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**GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY AND ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: THE ROLE OF EMPLOYEE VOICE
AND UNCERTAINTY**

Master's thesis

TVTM03/18 - International Business Administration

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Tallinn 2020

I hereby declare that I have compiled the thesis/paper independently and all works, important standpoints and data by other authors have been properly referenced and the same paper has not been previously presented for grading. The document length is 12,926 words from the introduction to the end of conclusion.

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ABSTRACT

In modern organizations where organizational citizenship behaviors are encouraged and expected, it is important to study its contributing factors in order to improve the functioning of organizations and to maximize the organizational efficiency. The aim of the current study is to investigate the relationship between general self-efficacy, employee voice behaviors, uncertainty, and organizational citizenship behaviors. This includes examining the impact in degree of uncertainty on organizational citizenship behaviors. In this research, a quantitative study was conducted using a sample of 196 employees from the IT industry in Estonia. The results show that general self-efficacy has a positive relationship with all types of organizational citizenship behavior. Promotive voice is found to mediate the relationship between general self-efficacy and one type of organizational citizenship behaviors, civic virtue. It is also found that uncertainty plays a moderating role between general self-efficacy and civic virtue. The results highlight an importance on managerial applications: 1) managers should assess general self-efficacy in candidates and employees during job interviews and project assignments respectively, 2) managers should arrange regular one-to-one meetings to encourage employee voice and look for nonverbal and speech cues to spot employee silence, 3) managers should adopt an open and participatory communication to reduce employee perception of uncertainty.

Keywords: organizational citizenship behaviors, general self-efficacy, uncertainty, employee voice, civic virtue

INTRODUCTION

As globalization fully emerging itself in the 21st century due to technological advancements in areas such as Internet of Things (IoT), transportation, and capital mobility, traditional organizations are increasingly under pressure to adapt to the accelerated external environmental change. In response, we are witnessing a gradual shift in organizations from targeting local markets to international markets in terms of capital, production, labor, and consumer. To thrive on the international level, organizations need focus on strategic management on the global scale. This includes constantly reviewing and updating company's vision and mission, and adjusting strategies accordingly. The primary focus is serving consumer needs. Organizations need to scan their internal and external environment to identify both threats and competitive advantages. Corporate social responsibilities, both ethical and discretionary parts, should also be fulfilled. This enhances positive reputation of organization and attracts outstanding stakeholders such as investors, consumers and employees. In addition, use of new technologies in automation is an important factor in improving performance and productivity. The process of strategic management should involve not only managers but also key employees from organizations (Wheelen & Hunger, 2012).

Organizational culture is an internal part of organizational environment and “the invisible force” that drives performance. It is the personality of an organization which defines an unspoken social order and how to behave within the organization. Globalization raises competitiveness in the market. Previous studies on the influence of organizational culture on competitiveness emphasize the importance of raising awareness on critical elements of organizational culture that contribute to greater performance (Tileagã & Rizescu, 2017). Groysberg et al. (2018) concludes that the strength of culture is positively related to organizational performance when culture is in line with strategies and leadership. Culture styles in IT industry ranked from high to low are results, caring, learning, order, enjoyment, purpose, authority, and safety (Groysberg et al., 2018). Apart from productivity which can be defined as producing more output with the same input, efficiency, producing the same output with less input, plays an important role in superior performance.

For the organizations to cope with increasingly competitive demands, all units need to collectively work together efficiently. Extensive research has been carried out to examine the effects of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) on organizational effectiveness. Previous studies showed a significant influence of OCBs on the effectiveness and success of organizations (Podsakoff et al., 2018). As a result, managers take into account OCBs for performance evaluation. This indicates that OCBs are not only encouraged but expected. Negative effects of OCBs such as citizenship fatigue and burnout are important factors for managers to consider in the strategic formulation (Bolino et al., 2015).

To harvest the benefits of OCBs, it is crucial to understand the contributing factors of OCBs. One significant antecedent of OCBs is self-efficacy. Many studies showed a positive relationship between specific self-efficacy (SSE) and OCBs but limited research was conducted on examining a relationship between general self-efficacy (GSE) and OCBs. Thus, the present research will focus on GSE. GSE is a more relatively stable trait and more resistant to short-lived influences than SSE (Eden, 1988). Both GSE and SSE share the same set of antecedents: actual mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and managing negative emotions. GSE has been shown to be positively associated with motivation traits and superior performance (Chen et al., 2000; Judge & Bon, 2001).

Besides OCBs, another extra-role behavior that is crucial for organizations is employee voice. GSE has also been shown to be an antecedent of employee voice propensity (Landau, 2009). There has been a recent shift away from employee voice through unions. Moreover, organizations also place their attention on voice management through a formal platform due to a realization that employees possess valuable inputs for the betterment of organizations. Previous studies showed that employee voice has a positive relationship with superior performance and positive managerial perceptions such as trustworthiness and loyalty (Burris, 2012; Whiting et al., 2008; Whiting et al., 2012). On the contrary, studies have shown negative effects of voice that too much voice especially if they are conflicting slows down decision-making processes (Ashford et al., 2009; Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Under competitive markets, it is imperative to pay attention to uncertainties and manage them. In response to environmental uncertainties, it is of vital importance for organizations to adjust their business strategies accordingly. This could lead to some kind of change in the organizations which in turn elicit the perception of uncertainties in employees about their jobs such as

opportunities and lay-offs. While some people such as those with high self-efficacy strive in the face of uncertainties, others experience psychological strains and inferior performance (Bordia et al., 2004). According to uncertainty management theory, uncertainty could be reduced by establishing fairness (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002).

The current research examined the relationship between GSE and OCBs, including the role of employee voice and uncertainty. These components hold great significance in the effective functioning of organizations. A quantitative research was carried out using a sample of 196 employees from the IT industry in Estonia. The research is divided into three parts: theoretical review, methodology and results, and discussion. In the literature review, the author highlighted definitions, relevant conceptual frameworks, and pioneer studies in OCBs, GSE, employee voice and uncertainty. The author also included controversial findings and hypotheses formulation. Under methodology and results, the author laid out the sampling method, measures, data analysis procedures and results of hypotheses testing. In the last section, the author discussed the theoretical explanation of results including non-significant results, limitations, recommendations for future research, and managerial implications.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Organizational citizenship behaviors

1.1.1. Overview of organizational citizenship behaviors

The concept of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) was first coined by Organ and his colleagues (Bateman & Ogan, 1983; Smith et al., 1983). Two major dimensions of OCB were identified by Smith et al. (1983) as altruism and generalized compliance. Organ (1988) defined OCBs as individual discretionary behaviors of employees beyond their formally defined work roles which are not recognized by “the formal reward system”. They contribute positively to the effective functioning of organizations and promote efficiency. He identified five types of OCB as follows:

- 1) Altruism is a discretionary behavior of employee to help colleagues resolve problems related to organizations resulting in improved performance. This demonstrates a selfless concern towards co-workers and the organization itself.
- 2) Conscientiousness is a discretionary behavior above minimum requirements in employee role and tasks in terms of being compliant to organizational policies, regulations, and procedures. This contributes to above-basic performance levels.
- 3) Sportsmanship is a discretionary behavior of willingness to disregard minor inconvenient situations or conditions without complaining to accomplish work results. Studies show that it brings about greater organizational outcomes while maintaining a positive attitude despite challenging work issues (Castro et al., 2004; Mohammad et al., 2011).
- 4) Courtesy is a discretionary behavior of preventing work-related issues that colleagues may encounter. This demonstrates respect, thoughtfulness, and consideration towards colleagues to avoid interpersonal conflict.
- 5) Civic virtue is a discretionary behavior to involve in a company’s political and social activities such as presence at the company’s events and meetings, and staying abreast of current company’s performance and developments.

In its early years between 1983 to 1988, the concept of OCBs had little impact on the field with only 13 publications (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Later on, OCBs and its related constructs, namely prosocial organizational behaviors, organizational spontaneity, voice behavior, contextual performance, and extra-role behavior gained substantial amount of interest with over 650 publications by 2009 (Podsakoff et al., 2009). By 2017, more than 4,900 papers were published (Podsakoff et al., 2018). Besides, citizenship behavior has expanded throughout this period not only to several other business disciplines such as human resource management, marketing, operations research, strategic management, international management, economics, and leadership; but to other fields such as engineering, computer science, information sciences, public administration, political science, social work, sociology, social psychology, military psychology, community psychology, health care services, psychiatry, nursing, ergonomics, ethics, anthropology, sports science, environmental studies, communications, industrial and labor law, criminology and political science (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2018).

Despite the proliferation in publications on OCBs, several researchers independently examined dimensions of the construct which results in the lack of consensus. Another popular conceptualization of OCBs was proposed by Williams & Anderson (1991) who categorized OCBs into two groups according to beneficiaries. The first category is OCBs towards individuals (OCB-I) consisting of altruism and courtesy, and the second category is OCBs towards the organization (OCB-O) consisting of conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. The investigation by Podsakoff and colleagues (2000) found nearly 30 different forms of OCBs, some of which overlap. The study was able to group these various OCB forms into seven dimensions, namely helping behavior (e.g. altruism, courtesy, OCB-I), sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance (e.g. OCB-O), individual initiative (e.g. conscientiousness), civic virtue, and self-development. Nevertheless, the original construct of OCBs introduced by Organ in 1988 is the most relevant and adopted in this study. Importantly, in 1997, he modified his definition of OCBs by adding that OCB is “performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” to establish the existing distinction between task performance and OCBs, provide consistency with the concept of contextual performance and eliminate the challenge in perceiving OCBs as discretionary behaviors where such action is not officially recognized in the formal reward system (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

1.1.2. Antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors

The importance of investigating OCBs lies in the positive effects of which OCBs have on organizations at both the individual level and the organizational level. To predict OCBs, it is critical to study its antecedents.

OCBs can be explained by Social Exchange Theory (SET). According to SET, people reciprocate the benefits that they receive with whom they exchange a social relationship and form separate social exchange relationships with supervisor, colleagues, organizations, customers, and suppliers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The study conducted by Masterson and colleagues (2000) found that perceived organizational support effectively predicts OCB-O, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment; while leader-member exchange effectively predicts OCB towards supervisor, job satisfaction and job performance ratings. Another study found that receiving fair treatment at work enhances the quality of the leader-member relationship and leads employees to reciprocate by exhibiting OCBs (Karriker & Williams, 2009). Moreover, organization trust was found to have a positive relationship with OCBs and mediate the relationship between organizational justice consisting of distributive, procedural and interactional, and OCBs (Ismail, 2015).

