

T.C.  
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ  
İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI  
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST  
ON WORK ENGAGEMENT  
- WITH THE MODERATING EFFECT OF  
WORK PRESSURE**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

**TUNA ARABACI**

İstanbul, 2012

T.C.  
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ  
İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI  
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST  
ON WORK ENGAGEMENT  
- WITH THE MODERATING EFFECT OF  
WORK PRESSURE**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

**TUNA ARABACI**

**DANIŞMAN: PROF.DR. FATMA ASLI KÜÇÜKASLAN**

İstanbul, 2012

Marmara Üniversitesi  
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Tez Onay Belgesi

İŞLETME Anabilim Dalı YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON(İNG) Bilim Dalı  
Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi TUNA ARABACI nın THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL  
TRUST ON WORK ENGAGEMENT WITH THE MODERATING EFFECT OF WORK  
PRESSURE adlı tez çalışması ,Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 13.06.2012 tarih ve  
2012-16/17 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oybirliği/oyçokluğu ile Yüksek  
Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı

İmzası

Tez Savunma Tarihi

: 26.6.2012

- 1) Tez Danışmanı : PROF. DR. FATMA ASLI KÜÇÜKASLAN  
2) Jüri Üyesi : PROF. DR. FATMA GÜLRUH GÜRBÜZ  
3) Jüri Üyesi : DOÇ. DR. MELİHA DENİZ BÖRÜ

  
.....  
.....  
.....

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

I would like to thank my thesis advisor Prof. Dr. Aslı Küçükaslan Ekmekçi for her valuable support, advice and supervision. I would also like to thank the members of my thesis committee Prof. Dr. Gülruh Gürbüz and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Deniz Börü for their guidance and advice. I am grateful to every faculty member of Management and Organization Department of Marmara University and my instructors in Boğaziçi University who provided me the basis for an academic research in management area.

I would like to express my gratitude to everyone who helped me with one of the most challenging aspects of this research which is data collection process. Thanks to all my friends, family members and acquaintances who took time to complete, return and also pass out the questionnaire to eligible participants who voluntarily participated in this study.

Finally, this dissertation could not have been completed without the support and encouragement of my family. I dedicate my thesis, especially to my lovely grandmother, and to all my family...

## GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

<b>Name &amp; Surname:</b>	TUNA ARABACI
<b>Field:</b>	Business Administration
<b>Program:</b>	Management and Organization
<b>Advisor:</b>	Prof. Dr. Fatma Aslı Küçükaslan
<b>Degree Awarded and Year:</b>	Post-Graduate Degree - 2012
<b>Keywords:</b>	Work engagement, organizational trust, work pressure

### ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine the role of organizational trust on work engagement, with the moderating influence of work pressure. In order to reach accurate results for this research, the data is collected by applying questionnaires to employees about their leaders' attitudes, trustworthiness of their organizations and colleagues, the employees' engagement to their organizations and their level of perceived work pressure. In addition to these; demographic variables like gender, tenure, age, working in a local or multinational company and education levels are also taken into consideration.

The sample of the research consists of 412 employees who work in multinational companies and local firms from different sectors in İstanbul. The analyses are conducted by using SPSS program (The Statistical Package for Social Sciences) and it is investigated that organizational trust increases work engagement. In this relationship, work pressure has a moderating role for only vigor dimension of work engagement. The findings also suggest that employees working in multinational companies have higher levels of organizational trust compared to the employees working in local firms; additionally, local firm employees are more absorbed in their work than multinational company employees.

## GENEL BİLGİ

<b>Ad &amp; Soyad:</b>	TUNA ARABACI
<b>Ana Bilim Dalı:</b>	İşletme
<b>Bilim Dalı:</b>	Yönetim ve Organizasyon (İng.)
<b>Danışman:</b>	Prof. Dr. Fatma Aslı Küçükaslan
<b>Tez Türü ve Yılı:</b>	Yüksek Lisans Tezi - 2012
<b>Anahtar Kelimeler:</b>	İşe adanmışlık, kurum içinde güven, iş baskısı

### ÖZET

Bu çalışma, kurum içinde güvenin işe adanmışlık üzerindeki rolünü, iş baskısının düzenleyici değişken olarak etkisi ile birlikte araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada, doğru sonuçlara ulaşmak amacıyla çalışanlara; yöneticilerinin tavırları, çalıştıkları kurum ve iş arkadaşlarının güvenilirlikleri, kurumlarına olan adanmışlık seviyeleri ve algıladıkları iş baskısı ile ilgili sorular içeren anketler uygulanarak veri toplanmıştır. Bunlara ek olarak; cinsiyet, kıdem, yaş, çok uluslu ya da yerli bir firmada çalışıyor olmak ve eğitim seviyesi gibi demografik değişkenler de göz önünde bulundurulmuştur.

Araştırmanın örneklem grubu, İstanbul'da çok uluslu ya da yerli firmalarda çalışan, farklı sektörlerden 412 kişiden oluşmaktadır. Analizler SPSS programı kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir ve kurum içinde güvenin işe adanmışlığı artırdığı saptanmıştır. Bu ilişkide, iş baskısının sadece işe adanmışlığın enerji boyutu için düzenleyici değişken görevi üstlendiği tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular ayrıca; çok uluslu şirket çalışanlarının kurum içinde güven algısının yerli firma çalışanlarına göre daha yüksek olduğunu ve yerli firma çalışanlarının çok uluslu şirket çalışanlarına göre işleriyle daha çok bütünleştiklerini göstermiştir.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>1. INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....</b>	<b>2</b>
2.1. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE RESEARCH.....	2
2.2. ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST.....	5
2.2.1. Definition of Organizational Trust.....	5
2.2.1.1. Comparison of Cognition-Based Trust and Affect-Based Trust.....	7
2.2.1.2. Comparison of Calculus-Based Trust, Knowledge-Based Trust and Identification-Based Trust.....	8
2.2.2. Antecedents of Organizational Trust.....	10
2.2.3. Concepts Related To Trust.....	14
2.2.4. Dimensions of Organizational Trust.....	17
2.2.4.1. Trust in Supervisor.....	17
2.2.4.2. Trust in Co-workers.....	18
2.2.4.3. Trust in Organization.....	19
2.2.5. Consequences of Organizational Trust.....	20
2.3. WORK ENGAGEMENT.....	23
2.3.1. Definition of Work Engagement.....	23
2.3.2. Antecedents of Work Engagement.....	29

2.3.3. Dimensions of Work Engagement.....	35
2.3.3.1. Dedication.....	35
2.3.3.2. Absorption.....	36
2.3.3.3. Vigor.....	37
2.3.4. Consequences of Work Engagement.....	38
2.4. WORK PRESSURE.....	40
2.4.1. The Definition of Work Pressure (Perceived Work Overload) .....	40
2.4.2. Theoretical Background of Work Pressure.....	42
2.4.2.1. Karasek’s Initial Model: The Demand- Control Model.....	42
2.4.2.2. Karasek’s Expanded Model: The Demand- Control-Support Model.....	43
2.4.2.3. Job Demands-Resources Model.....	44
2.4.3. Consequences of Work Pressure.....	47
2.5. THE RELATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND WORK PRESSURE.....	49
<b>3. METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>54</b>
3.1. AIM OF THE STUDY AND THE PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL.....	55
3.2. SAMPLE.....	55
3.3. INSTRUMENTS.....	55
3.3.1. Measurement of Organizational Trust.....	55

3.3.2.	Measurement of Work Engagement.....	55
3.3.3.	Measurement of Work Pressure.....	56
3.4.	PROCEDURE.....	56
3.5.	STATISTICAL ANALYSIS.....	57
<b>4.</b>	<b>RESULTS OF THE STUDY.....</b>	<b>59</b>
4.1.	DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHICS.....	59
4.2.	RESULTS OF THE FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES.....	61
4.2.1.	Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Organizational Trust.....	61
4.2.2.	Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Work Engagement.....	63
4.2.3.	Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Work Pressure.....	65
4.3.	REVISED RESEARCH MODEL AND DIMENSIONS.....	66
4.4.	THE HYPOTHESES TESTING.....	67
4.4.1.	The Contribution of Organizational Trust to Work Engagement.....	67
4.4.2.	The Moderating Role of Work Pressure on The Contribution of Organizational Trust to Work Engagement.....	70
4.5.	ADDITIONAL INFERENCES ABOUT THE STUDY CONCEPTS.....	72
4.5.1.	The Contribution of Work Pressure to Work Engagement.....	72
4.5.2.	The Relationships Between The Demographic Variables and The Study Concepts.....	74
4.5.2.1.	T-Test Results For The Demographic Variables.....	74
4.5.2.2.	One-way ANOVA Results For The Demographic Variables.....	76
4.5.2.3.	Chi-Square Test Results For The Demographic Variables.....	87

<b>5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>89</b>
5.1. DISCUSSION.....	89
5.2. CONCLUSION.....	96
5.2.1. Limitations of The Study.....	97
5.2.2. Suggestions for Further Research.....	97
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>APPENDIX-I : The Questionnaire.....</b>	<b>110</b>
<b>APPENDIX-II : The Questionnaire Items in English.....</b>	<b>114</b>

## **LIST OF TABLES**

**Table 1.** Factor and Reliability Analysis Results for the *Pilot Study*

**Table 2.** Summary of the Descriptive Analysis of the Demographic Variables

**Table 3.** Summary of the Descriptive Analysis of the Demographic Variables (cont.)

**Table 4.** Organizational Trust - Factor and Reliability Analysis Report

**Table 5.** Work Engagement - Factor and Reliability Analysis Report

**Table 6.** Work Pressure - Factor and Reliability Analysis Report

**Table 7.** Correlation Analysis Results of All Variables

**Table 8.** Simple Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Trust and Work Engagement

**Table 9.** Multiple Regression Analysis Results For Dimensions of Organizational Trust and Work Engagement

**Table 10.** Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Results: The Moderating Role of Work Pressure on The Contribution of Organizational Trust to Vigor Dimension of Work Engagement

**Table 11.** Simple Regression Analysis Results For Work Pressure and Work Engagement

**Table 12.** Independent Samples T-Test Results: Differences In Terms of Gender

**Table 13.** Independent Samples T-Test Results: Differences in Local Firms and Multinational Companies

**Table 14.** One-way ANOVA Results For Position Level

**Table 15.** One-way ANOVA Results For Age Groups

**Table 16.** Welch and Brown-Forsythe Test Results For Age Groups

**Table 17.** One-way ANOVA Results For Education Level

**Table 18.** Welch and Brown-Forsythe Test Results For Experience in Business Life

**Table 19.** One-way ANOVA Results For Experience in Business Life

**Table 20.** Chi-Square Test Results For Gender of The Employee and Position Level

**Table 21.** Chi-Square Test Results For Gender of The Employee and Position Level

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

**Figure 1.** Model of Trust (Mayer et al., 1995)

**Figure 2.** Trust Spectrum (Hinnant, 2007)

**Figure 3.** The Trust –Mistrust – Absence Triangle (Saunders et al., 2004)

**Figure 4.:** The drivers of employee engagement (Robinson et al., 2004).

**Figure 5.** Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement (Saks, 2006)

**Figure 6.** The Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement (Bakker et al., 2008)

**Figure 7.** The Underlying Dimensions of Burnout and Work Engagement (Langelaan, 2007)

**Figure 8.** The Proposed Research Model

**Figure 9.** The Revised Research Model

## INTRODUCTION

The effect of trust on work processes has always been an intriguing subject for the researchers, because it is important for a company to perform well. In the literature, there are various researches dealing with organizational trust's influences on work engagement, but there is not enough research about the effects of work pressure as a moderating variable. In the current research, this important point is tried to be explored.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the role of organizational trust on an employee's engagement to her/his work and to reveal whether work pressure has a moderating role in this relationship or not.

After collecting data from the employees via questionnaires about their organizations, leaders, organizational trust and perceived workload levels; these data are analyzed statistically and the following research questions are addressed:

1. Does organizational trust have a contribution to work engagement?
2. Does employees' perceived work pressure have an influence on this contribution of organizational trust to work engagement?

The first section of the study focuses on literature review related to organizational trust, work engagement, work pressure and their relations with each other. The following sections include the methodology of the research where the research model, the main hypotheses, sample, instruments and the procedure are given; results of the statistical analyses; and the last section consists of discussion and conclusion which include interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study and some recommendations for further research.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE RESEARCH**

The relationship between the conditions of workplace and its affects over employees' well-being has found to be an interesting subject for the researchers. Before 1990s, prevalent models defining this relationship were mostly interested in the negative outcomes of working conditions, but after 1990s, also the positive consequences of work conditions are studied (Metin et al., 2010). One of these positive outcomes was found to be work engagement of employees, which is handled in this research with its relationship with organizational trust. Many researchers claimed that work engagement was positively affected by organizational trust (Chughtai et al., 2009; Lin, 2010; Tan et al., 2000) grounding their opinions to several theories.

*“Attachment theory”* (Bowlby, 1969) is recognized as a lifespan developmental theory relevant for understanding how certain affectional experiences impact emotional and physical well-being not only during childhood, but also throughout adulthood and during their working profession as well (Sable, 2008 as cited in Lin, 2010). In his study, Sable (2008) claims that attachment theory is based on the premise that human beings have a natural inclination to make and maintain lasting affectional bonds or attachments to familiar, irreplaceable organizations and once these ties are established in a secure and stable way, they are likely to lead the individuals' beliefs and work behavior in the organization, such as work engagement and organizational trust (As cited in Lin, 2010). Attachment theory helps to explain the self-fulfilling nature of employees' expectations on leadership or their organization (Keller et al., 2001 as cited in Lin, 2010) and therefore employees' work engagement and organizational trust are embraced together in this theory.

Attachment theory's basic proposition is that when attachment needs (an emotional bond based on care-seeking and care-giving behavior) are sufficiently met, then an exploration of the environment occurs. In other words for business life, when employees

experience their organization (caregiver) as being responsive to their needs, their work engagement is likely to be stimulated based on the positive attachment with the organization. Accordingly, the employees are likely to reciprocate with their strong trust toward the organization (Lin, 2010) and with ethical responsibility taken by firms by being honest in their relationship with their own employees (De los Salmones et al., 2005).

In his research based on attachment theory, Lin (2010) stated that “Whereas organizational trust represents individuals’ confidence and expectations about the actions of their organizations, work engagement reflects their subsequent involvement with and enthusiasm about their work assigned by the organization, implying the potential influence of the former on the latter” (p. 521). In other words, organizational trust positively affects work engagement and attachment theory can be strongly used to explain these aspects of work behavior.

In addition to attachment theory, “*Attribution Theory*” (Calder, 1977) is also used to explain the relationships in business life, especially in explaining the formation of trust between people (As cited in Çeri-Booms et al., 2009). This theory provides explanations on how individuals judge others and find causes for events by analyzing the way they perceive cause and effect relations (As cited in Kuşculuoğlu et al., 2008). As an example, when an employee relates reasons behind the behaviors of his/her superior to either contextual or personal factors, then s/he is in the process of forming opinion about the superior’s trustworthiness (Korsgaard et al., 2002 as cited in Kuşculuoğlu et al., 2008). Korsgaard et al. (2002) claim that, in social or organizational life as individuals form opinions about each other’s trustworthiness during their relations, they also develop beliefs which cause them to relate the behaviors of the other party either to internal or external causes (As cited in Kuşculuoğlu et al., 2008). For this reason trust formation has been studied as an attributional process by some researchers like Ferrin et al. (2003, as cited in Kuşculuoğlu et al., 2008).

Other theory which helps to explain the relationship between the variables of this research is “*affective-events theory*” (Weiss et al., 1996) which provides a comprehensive explanation of the causes, consequences and structure of affective experiences at work (As cited in Glasø et al., 2011). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that workplace events trigger affective responses which after being accumulated over time will influence workplace

attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational trust (As cited in Glasø et al., 2011). These attitudes will in turn impact upon workplace behaviors such as absenteeism, turnover, and work engagement.

In their research which aimed to examine the factors eliciting positive and negative emotions in the work of customer services representatives and to determine different consequences of emotions at work, Wegge et al. (2006) based their opinions on Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) affective events theory. They claimed that a high work overload is linked with experiencing fewer positive emotions at work and employees perceiving low work overload is not only experience more positive emotions, but also fewer negative emotions. The researchers found that work overload gives rise to negative emotions, which in turn even lead to health complaints. In addition to this research, depending on the affective-events theory, Wegge and Neuhaus (2002) also reported a positive correlation between work overload and negative emotions among university employees (As cited in Wegge et al., 2006). Therefore, the affective events theory also supports the anticipated relationships between the variables of the current study.

## **2.2. ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST**

Trust is a concept which has been researched by many investigators from diverse disciplines like sociology, psychology, management, anthropology and organizational theory. These research mainly focus on levels of trust including trust between individuals, groups, firms or institutions. In this research, trust is handled in organizational level which includes trust of an employee to her/his supervisor or manager, trust between the employees of an organization and also trust of an employee to her/his organization. After explaining the trust concept as a whole by giving several definitions and its antecedents, its dimensions and consequences are also expounded.

### **2.2.1. DEFINITION OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST**

In social sciences literature, there are numerous definitions of trust on both individual and organizational bases. As cited in Ganesan (1997), trust has been conceptualized as an expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another party can be relied on (Rotter, 1971; Moorman, et al.,1992) and, a confidence in the motives of the other party in conditions involving risk or a belief in the benevolent intentions of the other party (Deutsch, 1973 as cited in Ganesan, 1997, p. 440).

Robinson (1996) defined trust as "one's expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions will be beneficial, favorable, or at least not detrimental to one's interest" (as cited in Hopkins et al., 2006 p. 575). Saran et al. (2004) had also defined the concept of trust as "a feeling of confidence and commitment without the perceptions of fear, hesitation and doubt, where the person believes that he/she will receive support and collaboration in resolving problems in times of need without any underlying, ulterior motives and/or negative thoughts on the part of others" (as cited in Altuntaş et al., 2009, p. 187).

Also, organizational trust, which forms the basis of intraorganizational relationships, has several definitions in the literature. According to Cummings and Bromiley (1995), organizational trust is “the belief of an individual or a group as a whole that individuals or the organization will make every effort, whether explicit or implied, in good faith to act in accordance with commitments; that honesty in relationships will be ensured as a consequence of commitments; and that involved people will not seek to take advantage of others even if they have such opportunities” (as cited in Altuntaş et al., 2009 p. 187). The term has been defined by Demircan and Ceylan (2003) as “the way an employee perceives the support offered by the organization, and his/her confidence in leaders or associates that they are honest and true to their word” (as cited in Altuntaş et al. 2009 p.187). Another definition provided by Yücel (2006) is “expectations of individuals, groups or organizations from individuals, groups or organizations with which they are in mutual interaction that they will make ethical decisions and will develop behaviors that are based on ethical principles” (As cited in Altuntaş et al., 2009 p.187).

In the literature, Rousseau et al. (1998) reflect the practitioner view in their definition, “trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another” (As cited in Mayer et al., 1995 p. 712). In their view, risk, interdependence and the willingness to accept vulnerability are necessary conditions in all formulations of trust (As cited in Morgan et al., 2003 p.58).

As a multidimensional construct (Rousseau et al., 1998), trust is as much an emergent property of patterned relations as a trait of a discrete entity. Trust *emerges* in, and from, and is *sustained* by the patterned and cumulative enactment of social relations as a collective property (Lewis et al., 1985; Barber, 1983 as cited in Morgan et al., 2003) and has been termed 'system trust' (Luhman, 1979). The latter is enhanced when people believe systemic protection of their position exists. In other words, at the interpersonal level, it is the assessment of *trustworthiness* by the trustee of a trustee that can be said to be a psychological state and “it encompasses an intention to act entailing vulnerability” (Morgan et al., 2003 p. 58).

