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ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

**THE MODERATOR ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY IN THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL SILENCE AND EMPLOYEE
PRODUCTIVITY: A RESEARCH ON FINANCE SECTOR EMPLOYEES**

MASTER'S THESIS

Hadjer MELIANI

Department Of Business

Business Administration Program

JANUARY, 2023

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APPROVAL PAGE

DECLARATION

I hereby declare with respect that the study **"**The Moderator Role of Psychological Safety In The Relationship Between Organizational Silence and Employee Productivity: A Research on Finance Sector Employees", which I submitted as a Master thesis, is written without any assistance in violation of scientific ethics and traditions in all the processes from the Project phase to the conclusion of the thesis and that the works I have benefited are from those shown in the Bibliography. (06/January /2023)

Hadjer MELIANI

FOREWORD

Thank you God for guidance ,

The completion of this thesis could have not been possible without the expertise and knowledge of my supervisor Dr. Emine Kambur.

I would also like to thank Istanbul Aydin University for offering me the opportunity to complete my postgraduate studies at such a reputable institution.

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Last but not least, I would like to thank my mother and my sister and my friends Noor and ela I want to give this success to the soul of my husband who was always dreaming about this day .

January 2023   Hadjer MELIANI

THE MODERATOR ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGİCAL SAFETY IN THE RELATİONSHİP BETWEEN ORGANİZATİONAL SİLENCE AND EMPLOYEE PRODUCTİVİTY: A RESEARCH ON FİNANCE SECTOR EMPLOYEES

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to examine the effect of Organizational Stress and Organizational Silence on Employees Efficiency with moderating effect of Psychological Safety. This research was conducted with the intention of determining whether or not there is a link between Organizational Stress and Organizational Silence experienced by workers in the financial and non-financial sectors. Qualitative approach was used to collect data on organizational silence, organizational silence and its effects on employees, with a focus on companies (financial or non-financial sector) personnel who, due to the nature of their jobs, are always under pressure to cope with stress. Primary data was collected mostly via an online survey that respondents took at their own leisure. Email and Whatsapp were used to distribute the survey to the general public.

According to the findings, organizational silence had a positive relation with employee efficiency, meaning that when silence occurred, it had a positive effect on the performance of employees, whereas organizational stress had a negative effect on employee efficiency, meaning that reducing stress led to an increase in performance; therefore, organizational silence and employee efficiency are inversely proportional to one another. Finally, businesses may alter or eliminate stress by restructuring occupations to lessen under appreciation, workplace victimization/bullying, unclear role/errands, work-home interface, fear of joblessness, exposure to traumatic situations at work, and economic instability.

Keywords: Organizational Stress, Organizational Silence, Employees Efficiency, Psychological Safety.

ÖRGÜTSEL SESSİZLİK VE ÇALIŞAN VERİMLİLİĞİ İLİŞKİSİNDE PSİKOLOJİK GÜVENLİĞİN DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLÜ: FİNANS SEKTÖRÜ ÇALIŞANLARI ÜZERİNE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın amacı, Örgütsel Stres ve Örgütsel Sessizliğin, Psikolojik Güvenliğin düzenleyici etkisi ile Çalışan Verimliliği üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir. Bu araştırma, finansal ve finansal olmayan sektörlerde çalışanların yaşadıkları Örgütsel Stres ile Örgütsel Sessizlik arasında bir bağlantı olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Örgütsel sessizlik, örgütsel sessizlik ve bunun çalışanlar üzerindeki etkileri hakkında veri toplamak için niteliksel bir yaklaşım kullanıldı ve işlerinin doğası gereği her zaman zorluklarla başa çıkma baskısı altında olan şirket (finansal veya finansal olmayan sektör) personeline odaklanıldı. stres. Birincil veriler, çoğunlukla yanıtlayanların boş zamanlarında yaptıkları çevrimiçi bir anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Anketi halka dağıtmak için e-posta ve Whatsapp kullanıldı.

Bulgulara göre, örgütsel sessizliğin çalışan verimliliği ile pozitif bir ilişkisi olduğu, yani sessizlik oluştuğunda çalışanların performansı üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduğu, örgütsel stresin ise çalışan verimliliği üzerinde negatif bir etkiye sahip olduğu, yani stresin azaltılmasının performans artışı; bu nedenle örgütsel sessizlik ve çalışan verimliliği birbiriyle ters orantılıdır. Son olarak, işletmeler, takdir edilmemeyi, işyeri mağduriyetini/zorbalığı, belirsiz rolü/işleri, iş-ev arayüzünü, işsizlik korkusunu, işyerinde travmatik durumlara maruz kalmayı ve ekonomik istikrarsızlığı azaltmak için meslekleri yeniden yapılandırarak stresi değiştirebilir veya ortadan kaldırabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Stres, Örgütsel Sessizlik, Çalışan Verimliliği, Psikolojik Güvenlik.

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I.   INTRODUCTION

In today's fast-paced, highly competitive business climate, it's more important than ever to foster a culture of constant learning, adaptation, and innovation in order to thrive. Individuals and teams participate in actions like raising their voices, working together, and trying new things, and these actions have ripple effects across the business (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Nembhard, & Tucker, 2011). Employees are therefore expected to become more engaged in their work, prompting organisational academics to look for the conditions in which workers are more likely to take personal risks and dedicate themselves fully to their jobs (Kahn, 1990). Psychological safety, or the perception that one's workplace is a secure environment in which to take personal risks with one's coworkers, has emerged as a critical component in promoting learning, organisational transformation, and employee engagement (Edmondson, 1999; Kahn, 1990).

Although Schein and Bennis (1965) were the ones who first brought the concept of psychological safety to the field of organisational sciences, it has only been in the most recent years that empirical study has blossomed in this area. According to the findings of this body of study, psychological safety enables workers "to feel secure at work in order to develop, learn, contribute, and perform well in a fast changing environment" (Edmondson & Lei, 2014, p. 23). Employees are being required more and more often by organisations to work together across disciplinary lines and geographic borders in order to accomplish corporate objectives. To achieve this goal, it is necessary for workers to demonstrate learning behaviour by actively participating in discussions, collaborating with one another, and attempting new approaches. Although there are several advantages to learning for the company, the individual is the one who benefits most from it. This is because learning is one of the components of personal growth and development. Because learning needs workers to freely participate in activities, it poses possible hazards for the person, including the possibility of being perceived as disruptive, uneducated, or even incompetent. Learning involves potential risks for the individual. Employees are often dissuaded

from actively participating in the learning process as a result of the dangers, which in turn impedes both individual and organisational development.

Avoiding situations with unknown outcomes may seem like the easier option, but it may backfire if you don't weigh the pros and disadvantages. This is especially true in businesses that are particularly vulnerable to risk, where being honest about mistakes might avert disaster. Evidence suggests that psychological safety is crucial for learning to occur in the workplace. As a result, there is a growing corpus of study aiming to comprehend the causes and effects of psychological safety.

The pioneering work on organisational transformation that was done by two MIT professors named Edgar Schein and Warren Bennis served as the inspiration for the psychological safety concept that they developed. The study presented by the academics suggested that psychological safety provides employees with the tools to feel secure and assists them in adjusting their behaviour in accordance with the changing organisational problems. Nearly a third of a century and a half later, in his expansion of the research on the topic, Dr. Schein argued that psychological safety assists in overcoming the anxiety associated with learning and assists employees in shifting their focus away from a mindset of self-preservation and more toward the accomplishment of communal goals. Following that, works by Kahn and Edmondson served to rekindle interest in this subject area. In the twenty-first century, the workplace is a fast-paced, dynamic, and highly exciting atmosphere that provides a plethora of rewards and possibilities to those who choose to work there. Those that work under constant strain, such as bank tellers and medical professionals, might experience increased levels of stress as a result of the constantly changing demands of the workplace. Whilst pressure may be beneficial in terms of improving performance, when it gets excessive, it can result in stress, which can have severe implications for the individual (Al-khasawneh and Futa, 2013).

Access to knowledge about an organization's potentials or challenges may help it achieve greater levels of prosperity, transformation, and stability; yet, withholding essential information can have the reverse effect. When a company chooses to remain silent, it has the potential to negatively impact or positively impact its bottom line. Employee performance is the combined result of effort, ability, and perception of tasks (Raphael et al., 2016). This is critical for the achievement of organizational goals and the success of the company. Employee performance is

influenced by a variety of variables, with working environment characteristics standing out as the most important predictors of performance. It is the most important multi-character component meant to achieve results, and it has a significant relationship with the organization's planned goals (Manafzadeh, Ghaderi, Moradi, Taheri, & Amirhasani, 2018). Employees benefit from a positive office environment because it ensures their well-being and allows them to devote all of their energy to their jobs, which may result in improved performance (Shaukat, & Khurshid, 2021).

Organizational silence is a term used to describe the phenomenon that occurs when members of an organization refuse to share their opinions on organizational affairs for a variety of reasons (Sadeghi, & Razavi, 2020). It was suggested by Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008) that organizational silence is likely to be a complicated phenomenon. It may include a variety of topics, such as the efficacy and Performance of the workgroup, individual issues at work, and worry over conduct that is deemed to be unethical or unethical. The phenomena may affect a wide range of persons working in an organization, including specialists, mid-level employees, heads, and top-level executives, among others. Additionally, it may serve a variety of goals and be motivated by a variety of factors, such as a desire to retain the existing situation or a fear of being misunderstood (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). As a result, organizational silence may be a result of a mix of variables, including causes, sectors, individuals, levels, and kinds of organizations. Gender and age (Hatipoglu and Inelmen, 2018), the function of an employee in the company and culture (Oyerinde, 2020) are all believed to have a part in organizational silence, according to some researchers (Hess & Jepsen, 2009).

The raising of overall levels of production should always be one of the primary focuses of any firm. Because of this, it is highly vital to identify the elements that contribute to a decline in production. The lack of communication inside a company is one of the aspects that contributes to a decline in production. It's a relatively recent phenomena, but workers are increasingly keeping their thoughts to themselves on the issues facing the firm. The absence of conversation inside a company is a symptom of illness, and managers are obligated to discover the root cause of the problem and eliminate it before it has the opportunity to bring about the failure and eventual death of the business. Silence in the workplace refers to the fact

that workers do not pay attention to concerns such as unlawful and unethical acts, legal standards, and defeating individuals, and they do not respond to these issues in any way (Bordbar et al, 2019).

The concept of organizational silence is a social phenomenon that reveals itself at the organizational level. Decision-making procedures, management processes, the culture of the business and workers' views of the elements that impact the behavior of silence all play a role in this phenomenon (Dimitris & Vakola, 2007: 2). An organization's silence may be influenced by the following: In addition to managerial factors (such as manager's negative reaction to feedback and their own comments, a climate of distrust among employees due to the manager's coercive leadership style), organizational factors (including job inertia and lack of upward feedback procedures), social factors (such as compliance with coworkers and an emphasis on group responsibility rather than individual accountability), and other factors must all be considered (Mokhtari, 2016). There is quiet in the workplace when workers choose not to voice their ideas, but the form of that silence is contingent on the employees' reasons for being silent. Sometimes, silence is the result of an employee's submission to any circumstances, the fear and presence of conservative habits, or the development of an opportunity for others to share their thoughts. Other times, silence is the result of the chance for others to reveal their opinions (Tulubas and Celep, 2012).

Organizational stress has also emerged as a global phenomenon that manifests itself in a variety of ways in every workplace throughout the globe. As the degree of responsibility rises, workers are required to push themselves even more vigorously in order to reach the higher standards of job performance that are expected of them. In today's work environment, employees usually work longer hours (Mark and Smith, 2012). Stress is a difficult and dynamic notion to grasp. An excessive amount of stress has a negative impact on the overall functioning of the company. Because of this, in order to do the task efficiently, the organization or management must successfully regulate the degree of stress. If the company wants to reach this goal, it must first identify and quantify all of the elements that drive stress in the organization (Kamalakumati and Ponnampalam, 2013).

As a result of its detrimental influence on both the person and the organization's performance, organizational stress is of critical relevance and has

emerged as a major concern for businesses. However, when an organization's most valuable asset is under pressure, a number of undesirable outcomes occur, including increased absenteeism, low Performance and motivation, as well as legal financial damages (which, in many cases, affect the employee's work behavior and lead him or her to engage in counter-productive work behaviors). Individuals and organizations alike are affected by stress in the workplace (e.g. increased turnover rates). Individuals might be influenced on several levels, including the physiological, emotional, and behavioral levels, as well as in their leisure and family activities. Stress has varying effects on people and organizations depending on how long they have been exposed to it. Stress responses might manifest themselves quickly (short-term reactions) or may take a longer period of time to manifest themselves (long-term reactions) (long-term reactions). Stress has an impact on the cardiovascular system when it comes to physiological reactions. Individuals who work in so-called high-strain positions (i.e., jobs with high demands and little job control) had greater blood pressure than those who work in other sorts of employment, according to research (Schwartz, Pickering, & Landsbergis, 1996).

A. Problem Statement

A worrying rise in the harmful impacts of corporate silence and stress on staff Performance is being seen in many firms, particularly banks, throughout the globe (Henry and Evans 2008). To achieve increased Performance, most firms end up burdening people with an excessive amount of work in order to fulfil deadlines, which may have negative psychological and physical consequences for the employees. If this happens, it may have an adverse effect on the goals of those who organise (Mark and Smith, 2012). The empirical link between corporate silence and stress, as well as staff Performance, has yet to be addressed. According to the findings of Zeb, Saeed, & Rehman (2015), there is a statistically significant negative association between organizational silence and stress and Employee Performance in the banking industry.

Thirumakkal (2015), and Dar, Akmal, Naseem, & din Khan, (2011) discovered that organizational stress has a detrimental impact on Employee Performance. Sun and Chiou (2011) revealed that Employee Performance is adversely affected by organizational stress. Although Aasia, Hadia, and Sabita

(2014) discovered that organisational stress does not affect employees' job performance, Bewell, Yakubu, Owotunse, and Ojih (2014) found that the concept of work-induced stress and workers' effectiveness and Performance are mainly inseparable. Musyoka, Ogutu, and Awino (2012) found that under some conditions, stress may improve performance. According to a study done by, organisational stress is positively associated to employee performance (Zafar, Ali, Hameed, Ilyas, & Younas, 2015). Silence in the workplace may range from passively accepting authority to actively defending one's position to a quiet, harmonious hush. Discovering the causes of silence and the connections it has with other organizational phenomena is crucial since it might have unintended repercussions if ignored. These empirical data demonstrate that the relationship between corporate silence and Employee Performance has not yet been fully addressed. Furthermore, little study has been conducted on the impact of stress on staff Performance in the Turkish banking business, which explains the necessity for this investigation. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the link between organizational silence and organizational stress on the Performance of company employees.

B. Objectives of the research

There are several elements that influence Employee Performance, and two of the most crucial are organizational silence and stress. Organizational silence and stress is a notion that is rising in developing nations in this century. Even while individuals are well equipped to cope with short-term pressure exposure (which may frequently be beneficial), they will have more difficulties dealing with extended intense pressure exposure (which can be detrimental). Individuals may respond differently under pressure in various settings and at different times of their professional careers, which is an important aspect to grasp and acknowledge.

The preceding suggests that doing this kind of study would be valuable in order to uncover specific facts regarding organizational silence and the impact it has on employees, particularly bank workers who, by the nature of their professions, must manage and deal with stress on a daily basis.

The following are the precise aims of the research:

- To investigate the effect of organizational silence on psychological safety of

employees

- To investigate the effect of organizational silence on employees Performance

- To investigate the effect of organizational stress on psychological safety of employees

- To investigate the effect of organizational stress on employees Performance

C. Research Questions

- What is impact of organizational silence on psychological safety of employees?

- How organizational silence influence the employee's Performance?

- What is impact of organizational stress on psychological safety of employees?

- How organizational stress influence the employee's Performance?