Personality traits namely emotional stability, extraversion, and openness are found to be stronger predictors of OCBs than conscientiousness and agreeableness, and the Big Five personality traits are stronger predictors of OCBs than job satisfaction (Chiaburu et al., 2011). In another aspect of personality traits, proactive personality leads to OCB towards supervisor, and this relationship is mediated by job satisfaction (Jawahar & Liu, 2016). Employee attitudes such as commitment, job satisfaction and organizational-based self-esteem also have positive relationships with OCBs (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Davar & Ranju, 2012). When it comes to leadership styles, transformational leadership style has a direct positive effect on OCBs (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Lian & Tui, 2012) whereas transactional leadership style has a direct negative effect on OCBs (Lian & Tui, 2012). A separate study shows the full mediating effects of employee's organizational identification and work engagement on transformational leadership and OCBs (Buil et al., 2019). A research on Chinese employees by Chan and Lai (2017) shows that employee's communication satisfaction and perceived justice are positively associated with OCBs where communication satisfaction mediates a relationship between perceived justice and OCBs.

1.1.3. Consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors

Early researches focused mainly on the antecedents of OCBs. As OCBs have been recognized as a significant factor of effectiveness and success in organizations (Podsakoff et al., 2018), a recent review on OCBs by Podsakoff et al. (2014) indicates that there has been a substantial amount of evidence on the consequences of OCBs at the organizational level in a variety of ways. There are several studies that examined the effects of OCBs on indicators of organizational performance and effectiveness such as productivity, subjective performance ratings, product quantity, and employee turnover. Considering challenges in data collection on financial performance, surprisingly some studies have been conducted measuring operating costs, return on assets, sales, revenue, and profitability. Impacts on the business process were also examined such as product quality, speed, and accuracy in task completion, service response time, and operational innovation. Furthermore, several effects on customers were studied namely perceived service quality, market performance, and customer satisfaction.

Given significant support of OCBs on organizational effectiveness, managers allocate a considerable amount of weight on OCBs in making decisions on performance evaluation (Podsakoff et al., 2018). This brings research interests on OCBs at the individual level such as managerial decisions on reward allocation, performance assessment, and employee withdrawal behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2009). While it is important to study predictors of OCBs, OCBs itself and its positive relationships to measure organizational effectiveness, it is crucial to investigate the potential negative impacts of OCBs in order to gain a complete view of the construct. This is essential for organizations and managers to formulate strategies to produce the best possible outcomes of OCBs. Studies on negative consequences of OCBs include citizenship fatigue, felt stress, role overload, burnout, and work-family conflicts (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Bolino et al., 2015).

1.1.4. Relevance of organizational citizenship behaviors in other cultures

The majority of the early literature on OCBs was exclusively based in the United States, which raised a question if the construct applies to other countries with different cultures, the extent that it would apply to and where the differences lie. The concept of OCBs captures interests in many other countries, and several researches proved the importance and relevance of OCBs in other cultures such as China, Taiwan, Malaysia, Singapore, Japan, Korea, India, Brazil, Nigeria, India, Turkey, Russia, Australia and the European Union (Podsakoff et al., 2018). Reiche et al. (2014)

conducted a study in 18 different countries covering all main cultures globally shows that OCBs have a positive relationship on managerial trustworthy behaviors mediated by managerial affective trust across all countries in the study. This relationship is moderated by the level of collectivism present in the cultures. Another study based on several researches on leader-member exchange and OCBs across 23 countries found a closer connection among job satisfaction, perceived fairness, turnover intention, and leader-member exchange in horizontal-individualistic cultures than in vertical-collectivist cultures (Rockstuhl et al., 2012).

1.2. General Self-Efficacy

1.2.1. Overview of general self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief about their capability to execute courses of action required to succeed in specific situations or achieve specific goals. According to Bandura (1994), individuals with high self-efficacy approach challenging tasks as goals to be accomplished. They have a strong commitment towards their goals and maintain their efforts with a belief that they can exercise control over difficult situations. When facing failures or obstacles, those with a strong sense of efficacy are able to quickly recover their self-efficacy. They also attribute failures to lack of time, effort, knowledge, or skills which they perceive as acquirable. On the other hand, people with low self-efficacy tend to avoid difficult tasks. They focus on their incompetencies and have a low level of commitment. They give up easily and take time to recover when they encounter failures or obstacles.

According to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997), the level of self-efficacy is different in three dimensions. The first dimension is magnitude. It is a degree of task difficulty at which one believes they can perform. The second dimension is strength which is a degree of confidence in accomplishing a task at a specific level of difficulty. The last dimension is generality which is the degree to which magnitude and strength expand to other tasks and situations. Initially, research mainly focused on the first two dimensions, magnitude, and strength, which were conceptualized as self-efficacy that is specific to a particular task (SSE). Later on, the research interest shifted towards the last dimension, generality, which is more trait-like and is conceptualized as GSE. GSE can be defined as people's overall belief in their capabilities to execute a course of actions required to perform a wide variety of tasks (Judge et al., 1998). Various studies have differentiated SSE as a motivational state and GSE as a motivational trait (Chen et al., 2001).

While the constructs of SSE and GSE are identical in the process of believing in one's capabilities, they are distinct in terms of performance (specificity vs generality) (Eden, in press). SSE and GSE share the same set of antecedents but GSE is relatively stable and is significantly more resistant than SSE to short-lived influences (Eden, 1988).

1.2.2. Antecedents of general self-efficacy

People's sense of efficacy can evolve through four principal influential sources (Bandura, 1994). The most powerful means of building a strong belief in one's capabilities is an aggregation of mastery experiences. Achievements feed into assuring self-efficacy, while failures diminish it. The diminishing effect of failures is even stronger when a proper sense of efficacy has not been built. Individuals who have gained successful experiences through only easy tasks expect little effort to accomplish results and concede defeat easily. Difficulties and obstacles serve a meaningful purpose in aiding development of resilience to sustain the effort to succeed. Once they believe in their capabilities to overcome challenges, they push through difficulties and recover quickly from setbacks. It is the persistence during adversity that strengthens them up.

The second influential source is through vicarious experiences. Observing successful experiences of others whom one perceives to be similar in terms of capabilities lifts the belief that they have what it takes to succeed. In the same fashion, observing failures of others in the face of high perseverance raises doubt in their capabilities. The higher the perceived similarity to the models, the more influential the impact it exerts on the observer. Influential models, not only set a social standard to which one can level up, but observing such models can provide new knowledge such as more effective means or skills to accomplish results. Gaining such knowledge can in turn elevate one's self-efficacy.

The third influential source is social persuasion. Individuals who receive a verbal persuasion that they have the abilities to accomplish tasks are more likely to persist their effort to a greater extent compared to those who doubt their capabilities and focus on their shortcomings in the face of challenges. Social persuasion by itself, however, is not effective in influencing self-efficacy. If an individual truly lacks the capabilities but continues the effort through encouragement, eventual failure will reset their self-efficacy. On the other hand, negative persuasion can also serve as a self-fulfilling prophecy. People who have been convinced of their shortcomings tend to avoid engaging in activities that could potentially help them to succeed. This, in turn, confirms their false belief of personal deficiencies. Social persuasion needs to be carried out realistically to be

effective. A successful persuader places people in situations where they are likely to succeed more often than failing.

The last influential source is through managing the perception of negative emotional responses. People measure their capabilities partially through their emotional states and interpret their negative emotional responses such as stress and anxiety as signs of vulnerability to underperforming. Positive emotional reactions boost their self-belief while negative ones raise doubts. The key factor lies in the interpretation of such emotions. Those with high assurance of their capabilities interpret the heightened state as a performance driver. On the contrary, those with low self-efficacy interpret it as a debilitator.

1.2.3. Effects of general self-efficacy

Bandura (1994) explained how self-efficacy produces effects through four human psychological processes: cognitive processes, motivational processes, affective processes and selection processes. Self-efficacy influences people's perception, motivation and performance. Effects of self-efficacy on learning and performance can be broken down in three ways (Bandura, 1982). Firstly, self-efficacy has impacts on goal setting such that individuals with high assurance of their capabilities choose to set high goals and vice versa. Research shows that people learn and perform to the degree consistent with their self-efficacy. Secondly, self-efficacy has impacts on learning and the amount of effort expended. Individuals with high self-efficacy exert more effort in learning new tasks with the belief that they will succeed while those with low self-efficacy doubt their ability to succeed and spend less effort. Thirdly, self-efficacy also has impacts on persistency. A strong sense of efficacy influences individuals to persist their effort in the face of setbacks as they are highly confident in their capabilities to overcome problems. On the contrary, those with low self-efficacy are more likely to give up. In summary, people with stronger self-efficacy set higher challenging goals with higher commitment (Bandura, 1994). Lunenburg (2011) pointed out that SSE influences the process of selecting or deselecting tasks in which they decide to learn as well as the process of goal setting. Evidence from nine large-scale meta-analyses has consistently proven that self-efficacy of employees provides a significant contribution to their level of motivation and performance (Bandura & Locke, 2003). In contrast, a study by Judge et al. (2007) based on a meta-analysis to examine unique contribution of self-efficacy shows that self-efficacy provides a relatively small contribution in predicting job performance compared to other variables such as the Big Five personality, general mental ability and task experience. The study further mentions that self-efficacy predicts performance of low

difficulty level but not of medium or high difficulty level. In addition, self-efficacy predicts task performance only but not job performance.

A study by Chen et al. (2000) found that GSE has a positive relationship with learning goal orientation and motivation traits such as need for achievement and conscientiousness. A meta-analysis by Judge and Bon (2001) shows a positive relationship between GSE and task performance. Similarly, a study by Chen et al. (2004) confirms this finding mediated by motivational states. GSE also has shown a positive association with individual proactive customer service performance (Raub & Liao, 2012). When it comes to moderating effect of GSE on stress management, studies show inconsistent results possibly due to different types of stress exerting opposing effects (Lu et al., 2016). According to Mohammed and Billings (2002), high self-efficacy influences individuals to identify more opportunities and less threats. Moreover, these individuals manage stressful situations more effectively to execute superior performance (Chen et al., 2001). Furthermore, individuals with a strong sense of efficacy are more likely to use approach-oriented methods, instead of avoidance-oriented methods, which bring about positive outcomes. Another study shows a moderating effect of GSE on the relationship between challenge stressors and job satisfaction (Zhang & Lu, 2009). According to DeRue and Morgeson (2007), GSE also moderates the relationship between performance and person-role fit.

