EXPLAINING SERVICE EMPLOYEES' VOICE BEHAVIOR:

A MULTILEVEL, SYSTEMS THEORY APPROACH

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A Multilevel, Systems Theory Approach

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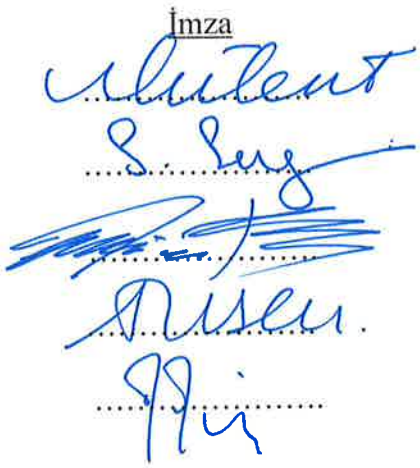

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ABSTRACT

Firms' ability to seek and use information prior to their customers' needs and wants is vital for organizational success in today's highly competitive markets where customers are more selective than ever in their purchase decisions. Although organizations can access customer information via alternative sources such as market research activities, employees' proximity to customers further makes them significant hubs of information for firms that particularly operate in service settings. In this spirit, the following thesis aims to explore the antecedents of service employees' customer-focused voice behavior, which is employees' behavior of communicating customer-relevant issues to their organization. Using a multilevel conceptual model, our study mainly proposes that a type of leadership, namely participative leadership will be effective on different types of customer-focused employee voice (i.e., promotive and prohibitive), through fostering employees' motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact). Furthermore, the study suggests that these relationships can be moderated by unit-level factors such as participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity. Our study follows a quantitative approach with surveys collected from employees working in the medical admission units of a Turkish hospital chain. The results of the study show that participative leadership acts as a factor that affects promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behavior through fostering service orientation and perceived impact at the employee-level. Nevertheless, the study has found that unit-level participative leadership climate strength and customer complexity negatively affect the relationship between participative leadership and service orientation at the employee-level. Customer complexity further affects the relationships between participative leadership and perceived impact and perceived impact and prohibitive customer-focused voice in negative terms. Finally, unit-level feedback-seeking climate strength has been found to diminish the effect of service orientation on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice, and to strengthen the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive customer-focused voice behavior at the employee-level. Based on the results, our thesis further provides theoretical and managerial implications.

ÖZET

Firmaların tüketici ihtiyaç ve istekleriyle ilgili bilgi arama ve kullanması, günümüzde tüketicilerin satın alım kararlarında her zamandan daha fazla seçici olduğu yüksek orandaki rekabetçi pazarlarda kurumsal başarıya erişmek için hayati bir önem taşımaktadır. Kurumlar, tüketiciler hakkında bilgilere pazar araştırma çalışmaları gibi alternatif araçlar ile ulaşabiliyor olsa bile; firma çalışanlarının tüketicilere olan yakınlığı, onları da özellikle hizmet sektörlerinde faaliyet gösteren firmalar için önemli bilgi kaynakları haline getirmektedir. Bu doğrultuda işbu tez çalışmasının amacı, hizmet sektöründeki çalışanların tüketici odaklı sesliliğini, yani onların tüketicilerle ilintili konuları kurumlarına iletme davranışlarını etkileyen faktörleri incelemektir. Çok düzeyli bir kavramsal model eşliğinde çalışmamız, özellikle katılımcı liderlik adı verilen bir liderlik türünün, çalışanların motivasyonel durumlarını (hizmet odaklılığı ve etki algısı) güçlendirerek, farklı tipteki tüketici odaklı çalışan sesliliğinde (destekleyici ve önleyici seslilik) etkin olacağını önermektedir. Çalışma, ayrıca bu ilişkilerin katılımcı liderlik ikliminin gücü, geribildirim arama ikliminin gücü ve tüketici karmaşıklığı gibi ünite seviyesindeki faktörler tarafından etkilenebileceğini de öne sürmektedir. Çalışmamız bir Türk hastane zincirinin hasta kabul ünitelerinde görevli çalışanlardan toplanan anketler nezdinde kantitatif bir araştırma yöntemi kullanmaktadır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, katılımcı liderliğin, çalışan düzeyinde hizmet odaklılığı ve etki algısını güçlendirerek, çalışanların destekleyici ve önleyici sesliliğinde etkin bir rol aldığı görülmektedir. Öte yandan, ünite düzeyinde katılımcı liderlik ikliminin gücü ve tüketici karmaşıklığının, çalışan düzeyinde katılımcı liderlik ve hizmet odaklılığı arasındaki ilişkiyi negatif olarak etkilediği bulunmuştur. Tüketici karmaşıklığı ayrıca katılımcı liderlik ve etki algısı ile etki algısı ve önleyici tüketici odaklı seslilik arasındaki ilişkileri de negatif bir yönde etkilemektedir. Son olarak, ünite düzeyinde geribildirim arama iklimi gücünün çalışan düzeyinde hizmet odaklılığı ile destekleyici ve önleyici tüketici odaklı seslilik arasındaki ilişkileri zayıflattığı ve etki algısı ile önleyici seslilik arasındaki ilişkiyi güçlendirdiği bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar nezdinde, tezimiz teorik ve pratik çıkarım ve önermeler de sunmaktadır.

1. INTRODUCTION

> "I only wish I could find an institute that teaches people how to listen. Business people need to listen at least as much as they need to talk. Too many people fail to realize that real communication goes in both directions."
>
> - Lee Iacocca, former chief executive officer (CEO) of Chrysler Corporation

Customers are described as being intangible assets for organizations (Gupta & Lehmann, 2003). In a sense, customers contribute to firms' successes and failures. They cherish brands like Amazon.com, which rather than selling what they actually have in their stocks, use customer trends to decide on their upcoming offerings ("Talk Desk", 2015). Conversely, the negative events that Coca-Cola experienced following the launch of their new Coke during the 1980s, still constitute a pinnacle among examples that show how customers have the ability to doom their favorite brands into big failures when they feel their preferences are not taken into account. With today's customers becoming even more selective in their purchase decisions with the memories of 2008's crisis being intact in their minds (Sorenson & Adkins, 2014), the viewpoint held by marketers who adopt marketing concept is just like a testimony: That organizations reach and maintain success only by satisfying their customers' needs (Deshpande, Farley, & Webster, 1993; Brown, Mowen, Donavan, & Licata, 2002).

Considering market orientation's positive role on a firm's performance (Day, 1994), businesses should note that a determinant for market orientation is the firms' ability to seek and use information about customers' needs and wants (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). Besides different tools that organizations might use to obtain

information prior to customers' needs and wants (i.e., formal market research activities), there are other ways for managers to obtain information concerning customers' needs and wants (Maltz & Kohli, 1996). For instance, a particular source of customer-relevant information for businesses is their own employees, especially those who take up duties on the frontlines and have direct contact with customers (Ryan & Oestreich, 1998). Their proximity to customers makes frontline employees as corporate messengers who carry future customer opportunities or problems inside their firms (Edmondson, 1996; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012).

Against the above backdrop, our study concentrates on the use of frontline employees as agents who communicate customer-relevant information inside their organizations. More particularly, we delve into the concept of customer-focused employee voice, which refers to an employee's behavior of communicating customer-related issues, areas of improvement or problems and concerns to the management with the intention of improving the overall customer experience provided by the organization (Lam & Mayer, 2013). We mainly focus on the circumstances under which customer-focused employee voice, or employees' behavior to communicate customer-relevant issues to their organization can be formed. With these premises, we move on to a brief analysis of prior literature on our point of interest and the description of our own research problem.

1.1. Limitations of previous research and the research problem

The voice literature is rife with studies that attempt to explain the antecedents of employee voice behavior in organizations. In line with these studies, employee voice

behavior has been attributed to factors like employee characteristics, leader characteristics and environmental characteristics (i.e., organizational factors). Table 1.1 summarizes those factors that have been found by past studies to affect employees' voice behaviors in organizations. Yet the majority of these studies focus on explaining the factors that account for employee voice, or employees' behavior of communicating ideas, opinions, and concerns prior to organizational issues in general, but not only customer-relevant issues. That is, employee voice literature remains scant in terms of studies examining the factors affecting employees' customer-focused voice behaviors. Therefore, our research problem in this study is about the factors that affect employees' customer-focused voice behaviors.

To our knowledge, the only study that focuses on the antecedents of customer-focused employee voice belongs to Lam and Mayer (2013). Their study posits that customer-focused voice is influenced by a combination of employee (i.e., employee customer orientation and employees' autonomy at work) and organizational characteristics (i.e., unit service climate) (Lam & Mayer, 2013). Nevertheless, this study has its drawbacks that need to be addressed by further studies. First, the authors, "were not able to directly examine the psychological mechanisms by which" employee-level antecedents affect customer-focused voice (Lam & Mayer, 2013, p. 22). Second, although they explained customer-focused voice with employee and organizational characteristics, the study lacks in terms of whether other antecedents such as leadership characteristics can affect customer-focused voice. Finally, the organizational characteristics that they introduced as factors taking part in customer-focused voice (i.e.,

service climate) need to be enriched with alternative environmental/organizational characteristics.

Although Lam and Mayer (2013) have examined customer-focused employee voice as a unique, single construct; the employee voice literature has also seen past studies (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Wei, Zhang, & Chen, 2015), which examined voice behavior in two distinct constructs: (a) Promotive and (b) prohibitive employee voice. On one hand, promotive employee voice refers to "employees' expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their work unit or organization" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 74). On the other hand, prohibitive employee voice refers to "employees' expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 75). Considering the differing nature of these types of voice (i.e., Promotive being more towards providing recommendations while prohibitive being towards communicating concerns), customer-focused voice literature remains scant with respect to studies focusing on this distinction.

In line with these limitations, we formulate our research question as "Does participative leadership affect employees' promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behaviors in service context?" Our study particularly focuses on the service settings due to extensive presence of customer-employee interactions in services (Teng & Barrows, 2009). Addressing to the aforementioned gaps, we suggest that a type of leadership, namely participative leadership will affect employees' customer-focused voice behaviors through certain psychological mechanisms (i.e. motivational states that

we conceptualized as service orientation and perceived impact). We further introduce three organizational factors, (i.e. unit-level participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity), as moderating variables, which condition the relationships between participative leadership and customer-focused voice. We draw the mediating role of motivational states and the moderating effect of organizational factors from systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Finally, we address customer-focused voice with two constructs, promotive and prohibitive voice.

Table 1.1 - Review of factors affecting employee voice

CONSTRUCT	STUDIES	CONSTRUCT	STUDIES
EMPLOYEE TRAITS/STATES/ATTITUDES			
Achievement orientation	Tangirala, Kamdar, Venkataramani, and Parke (2013)	Emotion regulation knowledge	Grant (2012)
Approach motivation	Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, and Chu (2014)	Locus of control	Premeaux and Bedeian (2003)
Avoidance motivation	Aryee et al. (2014)	Morality	Zhang, Huai, and Xie (2014)
Core self-evaluations	Aryee et al. (2014)	Prevention focus	Lin and Johnson (2015)
Customer orientation	Lam and Mayer (2013)	Promotion focus	Lin and Johnson (2015)
Depletion	Lin and Johnson (2015)	Reliance (trust) intentions	Conchie, Taylor, and Donald (2012)
Duty orientation	Tangirala et al. (2013)	Self-esteem	Premeaux and Bedeian (2003)
Ego defensiveness	Fast, Burris, and Bartel (2013)	Self-monitoring	Premeaux and Bedeian (2003)
BIG FIVE ATTRIBUTES			
Agreeableness	Lee, Diefendorff, Kim, and Bian (2014)	Extraversion	Lee et al. (2014)

EMPLOYEE JOB STATUS			
Actor's lower status vis-à-vis the target	Liu, Tangirala and Ramanujam (2013)	Perceived risk	Wei et al. (2015)
Employee embeddedness	Ng and Feldman (2013)	Personal control	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008)
Personal influence	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012)		Aryee et al. (2014)
	Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010)	Self-perceived status	Janssen and Gao (2013)
Flexible work role orientation	Ng and Feldman (2012b)	Status judgment	Zhang et al. (2014)
Job autonomy	Lam and Mayer (2013)	Work-flow centrality	Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010)
Perceived self-efficacy for voice	Wei et al. (2015)		
	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012)		
	Janssen and Gao (2013)		
	Tangirala et al. (2013)		
EMPLOYEE JOB ATTITUDES			
Actor's relationship quality with target	Liu et al. (2013)	Organizational trust	Ng and Feldman (2013)
Affective commitment	Tröster and van Knippenberg (2012)	Procedural justice perceptions	Aryee et al. (2014)
Disclosure (trust) intentions	Conchie et al. (2012)	Organization-based self-esteem	Liang et al. (2012)
Employee's overall job satisfaction	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012)	Subordinate psychological attachment to the organization	Burris, Detert, and Chiaburu (2008)
Favorability of the work group voice climate	Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, and Kamdar (2011)	Trust in upper-level leader	Premeaux and Bedeian (2003)
Felt obligation for constructive change	Liang et al. (2012)		Conchie et al. (2012)
Group perceptions of supervisor undermining	Frazier and Bowler (2012)		Gao, Janssen, and Shi (2011)

Individual identification with the work group	Morrison et al. (2011)	Value congruence	Wang, Hsieh, Tsai, and Cheng (2012)
Individual satisfaction with the work group	Morrison et al. (2011)	Voice role conceptualization	Tangirala et al. (2013)
Organizational identification	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008)	Work-group identification	Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010)
EMPLOYEE JOB BEHAVIORS			
Deep/surface acting	Grant (2012)	Task performance	Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010)
Social networking behavior	Ng and Feldman (2012b)	Subordinates' level of performance	Detert and Burris (2007)
MANAGER TRAITS/ATTITUDES/BEHAVIORS			
Authoritarianism	Zhang et al. (2014)	Manager's consultation behavior	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012)
Benevolence	Zhang et al. (2014)	Perceived abusive supervision	Burris et al. (2008)
Coaching	Gao et al. (2011)	Perceived supervisor embeddedness	Ng and Feldman (2013)
Ego threat	Fast et al. (2013)	Safety-specific transformational leadership	Conchie et al. (2012)
Informing	Gao et al. (2011)	Supervisory delegation	Wei et al. (2015)
Managerial self-efficacy	Fast et al. (2013)	Supervisory responsiveness	Janssen and Gao (2013)
Managerial voice aversion	Fast et al. (2013)	Target's positive mood	Liu, Tangirala, Lam, Chen, Jia, and Huang (2015)
LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS			
Ethical leadership	Walumbwa, Morrison, and Christensen (2012)	Leader openness	Tröster and van Knippenberg (2012)
	Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009)	Leaders' perceived display of openness	Detert and Burris (2007)
Group-focused transformational leadership	Wang et al. (2012)	Leaders' perceived transformational behaviors	Detert and Burris (2007)

Leader agreeableness	Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009)		
Leader conscientiousness	Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009)		
MANAGERIAL STATUS			
Exchange between direct leader and skip-level leader	Liu et al. (2013)	Leader-member exchange	Burris et al. (2008)
Exchange between employee and direct leader	Liu et al. (2013)		Zhang et al. (2014)
Exchange between employee and skip-level leader	Liu et al. (2013)	Leader-member similarity in nationality	Tröster and van Knippenberg (2012)
Manager's status within the organization	Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012)		
WORKGROUP CHARACTERISTICS			
Coworker support	Loi, Ao, and Xu (2013)	Scale referent	Podsakoff, Maynes, Whiting, and Podsakoff (2015)
Group-level participative climate	Lee, Diefendorff, Kim, and Bian (2014)	Service climate	Lam and Mayer (2013)
Idiosynratic deals	Ng and Feldman (2012b)	Social stressors and strains	Ng and Feldman (2012a)
Job stressors and strains	Ng and Feldman (2012a)	Superficial harmony	Wei et al. (2015)
Member-team dissimilarity in nationality	Tröster and van Knippenberg (2012)	The frequency of group members engaging in voice	Podsakoff et al. (2015)
Organizational stressors and strains	Ng and Feldman (2012a)	The proportion of group members engaging in voice	Podsakoff et al. (2015)
Participative decision making	Gao et al. (2011)	Top-management openness	Premeaux and Bedeian (2003)
Perceived organizational support	Loi et al. (2013)	Voice climate	Frazier and Bowler (2012)
Power distance	Wei et al. (2015)		Wei et al. (2015)

Psychological safety	Liang et al. (2012)	Work group's voice climate	Morrison et al. (2011)
	Liu et al. (2013); Liu et al. (2015)		
	Detert and Burris (2007)		
	Tröster and van Knippenberg (2012)		
	Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009)		
	Tangirala et al. (2013)		

1.2. Purpose and motivations of the study

This study first aims to enrich the understanding on factors affecting the customer-focused employee voice behavior. Our initial motivation for studying the factors affecting customer-focused employee voice comes from a variety of reasons. First, considering that employee voice has an enhancing effect on the organizational performance (Morrison, 2014), we also believe that customer-focused employee voice is likely to benefit organizations, particularly in these times where it is becoming harder for organizations to attract and maintain the customers. Second, customer-focused employee voice still remains an under-examined concept in the voice literature. Considering the role of customer-focused employee voice on meeting the ever-evolving customer needs (Lam & Mayer, 2013), we conclude that studying the factors that account for customer-focused employee voice might produce valuable contributions both for the marketing theory and practice.

When examining the factors that give birth to customer-focused employee voice behavior, our study particularly aims to understand the role of a specific leadership style, namely participative leadership on customer-focused voice at the employee-level. That is, we examine whether participative leadership relationships between supervisors and employees affect employees' customer-focused voice behaviors. Noting leaders' effect in certain employee behaviors including voice (Zhang et al., 2014), the voice literature came up with studies observing the role of various leadership styles (e.g., ethical leadership, transformational leadership) on employee voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Notwithstanding, participative leadership has never been associated with employee voice or customer-focused employee voice by any of the past studies in voice literature, which motivates us to examine the association between these constructs.

More particularly, our study suggests that the effect of participative leadership on customer-focused voice at the employee-level will be through employee motivational states, which we define as service orientation and perceived impact. The introduction of these motivational states that account for the potential effect of participative leadership on customer-focused voice will help us to understand participative leadership-voice relationship in depth, which can be translated in other forms employee voice or even extra-role behavior context by future studies. Furthermore, beyond their isolated effects, employee behavior is a product of the interaction between employee and environmental-level (i.e., organizational) factors (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Against this backdrop, our study aims to investigate whether the employee-level relationships between participative

leadership-motivational states-customer-focused employee voice are contingent on different factors at the organizational level (i.e., unit-level participative leadership, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity).