Different classifications for trust are made in the literature. For instance, Aryee and colleagues (2002) discussed trust as a combination of cognition-based and affect-based trust

(As cited in Hopkins et al., 2006). In a different way, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) classified trust in three levels as; calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust and identification-based trust (As cited in Pirson, 2007). These two different classifications are explained in detail below:

#### ***2.2.1.1. Comparison of Cognition-Based Trust and Affect-Based Trust:***

According to the trust classification of Aryee et al. (2002), *cognition-based trust* is determined by the evaluation of an individual as to the ability of another party (e.g.. the organization) to fulfill obligations and, therefore, demonstrate reliability and dependability. On the other hand, *affect-based trust* develops from a mutual care and concern between two parties. The combination of these two kinds of trust reflects "concern for others' interests, reliability, openness and competence" (Aryee et al. 2002, p. 271 as cited in Hopkins et al., 2006 p. 484). Cognition-based trust refers to the rational decision to trust or to withhold trust of another employee (Costigan et al., 2006). In terms of a subordinate employee's trust in the supervisor, a cognition-based trust judgement is based on good reasons, such as the supervisor's history in performing responsibly and competently, which provides evidence of this person's cognition-based trustworthiness (Costigan et al., 1998; Lewis et al., 1985; McAllister, 1995 as cited in Costigan et al. 2006 p. 275). Affect-based trust, on the other hand, is more emotional than rational. It evolves over a period of time into a deep workplace relationship with both parties making an emotional investment to each other (Costigan et al., 1998; Lewis et al., 1985; McAllister, 1995 as cited in Costigan et al. 2006 p. 275). Care and concern for each party in the relationship typify this form of trust. Establishing relationships based on cognition-based judgments, such as competence and reliability, are thought to be more common in the workplace whereas forming deep, caring relationships based on affect-based trust are probably less common, especially in the typical employee-supervisor relationship (Costigan et al., 2006).

### ***2.2.1.2. Comparison of Calculus-Based Trust, Knowledge-Based Trust and Identification-Based Trust:***

A different trust classification is made by Lewicki and Bunker (1996) which is explained in three levels;

- Calculus-based trust,
- Knowledge-based trust
- Identification-based trust.

***Calculus-based trust*** predominates in a first-time encounter and is based on rational choice deliberations. Trust emerges when the trustor perceives that the trustee's intentions and actions are beneficial (Pirson, 2007). Lewicki and Bunker defined calculus-based trust as "confidence founded on the understanding that both potent rewards for preserving that confidence and punishments for violating it are in place" (As cited in McAllister et al., 2006 p.1). The perceived positive intention derives from credible information regarding the intentions or competence of another (Barber, 1983 as cited in Pirson, 2007). As an example, credible information about the trustee may be provided by others (reputation) or by certification (such as a diploma). Such "proof sources" signal that the trustee's claims of trustworthiness are true (Doney et al., 1998 as cited in Pirson, 2007). This type of trust can be explained as an act of will that has a strategic purpose. According to Rousseau, Sitkin et al. (1998) the range of calculus-based trust is often limited to situations where evidence of failure to perform can be obtained in the short term and exchanges based on calculus-based trust are likely to be terminated once violation occurs (As cited in Pirson, 2007).

***Knowledge-based trust*** derives from repeated interactions over time between the trustor and trustee. Information available to the trustor from within the relationship itself forms the basis of relational trust. Reliability and dependability in previous interactions with the trustor give rise to positive expectations about the trustee's intentions (Pirson, 2007).

This type of trust requires good information regarding a trustee that comes from the experience of working together, regular communication and deeper interpersonal familiarity and understanding that emerges over time with repeated interaction (McAllister et al., 2006).

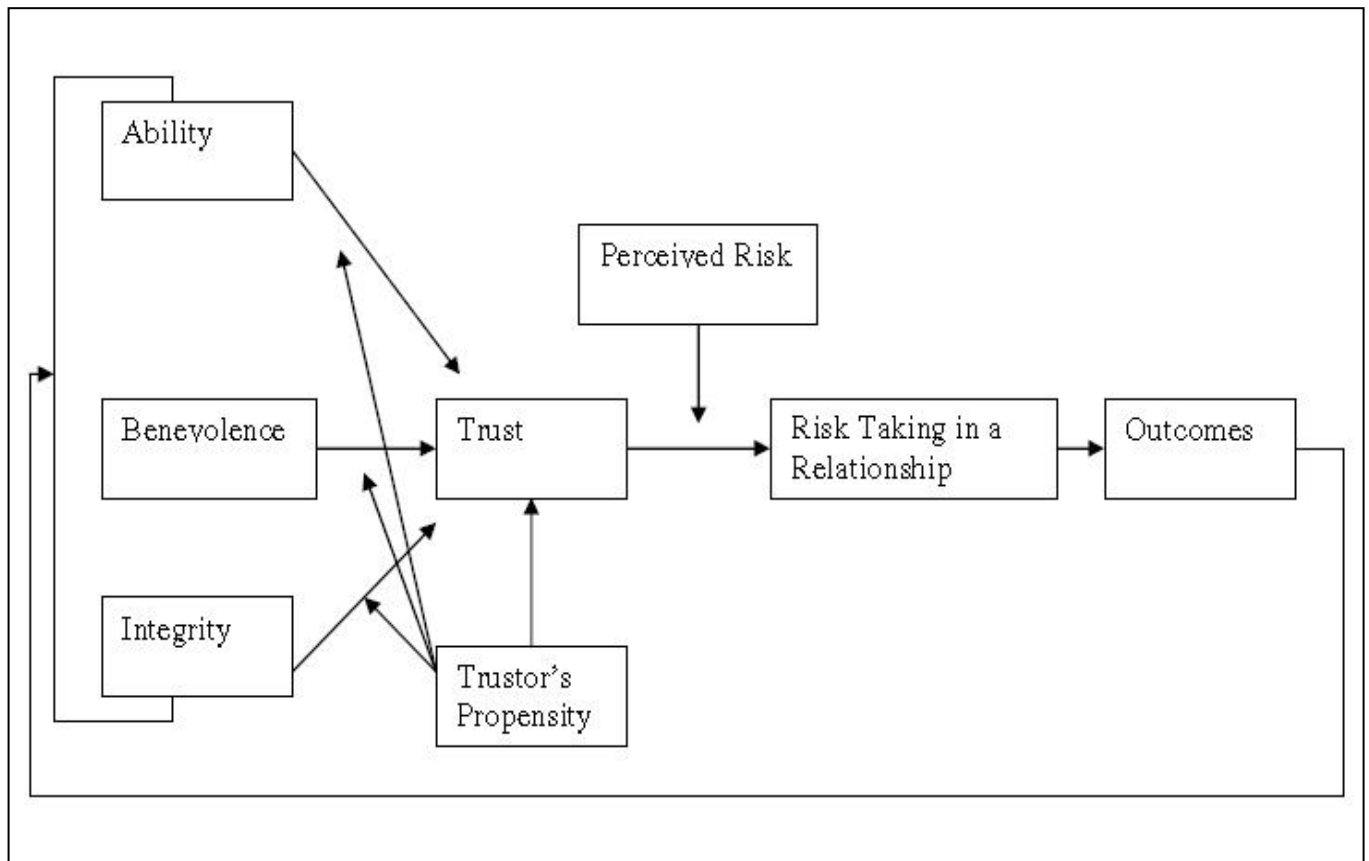
In other words, knowledge-based trust relies on information and ability to predict the other's behaviour. Trust develops over time as a function of the parties having a history of interaction. Information contributes to the predictability of the other, which in turn contributes to trust. The capacity to predict the other's behaviour makes possible to make plans, investments or other decisions contingent on the behaviour of the other party (Melikoğlu et al., 2009).

*Identification-based trust* is defined by Lewicki and Bunker (1995) as confidence based upon the understanding that full internalization of each other's desires and intentions has been achieved—the parties understand each other, agree with what each other wants, and are prepared to support one another in pursuit of those ends (As cited in McAllister et al., 2006). This means that the trustor fully internalizes the preferences of the other party, and identify with him/her on that ground (Melikoğlu et al., 2009).

Pirson (2007) mentioned that identification-based trust reflects a mutual respect for and support of each other's motivation. In his research, he stated that Lewicki and Bunker (1995) had considered this type of trust as the highest level of trust. It is intense and highly moral. Actors are able to anticipate each other's reactions and know what type of behavior enables congenial collaboration. Common goals and shared values form the basis for this relationship (Pirson, 2007).

## 2.2.2. ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

In order to identify the antecedents and consequences of trust, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman developed a model in their study called “An Integrative Model of Organizational Trust” in 1995.



**Figure 1.** Model of Trust

Source: Mayer et al. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(3), 709-734.

In this model, according to Mayer et al.;

- *ABILITY* refers to a group of skills, competencies and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain. Zand (1972) state that “as an individual can be competent in some domain while not in some others, same applies for trust, as also trustworthiness depends on the competency in specific domains” ( As cited in Kuşculuoğlu et al., 2008 p. 41). For instance, a leader might not trust to an employee to make the first contact with the customer if that employee is competent in technical field but not so in building relations with others.
- *BENEVOLENCE* refers to the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from the egocentric profit motive. Benevolence is also an indication of existence of some bonds between the trustor and trustee (Mayer, et.al., 1995).
- *INTEGRITY* is about the perception of the trustor that trustee adheres to a set of principles that is also accepted by the trustor. Consistency of the trustee’s past actions, credible comments about the trustee from other parties, belief that trustee has a strong sense of justice and the extent to which trustee’s actions are in line with his/her words are the factors that affect the level of integrity perception of the trustor. But in the evaluation of trustworthiness, it is the perceived level of integrity that is important rather than the reasons why this perception is formed (Mayer, et.al,1995, as cited in Kuşculuoğlu et al., 2008).

In this model, also, trustworthiness of the trustor takes place as an antecedent of trust while propensity to trust is in the role of a moderating variable that increase or decrease the level of trustworthiness perception of the trustor.

In the organizational literature, the broadest research on the antecedents and the ways in which trust occurs in organizations is done by Mayer and his colleagues (Lapidot et al., 2007). According to Mayer et al, “trust in leader” is the product of the leader’s behavior (Joseph et al., 2005). In their model, both trustor and trustee and also the traits of these parties

are considered in the process of trust (Çeri-Booms et al., 2009). Propensity of trust is defined as *“the likelihood the party will trust and the general willingness of the party to trust others”* (Mayer et al., 1995 p.715). They also claim that people differ from each other in propensity to trust which can help to explain the variance in trust.

The characteristics and actions of the trustee are also defined as important variables that build trust in the relationship. Three characteristics appeared in their model are; ability, benevolence and integrity. Ability is defined as *“the group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain”* (Mayer et al., 1995 p.717). According to this view, people’s ability providing trust changes according to situations. Benevolence is to believe the trustee’s good will. They claim that high benevolence in a relationship is inversely related to motivation to lie. Integrity refers to *“trustor’s perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable”* (Mayer et al., 1995 p.719). The perception of integrity for the trustor develops based on past actions and relationships of the trustee, compatibility of his/her words and actions, credible communications from others about the trustee. In order to develop trust in a relationship, all these three factors should be present. They, however, warned that trustworthiness should be thought of as a continuum which changes the degree of these three dimensions necessary for building trust (As cited in Çeri-Booms et al., 2009 p. 52).

In the literature, it is explained that managers play a very important role in determining the overall level of trust within the organizations. For instance, managers make reward systems and control systems that show the base levels of trust or mistrust within the organization as a whole. In addition to this; managers’ beliefs and actions also influence the trust in organizations (Creed et al., 1996 as cited in Melikoğlu et al., 2009).

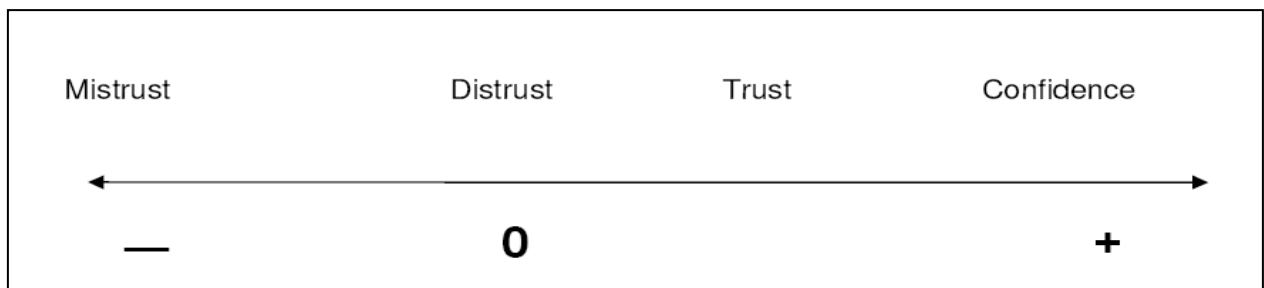
Other factors which affect an employee’s trust in an organization are organizational justice and perceived organizational support (Procedural justice is the degree to which those affected by allocation decisions perceive that those decisions were made according to fair methods and guidelines. Distributive justice refers to employee’s perceptions of fairness in the

allocation of resources and outcomes. Perceived organizational support is the general belief of employee that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being.). As it is stated in the literature, when the organization treats well to the employees, employees feel an obligation to treat the organization well in return (Puusa et al., 2006 as cited in Melikoğlu et al., 2009).

According to Borgen (2001), another antecedent of organizational trust is strong identification. Borgen (2001) claim that, when trust is based on identification with the other's desires and intentions, trust exists because the parties effectively understand and appreciate the other's wants. They have a mutual understanding and each of them can effectively act for the other. The other can also be confident that his/her interests will be protected and that no monitoring of the actor is necessary. Identification-based trust develops when "both knows and predicts the other's needs, preferences and choices and also shares some of those same needs , preferences and choices as one's own" (as cited in Melikoğlu et al., 2009 p.32).

### 2.2.3. CONCEPTS RELATED TO TRUST

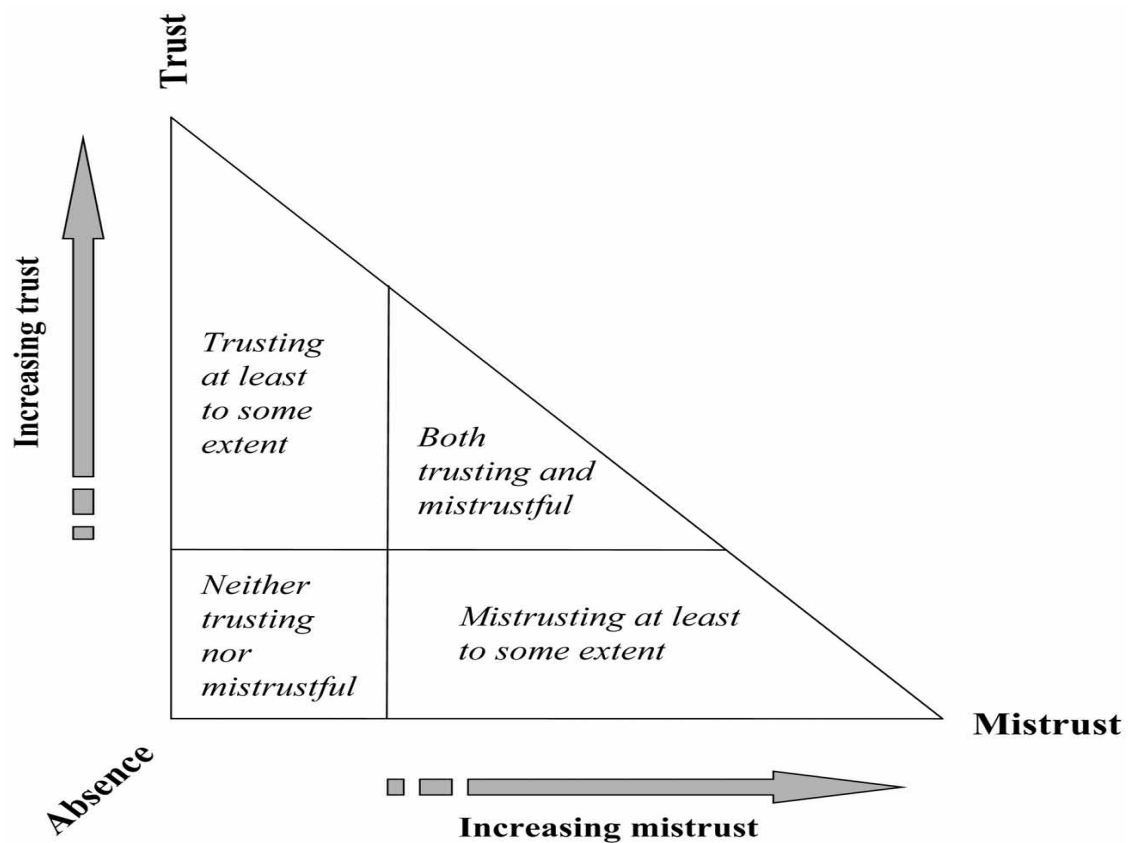
The difference between trust and reliance is best observed in the outcome of the phenomena. Compared to reliance; when trust is the concern and the negative outcome is the disappointment, individuals are more hurt and resentful. Also, Lahno (2001) claims that trust is stronger a emotion than reliance. Bozaykut et al. (2009) conclude that, when trusting someone, the trustor does not expect that the trustee can behave with bad intentions.



**Figure 2.** Trust Spectrum

Source: Hinnant, L.C. (2007). *The Trust Experience from the Trustor's Perspective: A Theoretical Discussion and Experiment. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation.* New York: Graduate School of Syracuse University. (As cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009).

Trust is, also, different from confidence because individuals recognize and accept the risks in cases of trust (Luhmann, 1979 cited in Mayer et al., 1995). Luhmann (1979) states that confidence is one step further than trust as there is no need to think alternatives or betrayals in situations of confidence. To Hinnant (2007), individuals accept being in a vulnerable situation especially in circumstances unfamiliar to them in cases of trust. Hinnant points out that confidence also puts people in vulnerable situation but this time based on past “past positive experiences” (as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009 p. 15). The person has confidence in another if they have a positive previous history. In other words, Hinnant explains that “confidence is the unconscious decision, whereas, trust is the conscious decision to be vulnerable and dependent on another” (as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009, p. 15).



**Figure 3.** The Trust –Mistrust – Absence Triangle

Source: Saunders et al. (2004). Trust and mistrust in organizations: An exploration using an organizational justice framework. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 13(4), 493–515.

In the literature, both mistrust and distrust are seen as the opposites of trust. In the Oxford English Dictionary, no distinction is made between the terms “mistrust” and “distrust”, both being defined as a “lack of trust” (as cited in Saunders et al., 2004, p. 495). On the other hand, the meanings of the prefixes “dis-“ as being “absence of, not” and “mis-“ as “bad, wrong, failure” (Hinnant, 2007 as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009, p. 17).

Because of this confusion, recently, some researchers have begun to question whether mistrust is a distinct concept from distrust, despite the symmetry of definitions. To clarify this, Lewicki et al. (1998) theorized that “trust and mistrust are separate but linked dimensions with each ranging from low to high, rather than opposite ends of a continuum” (as cited in Saunders et al., 2004, p. 495). Therefore, it is possible for an employee to experience both

trust and mistrust within a given context. In the same study, it is stated that trust reduces complexity and uncertainty by removing unfavourable expectations and allowing favourable expectations to be seen as certain. In contrast, “mistrust reduces complexity and uncertainty by removing favourable expectations and allowing unfavourable expectations to be seen as certain” (Saunders et al., 2004, p. 495).