More importantly, GSE has a positive effect on SSE such that a confidence in performing tasks in general expands over to the confidence in performing specific tasks (Shelton, 1990; Sherer et al., 1982). Several studies show that SSE has a positive relationship with OCBs (Royle et al., 2005; Cohen & Abedallah, 2015; Kao, 2017). Besides, according to Beauregard (2012), GSE predicts OCBs in men in UK public sector. Using the aforementioned relationships, the first hypothesis of the current research is proposed as follows:

H1: General self-efficacy is positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors

1.3. Employee Voice

1.3.1. Overview of employee voice

In recent years, employee voice has been extensively researched. The interest on employee voice among scholars began since Hirschman's publication in 1970 and developed in a wide range of

disciplines which result in different conceptualizations of employee voice. Due to the diversity of conceptualizations of employee voice, Mowbray et al. (2015) identified differences and similarities of the concepts between the disciplines of Human resource Management/Employment Relations and Organizational Behavior and proposed a consideration to focus on formal and informal voice in future studies to enable a better understanding of employee voice in terms of its nature and how to manage them. According to Hirschman (1970), employee voice was defined as:

any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs, whether through individual or collective petition to the management directly in charge, through appeal to a higher authority with the intention of forcing a change in management, or through various types of actions or protests, including those that are meant to mobilize public opinion. (p. 30)

In 1998, Van Dyne and LePine defined employee voice as “challenging promotive behaviors” which are proactive extra-role behaviors of communicating constructive and innovative ideas for change and improvement even if they are opposed to the opinions of others. The definition of employee voice continues to evolve throughout the years. The definition of employee voice by Morrison (2014) added aspects of prohibitive voice such as raising concerns and problems to Van Dyne and LePine’s (1998) definition.

In the past, the majority of employee voice was communicated as a collective employee voice which means that a group of employees come together to express their work-related concerns and issues to managers through their own communication platform such as the union (Dundon & Gollan, 2007). Alternative terms, such as collective bargain and collective employee voice, have been used interchangeably for the word “union” (Freeman, 1976; Hiltrop, 1985; Boxall & Purcell, 2003). In recent years, a decline of collective employee voice can be observed and it has been replaced by employee voice in an individual manner (Dundon & Gollan, 2007; Wilkinson & Fay, 2011). There are several explanations behind the transition but one main reason is the transformation of voice management by organizations (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Farndale et al., 2011). This transformation was important to effectively drive performance in the presence of growing competitive markets as employees have valuable inputs for the betterment of organizations (Srivastava et al., 2006). Another reason behind this shift was to put an end to

the unions as they reportedly dissociated employees who then switched to non-union forms of employee voice (Lloyd, 2001).

1.3.2. Types of employee voice and silence

From previous studies, employee voice was developed into unitary and multidimensional constructs. Van Dyne et al. (2003) proposed the unitary construct of employee voice with a focus on voice behaviors and also presents a framework of silence. This framework is conceptualized based on employee motives with the notion that silence is not the absence of voice but an act with a motive of withholding information. The construct is based on three employee motives drawn from the existing literature, which are disengagement, self-protection, and consideration for others, producing three types of employee voice and three types of employee silence. Based on disengagement due to feeling of incompetency to effect changes, employees can exhibit acquiescent voice, expressing ideas that go along with the group, and acquiescent silence, withholding ideas. As for self-protective motive due to fear of negative consequences, employees can exhibit defensive voice, expressing problems about other matters or people to shift attention away from themselves, and defensive silence, concealing information about problems. Due to consideration for other co-workers and the organization, employees can exhibit prosocial voice, expressing ideas that benefit others, and prosocial silence, concealing information to protect or benefit co-workers and the organization.

The multidimensional construct of employee voice emphasizes on the intentions of voice. This is extra-role behavior in upward communications which exists in two dimensions proposed by Liang et al. (2012): promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Promotive voice is an expression of employees on ideas and suggestions for improvement of work processes. They are innovative and challenging in nature. They are future-oriented and positive, and focus on better ways of doing things in the future. On the contrary, prohibitive voice is an expression of employees on concern and issues ranging from organizational issues to behaviors of employees. Prohibitive voice is crucial to organizations as it identifies undetected issues to the attention to be resolved, prevents future undesirable consequences or puts an end to existing problematic outcomes. They can be past or future-oriented and can invoke negative emotional reactions from those who are responsible of the matter at hand. Some organizations operating in a fast-paced environment might not have sufficient resources in terms of time and capital to invest in innovation and development of new ideas and processes. Thus, they might benefit more from prohibitive voice

in avoiding negative outcomes. Morrison (2011) also proposed the multidimensional construct using different terms, suggestion-focused voice, and problem-focused voice.

1.3.3. Communication processes of employee voice

Begum and Çakar (2019) categorized communication processes involving employee voice into two groups: “Traditional Employee Voice” (TEV) and “Modern Employee Voice” (MEV). TEV is a one-way communication due to an absence of agreed platform with organizations where employees arrange a communication platform themselves in the form of union. The traditional management style of top-down communication where strategic decisions are centralized and authoritative does not provide a safe space for employees to raise concerns. This results in a high turnover rate as the options for employees are either to tolerate the problems or exit (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2004; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2008). This led to formation of unions as a way to pressurize the management to rectify issues. On the other hand, MEV is a two-way communication as the communication platform is arranged by organizations through different voice mechanisms. Formal and informal employee voice mechanisms are listed out by Mowbray et al. (2015). Formal voice mechanisms include grievance processes, attitude surveys, staff meetings, and suggestion schemes; while informal voice mechanisms include informal discussions and word-of-mouth. Other methods such as one-to-one meetings, email, open door policy, and empowerment by supervisor can be conducted in both ways. Organizations also have a dedicated team, Human Resource (HR), to oversee the well-beings of employees. The emergence of MEV and inequality of voice opportunities in unions are the main reasons behind unions’ dissolution (Callus, 1991; Willman et al., 2007).

Framework of employee voice flow through organization can be described in five phases, as formulated by Begum and Çakar (2019). The first cycle is voice through a formal platform consisting of phase one to four, and the second cycle is voice through an informal platform consisting of phase five. The first phase is motivation that leads to voice behavior. Job satisfaction and positive working environment motivate employees to raise positive voice by suggesting ideas or solutions for improved performance (Stamper et al., 2009). Similarly, job dissatisfaction and negative working environment lead employees to raise negative voice due to stress or strain (Stamper et al., 2009). The second phase is the platform. In organizations with TEV, employees turn to unions as a platform whereas organizations with MEV provide a platform to register voice. The third phase, manager’s response, has an immense influence on employee’s subsequent decision whether to continue their employment or resign. In MEV,

manager or HR will address employee voice through a formal platform. However in TEV, employee voice can be ignored especially if the employee is from a lower rank (Beer, 2009). The forth phase is an outcome. Perceived positive managerial response will lead to continued employment and more extra-role behaviors in the future. On the contrary, if employee perceives a negative response from manager, a conflict might result in employee's decision to resign when a better alternative job opportunity arises. Otherwise, employee will stay in the organization out of necessity and meet minimum job requirements with reduced efficiency. Voice experience in the first cycle contributes to voice behavior in the second cycle. Those with positive voice experience in the first cycle will follow the same pathway until they encounter negative experience. Employees who decide to stay in the organization despite having a negative experience will move on to the fifth phase where negative voice is turned into either angry voice or silence. It is in the fifth phase where employees might resort to use of informal platform to have their voice heard. Employees will also restart their voice behavior from phase one if there is a behavioral change or a replacement in management.

1.3.4. Antecedents of employee voice

In the presense of latent voice opportunity, several factors can influence voice behavior. In terms of individual dispositions, motivating factors are conscientiousness, proactive personality, extraversion, assertiveness, customer orientation, and duty orientation (Crant et al., 2011; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Tangirala et al., 2013). Motivators related to employee attitudes and perceptions includes organizational support, job satisfaction, organizational identification, work-group identification, perceived responsibility for constructive change, psychological empowerment, psychological safety, commitment, personal control, and personal influence (Frazier & Fainshmidt, 2012; Fuller et al., 2006; Liang et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2010; Luchak, 2003; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008a, 2008b, 2012; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). In aspects of managerial behaviors, motivators include transformational leadership, ethical leadership and leader-member exchange (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Trevino, 2010; Edmondson, 2003; Liu et al., 2010).

Apart from above, SSE and GSE have also been shown to predict employee voice (Landau, 2009; Wang et al., 2015). High self-efficacy leads to a higher level of task absorption, involvement and engagement (Llorens et al., 2007; Salanova et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008), due to which it can be deduced that these individuals are more likely to voice out ideas and problems contributing from their highly engaged behaviors and

confidence in their abilities. Moreover, according to Walumbwa et al. (2010), perception of highly self-efficacious individuals in their capabilities to succeed leads them to believe that their manager will be receptive of their inputs. Hence, the second hypothesis of the current research is proposed as follows:

H2: General self-efficacy is positively associated with employee voice.

1.3.5. Consequences of employee voice

Employee voice has positive and negative consequences at both individual level and organizational level. Concerning individual-level consequences, studies show that employee voice has a positive relationship with performance appraisals as well as managerial perception of trustworthy and loyal employees (Burris, 2012; Whiting et al., 2008; Whiting et al., 2012). In contrast, one study found a negative relationship between voice ratings, promotions and pay raise (Siebert et al., 2001). At the organizational level, it has been suggested through limited research that employee voice leads to improved group and organizational performance (Detert et al., 2013; MacKenzie et al., 2011; Nemeth et al., 2001). On the other hand, if employees raise too much of conflicting voice, decision making processes slow down as it is challenging to reach consensus (Ashford et al., 2009; Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

According to Organ (1997), if manager's response to voice is satisfactory, employee will engage in all five types of OCBs. A study found that perceived supervisor listening predicts OCBs (Lloyd et al., 2015). Barron (2015) also stated that employee voice is a vital antecedent of OCBs. Hence, the third hypothesis of the current research is as follows:

H3: Employee voice is positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors

Subsequent deduction from H1, H2 and H3, the fourth hypothesis of the current research is proposed as follows:

H4: Employee voice mediates the relationship between general self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviors

1.4. Uncertainty

1.4.1. Overview of uncertainty

Today's business world is constantly changing at a rapid pace. In response to environmental changes, organizations need to adjust their business strategies to keep up with competitors. Dess and Beard's (1984) publication laid out three dimensions of organizational environmental uncertainties: munificence, dynamism and complexity. Munificence refers to capacity of the environment to support growth. Dynamism is related to environmental stability and limited to difficult-to-predict changes. Lastly, complexity concerns the diversity of organizational activities.