As mentioned previously, promotive and prohibitive voice represent different employee behaviors (i.e., promotive voice incorporates employees' communication of their recommendations and ideas to the upper management while prohibitive voice is relevant to employees' communication of concerns prior to organizational practices, incidents and behaviors). Therefore, a study is needed in terms of whether it takes different settings for each of these voice types to occur in organizations. Considering that the literature has overlooked this distinction, and mostly focused on voice as an activity similar to what we refer in promotive voice (Liang et al., 2012), past studies do not have an answer for such question, and thus, skips an information that can provide valuable theoretical and practical contribution. Therefore, our study aims to examine customer-focused employee voice behavior in two distinct constructs, with the motivation to address this gap and enrich the body of knowledge on these distinctive types of voice in the context of customer-focused employee voice.

1.3. Significance of the study

Our study is significant in terms of a variety of reasons. First, to the best of our knowledge, the study is the second attempt that concentrates on customer-focused employee voice, a type of employee voice, that has been neglected by the literature except the study by Lam and Mayer (2013). Second, our study stands out from Lam and Mayer (2013) by conceptualizing customer-focused employee voice in two unique

dimensions, namely promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. Although previous researchers (Liang et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Wei et al., 2015) studied employee voice in these two distinctive forms, no attempts have been made to examine customer-focused voice in these two distinctive constructs. Third, our study is the first attempt that introduces a leadership style as the antecedent of customer-focused employee voice. The opportunity to confirm such a relationship would be likely to produce valuable theoretical and practical implications.

Fourth, our study observes the role of participative leadership on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice via the mediating effects of employee motivational states. That is, we examine whether motivational states, which we identify as service orientation and perceived impact can act as the underlying mechanisms that explain participative leadership-customer-focused voice relationship. The inclusion of motivational states in our model particularly addresses the gap that has been mentioned by Lam and Mayer (2013) towards the lack of an underlying mechanism between various antecedents and customer-focused voice. Fifth, our study introduces a variety of organizational-level characteristics as factors affecting relationships between participative leadership-motivational states-customer-focused employee voice behaviors at the employee-level. Thus, we emphasize that customer-focused voice is the product of a regular interaction among employee and organizational-level factors. To test these cross-level influences, our study draws from systems theory, which has not been used in voice literature (Chen & Kanfer, 2006).

1.4. Organization of the study

In the sections to follow, we first explain the concept of employee voice in general. This will help us to understand our subject of interest in detail. Noting the existence of different voice types in the literature (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2013), this part will further help us to draw the boundaries in terms of which type of voice we refer to in this study. We, then, provide an explanation for our theoretical framework, namely systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). This will be followed by the introduction of the constructs in our conceptual model and by the explanation of our research hypotheses. After providing information about the methodology that we use in our study, we detail the findings of our research, and discuss the implications that we deduct from our results.

2. THE DOMAIN AND DEFINITION OF EMPLOYEE VOICE

In this chapter, we introduce the concept of employee voice in order to establish a base for our later discussions. We first start by exploring the domain of employee voice as an employee behavior in organizations by referring to the past literature, which associated employee voice with employee extra-role behaviors and proactive behaviors. Such an attempt to position the employee voice behavior within the other employee behaviors will help us to rationalize our conceptual model and hypothesized relationships, which we will explain later in this study. Our chapter will also provide a definition for employee voice based on past studies as well as information prior to the target of employee voice, which we further adopt in this study. Thus, this chapter will help us to draw the boundary lines for the concept of employee voice, which we observe a sub-dimension of (i.e., customer-focused employee voice).

2.1. The domain of employee voice behavior

2.1.1. Employee voice as an extra-role behavior

Employee voice can be observed under the broad umbrella of extra-role behaviors, which are "(1) not specified in advance by role prescriptions, (2) not recognized by formal reward systems, (3) not a source of punitive consequences when not performed by job incumbents" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 108). Such behaviors are "class of pro-organizational behaviors that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantees of recompense" (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011, p. 562). Extra-role behaviors can be classified with a typology, which is based on the twin dichotomies of promotive vs.

prohibitive and affiliative vs. challenging extra-role behaviors. Promotive extra-role behaviors are those that "promote, encourage or cause things to happen", and prohibitive extra-role behaviors are those that are "protective and preventative" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 108). Affiliative extra-role behaviors can be defined as cooperative and noncontroversial, and challenging extra-role behaviors are those behaviors that are change-oriented and challenge the status quo (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Table 2.1 displays the dimensions that different extra-role behaviors fall within.

Table 2.1 - The domains of various extra-role behaviors

	Promotive	**Prohibitive**
Affiliative	Helping	Stewardship
Challenging	Employee voice Taking charge	Whistle blowing

Source: Van Dyne and LePine (1998), Morrison and Phelps (1999), MacKenzie et al. (2011)

According to this typology, although helping and employee voice are common in terms of being defined as promotive behaviors, the latter, which is a challenging extra-role behavior, differs from the former (i.e., affiliative extra-role behavior) (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Employee voice also departs from stewardship, which is more protecting and affiliative, and performed at times where organizational standards are violated. In a similar case, whistle blowing that incorporates the communication of illegal and unethical practices inside the organization, differs from employee voice due to its goal of protecting the organization. Thus, employee voice is an extra-role behavior that differs from other extra-role behaviors due to its emphasis on challenging the status quo

inside the organization in a constructive tone (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Rather than a mere critic of organizational practices, employee voice involves the suggestion of innovative ideas and communication of problematic issues even to the dismay of others. Therefore, employee voice is a challenging and promotive extra-role behavior.

Like employee voice, taking charge is also considered a challenging and promotive extra-role behavior on the typology presented in Table 2.1 (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, employee voice varies from taking charge in three ways: First, it is a broader and multifaceted behavior than taking charge with its mediums and tools ranging from grievance filing to complaining to supervisors (Farrell, 1983). Second, it takes less effort to exert employee voice compared to behaviors associated with taking charge behaviors (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Third, employee voice behaviors differ from taking charge by focusing on the behavior of communication between employees and upper-level managers (Ng & Feldman, 2012a). Constructs like issue selling or upward communication are also defined as being similar to employee voice but while the former differs from employee voice having the sole intention to bring attention to the recent developments, or key trends; the latter is defined as being much broader in content compared to employee voice (Morrison, 2011).

2.1.2. Employee voice as a proactive behavior

The literature defines proactive behaviors as actions that aim to improve the existing conditions (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison, 2011). Proactive behaviors are “anticipatory” (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 4), “self-initiated” and “future-oriented” (Morrison, 2011, p. 375) behaviors. When employees involve in proactive

behaviors, they aim to challenge the status quo rather than showing adaptation to the existing conditions in their organization (Crant 2000). Against this backdrop and in line with various past studies (Morrison, 2011; Frazier & Bowler, 2012; Detert et al., 2013), we consider employee voice to be a proactive behavior. This is because, employee voice aims to challenge the status quo and promote the functioning in organizations similar to proactive behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Parker & Collins, 2010). Nevertheless, despite being considered a proactive behavior, this link of employee voice with proactive behaviors has received scant attention in voice literature (Morrison, 2011).

A confusion in the literature stems from whether proactive behaviors and extra-role behaviors are the same (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Nevertheless, studies put that employees can act proactively both within their in-role and extra-role behaviors (Parker et al., 2006; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Therefore, we consider employee voice as a combination of extra-role and proactive employee behaviors at the same time. That is, employee voice is a proactive, extra-role employee behavior.

2.2. Definition of employee voice

The literature has come up with different definitions of employee voice. Some examples to these definitions are provided in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2 - Different definitions of employee voice

Article	Definition
Van Dyne and LePine (1998, p. 109)	Promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize
Premeaux and Bedeian (2003, p. 1538)	Openly stating one's views or opinions about the workplace matters, including the actions or ideas of others, suggested or needed changes, and alternative approaches or different lines of reasoning for addressing job-related issues
Detert and Burris (2007, p. 869)	Discretionary provision of information intended to improve organizational functioning to someone inside an organization with the perceived authority to act, even though such information may challenge and upset the status quo and its power holders.
Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010, p. 582)	The expression of challenging but constructive opinions, concerns, or ideas on work related issues

Drawing from these definitions, we define employee voice as a change-oriented and challenging communication of ideas, opinions, and concerns about organizational issues that aims to improve the organizational functioning. Since it is an extra-role behavior,

employee voice can neither be expected from the employees as a formal, standard job behavior, nor is rewarded. In these terms, our definition of employee voice is closer to that of Detert and Burris (2007) and of Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010). In our study, we focus on prosocial employee voice rather than acquiescent or defensive voice due to this voice type's association with employees' behavior of speaking up with the aim of improving and being beneficial to the organization (Lee et al., 2014). We further adopt constructive employee voice rather than supportive, defensive, or destructive voice types due to the former's emphasis on "voluntary expression of ideas, information, or opinions" aiming organizational change (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2013, p. 5).

2.3. Target for employee voice

A particular issue that deserves attention is the target for the employee voice since employee voice is a behavior of communicating ideas, opinions, and concerns to a third party within the organization, namely a target. Voice target can be defined as the "potential recipient of the voice message" (Morrison, 2014, p. 174), and can differ from a supervisor to a colleague working at the same unit with the employee. Our study focuses on the upward employee voice where the target is defined as a person who works at the same organization with the employee, and who has a superior rank than the employee. We consider that the dominant content for upward communication in the form of employee voice is more constructive rather than mere complaint (Liu et al., 2013). We now move on to our third chapter in which we introduce the theoretical framework of our study.

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study aims to explain the antecedents of customer-focused employee voice behaviors. More particularly, we examine whether participative leadership, or a supervisor's one-to-one participative leadership behavior with an employee is a factor affecting promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice at the employee-level through underlying motivational states of an employee (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact). Moreover, our study suggests that customer-focused voice behaviors are not only the product of these antecedents at the employee-level (i.e., participative leadership, service orientation, and perceived impact) but their combination with organizational-level (i.e., unit) characteristics, namely participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity.

In the light of our suggestions, we use systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006) as a backbone to our conceptual model. The main reason for us to use systems theory is based on the theory's ability to delineate individual-level motivation processes to explain the relationships between different input factors and employee behaviors. Furthermore, systems theory differs from other motivation theories mainly because of its ability to combine individual and unit-level factors to explain employee behaviors in teams, thus serving to our study's objectives. (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Under this information, this chapter first presents systems theory in detail. We, then, provide information prior to some past studies that used systems theory framework in order to explain employee behaviors in group settings.

3.1. Systems theory

Our study builds upon systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006), which posits that employee behavior is influenced by a combination of individual and group-level factors. The individual-level factors are called discretionary inputs, and refer to factors specific to some employees rather than all employees in the team. Discretionary inputs may include employees' motivational traits, work experience or their exchange relationships with their leaders. The group-level characteristics, also called as ambient inputs, represent the values and factors that relate to the overall team in general. Factors such as leadership climate, work design or group norms can be mentioned under ambient inputs.

Figure 3.1 displays that the individual factors affect employee motivational states (i.e., employees' beliefs towards their capabilities for performing specific actions). These motivational states help employees generate (goal generation) and execute goals (goal striving) prior to performance. This process is exactly the same for workgroups where group-level input factors affect motivational states, which in turn affect performance via goal generation, and striving processes. The combination of motivational states, goal generation, and goal striving is called motivational processes at the individual and workgroup levels (Chen & Kanfer, 2006).

Contrary to other motivational theories, systems theory assumes that employee motivation is not only affected by employee-level factors in isolation. Instead, group-level factors and motivational processes together take part in influencing employee motivation to perform specific behaviors. Systems theory refers this effect of group-level factors and motivational processes on employee motivation and performance as

top-down effects, and the effect of individual-level motivational processes on group motivation as bottom-up effects. Systems theory also posits that the group-level motivational processes have a direct effect on individual performance alongside the employee motivational processes. The individual performance, in turn, will contribute to the group-level performance.

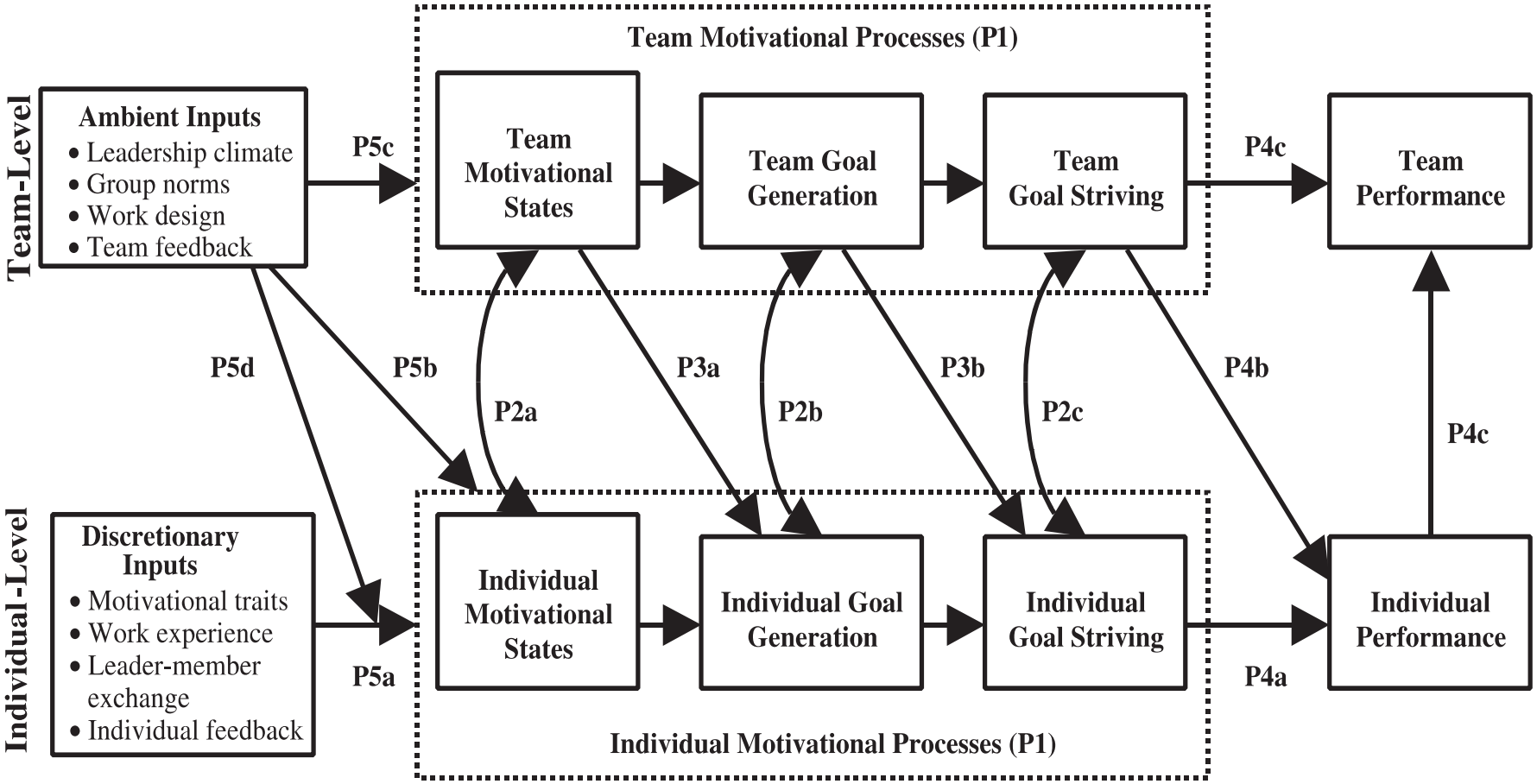
3.2. Previous applications of systems theory

Studies thus far have directly or indirectly used systems theory to explain employees' proactive behavior (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010) and their innovative behavior in workgroups (Chen, Farh, Campbell-Bush, Wu, & Wu, 2013). The former presented a model that combines together different employee and unit-level factors to predict employees' proactive motivational states, which in turn relate to their goal generation and goal striving behaviors that eventually explain their proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2010). The latter articulated employee and unit-level factors to explain innovative performance behavior in workgroups via employee and workgroup-level motivational states (Chen et al., 2013). The study has found that employee and unit-level input factors affect their respective motivational states, which in turn influence the employee and workgroup innovative performance. Moreover, workgroup motivational states have a top-down effect on employee-level motivational states and on employee innovative performance, which in turn affects the overall workgroup performance.

To the best of our knowledge, systems theory framework has never been applied to the context of employee voice. The only study that comes close to what we want to achieve is the model of proactive motivation (Parker et al., 2010). After all, employee

voice is a proactive employee behavior (Morrison, 2011). With this in mind, our study thus imports the foundations of systems theory into the context of customer-focused employee voice, as a form of proactive behavior. In the following chapters, we will explain the components of our model and articulate these components to customer-focused employee voice drawing from systems theory.

Figure 3.1 - The relationships proposed in systems theory



Source: Chen and Kanfer (2006, p. 235)

4. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In essence, systems theory posits that an employee's behavior such as voice is influenced by employee-level and unit-level factors, and by the interplay between the two (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Drawing from systems theory, we propose that an employee-level input factor, namely participative leadership affects an employee's service orientation and perceived impact (i.e., employee motivational states), which in turn influence his/her promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. At the unit-level, our model posits that external stimuli (i.e., customer complexity), unit-level input factor (i.e., participative leadership climate strength), and a unit-level motivational state (i.e., feedback-seeking climate strength) condition the relationships at the employee-level. We now move on to explain each of these constructs that we include in our conceptual model in detail.

4.1. Employee-level factors

4.1.1. Participative leadership

Organizations have started to rely on their employees to take on the duties, which are normally expected by managers in traditional, hierarchical corporate structures; when global competition, changing customer demands and the shift from a manufacturing to a service focus took on the businesses (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000). This journey of the organizational staff to move from being mere employees to managerial collaborates is a factor that greatly relied on leaders' empowering behaviors who delegated authority to their subordinates (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). Participative decision-making or participative leadership, which takes part under leaders' empowering behaviors (Arnold et al., 2000), can be

defined as a joint decision-making process that exists between a supervisor and his/her subordinates (Koopman & Wierdsma, 1998). In a workgroup environment where participative leadership takes place, supervisors provide their subordinates the opportunity to express their opinions, consult them when making decisions, and often make decisions in collaboration with their subordinates (Rapp, Ahearne, Mathieu, & Schillewaert, 2006).

Participative leadership brings a variety of benefits for employees. In an environment where supervisors and subordinates involve in a collaborative, joint decision-making regarding the work-relevant matters, employees are mentioned to feel higher self-efficacy with a reduced sense of powerlessness (Huang, Iun, Liu, & Gong, 2010). Previous studies have also reported that participative leadership fosters employees' commitment (Sashkin, 1976), satisfaction (Yammarino & Naughton, 1992), engagement (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012), and performance at work (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010). Besides its benefits for employees, a participative leadership environment also improves organizations' decision-making quality (Scully, Kirkpatrick, & Locke, 1995). As a sub-dimension of leaders' empowering behaviors (Arnold et al., 2000; Rapp et al., 2006), participative leadership has been associated with employees' involvement in affiliative and challenging extra-role behaviors (Raub & Robert, 2010), and in service-oriented extra-role behaviors (Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014). In line with these findings, our research model associates participative leadership with employee service orientation and perceived impact, which in turn affect employees' promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behaviors.