On the other hand, “distrust” implies a “pause in the action”, namely, a temporary hesitation in trusting or mistrusting someone (Hinnant, 2007, as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009, p. 17). It has been defined as “a lack of confidence in the other, a concern that the other may act so as to harm one, that he does not care about one’s welfare or intends to act harmfully, or is hostile” (Grovier 1994, as cited in Kramer, 1999, p. 587). Bozaykut et al. (2009) state that the person who distrusts can not make a decision to trust/mistrust for a short period of time and may delay the choice of trusting or mistrusting.

## 2.2.4. DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

In this study, organizational trust is handled with its three dimensions; namely, “trust in supervisor”, “trust in coworkers” and “trust in organization”.

### 2.2.4.1. TRUST IN SUPERVISOR

The feeling of trust of an employee to her/his supervisor or manager is a very important component of organizational trust. In the literature, trust in supervisor refers to “employee’s faith in supervisor, and to the belief that ultimately the supervisor will act for the benefit of employees” (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Pillai et al., 1999 as cited in Ertürk, 2007 p.260).

Whitener et al. (1998), clarified five categories of behaviors that cover the factors effecting employees’ perception of supervisors’ trustworthiness:

- *Behavioral consistency*: The supervisors who have consistent behaviors over time and across situations are perceived more trustworthy by their subordinates.
- *Behavioral integrity*: The supervisors who are telling the truth and keeping their promises are perceived as trustworthy.
- *Sharing information and delegation of control*
- *Communication*: Open communication and accurate information share reinforce trust in supervisor.
- Concern for the welfare of subordinates also impact employees’ trust in supervisors. (As cited in Güzel, 2009 p. 22)

In their study, Gilbert et al. (1998) explain that, trust in supervisor should be seen as a feeling of confidence and support for a supervisor. Dirks et al. (2002) also stated that “trust in

supervisor can be examined using two theoretical perspectives: the character-based perspective and the relationship-based perspective” (as cited in Melikoğlu et al., 2009 p.33). According to the character-based perspective, only when employees believe their supervisors have ability, benevolence and integrity, and thus can be trusted, they would be willing to engage in behaviors that put them at risk. According to the relationship-based perspective, which is based on the principles of social exchange and reciprocity, employees who trust their supervisor will perceive a high-quality relationship with their supervisor and will feel obligated to reciprocate with behaviors that will further the supervisor’s goals (Dirks et al., 2002 as cited in Melikoğlu et al., 2009 p.33).

#### **2.2.4.2. TRUST IN CO-WORKERS**

The formation of trust in co-workers is dependent on their perception of each other that they are moral, honest, dependable and competent. The term “co-workers” refers to “the members of an organization with same level of position and power who are in continuous interaction at work” (Tan et al., 2009 p.46 as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009 p.44).

Like Mayer et al. (1995), in their study “Trust in Coworkers and Trust in Organizations”, Tan and Lim (2009) also define trust in coworkers as “the willingness of a person to be vulnerable to the actions of fellow coworkers whose behavior and actions that person cannot control” (p.46).

Connell et al. (2003) made another definition for coworker trust as; “the confidence that one’s colleagues are competent and will act in a fair, reliable and ethical manner” (As cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009, p. 44) . According to Connel et al. (2003), coworkers who trust one another, support each other and they do not tend to “leave their peers in difficult positions by withholding information” (As cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009 p. 44).

In their study, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) state that, the individual employees regard the attitudes of coworkers as socially acceptable and model their beliefs according to those of their coworkers (As cited in Tan et al., 2009). Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that employees’ trust for their coworkers influences trust in their organization; because employees

who trust their coworkers are likely to regard their coworkers' perceptions as relevant and socially acceptable. In other words, when these trusted coworkers perceive that the organization's actions are beneficial, the employees are likely to be influenced by this same belief and subsequently construct similar perceptions that the organization can be trusted (Tan et al., 2009). In the literature, studies show that, employees who communicate with one another frequently, share similar interpretations of organizational issues (Schmitz, 1991 as cited in Tan et al., 2009 p. 50).

#### **2.2.4.3. TRUST IN ORGANIZATION**

Finally, "Trust in Organization" refers to the global evaluation of an organization's trustworthiness as perceived by the employee (Melikoğlu et al., 2009 p. 30). It includes the expectation of the individuals about organizational relationships and behaviours. When the employees become a part of the organization, they start to examine and continually observe the organizational environment when they consider whether or not to trust their organization. The behavioral styles of workers, the promises that kept are or not by the organization or the consistency of the application of organizational rules are some examples of the criteria for an employee to trust her/his organization. Several additional factors (Cufaude, 1999) are associated with a culture of trust in an organization include:

- the depth and quality of interpersonal relationships;
- clarity of roles and responsibilities;
- frequency, timeliness, and forthrightness of communication;
- competence to get the job done;
- clarity of shared purpose;
- direction and vision; and
- honoring promises and commitments (as cited in Joseph et al., 2005 p. 8).

### **2.2.5. CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST**

To Tan and Tan (2000), one of the main consequences of organizational trust is organizational commitment; “the engagement between employee and the organization” (Daft, 2006, p. 626). Especially research findings show that affective type of commitment is strongly in relationship with trust (Güzel, 2009). Matthai (1989), specifically evaluated the relationship of trust and affective commitment and found a strong positive relationship. In addition to this research, Pascale et al. (1981) also found a positive relation between trust and affective organizational commitment (As cited in Güzel, 2009).

Tan and Tan (2000) also emphasize that trust in top management results in “identification with the organization and loyalty to that organization” (p. 247, as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009). Many research in the literature suggest that the employees who trust their organizations are more energetic, more productive, more innovative and more considerate to self-development (Perry et al., 2007). In addition to this, employees with high levels of organizational trust are more tend to communicate openly compared to the employees with lower levels of trust (Baek et al., 2006 as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009). They are more likely to share their ideas and emotions without the fear of losing their job if they have high levels of the organizational trust (İslamoğlu et al., 2007).

Organizational trust encourages and increases employee motivation, and increases employee performance and productivity. Therefore, high levels of organizational trust lead to job satisfaction, less turnover or absenteeism, therefore, “agreeable organizational citizenship behaviours” (Demircan et al., 2003, p. 140 as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009).

In times of crises or changes as mergers and acquisitions, organizational trust promotes problem solving abilities and renders employees to be more considerate in accepting the transformation processes, together with “positive and negative consequences” (Demircan et al., 2003, p. 141). In other words, employees display less resistance to organizational changes when they trust their organization (Bozaykut et al., 2009).

High levels of supervisor trust influences subordinate performance. Paul et al. (2004) state that, as level of trust increases in virtual collaborations, so do the performances of the members. Collaboration increases in line with trust levels, moreover, increased collaboration promote “the assertiveness levels of both supervisors and subordinates” (Costigan et al., 1998 as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009). Subordinates with high levels of trust are more likely to accept the decisions of their supervisors more easily (Creed et al., 1996) and this leads to supervisor satisfaction and innovation at work place (Tan et al., 2000 as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009).

When leaders are viewed as trustworthy, subordinates are motivated to increase performance, demonstrate satisfaction and stay with the organization (Wasti et al, 2007). Many research have found that trust in the leader is critical for charismatic and transformational leaders (Podsakoff et al., 1990 as cited in Güzel et al.,2009 p. 23).

Another consequence of trust in organizations is that the employees are more concentrated when working if they trust their coworkers. In addition to this, more concentration has positive effects on performance (Tan et al., 2009). Trust in coworkers promotes open communication and information sharing within the organization (İslamoglu et al., 2007). As an example, if trusted coworkers support the organizations’ activities, the other employees will be affected by them and will tend to perceive the organization’s activities in the same way. Therefore, it can be stated that employees’ trust in coworkers also affects on organizational trust as a whole.

Cook et al. (1980) propose that coworker trust is strongly related to organizational identification and organizational involvement. Ferres et al. (2004) also claim that high level of coworker trust promotes organizational support, lower turnover intention and higher affective commitment (as cited in Bozaykut et al., 2009).

According to some research, trust may become a pathologic term if it is inflexible in the face of changing circumstances (Deutsch, 1973; Golembiewski et al., 1975 as cited in Mishra, 1996). In addition to this, Luhmann (1979) claim that, this situation is likely if trust is violated, then distrust between the parties continued, especially if such violations are viewed as deliberate rather than due to circumstances beyond the control of violating party. However,

Mishra (1996) stated that “in a crisis situation, short-term misallocations of resources based on trust violations could be fatal for an organization” (p. 24). In other words, the vulnerability aspect of trust is even greater in crisis situations than in non-crisis situations. Therefore, it is likely that reactions to violations of trust are quicker and more obvious because the stakes are greater (Mishra, 1996).

Mishra (1996) has also pointed out another negative relationship of trust with the efficacy of resource allocation and organizational survival “if it leads to feelings of security among organizational members such that they are less motivated to deal with a crisis” (p. 24). However, in the research of Aktouf (1992) and Davidow et al. (1992), none of the managers interviewed discussed trust as having such negative consequences (or for that matter any negative consequences) (As cited in Mishra, 1996 p. 24).

## **2.3. WORK ENGAGEMENT**

Work engagement is an important concept in organizational behavior literature which is related to employees' well being in many ways. To explain this important issue, Schaufeli et al. (2002) stated that work engagement is about good health and it positively affects the work of the individuals (As cited in Güneşer et al., 2007).

In another study, Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) had argued that values have an important role in individual motivation and they affect the emotional and cognitive relationship that individuals develop with their work (As cited in Güneşer et al., 2007). Because of the fact that the harmony between the values of an individual and the values of an organization is crucial; unless this harmony is present, employees may experience motivation problems and this causes difficulties in engaging individuals to their work (Güneşer, 2007).

### **2.3.1. DEFINITION OF WORK ENGAGEMENT**

Work engagement is an important concept in the management literature and has been defined by many researchers. The term is most often defined as “emotional and intellectual commitment to the organization” (Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006; Shaw, 2005 as cited in Saks, 2006 p. 601) or “the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their jobs” (Frank et al., 2004 as cited in Saks, 2006 p. 601). Schaufeli et al. (2002) define engagement “as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption.” (As cited in Bakker et al., 2008 p. 209). They also state that engagement is not a momentary and specific state, but rather, it is “a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior” (As cited in Saks, 2006 p. 601).

Burnout researchers define engagement as the opposite or positive antithesis of burnout which is characterized by exhaustion (draining of mental energy), cynicism (a negative attitude towards work) and reduced professional efficacy (the belief that one is no

longer effective in fulfilling one's job responsibilities) (Maslach et al., 2001 as cited in Langelaan, 2006). According to Maslach et al. (2001), engagement is characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy, the direct opposite of the three burnout dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (As cited in Saks, 2006). Engagement is not an attitude; it is the degree to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of their roles.

Many research suggest that burnout and work engagement are independent states that are negatively, but not perfectly, related (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2003). If the dimensions of these two contrary concepts are examined, vigor and dedication are the direct positive opposites of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively (Langelaan 2006, 2007). Similarly, other researchers who examine burnout and engagement has found that the core dimensions of burnout (exhaustion and cynicism) and engagement (vigor and dedication) are opposites of each other (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006 as cited in Saks, 2006). Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) had also proposed a particular positioning in the existing two-dimensional model that consists of an activation and a pleasure dimension. They presume that the activation dimension is spanned by exhaustion and vigor, whereas the pleasure dimension is likewise spanned by cynicism and dedication. (Langelaan et al., 2006). The relationship between burnout and engagement is shown in detail in *Figure 7* in the following sections.

Kahn (1990) explained that work engagement has an emotional, cognitive and physical component (As cited in Erim et. al., 2009). He stated that engagement is employees' attachment to their work roles. On the other hand, Kahn defined personal disengagement as distancing oneself from work roles. Disengaged people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally while carrying out their work roles (As cited in Erim et. al., 2009). They become physically uninvolved in tasks, cognitively unvigilant, and emotionally disconnected from others (Kahn, 1990). Maslach and Leiter (1997) expanded Kahn's (1990) conceptual work (As cited in Kim et al., 2009). In their view, "low ratings on exhaustion, low scores on cynicism, and high ratings on professional efficacy indicate the state of engagement" (As cited in Kim et al., 2009 p. 97).

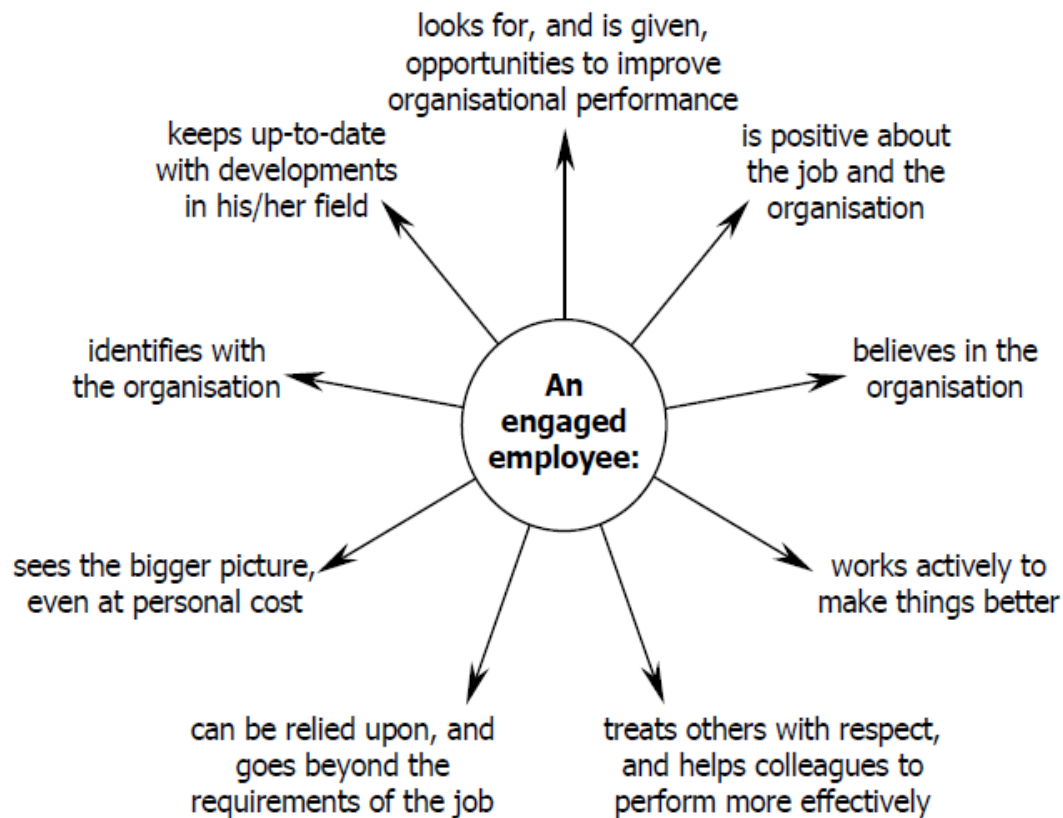
Kahn (1990) claims that people need self expression and self employment in their work lives. Employing and conveying an individual's self produce behaviors that bring alive

the relation of self to role and people who are individually engaged keep their selves within a role, without sacrificing one for the other. He states that “people become involved in their work physically, become alert cognitively and connect to others empathically” (Kahn, 1990 as cited in Güneşer et al., 2007 p. 37). According to Kahn (1990), three conditions influence an individual’s personal engagement: meaningfulness, safety, and availability.

- *Experienced meaningfulness* is “a feeling that one is valued for his or her work. The degree of meaningfulness experienced is influenced by task interactions, work roles and work interactions. Jobs are more meaningful if they are challenging, include skill variety, and facilitate a sense of autonomy (Bal et al., 2008). Additionally, jobs that offer work roles which fit with how one wants to be viewed will lead to an experience of meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990). Lastly, jobs that include interpersonal interactions that promote a sense of dignity and professionalism will lead to greater meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990 as cited in Bal et al., 2008 p. 17).
  
- *Safety* is experienced when individuals can openly express themselves in their work roles. In addition to this, safety is experienced when expressing oneself will not jeopardize his or her ability to keep his or her job, maintain good reputations, and continue to feel a sense of self-worth (Kahn, 1990 as cited in Bal 2008, p. 17). The amount of safety one experiences is influenced by interpersonal and organizational variables. These variables include:
  - 1) the relationships one has with his or her coworkers, supervisors, and subordinates,
  - 2) the biases that occur within and between different work groups,
  - 3) the procedures and interactions developed by management,
  - 4) the cultural norms of the organization (Kahn, 1990 as cited in Bal 2008, p.17).
  
- *Availability*: In addition to meaningfulness and safety, an individual must feel that he or she has enough mental, social, emotional, and physical resources available to engage himself in a work role (Kahn, 1990). This *sense of availability* might vary at different times and is influenced by the amount of physical and emotional energy one

has. In addition, “a sense of availability is influenced by the different work/life demands with which one must cope” (Kahn, 1990 as cited in Bal, 2008, p. 18).

Some other researchers had different operational definitions for engagement, too. Roberts and O’Davenport (2002) define work engagement as “a person’s enthusiasm and highly engaged in their jobs identify personally with the job and are motivated by the work itself.” (as cited in Erim et al., 2009, p. 140). According to the researchers, engaged people tend to work harder and more productively than others and are more likely to produce the results that their customers and organizations want. They show initiative, they are proactive and they take responsibility for their own professional development and to be committed to high quality performance standards (Bakker et al., 2008 as cited in Erim et al., 2009).



**Figure 4.:** The Drivers of Employee Engagement

Source: Robinson et al. (2004). The drivers of employee engagement, *Institute of Employment Studies, Report 405*.

Schaufeli et al. (2000) explain engagement as an energetic state in which one is dedicated to excellent performance of work and confident of one's effectiveness (As cited in Öner et al., 2008, p. 29). Similarly, Saks (2006) explains employee engagement as a construct that consists of cognitive, emotional and behavioral components that are linked to the individual's role performance. He states that, although engagement is a distinct and separate factor, it is similar to other concepts such as organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and job involvement (Erim et al., 2009).

In the literature, many researchers use "employee engagement" and "work engagement" concept interchangeably, however they may give different definitions for each. As an example, Erim et al. (2009) included both of the definitions of employee engagement and work engagement in the same heading of "Work Engagement" concept. In their research, employee engagement was defined as "employees' enthusiasm for their work derived from job involvement and satisfaction" (Harter et al., 2003) and work engagement was defined as "an optimistic, rewarding, work-related mind set that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002) and both of them are used to define the same variable of the study (As cited in Erim et al., 2009 p. 141).

There are three approaches which are noteworthy about employee engagement concept in the literature. The first one is operationalized by "Gallup-12" questionnaire as a set of motivating resources such as support and recognition from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, opportunities for learning and development, and opportunities for skill use. A meta-analysis of studies using this measure in almost 8000 business units of 36 companies (Harter et al., 2002), showed that "levels of employee engagement were positively related to business-unit performance (i.e., customer satisfaction and loyalty, profitability, productivity, turnover, and safety)". The authors claim that engagement is ". . . related to meaningful business outcomes at a magnitude that is important to many organizations" (Harter et al., 2002, p. 276 as cited in Bakker et al., 2008 p. 151). Secondly, employee engagement is handled as an extra-role behavior, such as a personal satisfaction and a sense of inspiration and affirmation they get from work and being a part of the organization. The third approach defines engagement as a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that is the antipode of job burnout (Maslach et al., 2001 as cited in Bakker

et al., 2008<sub>a</sub>). Based on this conceptualization, a brief work engagement questionnaire has been developed that consists of three interrelated dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2006 as cited in Bakker et al., 2008<sub>a</sub>) which will be explained in detail in the following sections of the study.