Uncertainties originated from organizational task environment can generate uncertainties perceived among employees. For example, economic volatility (external uncertainty) leads to a merger or acquisition (internal uncertainty), which subsequently leads to employee uncertainty on job insecurity and opportunities (job-related uncertainty) as potential consequences of cultural clash and competitiveness. Milliken (1987) defined uncertainty as "an individual's perceived inability to predict something accurately". It was stated that people perceive uncertainty because they lack information or they are unable to distinguish between important information and irrelevant information (Gifford et al., 1979). Employees may feel uncertainty in terms of cultural, strategic, structural and role changes during a merger, for instance. Schweiger and Denisi (1991) identified 21 causes of employee's perceived uncertainty, some of which are related to cultural and structural changes, opportunities, downsizing programs, introduction of new technology, salary reduction and unemployment. 18 of them are job-related. Uncertainty is an unfavourable condition that calls for resolution from management to minimize it. A variety of uncertainty taxonomies have been developed by scholars in the discipline of organizational behavior. Jackson et al. (1987), and Buono and Bowditch (1989) developed similar taxonomies of uncertainty based on sources: external/environmental uncertainty, internal/organizational uncertainty and individual/job-related uncertainty. However, Milliken (1987) argued that taxonomies based on the experience of decision makers might yield more significance and classified uncertainty as: uncertainty of the state of the environment, uncertainty of the effects of environmental changes and uncertainty of the viable response options to environmental changes. In 2004, Bordia et al. also developed taxonomies for uncertainty based on the types of change that occur in organizations: strategic, structural, and job-related. The aim was to better

understand the connection between the different types of uncertainties as the majority of organizational processes are interdependent to a large degree.

1.4.2. Uncertainty management theory

Organizational behavior scholars have examined how people handle uncertainty psychologically in organizational settings and provided suggestions as to how organizations and managers could help to minimize it. For instance, Ashford and Cummings (1985) examined how people deal with uncertainty at work by seeking information, Kramer (2001) found in his research that trust plays an essential role in decreasing uncertainty in workplace, and Hogg and his colleagues (Hogg, 2000a, b; Hogg & Mullin, 1999) stated that people develop the need to identify with social groups such as hobby clubs, institutions and organizations, as a way to reduce uncertainty.

Some psychological experiments were pointing towards the direction that the higher the level of perceived uncertainty, the stronger the fairness effect (Van den Bos, 2001a, b; Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). While it seems logically difficult to grasp the relationship, these experiments demonstrate that a connection between uncertainty and fairness judgements does exist. Subsequent experiments were then conducted in organizational settings involving policy-making reaction, reaction to behaviors of managers, and job insecurity, and confirm that the phenomenon applies to the real world, indicating a positive effect of uncertainty management on boosting loyalty, trust, performance, employee attitudes and support for organizational policies (Long, 2002; See, 2000; Silla et al., 2010).

According to uncertainty management theory (UMT), people manage uncertainty in their everyday lives by analysing fairness (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). Fair treatment gives people a more positive mindset and more control over their situations because they perceive that favourable outcomes can be achieved, undesired consequences can be mitigated or at least predicted which reduces their anxiety, worries, and doubts. As a result, people who experience a higher degree of uncertainty perceive fairness information to be more salient. Lind and Van den Bos (2002) pointed out that in the face of uncertainty, perceived unfair treatment could motivate employees to engage in controlling, self-protective and competitive behaviors that are harmful to the organization. It is also important to note that in the presence of great uncertainty, even a small or moderate level of unfairness could lead to damaging outcomes. Thus, the focal point of UMT is that organizations and managers can reduce uncertainty and prevent its adverse outcomes by establishing justice.

1.4.3. Consequences of uncertainty

Several studies have shown that uncertainty is linked to negative consequences for the well-being of employees and organizations. Uncertainty has a positive relationship with stress, job insecurity, and turnover intentions; and a negative relationship with job satisfaction, commitment, and trust (Bordia et al., 2004; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). The negative impact of uncertainty on employee well-being stems from the absence of control which uncertainty brings (Bordia et al., 2004; DiFonzo & Bordia, 2002). Greenberger and Strasser (1986) defined control as “an individual’s beliefs, at a given point in time, in his or her ability to effect a change, in a desired direction, on the environment” (p. 165). Since uncertainty or insufficient amount of information about the present or future situations compromises our decision-making processes to exert proper control over specific situations, this inability to control gives rise to negative consequences, for instance, anxiety, psychological strain, learned helplessness and inferior performance (Bordia et al., 2004). Moreover, during organizational restructuring, employees are likely to perceive uncertainty due to the fear of unknown consequences which could result in employee resistant behavior to change and information sharing (Clampitt & Williams, 2005).

Under the adversity of uncertainty, positive consequences of uncertainty can be observed. Kim et al. (2013) found that uncertainty mediates the relationship between organizational change and organizational identification in employees with high permeability. Hogg and his colleagues (Grant & Hogg, 2012; Hogg & Mullin, 1999) assert that uncertainty leads employees to develop a stronger social identity and seek to learn new knowledge and actions which are suitable for the changing environment. Similarly, Eisenberg and Witten (1987) claim that ambiguity arising from uncertain events may drive employees to form strong ties when conflicting ideas arise and motivate them to incorporate flexibility into their policy and procedures.

1.4.4. Moderating role of uncertainty

The moderating role of uncertainty has been widely studied throughout a variety of industries. A study by Aronson et al. (2006) on leader personality and new product development (NPD) found that under a high level of uncertainty, leader personality of openness has a stronger effect on NPD performance, whereas under low level of uncertainty, leader personalities of extraversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability have a stronger indirect effect on NPD performance through teamwork. Uncertainty also moderates a relationship between transformational leadership and supply chain ambidexterity mediated by supply chain organizational learning

(Ojha et al., 2018). In addition, Luthans (2002) stated that employees who are highly resilient may perceive decision-making processes that are highly influenced by organizational politics as learning opportunities for better performance and career advancement.

With respect to OCB, Ehrhart and Naumann (2004) states under uncertainty due to team restructuring, employees are unsure on the degree and the type of OCBs to exhibit due to which they observe team members for cues. As a result, uncertainty moderates the relationship of a group's OCB norms and individual OCB. Another study found that perceived uncertainty is positively associated with OCBs, mediated by psychological capital (Tsai & Chang, 2017). Whether employees behave positively or negatively in the face of uncertainty depends on various factors such as personal traits, organizational culture, and leadership. Individuals with high self-efficacy feel confident that they can manage certain aspects of uncertainty at work by voicing to the supervisor and engaging in activities such as proposing and implementing solutions that will minimize uncertainty. Uncertainty also induces the perception of job insecurity, due to which employees could engage in a higher degree of OCBs to stay competitive. Hence, the fifth and sixth hypothesis of the current research are as follows:

H5: Uncertainty moderates the relationship between general self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviors mediated by employee voice

H6: Uncertainty moderates the relationship between general self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviors

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Sample and Survey Procedure

The research has 196 valid responses. The participants are from the IT industry in Estonia. The data was collected electronically in March 2020 using LimeSurvey. The questionnaires were distributed in English only. All responses were anonymous and voluntary due to the sensitive nature of the survey.

Respondents are composed of 103 males (53%) and 93 females (47%). Concerning the age group, 8% are 20-24 years old, 51% 25-29 years old, 28% 30-34 years old, 9% 35-39 years old, and 5% 40-60 years old.

Work positions were categorized into workers (14%), skilled workers (11%), specialists (37%), senior specialists (12%), and managers (27%).

2.2. Measures

The questionnaire consists of 53 items. These items include target variables, namely OCB, GSE, employee voice behaviors and uncertainty; and demographic variables, namely gender, age, and work positions. Nine existing validated scales were modified and adopted to measure the construct of this research.

The following scales were used:

- 1) Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale (Podsakoff et al., 1990), divided into five subscales:
 - a. Conscientiousness scale
 - b. Sportsmanship scale
 - c. Civic Virtue scale

- d. Courtesy scale
- e. Altruism scale
- 2) New General Self-Efficacy scale (Chen et al., 2001)
- 3) Uncertainty scale (Colquitt et al., 2012)
- 4) Employee Voice scale (Dyne & LePine, 1998)
- 5) Likelihood to Voice scale (Saunders et al., 1992)

In the Employee Voice scale and the Likelihood to Voice scale, seven-point Likert-type scale ratings were used ranging 1 = never, 2 = almost never, 3 = rarely, 4 = occasionally, 5 = sometimes, 6 = often, and 7 = every time. In the rest of the scales, five-point Likert-type scale ratings were used ranging 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = agree, 3 = somewhat agree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

To measure OCBs, the OCB scale with 24 items developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) was used and it is based on Organ's (1988) OCB construct. Examples of the items include "I willingly help fellow professionals when they have work-related problems", "I always keep myself abreast of changes in the organisation" and "I always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers".

For the measurement of GSE, the new GSE (NGSE) scale developed by Chen et al. (2001) was used. The authors showed that the NGSE scale has a greater construct validity than the scale developed by Sherer et al. (1982) and it is also significantly shorter with only eight items. Examples of the items include "I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself", "When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them" and "In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me".

Uncertainty was measured using the scale with four items developed by Colquitt et al. (2012). The Uncertainty scale measures general employee perception of uncertainty in organizations according to uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002). Examples of the items include "There is a lot of uncertainty at work right now" and "I cannot predict how things will go at work".