4.1.2. Service orientation

The term service orientation has been conceptualized in two different levels in the literature. The first conceptualization identifies service orientation as an organizational-level characteristic, which has been defined as an "organization-wide embracement of a basic set of relatively enduring organizational policies, practices, and procedures intended to support and reward service-giving behaviors that create and deliver service excellence" (Lytle & Timmerman, 2006, p. 136). Service orientation at the organizational level has been defined as more of a climate or culture in the organizations (Bowen, Siehl, & Schneider, 1989), and relates to service leadership, service encounters with customers or service systems, which enable the organizations to provide reliable service (Lytle, Hom, & Mokwa, 1998).

The second conceptualization of service orientation is at the employee-level. As such, service orientation is defined as an "inclination to provide service, to be courteous and helpful in dealing with customers" (Cran, 1994, p. 36). Employees who are highly service oriented demonstrate an enjoyment to help the customers, fulfill and are proud of themselves by serving the customers in an excellent way (Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001). Various individual traits (i.e., agreeableness) (Hurley, 1998; Brown et al., 2002) and contextual characteristics (e.g., leadership support) (Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2007) are mentioned to increase an employee's service orientation. Employee service orientation fosters employee performance at work (Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005), and motivates employees to involve in extra-role behaviors (Teng & Barrows, 2009). Our research model adopts this second conceptualization of service orientation, and proposes that

participative leadership can affect employees' level of service orientation, which in turn would affect their involvement in customer-focused employee voice.

4.1.3. Perceived impact

The literature attributes perceived impact to the concept of empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995). Empowerment represents two alternative conceptions in the literature (Ahearne et al., 2005). The first conception is defined as an organizational-level practice, which delegates decision-making and execution behaviors from managers to the employees (Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003). The second conception is embedded in the concept of empowerment, which is a type of psychological state that consists of four dimensions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (Spreitzer, 1995). Meaning can be defined as a relative value of a work's goal or purpose with employees' own beliefs and values (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Competence refers as the extent of one's self-efficacy is defined to his/her belief in his/her ability to perform a task (Gist, 1987). Self-determination is defined as an employee's choice to initiate and regulate his/her actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989).

Perceived impact refers to an employee's perception that (s)he has influence over various functions of his/her workplace (Ashforth, 1989). Employees who perceive themselves to have high impact at work feel that they have a great deal of control and influence over the functioning of their unit (Spreitzer, 1995). The literature posits that contextual factors such as leadership behaviors can foster employees' sense of perceived impact at work, which in turn motivate employees to involve in proactive behaviors like employee voice (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Wang, Gan, Wu, & Wang, 2015). In line with these studies, we suggest that

perceived impact is influenced by participative leadership, and in turn affects customer-focused employee voice.

4.1.4. Customer-focused employee voice

Our study observes customer-focused voice in two distinct and unique concepts: (a) Promotive customer-focused voice, and (b) prohibitive customer-focused voice. Promotive voice is defined as "employees' expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their work unit or organization" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 74). Employees, who exert promotive voice, develop and make recommendations concerning issues relevant to the service functions even to the existence of dissenting opinions in the workgroup, and encourage other employees to get involved in such matters (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Promotive voice is aimed to change the status quo within the organization and improve the situation to a better, ideal state (Lin & Johnson, 2015). The literature has previously linked employee-level factors like sense of obligation for change, and promotion focus, to this type of voice (Liang et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015). Furthermore, power distance inside the organizations has been mentioned to associate negatively with promotive voice (Wei et al., 2015).

Prohibitive voice is defined as "employees' expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 75). Differently from promotive voice, employees who involve in prohibitive voice communicate their concerns and potential/existent problems prior to organizational functions to their supervisors and managers (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Unlike promotive voice though, the literature

is limited in terms of studies focusing on prohibitive voice. The existing studies state that prohibitive voice can be affected by factors like employees' perceptions of psychological safety inside the organization, or their sense of prevention focus (Liang et al., 2002; Lin & Johnson, 2015). The perception of harmony inside the organizations/workgroups is mentioned to affect employees' decision to involve in prohibitive voice in negative terms (Wei et al., 2015).

4.2. Unit-level factors

4.2.1. Customer complexity

The term customer complexity has its roots in terms like task and job complexity (Campbell, 1988; Schaubroeck, Gangster, & Kemmerer, 1994; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). These studies associate complexity with the presence of a multitude of diverse tasks, which, thus, place higher cognitive demands from the task doers (Campbell, 1988). With this information, customer complexity can be defined as the extent of the employees' task to respond to a variety of customer needs and procedures relevant to their buying process (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Customer complexity is nourished from factors like consumers becoming more dominant in buyer-seller relationship, increased competition between different service providers, a multitude of influences on consumer purchase decisions, globalization, and increased customer diversity (Ingram, 2004).

In customer-complex environments, customers require more customized than standardized services for their unique and individual requests, leading the workgroup members to try to better understand these needs, and often collaborate with other units inside the organization, which increases employees' workload and decreases

their reliance on standardized procedures and regulations (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). High customer complexity is further mentioned to create a sense of role conflict and ambiguity in employees (Singh, Marinova, & Brown, 2012; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Our model proposes that customer complexity can condition the relationships between participative leadership and perceived impact, participative leadership and service orientation, service orientation and customer-focused employee voice, and between perceived impact and customer-focused employee voice.

4.2.2. Participative leadership and feedback-seeking climate strength

The culture strength literature posits that culture is a set of shared values among its followers (Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002). A strong culture, thus, means that there exists a high number of people who uniformly adopt the same values with each other (Schneider et al., 2002). Moreover, situational strength literature posits that when people perceive particular conditions in the same way in a strong situation, they will have uniform expectations prior to appropriate behaviors in such situations, and consistently involve in these behaviors (Mischel, 1976). Conversely, in weak situations, employees do not perceive the conditions in the same way, which push them to have inconsistent expectations prior to appropriate behaviors, which will push them to behave inconsistently/differently.

Similar to a given culture, an organizational climate represents employees' shared values prior to an organizational environment (Menguc, Auh, & Kim, 2011). When the concepts of culture and situational strength are imported into the context of organizational climate, it is possible to deduct that in a strong organizational climate,

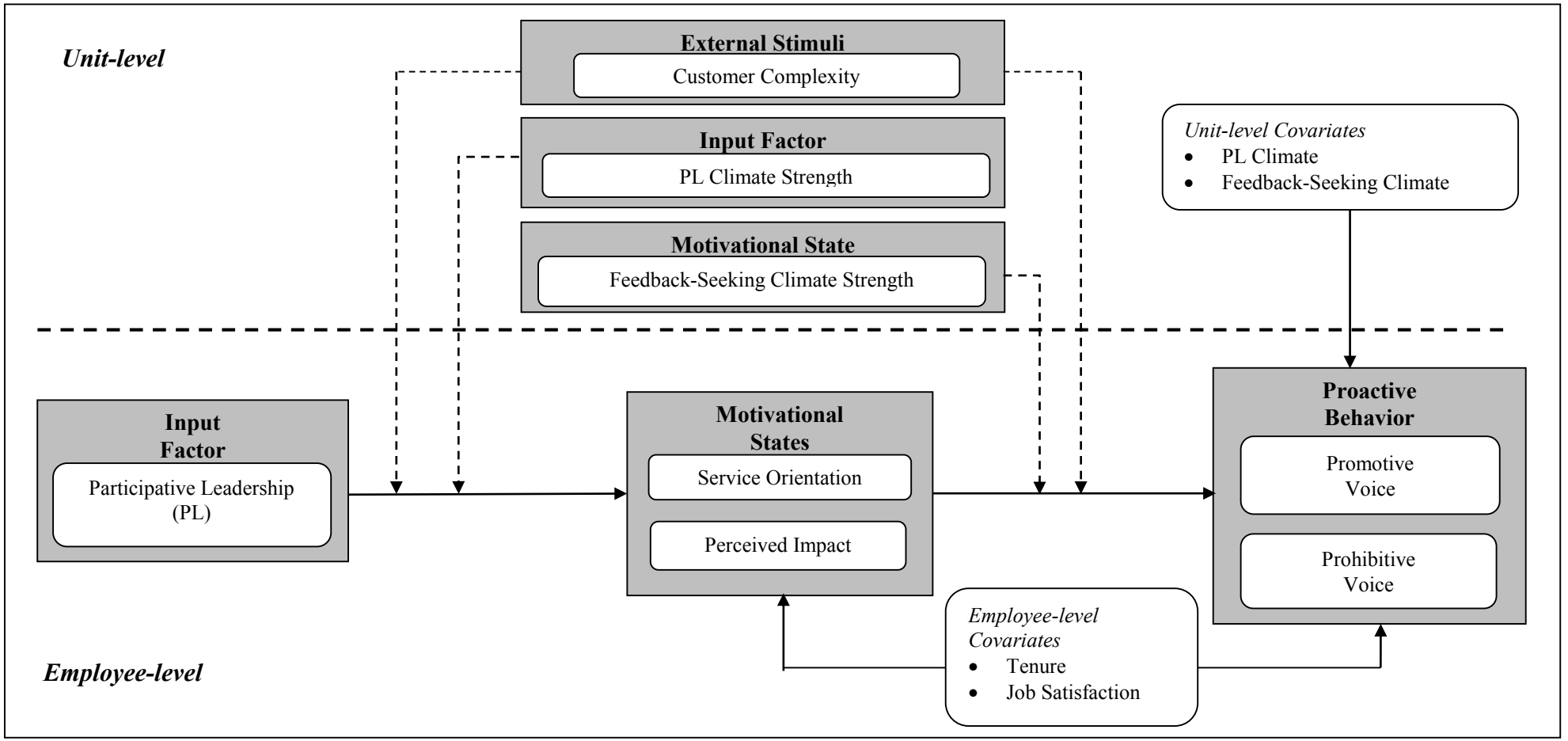
there will be a high number of employees who adopt the same values to each other (Schneider et al., 2002). That is, a strong (versus weak) organizational climate would represent a high (versus low) consensus among employees, which show that they interpret the climate in the same (versus different) way (Menguc et al., 2011). Furthermore, strong (versus) weak climates push employees to have uniform (versus inconsistent) beliefs about the appropriate behaviors within these climates, and to consistently (versus inconsistently) involve in these behaviors (Schneider et al., 2002).

Against the aforementioned backdrop, participative leadership climate strength can be defined as the extent of employees having uniform beliefs with respect to participative leadership climate in their unit (Schneider et al., 2002). In a strong participative leadership climate, employees are all in agreement that their supervisor provides many opportunities for them to express their opinions, consults on them on strategic decisions, and makes decisions together with them (Rapp et al., 2006). Drawing from the systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006), we propose that as a unit-level factor, the stronger the participative leadership climate becomes, the more it will weaken the relationships between participative leadership and service orientation, and participative leadership and perceived impact at the employee-level.

In line with the above information, feedback-seeking climate strength is the extent of employees having uniform beliefs with respect to feedback-seeking climate in their workgroup (Schneider et al., 2002). In a strong feedback-seeking climate, employees all agree that their unit or organization requires them to seek feedback from customers, has norms and policies supporting feedback-seeking activities from

customers, and rewards them for their feedback-seeking activities. The voice literature has particularly mentioned that a reason for employee silence is the lack of feedback channels in organizations (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Morrison (2011) states that when supervisors fear of hearing negative feedback, they mainly avoid employees' voice activities. Regarding the role of feedback-seeking on voice, our model proposes feedback-seeking climate strength as a unit-level factor moderating the effect of service orientation and perceived impact on customer-focused voice.

Figure 4.1 - Conceptualized model



5. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

In this chapter, we present our hypotheses, which will enable us to test the relationships in our conceptual model. In the first part (Main effects), we first provide detailed explanation for our hypotheses at the employee-level. Thus, we provide an explanation for the relationships between participative leadership and service orientation, participative leadership and perceived impact, service orientation and promotive/prohibitive customer-focused employee voice, and perceived impact and promotive/prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. In the second part (Interaction effects), we present hypotheses about the unit-level factors, which employee-level relationships are contingent on. That is, we provide the moderating effects of participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity, on the aforementioned relationships at the employee-level.

5.1. Main effects

5.1.1. Participative leadership and service orientation

Supervisors' empowering behaviors consist of acts like motivating employees to contribute to decision-making processes and fostering employees' sense of autonomy (Ahearne et al., 2005). Empowering behaviors held by supervisors are instrumental in evoking positive affect in employees towards their jobs and their performance at work, particularly in the context of frontline service employees who are in need of prosocial, social exchange-based relationships with their supervisors (Blau, 1964; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Auh et al., 2014). The literature states that within the rules of reciprocity, employees who experience the above positive affect as an extension of empowering leadership behaviors would, in return, involve in acts

and values that would benefit their supervisors (Bagozzi, 1995; De Wulf, Odekerken-Schroder, & Iacobucci, 2001). Such acts incorporate citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) or providing better service to customers in service contexts (Auh et al., 2014).

Service orientation is a value that is concerned with being helpful and providing excellent service to the customers (Bettencourt et al., 2001). Against this backdrop, we posit that supervisors' participative leadership behaviors will positively influence employees' service orientation in service contexts. This is because, in line with the norms of reciprocity (Bagozzi 1995; De Wulf et al., 2001), participative leadership behaviors, which take part in supervisors' empowering behaviors, will urge service employees to return a favor to their supervisor who values and welcomes their opinion, and build a social exchange bond between them. Considering service orientation's beneficial outcome on performance in service context (Cran 1994), those employees whose contribution to decision-making processes is welcomed by supervisors will have a higher inclination to be helpful for customers and serve them in the best way possible. Therefore, we hypothesize,

H1: Participative leadership has a direct and positive effect on service orientation.

5.1.2. Participative leadership and perceived impact

The literature states that a supervisor's participative leadership behaviors foster the sense of impact experienced by the employee over the work environment (Spreitzer, 1996; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). Employees perceive of having higher influence at work when they feel more important at work and sense that their personal contribution at work matters (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). Conversely,

a low sense of influence originates from employees' feelings of being unrecognized by those who own power at work (Ashforth, 1989; Spreitzer, 1995). When an employee involves in a direct exchange relationship with his/her supervisor, this will evoke a feeling that a person with a relatively higher hierarchical status at work values his/her knowledge and opinions (Vroom & Jago, 1988; Edmondson, 2003). Such a sense will further foster employees' belief that they can influence the key decision-makers on their decisions, and eventually what is happening at work in general (Shapiro & Brett, 2005; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012).

Mirroring the aforementioned findings of the literature, we posit that supervisors' participative leadership behaviors will enhance service employees' sense of perceived impact at work. Considering that frontline service employees do not have much control even in their own roles at work (Auh et al., 2014), we expect that they would normally have a feeling that their opinions do not matter at work, and that they have little impact over work conditions. Nevertheless, following past studies (Vroom & Jargo, 1988; Edmondson, 2003), we predict that when these employees share their opinions and views with their unit supervisor as an extension of participative leadership behaviors, we expect them to feel that their opinions count in the unit. Furthermore, as mentioned by prior studies (Shapiro & Brett, 2005; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012), service employees who are exposed to participative leadership behaviors will sense that they can influence their supervisor's decisions and what is going on in their work unit. We accordingly hypothesize,

H2: Participative leadership has a direct and positive effect on perceived impact.

5.1.3. Service orientation and customer-focused employee voice

Employees with a high level of service orientation have the inclination to help customers in the best way possible to maximize the satisfaction that they will get out of their service experience (Cran, 1994). The marketing literature mentions that when employees adopt service orientation values, they are likely to involve in extra-role behaviors that directly benefit the customers (e.g., providing recommendations and ideas that will improve the customer service as well as encouraging the fellow co-workers to do the same) (Bettencourt et al., 2001). The voice literature further states that an employee's predisposition to act for the benefit of his/her customers and maximize their satisfaction levels is instrumental in their motivation to speak up more frequently prior to the areas of improvement and problems concerning the customer experience (Lam & Mayer, 2013).

Service employees, being at the point intersecting the firm and the customers (Auh, Menguc, Spyropoulou, & Wang, 2015), access all kinds of information prior to customers throughout the course of their daytime work (e.g., inefficiencies, problems, fields of improvement, etc.) (Morrison, 2014). Extending this information and in line with the aforementioned studies (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Lam & Mayer, 2013), we expect that a service employee with a high level of service orientation will be more likely to provide his/her recommendations and ideas that will improve the customer service to his/her supervisor because (s)he would be interested in helping the customers to get the best service as possible. Furthermore, employees with high service orientation would be similarly interested in communicating the problems that harm the customer service to their supervisors so that such problems can be

eliminated. Thus, service orientation will affect promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behavior. Therefore,

H3: Service orientation has a direct and positive effect on promotive customer-focused employee voice.

H4: Service orientation has a direct and positive effect on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice.

5.1.4. Perceived impact and customer-focused employee voice

Employees perceiving themselves to be more influential at work are less reserved in terms of challenging the status quo at work (Morrison & Rothman, 2009; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). These high-impact employees take interest in change-related and constructive actions at work with the purpose of improving the overall functioning of the work unit (Cunningham et al., 2002; Choi, 2007). Acknowledging that promotive voice is a behavior challenging the status quo at work by requiring employees to develop and suggest new ideas on issues that will affect customers (Lin & Johnson, 2015), we posit that service employees with high perceived impact at work would be more likely to involve in promotive customer-focused employee voice behavior. That is, those employees with a high perceived influence at work, will share their recommendations and ideas with their supervisors, with an underlying interest and a perceived ability to improve the customer service.

We further posit that a high level of impact at work perceived by the employees will be instrumental in their behavior of prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. Prohibitive voice is employees' behavior of highlighting the dysfunctional practices in customer-relevant issues, which might eventually create

negative responses towards the employee in the work unit (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Burris, 2012; Wei et al., 2015). The literature states that the sense of power and influence felt by employees can minimize employees' apprehension towards the threats that they may face when they involve in unwanted behavior at work (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). Therefore, alongside his/her interest in challenging and improving the customer policies of the unit, we expect a service employee with high perceived impact to be less reserved and apprehensive of the threats (s)he may receive by involving in prohibitive voice behavior. We thus hypothesize,

H5: Perceived impact has a direct and positive effect on promotive customer-focused employee voice.

H6: Perceived impact has a direct and positive effect on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice.

5.2. Interaction effects

5.2.1. Moderating effect of customer complexity on participative leadership–service orientation relationship

Our next hypothesis is concerned with whether the extent of customer complexity in a unit will affect the relationship between participative leadership and service orientation at the employee-level. That is, does the level of customer complexity moderate the effect of supervisors' participative leadership behaviors on employees' tendency to adopt service orientation values? We predict that a supervisor's participative leadership behavior will be less effective on the employee's inclination to adopt service orientation in a unit where customer

complexity is perceived to be high. In other words, the positive relationship between participative leadership and service orientation at the employee-level will be weakened in units with high customer complexity.