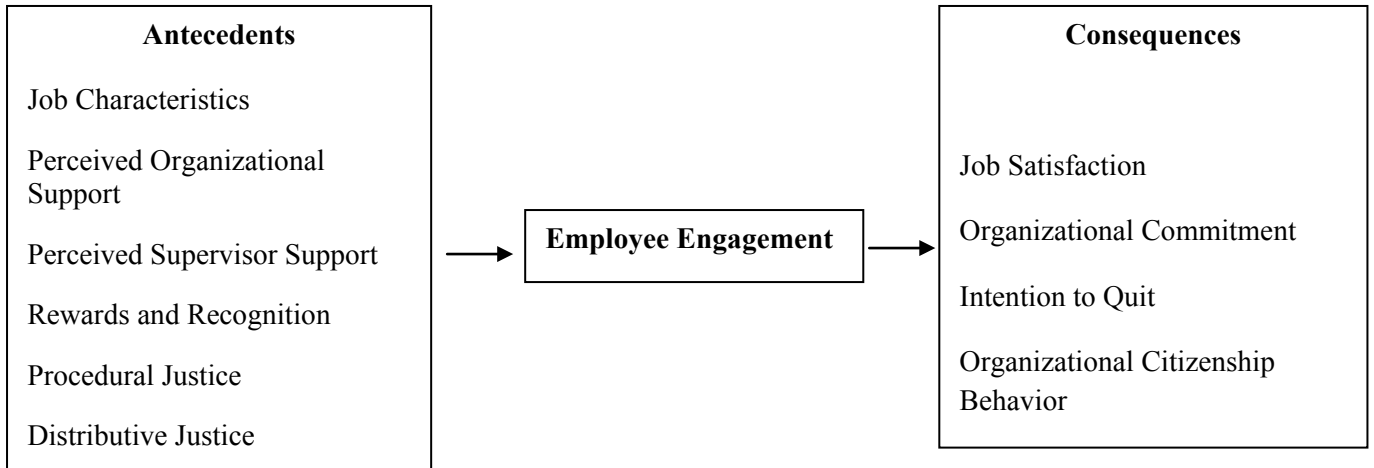
On the other hand, in the literature different classifications for the dimensions of work engagement can also be found. Rothbard defines engagement as psychological presence and states that it involves two critical components: attention and absorption. Attention refers to “cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role” while absorption means “being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one’s focus on a role” (Rothbard, 2001 as cited in Yaldiran et al. 2010, p. 48).

### **2.3.2. ANTECEDENTS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT**

There are various individual and organizational factors that lead to work engagement. Work engagement tends to be positively related to job resources and social support from co-workers and from one's superior, performance feedback, coaching, job control, task variety and training facilities (Demerouti et al., 2001 as cited in Erim et al., 2009). Sonnentag (2003) claimed that the level of experienced work engagement was positively associated with the extent to which employees recovered from their previous working day (As cited in Erim et al., 2009).

Some research suggests that some relatively stable personality traits can influence job attitudes. Roberts et al. (2002) claimed that looking at personality traits, however, tends to be more useful for selection decisions and matching people to jobs than for improving overall levels of work engagement in organizations. The same researchers also concluded that the better people feel about their long term career development, the more engaged they will be in their work today and the more rewarding the day to day work environment, the more engaged people will be in their work. In this case, performance appraisal, its communication with employees and also having a strong human resource function are other important factors that lead to engagement (Erim et al., 2009).

In his study about antecedents and consequences of employee engagement, Saks (2006) summarized the factors that lead to engagement as follows:



**Figure 5.** Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement

Source: Saks, A.M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600-619.

On the other hand, in the model of employee engagement of Harter et al. (2003), four antecedent elements are found to be important for engagement to occur within the workplace are:

- a) clarity of expectations and basic materials and equipment being provided,
- b) feelings of contribution to the organization,
- c) feeling a sense of belonging to something beyond oneself,
- d) feeling as though there are opportunities to discuss progress and grow (As cited in Simpson, 2009 p. 1020).

Another antecedent of work engagement is job autonomy, by which individuals tend to feel more personal responsibility for successes and failures that occur on the job and are more willing to accept personal responsibility for the outcomes of their work (Bal et al., 2008).

Tuna et al. (2009) state that work environment plays a central role in work engagement. This work environment includes the policies, procedures and human resource management practices (Richardson et al, 2006 as cited in Tuna et al., 2009). Supervisors who provide positive feedback, foster a supportive work environment and encourage them to voice their concerns, develop new skills, and solve work-related problems enhance employees' interest in their work. These individuals are likely to feel safer to engage themselves more fully, try out novel ways of doing things, discuss mistakes and learn from these behaviors when they are in such supportive environments (Edmondson, 1996 as cited in Bal et al., 2008).

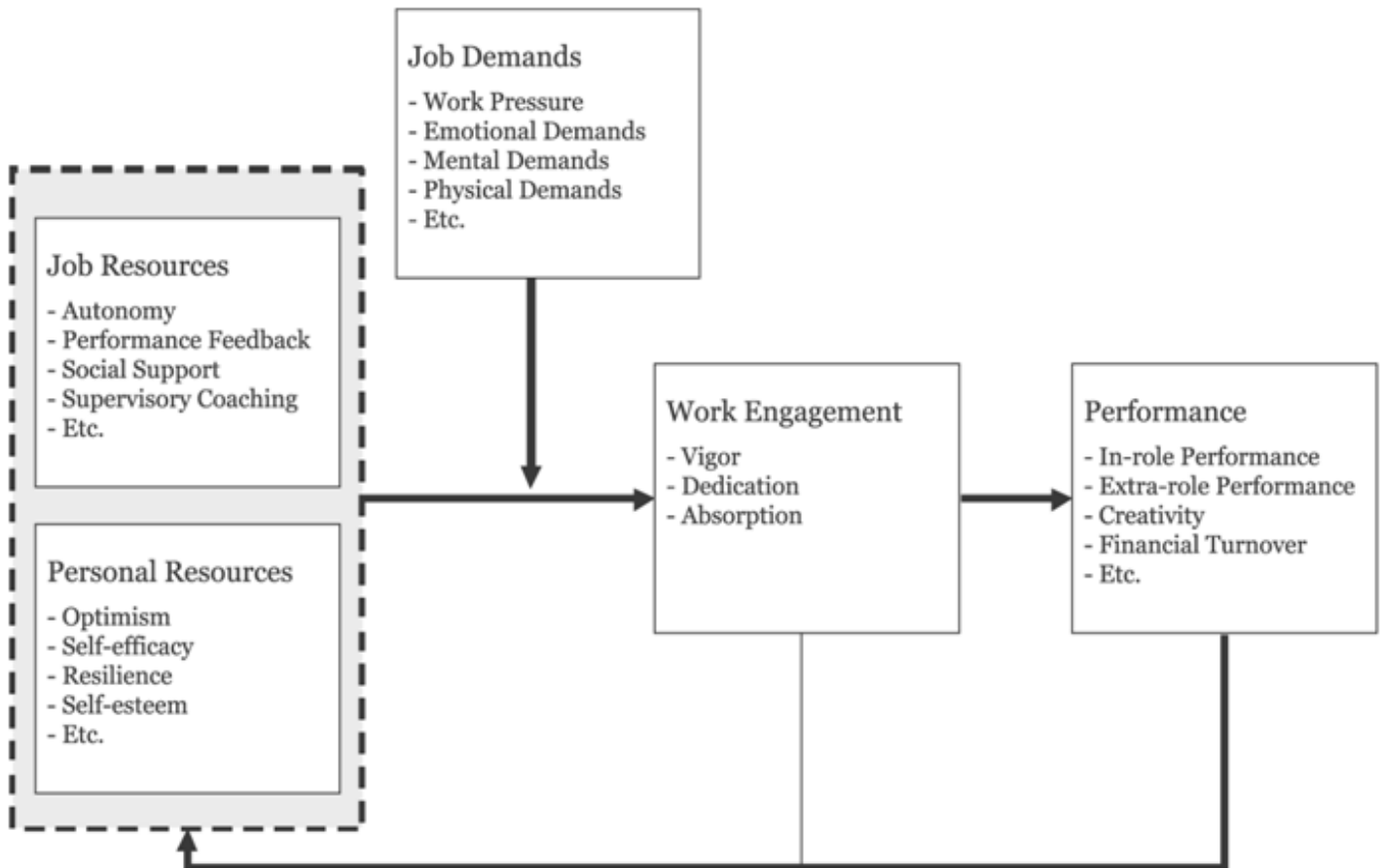
Similarly, Schaufeli et al. (2006) proposed that “leadership that sets a positive socioemotional climate and training, career development that builds employee self-efficacy beliefs offers opportunities for learning while following a career” lead to work engagement (As cited in Öner et al., 2008, p. 30).

In the literature, both engagement and burnout are comprehensively explained by the JD-R (Job demands and resources) model. This model assumes two processes (Schaufeli et al., 2004):

a) a health impairment process in which burnout mediates the relationship between job demands and poor resources on the one hand, and negative health outcomes on the other hand;

b) a motivational process in which engagement mediates the relationship between job resources on the one hand, and positive organizational outcomes—such as organizational commitment—on the other hand (As cited in Bakker et al., 2008<sub>a</sub>, p. 151).

In their study, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) had also modeled work engagement's antecedents and consequences; and explained the drivers of engagement as follows:



**Figure 6.** The Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement

Source: Bakker et al. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13(3), 209-223.

In this model, very briefly, job resources refer to all aspects (physical, psychological, social and/or organizational) that reduce job demands, facilitate achievement of work goals, and/or stimulate individual growth (Demerouti et al., 2001 as cited in Rothmann et al., 2007).

In other studies (Bakker et al., 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2004) job resources are defined as physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may:

- reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs;
- be functional in achieving work goals;
- stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (As cited in Bakker et al., 2008<sub>b</sub>, p. 211).

They include social support (supervisory and collegial), job enhancement opportunities in the form of increased control and autonomy, reinforcement contingencies, recognition, opportunities for advancement, participation in decision making and rewards (Rothmann et al., 2007). Rewards have a powerful effect on employees' attitudes towards their jobs and it is important to distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are those that "exist in the job itself, such as variety, challenge, and autonomy" and extrinsic rewards, on the other hand, "comprise elements such as pay and fringe benefits, promotion or advancement opportunities within the organization, the social climate and physical working conditions" (Bal, 2008, p. 28). Bakker et al. (2008<sub>b</sub>) claim that job resources play either an intrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development; and an extrinsic motivational role because they are instrumental in achieving work goals.

In accordance with these explanations about the motivational role of job resources, there are studies which have shown a positive relationship between job resources and work engagement. For instance, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found out that there is a positive relationship between three job resources (performance feedback, social support, and supervisory coaching) and work engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) among four different samples of Dutch employees (As cited in Bakker et al., 2008<sub>b</sub>). The researchers also had showed that job demands (workload, emotional demands) were positively related to burnout, but not to engagement.

Personal resources such as optimism, self-efficacy and self-esteem are positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully (Hobfoll et al., 2003 as cited in Bakker et al., 2008<sub>b</sub>). The research suggests that the higher an individual's personal resources,

the more positive the person's self-regard and the more goal self-concordance is experienced (Judge et al., 2005 as cited in Bakker et al., 2008<sub>b</sub>) and this results in higher performance and satisfaction.

In addition to these studies, Demerouti et al. (2001) had also reported that high work demands and high control were associated to higher engagement, as well as Mauno et al. (2005) who suggested a relationship between high time pressures and higher levels of engagement which can be evaluated as other antecedents of work engagement (As cited in Koyuncu et al., 2006). Job Demands-Resources Model will be explained in detail in the following sections independent from any other variables.

### **2.3.3. DIMENSIONS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT**

Schaufeli and his colleagues (2002) characterized engagement by three dimensions; vigor, dedication and absorption.

#### **2.3.3.1. DEDICATION**

Dedication refers to “a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge and dedication (high identification) and cynicism (low identification) are opposite in terms of identification” (Schaufeli et al., 2002 as cited in Kim et al., 2009, p. 97).

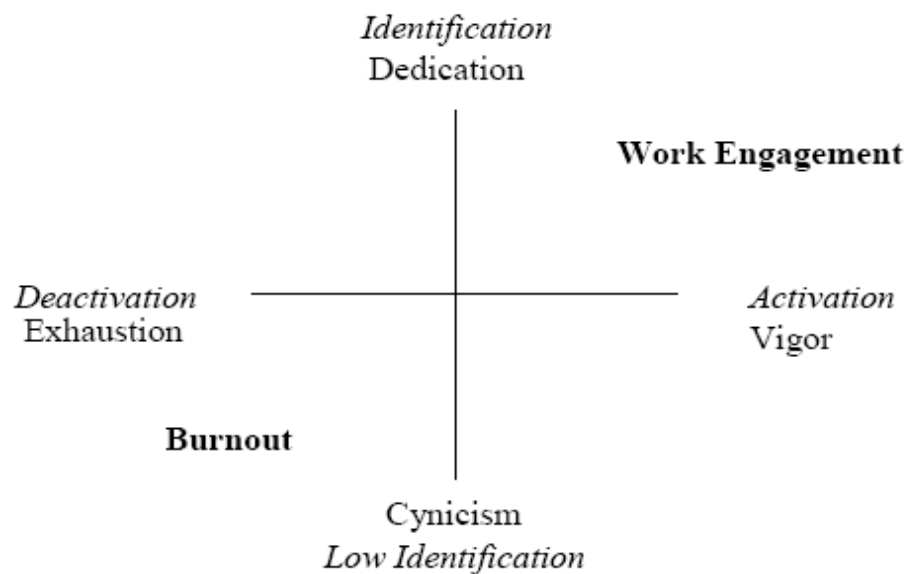
In their study, Güneşer et al. (2007) also explain that dedication is related to being strongly involved in one’s work and feeling a sense of significance, excitement, inspiration, pride and challenge. However, the researchers state that dedication can be confused by involvement because involvement is usually defined in terms of psychological identification with individual’s work and there are differences between the two terms both qualitatively and quantitatively. In quantitative terms, dedication is related to “strong involvement which is beyond the usual identification” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, as cited in Güneşer et al., 2007 p. 38). In qualitative terms, “dedication has a broad scope not only related to a specific cognitive or state, but also affective dimension” (Schaufeli et al., 2002 as cited in Güneşer et al., 2007 p. 38).

Dedication dimension of work engagement should be distinguished from job involvement which is defined in terms of psychological identification with one’s work or one’s job (Kanungo, 1982; Lawler et al., 1970 as cited in Yaldiran, 2010). However, dedication goes beyond involvement referring to a stronger involvement that goes one step further than the usual level of identification. In their research, Yaldiran et al. (2010) also note that dedication has a wider scope and it is not only a particular cognitive state, it also includes the affective dimension as well.

### 2.3.3.2. VIGOR

According to Schaufeli et al. (2002) vigor refers to “high levels of energy and mental flexibility while working and willingness to spend effort in one’s work” (As cited in Güneşer et al., 2007, p.37). It is claimed that, vigor also involves perseverance even when faced with difficulties and problems (Güneşer et al., 2007).

In their study, Schaufeli and his colleagues (2002) state that, vigor (high activation) is viewed as the opposite concept of exhaustion (low activation) on the pole of activation (As cited in Kim et al., 2009).



**Figure 7.** The Underlying Dimensions of Burnout and Work Engagement

Source: Langelan, S. (2007). Burnout and work engagement: Exploring individual and psychophysiological differences. Utrecht University, Department of Social and Organizational Psychology, *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*.

### **2.3.3.3. ABSORPTION**

Absorption is defined as “being fully concentrated and engrossed in one’s work such that time passes quickly and one can not detach himself/herself from work” (Schaufeli et al., 2003 as cited in Kim et al., 2009, p.97). The researchers also remark that absorption was discovered during a number of in-depth interviews and not necessarily developed as a contrasting concept of reduced efficacy (Schaufeli et al., 2002 as cited in Kim et al., 2009 p. 97).

Although vigor and dedication dimensions of work engagement are considered as the opposites of exhaustion and cynicism dimensions of burnout; absorption is not the antipode of the last burnout factor of reduced efficacy (Kim et al., 2009). This is because, “the lack of professional efficacy does not have a distinct and an important role whereas exhaustion and cynicism are evidenced empirically that they compose the core of burnout concept” and secondly “interviews and discussions with employees showed that work engagement is characterized by what is called absorption rather than by efficacy”. Therefore, absorption is a prominent dimension of work engagement, not a contrary dimension of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2003 as cited in Güneşer et al., 2007, p. 38).

#### **2.3.4. CONSEQUENCES OF WORK ENGAGEMENT**

In the organizational behavior literature, there are various consequences of work engagement such as turnover intention (Schaufeli et al., 2004 as cited in Simpson, 2009), organizational commitment (Hakenen et al., 2006; Richardsen et al., 2006 as cited in Simpson, 2009), service climate and customer loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005 as cited in Simpson, 2009). Other organizational outcomes of engagement range from improving employee performance and personal well-being to positively impacting the organization's financial bottom line (Gill, 2007, as cited in Erim et al., 2009).

Erim et al. (2009) state that there is strong evidence suggesting that higher level of work engagement lead to outcomes that organizations value. In their multi-sample study, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) indicated that; "compared to those who do not feel engaged, those who feel engaged seem to be more satisfied with their jobs, feel more committed to the organization and do not intend to leave the organization" (As cited in Erim et al., 2009, p.144). Also, Harter et al. (2002) claimed that levels of employee engagement were positively related to business-unit performance (such as customer satisfaction and loyalty, profitability, productivity, turnover and safety). The researchers concluded that engagement is "related to meaningful business outcomes at a magnitude that is important to many organizations" (As cited in Erim et al., 2009, p. 144).

In their study about organizational change, Erim et al. (2009) mentioned that people who are engaged to their work are more likely to meet the needs of their customers. According to the researchers, this leads to an improvement in customer loyalty, sales and profits. In the same study, it is also concluded that people with high work engagement are less likely to leave the organization. Other researchers also found out that there is a statistically significant relationship between work engagement, employee turnover intentions and actual turnover statistics (Roberts et al., as cited in Erim et al., 2009).

On the other hand, individual outcomes of engagement are summarized by Erim et al. (2009) as:

- (1) positive job-related attitudes and a strong identification with one's work;
- (2) good mental health, including positive emotions and a lower risk of burning out;
- (3) good performance;
- (4) increased intrinsic motivation;
- (5) the acquisition of job resources and personal resources, particularly self-efficacy.

Koyuncu, Burke, and Fiksenbaum (2006) found a negative relationship between job engagement and intention to quit, and a positive relationship between job engagement and physical and emotional health in their study which is conducted in a Turkish Bank with a sample of women managers. Also, Schaufeli et al. (2004) has shown positive outcomes of engagement; such as job satisfaction, low absenteeism, low turnover, and high organizational commitment performance, and positive work affect (As cited in Bal et al., 2008).

## **2.4. WORK PRESSURE (PERCEIVED WORK OVERLOAD)**

As a result of globalization, international pressure on organizations hardens to use scarce resources and changes psychological contracts between employers and employees. Employees are expected to give more in terms of time, effort, skills and flexibility (Maslach, et al., 2001).

In the literature, "job demand" is a poorly defined concept in terms of its components. Cox et al. (1995, 1996) include various types of job demand within their standard set of "psychosocial hazards of work", including work overload or underload, time pressures, high work pace, short work cycle times and high uncertainty (As cited in Macdonald, 2003). Similarly, commonly used stressor measurement scales include at least one construct representing job demands at which work is hard, there is not enough time, there are conflicting demands, intense concentration is required and tasks are interrupted by other tasks. In the literature this situation is referred by different terms like "work pressure" (Carayon et al., 1999) or "workload" (Williams et al., 1998) or "job pressure" (Vagg et al., 1998) or "quantitative job demands" (Hurrell et al., 1988 as cited in Macdonald, 2003). Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker and Schaufeli (2005) also stated that work overload and work pressure terms refer to the same concept. In this study, "work pressure" term will be used.