As for employee voice, it was measured using the Employee Voice scale with six items developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). The authors of the Employee Voice scale defined voice as "challenging promotive behavior" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). The Employee Voice

scale is single-dimensional, measuring only promotive voice (PV) behaviors. Examples of the items include “I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect our work group”, “I speak up and encourage others to get involved in issues that affect our work group” and “I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life (in our work group)”.

Due to the multi-dimensionality of employee voice flow in modern organizations, the Likelihood to Voice scale with eight items developed by Saunders et al. (1992) was included to add three more dimensions to the voice measurement, namely organizational and co-worker related types of voice and negative voice type. Using factor analysis, the Likelihood to Voice scale was divided into two subscales, namely Likelihood to Voice concerning organizational issues (five items) and Likelihood to Voice concerning co-worker related issues (three items). As item “How likely would you be to speak to your immediate supervisor about a better way to do your job?” in the former subscale measures positive voice while other items in the same subscale measure negative voice, coupled with the fact that this item correlates with the latter subscale and the Employee Voice scale, it was discarded. As a result, the Likelihood to Voice scale was divided into two subscales: Negative Employee Voice concerning organizational issues (NEVO) with four items and Negative Employee Voice concerning co-worker related issues (NEVC) with three items. Examples of the items include “How likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about a concern over how another worker was doing his or her job?”, “If you knew, a co-worker was not honest, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?” and “When something at work irritates/bothers you, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?”.

All scales except two subscales of the OCB Scale have the Cronbach’s alphas above 0.70 indicating internal consistency (Table 1). The OCB Scale (24 items) consists of five subscales. Conscientiousness scale (five items), Courtesy scale (five items) and Altruism scale (five items) have Cronbach’s alphas above 0.70. Sportsmanship scale (five items) originally had Cronbach’s alpha of 0.62. As a result, item “I never find fault with what the organization is doing” which has a low inter-item correlation of 0.096 was discarded to improve the Cronbach’s alpha to be 0.67. Civic Virtue scale (4 items) has Cronbach’s alpha of 0.66. As a low value of Cronbach’s alpha is influenced by a low number of items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011) coupled with the fact that several methodologists consider a minimum acceptable alpha to be 0.65 (“Using and Interpreting Cronbach’s Alpha”, 2015; Cripps, 2017:109), the revised Sportsmanship scale and the Civic Virtue scale with Cronbach’s alphas of 0.67 and 0.66 respectively are considered to be reliable.

Table 1. Cronbach's alphas of validated scales

Validated Scale	Cronbach's alpha
General self-efficacy	0.908
Voice	
• Promotive voice	0.892
• NEVO	0.834
• NEVC	0.794
OBCs	
• Courtesy	0.820
• Altruism	0.820
• Sportsmanship	0.670
• Conscientiousness	0.731
• Civic virtue	0.664
Uncertainty	0.890

Source: author's calculations

2.3. Data Analysis Procedure

Statistical analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics with confidence intervals of 95%. Factor analysis was first carried out to examine latent variables, followed by reliability analysis to obtain Cronbach's alpha to test internal consistency. Mean, median, and standard deviation were also calculated for target variables. Independent Samples T-Test was conducted using gender as independent variables and target variables as dependent variables. One-Way ANOVA Post Hoc tests were also conducted using age groups and work positions as independent variables against target variables as dependent variables. Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted using GSE, promotive voice, NEVO, NEVC, and uncertainty as independent variables to predict OCBs as dependent variables. Mediation analyses, moderated mediation analyses, and moderation analyses were conducted on PROCESS macro (version 3.4.1) by Andrew F. Hayes using a 5000 sample bootstrapping method to test indirect effects between GSE and OCBs with different voice scales as a mediator and uncertainty as a moderator.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Descriptive Statistics of the Scales

Respondents scored the highest in general self-efficacy (mean = 4.07) and the lowest in uncertainty (mean = 3.16). In the OCB scale, respondents had high indicators in exhibiting OCB (mean = 3.96) with the highest indicator in terms of courtesy, followed by altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Regarding voicing to manager, respondents had a little indication for promotive voice (mean = 5.29), NEVO (mean = 4.92), and NEVC (mean = 4.51) where 5 is “sometimes” in 7-point Likert scales. The results also show that respondents were more likely to voice to managers concerning organizational issues than co-worker related issues.

Table 2. Statistics of target variables

Measurement	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
General self-efficacy	4.0722	4.1250	0.63555
Voice			
• Promotive voice	5.2985	5.5000	0.97142
• NEVO	4.9171	5.0000	1.18828
• NEVC	4.5119	4.6667	1.29447
OBCs			
• Courtesy	4.3439	4.4000	0.65376
• Altruism	4.1480	4.2000	0.68264
• Sportsmanship	3.9235	4.0000	0.70293
• Conscientiousness	3.8898	4.0000	0.67793
• Civic virtue	3.6722	3.7500	0.72324
Uncertainty	3.1645	3.0000	1.03312

Source: author’s calculations

To find out the statistically significant differences between groups, dispersion analyses were run. For gender group, t-test was used. The results reveal that women scored significantly higher than men in NEVC (accordingly $m=4.83$ and $m=4.22$, $t = 11.635$, $p = 0.001$), conscientiousness (accordingly $m=4.02$ and $m=3.77$, $t = 6.42$, $p = 0.012$), and courtesy (accordingly $m= 4.51$ and

$m = 4.19$, $t = 12.02$, $p = 0.001$) whereas there is no significant difference between men and women in other scales (Appendix 2).

To find out the statistically significant differences between the results in age groups and in position groups, One-Way ANOVA Post Hoc test with Tamhane method was run. The results reveal that there were no statistically significant differences between age groups (Appendix 3). But there were significant differences between work positions for promotive voice ($F = 5.131$, $p = 0.001$), NEVC ($F = 2.531$, $p = 0.042$), and civic virtue ($F = 3.659$, $p = 0.007$) indicating that individuals having higher ranks at work tend to exhibit more of such behaviors, whereas there is no significant difference in other scales (Appendix 4).

3.2. Multiple Linear Regression Analyses

In predicting overall OCB (average of all subscales) based on GSE, a significant regression equation was found ($F(1,192) = 145.338$, $p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.431. The model predicted that the overall OCB is equal to $1.679 + (0.575)GSE$. Uncertainty, NEVC or NEVO by itself does not significantly predict the overall OCB. Promotive voice behavior alone significantly predicts the overall OCB with model ($F(1,194) = 38.016$, $p < .000$) with an $R^2 = 0.164$). When GSE is paired with promotive voice behavior, the result showed a significant regression equation ($F(2,191) = 76.224$, $p < .000$) with an $R^2 = 0.444$) where the overall OCB is equal to $1.499 + (0.524)GSE + (0.073)PV$. GSE alone accounted for the most variance.

When predicting for voice behaviors, the results showed that GSE has a significant predicting power on promotive voice and NEVO. For promotive voice, the model ($F(1, 192) = 49.984$, $p < .000$ with an $R^2 = 0.207$) is equal to $2.499 + 0.297 (GSE)$, while for NEVO, the model ($F(1, 192) = 12.391$, $p = .001$ with an $R^2 = 0.061$) is equal to $3.426 + 0.132(GSE)$. However, GSE did not significantly predict NEVC.

In the subsequent analyses, GSE, promotive voice (PV), and uncertainty as independent variables were used to predict all five subscales of OCBs and the results are as follows:

- 1) In predicting conscientiousness: Two significant models were found: the first model ($F(1, 192) = 60.706, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.240 equals $1.793 + 0.517(\text{GSE})$ and the second model ($F(1, 194) = 17.785, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.084 equals $2.818 + 0.202(\text{PV})$.

Significant and meaningful is only the first model, which indicates, that general self-efficacy is the only independent variable which explains the change of 24.0% in OCB's conscientiousness variable ($\beta=0.48, t=7.587 p < 0.001$).

- 2) In predicting sportsmanship: Three significant models were found: the first model ($F(1, 192) = 98.098, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.338 equals $1.331 + 0.637(\text{GSE})$, the second model ($F(1, 194) = 17.384, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.082 equals $2.824 + 0.208(\text{PV})$, and the third model ($F(2, 192) = 51.745, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.351 equals $1.599 + 0.632(\text{GSE}) - 0.077(\text{uncertainty})$.

Significant and meaningful is the third model, which indicates, that general self-efficacy has a strong positive impact on sportsmanship behaviour ($\beta=0.509, t=7.48 p < 0.001$) and uncertainty is in weak negative relationship with sportsmanship behaviour ($\beta= -0.194, t= - 3.190 p = 0.002$). The third model explains 31.5% of the change in OCB's sportsmanship behaviour.

- 3) In predicting courtesy: Two significant models were found: the first model ($F(1, 192) = 86.639, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.311 equals $2.137 + 0.545(\text{GSE})$ and the second model ($F(1, 194) = 21.746, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.101 equals $3.212 + 0.214(\text{PV})$.

Significant and meaningful is only the first model, which indicates, that general self-efficacy is the only independent variable which has a significant and positive impact ($\beta=0.559, t=9,308 p < 0.001$) on courtesy behavior. The model explains 31.1% of the change in OCB's courtesy behavior. Uncertainty and promotive voice were nonsignificantly related to the proposed model.

- 4) In predicting altruism: One significant model was found: the model ($F(1, 192) = 105.916, p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.356 equals $1.621 + 0.624(\text{GSE})$.

The final model contains only general self-efficacy which has positive influence on altruistic behaviour ($\beta=0.596$, $t=10.292$ $p < 0.001$). Uncertainty and promotive voice were nonsignificantly related to the proposed model.

- 5) In predicting civic virtue: Three significant models were found: the first model ($F(1, 192) = 61.203$, $p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.242 equals $1.388 + 0.562(\text{GSE})$, the second model ($F(1, 194) = 41.644$, $p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.177 equals $2.014 + 0.313(\text{PV})$, and the third model ($F(2, 191) = 39.156$, $p < .000$) with an R^2 of 0.291 equals $0.930 + 0.433(\text{GSE}) + 0.185(\text{PV})$.

Significant and meaningful is the third model, which indicates, that general self efficacy ($\beta=0.249$, $t=3.635$ $p < 0.001$) and promotive voice ($\beta=0.379$, $t=5.535$ $p < 0.001$) have moderate positive impact on civic virtue behaviour. The third model explains 29,1% of the change in OCB's civic virtue behaviour.