Under high customer complexity, customers have diverse needs and wants that can only be met with customized offerings throughout complex procedures and inter-departmental coordination (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Conversely, under low customer complexity, customers will have similar needs to each other. Thus, employees working under less customer complex environments can use standardized procedures and routines as a guide for meeting their customers' needs in a satisfactory way (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Under high customer complexity, the multitude of customer needs, which may not be met with standardized procedures, and thus, push employees to produce customized responses for each demand will be effective in increasing employees' overall workload (Singh, 2000; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014).

Since employees deal with standard and similar customer needs under low complexity, we expect that supervisors' participative leadership behaviors will have a positive effect on employees' service orientation, as part of their need to return a favor to their supervisor. Nevertheless, the positive relationship between participative leadership and service orientation at the employee-level will be diminished under high customer complexity. This is because, employees who have to deal with complex customer demands, will take higher interest in protecting their own remaining resources depleted under the stiff working conditions of high customer complexity (Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Therefore, even if

an employee is exposed to participative leadership behaviors, he will no more have the inclination to help or provide better service to customers to return a favor to his/her supervisor, assuming that such an inclination might cause him to involve in additional tasks. Accordingly, we propose,

H7: Customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of participative leadership on service orientation such that the relationship between participative leadership and service orientation is weaker when there is a high level of customer complexity.

5.2.2. Moderating effect of customer complexity on participative leadership–perceived impact relationship

Having argued that supervisors' participative leadership behaviors at the employee-level will enhance employees' sense of perceived impact at work, our next interaction hypothesis predicts that this relationship will vary in units with high level of customer complexity. We expect that when confronted with complex customer demands, an employee's sense of perceived impact that would be otherwise expected to be high due to his/her supervisor's participative leadership behaviors, will be weaker. That is, the positive relationship between participative leadership and perceived impact at the employee-level will be diminished when employees work in units with high level of customer complexity.

When the level of customer complexity is perceived to be high in a unit, employees have to deal with diverse and unique customer demands and requests for customized offerings (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Furthermore, employees working under complex customer settings cannot address these customer demands by using

standardized, routine procedures and processes. Thus, they will experience a difficulty to understand what customers want and how to meet their customers' requirements. Consequently, complex customer demands heighten employees' lack of information towards their roles and duties, occurred at times when employees do not know what is expected from them to perform their tasks successfully (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Singh, 1998).

Therefore, we predict that, in complex customer settings, an employee's input within a participative leadership context will be limited. That is, the employee will have less information about customers' needs and how (s)he can effectively manage these needs. That is, (s)he will not be knowledgeable enough to provide input to his/her supervisor during joint decision-making processes prior to customer-relevant issues. Consequently, although his/her supervisor values his/her contribution, the employee's lack of providing sufficient input to be used in decision-making processes would be a factor diminishing employee's sense of impact at work. Conversely, when customer complexity is low, the employee would be more knowledgeable prior to the customer processes in his/her unit, and (s)he can provide higher input to his/her supervisor that might affect the decision-making process, eventually fostering employee's impact. This suggest that high customer complexity will have a weakening effect on the positive relationship between participative leadership and perceived impact. Thus,

H8: Customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of participative leadership on perceived impact such that the relationship between participative

leadership and perceived impact is weaker when there is a high level of customer complexity.

5.2.3. Moderating effect of participative leadership climate strength on participative leadership-service orientation relationship

Our next interaction hypothesis is concerned with whether the extent of participative leadership strength at the unit-level moderates the relationship between participative leadership and service orientation at the employee level. That is, whether a strong (versus weak) participative leadership climate weakens (versus empowers) the positive effect that supervisors' participative leadership has on service orientation at the employee-level? We posit that in units with a strong participative leadership climate, supervisors' participative leadership behaviors will have a diminished effect on employees' extent of service orientation. In other words, the positive relationship between participative leadership and service orientation will be weaker when a strong participative leadership climate exists in a work unit.

In a strong participative leadership climate, employees will have uniform beliefs with each other prior to participative leadership climate in their unit (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 2002). That is, they will be in high agreement that their unit supervisor involves in participative leadership behaviors, or provides many opportunities for them to express their opinion, often consults them on strategic decisions and makes many decisions together with them (Rapp et al., 2006). Furthermore, the employees in a strong participative leadership climate will have uniform beliefs prior to the expected behaviors in their unit and will all try to act in

line with these expected behaviors (e.g., contributing, providing input for collaborative decision-making processes) (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 2002).

Conversely, when employees work in weak participative leadership climates, their opinions will differ from each other, or will be inconsistent in terms of participative leadership climate. For instance, while some employees perceive that their supervisor involves in participative leadership behaviors, the others will think that their supervisor does not value or take interest in the subordinates' contributions. Eventually, employees will have inconsistent expectations towards the accepted behaviors in their unit. This will further affect employees' behaviors. That is, some will involve in behaviors in line with participative leadership climate whereas the others will not pursue such behaviors.

Against the above backdrop, we predict that, in units with a strong participative leadership climate, an employee who involves in a participative leadership relationship with his/her supervisor, will be likely to think that a supervisor does not only welcome his/her contribution but values the input of all other employees in the unit at the same time. That is, an employee, who takes part under a strong participative leadership climate, will perceive that his/her supervisor's participative leadership behaviors will not be exclusive to him/her only. The employee will further think that other employees in the unit will also involve in joint decision-making processes with his/her supervisor, since they have the objective to behave in line with participative leadership environment as part of a strong climate.

Contrary to strong participative leadership climates, a weak participative leadership climate represents the environments where employees have differing

views towards the participative leadership climate in their unit (Schneider et al., 2002). As mentioned by culture strength literature (Trice & Beyer, 1993), the presence of a culture (climate in our case) would be dependent on its strength. Hence, employees under a weak participative leadership climate, would be likely to believe that a unit-level participative leadership climate is not present in their work environment. Thus, in a weak participative leadership climate, we expect that an employee who is exposed to his/her supervisor's participative leadership behaviors on one-to-one basis, will be more likely to think that these behaviors are exclusive to him/her only.

As stated by leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, when employees perceive their relationship with their supervisor to be relatively higher quality (i.e., having a mutual influence with their supervisor) compared to those between the supervisor and other employees, they feel obligated to act in favor of their supervisor under the norm of reciprocity (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010; Li et al., 2012). Drawing from LMX theory, we, thus, predict that under a weak participative leadership climate, a supervisor's participative leadership behaviors would be more effective in employee's adoption of service orientation. That is, since the employee will perceive participative leadership behaviors to be exclusive to him/her, his/her belief in having a relatively higher quality relationship with his/her supervisor would urge him/her to act in favor of his/her supervisor, eventually leading him/her to become more service oriented.

Conversely, under strong participative leadership climates, the employee would think that his relationship with the supervisor is not exclusive to him/her while

the extent of mutual influence (s)he has with his/her supervisor can be replicated by any other employee. Thus, we expect that the employee will be less in need of adopting the values that will benefit his/her supervisor with the aim of returning a favor to his/her supervisor. Consequently, participative leadership will have a lower effect on employee's service orientation under strong participative leadership climates. We conclude that the extent of participative leadership climate strength will have a negative moderating effect on the positive relationship between supervisors' participative leadership behaviors and employee service orientation. We accordingly formulate the following hypothesis,

H9: Participative leadership climate strength negatively moderates the effect of participative leadership on service orientation such that the relationship between participative leadership and service orientation is weaker when there is a strong participative leadership climate.

5.2.4. Moderating effect of participative leadership climate strength on participative leadership–perceived impact relationship

Our next interaction hypothesis is concerned with whether participative leadership-perceived impact relationship can be varied by the extent of participative leadership climate strength in a unit. We posit that under strong participative leadership climates, supervisors' participative leadership behaviors will have a weaker effect on employees' perceived impact over their work unit. That is, participative leadership climate strength will negatively influence the positive relationship between participative leadership and perceived impact. Drawing from the climate strength literature (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 2002), strong

participative leadership climates represent the work environments where employees have uniform attitudes with respect to participative leadership climate in their unit. Extending the climate strength literature, under strong participative leadership climates, employees will try to contribute and provide input for joint decision-making processes with their supervisor in order to comply with such climate.

Based on the aforementioned studies, we predict that an employee who takes part in a strong participative leadership climate and who is exposed to his/her supervisor's participative leadership behaviors on one-to-one basis, will think that the participative leadership relationship with his/her supervisor is not exclusive to him/herself only. This is because, in strong participative leadership climates, employees will be all welcomed to provide their contributions for joint decision-making processes in the unit. Considering that the extent of a climate's strength accounts for the climate's presence in a unit (Trice & Beyer, 1993), employees in weak participative leadership climates, would be likely to think that such a climate is not present in their work environment. Therefore, a supervisor's participative leadership behavior directed to an employee on one-to-one basis in a weak participative leadership climate, will cause the employee to think that such a joint decision-making opportunity is exclusive to him/herself rather than other employees.

As stated by LMX theory, in high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors, employees would obtain an extensive level of information, autonomy, decision-making freedom, and support, which would in turn affect employees' sense of impact (Zhou, Wang, Chen, & Shi, 2012). We, thus, predict that in a weak participative leadership climate, an employee who is exposed to his/her supervisor's

participative leadership behaviors, would be likely to think that (s)he has exclusive access to the aforementioned resources, which will eventually increase his/her sense of impact. Conversely, in a strong participative leadership climate, the employee would think that those resources will be also provided to the other employees since (s)he will perceive that high quality leader-member relationships in the form of participative leadership will be common in his/her unit. That would eventually weaken the employee's sense of impact. Thus, we conclude that participative leadership climate strength will have a negative effect on the positive relationship between participative leadership and perceived impact. Thus,

H10: Participative leadership climate strength negatively moderates the effect of participative leadership on perceived impact such that the relationship between participative leadership and perceived impact is weaker when there is a strong participative leadership climate.

5.2.5. Moderating effect of customer complexity on service orientation-customer-focused employee voice relationship

Our next interaction hypothesis identifies the role of customer complexity on the relationship between service orientation and customer-focused employee voice. We posit that customer complexity will have a strengthening effect on the positive relationship between service orientation and customer-focused voice, namely promotive and prohibitive. As previously mentioned, under high customer complexity, customers have diverse and unique needs, and require organizations to respond to those needs with customized offerings (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Additionally, in complex customer environments, the standardized organizational

procedures and routines are incapable of fulfilling the complex and sophisticated customer demands, which eventually push the employees to understand and identify customers' needs thoroughly.

Against this backdrop, we argue that under conditions of high customer complexity, an employee with high service orientation, who takes particular interest in helping the customers with their service experiences, will be more involved in promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. That is, the lack of sufficient knowledge and procedures for the satisfactory meeting of complex customer demands, will foster high service oriented employees' inclination to communicate their recommendations on customer-relevant issues, as well as voicing the problems and concerns relevant to the current customer opeations. Consequently, when employees with high service orientation work in complex customer environments, they will be more involved in promotive and prohibitive voice compared to units where customer complexity is low. Accordingly, we hypothesize,

H11: Customer complexity positively moderates the effect of service orientation on promotive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between service orientation and promotive voice is stronger when there is a high level of customer complexity.

H12: Customer complexity positively moderates the effect of service orientation on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between service orientation and prohibitive voice is stronger when there is a high level of customer complexity.

5.2.6. Moderating effect of feedback-seeking climate strength on service orientation-customer-focused employee voice relationship

We posit that the extent of feedback-seeking climate strength in a unit will also vary the positive relationship between service orientation and customer-focused employee voice at the employee level. As stated by past studies in the climate strength literature (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 2002), the extent of feedback-seeking climate strength is concerned with the level of consensus that the employees in a unit would have with respect to feedback-seeking climate in their unit. In our next interaction hypothesis, we thus posit that a strong feedback-seeking climate will have a weakening effect on the positive relationship between employee service orientation, and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behaviors.

In a strong feedback-seeking climate, employees have uniform beliefs that their unit requires them to seek feedback from customers, has policies supporting employees' feedback-seeking activities, and rewards them for their feedback-seeking activities. Strong feedback-seeking climates see employees to have uniform expectations about convenient behaviors in their unit, consistently involving in such behaviors (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 1976). Conversely, in units with a weak feedback-seeking climate, employees would have less agreement and inconsistent views with respect to feedback-seeking climate. In such conditions, employees will have varying behaviors in terms of feedback collection and dissemination as an extension of contrasting views prior to feedback-seeking climate in their unit.

The motivation and impression management literatures (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004) state that employees who have a tendency to be beneficial for other people (i.e., other orientation), as in the context of service orientation, would have a low interest in pursuing their self-interests. Furthermore, these employees would be more likely to perceive situations that would benefit their personal interests as a sign of imbalance or inequity for other employees (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). Such a sense of inequity will create tension in employees who will eventually try to reduce it by decreasing the frequency of activities that they get a benefit (e.g., overpayment, rewards) from. Thus, employees with high tendency to be beneficial for others are expected to act in contrary to the past motivational theories, which posit that individuals will be motivated to involve in certain behaviors just to maximize their self-interests.

Drawing from aforementioned resources, we argue that under a strong feedback-seeking climate, a high service oriented employee would be less likely to involve in customer-focused voice behaviors. We expect that a service oriented employee who fulfills him/herself by helping out the customers, will be more interested in speaking out to his/her supervisor with the sole intention of maximizing the customers' satisfaction levels prior to the service they receive. Furthermore, the employee will be disinterested in acting in line with his/her self-interests and perceive rewards to be a sign of inequity. Consequently, in a climate which, (s)he perceives to reward feedback-seeking activities, uniformly with other employees, a high service oriented employee would reduce his/her customer-focused voice behavior. Therefore, the positive relationship between service orientation and

promotive/prohibitive voice will be weaker under a strong feedback-seeking climate. Accordingly, we propose,

H13: Feedback-seeking climate strength negatively moderates the effect of service orientation on promotive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between service orientation and promotive voice is weaker when there is a strong feedback-seeking climate.

H14: Feedback-seeking climate strength negatively moderates the effect of service orientation on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between service orientation and prohibitive voice is weaker when there is a strong feedback-seeking climate.

5.2.7. Moderating effect of customer complexity on perceived impact-customer-focused employee voice relationship

Considering that perceived impact has a positive effect on customer-focused employee voice, we predict that the effect of perceived impact on promotive and prohibitive voice could vary under complex customer environments. We argue that, under high customer complexity, the positive relationship between perceived impact and customer-focused voice behaviors will be weaker. Employees who work in units with high customer complexity experience a higher sense of workload since they spend intense effort on understanding customers' sophisticated, unique demands, and try to identify the ways to meet such demands in a satisfactory way (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Such contexts would further cause employees to become psychologically detached from their group, and have less motivation for improving,

changing and acting on behalf of the unit (Withey & Cooper, 1989; Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Burris et al., 2008).

Against this backdrop, we posit that, under low customer complexity, an employee with high perceived impact will have an interest to change and improve the group, which would eventually push him/her to speak-up prior to the customer-relevant issues. Conversely, under complex customer units, this employee's tendency to change and improve the unit will be in decline due to the effect of high complexity. Such an interaction will consequently affect employee's motivation to involve in voice behaviors, which aim to improve the unit's functioning on customer relevant mechanisms. Thus, we conclude that in a unit with high customer complexity, an employee with high perceived impact would be less interested in exerting promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. We accordingly propose,

H15: Customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of perceived impact on promotive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between perceived impact and promotive voice is weaker when there is a high level of customer complexity.

H16: Customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of perceived impact on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive voice is weaker when there is a high level of customer complexity.

5.2.8. Moderating effect of feedback-seeking climate strength on perceived impact- customer-focused employee voice relationship

Our final interaction hypothesis is concerned with whether the extent of feedback-seeking climate strength in a unit affects the positive relationship between perceived impact and customer-focused employee voice behaviors at the employee level. That is, whether the interaction of perceived impact and feedback-seeking climate strength will affect employees' involvement in promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behaviors? We expect that the strength of the feedback-seeking climate in a unit will have a moderating effect on the relationship between perceived impact and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behaviors. More particularly, we argue that a strong feedback-seeking climate will have an amplifying effect on the perceived impact-promotive voice and perceived impact-prohibitive voice relationships.

The climate strength literature (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 2002) states that the extent of strength in a particular climate is related to the level of consensus of the employees with respect to that climate in their unit. Translating this into our context, under a strong feedback-seeking climate, employees will have uniform beliefs on feedback-seeking climate in their unit. That is, they will have similar beliefs on the issue that their unit supports and rewards employees' feedback-seeking activities. Conversely, a weak feedback-seeking climate will create contrasting and varying views among employees with respect to such climate in the unit. The climate literature adds that the extent of strength for a particular climate will have a determining effect on employees' behaviors: For instance, under a strong feedback-

seeking climate, employees will be uniformly involved in behaviors that will comply with such climate (i.e., asking and bringing customers' feedback).

Against this backdrop, a strong feedback-seeking climate, will be a factor enhancing influential employees' tendency to exert promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. That is, in a strong feedback-seeking climate, an employee with high impact, who is less reserved in challenging the status quo or facing negative responses from supervisors, would be even more certain that his/her behavior of voicing customer-relevant issues will not be met with negative responses, punishments or threats. This is because, in a strong feedback-seeking climate, (s)he uniformly acknowledges with other employees that his/her unit supports employees who communicate customer-relevant information. Additionally, the employee will further think that his/her customer-focused voice behaviors will be rewarded as part of the unit's interest in customer feedback. Consequently, the role of perceived impact on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice will become more intense as the strength of feedback-seeking climate increases. Thus,

H17: A strong feedback-seeking climate positively moderates the effect of employee's perceived impact on promotive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between perceived impact and promotive voice is stronger when there is a strong feedback-seeking climate.

H18: A strong feedback-seeking climate positively moderates the effect of employee's perceived impact on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice such that the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive voice is stronger when there is a strong feedback-seeking climate.

6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To test our hypothesized relationships, our study focuses on service settings due to the service employees' extensive interactions with customers (Teng & Barrows, 2009). This chapter starts by providing information prior to the research context (i.e., Turkish healthcare industry), which we particularly concentrate on. Next, we provide information prior to our study design, and describe our sample. Finally, we explain the research measures that we used in our study in order to test the hypothesized relationships in our conceptual model.