D. Significance of the research

Every employer wants to see its employees perform at their highest levels of Performance. This can only be accomplished if the personnel perform at their highest levels and bring the most value to the business. However, one critical component that has been identified as having a significant influence on employee performance in both study and practice is organizational silence and stress. As a consequence, employers and/or managers will not be able to ignore the negative effect of organizational quiet and tension on the attainment of organizational goals and objectives. The purpose of this research is to determine how organizational silence and stress impact Turkish bank Employee Performance as well as their psychological well-being. Using this information, it may be able to adapt or modify these aspects in order to enhance the performance of both the workers and of the company as a whole. The results of this research will be put to use primarily in the creation and execution of the most effective techniques for dealing with organizational silence and stress in the Turkish Banking Sector. However, it is believed that the core concepts may be applied to any organization that wishes to grow or enhance the Performance of its staff.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Organizational Stress

Organizational stress may be characterized as an emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and physiological reaction to the aggressive and damaging components of work, work environment, and organizational climate that occurs in a work setting or inside an organization (Cooper et al., 2001). It is a psychological syndrome characterized by feelings of powerlessness while attempting to do activities. Instead, work-related stress is a response individuals experience when they are confronted with expectations or unique tasks that are beyond their capabilities or understanding. Organizational stress may be classified into many categories (Swaminathan, & Rajkumar, 2010).

The following are the primary forms of organizational stress that may be considered:

i. Eustress is a kind of stress that is beneficial because it prepares people's minds and bodies for whatever is going to happen in the future. Eustress may help to increase one's energy, inventiveness, and competitive spirit, as well as provide the necessary strength for attaining one's goals.

ii. For a brief amount of time, anything might cause distress if it interferes with one's daily routine. The stress it causes has a detrimental influence on people's lives, and it may be divided into two categories: acute stress and chronic stress.

iii. An instance of acute stress happens when a change occurs in one of the normal tasks that a person does. Despite the fact that it seems to be a highly acute sort of stress, it disappears silence fast. Headaches, hypertension, a quick heartbeat, and gastrointestinal troubles are just a few of the symptoms associated with that stressor.

iv. Chronic stress is the most severe sort of stress, and it may be very detrimental

to a person's physical and mental well-being. It happens when anything disrupts the normal pattern over an extended length of time, which may range from weeks to years. This kind of stress manifests itself when a person has a string of professional or personal setbacks.

According to Rabie and Malek (2020), organisational stress occurs when an individual's capacity to deal with the demands of his or her work is outweighed by those demands. It's a well-known phenomena that shows itself in different ways and has varying effects on employees depending on the circumstances. Jamshed, & Majeed, (2018) suggested, "The workplace is potentially an important source of stress for bankers because of the amount of time they spent in their respective banks." Moreover, stress often decreases their performance. "Therefore, occupation of individuals could be a major source of stress in the given circumstances. When individuals face stress due to various conditions of their occupation and fail to cope with stress, it results in burnout". Employees in the banking industry experience stress due to a number of factors, including but not limited to: lack of administrative help from a supervisor (management), work overload & time pressure, employment danger, bad relationships with customers & colleagues, and an unbalanced work-family life.

Materson (1980) was contributed the same "Causes of stress are many like workload, cuts in staff, change at work, long work hours, shift work, lack of supervision, inadequate training, inappropriate working conditions, too heavy responsibilities and poor relations with colleagues." Loghan and Ganster (2005) came to the same conclusion, stating that "large and various disciplines literature highlights a lot of crucial elements such as work environment, management support, and workload in deciding how stressful the job might be and its influence on employee physical and mental health." According to Bowing Harvey (2001), the relationship between an individual and their environment is what causes stress. This contact results in emotional strain, which in turn affects a person's physical and mental health.

To put it simply, stresses are anything that upsets a person's normal state of homeostasis. As these experts have pointed out, there is a hefty price to pay for excessive stress in people, businesses, and communities. Anxiety disorders and stress-related ailments are real concerns for many workers. Each impacted worker

may lose approximately working days per year to stress, anxiety, or despair. According to Ehsan, & Ali (2019), stress was formerly conceptualised in terms of extraneous, mostly physical influences. It was later hypothesised that how a person interprets and reacts to stimuli or events is crucial in deciding how they would feel about them and whether or not they will be stressful. These writers went even farther to say that studies generally agree that internal and environmental variables both contribute to stress. They defined stress as an individual's reaction to situations when their physical or mental resources are being stretched to the breaking point, whether those resources originate from inside or outside.

1. **Types of Stress**

According to Taylor (1995), there are four main categories of stress.

Acute Stress: Most people are familiar with and have experienced acute stress. This is tension when the person has a clear idea of what is causing him anxiety. Because the after-effects of stress are transitory, the body often recovers after the stressful situation ends and life returns to normal. In most cases, the body can recover quickly from the effects of short-term stress (Shalev, 2002).

Traumatic Stress: Those who have experienced a traumatic incident, such as a natural catastrophe, sexual assault, a near-death accident, or active conflict, may develop post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Many people start to feel better after experiencing the first shock and emotional consequences of a traumatic event here. On the other hand, some individuals never fully recover from the trauma's psychological and physiological after-effects. No normalcy is restored, and neither is the body's homeostasis. Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is the name given to this ailment. Nightmares or flashbacks to the traumatic event, avoiding locations and items linked with the event, being hyperaware of their surroundings for indicators of danger, and feeling irritable and tense are all symptoms of posttraumatic stress (Bremner, 2022).

Chronic stress: She defines chronic stress as a state characterised by persistent mental and emotional strain over long periods of time. The cumulative effects of this pressure on a person over time are devastating. It wears on a person physically and emotionally until they break down or die (Baum, Garofalo, & Yali, 1999).

Episodic acute stress: A person suffering from episodic acute stress may feel as if they are living in a state of constant turmoil and unpredictability, with no relief in sight. They are often late, busy, and stressed out from trying to juggle too many things at once. Some people, especially those with "TYPE A" personalities, are more likely to experience this kind of stress than others. It's possible that someone who suffers from bouts of severe stress on the regular might never acknowledge to or even recognise this trait in themselves. It's possible that he's committed to a stressful way of living. People who suffer from episodes of acute stress may get so used to it that they refuse to make any changes to their way of life until they are incapacitated by a debilitating medical manifestation (Shields, Sazma, McCullough, & Yonelinas, 2017).

2. Sources of Stress

According to Matthews G. (2001), there are four primary causes from which one might suffer from the effects of stress.

The Environment: The environment might present you with a barrage of acute and conflicting demands that need you to adapt. The elements, noise, congestion, pollution, traffic, a dangerous environment, bad housing, and criminal activity are all examples of environmental stresses.

Social Stressors: The demands of the many social roles that we play, such as parent, husband, caregiver, and employee, may each bring their own unique set of pressures and anxieties into our lives. As a result, we may feel several sources of stress. A few examples of social stresses are impending deadlines, financial difficulties, job interviews, presentations, arguments, demand for your time and attention, the death of a loved one, divorce, and sharing parental responsibilities with another person.

Physiological: Physiological stressors are any scenario or set of circumstances that have an effect on our body. Physiological stress may be caused by both internal and external factors. Some examples of physiological stresses include the fast development that occurs throughout puberty, menopause, disease, getting older, giving birth, accidents, insufficient exercise, improper diet, and sleep disruptions.

Thoughts: Your brain interprets and sees things as stressful, tough, painful,

or enjoyable. These interpretations and perceptions come from the world around you. There are some circumstances in life that may be stressful, but the way in which we think about those circumstances can decide whether or not they are a problem.

3. Factors that Contribute to Organizational Stress

a. Work overload

Rehman et al (2010) Physical symptoms are often the result of high levels of pressures, such as an overwhelming amount of work or a lack of clarity on the expectations of a boss. Another contributor to stress is when an individual is unable to meet the requirements of both their work and their supervisor. (Schnall, 2017) An excessive amount of labour and expectations that are at odds with one another are two examples of working circumstances. Forty percent of employees have said that the stress level at their workplace is really high. Eighty percent of employees in the United States experience stress related to their jobs. Previous research conducted by Bacharach and colleagues (1991) identified a variety of elements that are connected with occupational stress. For instance, work overload describes the situation in which the workers' job expectations are higher than the resources or time that is available to accomplish the obligations that have been allocated.

According to Manzoor et al. (2011), there are a number of elements that induce stress in workers when they are on the job. Some of these factors include employment timings, salary, bonus, workload, and peer attitude. According to Badar (2011), the most significant elements that lead to increased levels of stress in workers include increased levels of workload, technical challenges, greater objectives, pay and remuneration, consequences of choices, management and peer support behaviour, and longer time frames. According to Dar et al. (2011), they hypothesise that as one's designation rises, one's level of stress also rises. They identify the following as factors that contribute to stress in employees: a sense of being undervalued, a difficult balance between work and home life, apprehension about being laid off, traumatic events that occur at work, and

According to Khattak et al. (2011), workers in Pakistan feel stress as a result of their workload, technical issues at work, long working hours, inadequate income, lack of time for family, and job anxieties at home. A number of factors, including role conflicts, increased job intensity, and problematic relationships with coworkers,

may contribute to stress in the workplace. According to Ismail and Hong (2011), the most significant contributors to the development of stress are bad working circumstances. Women who work in the health care industry and are put in stressful situations owing to erratic and lengthy working hours, role pressure, and an excessive amount of labour are at risk of developing nervousness and anxiety (Tsaur and Tang, 2012). The primary drivers to organisational stress, which in turn leads to employee unhappiness, are inflexible work hours, an excessive amount of labour, a dangerous job, and bad relations with coworkers.

b. Role Conflict

Role conflict, as defined by Rosen et al. (2010), occurs when an employee faces demands and expectations from their superiors or peers that are at odds with one another. Nwadiani with whom one must deal have different expectations for how one should conduct themselves. Three primary types of role conflict are distinguished by Luthans (2002). An example is when a person's identity and their function in society are at odds with one another. Take the case of a new production team being led by a production worker and union member. It may go against this new team leader's nature to be a stern taskmaster, as demanded by the head of production, but this is what the boss expects.

In interpersonal role conflict type two, people have different ideas about how they should carry out their assigned roles. Finally, inter-role conflict arises when the demands of two or more roles that must be performed simultaneously are incompatible. Consider the frequent tension between one's career and personal responsibilities. The increased pressure from one's peers, superiors, and subordinates is what gives birth to the position, according to Zhao et al. (2010). This kind of pressure is more common in positions that demand conceptual thinking and judgement yet have inadequate or vague job descriptions.

c. Role Ambiguity

According to Karasek Jr. (1979) and Beehr and Bhagat (1985), role ambiguity is another aspect that contributes to organisational stress. This is because it happens when the expectations, goals, and duties for workers have not been properly specified. According to Malik (2011), workers experience a shift in their ability to accurately forecast whether their supervisor would see the completion of their

responsibilities as a "success" or a "failure." Occupational stress may also be brought on by factors such as long hours, an excessive workload, time constraints, activities that are tough or complicated, a lack of breaks, a lack of variation, and bad working environments (such as inadequate space, temperature, or lighting).

B. Organizational silence

Organizations are made up of individuals who get together in order to achieve a common goal. It is widely acknowledged that the most significant aspect in determining the performance of a business is the quality of its people resources (Bastug et al., 2016). When it comes to managing an organization in a healthy manner, it is important to consider human variables and habits. The behaviors demonstrated by workers of a company are very important for the running of that business. These actions may have either beneficial or negative consequences inside organizations; in other words, they may either help to or hinder the growth of the organization (Abubakar, Elrehail, Alatailat, & Elçi, 2019). Towards this end, the notion of contemporary management places a strong emphasis on developing the knowledge, skill, and ability of workers, as well as on generating advantages for both the business and the person as a result of this improvement. According to Perlow and Williams (2003), organisational silence is a common and anticipated phenomena, although there is a lack of empirical data in the literature attempting to define, analyse, and manage it (Milliken et al., 2003; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Organizational silence is a socially constructed phenomena, formed at the organisational level and influenced by numerous features of the organisation itself, as suggested by the model offered by Morrison and Milliken (2000), who also originated the idea. Each worker's interpretation of the organisation's decision-making processes, management procedures, and culture will determine how they behave in silence.

Efforts are being made to make workers strong, to enable open communication inside businesses, and to embrace the viewpoints of employees. Employees are being encouraged to be competent, identified with the company, and participatory (Eriguc et al., 2014). Research in the field of organisational studies has examined silence as a strategy and tactic. The idea of maintaining a low profile inside an organisation was at first seen as a testament of devotion. Silence, on the other hand, is often seen as bad since it indicates staff are wilfully concealing

information about the company (Eriguc et al., 2014). There is a general consensus among proponents of the new school of management that the strength of a business lies in its people. Organizations cannot provide high-quality services or maintain their identity in the face of fierce competition and new developments in their industry without investing in their human resources (Erigüç et al., 2014). Workers in today's businesses need to be creative, communicative, and willing to take on new duties. The increased level of competition and higher standards set by consumers are to blame. The steady world of change is shown by the concentration of excellence. Organizational survival depends on having staff members who can adapt to changing conditions, who aren't afraid to speak out and share what they've learned, and who are able to hold firm to their core values while doing so (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005).

1. Definition of Organizational Silence

The person who is quiet or the person to whom the silence is presented may have a significant impact on how others understand and react to the silence. In order to investigate silence, it is necessary to think about the circumstances that might result in quiet inside a company or other institution. The easiest method to get a grasp on quiet is to first explore why it happens and then work backwards to figure out what brings it about. According to Ephratt (2008), the concept of quiet does not teach us anything and requires additional investigation since it was proposed by Tannen and colleagues in 1985 that silence indicates "anything except." It has been believed for a very long time that the primary form of silence is the lack of speech (Tannen, 1988; Pinder and Harlos, 2001; Ephratt, 2008):

"being quiet, holding one's tongue, and being calm all signify silence in a broad sense. It is simple to comprehend from an etymological standpoint. However, this cannot be a passive idea inside organisations; rather, it must go beyond passivity and acknowledge that silence may convey meaning (Rezabeygi and Almasi, 2014: 300)".

There has been a great deal of discussion on the meanings of silence as well as the vocabulary that is used to refer to the idea. Several studies have made attempts to describe the concept of quiet in relation to workers. For example, there is discussion on whether the phenomena of silence should be seen as an individual or social occurrence, or if it should be considered multidimensional. This therefore has

an influence on whether it is described as individual behaviour, which is employee quiet (Kutanis et al., 2014), or organisational silence, and maybe underlines how attempts to define silence "...can swiftly get immersed in an unending variety of complications (Zembylas and Michaelides, 2004: 194).

According to Pinder and Harlos (2001), silence may be defined as the unwillingness of workers to vocalise their behaviour, cognition, and effective appraisal of organisational problems (Donaghey et al., 2011). According to Tannen (1985), silence is a kind of communication that may include a wide variety of emotions, thoughts, and deeds. When we hear any of these phrases, we tend to think of silence as the result of an external cause or a deliberate choice to withhold information. These viewpoints have the potential to provide a unified understanding of silence, which will serve as a compass for future discourse on the topic. According to Tannen (1985), "workplace quiet" might include the simultaneous suppression of speech, sound, language, or information.

2. Causes of Organizational Silence

Studies have highlighted a variety of explanations that are related to elements that might be organisational, individual, and socio-cultural or contextual in character. There is a great deal of controversy and disagreement regarding the causes of silence. This section investigates a selection of the several potential explanations that have been proposed within the organisational silence literature. However, before delving into the primary components that contribute to the phenomena of silence, it is crucial to first highlight the many ways that the literature on the phenomenon of silence distinguishes between independent and dependent variables (Pinder, and Harlos, 2001).

a. Independent and Dependent Variables

The majority of studies on organizational silence in the literature address silence as a dependent variable that is influenced by other variables (causes). For instance, Riantoputra et al. (2016) used psychological safety, job-based psychological ownership as independent variables in their study of the Indonesian environment and used acquiescent and defensive silence as dependent factors. Silence-inducing factors were found to include PCB, task cohesiveness, voice efficacy, and psychological safety. When Balas-Timar Rad (2016) examined the

relationships between trust in supervisors, trust in peers, and trust in the organisation, they used employee quiet as a dependent variable (as independent variables). Organizational silence, acquiescence, defensive silence, and prosocial quiet are all forms of silence studied by Tavakoli et al. (2016), with quality of life at work serving as the independent variable. There was a negative correlation between work life satisfaction and defensive and submissive forms of quiet, but no significant correlation was found between prosocial forms of silence and job satisfaction.