### **2.4.1. DEFINITION OF WORK PRESSURE:**

Work pressure is defined as "the perception of high job demands that never seem to diminish, that include tight deadlines and that people have a hard time in keeping up with" (Carayon et al., 1999 p. 33). Work pressure is present in many work environments nowadays (Andries et al., 1996) and is handled as a critical determinant of worker stress and health (Carayon, 1995 as cited in Carayon et al., 1999).

Workload represents a type of threat to resource loss (Hobfoll, 2002 as cited in Shirom et al., 2010), which concerns time-related demands perceived by employees to characterize their jobs, such as “the perception of having too many things to do or not having enough time to do the things one has to do” (van Emmerik et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2007 as cited in Shirom et al., 2010 p. 543). In their study, Matthews et al. (2000) noted that "workload refers to people's experiences of cognitive task performance as effortful and fatiguing" (As cited in Macdonald, 2003, p. 104).

In the literature, "mental workload" concept, also referred to simply as "workload", and defined as "... the difference between the capacities of the information-processing system that are required for task performance to satisfy expectations and the capacity available at any given time" (Gopher et al., 1986 as cited in Macdonald, 2003, p. 104). Also, Jex (1988) defined the same concept as " ... the operator's evaluation of the attention load *margin* (between their motivated capacity and the current task demands) while achieving adequate task performance ... " (As cited in Macdonald, 2003 p. 104). According to this view, it is “the size of the margin or gap between the level of task demands and the individual's *motivated* capacity – influenced by the degree of effort that they are willing to expend in that situation - which determines their workload level” (Macdonald, 2003, p. 104).

Another definition was made by Kantowitz (1987) which emphasized the multi-dimensionality of workload; as "a subjective experience caused by motivation, ability, expectations, training, timing, stress, fatigue; in addition to the number, type and difficulty of tasks performed, effort expended and success in meeting requirements" (As cited in Macdonald, 2003, p. 104).

## **2.4.2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF WORK PRESSURE:**

For the presence of work pressure, several circumstances should exist in the work place and for working conditions. As an antecedent, Carayon et al. (1999) mentioned that organizational control was positively related to work pressure. They also stated that having high organization control means that one (such as manager or director) can influence group and organization processes and procedures. According to their research, organizational control appeared to have a positive contribution in predicting work pressure.

Burke et al. (2010) stated that working hard may be conceptualized as comprising a time component (e.g. hours worked) and an intensity perspective (e.g. how intense is the effort during the time worked). In their study, the researchers claim that work intensity is positively and significantly related to the indicators of work demands like perceived workload.

In order to make a more comprehensive explanation for the theoretical background of work pressure, researchers had developed several models which will be explained in detail:

### **2.4.2.1. Karasek's Initial Model: The Demand- Control Model:**

According to Karasek's "Demand-Control Model", job demands are typically operationalized in terms of quantitative aspects, such as workload (Karasek, 1985 as cited in Hausser et al., 2010). In addition to this, physical and emotional demands are also frequently analyzed aspects of job demands (Karasek et al., 1998). The second job characteristic, job control (also termed decision latitude), refers to "the extent to which a person is capable of controlling their tasks and general work activity" (Hausser et al., 2010 p. 2). In other words, job control is subdivided into two major aspects which are skill discretion and decision authority. Skill discretion refers to "a person's opportunity to use specific job skills in the working process"; in contrast, decision authority refers to "the extent to which a person is autonomous in task-related decisions, such as timing and method control" (Hausser et al., 2010 p. 2) .

The demand-control model suggests that; in high-strain jobs—high-demand, low-control jobs—the high demands create arousal that cannot be transformed into action because employees lack control on the job (Karasek, 1979 as cited in Yperen et al., 2003). Moreover, the arousal associated with high job demands is directed internally with deleterious consequences, including fatigue and exhaustion. In addition, Karasek (1979) suggested that in active jobs—high-demand, high-control jobs—new behavior patterns develop both on and off the job. Karasek’s (1979) demand-control model also suggests that autonomy is particularly important for employees’ intrinsic motivation when they find themselves in highly demanding jobs (As cited in Yperen et al., 2003).

#### **2.4.2.2. Karasek’s Expanded Model: The Demand- Control-Support Model:**

The demand-control model was expanded by Johnson (Johnson, 1986; Johnson et al., 1988) with the addition of social support as a third dimension (As cited in Karasek et al., 1998). Johnson (1986) introduced the term “iso-strain” (that is, “isolation strain”), referring to jobs with high demands, low control, and low job social support, and showed that employees in high iso-strain jobs reported more heart disease, fatigue, and other health complaints. Contributing to Johnson’s (1986) dissertation research, Karasek and Theorell (1990) claimed that job social support may expedite successful coping with high-strain jobs, preventing or buffering the potentially harmful effects of these kinds of jobs (As cited in Yperen et al., 2003).

Karasek et al. (1982, 1990) and Johnson and Hall (1988) discussed the differential impacts of support from coworkers and from supervisors and, within these, the separate impacts of instrumental and socioemotional support, respectively. Interpersonal hostility is also included as a measure of social support deficit (As cited in Karasek et al., 1998). To sum up, the social support addition to the demand-control model acknowledges the need of any theory of job stress and behavior development to assess social relations at the workplace (Karasek et al., 1998).

### 2.4.2.3. Job Demands-Resources Model:

Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model assumes that employees in different organizations are confronted with different working environments and the characteristics of these environments can be classified in two general categories: job demands and job resources. (Bakker et al., 2003<sub>a</sub>).

Bakker et al. (2003<sub>b</sub>) state that “job demands refer to physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (i.e., cognitive or emotional) effort on the part of the employee and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (e.g., exhaustion)” (p. 395). It is also claimed that although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort from which the employee has not adequately recovered (Meijman et al., 1998 as cited in Bakker et al., 2003<sub>b</sub>) and they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort and is therefore associated with high costs that elicit negative responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2004). Another definition was made by Jones and Fletcher (1996) as “the degree to which the environment contains stimuli that peremptorily require attention and response and demands are the ‘things that have to be done.’ ” (As cited in Schaufeli et al., 2004 p. 295).

In their research, Peeters and her colleagues divide job demands into quantitative, emotional, and mental demands. *Quantitative job demands* refer to “work overload or work pressure or too much work to do in too little time.”; *emotional job demands* refer to “the affective component of work and the degree to which one’s work puts one in emotionally stressful situations”; *mental job demands* refer to “the degree to which work tasks call on a person to expend sustained mental effort in carrying out his or her duties” (Peeters et al., 2005 p. 45).

Compared to job demands-resources model, Karasek's (1979) demands-control model uses a rather restricted definition of job demands that are mainly quantitative in nature, such as workload and time pressure. On the other hand, job demands-resources model expands this view by proposing that several demanding characteristics of the working environment, including emotional demands, problems with the work equipment (i.e., computers) or changes in the task. (Bakker et al., 2003<sub>b</sub>).

The second set of working conditions which concerns the extent to which the job offers resources to individual employees, shortly, job resources refer "to physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that either/or:

- 1) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs;
- 2) are functional in achieving work goals;
- 3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development" (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hacker, 1998 as cited in Bakker et al., 2003<sub>b</sub>, p. 395).

Job resources can also be defined as "the benefits of work to reduce the job demands, which are functional to fulfill the tasks and duties in work and reinforce personal development" (Hakanen, et al., 2008 as cited in Metin et al., 2010, p. 5). Examples of job resources are time control, performance feedback, a supportive leader, supervisory coaching, performance feedback, social support, time control and trusting relationships with colleagues (Bakker et al., 2003<sub>b</sub>).

Hobfoll (2002) mention that job resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands and to 'get things done,' but they also are important in their own right (As cited in Schaufeli et al., 2004). In their study, Maslach et al. (1986) suggested that the presence of specific demands (such as work overload and personal conflicts) and the absence of specific resources (such as control coping, social support, autonomy, and decision involvement) predicts burnout, which in its turn is expected to lead to various negative outcomes such as physical illness, turnover, absenteeism, and diminished organizational commitment (As cited in Schaufeli et al., 2004).

In conclusion, according to the job demands and resources model, two different sets of working conditions may evoke two different processes. First, “badly designed jobs or high job demands (e.g., work overload, emotional demands) may exhaust employees’ mental and physical resources and may therefore lead to the depletion of energy (such as a state of exhaustion) and to health problems” (Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001; Lee et al., 1996; Leiter, 1993 as cited in Bakker et al., 2003<sub>b</sub>, p. 395). Second, “the presence of adequate job resources reduces job demands, fosters goal accomplishment and stimulates personal growth and development” (Bakker et al., 2003<sub>b</sub>, p. 395).

### **2.4.3. CONSEQUENCES OF WORK PRESSURE:**

Work pressure leads to many counter-productive problems in the workplace, including worker dissatisfaction (Carayon et al., 1999; Weiss, 1983), fatigue (Macdonald, 2003), emotional exhaustion (Knudsen et al., 2009), job burnout (Bakker et al., 2004; Maslach, 1982; Maslach et al., 1981; Maslach et al., 2008) and absenteeism (Schaufeli et al., 2009 as cited in Wilson et al., 2010).

Outcomes of work pressure may differ for task groups and individual task settings. For instance Klein (1996 as cited in Wilson et al., 2010) reported that work pressure disrupted cohesiveness and increased competitiveness within the task groups he studied, contradicting prior research among individual workers who were found to band together in the face of pressure (Lott et al., 1965 as cited in Wilson et al., 2010). In the same study of Wilson et al. (2010), it is also stated that high levels of work pressure is an obstacle to group performance.

Pearson and his colleagues (2006) conducted a research in a hospital in Ontario, Canada; by which nurses' "patient/nurse ratios" were examined to address both nurse outcomes (such as satisfaction and psychological and physical health) and organizational outcomes (such as absenteeism, intent to quit and burnout). Nurses reporting a high patient–nurse ratio reported high perceived workloads, more restructuring initiatives within their hospital and greater future threats to their jobs than those who reported lower patient/nurse ratios. According to this research, nurses who experienced high workload reported less job satisfaction and a greater intention to quit; increases in workload was associated with lower levels of hospital functioning and effectiveness (such as more errors / injuries and lower quality of care) and nurses with lower workload view work environments more positively.

Another study was carried out by Bakker and Geurts (2004) which had supported that high work pressure was strongly related to exhaustion, which, in turn, was related to negative influence from work (As cited in Dikkers et al., 2007). The study suggests that, due to high workload, negative employee reactions are likely to develop at home domain which causes work-home interference.

Additionally, Wilson and his colleagues (2010) claimed that work pressure and related factors may decrease workers' performance by reducing output quality and job satisfaction (Ahituv et al., 1998; Austin, 2001 as cited in Wilson et al., 2010) and increasing exhaustion and turnover intentions (Guimaraes et al., 1992; Moore, 2000 as cited in Wilson et al., 2010).

From a different point of view, surprisingly, Hallberg et al., (2007) found a positive association between workload and higher level of work engagement. The job demands-resources model posits no such relation between job demands and work engagement; however, the researchers claim that the association is plausible from a theoretical viewpoint. The quote "in order to burn out, one has first to be 'on fire'" (Pines, 1993 as cited in Hallberg et al., 2007 p. 135) implies that burnout occurs among employees that are highly engaged in their work. An in-depth interview study with highly engaged employees (Schaufeli et al., 2001) suggested that work engaged employees were assertive and "active agents", prone to extra role behavior and to volunteer for additional work tasks (As cited in Hallberg et al., 2007). On the other hand, the same study also points out that, an increasing workload also increases the vulnerability for burnout (at least exhaustion), especially if exceeding the "breaking point" where available resources are no longer sufficient to solve the work tasks at hand (Hallberg et al., 2007).

Another contrary view was proposed by Dikkers and her colleagues (2007) which suggests that workload may also elicit positive (rather than negative) outcomes such as energy mobilization and skill acquisition, as long as demands are manageable (do not exceed individuals' coping capacity) and have motivating potential.

Finally, as a correlate of work pressure, Burke et al. (2010) found that work intensity was significantly related to one of the three work engagement measures which is "absorption". They claimed that this relation was negative. In addition to this, older respondents and respondents working in more "work intense" jobs reported greater workloads according to this research.

## **2.5. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND WORK PRESSURE**

Previous research about work engagement indicates that employees are more likely to engage in their work when they have developed a high level of organizational trust (Chughtai et al., 2008 as cited in Lin, 2010). The researchers claimed that, whereas organizational trust represents individuals' confidence and expectations about the actions of their organizations, work engagement reflects their subsequent involvement with and enthusiasm about their work assigned by the organization, implying the potential influence of the former on the latter. In other words, organizational trust positively affects work engagement, which includes dedication, vigor, and absorption, based on three reasons (Lin, 2010). First, employees dedicate themselves to the organization as long as they "enjoy trusting relationships with the organization" (Gill, 2008 as cited in Lin, 2010 p. 522). Second, organizational trust represents "important core values that help to keep employees creative and energetic" (Simmons, 1990 as cited in Lin, 2010 p. 522). Third, organizational trust is the means by which "employees are absorbed and engaged in the continual improvement of everything the organization does" (Townsend et al., 2008 as cited in Lin, 2010, p. 522).

In their study about trust in supervisor and trust in organization, Tan et al. (2000) indicated that organizational trust affects global job variables, such as organizational commitment, work engagement, and turnover intention, which impact the entire organization. As Lin (2010) reemphasized, when employees trust that competent decisions can be made by their organization, it increases their sense of a future with the organization (Spreitzer et al., 2002) and thus enhances their willingness to engage with their work (Chughtai et al., 2009). The research suggests that organizational trust postulates that the organization will deliver on its promises and if employees realize that their organization has failed to fulfill its promised inducements (or policies), then it results in a loss of organizational trust (Robinson, 1996 as cited in Lin, 2010).

According to Dalay et al. (2007), the concept of job engagement is related to organizational trust; because if an employee trusts her/his organization at both organizational (policies, goals, values) and individual (coworkers) levels, then the employee's engagement with her/his job will be facilitated. Mantler et al. (2006) had also found that, the more that employees believed they were being treated fairly, the more they were engaged in their jobs (As cited in Dalay et al., 2007).

In the literature, there are also some implications about the relationship between work pressure and work engagement. As it is mentioned in the previous sections, burnout is the contrary concept of work engagement and many burnout researchers have studied quantitative job demands; such as too much work for the available time. The research findings generally show that burnout is a response to work overload (Rothmann et al., 2007). Maslach et al. (2001) claimed that heavy workload and time pressure are strongly and consistently related to burnout, particularly the exhaustion dimension (As cited in Rothmann et al., 2007). Other than job demands, burnout researchers have also indicated that the absence of job resources such as lack of social support and lack of supervisory support were strongly correlated to burnout (Maher, 1983; Maslach et al., 2001 as cited in Rothmann et al., 2007).

In their multi-sample study, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) mentioned that job demands are closely related to psychological and physiological strains, including burnout which is the contrary of engagement (As cited in Shirom et al., 2010). In their research about perceived workload, Shirom et al. (2010) had also underlined that job demands and resources theory could be used to explain a positive link between workload and burnout. In other words, workload was found to be a major predictor of burnout (Lee et al., 1996 as cited in Shirom et al., 2010). Also, Demerouti and her colleagues (2001) found that workload was primarily associated with the physical fatigue component of burnout and was only minimally associated with other assumed components (As cited in Shirom et al., 2010).

As explained in the model of Demerouti et al. (2001), job demands are negatively related to job resources and job resources motivate employees positively, thus they are found to be related to work engagement. The research suggests that, job demands are related to a negative consequence, which is exhaustion (Metin, 2010). In the same study, Metin (2010) also emphasized that exhaustion is a very important negative job strain and is also the core dimension of burnout (Bakker et al., 2003<sub>a</sub>) and as it is mentioned in “Dimensions of Work Engagement” section and in *Figure 7*, exhaustion is the contrary of vigor dimension of work engagement.

There are also other theories and models which were developed to explain the effects of job demands such as work pressure on burnout and engagement. These include the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll et al., 1993; Lee et al., 1996 as cited in Rothmann et al., 2007) and the Comprehensive Burnout and Engagement (COBE) model, an extension of the Job Demands-Resources model with engagement, health impairment and organizational withdrawal as additional components (Schaufeli et al., 2004 as cited in Rothmann et al., 2007). Joubert and Rothmann (2007) underline that these models support the view that burnout develops in response to excessive job demands and diminished job resources.

The Comprehensive Burnout and Engagement (COBE) model assumes two job-related psychological processes, namely an energetic and a motivational process (Jackson et al., 2006 as cited in Rothmann et al., 2007). According to this model, the energetic process links job demands with health problems via burnout and the motivational process links job resources with organizational outcomes via work engagement. In other words, high job demands, which require sustained effort, may exhaust employees’ resources and lead to energy depletion and health problems (Caplan et al., 1975 as cited in Xanthopoulou et al., 2007<sub>a</sub>). By contrast, according to the motivational process, the availability of job resources leads to organizational commitment and work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2004 as cited in Xanthopoulou et al., 2007<sub>a</sub>).

On the other hand, the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory of Hobfoll et al. (1993) suggests that burnout is likely to develop when valued resources are lost or threatened, or are inadequate to meet the demands (As cited in Rothmann et al., 2007). In the previous studies, major demands are mentioned as role ambiguity, work pressure and workload and major resources are mentioned as control, participation in decision-making and job autonomy (Lee et al., 1996 as cited in Rothmann et al., 2007).

As explained previously in detail, the main proposition of the Job Demands-Resources model is that the risk of burnout is highest in working environments where job demands are high and job resources are low (Demerouti et al., 2001 as cited in Xanthopoulou et al., 2007<sub>b</sub>). Bakker et al. (2005) mention that, under demanding work conditions, “employees who have high levels of resources dispose more supplies and, thus, are more capable of dealing with these demands”, as a result, “they experience lower levels of exhaustion” (As cited in Xanthopoulou et al., 2007<sub>a</sub>, p. 123). In other words, these employees are more likely to experience vigor dimension of work engagement which is handled as the contrary of exhaustion.

Other than these studies, Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum (2006) made a research about the work engagement of woman bank managers in Turkey and in the literature review of this study, it is mentioned that high work demands and high control were associated with higher engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001) and there is an association of high time pressures with higher levels of engagement (Mauno et al., 2005).