6.1. Research context

Turkish healthcare industry has been in a continuous growth attributed to the factors like increasing and ageing population, rising income, and wider health insurance coverage (Investment Support and Promotion Agency of Turkey [ISPAT], 2014). The progress in the national health systems has been also credited to the improvements executed under the Health Transformation Program (i.e., Sağlıkta Dönüşüm Programı) (HTP), which has been supported by the Turkish Ministry of Health since 2003 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2014). Ambitious investments in hospitals, introduction of family physicians and General Social Health Insurance Scheme (i.e., Genel Sağlık Sigortası) that have been carried out under HTP (OECD, 2014), improved access to, and outcomes of health services. The launch of private hospitals further allowed the expansion of Turkish health system (ISPAT, 2014).

With all the progress, the years between 2002 and 2014 have seen the number of hospitals in Turkey increasing at a mean annual rate of 4.7% and the number of

hospital visits increasing at an average annual rate of 24.4% (ISPAT, 2014). Alongside the ever-growing number of domestic visits, the Turkish health system also attracts the foreign visitors, making Turkey an attractive destination for health tourism. Between 2008 and 2012, there has been a 38% increase in the number of foreign patients visiting Turkey for seeking medical treatment for their health problems (ISPAT, 2014). Still, despite the total expenditure on health growing from 2.4% of GDP in 1980 to 6.1% of GDP in 2008, Turkey falls behind the OECD countries in terms of average healthcare spending (i.e., 9.3% of GDP) and healthcare quality: This urges the domestic healthcare industry to focus on service quality and higher consideration of patient views (Tatar, Mollahaliloğlu, Şahin, Aydın, Maresso, & Hernández-Quevedo, 2011; OECD, 2014).

Although patients' participation in decision-making processes relevant to their treatment and health-seeking behaviors has been limited in Turkey for a long time, current policies and regulations empower patients' position in their relationships with healthcare service providers (Tatar et al., 2011). Moreover, previous studies imply that patients' participation in decision-making processes on diagnosis and treatment would enhance patients' loyalty towards the hospital (Chang, Tseng, & Woodside, 2013). Therefore, patient participation can be said of carrying importance in health industry, and we presume that patients' opinions have a rising significance in the Turkish health industry.

6.2. Study design

Our study focuses on the Turkish healthcare industry, particularly on employees working in the medical admission units of a Turkish private hospital

chain. We reached our participants first by contacting the hospital chain's human resources department. The HR department then sent the surveys to the contact persons at 25 branches of the hospital chain[1] included in our study. The contact person was responsible for distributing the surveys to the participants at each hospital and for collecting back from them. The surveys were distributed to the employees in a closed envelope. A brief cover letter that gives information about the study and the confidentiality of employees' responses was also present for the employees at the first part of the survey. Both the cover letter and research questionnaire can be seen in Appendix C.

Surveys were initially prepared in English, and included the measures given in the following section, and a demographics section. Two bilingual translators have translated the surveys into Turkish based on the group and back translation methods (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973). A third translator translated the Turkish version of the survey back in English, and confirmed that the Turkish and English versions of the survey are equivalent.

6.3. Sample

After receiving the envelopes, each employee self-completed the surveys. They were then required to insert the survey back in the envelope and return it to contact person at their hospital. The contact person at each hospital then returned the envelopes including the completed surveys back to the hospital chain's HR

[1] For each of the 25 hospital branches, the data is collected from one medical admission unit. That is, each medical unit corresponds to a different hospital branch within the hospital chain. Therefore, in the remaining of the thesis, we will use terms of hospital and unit interchangeably.

department. We later collected the surveys from the hospital chain's human resources department.

By the end of the study, we received 800 usable surveys from employees working in 25 units (hospitals). The overall response rate was 67.8%. Table 6.1 displays the number of distributed surveys alongside the number and percentage of useful surveys for each hospital. Our final sample consists of employees who work in the medical admission units dealing with in and outpatient services. The highest number of participation per hospital is 96, while the lowest is 5.

Table 6.1 - Number of distributed and usable surveys for each hospital

	Number of distributed surveys	Number of usable surveys	Percentage of usable surveys
Hospital 1	59	28	47.5
Hospital 2	21	20	95.2
Hospital 3	34	33	97.1
Hospital 4	43	27	62.8
Hospital 5	11	8	72.7
Hospital 6	111	96	86.5
Hospital 7	48	30	62.5
Hospital 8	81	54	66.7
Hospital 9	28	18	64.3
Hospital 10	67	48	71.6
Hospital 11	17	12	70.6
Hospital 12	55	45	81.8
Hospital 13	20	14	70.0
Hospital 14	70	59	84.3
Hospital 15	23	16	69.6
Hospital 16	92	53	57.6
Hospital 17	20	18	90.0
Hospital 18	70	41	58.6
Hospital 19	11	11	100.0
Hospital 20	30	26	86.7
Hospital 21	11	9	81.8
Hospital 22	86	71	82.6
Hospital 23	19	16	84.2
Hospital 24	117	42	35.9
Hospital 25	36	5	13.9
Total	**1,180**	**800**	**67.8**

Table 6.2 displays the demographic characteristics of the participants in total and according to the hospitals used in the study. In total, 79.6% of the study's participants are female and 20.4% are male. The age of the participants dominantly ranges between 25-31 (47%), followed by participants whose ages range between 18-24 (39.9%), 32-38 (10.3%), and 39 and higher (2.9%). 66.8% of the participants are university graduates whereas 31.6% graduated from high school. A small portion of our sample (1.6%) reported that they completed a graduate degree. On average, the participants mentioned that they are working at the hospital approximately since 2,5 years (31.7 months), and at their current position since 2 years (24.1 months).

Table 6.2 - Sample information and distribution of participants' demographic characteristics to hospitals

%	Total	Hospital 1	Hospital 2	Hospital 3	Hospital 4	Hospital 5	Hospital 6	Hospital 7	Hospital 8	Hospital 9	Hospital 10	Hospital 11	Hospital 12	Hospital 13	Hospital 14	Hospital 15	Hospital 16	Hospital 17	Hospital 18	Hospital 19	Hospital 20	Hospital 21	Hospital 22	Hospital 23	Hospital 24	Hospital 25
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y
Male	20.4	14.3	30.0	18.2	22.2	-	21.9	23.3	27.8	22.2	16.7	16.7	15.6	28.6	23.7	18.8	18.9	16.7	22.0	9.1	19.2	22.2	16.9	18.8	21.4	40.0
Female	79.6	85.7	70.0	81.8	77.8	10.0	78.1	76.7	72.2	77.8	83.3	83.3	84.4	71.4	76.3	81.3	81.1	83.3	78.0	90.9	80.8	77.8	83.1	81.3	78.6	60.0
18-24	39.9	10.7	20.0	51.5	33.3	12.5	61.5^{AJO}	63.3^{AJ}	31.5	27.8	16.7	33.3	53.3	42.9	30.5	6.3	56.6^{AJ}	16.7	29.3	45.5	34.6	11.1	43.7	25.0	61.9^{AJO}	60.0
25-31	47	53.6	50.0	39.4	51.9	87.5	36.5	36.7	51.9	55.6	60.4	50.0	35.6	42.9	44.1	56.3	37.7	61.1	58.5	36.4	53.8	77.8	45.1	75.0	35.7	40.0
32-38	10.3	32.1^{F}	30.0^{F}	9.1	11.1	-	2.1	-	5.6	16.7	22.9^{F}	16.7	8.9	-	15.3	18.8	5.7	22.2	9.8	18.2	7.7	11.1	9.9	-	2.4	-
39-45	2.4	3.6	-	-	3.7	-	-	-	11.1	-	-	-	2.2	7.1	6.8	18.8	-	-	2.4	-	3.8	-	-	-	-	-
46-52	.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1	3.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
53 and above	.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	-	-	-
High school	31.6	32.1	45.0	36.4	18.5	25.0	28.1	16.7	46.3	33.3	31.3	41.7	26.7	42.9	33.9	31.3	26.4	55.6	24.4	18.2	23.1	33.3	38.0	31.3	28.6	20.0
Undergraduate	66.8	64.3	55.0	63.6	81.5	75.0	71.9	80.0	48.1	66.7	66.7	58.3	73.3	50.0	64.4	68.8	73.6	44.4	73.2	72.7	76.9	55.6	60.6	62.5	71.4	80.0
Graduate	1.6	3.6	-	-	-	-	-	3.3	5.6	-	2.1	-	-	7.1	1.7	-	-	-	2.4	9.1	-	11.1	1.4	6.3	-	-
Tenure at hospital (Months)	31.7	32.4	38.5	17.4	19.2	24.8	19.9	19.5	39.2	49.5	31.0	29.6	30.6	37.6	47.7	105.0$^{ABCDFG\ HJKLNPRTVWX}$	26.7	48.1	34.1	38.7	43.4	43.3	23.7	29.6	18.5	16.8
Tenure at the current position (Mean)	24.1	23.7	32.0	13.8	16.8	19.8	17.3	15.5	28.6	39.3	23.7	20.2	21.2	31.6	35.3	87.7$^{ACDFG\ HJKLNPQRSTVWX}$	20.2	22.6	25.7	14.1	33.7	22.2	19.6	23.4	16.0	16.1

Note: Letters on top of the percentage values represent the significant differences among hospitals for a given demographic characteristic.
Significance tests are at .05 level.

6.4. Measures

Appendix A reports the summary of the scales that we used in our study. We measured all constructs with a five-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree) except the promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. These two constructs were measured with a five-point frequency scale (1-never; 5-very frequently). We adapted the wording used in the scales appropriately for a hospital context. Appendix B reports the original items in English for each scale and their factor loadings.

6.4.1. Employee-level variables

The employee-level variables consist of participative leadership, service orientation, perceived impact, promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice.

6.4.1.1. Participative leadership

We measured participative leadership using the scale borrowed from Rapp et al. (2006). The scale consists of three items, and originally belongs to the authors' empowering leadership scale as a sub-dimension (i.e., fostering participation in decision making). The participants were required to think about their relationship with their immediate supervisor and respond to the items in the scale accordingly. Sample items for participative leadership scale include "My supervisor provides many opportunities for me to express my opinion" and "My supervisor makes many decisions together with me".

6.4.1.2. Service orientation

Employee-level service orientation was measured with a five-item scale borrowed from Bettencourt et al. (2001). Sample items for service orientation scale include “I enjoy helping patients and/or their families” and “It is natural for me to be considerate of patients' and/or their families’ needs”.

6.4.1.3. Perceived impact

We measured perceived impact with the impact sub-dimension of empowerment scale that we borrowed from Spreitzer (1995). This sub-dimension consists of three items. Sample items include “My opinion counts in work unit decision-making” and “I have a great deal of control over what happens in this unit”.

6.4.1.4. Customer-focused employee voice

We measured promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice by using the items borrowed from Van Dyne and LePine’s (1998) scale of employee voice. Each voice type was measured with four items. Sample items for promotive voice include “I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect our patients and/or their families” and “I communicate my opinions about issues related to patients and/or their families to others in the unit even if my opinion is different and others in the unit disagree with me”. Sample items for prohibitive voice include “I say something to my manager when I discover potential problems regarding the service we provide to patients and/or their families” and “When I sense there might be a concern regarding the service we provide to patients and/or their families, I speak to my manager”.

6.4.2. Hospital-level variables

The hospital-level variables consist of customer complexity, feedback-seeking climate strength and participative leadership climate strength.

6.4.2.1. Customer complexity

We measured customer complexity with a scale adapted from Schmitz and Ganesan (2014). The scale consists of five items. The sample items included "Patients' and/or their families' needs and wants are diverse", "Patients and/or their families require treatment that involves multiple departments" and "Patients' and/or their families' treatment is routine and standardized". Participants individually responded to the items in customer complexity scale. These individual responses were then combined together to obtain a hospital-level score.

6.4.2.2. Feedback-seeking climate strength

The level of strength for a culture/climate is determined by the extent of consensus among individuals with respect to such culture/climate in their environment (Mischel, 1976; Schneider et al., 2002). In order to determine the level of feedback-seeking climate strength in each hospital, we used a similar approach adopted by Menguc et al (2011). We aggregated participants' responses for feedback-seeking climate at the hospital level with the help of a six-item scale that we created for this study. Sample items include "We are supported by the supervisor to seek feedback from patients and/or their families" and "We are rewarded for feedback-seeking from our patients and/or their families". We calculated the standard deviation scores for each hospital in order to determine within-group (i.e., hospital) variability for feedback-seeking climate. We then multiplied standard

deviation scores with -1 in order to reach within-hospital agreement that is equivalent of the extent of strength for feedback-seeking climate for each hospital.

6.4.2.3. Participative leadership climate strength

We determined the participative climate strength in each hospital by using the same method that we used for determining the feedback-seeking climate strength in hospitals. We calculated the within-group agreement score for each hospital (i.e., standard deviation score for each hospital multiplied to "-1") based on participants' responses given to the items in participative leadership scale (Rapp et al., 2006).

6.4.3. Control variables

6.4.3.1. Employee-level control variables

We considered a number of control variables at the employee-level to rule out the alternative explanations for the hypothesized relationships. In order to do so, we followed the recommendations made by Carlson and Wu (2012) regarding the selection of control variables in studies. We first considered whether our control variables cause any variance in our relationships due to being theoretically linked to any of the variables in our model by past studies. We find that employee job satisfaction is linked with employee voice in a number of past studies (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995; Morrison et al., 2011; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). Therefore, we controlled for the effect of employee job satisfaction on promotive and prohibitive voice in our study. We measured employee job satisfaction by using a three-item scale that we created for this study. The sample items include "All in all, I like working on this job" and "Overall, I think I am as happy as I could be with this job". The tenure of an employee has been further

mentioned to relate to his/her voice behavior (Morrison, 2011). Therefore, we included employee tenure as a control variable for customer-focused employee voice.

We also reviewed the artifact control variables, which represent covariates of dependent variables in our model, and whose effects cannot be explained by the theoretical sources but are derived from empirical context specific to our data. Following the recommendations of Carlson and Wu (2012), we specified these control variables based on whether any of these variables correlate with variables included in our model. Besides being theoretically linked to employee voice, our data reports that employee tenure significantly correlates with perceived impact and service orientation. Therefore, we included employee tenure as a control variable in our model for both the service orientation and perceived impact constructs at the employee-level.

6.4.3.2. Hospital-level control variables

As we stated earlier, the variables participative leadership and feedback-seeking climate strength were created by calculating the within-group agreement scores based on participative leadership and feedback-seeking climate scales. Therefore, we controlled for the effects of hospital-level participative leadership climate for service orientation and perceived impact, as well as feedback-seeking climate for promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behavior.

7. STUDY RESULTS

In this chapter, we determine whether our conceptual model and sample data meet the criteria for conducting hypothesis tests necessary to evaluate our suggested relationships. After evaluating and ensuring all the necessary criteria for the acceptability of our conceptual model and our data for further tests, we move on to hypothesis tests. Under this information, we first start with the Measurement Model part, which consists of two sub-sections: (a) Model fit where we assess our model against the required criteria for an acceptable measurement model by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA hereafter); and (b) Reliability and validity tests where we test our conceptual model against the reliability and validity requirements. Following this part, we check our data regarding the common method bias and normality issues. Our final section in this chapter provides the results of our hypothesis tests. We first start by the Measurement Model section.

7.1. Measurement model

7.1.1. Model fit

A latent variable cannot be reached by direct observations, and they have to be obtained by directly observable variables. The relationships between these latent or unobservable constructs and their observed indicators constitute a measurement model (Sharma, 1996). CFA is a statistical tool that assesses the measurement model (Byrne, 2001). It determines how well a hypothesized measurement model based on prior knowledge or theory matches the reality (i.e., the sample data) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). By confirming the connections between unobserved latent constructs and observed variables, CFA takes part in the

researcher's attempt to test a given theory about these latent constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

In our study, we hypothesize a measurement model based on the prior knowledge and theory that we explained in the previous sections. Our model consists of 8 latent factors with a number of indicator items. These latent constructs are participative leadership (3 items), service orientation (5 items), perceived impact (3 items), promotive customer-focused employee voice (4 items), prohibitive customer-focused employee voice (4 items), customer complexity (5 items), feedback-seeking climate (6 items), and job satisfaction (3 items). As the literature suggests, we use confirmatory factor analysis to determine how well our hypothesized measurement model fits our sample data.

According to Hair et al. (2006), an essential measure for understanding a measurement model's goodness-of-fit is chi-square (χ^2) value. The χ^2 value refers to the mathematical difference between the hypothesized measurement model based on a priori knowledge and theory, and observed measurement model based on sample data. A low χ^2 value represents that the hypothesized and observed measurement models comply with each other, which can be commented as high fit exists between the measurement model and the sample data. In addition to a low χ^2 value, a good fit between hypothesized and observed models originates from a nonsignificant p value for χ^2 (i.e., higher than .05). Despite the fact that it is considered an essential measure for understanding the model fit, the literature states that χ^2 value should not be used as the sole measure for this purpose. This is because χ^2 is sensitive to sample size and, a larger sample size may increase the χ^2 value (Hair et al., 2006).

Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is an absolute fit index where the model's fit is assessed based on how well the hypothesized measurement model is reproduced on the sample data. It is alternative to χ^2 statistic but less sensitive to sample size unlike χ^2 due to its formula not incorporating the sample size. Still, GFI may be indirectly affected by N due to the sample size's effect on sample distributions. Thus, Hair et al. (2006) recommend using different fit indices rather than relying on a single index in order to assess a model's fit. Besides χ^2 and GFI, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) are mentioned to be used for assessing a model's fit.

Both CFI and TLI are defined as incremental fit indices where the fit of a hypothesized model is assessed relevant to an alternative model (i.e., null model where the observed indicators do not have any correlation with each other). RMSEA is a statistic that eliminates the problems relevant to sample size by assessing the model's fit based on the population rather than a narrower sample data. In models with a sample size higher than 250 and number of observed variables higher than 30, CFI and TLI require a score of .90 or above, and RMSEA require a value lower than .07. GFI of a model, which ranges between 0 and 1, is also mentioned to be acceptable around .90 or above. In line with these norms, our model demonstrates an acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{(467)} = 1464.47$, $p<.000$, GFI = .89, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .052).

7.1.2. Reliability and validity tests

We also look whether our measurement model displays an evidence of construct validity. Construct validity is defined as the extent of whether observed

items really account for the latent construct that they intend to reflect (Hair et al., 2006). Construct validity of a measurement model is evaluated with the model's convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the extent of which the observed items of a latent construct converge or relate to each other, and it is assessed with factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE hereafter), and reliability scores.

AVE is the average value of variance of the indicator variables explained by latent factor. The AVE score is calculated by dividing the sum of squared standardized factor loadings to the number of indicator items. The extent of reliability can be assessed by calculating the coefficient alpha values (α) of the latent constructs. Nevertheless, an alternative reliability score named composite reliability (CR hereafter) is mentioned to assess the extent of reliability and consistency of the indicator items that represent a latent construct in better terms (Hair et al., 2006). CR is calculated by dividing the sum of squared standardized factor loadings to the sum of squared standardized factor loadings and sum of squared error variance.