Saglam (2016) found a positive significant link between organisational trust and silence in Turkey, using the same dependent variables as Tavakoli et al. (2016) but with different independent factors like sensitivity to workers, trust to administrator, openness to modernity, and the communication environment. Kiewitz et al. (2016) examined the relationship between abusive supervision, fear, assertiveness, and individuals' views of an atmosphere of fear among workers in a manufacturing company in the Philippines, and they found that defensive silence was a significant independent variable. According to their findings, the issue began when an unhealthy link was made between abusive management and the dread of subordinates. On the other hand, there are studies that have used quiet itself as a control.

For instance, Laeeque and Bakhtawari (2014) examined the relationship between three types of employee silence (acquiescent, defensive, and prosocial) and organisational loyalty in the Pakistani setting. According to the study, there is an inverse correlation between silence and organisational loyalty, thus as quiet grows, loyalty to the company declines. Likewise, Aeen et al. (2014) looked at the relationship between quiet in the workplace and loyalty, with the former serving as an independent variable and the latter as a dependent one. However, they also added rumours inside the organisation as a mediating variable, emphasising its significance in determining the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

In addition, Zehir and Erdogan (2011) conducted their research in Turkey on the topic of employee silence. They focused on three distinct types of employee silence: acquiescence, defensive, and prosocial. Their goal was to determine the effect of each type of employee silence on ethical leadership and, ultimately, employee performance. The results provide light on how important ethical leadership

is, as well as how important it is for leaders and managers to have an influence on the level of employee silence. However, it may be argued that putting so much emphasis on quiet as a separate element does not contribute to better comprehension of the phenomena. The level of silence is used in a variety of ways in different studies; sometimes it's the focus of the research, sometimes it's the subject of the research, and sometimes it's used as a mediator. The relationship between organisational justice and organisational commitment, for instance, was studied by Mirmohhamdi and Marefat (2014), who looked at the mediating effect of silence inside the workplace. Although the study's results indicated a negative correlation between organisational justice and quiet, they found no correlation between silence in the workplace and a lack of dedication. Organizational calm was also used as a mediator between job performance (the dependent variable) and company culture in a study by Managheb et al. (2018).

According to the findings, a more positive work environment leads to better Performance and less hush-hush among employees. Finally, study conducted in Pakistan by Saqib and Arif (2017) demonstrated the link between abusive supervision and "toxic" leadership behaviour and employee quiet.

b. Organizational Factors

Research has focused on organisational causes, such as leadership styles, unfairness, risk, and an environment of silence. For instance, Vakola and Bouradas's (2005) seminal research used quantitative methodologies to look at the topic of workplace silence from the point of view of workers' views and experiences on the job. The research indicated that managers' and supervisors' views toward workers, as well as the degree to which they are honest with employees and provide them opportunity to speak out, affect the prevalence of silence in workplaces. The research distinguishes between direct managers (supervisors) and upper management in terms of the importance of their views about employee silence. However, it is unclear from the study's methodology if the dependent variables are things like work happiness or quiet behaviour. Although the research demonstrated a correlation between silence and lack of commitment, the idea of commitment is likely more nuanced and multifaceted than shown here. Nonetheless, the research sheds light on the significant role of managers and supervisors in inducing quiet, which has been the subject of additional investigation in a number of following studies.

The attitudes of upper management, the attitudes of supervisors, and the availability of channels of communication are the three reasons of silence in the workplace that are identified by Mayhew et al. (2006). Toxic leadership and abusive supervision were also shown to lead to employees remaining silent in a study conducted by Xu et al. (2015). Morrison and Milliken (2000, p. 722) conclude their discussion by suggesting that senior managers with different assumptions should create different kinds of organisational structures that, over time, may be effective in encouraging honest upward communication. Therefore, from the perspective of Morrison and Milliken (2000), upper-level management has the ability to create or destroy an environment that encourages peace and quiet. However, it may be too simplistic to attribute silence to the attitudes of superiors and managers. While this may be at least partly responsible for the radio silence coming from inside the organisation, it is by no means the only thing of note at play here. It has been discovered, for instance, that official and, thus, hierarchical expectations might lead to quiet inside the workplace. For example, Tyler and Blader (2000) found that formal ties often lead to a lack of open communication inside an organisation. This is to be anticipated, particularly in regions governed by stringent business regulations and rigid institutional frameworks.

To add insult to injury, Aküzüm (2014) discovered that Turkish educators used student privacy concerns as a reason for not disclosing some data. Using a relational survey design with 357 classroom instructors and measuring organisational justice (across three dimensions: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) and organisational silence yielded the following results (including three types of organisational silence; acquiescent, defensive and prosocial). Teachers reported a greater prevalence of prosocial silence than defensive silence, and interactional justice was rated higher than other types of justice. According to the results, fairness is an important reason for quiet in the workplace. The study's findings of contradictory paths between justice and various forms of quiet raise doubts about this assertion. It has been argued that the presence of danger is the primary reason for people's quiet in workplaces. However, identifying risks requires an effort on the part of whomever is assessing the situation, whether it an employee or a management (Agote et al., 2015). Silence is primarily seen through the lens of dread because to the dangers involved, especially the fear of the unknown (Pinder and Halos, 2001;

Kutanis et al., 2014).

c. Individual Reasons

There have been a number of studies highlighting the role that individuals have in creating an atmosphere of quiet at work. Psychologists consider the "mum effect" (Rosen & Tesser, 1970) to be the most important reason for employees to sometimes remain silent about their concerns, which describes the phenomenon where people are reluctant to transfer negative information due to the discomforting message associated with being the bearer of bad news (Conlee and Tesser, 1973 cited in Milliken et al., 2003). The problem with this overarching theory is that it fails to explain why people break taboos and reveal awful news in some situations but in others they don't.

Recent studies in the organisational literature have added to this body of knowledge by shedding light on the many ways in which certain people's circumstances and perspectives shape their tendency to keep quiet. Topics like self-esteem and locus of control (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003), self-image maintenance (Jain, 2015), and self-protection (to name a few) have been the focus of recent research (e.g., the function of emotional intelligence and trust to management; Kutanis et al., 2014). It has also been theorised that negative emotions like wrath, remorse, and frustration might lead to a person being silent (Malekpoor and Fakhr-Eddini, 2015). Different people react differently to stress and anger, for example; some will open up and vent their emotions, while others may shut down and refuse to communicate at all. Some workers are more predisposed to anti-democratic ideas due to their personalities, according to Timming and Johnstone (2013); hence, the choice to speak out or keep quiet may have as much to do with internal personality structures as with exterior organisational ones.

This does not seem to adequately represent deliberate withholding of information since people with poor self-esteem or lack assertiveness already face barriers to contact with others. By examining not only the relationship between manager and subordinate but also the silence and intention to leave in relation to job satisfaction, Jain (2015) used a mixed-methods approach in an Indian context to study the phenomenon of employee silence. The study's author drew on the accounts of employees in both domestic and foreign businesses to determine what led to the widespread practise of keeping quiet. Although this study provides new insight into

the phenomenon of employee silence in an Indian context and provides evidence that silence is a dynamic phenomenon, it does not provide a clear definition of the silent variable. He fails to accurately characterise the nature of quiet and instead offers participants ad hoc guesses about the causes of silence, which they must then extrapolate to their own circumstances. Employees' attitudes toward authority, their level of transparency, and their level of assertiveness are all areas of investigation. Therefore, he explores numerous components under the same variable, which perhaps leads to uncertainty here about the nature of this variable, by combining some parts pertaining to the qualities of workers with some elements pertaining to the connection between the subordinate and the supervisor. Because of this, we think the validity of the scale used to measure is low. Concerns concerning the study's validity arise from the fact that predetermined categories were used in the survey portion of the research.

d. Socio-Cultural and Contextual Factors

Several studies have attempted to decipher the causes of office gossip by examining factors such as social and cultural norms (Kawabata and Gastaldo, 2015), power distance (Petkova et al., 2015; Dedahanov et al., 2016), and organisational norms and values. One such example is the research conducted by Kawabata and Gastaldo (2015), who drew on existing works to investigate the nature of quiet in Japan. Silence was explained as a reflection of societal norms, and they discovered it was not seen as a lack of communication. This research not only provides crucial and in-depth insights into how various societies use quiet, but also emphasises the need of applying multiple models within different cultural situations to analyse silence.

Furthermore, Sholekar and Shoghi (2017) looked at the effects of four cultural factors on the three primary forms of quiet (submissive, defensive, and prosocial) they identified. Azad University in Tehran supplied the study's academic staff participants. Findings suggested that faculty members' willingness to speak out and remain silent in the workplace was significantly influenced by the culture of the institution. However, it was unclear how pervasive silence was inside this organisation, what the defining characteristics (values) of the culture were, or what forms of silence were most common. The study of collective quiet in organisational environments by Huang et al. (2005), which spanned 24 nations and relied on data from a variety of cultures to compare those with high and low power distance, found

significant variations between the two groups. The research looked at how formal employee participation, a sense of participation, and a separation of authority all played a role. They discovered a strong correlation between social isolation and physical distance from those in power. Consequently, they demonstrate a connection between two factors, although it is unclear if a shift in power distance inside an organisation would similarly affect the volume of internal discourse.

Importantly, the study's method of gauging participants' reluctance to express an opinion might be considered invalid. A participant's self-assessment of their own talents and flaws, for instance, does not seem to be a reliable indicator of their level of silence. Consequently, the reliability of some of the indicators used to assess withholding problems is unclear. Dedahanov et al. (2016) investigated the association between power distance, collectivism, and silence/stress in South Korean manufacturing firms. They identified a specific kind of silence (relational) and theorised that it was the result of power differentials and group dynamics as well as a source of stress.

3. Types of Silence

A vast body of study has been conducted on the topic of silence in organisations, looking at a variety of various kinds and forms of quiet, as well as the relationship between organisational characteristics and silence (Brinsfield, 2013). This has included, for example, research on the link between quiet and centralization, as well as studies on communication opportunities and the frequency of voiced viewpoints (Vakola and Bouradas, 2005). (Park, Im, and Keil, 2009). Neither of these research, on the other hand, looked at the reasons people choose to stay quiet, which cannot simply be summarised by their behaviour of keeping their mouths shut (Dedahanov and Rhee, 2015). This section examines the research that already exists on different forms of quiet and investigates possible limits and knowledge gaps in this area. It is important to highlight that the several forms of silence (prosocial, acquiescent, quiescent, and opportunistic) primarily investigate the factors that lead to quiet as well as the patterns of silence that may be seen.

a. Quiescent Silence

Quiescent quiet, also known as defensive silence, is when workers opt to maintain their silence despite the fact that they do not feel comfortable doing so, and

it is possible that this is due of their discomfort. It is often related with a feeling of psychological safety (Edmonson, 1999). Some academics classify two primary kinds of silence: the passive and the assertive. Acquiescent quiet is what's meant when people talk about passive listening, yet proactive listening encompasses both defensive and prosocial types of silence (Van Dyne et al., 2003; Mirmohhamdi and Marefat; 2014). Therefore, defensive silence is considered to be proactive; but, according to Kiewitz et al. (2016), it is also a sort of avoidance behaviour, which is intentional (Pinder and Harlos, 2001). According to the explanation provided by Van Dyne et al. (2003: 1367) "defensive silence is a conscious and proactive behaviour that is intended to defend the self from external dangers." According to Harbaliolu and Gültekin (2014), this happens when a person comes to the conclusion that disclosing knowledge to other people exposes them to an unacceptable level of personal danger. It is also more usually connected with certain emotions, such as wrath (Pinder and Harlos, 2001).

However, as Jahanbakhshian et al. (2015) point out, it's not as black and white as deciding whether to be passive or proactive; rather, silence is complex and multifaceted, and is thus sometimes purposeful. Laeeque and Bakhtawari (2014) agree, arguing that employees' quiet may be deliberate strategy to avoid repercussions. It is argued that defensive silence is motivated by a desire to safeguard one's own well-being (Aydin et al., 2016) by preventing negative outcomes such as dismissal.

Defensive silence often occurs among workers because they are unsure of what will take place to them if they try to "rock the boat" or speak up about something they don't agree with, despite the fact that employees may be afraid of what might occur if they express their opinions out of concern for their own safety (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). Because of this, workers are reluctant to impart their insights and ideas out of fear of being penalised in some way (Azukum, 2004; Riantoputra et al., 2016). There's some evidence that workers are more likely to keep quiet if they have poor self-esteem, worry about their safety, or have to deal with an authoritarian boss (Altinkurt, 2014). Workplace bullying occurs when workers are subjected to a dictatorial boss (Guo et al., 2012). For this reason, it is often held that a sense of calm composure reigns supreme among the tiers of an organization's hierarchy from which decisions are delegated to others farther down the chain

(Blackman and Sadler-Smith, 2009; Morrison and Rothman, 2009). Researchers interested in this kind of silence have therefore looked into the possibility that the presence of authority is at the heart of any successful silent regime inside an organisation (Pinder and Harlos, 2001).

b. Acquiescent Silence

Studies on acquiescent silence, like those on quiescent silence, can be traced back to the work of Hirschman (1970) and Kahn (1980). Both authors share the view that there are perpetual issues within institutions and, thus, a wide variety of hidden motivations for keeping quiet. Many studies have looked into acquiescent silence, much like quiescent silence. The research conducted by Pinder and Harlos (2001) and others has shown how a lack of self-efficacy and a resignation to one's fate may also contribute to the phenomenon of quiet (Riantoputra et al., 2016). Therefore, there are many different motivations for being silent, and one of them is disengagement (Van Dyne et al., 2003). Acquiescent quiet refers to a lack of response from the speaker, and it may be a sign of disengagement, neglect, or submission (Akuzum, 2014). According to Van Dyne et al. (2003), passive behaviour or obedience to authority are two possible explanations for employees' tendency toward acquiescence and silence. Example: "not presenting opinions, facts, and perspectives according to subjection to any condition," as stated by Mirmohhamdi and Marefat (2014: 1776). When people realise that considerable change could be impossible under the existing circumstances (Riantoputra et al. 2016; Kahn 1990; Harbaliolu and Gültekin, 2014), a period of acquiescent quiet often follows.

When people lack confidence in themselves, they are more likely to hold back from offering their opinions for fear that they will be ignored or dismissed (Pinder and Harlos, 2001; Yildiz, 2013; Altinkurt, 2014), that their ideas will be disregarded by upper management (Managheb et al., 2018), or that they will be helpless to affect change (Jahangir and Abdullah, 2017). It's also possible that they've previously made recommendations that were disregarded, creating a disincentive to speak out again (Morrison, 2014). Staff members resort to this kind of silence when they are certain that their voices won't be heard (Jahangir and Abdullah, 2017) or when they lack the will to effect change inside the organisation (Zehir and Erdogan, 2011). The result is employee obedience, or "complete acceptance of organisational settings and situations without inquiry and emphases on the limited understanding of present

choices" (Harbaliolu and Gültekin, 2014: 154). Equally important, as pointed out by Dimitrias and Vakola (2003), is the fact that when workers participate in this silence, they are often unaware of the choices available to them. When workers don't complain, it might be a sign that they've been frustrated for a long time but haven't found a way to express it (Burman, 2011).

c. Prosocial Silence

Silence that is conducive to helping others falls somewhere in the middle of the spectrum between acquiescent and quiescent. This kind of silence is defined by Van Dyne et al. (2003: 1368) as "withholding ideas, facts, or views connected to work in order to benefit other individuals or the organisation - based on altruism or cooperative reasons." Contrasting with acquiescent quiet, deliberate silence shows that people are aware of their options and may choose whether or not to share their thoughts and feelings. (Van Dyne et al., 2003) (Van Dyne et al., 2003). Geiger and Swim (2016) remark that one might strategically exploit peaceful environments, especially when dealing with issues that one has chosen to accept or overlook (Bolino, 2016). What seems to be taking form as an argument is that the silent participant is really more active than the other parties, who are being passive by being silent and acquiescent. Therefore, prosocial silence is likened to organisational civic behaviour due to its intentionality, deliberateness, and activity (Mirmohhamdi and Marefat, 2014; Sholekar and Shoghi, 2017).