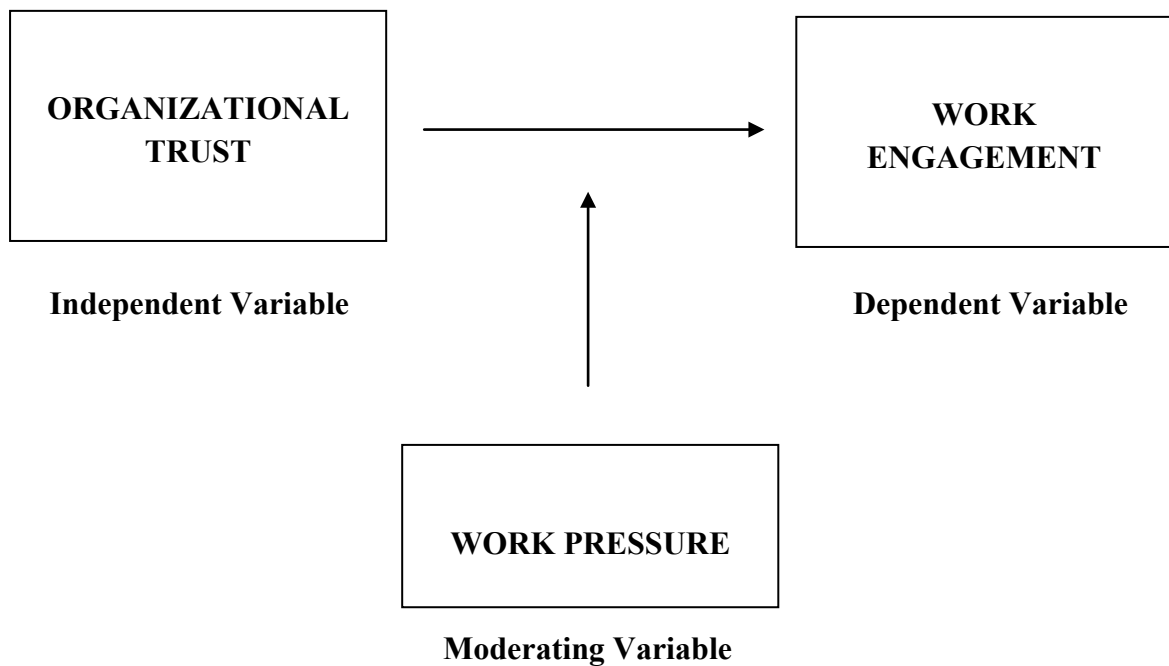
Another study which handled “Work pressure” and “Work engagement” in the same research (summarized in *Figure 6* in Work Engagement Section) was carried out by Bakker and Demerouti (2008). In this study, the researchers explained the antecedents and consequences of work engagement and evaluated “Work pressure” as a moderator between the relationship between job and personal resources and work engagement. Also Bakker et al. (2007) emphasized that the presence of job resources fosters work engagement, particularly under conditions of high job demands like work pressure.

Similar to the research of Bakker et al. (2007,2008), in the current study work pressure is handled as the moderating variable which influences the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable which is work engagement.

### 3. METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1. AIM OF THE STUDY AND THE PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL

Considering the conceptual framework, this study aims to investigate the contribution of organizational trust to work engagement and to explain the moderating role of work pressure on this contribution. As shown in *Figure 8*, the main research variables are organizational trust, work engagement and work pressure:



**Figure 8.** The Proposed Research Model

By conducting regression analyses, these hypotheses will be tested:

H<sub>1</sub>: Organizational trust has a contribution to work engagement.

H<sub>2</sub>: Work pressure moderates the contribution of organizational trust to work engagement.

### **3.2. SAMPLE**

Sample of the study consists of white-collar, full-time, private sector employees of multinational companies and local firms in İstanbul. There is not an age limitation for the sample. There is not researcher interference. *Study setting* is noncontrived, *unit of analysis* is individuals and *time horizon of the study* is cross-sectional. In total, 412 people filled the questionnaire.

### **3.3. INSTRUMENTS**

#### **3.3.1. Measurement of Organizational Trust:**

Organizational trust was measured by İslamoğlu, Birsal and Börü's Trust Scale (2007) which consists of 29 items (for trust in organization 10 items, for trust in supervisor 10 items and for trust in coworkers 9 items). This scale was chosen for the study because of its appropriateness to Turkish culture. Sample item for trust in organization is "My company takes into consideration the needs of its employees."; sample item for trust in supervisor is "My supervisor shares her/his knowledge" and sample item for trust in co-workers is "My peers are honest and open."

#### **3.3.2. Measurement of Work Engagement:**

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) which was developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá and Bakker (2002) was used to measure work engagement which has three dimensions; vigor, dedication and absorption. It consists of 17 items (for vigor 4 items, for dedication 9 items and for absorption 4 items). Sample item for vigor is "I can continue working for very long periods at a time.", sample item for dedication is "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose." and sample item for absorption is "When I am working, I forget everything else around me."

### 3.3.3. Measurement of Work Pressure:

The scale developed by Moore (2000) was used to measure the perceived work overload of the employees. The scale was translated to Turkish by the researcher. An example of item of this 4-item scale is “I feel that the number of requests, problems, or complaints I deal with is more than expected.”.

### 3.4. PROCEDURE

Before applying the questionnaire to the real sample, in order to check the quality, practicability and reliability of the scales, a pilot study was conducted with forty people and the comprehension of the items was tested. SPSS 13.0 was used for the analysis of the pilot study. Factor and reliability analysis results are presented in Table 1 below.

**Table 1. : Factor and Reliability Analysis Results for the *Pilot Study***

Concepts	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test (KMO)	Significancy (p value)	Cronbach $\alpha$
Organizational Trust	0.782	0,00	<u>Trust in Organization:</u> 0,942
			<u>Trust in Supervisor:</u> 0,927
			<u>Trust in Coworkers:</u> 0,938
Work Engagement	0.884	0,00	<u>Vigor and Absorption:</u> 0,971
			<u>Dedication:</u> 0,916
Work Pressure	0.718	0,00	0,940

As the pilot study results show, the scales are reliable and none of the items in the survey was taken out for the main study due to the general positive results of the SPSS analysis.

After the positive results obtained from the pilot study, the research is started to be carried out with the real sample of the study. The questionnaires were distributed to the employees from different sectors, either directly or via e-mail, during May, June, July, August months of the year 2011. On the cover of the questionnaire it was emphasized that respondents' confidentiality would be strictly kept by the researcher and the data would only be used for scientific research. Employees completed their questionnaires in their spare times and they returned their filled questionnaires to the researcher.

### **3.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 13.0 for Windows (SPSS) was used to analyze the data collected through questionnaires. The raw data was entered to SPSS and the following statistical analyses were done after checking for normal distribution on item basis and eliminating any outliers:

- a) Factor analysis was performed in order to evaluate the construct validity of the measures. In order to understand the internal consistency of the scales, reliability analysis was performed and cronbach alpha scores were calculated.
- b) Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviations, reliability coefficient and inter-correlations were computed to understand the variability and interdependence of the subscales derived from the factor analyses.
- c) To evaluate explanation power of the model variables on dependent variables, simple regression and multiple regression analyses were used.
- d) Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test the moderating role of work pressure on the contribution of organizational trust to work engagement. The reason to use this analysis is the opportunity to test the exploratory effect of different variable groups on dependent variable in the regression model. In order to test the role of moderating variable, an interaction term was calculated by multiplying the independent

and moderator variables after centering them (subtracting the mean value from the observed values) to overcome multicollinearity problem.

- e) In addition to the analyses carried out for explaining the relationships on the research model; further analyses were carried out to gather additional inferences about the research variables. These inferences include the contribution of work pressure to work engagement and the differences between the study concepts in terms of demographics. Thus, to gather these inferences, simple regression analyses, independent samples t-tests, One-way ANOVA tests, Welch and Brown-Forsythe Tests and chi-square tests were conducted.

## 4. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

### 4.1. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHICS

The demographic variables of the study are gender and the age of the employee, education level, experience in business life and in the company, number of years worked with the same supervisor, gender of the supervisor and working in a local firm or a multinational company.

**Table 2. : Summary of the Descriptive Analysis of the Demographic Variables**

VARIABLES		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
<b>Gender of The Employee</b>	Female	209	50,7
	Male	203	49,3
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Age of The Employee</b>	20-29	200	48,5
	30-39	149	36,2
	40-49	50	12,1
	50-59	9	2,2
	60 and over	4	1
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Education Level</b>	Primary School	1	0,2
	High School	18	4,4
	Two-year Degree	39	9,5
	Licence Degree	248	60,2
	Master's Degree	94	22,8
	Doctoral Degree and over	12	2,9
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Experience in Business Life</b>	Less than 1 year	35	8,5
	1-5 Years	142	34,5
	6-10 Years	97	23,5
	11-15 Years	72	17,5
	16-20 Years	41	10
	More than 20 Years	25	6
<b>Total</b>		412	100

From the table above, it can be concluded that, percentage of female and male employees participated in the study are approximately the same (50,7% female and 49,3% male) and most of the employees (60,2 % of the total sample) have licence degree. The table below also shows that male supervisors are more than twice of female supervisors (67,2% male and 32,8% female). 23% of the sample consists of first line, 60% of the sample consists of middle level and 17% of them consists of upper level employees. Employees working in local firms constitute 62,6% of the total sample and rest of them (37,4%) are employees working in multinational companies.

**Table 3. : Summary of the Descriptive Analysis of the Demographic Variables (cont.)**

<b>VARIABLES</b>		<b>FREQUENCY</b>	<b>PERCENT</b>
<b>Tenure in the Company</b>	Less than 1 year	95	23
	1-5 Years	201	48,8
	6-10 Years	70	17
	11-15 Years	31	7,5
	16-20 Years	9	2,2
	More than 20 Years	6	1,5
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Tenure with the Supervisor</b>	Less than 1 year	132	32
	1-5 Years	200	48,5
	6-10 Years	58	14,1
	11-15 Years	13	3,2
	16-20 Years	6	1,5
	More than 20 Years	3	0,7
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Gender of The Supervisor</b>	Female	135	32,8
	Male	277	67,2
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Position of The Employee</b>	First Line	95	23
	Middle Level	247	60
	Upper Level	70	17
<b>Total</b>		412	100
<b>Local Firm / Multinational Company</b>	Local Firm	258	62,6
	Multinational Company	154	37,4
<b>Total</b>		412	100

## **4.2. RESULTS OF THE FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES**

### **4.2.1. RESULTS OF FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST**

Organizational trust scale has 29 items with the KMO value of 0,956. This value points out that the scale was suitable for factor analysis. After the application of factor analysis, it was seen that organizational trust consists of three dimensions; namely trust in supervisor, trust in coworkers and trust in organization. The statistical analysis was continued with the reliability analysis and the items which decrease the cronbach alpha value were extracted from the study.

According to item-total statistics of the reliability analysis for trust in supervisor, 15. and 16. items of the scale were extracted. The reliability analysis for trust in organization also required the extraction of item 6 and the factor analysis was repeated accordingly. With the same reason, item 2 was also extracted and the factor analysis was performed again. The item-total statistics for trust in organization required the extraction of 10. item and the analysis was ended.

Finally, as a result of the last factor analysis, 3 factors with 24 items were found. The final reliability analysis conducted for each factor showed whether there was any factor with cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient less than 0,70. It was seen that all factors had higher cronbach alpha of the reliability coefficient. The final KMO result for organizational trust was  $0,956 > 0,50$  approving the adequacy of the sampling. The Barlett's test for the variables had also indicated significant value of  $0,000 < 0,50$ . It is also important to mention that three factors of the independent variable totally explain 75,56 % of the total variance.

Additionally, the mean values shown in Table 4 indicate that, among the mean values of the dimensions of organizational trust, trust in coworkers is the highest (Mean: 4,36) and trust in organization is the lowest (Mean: 3,92). For a detailed description of the organizational trust scale, the factor loadings of each item, percent of the variance explained for each factor, cronbach alpha values of the dimensions, mean values and other statistical results can be seen in the factor and reliability analysis report below:

**Table 4. : Organizational Trust - Factor and Reliability Analysis Report**

		<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% Variance Explained</b>	<b>Cronbach <math>\alpha</math></b>	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Item No.</b>	<b>Factor 1: Trust in Supervisor</b>		<b>25,983</b>	<b>0,961</b>	<b>4,277</b>
18.	<i>My supervisor</i> has a trustworthy approach.	0,862			
11.	... supports employees.	0,829			
17.	... shares her/his knowledge.	0,827			
20.	... empowers her subordinates...	0,822			
12.	... is honest and fair.	0,808			
14.	... creates a positive work environment.	0,778			
19.	... is competent at her/his work.	0,76			
13.	... is such a team leader.	0,756			
	<b>Factor 2: Trust in Coworker</b>		<b>27,321</b>	<b>0,949</b>	<b>4,36</b>
23.	<i>My coworkers</i> are honest and clear.	0,864			
26.	... are tolerant people.	0,863			
28.	... are positive.	0,842			
24.	... are compassionate.	0,84			
27.	... are responsible people.	0,809			
29.	... are not sneaky.	0,768			
21.	... want to be successful with their knowledge...	0,768			
22.	...improve themselves.	0,727			
25.	...do not take advantage of the company rules.	0,706			
	<b>Factor 3: Trust in Organization</b>		<b>22,256</b>	<b>0,946</b>	<b>3,92</b>
8.	<i>My company</i> conducts performance appraisals...	0,828			
9.	...pays attention to the needs of its employees.	0,803			
7.	...respects its employees.	0,793			
1.	...is honest and fair.	0,765			
5.	...creates commitment among its employees.	0,752			
4.	...puts importance on recruitment and orientation.	0,75			
3.	...has peaceful and fair work environment.	0,744			
	<b>Kaiser Meyer Olkin = 0,956</b> <b>Chi-Square Bartlett's Test = 10217,852</b> <b>sd = 276</b> <b>p = 0,000</b>		<b>75,56</b>		<b>4,204</b>

#### **4.2.2. RESULTS OF FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for work engagement scale was 0,943 which showed that the factor analysis could be performed for this scale. All of the 17 items of the scale were entered into factor analysis and it was found that the variable consisted of three dimensions; namely dedication, absorption and vigor.

Reliability analyses for each dimension of work engagement were performed which resulted in the discharge of 46. item because of its decreasing effect of cronbach alpha value. All of the factors showed high internal consistencies, which were; 0,943 for dedication, 0,93 for absorption and 0,818 for vigor. The items loaded under these three factors had an explanatory power of 75,132 % and the final KMO value for the work engagement scale was 0,94. Moreover, work engagement dimensions are found to be closer to each other compared to organizational trust factors, but the highest one is vigor (Mean: 4,289). The detailed results of the analysis is shown in Table 5.

**Table 5. : Work Engagement - Factor and Reliability Analysis Report**

		<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% Variance Explained</b>	<b>Cronbach <math>\alpha</math></b>	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Item No.</b>	<b>Factor 1: Dedication</b>		<b>32,02</b>	<b>0,943</b>	<b>4,154</b>
38.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	0,817			
39.	I am proud of the work that I do.	0,786			
40.	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	0,782			
36.	To me, my job is challenging.	0,781			
37.	My job inspires me.	0,776			
31.	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0,68			
30.	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0,662			
35.	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0,657			
	<b>Factor 2: Absorption</b>		<b>25,684</b>	<b>0,93</b>	<b>4,132</b>
45.	I am immersed in my work.	0,862			
43.	I get carried away when I am working.	0,859			
42.	Time flies when I am working.	0,8			
41.	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	0,79			
44.	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	0,697			
	<b>Factor 3: Vigor</b>		<b>17,428</b>	<b>0,818</b>	<b>4,289</b>
34.	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	0,823			
33.	I can continue working for long periods at a time.	0,745			
32.	At my work I always persevere, even things do not go well.	0,691			
	<b>KMO = 0,940</b> <b>Chi-Square Bartlett's Test = 5762,850</b> <b>sd = 120</b> <b>p = 0,000</b>		<b>75,132</b>		<b>4,172</b>

### 4.2.3. RESULTS OF FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF WORK PRESSURE

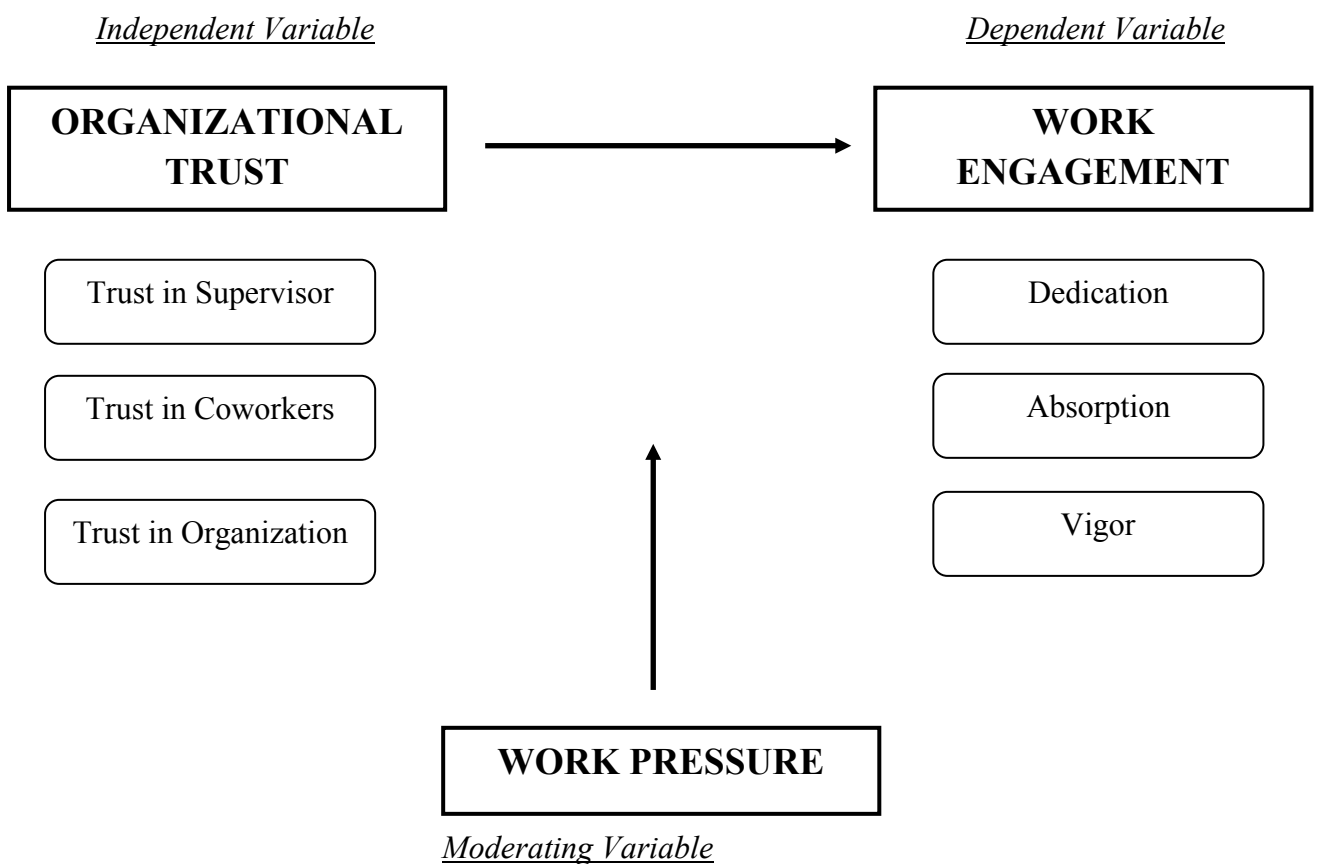
For the moderating variable which was work pressure, 4-item scale had a KMO value of 0,802 with the p value of 0,000 < 0,05 for The Barlett's test. Reliability analysis of work pressure scale revealed that cronbach alpha value was 0,829 which showed a high consistancy. None of the items required to be extracted from the study. Among the three variables of the study, work pressure has the lowest mean (Mean: 3,283). Factor loadings and other statistical results are mentioned in the table below:

**Table 6. : Work Pressure - Factor and Reliability Analysis Report**

		<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% Variance Explained</b>	<b>Cronbach <math>\alpha</math></b>	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Item No.</b>	<b>Factor 1: Work Pressure</b>		<b>66,13</b>	<b>0,829</b>	<b>3,283</b>
48.	I feel that the amount of work I do interferes with how well it is done.	0,863			
49.	I feel busy or rushed.	0,829			
50.	I feel pressured.	0,792			
47.	I feel that the number of requests, problems or complaints I deal with is more than expected.	0,766			
	<b>KMO = 0,802</b> <b>Chi-Square Bartlett's Test = 599,383</b> <b>sd = 6</b> <b>p = 0,000</b>		<b>66,13</b>		

### 4.3. THE REVISED RESEARCH MODEL AND DIMENSIONS

After the application of factor analyses, the dimensions of the research variables are determined and the model of the research revised accordingly. As it is seen from *Figure 9*, factor analysis results of organizational trust revealed that this variable consists of three dimensions; trust in supervisor, trust in coworkers and trust in organization.



