999, bkz. Ek C), iş güvencesizliği iklimi (Låstad ve ark., 2015, bkz. Ek D), düşünceli ve agresif sesini yükseltme (Hagedoorn ve ark., 1999), temsili sesini yükseltme (Luchak, 2003), protesto etme yönelimi (Walker ve Mann, 1987, bkz. Ek F) ölçüm araçları kullanılmıştır. Algılanan sendika desteği “Sendika üyesi olmanızın hissettiğiniz iş güvencesine olumlu bir etkisi var mıdır?” sorusuna verilen cevap ile ölçülmüştür. Katılımcılar ölçek maddelerini 7 dereceli Likert tipi ölçek üzerinde değerlendirmiştir (iş güvencesizliği maddeleri için 1 = kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 7 = kesinlikle katılıyorum; sesini yükseltme maddeleri ve algılanan sendika desteği için 1 = kesinlikle hayır, 7 = kesinlikle evet). Katılımcılardan ayrıca yaş, eğitim, cinsiyet ve çalışılan sektör bilgileri belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

Bu veri setinde iş güvencesizliği algısının faktör yapısını test etmek için yapılan doğrulayıcı faktör analizi sonuçları iş güvencesizliğinin dört faktörden oluşan yapısının veriye iyi şekilde uyum sağladığını göstermiştir (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2(84) = 139.10$, $p < .001$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07). İş güvencesizliği

boyutlarının Cronbach alpha iç tutarlık katsayıları bireysel nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği için sırasıyla .69 ve .74; nicel ve nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi için ise sırasıyla .87 ve .85 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Düşünceli ve agresif sesini yükseltme için iç tutarlık katsayıları sırasıyla .93 ve .61 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Sonuç ve Tartışma

Dört iş güvencesizliği boyutunun sendikalı çalışanların sesini yükseltme davranışları (düşünceli, agresif, temsili sesini yükseltme, protesto etme yönelimi) üzerindeki etkisini test etmek amacıyla her bir sesini yükseltme davranışı için ayrı olacak şekilde hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Regresyon analizlerinde, araştırma değişkenleri ile anlamlı korelasyonları bulunan cinsiyet ve yaş, sonuç değişkenleri üzerindeki etkilerinin kontrol edilmesi amacıyla birinci basamakta, bireysel iş güvencesizliği ve iş güvencesizliği iklimi boyutları ise ikinci basamakta analize dâhil edilmiştir. İş güvencesizliği boyutları ile sesi yükseltme formları arasındaki ilişkilerde algılanan sendika desteğinin olası düzenleyici rolü, SPSS Process makro 3.4 sürümü (Hayes, 2017) kullanılarak test edilmiştir.

Analiz sonuçlarına göre, iş güvencesizliği boyutları cinsiyet ve yaş kontrol edildikten sonra düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışındaki varyansın yüzde 24'ünü açıklamıştır. Bireysel nitel iş güvencesizliğinin düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışı ile anlamlı bir ilişkisi olduğu görülmüştür ($\beta = -.49, p < .001$). Bu sonuç, gelecekte bazı değerli iş özelliklerini kaybedeceği konusunda endişelenen çalışanların düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışına başvurma eğilimlerinin azalabileceğini göstermektedir.

Cinsiyet ve yaşın etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra, iş güvencesizliği boyutları agresif sesini yükseltme davranışındaki varyansın yüzde 11'ini açıklamıştır. Nitel iş güvencesizliği iklimi ile agresif sesini yükseltme davranışının anlamlı bir ilişkisinin olduğu bulunmuştur ($\beta = .19, p = .04$). Bu bulgu, değer verilen iş özelliklerini kaybetme endişesinin hâkim olduğu bir iklimde çalışan bireylerin agresif sesini yükseltme davranışına yönelme eğilimlerinin artabileceğine işaret etmektedir.

Temsili sesini yükseltme davranışına bakıldığında ise, cinsiyet ve yaşın etkisinin kontrol edilmesinin ardından, iş güvencesizliği boyutlarının varyansın yüzde sekizini açıkladığı görülmüştür. İki nitel iş güvencesizliği boyutu (bireysel ve iklimsel) temsili sesini yükseltme davranışı ile anlamlı şekilde ancak farklı yönlerde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bireysel nitel iş güvencesizliği temsili sesini yükseltme ile olumsuz yönde ilişkiliyken ($\beta = -.21, p = .02$), nitel iş güvencesizliği ikliminin bu tepkiyi olumlu yönde yordadığı ($\beta = .21, p = .03$) görülmüştür. Bu sonuçlar, bireylerin temsili sesini yükseltme davranışına başvurma eğilimlerinin, değerli iş özelliklerini kaybetme endişesinin bireylerin kendilerine ilişkin bir algı olduğu durumda azalma; bunun kolektif bir endişe olduğu durumda ise artma eğiliminde olduğuna işaret etmektedir.

Son olarak, dört iş güvencesizliği boyutunun birlikte protesto etme yöneliminin açıklanmasında anlamlı düzeyde bir varyans açıklamadığı görülmüştür. Mevcut veri setinde, iş güvencesizliği boyutlarının hiçbirinin bu davranış ile anlamlı bir ilişkisinin olmadığı görülmüştür.