Those who practise this kind of silence tend to concentrate on others or on running the organisation (Korsgaard et al., 1997). For example, "prosocial silence" refers to a scenario in which employees decide it is in everyone's best interest to keep quiet since doing so will reduce the likelihood that specific regulations will be implemented or disregarded in connection to an issue of personal interest (Deniz et al., 2013; Rhee et al., 2014). Employees can think that silence is to the company's advantage if the environment is like this. Employees' reluctance to speak out in potentially embarrassing circumstances has been seen as a sign of their want to show collaboration with the organisation (Fletcher and Watson, 2007; Whiteside and Barclay, 2013) and avoid saying anything that would be considered inappropriate (Tavakoli et al., 2016). One such explanation is that individuals feel obligated to protect friends or colleagues who have gotten themselves into a thorny situation (Akbarian et al., 2015).

d. Opportunistic Silence

Opportunistic silence is still poorly studied since there have been so few studies on the topic. Employees who remain silent for ulterior motives are known as "loyal liars" (Knoll and van Dick, 2013a) (Loyens, 2013a; 2013b). It borrows Williamson's idea of opportunism (Williamson, 1985), which is portrayed as self-interest, and entails putting one's own objectives, reasons, and advantages ahead of those of the organisation (Jahangir and Abdullah, 2017). Examination of this sort of silence reveals that the individual concealing the information has some leeway in deciding when and how to share such information, consistent with the presentation of opportunism as a self-seeking inclination that trumps the other demands. This solitary bent stems mostly from the drive to beat out the competition; hence, when certain facts are concealed, there is an increased drive to come out on top (Knoll and van Dick, 2013a). Here, we see right away an individualistic way of thinking, in which those who are being secretive usually have something to gain (Brinsfield et al., 2009). This kind of silence may tell us a lot about the nature of the person who is withholding it, since it is often characterised by isolationism, egotism, or some other sort of individualism.

C. Psychological safety

Prior research has provided a number of different definitions of psychological safety. According to Table 2.1, various writers define psychological safety as "the degree to which an employee may demonstrate and carry out an assignment without worrying about the consequences to his or her self-concept, social standing, or professional prospects" (Kahn, 1990, Zhang et al., 2010, Simonet et al., 2015). On the other hand, others contend that psychological safety is only a team's consensus on how to handle interpersonal risk (Edmondson, 1999, Brueller and Carmeli, 2011, Koopmann et al., 2016). When we talk about taking risks with others in our group, we're talking about taking risks with the expectation of receiving positive feedback or approval from other members. In addition, the term "psychological safety" may also be used to describe an individual's core view about the reaction of their coworkers to a decision made by that person that might be detrimental to the organisation as a whole (Cannon and Edmondson, 2001, Kark and Carmeli, 2009). Accordingly, psychological safety refers to an employee's want to feel safe in their

work environment, either as an individual or as a part of a group, without worrying about adverse consequences (Tynan, 2005, Nembhard and Edmondson, 2006, Zhang et al., 2010, Brueller and Carmeli, 2011, Koopmann et al., 2016).

Table 2.1 shows that there is a connection between the physical environment of the workplace and employees' sense of psychological safety (Probst, 2015). (Jones et al., 2016). Thus, the study's author contends that workers need to feel emotionally secure in their roles as individuals and as part of teams. As a result, it presupposes that psychological safety is multifaceted, including factors like personal and group safety.

Table 1 Different definition of psychological safety

Source	Definition
Individual Level	
Kahn (1990, p. 708)	The capacity to put oneself out there professionally and socially without worrying about how it would affect one's reputation or standing is a key component of psychological stability.
Tynan (2005, p. 229)	A person's sense of self-psychological safety may be characterised as the degree to which that person trusts and respects another person and does not fear being embarrassed in front of that person.
Kark and Carmeli (2009, p. 787)	The term "psychological safety" relates to how people feel about the potential repercussions of engaging in potentially risky interpersonal behaviours while at work.
Carmeli et al. (2009, p. 82)	A belief that individuals may be open and honest about who they are and how they work without worrying about how it would affect their reputation or professional prospects.
Zhang et al. (2010, p. 427)	It's more of a mental state (as opposed to a characteristic) in which one believes that they may be themselves in any given social situation without fear of being judged or penalised.
Simonet et al. (2015, p. 832)	how comfortable people feel taking risks with others in their immediate surroundings.
Team/group Level	
Edmondson (1999, p. 354)	Mutual assurance that taking personal risks inside the group is safe.
Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009, p. 1276),	Members of a team that feel psychologically comfortable are more likely to take risks in their interpersonal interactions.
Idris, & Dollard, (2011)	When members of a team feel comfortable taking risks with one another, they are said to be in a state of psychosocial safety.
Pearsall and Ellis (2011, p. 403)	Members of the team have faith in one another and agree that there is no fear of social punishment for speaking out.
Brueller and Carmeli (2011, p. 456)	In a psychologically secure environment, team members feel comfortable voicing their opinions and providing feedback without worrying about how their actions will be seen by others.
Koopmann et al. (2016, p. 940)	A general agreement that taking risks with one's fellow team members is safe.

Generally speaking, the term "psychological safety" refers to climates inside an organisation that promote a healthy mental state for all employees (Baer and Frese, 2003, Cigularov et al., 2013, Probst, 2015). Cigularov et al. (2013), for instance, established four elements of safety atmosphere, including management

commitment to safety, safety practises, supervisor support in regards to safety, and work pressure. On the other hand, Huang et al. (2013) identified six more characteristics of safety climate, splitting them across organisational and group levels of analysis. Proactive practises, driver safety as a priority, and supervisory care promotion are three examples of organisational levels of safety atmosphere.

Individual and group learning (Carmeli et al., 2009) and creativity (Madjar and Ortiz-Walters, 2009) may both be influenced by a sense of psychological safety (et al., 2010). An organisation may be more successful when its members are able to solve problems effectively (Dyer and Nobeoka, 2000). When thinking about the importance of learning in contemporary organisations, it is important to remember that the mediating function of learning has only recently been experimentally shown in the literature.

Several behavioural and attitude outcomes have been related to psychological safety. Efficacy is another force behind TEF. One definition of team effectiveness (TE) is "a member's appraisal of the team's capacity to conduct job-related tasks effectively" (Walumbwa et al., 2004). A group's performance may be improved and its members' actions can be better coordinated when its members have faith in the group's ability (Gibson et al., 2000; Gully et al., 2002). Few research, however, have examined the impact of psychological safety on actual performance and performance reporting (Abror, 2017).

The safety atmosphere of a group may be broken down into three distinct aspects, including safety promotion, delivery restrictions, and mobile phone disapproval. Safety in physical processes at work is what we mean when we say "proactive practises," whereas "driver safety priority" and "supervisory care promotion" relate to how much we value a supervisor who takes safety seriously. To win the approval of the team leader is another group level of safety promotion. The safety of the staff is of paramount importance, thus we set strict restrictions on deliveries so that no one is forced to work above their capacity. As a last point, the safety of the motorist is mentioned while discussing the condemnation of mobile phones. As a result, the concept of a "safety atmosphere" may be defined differently in various settings. The study concludes that psychological safety, like physical safety, may be defined in terms of a given situation..

When it comes to psychological safety in academics, there are several

classifications to choose from. Overall, they may be split into three categories based on the varying degrees of attention they require: individual, group, and organizational. As seen in Figure 1
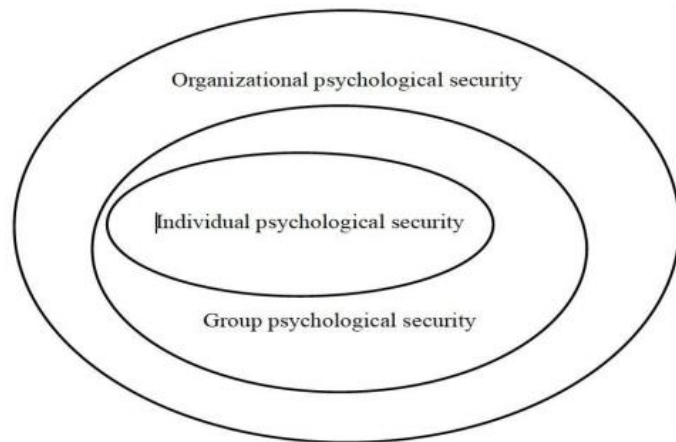
Figure 1 Multi-layered concept of psychological safety

Because of the influence and changes brought about by economic growth on conventional organizational structures, the idea of group psychological safety came into being. Since traditional organizational structures are unable to adapt to new situations and environments in light of increasingly fierce organizational competition, more and more managers are recognising the team as a more efficient and flexible new organizational model, resulting in the creation of the concept of team psychological safety. Edmondson (1999) was the first to introduce the notion of group psychological safety in the context of team learning. In a group learning setting, the team believes "interpersonal risk is safe." Individual members' psychological safety is not the same as collective psychological safety. It is strongly related to collective trust, but in certain cases extends beyond it.

1. Physical Risk-Psychological Safety

Worker confidence in the face of physical threats like noise and other hazards is referred to as "psychological safety." Multiple prior research suggested that an employee's perception of physical safety was influenced by a variety of external circumstances (Sparks et al., 2001, Wallace and Chen, 2005, Walker and Hutton, 2006, Christian et al., 2009, Probst, 2015). Heavy physical workloads and exposure to dangers, as documented by Laaksonen et al. (2010), have been linked to employee illness and absenteeism. As an alternative, Walker and Hutton (2006) argued that companies have a number of responsibilities toward their workers' physical safety.

Their research identified both the duties of employers to ensure workers' safety (such as providing PPE, rewarding good behaviour, and conducting risk assessments) and the duties of workers to ensure their own safety on the job (such as making sure to use equipment correctly, reporting accidents, and adhering to safety policies). As such, the mental well-being of workers in relation to physical risks including accidents, noise, and exposure to dangers is known as physical risk psychological safety (Walker and Hutton, 2006, Probst, 2015).

Psychological availability, as defined by Kahn (1990, p. 704) as "the sense that one has the physical and emotional resources to create personal engagement in one's work," is linked to both physical factors and job insecurity, as noted by Hajmohammad and Vachon (2013), and to a culture of safety in the workplace. Moreover, Beus et al. (2010) argued that actual physical peril is a part of the security atmosphere. As a result, the author of the study concludes that workplace hazards may be traced back to the setting itself. Most of the aforementioned research just classified physical variables at work as a component of safety environment, but this ignores the continued importance of physical factors connected to the psychological health of workers. Not mentioning that protection from physical danger also contributes to a person's sense of psychological safety is a major omission (Laaksonen et al., 2010, Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2013). The study thus infers that the factors of physical safety have some bearing on workers' sense of psychological safety. In this way, it may be argued that a worker's sense of psychological safety is compromised when he or she is subjected to a physically demanding task or is threatened by physical danger on the job. Both Christian et al. (2009) and Hammer et al. (2016) stressed the importance of a psychologically secure environment in preventing accidents and injuries. On the other hand, Wallace and Chen (2005) proposed a validated scale for measuring cognitive failure at work in relation to physical safety climate. Thus, ensuring that workers are physically secure from harm contributes to a positive work environment.

Psychological safety in the face of physical threat may be connected to other aspects of safety. A better physical safety system, as noted by Wachter and Yorio (2013), is related to employees' own feelings of psychological safety. This suggests that one's sense of inner psychological safety is connected to one's sense of physical danger. In addition, Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2013) found a correlation between

injuries in the workplace and the presence or absence of interpersonal and management support for safety. This means that there is a connection between the dangers of the physical world and the need of feeling secure emotionally. Kouabenan et al. (2015) contended that the incidence of accidents is correlated with the culture of safety within a team. This means there is a connection between the psychological safety of a team and the psychological safety of individuals exposed to physical risks. Therefore, this research will go on to examine the concept of psychological safety in the following section.

2. **Employment Equity Psychological Safety**

Employees' sense of mental health and well-being is at the heart of the concept of "psychological safety" in the context of employment equality, which includes protections against harassment and bullying on the basis of race, religion (Dwertmann et al., 2016, Ghumman et al., 2016). Discrimination based on gender, sexual orientation, religion, and bullying (such as racial harassment) may all be dangerous for employees, as noted by Makin and Winder (2008). (p. 937). The psychological well-being of an employee is directly affected by prejudice in the workplace. Therefore, this research defines psychological safety in the workplace in terms of employment equality as an employee's confidence that he or she will be accepted and treated fairly by coworkers and superiors notwithstanding any differences in appearance or background (e.g., gender, religious beliefs or ethnicity).

Simply put, the acts of one's coworkers might have an impact on one's sense of psychological safety in the workplace in terms of employment fairness. If, for instance, an employee's supervisor and coworkers treat her or him fairly and without bias due to their differences, the individual will experience high levels of psychological safety in the workplace, an aspect of employment equality. Moreover, prejudice based on race, religion, sexual orientation, nationality, or age was shown to be a cause of discrimination by Feild and Holley (1982). (p.394). Liu et al. (2016b) also claimed that bias in the workplace, such as abusive management, might compromise workers' emotional safety. Braeken et al. (2013) argued that discrimination in the workplace may take the form of the systematic denial of people's rights on the basis of gender, religion, ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, etc. in the context of workplace/organizational justice. Employees' sense of psychological safety and their ability to innovate may be connected to factors such as the

prevalence of discrimination based on gender, ethnicity, or membership in other historically marginalised groups, as pointed out by Dwertmann et al. (2016).

Furthermore, del Carmen Triana et al. (2011) claimed that people' actions toward minorities were influenced by their perceptions of prejudice. They contended that prejudice against minorities constitutes ethnic discrimination, which in turn threatens the mental health of workers and has repercussions for business metrics like Performance. In other words, discrimination of any kind, including but not limited to gender, race, and religion, may have a negative impact on Performance and morale in the workplace, which in turn can undermine worker safety. In addition, Hastings and Finegan (2011) argued that discrimination and other forms of workplace injustice might foster an environment conducive to criminal behaviour. The development of a psychologically secure workplace is linked to the reduction of toxic work behaviours including bullying and harassment, according to Kirk-Brown and Van Dijk (2016). Workers' safety and mental/psychological well-being are only two examples of how prejudice at work may affect people's lives and outlooks on the job, as noted by Jones et al. (2016).

3.   Team-Psychological Safety

To paraphrase Edmondson (1999), "a common belief in connection to interpersonal risk taking among team members" is what Edmondson calls "team psychological safety" (p. 354). In his view, taking interpersonal risks means believing one's performance on the work will not be negatively impacted by interactions with other team members. Employees' sense of psychological safety on the job depends on whether they are able to speak out without fear of reprimand from their coworkers and superiors (Carmeli et al., 2009, Schaubroeck et al., 2011, Liu et al., 2015). As an added bonus, the concept of psychological safety within a team is quite similar to that of personal psychological safety. One way to evaluate the value of teams vs other sources of psychological safety is to compare them to one's own sense of safety.

Measurement of inner psychological safety focuses on a person, whereas team psychological safety looks outward at the team as a whole (Bradley et al., 2012). In addition, a team's psychological safety is a collective conviction with regard to an individual's conviction. This implies that members of a team are

psychologically secure since they have a shared language and goals (Bradley et al., 2012). Therefore, a team is a collection of people working together (Koopmann et al., 2016, Roussin et al., 2016). Team psychological safety, on the other hand, differs from group cohesion in that it focuses on an individual's ease of joining a team rather than on the team itself. Team cohesion may be enhanced through a culture of trust and safety (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). While both group cohesion and psychological safety are observed, the former deals with the emotional and the latter with the mental well-being of the group's members (Bradley et al., 2012). According to the study's findings, psychological safety in the workplace occurs when employees feel comfortable expressing their ideas and opinions, as well as taking calculated risks with their coworkers (Dollard and Bakker, 2010). Trust, pleasant interactions, and familiarity are the three key antecedents connected to psychological safety in teams (Howorth et al., 2012, Koopmann et al., 2016).