**Figure 9.** The Revised Research Model

The factor analysis results also showed that, work engagement variable is made up of three dimensions; namely, dedication, absorption and vigor. After the factor analysis, it is also seen that work pressure is a one dimensional variable of the study.

#### 4.4. THE HYPOTHESES TESTING

##### 4.4.1. THE CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST TO WORK ENGAGEMENT

For explaining the contribution of organizational trust on work engagement, simple and multiple regression analyses are conducted. Before conducting these analyses, it was checked whether there was a multicollinearity problem among the dimensions of the research variables or not. As it is seen from Table 7, none of the dimensions were correlated to each other more than a Pearson Correlation coefficient of 0,70; thus it was concluded that there was not such a problem for the research.

**Table 7. : Correlation Analysis of All Dimensions of The Study**

<i><b>VARIABLE:</b></i>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.Trust in Supervisor</b>	1	0,523*	0,688*	0,565*	0,404*	0,475*	-0,37*
<b>2.Trust in Coworkers</b>	0,523*	1	0,544*	0,411*	0,289*	0,304*	-0,212*
<b>3.Trust in Organization</b>	0,688*	0,544*	1	0,597*	0,384*	0,402	-0,377
<b>4.Dedication</b>	0,565*	0,411*	0,597*	1	0,684*	0,67*	-0,366*
<b>5.Absorption</b>	0,404*	0,289*	0,384*	0,684*	1	0,591*	-0,22*
<b>6.Vigor</b>	0,475*	0,304*	0,402*	0,67*	0,591*	1	-0,336*
<b>7.Work Pressure</b>	-0,37*	-0,212*	-0,377*	-0,366*	-0,22*	-0,336*	1

\*Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed). All the variables are scored on a 1 to 6 point scale. (N: 412)

Followingly, in order to test “Hypothesis 1: Organizational trust has a contribution to work engagement.”, simple regression analysis was conducted with total organizational trust and total work engagement. As the results show, organizational trust explains 35,1% of the variance in work engagement. In other words, total organizational trust has significant importance (sig. 0,000 < 0,05) in predicting the total work engagement (in Table 8). When organizational trust of the employees increases, there is also an increase in work engagement.

**Table 8. : Simple Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Trust and Work Engagement**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	<i>Work Engagement - Total</i>		
<b>Independent Variable</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Organizational Trust - Total	0,592	14,877	0,000
R = 0,592; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,351; F = 221,315; p = 0,000			

When taking the dimensions of organizational trust and work engagement into consideration, multiple regression analyses were conducted for all dimensions of work engagement with the three dimensions of organizational trust. The findings revealed that only the “*Trust in Coworkers*” dimension of organizational trust had not a statistically significant influence on the work engagement dimensions. Therefore, the analysis was repeated after the extraction of this dimension and the multiple regression analyses results are shown below in Table 9:

**Table 9. : Multiple Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Trust and Work Engagement**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b> Work Engagement - Dedication			
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Trust in Supervisor	0,293	5,553	0,000
Trust in Organization	0,396	7,517	0,000
R = 0,634; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,402; F = 137,394; p = 0,000			
<b>Dependent Variable:</b> Work Engagement - Absorption			
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Trust in Supervisor	0,265	4,303	0,000
Trust in Organization	0,202	3,279	0,001
R = 0,429; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,184; F = 46,198; p = 0,000			
<b>Dependent Variable:</b> Work Engagement - Vigor			
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Trust in Supervisor	0,377	6,341	0,000
Trust in Organization	0,142	2,387	0,017
R = 0,486; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,236; F = 63,326; p = 0,000			

The multiple regression analysis results above indicate that; *Trust in Supervisor* and *Trust in Organization* explain 40% of the variance in dedication, 18% of the variance in absorption and 23% of the variance in vigor dimensions of work engagement. All the p values are found to be lower than 0,05 which shows that *Trust in Supervisor* and *Trust in Organization* have significant contributions to work engagement dimensions.

#### 4.4.2. THE MODERATING ROLE OF WORK PRESSURE ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST TO WORK ENGAGEMENT

In general terms, a moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the strength or the direction of the relation between the independent and the dependent variable (Baron et al., 1986). Hierarchical multiple regression analysis enables testing the moderator by conducting several steps of analysis. First, a new variable should be created which is the multiplication of the independent and the moderating variables' centered values (as previously explained in *Methodology-Statistical Analysis* section). This multiplied new variable is mentioned as the interaction term. Followingly, the independent and the moderating variables are entered into the regression one by one and finally the interaction term is entered as the last step of the hierarchical regression analysis.

Consequently, the output provides  $R^2$ s, the changes in  $R^2$ s and F-statistics which are produced according to these changes for the three models successively after adding the moderating variable and the interaction term (Aguinis, 1995). Baron and Kenny (1986) mentions that the moderating hypothesis is supported if the interaction term is significant in the last model.

In this research, these stages were followed in order to test "H<sub>2</sub>: Work pressure moderates the contribution of organizational trust to work engagement.". Firstly, the moderating role between the total organizational trust and the total work engagement was tested. The findings suggested that, there was not a moderating role of work pressure on the contribution of overall organizational trust on overall work engagement. However, when the dimensions of work engagement were taken into consideration, it was investigated that work pressure was moderating the contribution on vigor dimension of work engagement.

In order to conduct this hierarchical multiple regression analysis; in the first step, the independent variable “Organizational Trust” was entered into the analysis. In the second step, the moderator “Work Pressure” was added to the model. In the last step of the hierarchical regression, the interaction term was entered which contributed to an increase in  $R^2$  (from 0,216 to 0,254) for the vigor dimension of work engagement. This change in  $R^2$  represents the increase in the explanatory power of the research model (in Table 10).

**Table 10. : Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Results: The Moderating Role of Work Pressure on The Contribution of Organizational Trust to Vigor Dimension of Work Engagement**

<b>Dependent Variable: WORK ENGAGEMENT – VIGOR</b>								
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>ΔR<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F Change</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>p</b>
1. Organizational Trust	0,216	0,216	112,950	112,950	0,00	0,465	10,628	0,00
2. Organizational Trust	0,246	0,030	66,800	16,406	0,00	0,394	8,509	0,00
Work Pressure						-0,188	-4,050	0,00
3. Organizational Trust	0,254	0,008	46,307	4,258	0,00	0,407	8,742	0,00
Work Pressure						-0,188	-4,083	0,00
Organizational Trust x Work Pressure						-0,089	-2,063	0,04

As a result of statistically significant interaction effects shown above, work pressure was found to moderate the relationship between organizational trust and vigor dimension of work engagement. However, this moderating effect was not found for the other dimensions of work engagement.

#### 4.5. ADDITIONAL INFERENCES ABOUT THE STUDY CONCEPTS

After hypothesis testing, some further analyses were conducted due to the special interest of the researcher. Statistically significant findings were explained in the following sections.

##### 4.5.1. THE CONTRIBUTION OF WORK PRESSURE TO WORK ENGAGEMENT

Simple regression analysis was conducted to examine the contribution of work pressure to the factors of work engagement. It was seen in Table 11 that, work pressure explained 13,4% of the variance in dedication, 4% of the variance in absorption and 11,3% of the variance in vigor factor of work engagement.

**Table 11: Simple Regression Analysis Results of Work Pressure and Work Engagement**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	Work Engagement - Dedication		
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Work Pressure	-0,366	-7,959	0,000
R = 0,366; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,134; F = 63,346; p = 0,000			
<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	Work Engagement - Absorption		
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Work Pressure	-0,22	-4,562	0,000
R = 0,220; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,048; F = 20,808; p = 0,000			
<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	Work Engagement - Vigor		
<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Work Pressure	-0,336	-7,220	0,000
R = 0,336; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,113; F = 52,122; p = 0,000			

Results indicated that, work pressure has significant contributions to all the dimensions of work engagement (with the p value of  $0,00 < 0,05$  for each). As the negative t values (t value for the relationship with dedication: -7,959, for absorption: -4,562 and for vigor: -7,220) show that when work pressure of the employees increases work engagement of the employees decreases.

## 4.5.2. THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND THE STUDY CONCEPTS

### 4.5.2.1. T-Test Results For The Demographic Variables:

To examine the possible significant differences between gender groups and the employees working in multinational companies and local firms in terms of the variables of the study, independent samples t-tests were conducted.

**Table 12. : Independent Samples T-Test Results: Differences In Terms Of Gender**

		N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t value	p value
<b>Work Engagement-Absorption</b>	<b>Female</b>	209	4,259	1,196	2,173	0,03
	<b>Male</b>	203	4,001	1,215		

Table 12 shows that, when the grouping variable is gender which was measured on a nominal scale and the dependent variable is “absorption” dimension of work engagement which was measured with an interval scale, there was a significant difference (with the p value of 0,03 and t value of 2,173) between female and male employees. As the mean values indicate, female employees’ absorption level was higher than the male employees’ absorption level ( $4,259 > 4,001$ ). However, according to the statistical analysis results, it was found that other study concepts did not differ due to the gender of the employees.

When the dimensions of organizational trust were tested in terms of working in a multinational company or a local firm, it was found that employees working in multinational companies had higher levels of trust in their coworkers than the employees working in local firms (with the significant p value of 0,00, t value of -3,284 and mean values of  $4,575 > 4,231$ ).

**Table 13. : Independent Samples T-Test Results: Differences Between Local Firms and Multinational Companies**

<b>Trust in Coworkers:</b>		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>Turk</b>	258	4,231	1,168		
<b>Trust in Organization:</b>	<b>MNC</b>	154	4,575	0,935	-3,284	0,00
	<b>Turk</b>	258	3,739	1,316		
<b>Total Organizational Trust:</b>	<b>MNC</b>	154	4,223	1,289	-3,637	0,00
	<b>Turk</b>	258	97,89	25,955		
<b>Absorption:</b>	<b>MNC</b>	154	105,95	23,089	-3,274	0,00
	<b>Turk</b>	258	4,224	1,198		
	<b>MNC</b>	154	3,977	1,221	2,0023	0,04

On the other hand, mean value of trust in organization of the employees of multinational companies was 4,223 which was higher than 3,739 (the mean values of trust in organization of Turkish firms' employees) with the significant p value of 0,00 and t value of -3,637. It was also shown that the employees working in multinational companies significantly (p value: 0,00 < 0,05; t value: -3,274) experienced higher levels of overall organizational trust, compared to the employees working in local firms (Mean<sub>MNC</sub>: 105,95 > Mean<sub>Turk</sub>: 97,89).

When local firms and multinational companies were compared according to work engagement dimensions, only absorption dimension was found to be differing significantly with the p value of 0,04 < 0,05 (t= 2,0023). It was found that local firm employees were more absorbed in their work than multinational company employees (Mean<sub>Turk</sub>: 4,224 > Mean<sub>MNC</sub>: 3,977).

#### 4.5.2.2. One-way ANOVA Results For The Demographic Variables:

One-way ANOVA Test was conducted for investigating the differences in research concepts between all the suitable demographic variables which have at least three groups; but only statistically significant results are presented in the current study. In the situations where homogeneity of variances were not provided, Welch and Brown-Forsythe Test was applied. After the application of these tests, it was found that, there was differences in terms of position level of the employees (in Table 14), age groups (in Table 15 and 16), education levels (in Table 17) and experiences in business life (in Table 18 and 19).

When the participants of the research were compared according to their position levels, for dedication dimension of work engagement there was a statistically significant difference between dedication levels of upper level and first line employees with the p value of  $0,003 < 0,05$  ( $F= 6,079$ ). From Table 14, it can be inferred that upper level employees had higher dedication than first line employees ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{Upper level}}: 4,508 > \text{Mean}_{\text{First line}}: 3,86$ ). Research findings showed that, absorption dimension of work engagement also differed for first line and upper level employees with the significance of  $0,003 < 0,05$  ( $F= 6,075$ ). While first line employees' mean value for absorption was 3,816, upper level employees' mean value for the same dimension was 4,465. Also, vigor was another work engagement dimension which changed according to position level ( $p= 0,03 < 0,05$ ;  $F= 3,554$ ). Statistical analysis results shown in Table 14 summarize that, upper level employees had higher vigor levels ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{Upper level}}: 4,609$ ) compared to first line employees ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{First line}}: 4,122$ ). When overall work engagement was calculated for each position level, it was seen that (with the p value of  $0,001 < 0,05$  and  $F= 6,963$ ), like the engagement dimensions, the total engagement also differed due to position levels. In total, upper level employees had higher work engagement than first line employees ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{Upper level}}: 72,23 > \text{Mean}_{\text{First line}}: 62,34$ ).

**Table 14. : One-way ANOVA Results For Position Level**

		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F value</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Work Engagement - Dedication Dimension</b>	<b>First Line</b>	95	3,86	6,079	0,003
	<b>Middle Level</b>	247	4,167		
	<b>Upper Level</b>	70	4,508		
<b>Scheffe Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>First Line</b>	<b>Upper Level</b>	-0,6484	0,1865	0,003
		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F value</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Work Engagement - Absorption Dimension</b>	<b>First Line</b>	95	3,816	6,075	0,003
	<b>Middle Level</b>	247	4,158		
	<b>Upper Level</b>	70	4,465		
<b>Scheffe Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>First Line</b>	<b>Upper Level</b>	-0,6488	0,1885	0,003
		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F value</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Work Engagement - Vigor Dimension</b>	<b>First Line</b>	95	4,122	3,554	0,03
	<b>Middle Level</b>	247	4,263		
	<b>Upper Level</b>	70	4,609		
<b>Scheffe Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>First Line</b>	<b>Upper Level</b>	-0,4867	0,1866	0,034
		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F value</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Total Work Engagement</b>	<b>First Line</b>	95	62,34	6,963	0,001
	<b>Middle Level</b>	247	66,92		
	<b>Upper Level</b>	70	72,23		
<b>Scheffe Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>First Line</b>	<b>Upper Level</b>	-9,892	2,656	0,001

Age group is other demographic variable which was investigated in terms of the levels of the research variables. As it is shown in Table 15, trust in organization was found to be differing according to age groups, with the p value of  $0,00 < 0,05$  ( $F= 8,983$ ). Scheffe test results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the levels of trust in organization of the respondents who are less than 30 years-old and 30-39 years-old ( $p= 0,017$ ) and who were less than 30 years-old and over 40 years-old ( $p=0,001$ ). The mean value of trust in organization of the people who were over 40 years-old is 4,392 which was higher than 3,663 (the mean of the same dimension for the people less than 30 years-old). Similarly, the mean of this dimension was higher for the people who are 30-39 years-old than the people less than 30 years-old ( $\text{Mean}_{30-39 \text{ years}}: 4,066 > \text{Mean}_{\text{Less than 30}}: 3,663$ ).

Although statistical analyses of the other dimensions of organizational trust were not as significant as trust in organization, it was found that, total organizational trust significantly differs in terms of age groups ( $p=0,009$ ;  $F= 4,753$  in Table 15). Scheffe test results show that this difference occurs between the people below 30 years-old (with the mean of 3,663) and over 40 years-old (with the mean of 4,392).

**Table 15. : One-way ANOVA Results For and Age Groups**

		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Organizational Trust - Trust in Organization</b>	Less than 30 years-old	200	3,663	8,983	0,000
	30-39 years-old	149	4,066		
	40 and over	63	4,392		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than 30 years-old	<b>30-39 years-old</b>	-0,4025	0,1407	0,017
		<b>40 years-old and over</b>	-0,7287	0,1878	0,001
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Total Organizational Trust</b>	Less than 30 years-old	200	97,52	4,753	0,009
	30-39 years-old	149	102,39		
	40 and over	63	108,14		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than 30 years-old	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	-10,628	3,608	0,014
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Engagement - Vigor</b>	Less than 30 years-old	200	4,150	4,477	0,012
	30-39 years-old	149	4,322		
	40 and over	63	4,656		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than 30 years-old	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	-0,5060	0,1708	0,013
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Total Work Engagement</b>	Less than 30 years-old	200	64,30	5,730	0,004
	30-39 years-old	149	67,76		
	40 and over	63	72,27		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than 30 years-old	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	-7,975	2,443	0,005
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Pressure</b>	Less than 30 years-old	200	3,452	5,554	0,004
	30-39 years-old	149	3,214		
	40 and over	63	2,908		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than 30 years-old	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	0,5437	0,1693	0,006

When the analysis was continued with the dimensions of work engagement, the results indicated that all dimensions and therefore overall work engagement were changing according to different age groups. Firstly, as it is shown in Table 16, it was statistically significant ( $p=0,001 < 0,05$  and  $F=7,160$ ) that, people below 30 years-old had lower dedication levels than the older people ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{Less than 30}}: 3,96$ ;  $\text{Mean}_{30-39\text{years}}: 4,26$ ;  $\text{Mean}_{\text{Over 40}}: 4,519$ ). Secondly, absorption was differing due to different age groups with the p value of  $0,03 < 0,05$  obtained from Welch test ( $F=3,572$  in Table 16). The analysis concluded that the respondents below 30 years-old experienced lower absorption than the respondents over 40 years-old ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{Less than 30}}: 4,032 < \text{Mean}_{\text{Over 40}}: 4,428$ ). As the last dimension of work engagement, statistical analysis for vigor (in Table 15) provided the similar results with the p value of  $0,012 < 0,05$  ( $F=4,477$ ). In other words, the subjects below 30 years-old had significantly lower vigor levels than the subjects over 40 years-old ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{Less than 30}}: 4,15 < \text{Mean}_{\text{Over 40}}: 4,656$ ).

**Table 16. : Welch and Brown-Forsythe Test Results For Age Groups**

		N	Mean	Welch Test	Brown-Forsythe
<b>Work Engagement-Dedication</b>	<b>Less than 30 years-old</b>	200	3,96	<b>F value</b>	7,160
	<b>30-39 years-old</b>	149	4,26	<b>p value</b>	0,001
	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	63	4,519		7,221
<b>Tamhane's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>Less than 30 years-old</b>	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	-0,5592	0,1513	0,001
		N	Mean	Welch Test	Brown-Forsythe
<b>Work Engagement-Absorption</b>	<b>Less than 30 years-old</b>	200	4,032	<b>F value</b>	3,572
	<b>30-39 years-old</b>	149	4,140	<b>p value</b>	0,030
	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	63	4,428		2,980
<b>Tamhane's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>Less than 30 years-old</b>	<b>40 years-old and over</b>	-0,3965	0,1489	0,026

As previously mentioned, like all its dimensions, overall work engagement was found to be changing according to age groups ( $p= 0,004 < 0,05$ ;  $F= 5,730$  in Table 15). Scheffe test results denoted that there was a statistically significant difference between “less than 30 years-old” age group and “40 years-old and over” age group in terms of total work engagement ( $Mean_{Less\ than\ 30}: 64,30 < Mean_{Over\ 40}: 72,27$ ).

Finally, the moderating variable, work pressure was tested in terms of age groups and with the p value of  $0,004 < 0,05$  ( $F= 5,554$ ), it was found to be differing due to age groups. Table 15 shows that, the respondents below 30 years-old experienced higher levels of work pressure than the respondents who were over 40 years-old ( $Mean_{Less\ than\ 30}: 3,452 > Mean_{Over\ 40}: 2,908$ ).