As shown in Appendix B, all items in our model have factor loadings higher than the threshold of .40 (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). Coefficient alpha values for the constructs that we used in the study range between α= .76 (customer complexity) and α= .91 (perceived impact). Considering that the minimum level of acceptance for coefficient alpha is .70, we can state that all of our constructs meet the requirement for coefficient alpha (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, all constructs exceed the threshold of .60 for composite reliability, showing in overall that they meet the criteria for reliability. Finally, all of our constructs exceed the threshold of .50 for

AVE (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Customer complexity is the only construct that did not exceed the required threshold for AVE (AVE = .40). Nevertheless, under this information, our model displays evidence for convergent validity.

Discriminant validity is the extent of which a construct corresponding to a particular phenomenon is unique from other constructs capturing different phenomenon. Simply stated, discriminant validity gives evidence for a construct's unique ability to measure a specific phenomenon, which cannot be obtained by other constructs (Hair et al., 2006). A method to check discriminant validity is to check whether AVE for two constructs are bigger than their inter-construct square correlation values (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 7.1 shows that the square intercorrelations for all constructs are lower than their relevant AVE values. This means that all the constructs in our measurement model can explain their own measures better than any other construct in the model, which sets an evidence for our model's discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2006).

Taken together, our measurement model shows evidence for construct validity with the requirements for convergent and discriminant validity being satisfied.

7.2. Controlling for common method bias

A measure of a particular construct might display variance due to two main source of variance: Trait variance and measurement error variance, which itself is distinguished into two sub-components that are random error and systematic error (Cote & Buckley, 1987). A potential source of systematic error is defined to be method variance, which is relevant to the measurement method of a construct. If the

constructs in a given study share a common measurement method error, this would end up creating a biased variance for the hypothesized relationships between these constructs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Podsakoff et al. (2003) state that common method variance can be present in studies where the predictor and the criterion variables are responded by the same person. Based on this assumption, since we collected all the independent and dependent variables from a single source, our hypothesized relationships might be affected by a potentially existent common method bias problem.

To rule out the common method bias problem, a particular method suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) is to create an unmeasured, latent common method variance factor. When doing so, the researcher lets the measured indicators of other latent factors to load on this common method variance factor alongside to their theoretical constructs, and eventually checks whether the inclusion versus exclusion of the common method variance makes any improvement in the model. Accordingly, when we controlled for the common method variance factor, we notice that, our model shows a better fit compared to our model excluding the common method variance factor: ($\chi^2_{(434)} = 1016.57$, $p<.000$, GFI = .93, CFI = .96, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .041). The model including the unmeasured common variance factor incorporates a significant chi-square difference compared to our previous model excluding the common method variance factor ($\Delta\chi^2 = 447.90$, $\Delta df = 33$, $p<.000$).

Additionally, when the unmeasured common method variance latent factor is included in our model, we found that, on average, 58% of the variance in our constructs is explained by the trait variance while 42% comes from the measurement

error. Out of 42% variance coming out of measurement error, only 4% accounts for the method variance. This shows that the common method variance in our study is relatively small, and does not constitute a threat in our study considering that various past studies in social sciences generally have a method variance ranging between 16% and 42%, with the median method variance being 25% (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989).

Alternatively, we assessed common method variance by using the method suggested by Lindell and Whitney (2001). According to this method, a new construct that is theoretically unrelated to the constructs in the research model should be included in the questionnaire before the data collection process. This "marker variable" should be located right after the predictor variables and before the criterion variables. In line with these steps, the marker variable that we used in our study was a five-item scale measuring respondents' shopping orientation (Gauri, Sudhir, & Talukdar, 2008), which has no theoretical relation to any of the constructs used in our study. The items for the scale, which we measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree) are as follows: (1) I often compare the prices of two or more grocery stores, (2) I decide each week where to shop for my groceries based upon store ads/fliers, (3) I regularly shop the price specials at one store and then the price specials at another store, (4) Before going grocery shopping I check the newspaper for advertisements by various supermarkets, (5) To get the best price deals for my groceries I often shop at 2 or 3 different stores. The scale of shopping orientation indicated good reliability (α= .89). In line with Lindell and Whitney (2001), we selected the lowest positive correlation (r = .014) among the marker variable and the other variables, and computed the adjusted correlations and

their statistical significance by using the following formula (Yannopoulos, Auh, & Menguc, 2012, p. 538-539):

$$r_{ijm} = (r_{ij} - r_m) / (1 - r_m)$$

$$t_{\alpha/2,N-3} = r_{ijm}/([1-r^2_{ijm}] / [N-3])1/2$$

where:

r_{ij} = the correlation value between constructs i and j before the adjustment

r_m = the lowest positive correlation between the marker variable and the other variables

r_{ijm} = the adjusted correlation value

$t_{\alpha/2,N-3}$ = the t-value for the adjusted correlation

Table 7.1 shows the intercorrelations between the constructs after the marker variable adjustment (values above the diagonal). Out of 43 significant correlations, 4 (9,3%) became insignificant as a result of the adjustment process. Following Malhotra, Kim and Patil (2006), we further conducted a sensitivity analysis with respect to the results that we obtained by using the method of Lindell and Whitney (2001). Malhotra et al. (2006) state that determining the r_m value based on the lowest correlation between marker variable and other variables may underestimate the amount of CMV. Considering that we calculated the r_m based on the lowest correlation between marker variable and other variables following Lindell and Whitney (2001), a sensitivity analysis would thus be needed in order to examine how the extent of significant correlations will vary with adjustments based on different values of r_m.

We conducted sensitivity analysis with r_m being equal to .05 and .10 because r_m is usually expected to be lower than or equal to .10 (Malhotra et al., 2006). Moreover, r_m values being equal or higher than .20 are usually mentioned to be

unlikely (Malhotra et al., 2006) When r_m = .05, we found that out of 43 significant correlations, 13 (30,2%) became insignificant. When r_m = .10, we found that out of 43 significant correlations, 16 (37,2%) became insignificant. Both the marker variable adjustment based on the lowest correlation among marker variable and other variables (r_m = .014) and the sensitivity analysis based on alternative values (r_m = .05; r_m = .10) imply that the majority of significant correlations is preserved after the adjustment process. Since the significance for the majority of correlation coefficients is not affected with these adjustment processes, it is possible to note that relationships in our model are unlikely to be inflated due to a major common method bias problem. Despite these findings, shopping orientation is included in our analyses as a control variable (Grayson, 2007).

Table 7.1 - Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Participative leadership (PL) (Level 1)		.112**	.162**	.209**	.204**	.065	.063	-.027	-.065	.232**	.248**	.131**	
2. Service orientation (Level 1)	.124**		.161**	.347**	.327**	.188**	-.132**	-.031	-.086*	.318**	.016	.006	
3. Perceived impact (Level 1)	.174**	.173**		.317**	.261**	.025	.053	.030	.059	.222**	.081*	.104**	
4. Promotive customer-focused voice (Level 1)	.220**	.356**	.327**		.642**	.069*	-.002	-.021	-.048	.229**	.091**	.087*	
5. Prohibitive customer-focused voice (Level 1)	.215**	.336**	.271**	.647**		.094**	-.070*	-.047	-.067	.210**	.045	.030	
6. Customer complexity (Level 2)	.078*	.199**	.039	.082*	.107**		-.196**	-.030	-.029	.068	.290**	.336**	
7. PL climate strength (Level 2)	.076*	-.116**	.066	.012	-.055	-.179**		.423**	.133**	.002	.284**	.364**	
8. Feedback-seeking climate strength (Level 2)	-.013	-.017	.044	-.007	-.032	-.016	.431**		.100**	.031	-.065	.443**	
9. Tenure (log) (Control)	-.050	-.071*	.072*	-.033	-.052	-.015	.145**	.113**		-.009	.096**	.088*	
10. Job satisfaction (Control)	.243**	.328**	.233**	.240**	.221**	.081*	.016	.045	.005		.026	.080*	
11. PL climate (Control)	.259**	.030	.094**	.104**	.058	.300**	.294**	-.050	.109**	.040		.547**	
12. Feedback-seeking climate (Control)	.143**	.020	.117**	.100**	.044	.345**	.373**	.451**	.101**	.093**	.553**		
13. Common method bias (Marker variable) (Control)	.099**	.040	.216**	.157**	.101**	.014	.064	.002	-.032	.183**	.015	.019	
Mean	3.45	4.44	3.54	3.82	3.86	3.89	-1.13	-1.11	1.30	3.72	3.45	3.46	3.13
Standard deviation	1.03	0.64	1.04	0.74	0.80	0.17	0.16	0.11	0.47	0.96	0.27	0.23	1.11

Note: Employee-level n=800; hospital-level n=25
* p<.05; **p<.01 (two-tailed test).

7.3. Normality tests

We checked our data for whether the assumption of multivariate normality (i.e., whether the shape of the distribution for a given metric variable is normally distributed) is met (Hair et al., 2006). Two measures to understand whether the data is normally distributed are skewness (i.e., symmetry or balance of the distribution) and kurtosis (peakedness vs. flatness of the distribution). In some resources (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996), a univariate skewness of 2.0 and kurtosis of 7.0 is considered moderately non-normal while a univariate skewness of 3.0 and kurtosis of 21.0 is considered severely non-normal with a value 0 for both represents a normal distribution. For other resources, skewness and kurtosis values for two thirds of the observed variables exceeding the threshold of +/-1 reflect that the criteria of normality is not met (Fan & Wang, 1998).

Table 7.2 displays the results of the normality tests. The results reflect that the majority of our observed variables either falls in the range of +/-1 or does not marginally exceed these required ranges for skewness and kurtosis, which represents a normal distribution. However, employees' tenure at the hospital and at their current position exceed the required range both for the skewness and kurtosis. Therefore, we performed log transformation for these variables. Consequently, skewness and kurtosis values for tenure at hospital have improved to -.773 and .904, and skewness and kurtosis values for tenure at current position have improved to -.559 and .861.

Table 7.2 - Results of the normality tests

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	**Std. Error**	**Statistic**	**Std. Error**
Demographic variables				
Gender	-1.474	.086	.172	.173
Age	1.096	.086	2.023	.173
Education level	-.459	.086	-.825	.173
Tenure at the hospital	3.176	.086	14.172	.173
Tenure at the current position	4.320	.086	25.448	.173
Participative leadership				
Item 1	-.679	.086	-.272	.173
Item 2	-.452	.086	-.447	.173
Item 3	-.230	.086	-.733	.173
Service orientation				
Item 1	-1.861	.086	4.060	.173
Item 2	-.951	.086	.635	.173
Item 3	-1.543	.086	2.928	.173
Item 4	-1.729	.086	3.396	.173
Item 5	-1.678	.086	3.500	.173
Perceived impact				
Item 1	-.391	.086	-.463	.173
Item 2	-.431	.086	-.448	.173
Item 3	-.363	.086	-.519	.173
Promotive voice				
Item 1	-.457	.086	.109	.173
Item 2	-.694	.086	.624	.173
Item 3	-.784	.086	.656	.173
Item 4	-.617	.086	.450	.173
Prohibitive voice				
Item 1	-.729	.086	.516	.173
Item 2	-.635	.086	.039	.173
Item 3	-.744	.086	.590	.173
Item 4	-.680	.086	.332	.173
Customer complexity				
Item 1	-1.322	.086	1.948	.173
Item 2	-.870	.086	.458	.173
Item 3	-.799	.086	.541	.173
Item 4	-.530	.086	-.322	.173
Item 5	-.655	.086	.010	.173
Feedback-seeking climate				
Item 1	-.890	.086	.309	.173
Item 2	-.590	.086	-.167	.173
Item 3	-.588	.086	-.312	.173
Item 4	-.668	.086	-.196	.173
Item 5	.211	.086	-1.005	.173
Item 6	-.296	.086	-.669	.173
Job satisfaction				
Item 1	-1.047	.086	.934	.173
Item 2	-.629	.086	-.177	.173
Item 3	-.529	.086	-.247	.173

7.4. Results of the hypothesis tests

7.4.1. Method of analysis

We tested our hypothesized model with multilevel path analysis by using HLM 7.0 (Raudenbusch, Bryk, Cheong, Congdon, & du Toit, 2004). We prefer to use multilevel modeling based on two reasons. First, our model and data incorporate constructs both at the employee (Participative leadership, service orientation, perceived impact, promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice), and hospital level (Customer complexity, participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength). Second, we obtained the employee responses from different hospitals. Thus, our respondents are nested in hospitals. Table 7.3 shows how the employee-level observations for the dependent variables in our study significantly differ between hospitals, which proves that the independence of the observations cannot be assumed.

Table 7.3 - Mean score differences for criterion variables among hospitals in the study

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Service orientation	Between hospitals	29.254	24	1.219	3.151	.000
	Within hospitals	299.760	775	.387		
	Total	329.014	799			
Perceived impact	Between hospitals	48.331	24	2.014	1.924	.005
	Within hospitals	810.975	775	1.046		
	Total	859.307	799			
Promotive voice	Between hospitals	22.456	24	.936	1.734	.016
	Within hospitals	418.175	775	.540		
	Total	440.631	799			
Prohibitive voice	Between hospitals	25.735	24	1.072	1.726	.017
	Within hospitals	481.407	775	.621		
	Total	507.142	799			

Table 7.4 - Results of the multilevel path analysis

Variables	Service Orientation				Perceived Impact				Promotive Voice				Prohibitive Voice			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8	
	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.
Service employee level variables (level 1)																
Participative leadership (PL)	.073**	.026	.044**	.019	.148**	.031	.135**	.030	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Service orientation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.349**	.052	.344**	.043	.331**	.054	.316**	.049
Perceived impact	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.162**	.035	.168**	.031	.154**	.037	.166**	.030
Hospital-level variables (level 2)																
Customer complexity	.777**	.221	.778**	.221	.145	.247	.145	.247	.142	.133	.141	.134	.400*	.171	.397*	.172
PL climate strength	-.257	.215	-.259	.215	.197	.243	.196	.243	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Feedback-seeking climate strength	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.373	.276	-.374	.276	-.322	.269	-.327	.269
Cross-level interactions																
PL x Customer complexity	-	-	-.335**	.101	-	-	-.321**	.118	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PL x PL climate strength	-	-	-.466**	.137	-	-	-.161	.140	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Service orientation x Customer complexity	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.236	.243	-	-	.235	.256
Service orientation x Feedback-seeking climate strength	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.808**	.272	-	-	-.996**	.363
Perceived impact x Customer complexity	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.202	.196	-	-	-.345*	.170
Perceived impact x Feedback-seeking climate strength	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.270	.253	-	-	.635*	.308
Control variables																
Tenure (log)	-.077*	.037	-.069	.036	.185**	.072	.188**	.073	-.052	.041	-.049	.042	-.079	.052	-.071	.053
Job satisfaction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.060**	.020	.058**	.022	.071*	.028	.070	.030
PL climate (Hospital-level)	.014	.101	.013	.101	.231	.142	.231	.142	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Feedback-seeking climate (Hospital-level)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.345**	.109	.345**	.109	.115	.141	.117	.143
Common method factor (Marker variable)	.020	.020	.025	.021	.185**	.033	.185**	.034	.053*	.022	.053**	.020	.022	.023	.021	.021
Deviance (df)	1502.66 (9) **		1488.47 (11) **		2258.27 (9) *		2255.95 (11) *		1597.71 (11) *		1588.28 (15) *		1756.85 (11) *		1740.12 (15) *	
Δ Deviance (Δdf)	33. 66 (6) **		14.19 (2) **		62.65 (6) **		2.32 (2)		192.33 (8) **		9.43 (4) *		145.49 (8) **		16.73 (4) **	

Note: Robust standard errors (S.E.) are reported.

Deviance (df) for null models: Service orientation=1536.32 (3) **; Perceived impact=2320.92 (3) **; Promotive voice=1790.04 (3) *; Prohibitive voice=1902.34 (3) *

*p<.05; **p<.01 (one-tailed test for hypothesized directional relationships; two-tailed test for control variables)

7.4.2. Hypothesis tests

7.4.2.1. Main effects

Model 1, 3, 5 and 7 on Table 7.4 reports the main effects in our model. H1 and H2 posit that participative leadership (PL) has a positive effect on both the service orientation and perceived impact. Our findings indicate that PL relates significantly and positively to service orientation ($\gamma = .073$, $p < .01$), and perceived impact ($\gamma = .148$, $p < .01$). These results lend support for H1 and H2.

H3 and H4 propose a positive relationship between service orientation, and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. The results display that service orientation relates significantly and positively to promotive ($\gamma = .349$, $p < .01$), and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .331$, $p < .01$), providing support for H3 and H4.

H5 and H6 postulate that perceived impact has a positive effect on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. The results show that perceived impact relates significantly and positively to promotive ($\gamma = .162$, $p < .01$), and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .154$, $p < .01$). Thus, H5 and H6 are supported as well.

7.4.2.2. Interaction effects

Model 2, 4, 6 and 8 on Table 7.4 report the interaction effects in our model. H7 posits that customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of PL on service orientation. Our findings indicate that the interaction of PL and customer complexity is related significantly and negatively to service orientation ($\gamma = -.335$, $p < .01$). The simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) reveals that when customer complexity is low, the relationship between PL and service orientation is positive and statistically significant ($\gamma = .104$, $t = 3.79$, $p < .01$), whereas when customer

complexity is high, the relationship between PL and service orientation is not significant (γ = -.015, t = .62, *ns*). These findings lend support for H7.

H8 states that customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of PL on perceived impact. According to findings, interaction of PL and customer complexity is related significantly and negatively to perceived impact (γ = -.321, $p < .01$). Simple slope analysis shows that when customer complexity is low, the relationship between PL and perceived impact is positive and statistically significant (γ = .193, t = 5.73, $p < .01$), whereas when customer complexity is high, the relationship between PL and perceived impact is relatively weaker (γ = .078, t = 1.97, $p < .05$). These findings support H8.

H9 posits that PL climate strength negatively moderates the effect of PL on service orientation. We find that the interaction of PL and PL climate strength relate significantly and negatively to service orientation (γ = -.466, $p < .01$). Simple slope analysis indicates that when PL climate is weak, the relationship between PL and service orientation is positive and statistically significant (γ = .135, t = 3.74, $p < .01$), whereas becomes insignificant (γ = -.044, t = 1.57, *ns*) when PL climate is strong. Hence, H9 is supported.

H10 posits that PL climate strength negatively moderates the effect of PL on perceived impact. We do not find any statistical significance for the relationship between the interaction of PL and PL climate strength, and perceived impact. Thus, H10 is not supported.

For H11 and H12, we argued that customer complexity positively moderates the effect of service orientation on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused

employee voice. A significant effect of the interaction of service orientation and customer complexity on promotive and prohibitive voice cannot be found. Therefore, H11 and H12 are not supported.