D. Employee Performance

One of the most important challenges that the majority of businesses confront in the modern day is the need to increase the Performance of their staff. Performance of employees is an evaluation of how effective an individual or group of workers is at their jobs. In point of fact, a factor that directly influences a company's profitability is one that is referred to as Performance (Gummesson, 1998; Sels et al., 2006). One way to measure an employee's level of Performance is to look at the amount of work they get done in a given amount of time. In most cases, the Performance of a specific worker will be evaluated in relation to an average out for other workers who do the same or comparable task. It is also possible to evaluate it according on the number of individual products or services that an employee is responsible for managing during a certain period of time (Piana, 2001). Because the Performance of an organization's workers is the primary factor determining that organization's level of success, increasing worker Performance has emerged as a primary focus area for many companies (Sharma & Sharma, 2014).

There have been numerous studies that have concentrated on one or two methods of measuring Performance, and since there are so many different methods, it may be difficult to compare the findings of the many research (Nollman, 2013). Overall, there is a lack of a method that is both effective and standardised for

evaluating Performance. According to Sharma and Sharma (2014), an employee's Performance is determined not only by the amount of time that he or she spends "mentally present" or actively working during the time that they are physically present at their job, but also by the amount of time that they spend physically present at their job. To achieve high levels of worker Performance, businesses should solve the aforementioned challenges. According to Ferreira and Du Plessis (2009), Performance may be measured in terms of the amount of time an employee spends actively carrying out the responsibilities for which he or she was employed, with the goal of achieving the objectives that are specified in the job description for that individual. The benefits of Employee Performance, which have been well described in previous literature, have been clearly linked to the success of organisations. According to Sharma and Sharma (2014), increased Performance leads to increased economic development, increased profitability, and advancement in social conditions. Employees are only able to acquire higher income or salaries, working conditions, and wider job prospects if their production levels are increased. Cato and Gordon (2009) have proved that a major factor in the success of a business is the alignment of the strategic goal to Employee Performance. As a consequence of this alignment, workers would be motivated and inspired to be more creative, which, eventually, would increase their performance effectiveness in terms of achieving the aims and objectives of the firm (Obdulio, 2014). In addition, a greater level of Performance tends to strengthen the competitive edge by lowering costs and improving the overall quality of the production.

Quizny, writing in 1776, is credited as being the first person to use the term "Performance." In 1776, Adam Smith addressed issues pertaining to the Performance of labour, the specialisation of labour in order to raise profits, and the decrease of worker tiredness. In respect to Performance, he emphasised the need of efficiency and specialisation, and he saw the division of labour as the essential building block for both efficiency and Performance. A number of economists investigated the relationship between a worker's physical quality, intellectual capacity, spiritual well-being, skill level, and stamina, and production. Taylor, on the other hand, is credited with kicking off the Performance revolution in the year 1881. This event is often seen as marking the beginning of the history of formal and scientific inquiry into the management of Performance (Nazem, 2007). The degree of success a system has in

deploying resources to accomplish objectives is reflected in its level of Performance. This straightforward definition includes the following elements:

- The concept of "Performance" refers to a method that may be used to many different things, including people, machines, organisations, adjectives, and even the whole economy of a country.

- According to this interpretation of the term, Performance is defined as "system success in accomplishing tasks," and it is a concept that can be evaluated in its fundamental form.

- The definition of Performance incorporates three concepts: efficiency, which is defined as "doing things right," as well as effectiveness, which is defined as "doing the appropriate things" (Kazemi, 2002).

1. **Factors affecting Performance of Employees**

The number of times the elements have been referred to by writers, together with the expertise of the researcher over the last 38 years, led to the establishment of four broad category classifications of factors impacting the Performance of workers.
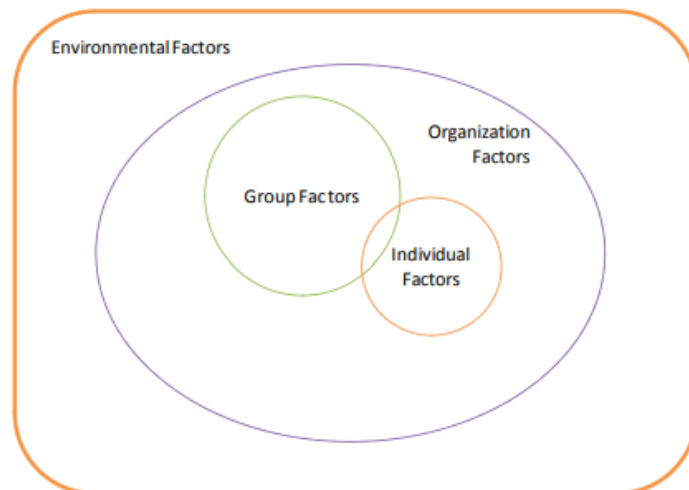
Figure 2 General Categories of Factors affecting Performance

These four major categories of factors are depicted in Fig. 2.4. They are:

1. Environmental Factors

2. Organizational Factors

3. Group Factors

4. Individual Factors

a. Environmental Factors

The factors that make up an organization's environment are those that are not a part of the company itself and are typical of the sector as a whole.

i.　　Labour market characteristics

The provisions of the employment contract are outlined for both workers who are paid daily and those who are paid monthly. Every worker in the nation is required to get a work permit in addition to a visa in order to be able to find employment in the country. The employer is the one that makes the arrangements and foots the bill for this. Employees are only permitted to switch occupations under certain circumstances, such as the closure of the firm; those who voluntarily resign their positions are subject to a prohibition on employment that ranges from six months to one year. The majority of workers are hired via employment agencies located in their home countries. These agencies are granted permission to recruit and deploy individuals to other countries by their respective governments. The costs that the workers must pay to the agency might be up to 12 times their monthly wage in certain cases. Therefore, the expenses associated with workers switching jobs are relatively substantial. Because of this feature, the employee is more likely to remain in his or her position for at least the first three years of employment. Financial incentives, job stability, and decent welfare circumstances are all effective motivating elements for the employee to work more productively.

ii.　　Economic situation

Although the Middle East has not been hit as hard by the liquidity crisis as the United States and other nations, it has nonetheless felt the effects of the economic downturn. Major projects have been put on hold, customers have been slow to pay, and salary and bonus increases may have to be postponed. Work output may suffer as a result.

iii.　　Job stability and physical protection

There are two basic kinds of employment contracts: open and limited. An "open labour contract" is one that is intended to last indefinitely, with visa renewals occurring every three years. In the case of a limited contract, the duration of the

agreement is capped at one or two years. The typical contract is an open-ended one. In terms of life-threatening hazards, the construction site is no different from any other, but law enforcement is lax compared to, say, Europe. Nonetheless, this is beginning to change. Those in the construction industry are vulnerable to the ups and downs of the business cycle. There are certain workers who are stuck in a negative revolving door. For these and other reasons, workers are less likely to take a chance on losing their job in the first three years, and some may even take fewer vacation days in the first few years in order to pay off the debt acquired to join the company. However, some experienced workers are kept on by corporations even during lean periods by being reassigned to other crafts or being seconded to other companies (although illegally) and sent on extended absences.

iv.   Compensation for Work and Wage Standards

In Turkey, there is a legal minimum wage, and pay for professionals and unskilled workers are set according to market standards. Additionally to the base salary, employees get a food stipend and free housing. However, the quality of the accommodations is not up to par with the rest of the sector. However, a retainer of up to two months' income may be withheld in the event of employee disappearance.

v.   Weather

It's common knowledge that working under adverse weather conditions may reduce efficiency. Summers in Turkey are brutal, with highs reaching over 49 degrees Celsius, while the winters are mild and often include misty mornings. The personnel are allowed a two and a half hour lunch break between 12:30 and 3:00 pm during the prime summer months of July and August. Authorities have instituted fines for anybody seen working outdoors during these hours. In addition to the heat, the high humidity causes people to perspire excessively, which in turn causes them to become tired and unproductive.

b. Organizational Factors

In contrast to external influences, organisational factors originate from inside the company and serve to define the management approach and policies in place.

i.   Timing and Schedule of Work

Work days at corporations often last no less than 10 hours. Overtime pay is

given for any work done over the first eight hours. Overtime pay for workers who are paid on a daily basis is 1.25 times their base pay for overtime worked and 1.5 times their base pay for overtime worked on Fridays and other public holidays. employees are not eligible for overtime pay but are eligible for a yearly bonus programme. Nighttime shifts are common during busy periods, however they need an authorization from the government. Friday is a day of rest each week, but most people still get in a few hours of work before the day is officially over to pray. The construction firm whose sites were used in the field research fully complies with all applicable labour legislation requirements, including those pertaining to work hours and start/finish times. Financial incentives are provided to workers in the form of overtime, while monetary incentives are offered for particular expedited work tasks.

ii. Command and control

Employees report to Charge hands, who in turn report to Foremen in the traditional TURKISH chain of command. All foremen answer to the General Foreman, who is in turn responsible to the project engineer. Project Engineers are accountable to the Project Manager, who in turn reports to upper management. Workers may always go straight to the Project Manager or, in extreme situations, the Human Resources Department at Headquarters if they are unhappy with the progress being made in negotiations.

iii. Statements of Purpose, Policies, and Procedures

Consultants and client representatives often request that businesses put in place rules, processes, and method statements outlining the flow of work. Work is more likely to be completed correctly the first time around when clear, methodical processes and method declarations are in place. One cannot expect the same level of output during rework as one would during regular manufacturing. However, the company's oil and gas projects are impacted by delays in Performance due to client approval processes and other bureaucratic red tape.

iv. Reward Systems

Workers have a reasonable expectation of compensation from their employers. In order to boost Performance and give workers a sense that they are valued, it is necessary to implement a system of incentives. According to company statistics, offering monetary incentives on-site during accelerated operations to

manage slippages in progress leads to significant increases in Performance. Extra pay is given in the form of overtime, cash is handed over at the end of the job if certain conditions are met, and so on in the case of contract work, where the employee is expected to complete a certain number of hours' worth of work within a certain time frame, regardless of how long it actually takes. There is a strong correlation between the quality of the employee/organizational relationship and the degree to which organisational justice is at play in the form of compensation offered to workers. Moreover, there are circumstances when non-monetary compensation programmes are more successful than monetary ones. An employee's comfort and motivation may be greatly increased by little gestures like a pat on the back, fair pay based on experience, training, and talents, friendly coworkers, an ear to listen to personal issues, salary advances, and sick days. All promised awards will be promptly distributed, and it is agreed that rewards shall be based on realistic, and achievable objectives and targets, which will serve to further motivate and satisfy the workforce.

v.   Evaluation and Suggestion Procedures

Once a year, employees get a raise in pay based on their assessed levels of performance. Unless it is time for the employee to quit or he requests a meeting with the supervision team, the employee will not learn his rating. Competing firms are always on the lookout for skilled workers to hire away at a profit. However, during regular business hours, some of the best workers are singled out and eventually promoted to positions of more responsibility, such as charge-hands and foremen. There are few channels for workers to voice their ideas and complaints, even if the HR department is doing a good job and the supervisory team is being sensitive. The worker has no choice but to return to headquarters in the hopes of finding sympathetic ears or assistance in solving the situation.

vi.   Various Forms of Social Assistance

Companies' welfare programmes often consist of the following: housing for workers, a leisure area with a big TV, free food or stipend, medical insurance, life insurance, and a round-trip plane ticket every two years. The obligatory provisions of the Federal Labour Law of Turkey are generally met. How strictly the customer enforces the camp condition criteria determines how the camp environment varies. Camps in urban areas are less welcoming than those located in more remote areas, such as an oil field, where employees of the oil firm are provided with more

luxurious lodging, entertainment, and food. The workers are impacted by this. A greater feeling of well-being and appreciation could result from better living situations.

c. Group/Team Factors Group/Team structure or composition

Joining a team or group doesn't mean letting your unique abilities take a back seat, but rather that you'll be able to use them to their full potential by combining them with those of your colleagues. Two or more persons working together toward a shared objective constitute a work group. When thinking about the team's make-up, it's crucial to remember that its members come from a wide variety of geographic locations and cultural backgrounds. Because of the demanding nature of their labour, Pakistan is often the source of both concreting and excavation crews. But Indians could be a better fit for the job of closing up shop. Personal and team abilities Just as people vary in appearance, they also display a wide range of abilities and capabilities. These abilities may be innate or learned through time. One method to make the most of the available human resources and boost output is to make sure they are pooled for the benefit of the team and, by extension, the company. Therefore, for a supervisor to be effective, they must make an effort to learn about and understand each member of their team, as well as how their skills and abilities may be combined and put to the best possible use on the job.

i.   Assignment/Work Nature

Many factors contribute to an employee's output, including the specifics of his profession and his assignments. The personnel or group recognises the small variations between seemingly comparable construction tasks. The soil strata may have shifted, or the requirements may have been altered. It's possible that this circumstance will be distinct from any previously achieved projects. Furthermore, it is the duty of the managerial team to establish goals that are both reasonable and doable.

d. Personal Factors

i.   Qualifications in terms of education and experience

The degree of academic success or education level is a significant predictor of success. As an initial step, it establishes a shared language that may be used in subsequent interactions. An individual's competency is determined by their

experience and the sum of their training, therefore an individual's educational background is just one aspect in determining that competence. Most workers lack formal education but have picked up the trade from generations before. Some people have taken vocation assessments only to be evaluated and given a job offer. The government is constantly lowering the required degree of education for skilled workers, but due to a persistent labour shortage, they are often liberal with the rule (as was the case before the economic crisis happened).

ii.   Acquired knowledge from the past

It may be claimed that experience isn't as important as other factors in selection (such as fundamental ability, attitude of mind, present and future potential, and specialised technical abilities), however this isn't true. The worker's prior working experience, which includes acquiring and using various types of information and gaining familiarity with various types of work environments.

iii.   Compelling general ability and talent

As was previously said, an employee's overall competency is a combination of his previous education, experience, and training as well as the unique knowledge he has learned while working for the present company and in the given environment. Management keeps a diverse set of skillsets in-house to make the most of the business's resources.

iv.   Age

The effects of age on Performance are substantial. There is a clear correlation between age and Performance, yet in certain physically demanding occupations, performance may be negatively proportional to age. Age might also make a guy less driven, leading him to become complacent. Some retirees are looking to return home or choose less strenuous tasks like cleaning or safety work.

v.   Personal traditions, outlooks, and originality

We recognise that some persons are more suited to particular types of job than others due to environmental factors or the socioeconomic realities in their home nations. Some Indians, particularly those from the Punjab region, are highly skilled masons, carpenters, and heavy-duty operators in Turkey. Pakistanis make up the vast majority of the company's driving staff. Tensions may arise on sites and in camps

when people from various cultures interact. One's outlook on the job is what ultimately defines how much enthusiasm and originality one can bring to the task at hand. The challenge of learning about the rich cultural heritage of Turks in the workplace is a difficult one.

E. The Relationship between Organizational Silence and Employee Performance

The term "organisational silence" (OS) is used to describe situations in which an employee intentionally refrains from sharing helpful feedback, recommendations, and honest opinions about the company. It's crucial for business leaders to foster a culture where workers feel safe raising issues, sharing ideas, and disagreeing with management (Erenler, 2010). Acquiescent quiet, defensive silence, and Pro-social silence are the three types of organisational silence identified by Dyne et al. (2003). When an employee adopts an acquiescent stance, he or she is aware of his or her silence and is aware that there are several ways to approach the present issue, but chooses to stay quiet because he or she believes he or she cannot do anything. As part of the compliance process, employees often maintain a level of quiet that belies just a superficial level of understanding and a willingness to accept things as they are without challenge (ehitolu and Zehir, 2010). When an employee is afraid of repercussions for speaking out, they may resort to defensive silence, which is a kind of passive yet self-aware conduct. An individual may use defensive quiet as a means of warding off potential dangers from the outside world. It's proactive, defensive, and protective (Dyne et al., 2003). The lack of voice among workers about devotion and collaboration owing to the purpose to safeguard the company and/or colleagues is an example of good social silence (ehitolu and Zehir, 2010). Positive pro-social silence (quiet for the good of the organisation) is similar to OCB in that it consists of intentional, nonobligatory actions taken to improve the workplace (Dyne et al., 2003, 1362; Erenler, 2011).