These regress analyses provide insights as to which models account for the most variance of dependent variables for mediation and moderation analyses. GSE shows a significant predicting power while promotive voice behavior shows a weaker prediction on the overall OCB and all subscales of OCBs. Uncertainty, NEVO, and NEVC do not show predicting power on the overall OCB.

3.3. Mediation Analyses

In all mediation analyses, GSE was used as an independent variable, voice scales (Employee Voice scale, NEVO scale, and NEVC scale) as mediators, uncertainty as a co-variate, and OCB scales as dependent variables. GSE was positively associated with all OCBs in all of the analyses ($0.5123 < B < 0.6317$, $p < 0.001$).

The analyses show the mediating effect of promotive employee voice on the relationship between GSE and civic virtue, $B = 0.1289$, $CI [0.0579, 0.2316]$. In addition, the direct effect of GSE on civic virtue becomes weaker ($B = 0.4329$, $p < 0.001$) when controlling for promotive voice behavior, suggesting a partial mediation.

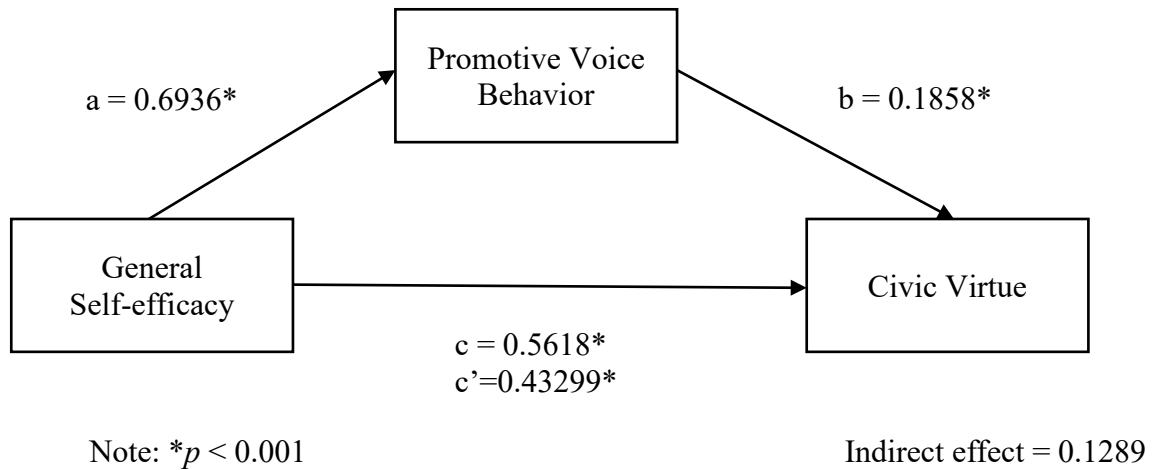


Figure 1: General self-efficacy increases civic virtue partially mediated by promotive voice behaviour
 Source: author's calculations

However, the analyses show no mediation effect in the rest of the analyses. The results show a positive relationship between GSE and NEVO ($B = 0.4469, p < .000$) but no positive relationship between NEVO and OCBs ($-0.00125 < B < 0.0517, p > 0.05$), suggesting no mediation effect of NEVO. In addition, the study shows no positive relationship between GSE and NEVC ($p > 0.05$), and between NEVC and OCBs ($p > 0.05$), suggesting no mediation effect of NEVC. In conclusion, GSE has a direct effect on conscientiousness, altruism, sportmanship, and courtesy ($p < .000$).

3.4. Moderated Mediation Analyses

The analyses show the non-significant conditional indirect effect of GSE on civic virtue by promotive voice behavior for uncertainty using process models 7, 8, 14, 15, and 58 ($p > 0.05$). This result indicates that the positive relationship between GSE and civic virtue mediated by promotive voice behavior does not change under various degrees of perceived uncertainty.

3.5. Moderation Analyses

The analyses show significant conditional direct effect results of GSE on civic virtue by uncertainty as a moderator ($B = 0.1375, CI [0.0650, 0.2413]$). This result indicates that the

effects of GSE on civic virtue increase as levels of uncertainty increase. On the other hand, uncertainty does not moderate the direct effect of GSE on other OCB types.

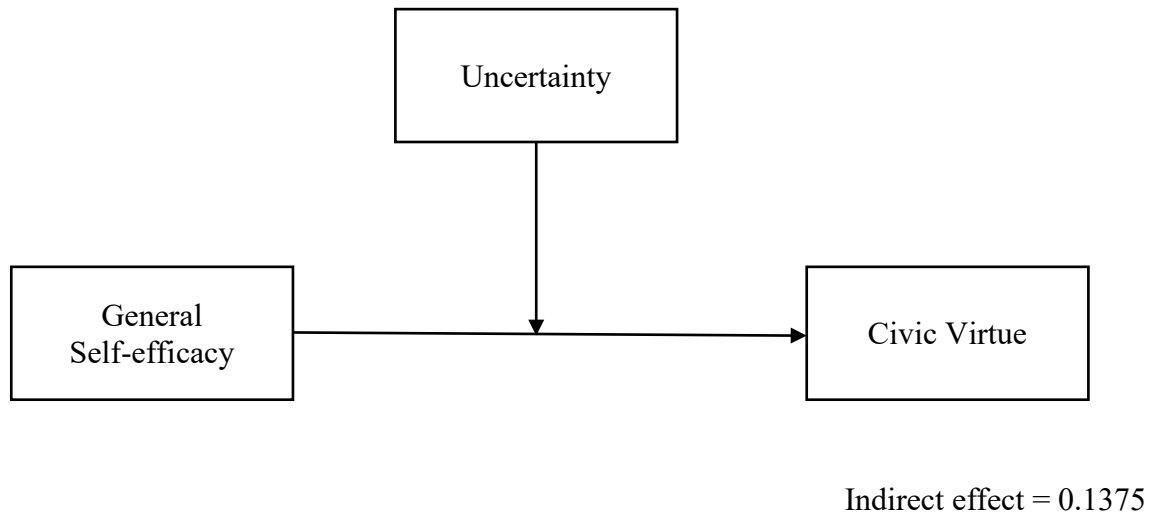


Figure 2: General self-efficacy increases civic virtue moderated by uncertainty
Source: author's calculations

3.6. Findings and Hypotheses Testing

Multiple linear regression analyses revealed significant predictors for different types of OCBs which laid out guidance on subsequent mediation and moderation analyses. In the prediction of the overall OCB, GSE showed the strongest predicting power which aligns with Hypothesis 1 that GSE is positively associated with OCBs. Promotive voice also showed a significant but weaker predicting power which adds to the probability of Hypothesis 3 that employee voice is positively associated with OCBs. When predicting for employee voice, GSE showed significant predicting power for promotive voice and NEVO but not NEVC which partially supports Hypothesis 2 that GSE is positively associated with employee voice. Combining GSE with promotive voice showed a stronger predicting power on the overall OCB which encourages Hypothesis 4 that employee voice mediates the relationship between GSE and OCBs. On the contrary, uncertainty showed no significant predicting power on OCBs both individually and in combination with other variables which weakened hypothesis 5 that uncertainty moderates the relationship between GSE and OCBs mediated by employee voice as well as hypothesis 6 that uncertainty moderates the relationship between GSE and OCBs.

When the analyses were conducted on the subscales of OCBs, the results maintained significant predicting powers of GSE and promotive voice for all five types of OCB which align with Hypotheses 1 and 3. Hypothesis 4, however, was supported for predicting only one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue. Similarly, Hypothesis 6 was encouraged for predicting solely one type of OCBs, sportsmanship. No results aligned with Hypothesis 5.

Moving forward to the main analyses of the research, the findings yielded slightly different outcomes. The mediation analyses revealed only one significant model which is a partial mediation between GSE and one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue, via promotive voice. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 stating that GSE is positively associated with OCBs is accepted as the hypothesis is true for all types of OCBs: conscientiousness, altruism, sportmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. For Hypothesis 2 stating that GSE is positively associated with employee voice, it is partially accepted as the results showed a positive relationship between GSE with promotive voice and NEVO but not NEVC. Concerning Hypothesis 3 stating that employee voice is positively associated with OCBs, it is also partially accepted because only promotive voice is shown to have a positive relationship with one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue. Similarly, for Hypothesis 4 stating that employee voice mediates the relationship between GSE and OCBs, it is partially accepted as only promotive voice mediates the relationship between GSE and one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue.

To explore the effect of uncertainty, moderated mediation analysis was conducted. The result did not yield any significance. Hence, Hypothesis 5 stating that uncertainty moderates the relationship between GSE and OCBs mediated by employee voice is rejected. Subsequently, moderation analyses were carried out and yielded one significant result. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 stating that uncertainty moderates the relationship between GSE and OCBs is partially accepted as uncertainty moderates the relationship between GSE and one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue.

The findings established that general self-efficacy has an indirect effect on civic virtue by promotive voice and when the degree of uncertainty is high, the effect of general self-efficacy on civic virtue will increase. In the following section, theoretical explanation of the results are discussed.

4. DISCUSSION

The research examined the relationship between GSE, employee voice, uncertainty, and OCBs. In recent decades, OCBs are becoming increasingly expected in organizations to increase the overall efficacy and effective functioning in the face of competitive markets. With the emergence of strategic human resource management, managers are more receptive to employee voice and upward communication is highly valued. In fast-paced and rapidly changing environments, uncertainty is one of the most common psychological states experienced among employees. In order for employees to cope with the state of uncertainty and to effectively execute a series of employee voice behaviors and citizenship behaviors, a high level of self-confidence in their capabilities is needed. Among all the previously studied factors that contribute to OCBs, the literature review provides logical explanations of the effect of GSE, employee voice, and uncertainty on OCBs, though previous findings are limited. The aim of this research is to establish the effect of GSE, employee voice, and uncertainty on different types of OCB.

4.1. Theoretical Explanation of Results

The current paper supports the assumption that GSE is positively associated with OCBs. Previous studies examining the relationship between GSE and OCBs are limited. Nevertheless, there are several studies that showed a positive relationship between specific self-efficacy and OCBs, and some scholars have stated that GSE has a positive effect on specific self-efficacy. This led to the assumption that GSE has a positive relationship with OCBs. On the contrary, our findings contradict the research by Beauregard (2012) which found a significant positive relationship between GSE and OCBs in men only, not women, but our paper found a significant relationship in both genders. Our findings also align with the construct of GSE and OCBs such that in order for employees to exhibit citizenship behaviors, they need to have a high level of assurance in their capabilities to successfully execute such behaviors.