H13 posits that feedback-seeking climate strength negatively moderates the effect of service orientation on promotive customer-focused employee voice. The interaction of service orientation and feedback-seeking climate strength is related significantly and negatively to promotive voice ($\gamma = -.808$, $p < .01$). The simple slope analysis reveals that when feedback-seeking climate is weak, there is a positive and significant relationship between service orientation and promotive voice ($\gamma = .460$, $t = 7.78$, $p < .01$). When feedback-seeking climate is strong, the relationship between service orientation and promotive voice is still significant and positive but relatively weaker ($\gamma = .228$, $t = 3.95$, $p < .01$). These findings support H13.

H14 posits that feedback-seeking climate strength negatively moderates the effect of service orientation on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. The interaction of service orientation and feedback-seeking climate strength is related significantly and negatively to prohibitive voice ($\gamma = -.996$, $p < .01$). In line with simple slope analysis, when feedback-seeking climate is weak, there is a positive and significant relationship between service orientation and prohibitive voice at the employee-level ($\gamma = .459$, $t = 5.93$, $p < .01$). When feedback-seeking climate is strong, the relationship between service orientation and prohibitive voice is still positive and significant but relatively weaker ($\gamma = .172$, $t = 2.66$, $p < .01$). Thus, H14 is supported.

H15 posits that customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of perceived impact on promotive customer-focused employee voice. Our findings indicate that the relationship between the interaction of perceived impact and customer complexity, and promotive voice is not significant. Thus, H15 is not supported.

H16 posits that customer complexity negatively moderates the effect of perceived impact on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. Our finding show that the interaction of perceived impact and customer complexity is related significantly and negatively to prohibitive voice ($\gamma = -.345$, $p < .05$). The results of simple slope analysis reveal that when customer complexity is low, the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive voice is positive and significant ($\gamma = .228$, $t = 4.89$, $p < .01$). When customer complexity is high, the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive voice is still positive and significant but becomes relatively weaker ($\gamma = .105$, $t = 2.83$, $p < .01$). These findings lend support for H16.

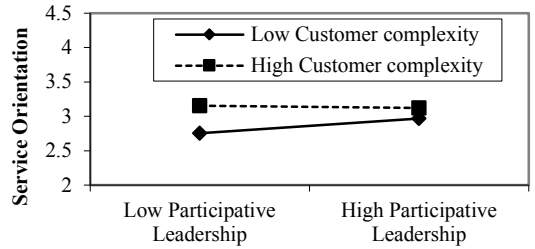
H17 posits that feedback-seeking climate strength positively moderates the effect of perceived impact on promotive customer-focused employee voice. Our findings indicate that there is no significant relationship between the interaction of perceived impact and feedback-seeking climate strength and promotive voice. Hence, H17 is not supported.

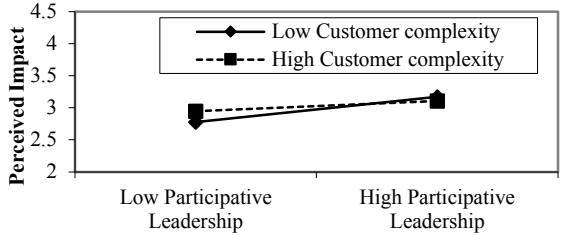
Finally, H18 posits that feedback-seeking climate strength positively moderates the effect of perceived impact on prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. We find that the interaction of perceived impact and feedback-seeking climate strength is related significantly and positively to prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .635$, $p < .05$).

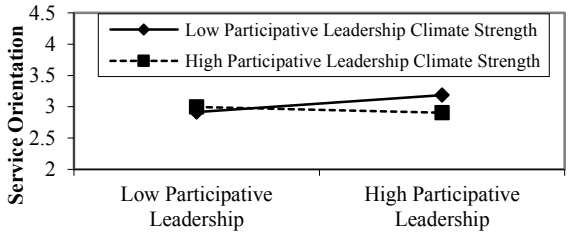
The simple slope analysis reveals that when feedback-seeking climate is strong, there is a positive and significant relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .258$, $t = 3.83$, $p < .01$). When feedback-seeking climate is weak, the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive voice is still positive and significant but relatively weaker ($\gamma = .075$, $t = 2.20$, $p < .05$). Thus, H18 is supported.

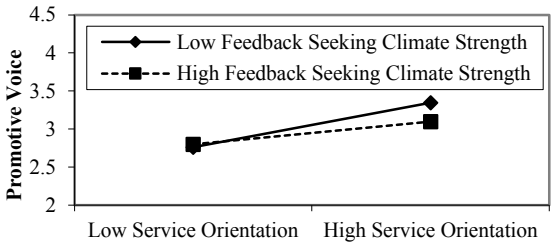
Figure 7.1 demonstrates the significant interaction effects.

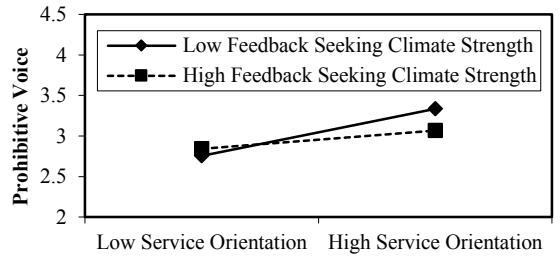
Figure 7.1 - The interaction effects

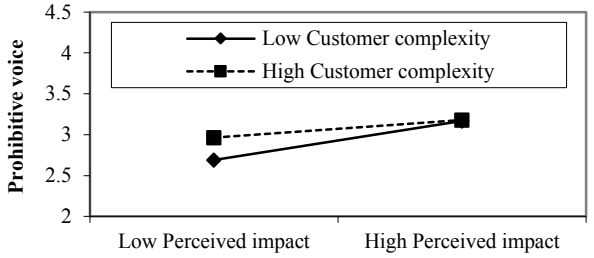


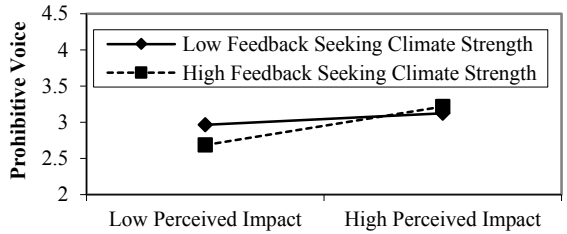












7.5. Post hoc tests

We further conducted post hoc tests to reinforce the proposition that participative leadership affects employees' promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behaviors through fostering their motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact). That is, we check whether the relationships between participative leadership and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behaviors are mediated by service orientation and perceived impact. In order to test the mediating effects of service orientation and perceived impact between participative leadership and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behavior, we follow the three-step mediation procedure by Baron and Kenny (1986).

The three-step procedure (Baron & Kenny, 1986) consists of the following steps: In step 1, one should regress the mediating variable(s) (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact) on the independent variable (i.e. participative leadership). In step 2, the dependent variable(s) (i.e. promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice) must be regressed on independent variable. In step 3, the dependent variable(s) should be regressed on both the independent and mediating variables. To confirm the existence of a mediation, the independent variable should significantly affect the mediating variable(s) in step 1, the dependent variable(s) in step 2, and the mediating variable(s) should significantly affect the dependent variable(s) in step 3. Noting that predicted mediation will occur when the effect of independent variable on dependent variable in the third step is smaller than in the second step, a perfect mediation implies a null effect for the independent variable in step 3 (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Table 7.5 - Results of the mediation analysis

	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3							
	Model 1 (Service orientation)		**Model 2 (Perceived impact)**		**Model 3 (Promotive voice)**		**Model 4 (Prohibitive voice)**		**Model 5 (Promotive voice)**		**Model 6 (Prohibitive voice)**		**Model 7 (Promotive voice)**		**Model 8 (Prohibitive voice)**	
	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.	γ	S.E.
Independent variables																
Participative leadership	.072**	.026	.148**	.031	.108**	.027	.126**	.045	-	-	-	-	.080**	.023	.101**	.040
Service orientation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.348**	.052	.330**	.054	.344**	.050	.324**	.051
Perceived impact	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.162**	.034	.154**	.037	.154**	.034	.143**	.036
Control variables																
Tenure (log)	-.085*	.035	.189**	.033	-.041	.040	-.062	.057	-.057	.038	-.082	.053	-.042	.039	-.062	.055
Job satisfaction	-	-	-	-	.138**	.026	.140**	.029	.061**	.020	.072**	.027	.044**	.021	.051	.029
PL climate (Hospital-level)	.116	.137	.287*	.129	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Feedback-seeking climate (Hospital-level)	-	-	-	-	.259*	.125	.111	.135	.289**	.125	.148	.138	.292**	.126	.154	.139
Common method factor (Marker variable)	.021	.020	.186**	.033	.070*	.018	.036	.023	.057	.038	.020	.023	.049**	.022	.017	.024
Deviance (df)	1519.28 (7) **		2258.88 (7) *		1710.52 (8)		1837.35 (8) *		1600.69 (9) *		1762.08 (9) **		1589.68 (10) *		1747.68 (10) **	
Δ Deviance (Δdf)	17.04 (4) **		62.05 (4) **		79.51 (5) **		64.99 (5) **		189.35 (6) **		140.27 (6) **		11.01 (1) **		14.40 (1) **	

Note: Robust standard errors (S.E.) are reported.

Deviance (df) for null models: Service orientation=1536.32 (3) **; Perceived impact=2320.92 (3) **; Promotive voice=1790.04 (3) *; Prohibitive voice=1902.34 (3) *

*p<.05; **p<.01 (one-tailed test for hypothesized directional relationships; two-tailed test for control variables)

In all three steps in our mediation analysis, we included the control variables in the models (employee tenure, common method factor marker variable, job satisfaction, hospital-level participative leadership climate and hospital-level feedback-seeking climate). Parallel to our hypothesis tests, our mediation analysis includes tenure and CMV variable as control variables for all steps. We determine participative leadership climate as a control variable for step 1 where the dependent variables are service orientation and perceived impact, and feedback-seeking climate and job satisfaction as control variables for steps 2 and 3 where the dependent variables are promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behavior. Table 7.5 reports the results of our analysis regarding the mediating effects of service orientation and perceived impact between participative leadership and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behavior.

Step 1 indicates that participative leadership is related positively and significantly to service orientation ($\gamma = .072$, $p < .01$) and perceived impact ($\gamma = .148$, $p < .01$). Step 2 indicates that participative leadership is related positively and significantly to promotive ($\gamma = .108$, $p < .01$) and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .126$, $p < .01$). Model 5 and 6 in Step 3 indicate that service orientation is related positively and significantly to promotive ($\gamma = .348$, $p < .01$) and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .330$, $p < .01$) while perceived impact is related positively and significantly to promotive ($\gamma = .162$, $p < .01$) and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .154$, $p < .01$). When all variables are included in Model 7 and 8, service orientation and perceived impact are significantly and positively related to voice behaviors. Participative leadership is still significantly related to promotive ($\gamma = .080$, $p < .01$) and prohibitive voice ($\gamma = .101$, $p < .01$) but with lower effect compared to its direct effect. This implies a partial mediation of

service orientation and perceived impact between participative leadership and customer-focused employee voice.

8. DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The initial research problem of this study was to find out the antecedents of customer-focused employee voice behavior in service context (i.e., hospitals). Although employee voice literature is rife with studies that investigate the antecedents of employees' behavior of communicating their recommendations and concerns prior to the organizational issues to their supervisors, the studies that take a particular focus on customer-focused employee voice remain scant. Noting that disseminating and using customer-relevant information is a fundamental aspect of market oriented businesses (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990); examining factors that take part in employees' customer-focused voice behaviors produces valuable results for marketing theory and practice. Besides the very limited number of studies that focus on the antecedents of customer-focused employee voice (Lam & Mayer, 2013), our study has particularly asked whether participative leadership can affect promotive/prohibitive customer-focused voice.

To address the gaps existent in the literature, this study has drawn from systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Systems theory has allowed us to examine the role of underlying mechanisms (i.e., employee motivational states, which we conceptualized as service orientation and perceived impact) and hospital-level factors on the participative leadership-customer-focused voice relationship, whose effects on customer-focused voice have not been examined before. In other words, our study has articulated supervisors' participative leadership behaviors to employees' service orientation and perceived impact at work, which in turn affect promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee behaviors. We also observed whether these relationships are contingent on the top-down effects of hospital-level

factors, namely participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity.

Our findings confirm that supervisors' participative leadership behaviors foster service orientation and perceived impact, which, in turn, affect promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. Our analyses further imply that service orientation and perceived impact act as partial mediators for participative leadership-customer-focused voice relationship. Our results further indicate that as customer complexity increases, the effect of participative leadership on service orientation and perceived impact weakens. A strong participative leadership climate at hospital-level implies a diluted relationship between participative leadership and service orientation. A strong feedback-seeking climate reduces the effect of service orientation on promotive and prohibitive voice, while it amplifies the perceived impact and prohibitive voice relationship. Alongside its negative effect on the relationships between participative leadership-service orientation and participative leadership-perceived impact, the positive effect of perceived impact on prohibitive voice weakens under a complex customer setting.

With the findings above, our study provides an expanded explanation for the participative leadership's role on different types of customer-focused employee voice through evoking certain motivational states, and the conditions at which participative leadership-motivational states-customer-focused voice relationship are contingent on. Consequently, we discuss the theoretical and managerial implications of this study in the following parts.

8.1. Theoretical implications and contributions to literature

This study is one of the few efforts (Lam & Mayer, 2013) examining the factors that affect customer-focused employee voice behavior. When doing so, we import the concepts of promotive and prohibitive voice, which have been previously used by employee voice literature (Liang et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Wei et al., 2015) into the context of customer-focused voice. Therefore, this makes our study as the first ever example that attempts to observe customer-focused voice in these two different constructs, namely promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice, providing a more comprehensive explanation for the concept customer-focused employee voice. Additionally, our study is the first effort in the voice literature that uses systems theory framework (Chen & Kanfer, 2006).

Until so far, the literature has associated different leadership characteristics (e.g., transformational leadership, servant leadership) with employees' extra-role behaviors (e.g., altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). Supervisors' empowering behaviors are further mentioned to affect employees' extra-role behaviors in service context (Auh et al., 2014). In line with the organizational citizenship behavior literature, past studies in voice literature also linked paternalistic (Zhang et al., 2014), ethical (Walumbwa et al., 2012), transformational (Conchie et al., 2011) and consulting leadership behaviors (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012) to employees' voice behaviors. Nevertheless, to our knowledge, participative leadership has been associated neither with employee voice nor with customer-focused employee voice by past studies. Drawing from the empowering leadership literature (Arnold et al., 2000; Ahearne et al., 2005; Rapp et al., 2006), our study introduces

participative leadership as a factor inducing employees' customer-focused voice behaviors.

Nevertheless, in line with systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006), our study associates participative leadership with promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice through employee motivational states. The role of underlying mechanisms in the relationships between certain input factors and employee voice, particularly customer-focused employee voice, has been mostly overlooked in the literature (Lam & Mayer, 2013). Therefore, this study is one of the few efforts integrating employees' motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact) among participative leadership-customer-focused voice relationship. By demonstrating the positive effect of supervisors' participative leadership behaviors on employees' sense of impact at work, which in turn affects their promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice; our study has found consistent results with previous studies (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012).

Moreover, the role of service orientation as an agent factor between participative leadership and voice behaviors has been also overlooked by past research. In this respect, our study draws from the norm of reciprocity, which underscores that supervisors' positive behaviors (i.e., empowering leadership) urge employees to involve in acts that would benefit their supervisors, organizations, and customers (i.e., service orientation) (Bagozzi, 1995; De Wulf et al., 2001; Auh et al., 2014). Our results, which demonstrate a positive relationship between participative leadership and service orientation are consistent with the norm of reciprocity. Furthermore, our study extends the voice literature by finding that employees'

tendency to help customers (i.e., service orientation) affect their promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behaviors. Finally, further mediation analyses show that service orientation and perceived impact are mediators to participative leadership and customer-focused voice, providing a previously unmentioned contribution to voice literature.

Our study's theoretical contributions further lie in the conditioning effects of unit-level factors on relationships at the employee-level, which we hypothesized in line with systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Prior studies in marketing (Ahearne, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, Mathieu, & Lam, 2010) have found that the interaction of supervisors' empowering behaviors and the employees' consensus on such behaviors in their unit produce beneficial outcomes for the unit (i.e., increasing team potency). However, our study reports mixed results with respect to the interaction of supervisors' participative leadership behaviors and the strength of participative leadership climate in units (i.e., employees' consensus regarding the participative leadership in their unit). For instance, our findings show that participative leadership has a weaker effect on service orientation at the employee-level under a strong participative leadership climate, producing consistent results with the LMX theory (Liden et al., 1997; Vidyarthi et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012).

In contrast, the interaction of a participative leadership climate strength with participative leadership did not yield a significant effect on perceived impact, contrary to the expected. We initially argued that under a strong participative leadership climate, employees who are exposed to participative leadership behaviors would feel a lower sense of impact. This is because, employees under strong

participative leadership climate would believe that they do not have an exclusive access to various resources as part of the participative leadership relationship that they have with their supervisors. Notwithstanding, a particular reason for the null finding could be that getting access to resources (i.e., information, autonomy, decision-making freedom, and support) is sufficient for an employee to perceive high impact regardless of whether similar resources are also offered to other employees.

Customer complexity, which we observed the top-down effects on employee-level relationships in this study, has also been an overlooked concept in marketing literature aside from Schmitz and Ganesan (2014). Considering that the customer complexity is an emerging phenomenon (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014), our findings confirm that the relationships between participative leadership-service orientation and participative leadership-perceived impact is contingent on the level of customer complexity. Our study particularly extends the literature by demonstrating that participative leadership's ability to foster employees' motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact) to involve in challenging extra-role behaviors (i.e., customer-focused voice) will be weaker when the employees have to deal with complex customer demands.

Contrary to our expectations, we could not find a positive and significant effect of the interaction between customer complexity and service orientation on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. The reason for such a null effect could be that complex customer demands might push a service oriented employee, who takes particular interest in helping the customers in the best way (Bettencourt et al., 2001), to spend his/her major effort and resources to understand

and meet the diverse demands of customers rather than involving in voice behaviors prior to these customers' issues. Our study further demonstrates the negative role that the customer complexity has on the relationship between perceived impact and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice. That is, an employee whose perceived impact is high will be less involved in communicating the problems and concerns prior to the customer-relevant matters when (s)he has to deal with complex customer demands.

To our surprise, our findings have reported a null effect of the interaction of customer complexity and perceived impact on promotive customer-focused employee voice. When an influential employee works in a work environment where (s)he feels completely detached from, due to the high workload associated with high customer complexity, (s)he might consider that it is not worth of dealing with the negative reactions that (s)he may receive after exerting prohibitive voice even if (s)he has less fear of facing such negative responses. However, providing recommendations and ideas that will improve the customer service might still be attractive for an influential employee despite (s)he is not willing to provide contributions in a complex customer environment. Considering that employees with high impact tend to be creative and involve in innovative acts (Spreitzer, 1995), it is probable that a high impact employee working in such an environment could be still interested in providing ideas to his/her supervisor prior to customers.