Performance is the sum of an individual's, a team's, or an organization's efforts toward an endeavor's goals, measured in terms of both quantity and quality. Work performance refers to how well set goals have been met (ehitolu and Zehir, 2010; Yorgun, 2010). Employee performance is not something that happens by itself or in a void. As a result, businesses and their management teams should take a stance

on the matter, investigate the conditions under which their personnel thrive, and then create an atmosphere that encourages optimal performance. In addition, efforts should be made to identify the kinds of actions taken by individuals and teams that lead to enhanced Performance (Ripley, 2002). Managers' efforts are most fruitful when they produce, maintain, and cultivate human resources that are deeply committed to the organization's goals and values, as well as highly satisfied with their own job. Managers must deal with corporate and personal aims and interests holistically and strike a balance between them in order to accomplish organisational objectives and boost employee engagement and performance (Vural and Coşkun, 2007).

Dedahanov, & Rhee, (2015) discovered a negative and statistically significant correlation between organisational silence and Employee Performance; specifically, they found that the more trust an employee has in the organisation, the less likely they are to keep quiet about problems within the company. According to research by Yousefi Saeedabadi and Mohammadian (2015), there is a strong correlation between quiet in the workplace and measures of Performance, efficiency, and effectiveness. According to research by Amuna, Aqel, Kasim, and Tharya (2021), ethical leadership acts as a mediator between the impact of an organization's silence and its voice on employee performance. Employee performance is negatively impacted by an organization's lack of communication, while it is positively impacted by its voice. Leadership is lacking in both ethical strength and effectiveness.

Two indices of organisational quiet were shown to have a substantial correlation with performance, as discovered by Paksirat and Taheri (2018). According to Sholekar & Shoghi (2017), there is a causal link between the absence of noise in the workplace and the quality of work produced by its members. Role clarity, organisational support, employee motivation, employee engagement in decision making, employee assessment, and organisational atmosphere were all shown to be negatively related to organisational quiet. However, the effect on workers' talents was minimal. The organisational quiet may be predicted using the three performance aspects of organisational environment, involvement in decision making, and role clarity, according to multivariable regression analysis. According to Nikmaram et al. (2016), there is a strong correlation between management silence and employee dissatisfaction. Managers' and workers' perspectives on office

quietness did not differ much. The findings also revealed that there is a correlation between organisational quiet and its indications and the ability to predict performance across two tiers of management and staff. It was shown by Jalilian and Batmani (2015) that quiet in the workplace might have a significant impact on Performance. According to the research of Achieng (2014), a company's policy of silence is the direct outcome of the values and practises of its managers.

The effects of quiet on both workers and the business were shown by Saaed et al. (2019). Silence was proven to have negative effects on workers' dedication, trust, and confidence. Silence is stressful, and stress leads to depersonalization, poor sense of personal success, and a negative outlook on the workplace, as reported by Zehir and Erdogan (2011). The survey also revealed that if employees didn't speak out, it might lead to the company not receiving any creative contributions, issues being unnoticed, and a toxic work environment. Organizational learning would also suffer as a result of this. But according to Hozouri, Yaghmaei, and Bordbar (2018), a lack of communication inside an organisation might hinder its ability to make decisions and adapt to change. Most businesses have a problem in that they are depressed by their workers' very poor perception of the company. In this state, it is more difficult to make sound decisions and implement necessary organisational changes. In addition, when employees don't feel comfortable speaking out, the company can't learn from its mistakes and grow.

It is interesting to note that Zehir and Erdogan (2011) draw a connection between leaders' influence and workers' choices to speak out or keep quiet. As a result, the actions of those in authority have a considerable impact on how things get done. When it comes to management techniques, we think that an ethical approach gives workers the confidence to speak out and the drive to be helpful. If they want to be followed, leaders ought to behave in an ethical manner in whatever they do. Findings from this research provide credence to the idea that ethical leadership produces a variety of advantageous benefits.

Bagheri-Lankarani, Zarei, Zandi, Omani Samani, & Karimi (2016) found that leaders need to break the silence and show that they are eager to comprehend the complexity of the sociotechnical systems of which they are a part. The quiet in the workplace is bad for morale and retention rates and is detrimental to everyone involved. As such, it was recommended that the company prioritise open lines of

communication, practise participatory management, implement the proposed methodology, and create a welcoming environment in which workers feel comfortable offering ideas and comments. Fard and Karimi (2015) found that there is a correlation between the tolerance of silence in the workplace, the availability of communication channels, and the silent behaviour of supervisors and upper management. Relationships between these three factors and loyalty to one's employer and enjoyment of one's work have been established (Taheri, & Zarei, 2017).

The impact of quiet on business success is investigated by Pourakbari, Asgarian, and Mahmodi (2016). These results suggest that an absence of communication inside an organisation is a significant predictor of poor performance among both workers and supervisors. Therefore, high levels of organisational performance are diminished in places where there is organisational quiet, and are restored in places where there is very little organisational silence. Therefore, it is crucial for managers to foster an atmosphere where the value of quiet in the workplace is acknowledged. In addition, chances for excellent communication and formal procedures to transmit or share information, concerns, and ideas in order to take the appropriate action should be provided to foster collaborative behaviour among workers. The goal is to replace the current atmosphere and culture of silence with one that encourages employee input and collaboration in order to boost Performance across the company. Silence in the workplace occurs when employees feel they have no recourse except to remain silent on matters of major significance to the company. Morrison and Milliken (2000) observed that many businesses face the paradoxical situation in which the majority of workers are aware of the truth about certain difficulties and problems inside the company but are afraid to report them to their superiors. They theorised that managers' implicit views and their fear of unfavourable feedback were primary causes of management silence.

F.   The Relationship between Organizational Stress on Employee Performance

Stress is a scientific word that describes the effects of an organism's inability to effectively deal with perceived or real threats to its health. The term "stress" is used to describe the mental and physical tension that results when our internal resources are threatened by our external circumstances. No one, whether a student or an adult worker, can escape stress in today's fast-paced environment. The stress that

results from the interaction between the two forces might be seen in either a positive or negative light. Modern ways of living have given rise to a new phenomenon: stress in the workplace. This century has seen unprecedented shifts in the very nature of labour, and these shifts continue at a dizzying pace today. They have affected almost every industry, from artists to surgeons, airline pilots to business executives. Anxiety is an inevitable side effect of change. The physical health of workers may be negatively impacted by workplace stress. Therefore, the well-being of businesses is impacted by the stress that employees in structured workplaces experience. To put it simply, job stress is an illness that is brought on by unfavourable working circumstances and has a cumulative effect on an employee's health, Performance, and happiness. Stress in the workplace has a detrimental effect on Performance. Put another way, increased levels of stress are associated with diminished efficiency. It was formerly thought that a certain amount of stress would motivate workers and improve their output. In contrast, nowadays nobody believes that. Presently, it is safe to assume that even moderate stress will impair performance (Kotteeswari & Sharief 2014).

Defining stress itself is a necessary first step in understanding workplace stress, a multifaceted psychological notion. The term "stress" refers to the alteration of one's physical or mental condition in reaction to challenge or danger (the "stressors") (Krantz et al., 1985; Zimbardo et al., 2003). There are times when we must put up a great deal of mental and/or physical energy to overcome obstacles. Most adults can go back to a time when they had to use their "fight or flight" instinct to save their kid from being run over by an automobile. Inducing a healthy dose of stress may motivate individuals to overcome obstacles and reach their objectives. However, stress may sometimes become overwhelming, leading to mental anguish and physical ailments. There are two main kinds of stress: eustress and distress. Positive or healthy stress is often referred to as eustress. The origin of the term "eu" may be traced back to the Greek for "good" (Seyle, 1980). Stress is always a response to something, and that something has been evaluated cognitively as either a good or a negative stressor. The force that motivates us to productively work through challenging situations and tasks is called eustress, and some examples include the birth of a newborn, winning a competition, getting married, buying a new home, getting promoted at work, making new friends, and reaching cultural milestones like

menarche or age-specific ceremonies marking a transition into manhood or womanhood.

According to Khattak et al. (2011), stress has far-reaching consequences for workers. Experiencing physical, psychological, and organisational burnout makes it impossible for stressed employees to satisfy the needs of their employer. According to Ismail & Hong (2011), a key factor for service workers' poor performance is the stress they experience on the job. Female employee Performance drops as a result of organisational stress, which in turn lowers their contentment with and enthusiasm for their job. Tsaur and Tang (2012) claim that most workers in businesses experience stress at work, which has a negative impact on Performance.

"High demand and poor control," as defined by Barbara et al. (2009), is strongly linked to issues with the heart and blood vessels, anxiety, demoralisation, depression, drug (alcohol) usage, and vulnerability to a broad variety of infectious illnesses. Having "high effort and little control" is linked to increased risk of cardiovascular disease, anxiety, depression, and conflict. Back discomfort and receptive strain injuries are common in settings when both of these factors are present. Both of these factors, together, have a chilling effect on Performance in the workplace. According to Malik (2011), workers who feel powerless in their workplace due to a lack of job autonomy, a lack of financial incentives, or an unhelpful management structure are more likely to experience health issues such high blood pressure, heart disease, and headaches.

According to Pediwal (2011), workers' mental, emotional, and financial well-being are all negatively impacted by stress on the workplace. Employees are losing track of time and missing meetings due to stress. According to Bukhsh, Shahzad, & Nisa (2011), stress has a negative impact on both individual and collective Performance in the workplace. According to Salami (2010), stress has a direct impact on worker output, and the two are inextricably linked since stress is essential to survival. Organizational stress is caused by a number of factors, including but not limited to those identified by Coetzee and Devilliers (2010) as role ambiguity, work relationships, job safety, lack of job autonomy, work-home interface, remuneration and benefits, and lack of management support.

Employees' dedication to their jobs suffers as a result of these stresses (Nowack & Wimer, 2010). Employee output suffers as a result. Forty to sixty percent

of workers say their occupations are very stressful and have a major effect on their family life and health. Seventy percent or more of American employees believe there is no positive connection between family and work, while fifty percent or more of American women have opted out of professional professions despite significant financial and time investments. Bytyqi et al. (2010) claim that stress is a major business worry since it negatively impacts worker health and Performance.

G. The Relationship between Psychological Safety, Organizational Silence, and Employee's Performance

According to the findings of Seifzaedeh et al. (2016), the level of trust that employees have in their organisations is inversely proportional to the amount of silence that employees maintain within those organisations. As a result, there is a negative and significant relationship between organisational silence and Employee Performance. According to research conducted by Yousefi Saeedabadi and Mohammadian (2015), there is a substantial connection between organisational Performance and the three types of quiet that exist inside an organisation: defensive silence, submissive silence, and peaceful silence. According to Mohaimeni (2013), the mediating function of ethical leadership makes the difference between the effectiveness of organisational silence and voice on the performance of workers. Employee performance is negatively impacted by an absence of organisational voice, whereas employee performance is favourably impacted by organisational voice. In addition to this, the ethical leadership is not at a satisfactory level.

According to the findings of Asgari and colleagues (2014), there is a statistically significant connection between two markers of organisational quiet and performance. According to Bozorgnia Hosseini and Enayati (2014), there is a substantial association between two variables: organisational silence and workers' performance. They argue that this relationship exists. Additionally, there was a substantial and unfavourable association between organisational quiet and organisational variables such as role clarity, organisational support, workers' motivation, involvement in decision making, employees' appraisal, and the climate of the company. However, it was not important in respect to the competencies of the staff members. The results of a multivariable regression showed that among the performance dimensions, there are three dimensions of organisational environment:

participation in decision making, role clarity, and role participation. These three performance dimensions have the ability to anticipate the silence that exists within the organisation.

Pourakbari Foumani (2016) shown that there is a substantial connection between the quiet of organisational administrators and the personnel they oversee. There was not a substantial difference in attitude towards organisational quiet between the managers and the employees. The findings also shown that managerial and employee performance may be accurately predicted with the help of organisational quiet and its associated indicators at both the managerial and employee levels of the business. Mohammadi (2016) demonstrated the importance of maintaining quiet in the workplace for increased Performance.

H. The Relationship between Psychological Safety, Organizational Stress and Employees' Performance

A feeling of psychological safety allows a person to demonstrate and engage in behaviours that are respectful of themselves without fear of experiencing adverse effects. It is also possible to define psychological safety as a psychological environment in which workers have a sense of safety (Kark, & Carmeli, 2009). According to the findings of the research, psychological safety is an essential component for the safety and safety of workers on the job, which in turn has an impact on the performance of the organisation. According to the findings of the research, the authors concluded that a climate of psychological safety helps individuals to feel secure while taking risks, establishing high standards that take huge effort, and creating such a sort of interdependent safe environment to execute their work effectively. According to new findings, psychological safety fosters working environments in which workers have the opportunity to safely acquire new skills and enhance their performance. It was shown that psychological safety is a key relational stimulant for workers' learning behaviours in the organisational work environment for the purpose of improving their performance in their jobs. The presence of psychological safety and trust in one's surrounding environment plays an important part in the generation of intrinsic drive (Maximo, Stander, & Coxen, 2019).

The development of the workers' confidence is aided by psychological safety,

and this, in turn, helps the employees become more courageous in their willingness to take chances and demonstrate performance. The concept of psychological safety places an emphasis on the atmosphere of an organisation as a place where critical or reflective thinking may be freely practised. Building high-quality connections among workers that are characterised by mutual respect, shared objectives, knowledge, and information, as well as planning, might contribute to the creation of psychological safety (Singh, Winkel, & Selvarajan, 2013). This provides an explanation for why psychological safety plays a part in the process of altering the attitudes and behaviours of the workers. It is crucial for the continued existence of a company to provide a psychologically secure environment for the performance of its personnel. It is of critical significance for maintaining a positive atmosphere inside the firm (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, & Ziv, 2010).

Employees' opinions of their psychological safety are very important to the process of information sharing. In addition, the work and study findings expanded our knowledge that different employees react differently to HR practises within the same organisation environment. As a result, an organisation needs to pay attention to the psychological safety of employees' performance factors in order to ensure optimal business outcomes. A psychologically secure atmosphere inside the business has a direct correlation with the performance of both the workers and the organisation as a whole (Vogus, & Welbourne, 2003). In addition, the study found that psychological safety inside a business has a strong relationship with its stakeholders, which, in the end, gives beneficial effects to both the firm's workers and its other stakeholders. Therefore, psychological safety plays a supportive role in the performance of the workers at their place of employment.

İ. Conceptual Framework

Figure 3 Conceptual Model of Research

J. Hypothesis Development

H1: There is a negative relationship between Organizational Silence and Employee Performance

H2: There is a negative relationship between Organizational Stress and Employee Performance

H3: Psychological Safety moderate the relationship between Organizational Silence and Employee Performance

H4: Psychological Safety moderate the relationship between Organizational Stress and Employee Performance.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

Using a descriptive survey approach, this study will examine the data. There is no direct control over the independent variables by the researcher due to the fact that their manifestations have already happened or they are essentially impossible to modify, as outlined by Kerlinger (1986). Following the observation of a dependent variable, Weiersman (1991) states that descriptive research begins with a review of possible links and effects.

In such a research, conclusions regarding the connection between variables are drawn without the use of direct interaction between contemporaneous variables of the independent and dependent variables of the independent and dependent variables. The variables under investigation were not manipulated in any way, and deductions were drawn solely on the basis of the information gathered in this respect. Because the manifestations of these variables have already happened, this form of study will be used to determine their causes.

According to Wyk, the design of the study is what specifies what kinds of data are required, how those data are gathered, and how those data are used in order to answer the research question (2018). Research designs may be used to classify many kinds of studies, including exploration, description, explanation, prediction, evaluation, and history, among others. Exploration, description, explanation, and prediction are all different types of classifications. There are a great many distinct forms of study, and every single one of them was designed for a certain purpose. A descriptive research technique was used in the context of this study to address the issue, "What exactly is going on?" What, exactly, is taking place at this location? What aspects of the environment make this more likely to occur? The structure of the survey was chosen with the purpose of gathering information from respondents about their thoughts on the effect of digital marketing on the buying behaviour of customers so that more research could be carried out.