İş güvencesizliği ile sesini yükseltme davranışları arasındaki ilişkilerde algılanan sendika desteğinin düzenleyici rolüne ilişkin sonuçlar, sendika desteğinin yalnızca bir ilişkide – nitel iş güvencesizliği ile düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışı arasında – anlamlı bir düzenleyici etkisinin olduğunu göstermiştir, $F(3, 168) = 19.86, p < .000, R^2 = .26$. Nitel bireysel iş güvencesizliği ile düşünceli sesini yükseltme davranışı arasındaki olumsuz ilişkinin, düşük düzeyde sendika desteği algılayan çalışanlarda yüksek düzeyde sendika desteği algılayanlara göre daha güçlü olduğu görülmüştür ($B = .07, t(168) = 2.09, p = .04, 95\% \text{ CI } [.004; .14]$). Bunun dışında kalan ilişkilerde algılanan sendika desteğinin anlamlı bir düzenleyici etkisi bulunmamıştır.

Bulgular bir arada düşünüldüğünde, Çalışma 2’de elde edilen sonuçlar bir kez daha Låstad ve arkadaşlarının (2015) bulgularını desteklemiş ve iş güvencesizliğinin dört faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olabileceğini göstermiştir. Dolayısıyla iş güvencesizliğini yalnızca mevcut işin gelecekteki devamlılığına ilişkin bireysel bir endişe olarak ele almanın buzdağının sadece görünen yüzü olabileceği, bu sefer Türkiye’deki sendikalı çalışanlardan toplanan veri seti üzerinde yapılan analizler neticesinde ortaya

koyulmuştur. Ayrıca Çalışma 2 sonuçlarına göre, nitel iş güvencesizliği boyutlarının nicel boyutlara kıyasla çalışanların sesini yükseltme davranışının farklı yönlerini yordama konusunda daha etkili olabileceği görülmüştür. Bu, gelecekte çalışma koşullarının kötüleşeceğine dair algılanan bireysel ve kolektif endişelerin, çalışanların seslerini duyurma tepkisine yönelmeleri konusundaki önemine işaret etmektedir.

Sonuçlara ayrıntılı şekilde bakıldığında, gelecekte değerli iş özelliklerin kaybedilmesine ilişkin bireysel tehdit algısının düşünceli sesini yükseltme tepkisi ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olması, örgüt ile olan ilişkilerin kötüye gitmesi durumunda çalışanların sessiz kalmayı seçebileceği ve örgütün menfaati için çaba gösterme motivasyonu var olmaya devam etse bile bunun başka motivasyonların gölgesinde kalabileceğini ileri süren Milliken ve arkadaşlarının (2003) söylemlerini destekler niteliktedir. Bu algının iklimsel olduğu durumda ise agresif sesini yükseltme tepkinin artma eğiliminde olması, örgüt ile olan ilişkiler çalışanları dezavantajlı duruma sokacak şekilde zedelendiğinde, çalışanların örgütün menfaatini gözetmek yerine kendi çıkarlarını korumayı ön plana alabileceğine işaret etmektedir. Nitel iş güvencesizliğinin bireysel olduğu durumda temsili sesini yükseltme davranışının azalma, iklimsel olduğu durumda ise artma eğiliminde olması, bireylerin kendi durumlarına ilişkin kaygıları karşısında daha çok bireysel başa çıkma stratejilerine yönelebileceğini, bunun diğerleri tarafından da deneyimlendiğini algıladıklarında ise başkaları adına temsili rol alma eğilimlerinin artabileceğini göstermektedir. Bu çalışmada protesto etme yönelimi iş güvencesizliği boyutları tarafından anlamlı şekilde yordanmamıştır. Bunun nedeni gerçekten iş güvencesizliğinin çalışanların protesto etme yönelimi üzerinde bir etkisinin olmaması, mevcut çalışmada protesto etme yönelimi tepkisinin iyi şekilde ölçülememesi veya Türkiye gibi sendikalaşma oranının düşük olduğu ülkelerde sendika katılımının zaten bir protesto yöntemi olarak düşünülmesi olabilir.

İş güvencesizliği ile algılanan sendika desteğinin sesini yükseltme davranışı üzerindeki etkileşim etkisi büyük ölçüde bulunamamıştır. Bu sonuç, genel olarak sosyal desteğin (örn., Beehr ve ark., 2003) ve özel olarak sendika desteğinin (örn., Dekker ve Schaufeli, 1995; Sverke ve ark., 2004) anlamsız bulunan stres-tamponlayıcı

etkilerini gösteren bulgular ile uyumludur. Dolayısıyla sosyal desteğin çeşitli değişkenler üzerindeki olumlu etkileri bilimsel araştırmalarda gösterilmiş olsa da (meta-analiz bulguları için bkz. Viswesvaran ve ark., 1999), sendika desteği bireylerin sesini yükseltme davranışı üzerinde herhangi bir etki oluşturmayabilir. Bu noktada, iş güvencesizliği durumunda ikincil bir kuruluştan (sendika) alınan destek yerine birincil kuruluş (çalışılan örgüt) tarafından sağlanan desteğin daha şekillendirici olabileceği düşünülebilir. Ayrıca iş güvencesizliği durumunda çalışanların davranış yönelimini etkileyen değişken sendika desteği yerine, sendikaya olan bağlılık veya sendikadan duyulan memnuniyet gibi diğer sendikal tutumlar olabilir. Bu konunun gelecek çalışmalarda araştırılmasının iş güvencesizliği alanyazınına katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

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