A study conducted by Landau (2009) found that GSE is positively associated with propensity of promotive voice. Another research by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) found that voice propensity is a strong predictor of actual voice behaviors. The present research confirms the connection between the previous studies that GSE has a positive association with promotive voice. Another dimension of employee voice was examined by McNab and Worthley (2008), and their finding showed that GSE is positively related to whistleblowing. The Likelihood to Voice scale measures voice behaviors which are similar to the definition of whistleblowing “a form of lateral control used by co-workers within an organization” used by McNab and Worthley (2008). Thus, the current research supports their finding when whistleblowing concerns organizational issues, but not issues involving behaviors of co-workers. The non-significant findings for the association between GSE and whistleblowing concerning co-workers can be explained by the sensitive nature of whistleblowing on co-workers and possible negative outcomes such as revengeful threats and social isolation (Chiu, 2003). According to Liang et al. (2012), whistleblowing may trigger negative emotional responses from respective co-workers. If whistleblowing is voiced in confidence to the manager, trust in manager for being discrete and not exposing the whistleblower plays a crucial role in employee’s decision to voice.

Employee voice is a type of citizenship behaviors. Barron (2015) claimed that employee voice is an antecedent of OCBs. To the knowledge of the author, there is no finding to support this claim which motivated the author to examine the connection between employee voice and OCBs. The findings showed a positive relationship between promotive voice and one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue. In connection, the findings also showed that employee voice mediated only the relationship between GSE and civic virtue. Williams and Anderson (1991) categorized OCBs into OCBs towards individuals (OCB-I) consisting of altruism and courtesy; and OCBs towards organizations (OCB-O) consisting of conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Robinson and Morrison (1995) argued that civic virtue compared to other types of OCB-O is a proactive behavior with the highest impact on the organizational effectiveness. According to Graham (1986) and Organ (1988), civic virtue has two aspects: collecting information and exercising influence. Exercising influence is oriented towards making changes that involve voicing out opinions and suggesting modifications to policies and procedures. This explains the relationship between promotive voice behaviors and civic virtue, as well as the mediating role of promotive voice on the relationship between GSE and civic virtue. On the contrary, altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship do not require upward communication to manager, which explains the non-significant findings.

The assumption, that under a high level of uncertainty, the effect of GSE on OCBs will increase, is partially supported by the current research because the assumption is true for only one dimension of OCBs, civic virtue. Environmental uncertainties have worrisome effects on the organizational performance. Thus, a greater degree of uncertainty gives employees who engage in civic virtue incentives to be more involved in the organizational performance. This is to minimize perceived uncertainty and increase control by seeking information. In addition, the non-significant finding in the moderating role of uncertainty on the mediated relationship between GSE and civic virtue by promotive voice suggests that employees engage in civic virtue, in the aspect of passive involvement in the well-being of the organization rather than actively suggesting improvements. On the other hand, perceived employee uncertainty could motivate competitive behaviors due to which employees might not exhibit more OCB-I under uncertainty. Previous studies also found that uncertainty has negative consequences on the psychological well-being of employees which affects performance. Theoretically, we could observe less of OCB-I, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship in the presence of uncertainty but our findings showed non-significant results. This could be due to the opposing effects of job insecurity which motivates employees to maintain similar levels of OCBs.

4.2. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Previous studies focus mainly on specific self-efficacy and show a positive relationship between specific self-efficacy and OCBs. As some studies state that GSE has a spillover effect on specific self-efficacy (Shelton, 1990; Sherer et al., 1982), we made a deduction that this association is true using our finding that GSE is positively related to OCBs. However, despite its logical reasoning and indirect evidence, it is merely a casual connection. Pieces of explicit evidence are needed in future research to confirm the relationship between specific self-efficacy and GSE.

In the present study, we found little indication of voice behaviors. In organizations, there are several factors that contribute to employee's decision to express their voice such as the presence of the idea to be communicated, felt responsibility in expressing the idea, analysis that benefits outweigh potential negative consequences, and efficacy that others will be receptive of their idea (Landau, 2009). Besides, the framework of employee voice developed by Begum and Çakar (2019) includes voice dimensions in terms of the presence of employee voice and its types namely positive and negative voice, the platform provided by organizations, and receptiveness of

managers. Low indication of voice behaviors could be due to fear of undesirable consequences, absence of a formal platform, or manager's unwillingness to listen. Thus, the aforementioned factors and dimensions should be included in improving the existing employee voice scale to account for its multidimensional nature for further testing. Furthermore, among the three different voice scales measured in this study, negative employee voice (similar to whistleblowing) concerning co-workers has the lowest score. This demonstrates that employees voice differently for matters regarding organizational issues and co-worker behaviors. Further studies are needed to understand the mechanism of employee voice on co-worker behaviors separately.

The uncertainty measured in the present research is broad and general. Organizations face numerous environmental uncertainties such as economic volatility and internal uncertainties such as organization restructuring. Different types of uncertainty could generate perceived employee uncertainty at various degrees and diverse subsequent reactions from employees. The literature review shows types of uncertainty as well as positive and negative consequences of uncertainty. The use of measurement scale that takes into account different dimensions of uncertainty could potentially yield different outcomes and is needed for further testing.

In Estonia, foreign migration is on the rise, including in the IT sector and the top five countries of expats are Ukraine, Russia, Belarus, India, and Nigeria ("More people are joining Estonia - both virtually and physically", 2019). In the present study, we did not collect information on country of origin, due to which the proportion of locals and foreigners who took the questionnaire was not known. Reiche et al. (2014) and Rockstuhl et al. (2012) found the moderating role of culture on employee attitudes and OCBs. Thus, including culture in future studies could provide some useful insights. The present study also shows a low indication of perceived uncertainty. As the information on employers and growth stages of organizations was not collected, we can only assume that the majority of respondents worked in relatively mature organizations.

4.3. Managerial Implications

GSE is relatively stable and is considered to be a motivational trait. The current research also shows a positive impact of GSE on OCBs and employee voice. This has an important

implication during the hiring process. Organizations should consider candidates with high levels of GSE among other factors as they are ambitious, motivated, and resilient. More importantly, they also engage in extra-role behaviors that promote organizational efficiency and effective functioning. Managers could ask a series of questions to measure GSE during the interview or a test for GSE can be administered. Concerning training programs, individuals with a strong sense of efficacy will put more effort into learning and provide a greater return in the form of performance. Thus, if a training budget is limited, selecting those high in GSE will yield more benefits to the team. In addition, in the process of assigning projects, managers should assign more demanding projects to employees with a high level of GSE as they tend to set higher goals for themselves with a greater degree of commitment and motivation. They also express their suggestions for improvement and speak up about problems. As a result, they produce superior outcomes for the projects.

Low indication of voice behaviors should prompt managers to investigate if this is simply due to an absence of idea or if there are other blockages in the voice mechanism which result in employee withholding information. Employee silence is easily misunderstood as being disengaged. When assessing employee behaviors, visible actions should not be the only focus. Managers should pay attention to nonverbal cues such as eye contact, facial expression, gazing, and posture as well as speech cues such as tone and pace. They provide useful information in judging employee motives. Managers should also encourage employee voice by arranging regular one-to-one meetings where they can communicate with managers in confidence.

Under a higher degree of uncertainty, employees tend to seek for information and turn to fairness cues. Studies have shown the adverse psychological effects of uncertainty on employees. Managers could minimize uncertainty by communicating the issues to employees. Open communication will shed light on untrue rumours and the fear of unknown consequences such as lay-offs and change in benefits which will relieve some psychological strains on employees. Communication should not be a one-way process. Employees should be able to participate in the change communication and implementation as this will give them a greater sense of control over the consequences on their jobs. Participation is shown to be positively associated with perceived fairness (Bordia et al., 2004). Uncertainty management will help to reduce negative outcomes which could be harmful to the organizations.

CONCLUSION

Globalization has brought many opportunities as well as threats to organizations. As competitiveness rises, organizational effectiveness and efficiency are among the prime focuses to be discussed in the strategic management. Organizational citizenship behaviors have been proven to have a positive effect on organizational effective functioning. This brings values to investigating factors that contribute to organizational citizenship behaviors. The current research investigated the relationship between general self-efficacy, employee voice, uncertainty, and organizational citizenship behaviors. The results show that general self-efficacy has a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors, promotive voice, and prohibitive voice concerning organizational issues. However, no significant relationship was found between general self-efficacy and prohibitive voice concerning co-work behaviors. It was also found that promotive voice is positively associated with one dimension of organizational citizenship behaviors, civic virtue. Further analyses revealed a mediating role of promotive voice and a moderating role of uncertainty on the relationship between general self-efficacy and civic virtue.

Our findings establish a positive relationship between general self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviors and suggest a possible spillover effect of general self-efficacy on specific self-efficacy. The current research also confirms a positive association between general self-efficacy and promotive voice and prohibitive voice concerning organizational issues. On the other hand, prohibitive voice concerning co-worker behaviors show no significant relationship with general self-efficacy. This could be due to fear of negative consequences such as revengeful threats and social isolation. Moreover, it can be inferred that a promotive voice mediates the relationship between general self-efficacy and civic virtue because civic virtue requires an aspect of exercising influence by speaking up ideas. Given that environmental uncertainties can have adverse effects on the performance of organizations, employees are motivated to be passively involved in the well-being of the organizations as a way to seek information to minimize the uncertainty that employees perceive. The negative psychological effects of uncertainty on employee performance coupled with the opposing effects of job insecurity could explain why employees maintain similar levels of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship.

To the knowledge of the author, a claim on the spillover effect of general self-efficacy and specific self-efficacy has not been tested. Thus, the author proposes that an examination into the relationship between general self-efficacy and specific self-efficacy, especially on the spillover effect. Regarding measurement of employee voice, the author proposes that future research should consider the multidimensional nature of employee voice and include those dimensions in employee voice scale. In addition, the author proposes that employee voice concerning co-worker behaviors should be studied separately as employees exercise their voice differently for issues related to organizations and co-workers. In the research, we measured uncertainty in a broad sense. Thus, the author proposes a development of uncertainty measurement scale that accounts for various types of uncertainty.