Quantitative research is a subfield of social science study that makes use of statistical techniques and involves the collection, analysis, and interpretation of numerical data. This subfield of social science research is also known as empirical research. Their inquiries focus on who, what, when, where, how much, how many, and how they themselves should respond to these queries (Balnaves, 2001, 5). It was decided that a quantitative methodology would be used in the study that would be carried out. In addition, the testing of hypotheses, the kind of inquiry that was carried out, as well as the use of causal and cross-sectional data, all had an impact on the research design of the study.

B. Population and Sampling Technique

When we say "target population," we mean everyone from whom a statistically valid sample might be taken. A sample is a selection of people from a broader group for use in research. The term "participant" is used to describe those who take part in a certain event (Balnaves, 2001, 98-99). In this study, the target population or universe of the study was those who live in Beşiktaş, Istanbul and are comfortable with technology and like online shopping make up the studies target audience. It's used by about 700 individuals whose purchasing habits are affected by demographic characteristics including age, gender, marital status, and level of education.

Sampling technique is non-probability sampling method was choose for sample design. Samples taken at random or with the use of probability are referred to as "probability samples" or "representative samples," respectively. Each member of the population has a certain (non-zero) probability of being selected as part of the sample when drawing from a population using probability. The samples were collected using a convenience sampling strategy. The sample size of this study is n= 265 individuals, or 31.7% of the study's target population, were selected from the pool for analysis. Simple random sampling was used throughout the duration of this inquiry.

C. Data Collection

The fundamental objective of this thesis is to collect data on organisational

silence and its effects on employees, with a focus on financial and non-financial sector employees, who due to the nature of their jobs, are always under pressure to cope with stress. Primary data was collected mostly via an online survey that respondents took at their own leisure. Email and Whatsapp were used to distribute the survey to the general public. Only English was used in the survey's administration. The empirical data for this research was collected over the period of 20 days, from August 5th to August 26th, 2022. Total 265 questionnaire were sent to respondents but only 207 respondents gave feedback.

D. Questionnaire Design

A survey questionnaire was created to help in data collection for this study. When conducting a survey, a questionnaire is often used to elicit more detailed responses from participants. Questionnaires not only help eliminate bias but also allow for more targeted data collection (Balnaves, 2001, 126). The same data was presented in two distinct questioning parts. Section A of the survey asked for basic demographic information from the responder, such their age and gender. Section B, the second portion, has an updated Likert Scale with options ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (#1) to "Strongly Agree" (#5). There were a total of 26 questions.

E. Construct Measurement

According to Osherson and Lane, researchers often employ nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio scales when gauging study variables (n.d.). The research used three different types of measuring scales: nominal, ordinal, and interval. Please see Annex A for further information.

1. Organizational Silence

In measuring the organizational silence; we used Vakola & Bouradas (2005) which consisting of 6 items. Participants answered "Strongly agree" (5) "Agree" (4) "Neutral" (3) Disagree (4) and "Strongly Disagree" (1) in Likert standard.

2. Organizational Stress

Siyambalapitiya and Sachitra, 2019 scale used. For organizational stress there are 7 questions were used. Participanys answered "Strongly agree" (5) "Agree" (4)

"Neutral" (3) Disagree (4) and "Strongly Disagree" (1) in Likert standard.

3. Psychological Safety

Sher et al., 2019 scale used. For psychological safety, there are 5 questions were used. Participanys answered "Strongly agree" (5) "Agree" (4) "Neutral" (3) Disagree (4) and "Strongly Disagree" (1) in Likert standard.

4. Employee Performance

In measuring the perceived risk; we used (Asio, 2021) which consisting of 8 items. Participants answered "Strongly agree" (5) "Agree" (4) "Neutral" (3) Disagree (4) and "Strongly Disagree" (1) in Likert standard. Permission to use relevant scale and the adapted version of the scale for the study is presented in Anex_1.

F. Data reliability and validity

When we speak about dependability, we're referring to the extent to which survey results may be replicated with the same or improved comparability across time. In order to improve the validity of a questionnaire, it may be necessary to increase the number of questions used to evaluate a given concept. This is only one of many potential outcomes. Despite this, it may be necessary to lengthen the questionnaire, and the advantages and disadvantages should be considered (Bordens & Abbott, 2002). Including questions that can be answered with a simple yes or no answer can improve the questionnaire's reliability. Another strategy that may be employed to guarantee and enhance dependability is to ask inquiries that are easy to follow and articulate. The researchers said that questionnaire validity was defined as "the extent to which it assesses what you desire to analyse."

G. Data Analysis

SPSS version 23 was used to perform all of the statistical computations needed for this study. SPSS analytical procedures, such as analysis-related regression, correlation, and descriptive statistics, were used alongside other approaches. Moreover, for moderation analysis Hayes process method was used.

1. Hayes process method

Hayes has a rare talent: he can explain complex concepts to those who aren't in his field of study. His well-oiled equipment makes it possible to use various state-of-the-art statistical models in practise. Improving mediation training would include making the course longer to accommodate new material on conditional process models that assess the impacts of mediation and moderation concurrently. Statistical methods of mediation and moderation are among the most used in the social sciences. Students and seasoned scholars alike have waited years for a book that is both accessible and thorough on these issues, and the wait has been well worth it with the publication of this masterpiece. As always, Hayes writes with crystal clarity, and his latest work is destined to become the go-to source on meditation and moderation for years to come (Hayes, 2017).

In his work, Matthew Fritz lays out the theoretical foundations of moderation and mediation analysis and shows how they may be unified as "conditional process analysis." Mechanisms, circumstances, and moderators of causal effects are all discussed, along with procedures for evaluating these theories. Using ordinary least squares regression, Andrew Hayes thoroughly demonstrates how to estimate and interpret effects, investigate and depict interactions, and test hypotheses using moderated mediation (Fritz, Kenny, & MacKinnon, 2016).

IV.   ANALYSIS OF DATA

In this chapter, the previously gathered data were evaluated, and the results were discussed. The findings that were acquired are explained, and there are two different types of analysis. The first one is based on the personal data that the respondents provided, while the second one is based on the research topics that were looked at.

A.   Demographic Variables

Table 2 Distribution of respondents by Gender

Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	127	61.4	61.4	61.4
	Female	80	38.6	38.6	100.0
	Total	207	100.0	100.0	

The demographic information of the respondents is shown in table 4.1, broken down by gender. There were 207 people who filled out the questionnaires, and 127 of them were male, which indicates that 61.4% were male. There were 80 females, which indicates that 38.6% were female.

Table 3 Distribution of respondents by Age

Age		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18 – 25	67	32.4	32.4	32.4
	26 – 35	85	41.1	41.1	73.4
	36 – 45	38	18.4	18.4	91.8
	46 – 55	11	5.3	5.3	97.1
	56 – 59	6	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	207	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2 illustrates the breakdown of respondents by age group. Of the total, 32.4% are between the ages of 18 and 25, while 41.1% are between the ages of 26 and 35. Another 18.4% are between the ages of 36 and 45, 5.3% are between the ages of 46 and 55, and 6.1% are between the ages of 56 and 59.

Table 4 : Distribution of respondents by Educational Background

Educational Background					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor	103	49.8	49.8	49.8
	Master's	72	34.8	34.8	84.5
	M.Phil.	20	9.7	9.7	94.2
	Ph.D.	12	5.8	5.8	100.0
	Total	207	100.0	100.0	

Based on the data shown in Table 4.3, we can see that only 12.0% of respondents have a doctoral degree, whereas 49.8% of respondents hold a bachelor's degree, 34.8% hold a master's degree, 9.7% hold an M.Phil.

B. Reliability of scales

It is vital, prior to employing any scale in the study or carrying out factor analysis, to confirm that the scales are recognised as trustworthy by the research team that created them. This investigation made use of Cronbach's alpha value to ascertain that the trustworthiness of the scale that was used, or, to put it another way, to ascertain whether or not the data that was acquired was reliable in this study. In order for the value of alpha to be regarded credible, it must be at least.70 (Pallant, 2016). This piece of study consisted of a total of 25 questions, all of which investigated three separate concepts. The reliability of the items that were associated with Organizational silence, organisational stress, psychological safety, and employee performance was evaluated with the use of Cronbach's alpha.

The Organizational silence earned a score of 0.785 on Cronbach's alpha, which indicated that it was extremely dependable. When calculating Cronbach's alpha for organisational stress, the value that was obtained was 0.787. In comparison, the value that was obtained for staff efficiency was 0.895, and the value that was obtained for psychological safety was 0.786. In accordance with Cronbach's alpha reliability scale, each of the three constructs has reliability ratings that are higher than the absolute bare minimum of 0.70. As a consequence of this, all three structures have the potential to be relied upon.

Table 5 Reliability of scales

Sr#	Variable	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Organizational Silence	6	0.785
2	Organizational Stress	6	0.787
3	Employee Efficiency	8	0.895
4	Psychological Safety	5	0.786
5	Total	25	3.253

C. Descriptive Statistics

All variables, organizational silence, organizational stress, psychological safety and employee performance are shown in Table 4.5, together with their means and standard deviations. It was established what each variable's mean and standard deviation were, and the findings are shown in Table 4.4 below. The average for each variable was derived in the first place by taking the total value of all objects for certain construction or metric and averaging those values together. To get the average, we divided the total values of all goods by the number of products. Table 4.5 below shows participants' maximum and minimum values in response to questions regarding a certain construct. The maximum and minimum values are represented by the words "maximum, minimum, average, and standard deviation," respectively. The minimum and maximum values for all constructions are 1 and 5, respectively. It is also worth noting that the average score of IV and DV constructs (which ranges between M=3.25 and M=3.51) is rather high compared to other constructs. The maximum and lowest scores would range from 0.51961 to 0.78305 if the standard deviation were included.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organizational Silence	207	1.00	5.00	3.2593	.59064
Organizational Stress	207	1.00	5.00	3.4348	.78305
Employee Performance	207	1.00	5.00	3.5181	.51961
Psychological Safety	207	1.00	5.00	3.8483	.60739
Valid N (listwise)	207				

D. Correlation

Table 4.6 illustrates the ramifications of the link between variables and their respective coefficients. According to theory, it is feasible to determine the link between two or more variables by evaluating the relationship between those variables. In general, correlations between -1.00 and +1.00 will be diametrically opposed to one another. A correlation value of -1.00 implies an entirely negative link, while a correlation coefficient of +1.00 shows that there is an entirely positive association. When one measure increases in tandem with the other, this implies a positive association. A positive association occurs when two things are rising and one is falling simultaneously. There is no correlation between a 0.00 number and anything else.

The bivariate relationship between all of the study variables was investigated using the Pearson's Correlation analysis method. Table 4.6 presents a summary of the data from the trial as a whole.

Table 7 Correlations

		1	2	3	4
Organizational Silence (1)	Pearson Correlation	1	.463**	.353**	.344**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	207	207	207	207
Organizational Stress (2)	Pearson Correlation	.463**	1	-.032	.823**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.651	.000
	N	207	207	207	207
Employee Performance (3)	Pearson Correlation	.353**	-.032	1	-.030
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.651		.672
	N	207	207	207	207
Psychological Safety (4)	Pearson Correlation	.344**	.823**	-.030	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.672	
	N	207	207	207	207

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

E. Regression

The statistical idea of multiple regression is used to examine the connections between two data sets. Pearson coined the term "multiple regression" in 1908, and it

has been used ever since to study the link between numerous independent or predictor factors and the dependent or quantitative variance (Jyoti and Bhau, 2015). One portion of the technique is utilized before multiple regressions to guarantee that the data can be evaluated.

Table 8 Model Summaryb

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.416[a]	.173	.165	.47482	1.805

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Stress, Organizational Silence
b. Dependent Variable: Employees Performance

Following the model summary shown in Table 4.7, the organizational silence, organizational stress are described according to the employee Performance. Using the multiple correlation coefficient, it is possible to compute the standard of entrepreneur factors (R). The coefficient of prediction (R=0.416) suggests a reasonable degree of prediction in the study sample, which is corroborated by the results. Additionally, the resolution coefficient (R^2) and the variance ratio (DV) are both used to express the variance ratio (IV). Employee Performance, as seen by ($R^2 = 0.173$) in the ANOVA table, accounts for a considerable amount of the variance in organizational silence, organizational stress, according to the study results. This suggests that the model used for multiple regressions is appropriate in this particular situation.

In the following table, you can find information on Durbin Watson's statistical data: (DW). Autocorrelation in the residuals is tested using linear regression analysis, and the results are shown. It is common to see Watson's with Durbin values in 0 - 4. A score of 2.0 implies no evidence of autocorrelation in the sample. When the value is between 0 and less than 2, positive autocorrelations are detected, and negative autocorrelations are observed between 2 and 4. The table above indicates that the value 1.805 indicates a positive self-relationship.

Table 9 ANOVAa

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.626	2	4.813	21.348	.000[b]
	Residual	45.993	204	.225		
	Total	55.620	206			

a. Dependent Variable: Employees Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Stress, Organizational Silence

As shown in Table 4.8, the ANOVA model test identifies the following organizational silence, organizational stress. Therefore, the model's overall goodness of fit may be determined using an ANOVA. There are 21.348 F-statistics in the model, which is a nice number, and the Sig column in the Table of Coefficients, which shows which variables are statistically significant.

Table 10 Coefficients a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.742	.198		13.870	.000
	Organizational Silence	.412	.063	.468	6.515	.000
	Organizational Stress	-.165	.048	-.248	-3.457	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Employees Performance

As shown in Table 4.9, results of a model in which organizational silence, organizational stress have been used to address employee Performance have been obtained. The link between Organizational Silence and Employees Performance is positive and statistically significant while link between Organizational stress and Employees Performance is negative and statistically significant. As previously indicated, all the research questions were well addressed. So, H1: "There is a negative relationship between Organizational Silence and Employee Performance" is rejected while H2: "There is a negative relationship between Organizational Stress and Employee Performance" is supported.

F. Moderation Analysis

The table below shows the moderation results calculated through Hayes Process. Results show that the moderating role of psychological safety affects organizational silence, organizational stress that affect the employee performance.

Table 11 Matrix Procedure for Organization silence, employee performance and psychological safety

Run MATRIX procedure:

****************PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.0****************

        Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.   www.afhayes.com
   Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**Model: 1
   Y: Employee performance
   X: Organizational Silence
   W: Psychological safety

Sample Size: 207
**OUTCOME
VARIABLE: Employee performance

Model Summary
R   R-sq   MSE   F   df1   df2   p
.6964   .4850   .1913   76.6031 3.0000   244.0000   .0000
Model
         Coef.   se   t   p   LLCI   ULCI
Constant .4527   .5490   .8247   .0104   -.6287   1.5341
OSilence .5892   .1798   3.2762   .0012   .2350   .9434
PS   .4963   .1464   3.3902   .0008   .2079   .7846
Int_1   -.0600   .0475   -1.2618 .2082   -.1536   .0337

Product terms key:
Int_1   :   Organizational Silence x Psychological Safety

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

      R2-chng   F   df1   df2   p
X*W   .0034   4.5920   1.0000   244.0000   .0382

Focal predict:
     Organizational Silence   (X)
Moderator variable: Psychological
   Safety   (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
   Organizational Silence   Psychological Safety   Employee Performance
BEGIN DATA.
     2.0000   3.1429   2.8137
     3.0000   3.1429   3.2143
     4.0000   3.1429   3.6150
     2.0000   3.7143   3.0287
     3.0000   3.7143   3.3950
     4.0000   3.7143   3.7614
     2.0000   4.2857   3.2437
     3.0000   4.2857   3.5758
     4.0000   4.2857   3.9078
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
Organization Silence WITH Employee Performance BY Psychological Safety   .