Our final contribution is the effect of feedback-seeking climate strength on the relationship between employees' motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact) and their customer-focused voice behaviors. Although voice

literature (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison, 2011) states that feedback-seeking behavior is critical for voice, our study came up with mixed results. We demonstrate that a strong feedback-seeking climate (i.e., strong consensus among the employees with respect to feedback-seeking climate in their unit) will weaken service oriented employees' tendency to involve in promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. In this respect, drawing from the motivation and impression management literature (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), our study shows that feedback-seeking mechanisms that aim to foster employees' self-interests in return with their feedback-seeking behaviors, will particularly diminish other oriented employees' (i.e., service orientation) involvement in customer-focused voice behaviors.

Despite strong feedback-seeking climate's enhancing effect on perceived impact-prohibitive voice relationship, the interaction of a strong feedback-seeking climate with perceived impact did not conceive a significant effect on promotive customer-focused voice. Employees with high perceived impact are highly creative and would like to involve in innovative acts (Spreitzer, 1995). Thus, the reason for such a null effect is that those employees might take interest in providing recommendations and ideas prior to customer-relevant issues due to their interest in being creative and producing innovative ideas. Therefore, reward mechanisms attributed to feedback-seeking climates might not be likely to conceive any effect on perceived impact-promotive voice relationship. Compared to promotive voice, prohibitive voice might not be considered a creative/innovative behavior by employees with high perceived impact. Thus, these employees' involvement in prohibitive voice will be enhanced when they acknowledge that their unit will reward their feedback-seeking behaviors.

8.2. Managerial implications

Although our study focuses on hospitals, we provide a variety of implications that may be further translated into the context of service organizations in general. First, managers who aim to enhance their employees' customer-focused voice behaviors inside the organizations, should acknowledge that their participative leadership behaviors will be a good starting point. On one hand, managers who take on participative leadership behaviors will urge their employees to become more service oriented and/or feel higher impact which will, in turn, motivate them to exert more promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. Our first implication that managers can take away from these findings is that employees' acts of promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice will be dependent on participative leadership behaviors through fostering employee motivational states. That is, managers who would like their employees to involve in customer-focused voice behavior in a more frequent level, should spend more effort in their participative leadership behaviors.

In organizations with a strong participative leadership climate, the positive effect of managers' participative leadership behaviors on employees' service orientation will be weaker while the same factor will not be effective on the relationship between participative leadership and perceived impact. Put it differently, under strong participative leadership climates, managers should note that their one-to-one participative leadership behaviors will be less effective on employees' intention to be helpful and provide better service to customer, which might further affect their customer-focused voice behaviors. Conversely, the extent of a strong participative leadership climate will not make a difference on the relationship between participative leadership behaviors and employees' sense of impact.

Managers who would like their employees to adopt service orientation values, which is highly important in the service context should, thus, ensure the sense of exclusivity that each of their employee would take from joint decision-making sessions.

Our findings also show that strong feedback-seeking climates will produce varying effects for the relationships between different employee motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact) and customer-focused voice behaviors. Under a strong feedback-seeking climate, the influential employees' involvement in prohibitive customer-focused voice is higher. Therefore, our third implication is that managers, who would like to use their influential employees' potential for prohibitive voice, might consider enhancing their employees' perception that their unit supports and rewards employees' feedback-seeking behaviors. In other terms, managers should pursue building up a well spread feedback-seeking climate among the employees in the unit.

Conversely, when employees with high service orientation uniformly acknowledge that their unit supports and rewards their feedback-seeking behaviors, they would be less inclined to exert promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice. This urges us to come up with our fourth implication. That is, in work environments where employees voice out customer-relevant issues as part of their aim to help and serve customers in the best way (i.e., service orientation), managers should be wary of building a common perception in employees that the acts of sharing customer information with the organization are supported and especially rewarded. This is because, individuals with a disposition to act for the benefit of others will be less motivated to comply with conditions that maximize their self-

interests like climates rewarding their behaviors. That is, such reward mechanisms make them perceive a sense of inequity between the compensation made to them and to other employees (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004).

Last but not least, managers should be able to manage customer complexity effectively, so that the mechanisms fostering customer-focused voice behaviors would not be hindered. Our study shows that customer complexity is a factor that weakens the effect of participative leadership on employees' service orientation and perceived impact. Higher workload attributed to complex customer environments will lessen the influential employees' prohibitive voice behaviors. Supervisors' transactional behaviors (e.g., providing feedback to employees, rewarding/punishing employees based on their performance), and employees' sense of self-efficacy at work are usually mentioned to overcome problems experienced by employees in complex customer environments (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). Therefore, managers might consider providing feedback to and rewarding employees in terms of their performance, or building motivational programs that aim to improve employees' self-efficacy so that the negative effects of customer complexity could be diluted.

8.3. Limitations and directions for future research

Our study is without its limitations, which can be addressed in potential future studies. First, we did not collect the data from multiple informants but only from a single source of participants (i.e., employees working at hospital) by using a cross-sectional design. Although we show that a potential common method bias problem, which may be the result of above limitations, do not affect our findings; future studies can address this limitation by collecting data for participative

leadership, service orientation, perceived impact and the unit-level factors from the employees, and the voice behaviors from the managers. Future studies can also employ a longitudinal design where they can collect the independent and dependent variables at different periods of time. Such a longitudinal design, as we believe, will strengthen the causality among the variables.

Our second limitation lies in the use of third party (i.e., hospital chain's human resources department and contact persons in each hospital) to distribute the surveys to the employees at the hospital. Although the surveys were sent to employees in a closed envelope, and we later required the surveys to be returned in the same way, employees might have experienced a sense of psychological pressure and insecurity due to returning their responses to other people working in the same hospital with them (i.e., contact persons and human resources department). This might have caused employees to alter their responses in a way that would minimize their sense of insecurity due to aforementioned reasons. Future studies might address this problem by contacting the service employees directly instead of using a third party.

Third, considering that there is not a scale that directly measures the feedback-seeking climate (i.e., whether employees' feedback-seeking behaviors from customers are supported and rewarded by the organization), we self-created a new scale based on the organizational climate literature, in order to determine the level of strength of a feedback-seeking climate among the employees in each hospital. Although our feedback-seeking climate scale obtained an acceptable level of

reliability (α = .85), we call the future studies to create a more refined scale for measuring the feedback-seeking climate in organizations and workgroups.

Our fourth limitation comes from the generalizability of our findings to other contexts. Put differently, we examined our hypothesized relationships by collecting data from employees who work in different branches of a Turkish hospital chain. Although our study included multiple branches of the hospital chain rather than focusing on different units under a single hospital, we believe that future studies can examine these relationships in a comparative setting incorporating different hospital (e.g., private hospitals versus public hospitals). Moreover, these relationships can be further observed in service settings other than the hospitals and in Western cultures given that we collected our data in Turkey. These limitations can be further addressed by future studies.

Finally, our study does not observe whether and how promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice contribute to different outcomes such as customer satisfaction or organizational performance. Considering the voice behavior's effect on such outcomes, which has been previously mentioned in the literature, future studies can examine whether promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice conceive different effects on the aforementioned outcomes.

8.4. Conclusion

Drawing from systems theory (Chen & Kanfer, 2006), this study suggests participative leadership as an antecedent of promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice through motivational states (i.e., service orientation and perceived impact), in conjunction with hospital-level factors (participative leadership

climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength, customer complexity). The data, which we collected from employees working in the medical admission units of a Turkish hospital chain, has confirmed that at the employee-level, participative leadership affects employees' service orientation and perceived impact, which in turn influence employees' promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behaviors. Our further analyses confirm that service orientation and perceived impact partially mediate the relationship between participative leadership and promotive and prohibitive customer-focused employee voice behavior.

Our findings further show that those relationships at the employee-level are contingent on hospital-level factors, namely participative leadership climate strength, feedback-seeking climate strength and customer complexity. A strong participative leadership climate in hospitals lessens the effect of participative leadership on service orientation while high customer complexity weakens the relationships between participative leadership and service orientation as well as participative leadership and perceived impact. Additionally, service orientation's effect on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behaviors is reduced if a strong feedback-seeking climate exists among the employees at the hospitals. Finally, in high customer complexity, the perceived impact's influence will be weaker on prohibitive customer-focused voice. This relationship will be conversely amplified under strong feedback-seeking climates. We hope that our study contributes to voice literature, and motivates further studies on promotive and prohibitive customer-focused voice behaviors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – SUMMARY OF SCALES USED IN THE STUDY

Construct	Measure	Referent	Level
Participative Leadership	Rapp et al. (2006)	Supervisor	Employee-level
Service Orientation	Bettencourt et al. (2001)	Employee	Employee-level
Perceived Impact	Spreitzer (1995)	Employee	Employee-level
Promotive Customer-focused Employee Voice	Van Dyne and LePine (1998)	Employee	Employee-level
Prohibitive Customer-focused Employee Voice	Van Dyne and LePine (1998)	Employee	Employee-level
Job Satisfaction	New scale	Employee	Employee-level
Customer Complexity	Schmitz and Ganesan (2014)	Patients and/or families	Hospital-level
Participative Leadership Climate Strength	Rapp et al. (2006)	Hospital	Hospital-level
Feedback-Seeking Climate Strength	New scale	Hospital	Hospital-level

APPENDIX B - MEASURES

Constructs	Factor Loadings
Employee-level	
Participative Leadership (α = .87; CR = .87; AVE = .70)	
My supervisor provides many opportunities for me to express my opinion	.771
My supervisor often consults me on strategic decisions	.941
My supervisor makes many decisions together with me	.781
Service Orientation (α = .90; CR = .91; AVE = .67)	
I enjoy helping patients and/or their families	.767
The best job I can imagine would involve assisting patients and/or their families in making satisfactory decisions	.683
I feel a sense of fulfillment when I am able to offer excellent service to patients and/or their families	.852
I pride myself in providing courteous service to patients and/or their families	.862
It is natural for me to be considerate of patients' and/or their families' needs	.904
Perceived Impact (α = .91; CR = .92; AVE = .79)	
My opinion counts in work unit decision-making	.909
My impact on what happens in this unit is large	.950
I have a great deal of control over what happens in this unit	.808
Promotive Customer-Focused Voice (α = .85; CR = .85; AVE = .58)	
I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect our patients and/or their families	.761
I speak up and encourage others in this unit to get involved in issues that affect patients and/or their families	.826
I communicate my opinions about issues related to patients and/or their families to others in the unit even if my opinion is different and others in the unit disagree with me	.722
I speak up in this unit with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures for the patients and/or their families	.745

Constructs	Factor Loadings
Prohibitive Customer-Focused Voice (α = .88; CR = .88; AVE = .65)	
I say something to my manager when I discover potential problems regarding the service we provide to patients and/or their families	.688
I voice my concerns about service we provide to patients and/or their families to my manager even when the patient and/or his/her family members are unaware of it	.768
When I sense there might be a concern regarding the service we provide to patients and/or their families, I speak to my manager	.892
I speak up about a problem regarding the service we provide to patients and/or their families, which I anticipate might happen	.863
Job Satisfaction (α = .87; CR = .87; AVE = .70)	
All in all, I like working on this job	.842
Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job	.836
Overall, I think I am as happy as I could be with this job	.828
Hospital-level	
Customer Complexity (α = .76; CR = .76; AVE = .40)	
Patients' and/or their families' needs and wants are diverse	.668
Patients and/or their families require customized services	.657
Patients and/or their families require treatment that involves multiple departments	.769
Patients and/or their families require long-term treatment	.547
Patients' and/or their families' treatment is routine and standardized	.480
Feedback-Seeking Climate (α = .85; CR = .86; AVE = .51)	
We are expected to seek feedback from our patients and/or their families	.616
We are encouraged to ask for feedback from our patients and/or their families	.776
We are supported by the supervisor to seek feedback from patients and/or their families	.831
We have policies and procedures that support feedback-seeking from our patients and/or their families	.741
We are rewarded for feedback-seeking from our patients and/or their families	.576
We have norms that support feedback-seeking from our patients and/or their families	.698

APPENDIX C – COVER LETTER AND RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu soru formu, farklı çalışan davranışlarını incelemeyi hedefleyen bir doktora tezi araştırması kapsamında hazırlanmıştır. Bu bakımdan, soru formu siz değerli çalışanların görüş ve fikirlerini almayı amaçlamaktadır ve araştırmamıza katılımınız bizim için önemlidir. Aşağıda göreceğiniz soruların hiçbirinin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı söz konusu değildir. Önemli olan sizin bu soruları bireysel olarak ne şekilde cevaplandırdığınızdır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup, düşüncelerinizi rakamlardan biriyle değerlendiriniz. Vereceğiniz yanıtlar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve işyerindeki hiç kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Anket sonuçları sadece yukarıda belirtilen çalışma için kullanılacaktır.

Anketi tamamladıktan sonra lütfen size anketi teslim eden görevliye anketi aldığınız şekilde, yani kapalı zarf içinde, geri döndürünüz.

Araştırmamıza gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve katılımınızdan dolayı size şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

En içten saygılarımızla,

Prof. Dr. Bülent Mengüç — *Kadir Has Üniversitesi*

Süheyl Ünver — *Doktora Öğrencisi*

PLEAD. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım düzeyinizi belirtiniz.
(1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Bir üst yöneticim… …bir çok konuda kendi görüşlerimi belirtebilmem için bana olanak sağlamaktadır	①	②	③	④	⑤
…önemli konularda fikrimi alır	①	②	③	④	⑤
…önemli konulardaki kararları benimle birlikte verir	①	②	③	④	⑤

FBACK. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizin için uygunluğunu değerlendiriniz.
(1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Hastalardan şikayet ve tavsiyelerini almamız beklenir	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastalardan şikayet ve tavsiyelerini isteme konusunda teşvik ediliriz.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastalardan şikayet ve tavsiyelerini almamız için yöneticim bizi destekler	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastalardan şikayet ve tavsiyelerini almamızı destekleyen talimat ve prosedürlerimiz mevcuttur	①	②	③	④	⑤

Hastalardan şikayet ve tavsiyelerini alma isteğimiz ödüllendirilir	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Hastalardan şikayet ve tavsiyelerini almamızı destekleyen kurallarımız vardır	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

PCOMP. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım düzeyinizi belirtiniz. (1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Bu üniteye gelen hastaların istek ve talepleri çeşitlidir	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu üniteye gelen hastalar herbiri için özelleştirilmiş hizmetler gerekir	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu üniteye gelen hastaların tedavisi değişik ünitelerin katılımını gerektirir	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu üniteye gelen hastaların çoğu için uzun vadeli tedavi gerekmektedir	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu üniteye gelen hastaların çoğu standart ve rutin tedavi almaktadır	①	②	③	④	⑤

SERVOR. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım düzeyinizi belirtiniz. (1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Hastalara yardım etmeyi severim	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastaların tatmin olacakları kararlar vermesinde onlara yardımcı olmak hayalimdeki işin bir parçasıdır	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastalara iyi hizmet sunabilmek beni tatmin eder	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastalara nazik davrandığım zamanlarda kendimle gurur duyarım	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastaların ihtiyaçlarını daima dikkate alırım	①	②	③	④	⑤

PIMP. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım düzeyinizi belirtiniz. (1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Bu ünitede olup biten her şey üzerinde etkim çok büyüktür	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu ünitede olup biten her şey üzerinde büyük ölçüde etkim söz konusudur	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu ünitede olup biten her şeyi etkileme imkanım var	①	②	③	④	⑤

COMMON. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım düzeyinizi belirtiniz.
(1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Alışveriş öncesi değişik marketlerin fiyatlarını gözden geçiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Haftalık alışverişimi yapacağım marketlerin seçimini yaparken gazete ilanlarına bakarım	①	②	③	④	⑤
Fiyat indirimlerinden yararlanmak amacıyla değişik ürünleri değişik marketlerden almaya özen gösteririrm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Alışveriş yapmaya gitmeden önce değişik marketlerin ilanlarını gözden geçiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Uygun fiyatlardan yararlanmak amacıyla 2 ya da 3 ayrı marketten alışveriş yaparım	①	②	③	④	⑤

VOICE. Hastaların olumlu veya olumsuz geridönüşleri sonrasında, yöneticinize karşı ne sıklıkta aşağıdaki davranışlarda bulunuyorsunuz? (1=Asla, 2=Nadiren, 3=Bazen, 4=Sıklıkla, 5= Çok sıklıkla)

	Asla				Çok sıklıkla
Hastalarımızı etkileyen konularda tavsiyeler geliştirir ve dile getiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastaları etkileyen konular hakkında düşüncelerimi dile getiririm ve bu ünitedeki diğer çalışanların da bu konulara katkıda bulunması yönünde teşvik ederim	①	②	③	④	⑤
Bu ünitede çalışan diğer çalışanlar benim gibi düşünmese ve bana karşı gelseler de hastalarla ilgili konularda fikirlerimi dile getiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hastalar ile ilgili yeni proje ve yöntem değişikleri ile ilgili bu ünite dahilinde fikirlerimi dile getiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hasta hizmetleriyle ilgili potansiyel sorunlar gördüğümde ilgili kişilerle konuşurum	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hasta farkında olmadığında bile hasta hizmetleriyle ilgili olası sorunlar hakkında fikirlerimi dile getirirm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Hasta hizmeti ile ilgili bir sorun olacağını hissettiğimde fikirlerimi dile getiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤
Ortaya çıkacağını ön gördüğüm bir hasta hizmeti problemi olduğunda fikrimi dile getiririm	①	②	③	④	⑤

JSAT. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılım düzeyinizi belirtiniz.
(1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum; 2: Katılmıyorum; 3: Ne Katılıyorum Ne de Katılmıyorum; 4: Katılıyorum; 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Genel olarak bu işte çalışmayı seviyorum	①	②	③	④	⑤
Genel anlamda bu iş beni tatmin ediyor	①	②	③	④	⑤
İşimde olabileceğim kadar mutlu olduğumu düşünüyorum	①	②	③	④	⑤

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİLER

Cinsiyetiniz □ Erkek □ Kadın
Yaşınız (Yıl) □ 18-24 □ 25-31 □ 32-38 □ 39-45 □ 46-52 □ 53+
Eğitim Durumunuz □ Lise □ Üniversite □ Lisans üstü
Ne zamandır bu firmada çalışıyorsunuz? …….yıl ……ay
Ne kadar zamandır bu pozisyonunda çalışıyorsunuz? ……..yıl ……..ay

ANKETİ DOLDURDUĞUNUZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.

ANKETİ SİZE DAĞITILAN ZARFA KOYUNUZ VE İLGİLİ KİŞİYE İLETİNİZ