Based on the findings, the author recommends managers to consider analyzing general self-efficacy in candidates during hiring process. Managers could assess this trait by asking a series of questions or administering a test for general self-efficacy. In assessing employee behaviors concerning voice, the author also recommends that managers look for nonverbal cues such as facial expression and speech cues such as tone, because these provide information regarding the motive behind absence of voice. Regular one-to-one meetings are also recommended to encourage voice behaviors. Under uncertainty, the author recommends an open and participatory communication between managers and employees to avoid adverse outcomes of uncertainty.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Questionnaire Items

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 1990)

Please read all the statements below that describe organisational citizenship behaviour and assess to which extent you agree with these "I" statements. Please use the five-point scale:

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

1. I willingly help fellow professionals when they have work related problems.
2. I always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers
3. I always keep myself abreast of changes in the organisation.
4. I am not the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing
5. I obey organisational rules even when no one is watching.
6. I help orient new people even though it is not required.
7. I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs.
8. I read and I keep up with organisation announcements, memos and so on.
9. I never find fault with what the organisation is doing.
10. I don't take extra or long breaks while on duty.
11. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.
12. I don't abuse the rights of others.
13. I attend meetings that aren't compulsory but help my department anyway.
14. I always focus on the positive side rather than the negative side.
15. My attendance at work is above the norm.
16. I help others who have heavy workloads
17. I consider the impact of my actions on coworkers.
18. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image.
19. I do not tend to make "Mountains out of molehills".
20. I am one of the most conscientious employees.
21. I help others who have been absent.

22. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.
23. I do not consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
24. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.

General Self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001)

Please read all the statements below that describe self-efficacy and assess to which extent you agree with these "I" statements. Please use the five-point scale:

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Employee Voice

The following questions are related to verbal behavior that is improvement oriented and directed to a specific target who holds power inside the organization in question. Please read the questions and decide how likely you are to behave like that (seven-point scale: 1=never, 2=almost never, 3=rarely, 4=occasionally, 5=sometimes, 6=often, 7=every time).

Likelihood to Voice sacle (Saunders et al., 1992)

1. How likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about a concern over how another worker was doing his or her job?
2. How likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about a better way to do your job?
3. If you knew, a co-worker was not honest, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?
4. If you had a gripe about something to do with your job, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?

5. When something at work irritates/bothers you, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?
6. If something about the policies and procedures of the organisation bothers you, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?
7. If an employee from another department did something to irritate or bother you, how likely would you speak to your immediate supervisor about it?
8. If your immediate supervisor did something that bothers you, how likely would you speak to him or her about it?

Employee Voice scale (Dyne & LePine, 1998)

9. I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect our work group.
10. I speak up and encourage others to get involved in issues that affect our work group.
11. I communicate my opinions about work issues to others even if my opinion is different and others in our work group disagree with me.
12. I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to our work group.
13. I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life (in our work group).
14. I speak up with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Perceived uncertainty (Colquitt et al., 2012)

Please read all the statements below that describe perceived uncertainty at work and assess to which extent you agree with these statements. Please use the five-point scale:

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

1. There is a lot of uncertainty at work right now.
2. Many things seem unsettled at work currently.
3. If I think about work, I feel a lot of uncertainty.
4. I cannot predict how things will go at work.

Appendix 2. Descriptive Statistical Results for Gender Groups

Gender		Uncertainty	Employee voice			General self-efficacy	Organizational citizenship behaviour				
			Promotive voice	NEVO	NEVC		Altruism	Courtesy	Civic virtue	Sportsmanship	Conscientiousness
Female	Mean	3,051	5,425	4,973	4,835	4,129	4,217	4,510	3,726	3,768	4,017
	Std. Dev.	0,998	0,921	1,153	1,215	0,577	0,547	0,498	0,654	0,612	0,592
	Median	3,000	5,500	5,200	5,000	4,112	4,200	4,600	3,750	3,800	4,000
	N	93	93	93	93	92	93	93	93	93	93
Male	Mean	3,267	5,184	4,867	4,220	4,021	4,085	4,194	3,624	3,647	3,775
	Std. Dev.	1,058	1,006	1,223	1,300	0,683	0,783	0,739	0,780	0,654	0,731
	Median	3,250	5,500	5,200	4,333	3,978	4,200	4,200	3,750	3,800	3,800
	N	103	103	103	103	102	103	103	103	103	103
t		2,147	3,021	,801	11,635	1,350	1,829	12,026	,972	1,783	6,425
p		,144	,084	,372	,001	,247	,178	,001	,325	,183	,012
Total	Mean	3,165	5,298	4,917	4,512	4,072	4,148	4,344	3,672	3,923	3,890
	Std. Dev.	1,033	0,971	1,188	1,294	0,636	0,683	0,654	0,723	0,636	0,678
	Median	3,000	5,500	5,000	4,667	4,125	4,200	4,400	3,750	4,000	4,000
	N	196	196	196	196	194	196	196	196	196	196

Appendix 3. Descriptive Statistical Results for Age Groups

Age		Uncertainty	Employee voice			General self-efficacy	Organizational citizenship behaviour				
			Promotive voice	NEVO	NEVC		Altruism	Courtesy	Civic virtue	Sportsmanship	Conscientiousness
up to 24 years	Mean	3,233	5,167	5,400	4,667	4,080	4,027	4,213	3,733	3,453	3,667
	Std. Dev.	0,848	1,293	1,009	1,024	0,859	0,982	0,933	0,928	0,880	0,847
	Median	3,000	5,333	5,600	4,667	3,500	4,200	4,400	4,000	3,800	3,400
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
25 - 29 years	Mean	3,228	5,323	4,904	4,597	4,120	4,130	4,372	3,715	3,724	3,876
	Std. Dev.	1,008	0,939	1,024	1,207	0,482	0,637	0,590	0,668	0,602	0,645
	Median	3,250	5,500	5,000	4,667	3,625	4,200	4,400	3,750	3,800	3,800
	N	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99
30 - 34 years	Mean	2,972	5,312	4,944	4,241	4,090	4,178	4,363	3,634	3,733	3,900
	Std. Dev.	1,040	0,894	1,212	1,409	0,442	0,600	0,570	0,715	0,568	0,646
	Median	2,875	5,333	5,200	4,333	3,500	4,200	4,400	3,750	3,700	4,000
	N	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53
35 - 39 years	Mean	3,191	5,088	5,165	4,412	4,022	4,388	4,341	3,574	3,800	4,082
	Std. Dev.	1,273	1,153	1,299	1,561	0,543	0,545	0,628	0,789	0,667	0,697
	Median	3,000	5,167	5,600	4,667	3,500	4,600	4,600	3,750	4,000	4,200
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
40 - 60 years	Mean	3,425	5,533	5,680	5,067	3,763	3,940	4,160	3,525	3,560	3,980
	Std. Dev.	1,106	0,942	1,088	1,303	1,018	1,139	1,177	0,946	0,842	0,882
	Median	3,250	5,750	6,200	5,000	3,500	4,300	4,500	3,625	3,500	3,900
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Total	Mean	3,165	5,298	4,917	4,512	4,072	4,148	4,344	3,672	3,923	3,890
	Std. Dev.	1,033	0,971	1,188	1,294	0,636	0,683	0,654	0,723	0,636	0,678
	Median	3,000	5,500	5,000	4,667	4,125	4,200	4,400	3,750	4,000	4,000
	N	196	196	196	196	194	196	196	196	196	196

Appendix 4. Descriptive Statistical Results for Work Position Groups

Position		Uncertainty	Employee voice			General self-efficacy	Organizational citizenship behaviour				
			Promotive voice	NEVO	NEVC		Altruism	Courtesy	Civic virtue	Sportsmanship	Conscientiousness
manager	Mean	3,183	5,692	5,188	4,891	4,159	4,315	4,388	3,894	3,708	4,012
	Std. Dev.	1,120	1,025	1,089	1,141	0,536	0,598	0,548	0,617	0,705	0,676
	Median	3,000	6,000	5,200	4,667	3,625	4,500	4,400	4,000	3,800	4,000
	N	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
senior specialist	Mean	3,359	5,239	5,209	4,739	3,949	3,930	4,130	3,359	3,678	3,600
	Std. Dev.	1,177	0,907	1,076	1,363	0,680	0,873	0,920	0,718	0,584	0,652
	Median	3,500	5,333	5,400	5,000	3,688	4,000	4,200	3,500	3,600	3,800
	N	23	23	23	23	22	23	23	23	23	23
skilled worker	Mean	3,119	4,865	4,867	4,032	3,863	3,876	4,305	3,345	3,648	3,667
	Std. Dev.	1,169	0,905	1,051	1,278	0,530	0,786	0,659	0,668	0,695	0,716
	Median	3,250	4,833	5,000	4,000	3,375	4,000	4,200	3,500	3,600	3,800
	N	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
specialist	Mean	3,065	5,331	4,967	4,416	4,096	4,184	4,389	3,719	3,679	3,940
	Std. Dev.	0,904	0,851	1,136	1,365	0,536	0,610	0,592	0,731	0,631	0,645
	Median	3,000	5,500	5,200	4,333	3,500	4,200	4,600	3,750	3,800	4,000
	N	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73
worker	Mean	3,269	4,840	4,763	4,222	4,067	4,126	4,348	3,639	3,830	3,941
	Std. Dev.	0,990	0,999	1,183	1,180	0,523	0,693	0,737	0,798	0,519	0,699
	Median	3,250	5,000	4,800	4,333	3,500	4,200	4,400	3,500	3,800	3,800
	N	27	27	27	27	26	27	27	27	27	27
F		,450	5,131	,960	2,531	,924	2,315	,776	3,659	,338	2,231
p		,773	,001	,431	,042	,451	,059	,542	,007	,852	,067
Total	Mean	3,165	5,298	4,917	4,512	4,072	4,148	4,344	3,672	3,923	3,890
	Std. Dev.	1,033	0,971	1,188	1,294	0,636	0,683	0,654	0,723	0,636	0,678
	Median	3,000	5,500	5,000	4,667	4,125	4,200	4,400	3,750	4,000	4,000
	N	196	196	196	196	194	196	196	196	196	196

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