***********************ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS***********************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000
------ END MATRIX -----
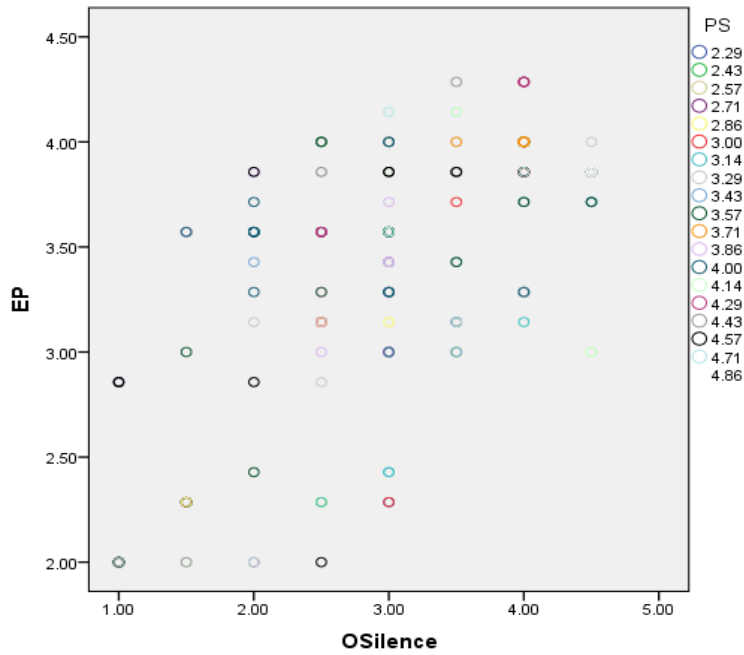
Figure 4 Moderating effect-Model 1

Table 12 Matrix Procedure for Organization stress, employee performance and psychological safety

Run MATRIX procedure:

****************PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.0 ****************

 Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model: 1
 Y: Employee performance
 X: Organizational Stress
 W: Psychological safety

Sample Size: 207

**OUTCOME
VARIABLE: Employee performance
Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.6588	.4340	.2102	62.3670	3.0000	244.0000	.0000

Model

	Coeff.	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	.6502	.7575	.8584	.3915	-.8419	2.1424
OStress	.4723	.2574	1.8347	.0678	-.0348	.9794
PS	.3999	.1935	2.0670	.0398	.0188	.7809
Int_1	-.0173	.0657	-.2638	.7921	-.1467	.1120

Product terms key:
 Int_1 : Organizational Stress x Psychological safety
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0002	.0696	1.0000	244.0000	.0221

Table 12 (Con) Matrix Procedure for Organization stress, employee performance and psychological safety

Run MATRIX procedure:

Focal predict   : Organizational Stress (X)
Moderator variable: Psychological safety   (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
Organizational Stress   Psychological safety   Employee performance   BEGIN DATA.

Organizational Stress	Psychological safety	Employee performance
2.3333	3.1429	2.8820
3.3333	3.1429	3.2998
3.6667	3.1429	3.4391
2.3333	3.7143	3.0874
3.3333	3.7143	3.4953
3.6667	3.7143	3.6313
2.3333	4.2857	3.2928
3.3333	4.2857	3.6908
3.6667	4.2857	3.8235

END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
Organizational Stress WITH Employee performance BY Psychological safety

***********************ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS***********************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000

------ END MATRIX -----
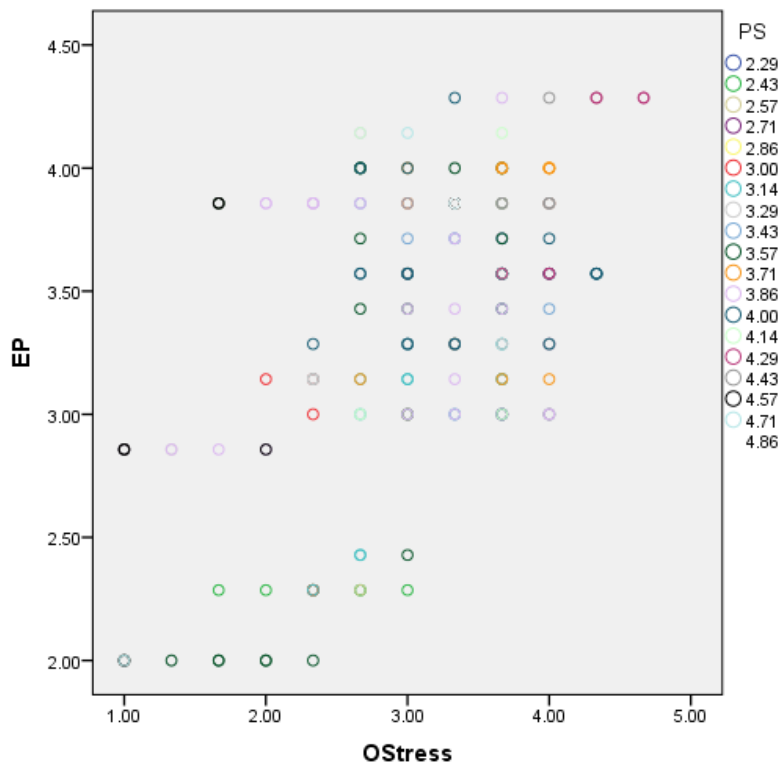
Figure 5 Moderating effect-Model 2

Table 13 Summary of Hypothesis

Sr #	Hypothesis	Significance
H1	Employee Efficiency > Organizational Silence	Rejected
H2	Employee Efficiency > Organizational Stress	Accepted
H3	Employee Efficiency > Organizational Silence * Psychological Safety	Accepted
H4	Employee Efficiency > Organizational Stress * Psychological Safety	Accepted

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusion

This research was conducted with the intention of determining whether or not there is a correlation between the presence of quiet in the workplace and the levels of stress experienced by workers in the financial and non-financial sectors. According to the hypothesis, organizational silence had a positive relation with employee performance, meaning that when silence occurred, it had a positive effect on the performance of employees, whereas organizational stress had a negative effect on employee performance, meaning that reducing stress led to an increase in performance; therefore, organizational silence and employee performance are inversely proportional to one another. Finally, businesses may alter or eliminate stress by restructuring occupations to lessen under appreciation, workplace victimization/bullying, unclear role/errands, work-home interface, fear of joblessness, exposure to traumatic situations at work, and economic instability. The company's regulations may be altered to allow workers more leeway in their daily tasks, and a support system can be set up to encourage open communication, collaboration, and the safe exploration of new ideas. It is possible to avoid employee unhappiness, diminished motivation, absenteeism, and poor levels of productivity by carefully designing employment. Some of these goals could be attainable with the help of program that are designed to manage stress in an effective manner. When it comes to making sense of the working environment and providing meaning to one's experiences, the interrelationships with other relevant people and groups are quite crucial. The manner in which a person makes sense of and interprets the environment in which they work is a significant factor in the stress that they feel on the job. Because of this, it is essential for businesses to demonstrate a commitment to reducing the negative effects of stress on their staff members. Similarly feeling of psychological safety allows a person to demonstrate and engage in behaviors that are respectful of themselves without fear of experiencing adverse effects. It is also

possible to define psychological safety as a psychological environment in which workers have a sense of safety.

B. Summary of Findings

There are a lot of significant takeaways that can be derived from this research.

To begin, we will discuss the first research goal in connection with the impact of organizational silence on the psychological safety of workers. In the course of addressing the research goal that was designed to investigate the connection between psychological safety and organizational silence (Research Objective 1), this study came to the conclusion that psychological safety does, in fact, have a connection with organizational silence. As a result, the researcher concludes that a psychologically secure environment is a prerequisite for organization. Therefore, in order to improve organizational performance, a business has to devote a greater amount of attention to psychological safety factors, such as employment fairness and the psychological safety of their teams.

The second objective of this study is how organizational silence influence the employee's Performance. According to the findings, there is a beneficial association between organizational silence and the performance of employees. Some workers have stated a wish to keep silence as a means of self-preservation or protection, expressing a feeling of resignation and acquiescence toward what is going on in the workplace (Aydin et al., 2016). They do not speak out because they like the peace and quiet, but rather because they believe that nothing will change, either their working circumstances or the surrounding environment. It was clear that the workers, like everyone else, needed to focus on their own work in order to stay out of problems. If you speak out, there is a good chance that you may have to deal with some unpleasant repercussions (Mengenci, 2015).

The third objective of this study: what is impact of organizational stress on psychological safety of employees? The results of this research show that a high level of psychological safety has a strong inverse relationship with stress in the workplace. Consistent with other research, we find that when psychological safety increases, stress in the workplace decreases. As a result, the psychological safety of

employees will have a significant effect on their physical and mental well-being, as well as their desire to work, since it is a source of stress in the workplace that cannot be disregarded. Employees will continue to be enthusiastic about their jobs and be prepared to commit themselves to them if they experience a feeling of psychological safety, can perceive the stability guarantee offered by the company, and have access to fair promotion chances and growth space.

The fourth objective of this study is to examine how organizational stress influence the employee's Performance? Workers' productivity takes a hit when they're under pressure at work, and the opposite is true when their stress levels drop. And last, companies may alter or eliminate stress by restructuring occupations to lessen feelings of worthlessness, workplace victimization/bullying, ambiguous role/errands, work-home interface, job insafety, exposure to traumatic situations at work, and economic uncertainty.

C. Research Contribution

Employee performance is analyzed in connection to factors such as psychological safety, stress in the workplace, and a lack of communication within the company. Consequently, this research includes ten contributions, three of which are theoretical and three of which are managerial or have management consequences.

1. Theoretical Contributions

In terms of theory, this research makes seven important contributions, including:

- In the past, researchers have looked at several aspects of psychological safety. Brown and Leigh (1996), May (2004), and Carmeli and colleagues (2009) are just a few of the many studies that have discussed the importance of both individual and team psychological safety (Bradley et al., 2012). However, to the author's knowledge, only few research have postulated a link between psychological safety factors (Ghumman et al., 2016). As a result, our research has helped shed light on other key connections in the realm of psychological safety. This research found, for instance, that psychological safety considerably moderates the connection between workplace stress and employee silence. Thus, the study has added to the theoretical idea of

psychological safety dimensionality, according to the researcher.

- This research has added to our understanding of the correlation between several aspects of psychological safety and productivity in the workplace. Despite the fact that multiple other research have highlighted the connection between psychological safety and worker productivity, this one found several new important correlations. Therefore, the researcher claims that the present study adds to the little knowledge of the link between organisational quiet, organisational stress, and employee performance with the moderating influence of psychological safety.

- This study's employee performance metrics are an expansion of those used in earlier studies. Previous research has often measured employees' success in terms of both financial and non-financial outcomes (Eccles, 1991; Baer & Frese, 2003; Stam et al., 2013). But this research also considers two non-financial performance dimensions: the company's public image and the morale of its employees. Accordingly, this study's findings that non-financial success is not a unidimensional entity are consistent with those of previous research (Venkatraman & Ramanujam, 1986; Stam et al., 2013). Both the financial and non-financial sectors get fresh light from our investigation.

2. Managerial implications

Additionally to its contributions to theory, this research has important managerial ramifications. Thus, the study makes three contributions to the literature on managerial practices:

- The authors of this study have developed a battery of instruments for gauging various aspects of psychological safety. Consider the statement, "my company never treated me differently because of my religion," which is part of a scale that evaluates the psychological safety of employees in regards to employment discrimination. Accordingly, the manager of the business can use these items as indicators that the workers feel psychologically secure in their workplace.

- Psychological safety factors were shown to have a positive correlation with productivity in this research. It may be argued that if a management wishes to

boost worker productivity, he or she must devise better programmes to ensure that people feel secure in their workplaces, both in terms of physical risks and social support (Morgan et al., 2013; Chen & Chen, 2014). The need for improved firm laws, such as a non-discrimination provision in the workplace, is one example. It may be argued that a boost in an employee's confidence and ability to do their job would result from stricter restrictions on non-discriminatory conduct in the workplace. In addition, new regulations provide supervisors unambiguous direction on how to keep the peace in the workplace.

3. Implication for Policy Makers

- The study, according to the author, makes two important contributions to the work of policymakers like governments.

- First, the importance of workers' emotional safety to the success of a company's operations has been shown by this research. Contrarily, psychological safety is an issue that arises in the context of the job. That's why it's so important for the government to place a greater emphasis on corporate rules like the legislation against discrimination in the workplace if it wants to provide better psychological safety for workers. As a result, workers will have a psychological safety against prejudice, which will positively impact the company's bottom line.

- Second, physical safety is a major worry for workers. The government may establish stricter guidelines for workplace safety practises and health issues. The psychological well-being of workers may be affected by these rules, which might have an effect on productivity. As a result, the government is concerned about how organisational performance affects national production.

D. Suggestions for Further studies

Both the stress caused by organizations and the silence caused by organizations are natural parts of existence. Therefore, more research may be conducted to develop efficient methods to alleviate stress, which is something that our current study contributes toward. Studies may be carried out to give valuable insight into the patterns of stress levels that are seen across a variety of industries. In

last, further research may also investigate other possible roles of job productivity of individuals in contrast to other sectors or organizational configurations.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A Survey

APPENDIX B Ethical Approval Form

Survey

Demographic data
Name of the company (not obligatory):

Gender
    a. **Female ( )**
    b. **Male ( )**
Age
    a. **18 – 25 ( )**
    b. **26 – 35 ( )**
    c. **36 – 45 ( )**
    d. **46 – 55 ( )**
    e. **56 – 59 ( )**
Educational background: ……………………………………

Organizational silence (Vakola & Bouradas (2005))

Sr #	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Top management of the company encourages employees to express their disagreements regarding company issues.					
2	If you express you disagreements regarding company issues, you may suffer negative consequences coming from the top management.					
3	Organizational changes are communicated adequately to the employees.					
4	The company keeps employees informed regarding its mission, plans and progress.					
5	I believe that my supervisor considers different opinions or disagreements as something useful.					
6	If you disagree about company issues, it can be perceived as lack of loyalty by the top management					

Organizational stress (Siyambalapitiya and Sachitra, 2019)

Sr #	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	Stress is a significant issue at my workplace					
	Stress plays a significant part in staff absenteeism at my workplace.					
	Is your performance affected by work stress?					
	Different peoples demand different things from me which I find difficult to Manage.					
	My job often interferes with my family and social obligations, or personal needs and most of the time I feel I have very little control over my life at work.					
	There was more than one time sudden unplanned change.					
	My colleagues are willing to listen my work-related problems.					

Psychological safety (Sher et al., 2019)

Sr #	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My feelings get hurt easily.					
2	I don't respond well to direct criticism.					
3	I am friendly to strangers.					
4	I want those around me to know I appreciate them.					
5	I am the kind of person who takes care of other people's feelings.					

Productivity of Employees (Asio, 2021)

Sr #	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Employees' quality of work improves over time.					
2	Employees can deliver within the set deadlines.					
3	Employees have steadily increased their output.					
4	Employees can deliver under less than perfect conditions.					
5	Over time we have been able to reduce service cycle time.					
6	Employees provide suggestions to enhance their service delivery.					
7	Employees are eager to learn ways of making themselves more productive.					
8	Over time we have increased customer satisfaction with the quality service delivered.					

APPENDIX B Ethical Approval Form

T.C.
İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Sayı : E-88083623-020-51971   31.05.2022
Konu : Etik Onayı Hk.

Sayın HADJER MELIANI

Tez çalışmanızda kullanmak üzere yapmayı talep ettiğiniz anketiniz İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu'nun 26.05.2022 tarihli ve 2022/09 sayılı kararıyla uygun bulunmuştur. Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Alper FİDAN
Müdür Yardımcısı

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

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RESUME

Hadjer Meliani

Education

2019 – current: Master of Business Administration Istanbul Aydin University, Istanbul – Turkey

2016 – 2019: Bachelor degree marketing Unversity of blida 2 Ali lounici -Algeria

Nationality : Algerian

Work Experience:

2019 – 2021: import/export company – Istanbul, Turkey

2021-2022 international trading with aren group Istanbul Turkey .

Languages

Arabic : Very good

English : Very good

Turkish : in progress

Frensh: very good

Skills

Communications; good written and verbal presentation skills.

Interpersonal Skills; able to get along well with co-workers and accept supervision.

Flexible; willing to try new things and I am interested in improving efficiency on assigned tasks.