**Table 17. : One-way ANOVA Results For Education Level**

		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F value</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Organizational Trust-Trust in Organization</b>	<b>Two-year degree and less</b>	58	4,357	3,709	0,025
	<b>Licence degree</b>	248	3,85		
	<b>Master's degree and over</b>	106	3,846		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>Two-year degree and less</b>	<b>Licence degree</b>	0,5069	0,192	0,032
		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F value</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Work Engagement - Dedication</b>	<b>Two-year degree and less</b>	<b>58</b>	4,545	4,151	0,016
	<b>Licence degree</b>	<b>248</b>	4,048		
	<b>Master's degree and over</b>	<b>106</b>	4,188		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	<b>Two-year degree and less</b>	<b>Licence degree</b>	0,4963	0,1735	0,017

Education level was found to be a significantly determinant factor for only trust in organization dimension of organizational trust and dedication dimension of work engagement (in Table 17). Other research variables were not found to be influenced by the education levels of the respondents. As it can be inferred from the Table 17, trust in organization observed for the people having two-years degree and less was significantly higher than the people having licence degree. In brief, with the p value of  $0,025 < 0,05$  ( $F= 3,709$ ), trust in organization was influenced by education level. Education level also influenced dedication significantly, with the p value of  $0,016 < 0,05$  ( $F= 4,151$ ). Scheffe test results shown in Table 17 indicate that, subjects having two-year degree and less had higher dedication levels than the respondents with licence degree ( $Mean_{Two-year \text{ and less}}: 4,545 > Mean_{Licence}: 4,048$ ).

Surprisingly, there was not such a statistically significant difference between the people having lower degree than licence and having post-graduate degree.

In this research, experience in business life was found to be an important demographic variable which influenced trust in organization dimension of organizational trust; dedication, absorption and vigor dimensions of work engagement and therefore overall work engagement; and finally the moderator, work pressure.

**Table 18. Welch and Brown-Forsythe Test Results For Experience in Business Life**

		N	Mean		Welch	Brown-Forsythe
<b>Organizational Trust-Trust in Organization</b>	<b>Less than one year</b>	35	3,853	<b>F value</b>	3,879	3,656
	<b>1-5 years</b>	142	3,82	<b>p value</b>	0,005	0,006
	<b>6-10 years</b>	97	3,664			
	<b>11-15 years</b>	72	4,085			
	<b>More than 15 years</b>	66	4,368			
<b>Tamhane's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>	
	<b>More than 15 years</b>	<b>1-5 years</b>	0,547	0,1779	0,025	
		<b>6-10 years</b>	0,7037	0,1969	0,005	

As it is inferred from the Table 18, trust in organization differed among the people with different tenure in business life ( $p= 0,005 < 0,05$  and  $F= 3,879$ ). Tamhane test results showed that people with experience over 15 years had significantly higher trust in their organizations than the people with the experience of 1-5 years and 6-10 years ( $Mean_{More\ than\ 15\ years}: 4,368 > Mean_{1-5\ years}: 3,82, Mean_{6-10\ years}: 3,664$ ).

Like trust in organization, dedication was also influenced by experience in business life ( $p= 0,002 < 0,05$  and  $F= 4,350$ ). People having more than 15 years of work experience (Mean<sub>More than 15 years</sub>: 4,604) had higher levels of dedication compared to people having less than one year (Mean<sub>Less than 1 year</sub>: 3,821) and 1-5 years of work experience (Mean<sub>1-5 years</sub>: 3,948).

The statistical analysis conducted for absorption, which is the other dimension of work engagement provided almost the same results with dedication, with the significance of  $0,01 < 0,05$  ( $F= 3,362$ ). In Table 19, it is indicated that the respondents who had more than 15 years of business experience (Mean<sub>More than 15 years</sub>: 4,551) had higher absorption levels than the respondents with less than one year (Mean<sub>Less than one year</sub>: 3,782) and 1-5 years of work experience (Mean<sub>1-5 years</sub>: 4,001).

Vigor dimension of work engagement was also found to be significantly influenced by work experience ( $p= 0,013 < 0,05$  and  $F= 3,212$  in Table 19). The participants of the research who had over 15 years of work experience had (Mean<sub>More than 15 years</sub>: 4,697) higher vigor levels than the participants with less than one year experience (Mean<sub>Less than 1 year</sub>: 3,99) and 1-5 years of experience (Mean<sub>1-5 years</sub>: 4,131).

By reason of all dimensions of engagement were influenced by work experience; overall work engagement of the respondents was also found to be changing in terms of experience in business life ( $p= 0,001 < 0,05$  and  $F= 4,719$  in Table 19). The statistical analysis results suggested that employees with over 15 years of work experience (Mean<sub>More than 15 years</sub>: 73,68) had higher work engagement than those who had less than one year (Mean<sub>Less than 1 year</sub>: 61,46) and 1-5 years of experience in business life (Mean<sub>1-5 years</sub>: 63,99).

**Table 19. One-way ANOVA Results For Experience in Business Life**

		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Engagement - Dedication</b>	Less than one year	35	3,821	4,350	0,002
	1-5 years	142	3,948		
	6-10 years	97	4,189		
	11-15 years	72	4,263		
	More than 15 years	66	4,604		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Diff.</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than one year	More than 15 years	-0,7827	0,2466	0,041
	1-5 years	More than 15 years	-0,6552	0,1757	0,008
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Engagement - Absorption</b>	Less than one year	35	3,782	3,362	0,01
	1-5 years	142	4,001		
	6-10 years	97	4,214		
	11-15 years	72	4,063		
	More than 15 years	66	4,551		
<b>Tukey HSD Test</b>			<b>Mean Diff.</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than one year	More than 15 years	-0,7686	0,2504	0,019
	1-5 years	More than 15 years	-0,5501	0,1784	0,019
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Engagement - Vigor</b>	Less than one year	35	3,990	3,212	0,013
	1-5 years	142	4,131		
	6-10 years	97	4,336		
	11-15 years	72	4,310		
	More than 15 years	66	4,697		
<b>Tukey HSD Test</b>			<b>Mean Diff.</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than one year	More than 15 years	-0,7064	0,2466	0,035
	1-5 years	More than 15 years	-0,5655	0,1757	0,012
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Engagement- Total</b>	Less than one year	35	61,46	4,719	0,001
	1-5 years	142	63,99		
	6-10 years	97	67,60		
	11-15 years	72	67,36		
	More than 15 years	66	73,68		
<b>Scheffe's Test Results</b>			<b>Mean Diff.</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	Less than one year	More than 15 years	-12,225	3,513	0,018
	1-5 years	More than 15 years	-9,689	2,503	0,005
		N	Mean	F value	p value
<b>Work Pressure</b>	Less than one year	35	3,164	3,592	0,007
	1-5 years	142	3,549		
	6-10 years	97	3,208		
	11-15 years	72	3,246		
	More than 15 years	66	2,924		
<b>Scheffe's Test</b>			<b>Mean Diff.</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>p value</b>
	1-5 years	More than 15 years	0,6250	0,1743	0,013

The final One-way ANOVA analysis was conducted for the moderating variable of the research which was work pressure and it was found that experience in business life significantly ( $p= 0,007 < 0,05$  and  $F= 3,592$  in Table 19) influenced work pressure levels of the employees. The research findings indicated that the mean of work pressure was significantly lower for the employees working for more than 15 years ( $\text{Mean}_{\text{More than 15 years}}: 2,924$ ) than the ones who had 1-5 years of experience in business life ( $\text{Mean}_{1-5 \text{ years}}: 3,549$ ).

#### 4.5.2.3. Chi-Square Test Results For The Demographic Variables:

In order to test the relationships between the demographic variables of the study such as gender, position level, working in a multinational company or a local firm and education level; Chi-square test was applied. The test only investigated statistically significant relationship between gender of the employee and position level, as well as position level and education level.

**Table 20. Chi-Square Test Results For Gender of The Employee and Position Level**

		Position Level			TOTAL
		First Line	Middle Level	Upper Level	
Gender of The Employee	Female	52	135	22	209
	Male	43	112	48	203
	TOTAL	95	247	70	412
<b>Pearson Chi-Square Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) : 0,002</b>					

In Table 20, it is shown that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender of the employee and her/his position level ( $p= 0,002 < 0,05$ ). It is obvious that among the 70 upper level employees, approximately 70 % of them were male and the rest was female managers.

**Table 21. Chi-Square Test Results For Position Level and Education Level**

		Education Level			TOTAL
		Two-year degree and less	Licence degree	Master degree and over	
Position Level	First Line	4	60	31	95
	Middle Level	45	145	57	247
	Upper Level	9	43	18	70
	TOTAL	58	248	106	412
<b>Pearson Chi-Square Asymp. Sig. (2-sided): 0,015</b>					

As an expected result, statistical analysis revealed that position level and education level were interrelated, too ( $p= 0,015 < 0,05$ ). As it is seen from Table 21, approximately 90% of the upper level employees' education level was licence degree or over.

## **5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

In this study, the contribution of organizational trust to work engagement was investigated and the moderating role of work pressure on this contribution was tried to be explained. The following sections include the interpretation of the research findings with some recommendations for other researchers and the limitations of the current research.

### **5.1. DISCUSSION**

For this study, before the application of the questionnaire to the real sample which was 412 employees from different sectors who work in multinational companies or local firms; a pilot study had been carried out with 40 voluntary participants. This provided the researcher to check the clarity and practicability of the questionnaire items. Factor and reliability analysis conducted with this pilot study of 40 people showed that the scales of all the variables have high Kaiser-Meyer Olkin and Cronbach alpha values, which meant that the questionnaire was applicable for the sample group with high reliability. Consequently, after these positive results, the questionnaire was applied to the main sample of the research without extracting any item. The data collected from 412 employees were analyzed through SPSS 13.0 and the results are summarized below with some comparisons between the previous studies in the literature.

The sample of the research was chosen as full-time employees from different sectors and 412 people were participated in the study. In the literature, there are many researchers who investigated trust or work engagement and chose employees from different sectors as the sample. For instance, in his study about antecedents and consequences of work engagement, Saks (2006) applied a questionnaire to 102 employees from different sectors; in their study about the relationship between leadership behaviours and work engagement, Tuna et al. (2009) applied their questionnaire to 163 people working in a variety of jobs and

organizations and in their research on organizational trust, Melikoğlu et al. (2009) preferred convenience sampling with 196 employees from different sectors in İstanbul. Similarly, the current study's sample consists of employees from different sectors, but with a higher number of participants with 412 people, compared to previous studies on similar subjects.

The statistical analysis of the main data was started with the factor and reliability analysis, in order to point out the applicability of the scales used for the research. The factor analysis results revealed that, organizational trust and work engagement variables consisted of three dimensions. Organizational trust dimensions are found to be trust in supervisor, trust in coworkers and trust in organization which are similarly termed by many researchers (Mayer et al., 1995; Ertürk, 2007; Altuntaş et al., 2009). In the factor analysis 4 items of the 29-item organizational trust scale was extracted and rest of the items explained 75,56 % of the total variance in organizational trust. The reliability of the scale for each dimension was over 0,90 such as Melikoğlu et al. (2009)'s research findings which were provided from the same trust in supervisor and trust in coworkers scales.

Work engagement dimensions are dedication, absorption and vigor which are consistent with Schaufeli et al.'s (2003) findings. The original three dimensional model of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale consists of 17 items. However, in this study, one item of the scale was excluded and 16 items of the scale loading on three factors showed high internal consistencies having an explanatory power of 75,132 %. Reliability analysis for work engagement scale provided similar results with the previous studies that used the same scale to measure engagement. The cronbach alpha values for all the three dimensions were found to be over 0,80 in the current research and also in the study of Erim et al. (2009).

Finally, when the factor analysis was carried out for work pressure, it was found that the four-item scale explains 66,13 % of the total variance in work pressure. Also the reliability of the scale was found to be high with the Cronbach alpha of 0,829. In the previous studies which used the same scale, similarly high reliability results were obtained with the Cronbach alpha of 0,80 (Moore, 2000) and 0,94 (Ahuja et al., 2007).

Before regression analysis, correlation analysis was carried out with all the dimensions of the research variables, in order to test whether there was multicollinearity problem for the study or not. The findings revealed that organizational trust dimensions were correlated to work engagement dimensions at the moderate level, supporting the findings of Tan et al. (2000) and Lin (2010) who denoted the relationship between organizational trust and work engagement of the employees; but there was not a multicollinearity problem. After having seen this positive result, followingly the regression analyses were applied.

Supporting the findings of Dalay (2007) and Chughtai (2009), while testing the first hypothesis of the research, it was investigated that the level of organizational trust had a positive contribution to work engagement. To test this relationship, firstly simple regression analysis was conducted with the total organizational trust and total work engagement which suggested a statistically significant positive contribution, in accordance with the previous studies. When the dimensions of the research variables were taken into consideration, multiple regression analysis was applied which included trust in supervisor, trust in coworkers and trust in organization dimensions as the independent variables and each dimension of work engagement as the dependent variable. The findings suggested that, only “Trust in coworkers” dimension of organizational trust was not found to be statistically significant in all of these analyses. After the extraction of this dimension of organizational trust, the multiple regression analysis was repeated and it was investigated that all the dimensions of work engagement were influenced by the remaining organizational trust dimensions significantly.

The second hypothesis of the research which aimed to investigate the moderating role of work pressure on the contribution of organizational trust to work engagement was tested by carrying out a hierarchical multiple regression analysis. When the analysis was carried out with the overall organizational trust and overall work engagement, a moderating role of work pressure was not found. However, when the dimensions of work engagement was taken into account, the findings suggested that only vigor dimension of work engagement was moderated by work pressure. According to the results of the analysis, when work pressure is high, the positive influence of organizational trust on work engagement’s vigor dimension decreases. As it is mentioned before, this moderating effect was not found for the other

dimensions of work engagement. In the literature, while considering work pressure as a moderating variable and work engagement as a dependent variable, Bakker et al. (2008) stated that, job and personal resources particularly have a positive impact on work engagement when work pressure is high. Thence, the findings of the current research about work pressure bring a new perspective to the literature which is contrary to previous studies about the direction of the relationships for the vigor dimension of work engagement.

With further statistical analyses, some non-hypothesized results worth to mention were also obtained. When simple regression analyses were conducted with work pressure as the independent variable and the dimensions of work engagement as the dependent variables; it was found that work pressure had a significant influence on the engagement levels of the employees for all of the three dimensions of work engagement. The findings suggested that, for the reason of obtaining negative t values (t value for the relationship with dedication: -7,959, for absorption: -4,562 and for vigor: -7,220), when work pressure of the employees increases work engagement of the employees decreases. However, in the literature some researchers pointed this relationship in different ways. As cited in Koyuncu et al. (2006), Demerouti et al. (2001) stated that high work demands and high control were associated with higher engagement and Mauno et al. (2005) suggested that there was an association of high time pressures with higher levels of engagement. Surprisingly, in a research carried out in Turkey, Koyuncu et al. (2006) mentioned that, the women working in banks and having greater workloads, reported greater absorption dimension of work engagement, contrary to the findings of the current research.

As it is stated before, independent t-tests were conducted to analyze the differences between some demographic groups of the participants. The results suggested that, among the dimensions of the variables of the study, only absorption was found to be higher for female employees than male employees. Trust in supervisor was not evaluated differently by subordinate employees in terms of gender, in accordance with the findings of Bozaykut et al. (2009). Moreover, other dimensions of trust and work pressure were not differing according to trust, as well.

When the sample was evaluated in terms of working in a multinational company or a local firm, it was found that trust in coworkers and trust in organization were significantly higher for multinational company employees. Thence, the total organizational trust was also found to be higher for these employees, too. On the other hand, absorption levels were found to be higher for the employees working in local firms than the multinational company employees.

The results obtained from One-way ANOVA analysis, in order to see the difference between different position levels revealed that, upper level employees' dedication, absorption and vigor levels were significantly higher than the first line employees, which led to a difference in total work engagement of these employees. In the literature, Öner et al. (2008) previously mentioned a similar research result by stating that the employees who had managerial responsibilities also had higher levels of work engagement. However, such a difference was not found for the other variables of the current research in terms of position level.

Contrary to the findings of Koyuncu et al. (2006) and Dalay (2009), age of the employees was found to be a very important factor in this study, which influences many dimensions of the research variables. Significant differences were observed between the people who were less than 30 years-old and over 40 years-old. Employees over 40 years-old were found to be experiencing higher dedication, absorption, vigor and overall engagement levels than the ones who were below 30 years-old. This finding is in accordance with the research results of Öner et al. (2008) who stated that; the older the employees, the more engaged they feel. Additionally, they had higher trust in their organizations and higher overall organizational trust. Moreover, a difference between the people below 30 years-old and between 30-39 years-old was also observed in terms of trust in organization. When the moderator of the study which is work pressure was taken into account, it was seen that the employees below 30 years-old perceived higher levels of work pressure than the employees over 40 years-old.

Statistical analyses revealed that, among the research variables, only trust in organization dimension of organizational trust and dedication dimension of work engagement were found to be differing according to education level. It can be concluded that the employees having two-year degree and less experienced higher levels of trust in organization and dedication than the employees who had license degree. Surprisingly, such a difference was not found between the people having less than two-year degree and master's degree or over. Overall engagement levels of the respondents were not found to be differing due to education level, in line with the study of Koyuncu et al. (2006) and Öner et al. (2008).

Experience in business life was found to be another important demographic variable which had influences on trust in organization, all the dimensions of work engagement and work pressure perceived by the employees. Statistical analysis findings indicated that the people having experience of more than 15 years had higher levels of trust in their organizations than the ones who had 1-5 years of experience and 6-10 years of experience. Furthermore, they also experienced higher levels of dedication, absorption, vigor and overall work engagement compared to the employees working for 1-5 years and less than 1 year. Öner et al. (2008) also suggested that work engagement was significantly correlated to all the dimensions of work engagement, which fully supported the findings of the current research. Besides, these findings were partially supported by Rice (2009), who stated that tenure was significantly correlated to dedication and absorption, in her research about work engagement and job satisfaction relationship. In addition to the differences observed for the dependent and the independent variables, the moderator also differed according to the tenure of the employees in business life. The employees who had more than 15 years of experience perceived lower levels of work pressure compared to the employees with the experience of 1-5 years.

As mentioned in the previous sections, in order to test the relationships between the demographic variables of the study such as gender, position level, working in a multinational company or a local firm and education level; Chi-square tests were applied. Significant results were found only for the cross-tabulations made between position level-education level and position level-gender of the employees. As an expected result, it is important to mention that, approximately 90% of the upper level employees were graduates and post-graduates of

universities. Another important point is that, although the sample consisted of nearly the same number of females and males, among the managers, approximately 70% of them were males which pointed out a significant difference between women and men in the upper level employment statistics. Such a difference between upper level employees in terms of gender was previously mentioned by many researchers. Smith (1997) stated that, women occupy only 2.4 per cent of the highest ranking corporate positions in Fortune 500 companies and Burke (1997) also mentioned that, in Canada, under 5 per cent of senior management in the private sector were women (As cited in Caligiuri et al., 1999). Thus, a glass ceiling appears to persist according to the literature.

In her research which was carried out in multinational companies in Thailand, Boonsathorn (2007) suggested that people working in multinational workforce had a much higher educational level than the average population. However, when Chi-square test conducted with education level and working in multinational company or local firm, there was not such a statistically significant result for the current study.

## **5.2. CONCLUSION**

As the results of this study indicate, organizational trust has a positive contribution to work engagement which is crucial for an organization to survive. Other important finding of the research is that, when the employees perceive high work pressure, the positive influence of organizational trust on work engagement's vigor dimension decreases. More engaged employees with high organizational trust levels provide their organizations a competitive advantage in this rapidly changing, challenging business world in many ways. People who are engaged in their jobs tend to work harder and be more productive than other employees. These employees are also more likely to meet the needs of their customers and to improve customer loyalty which in return increases sales and profits. To sum up, the top management of the companies should recognize the importance of work engagement and should take some actions to increase organizational trust of their employees. Organizations which manage to increase work engagement and organizational trust will meet the financial and other critical business goals in the long run.

### **5.2.1. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

First limitation of this study is its generalizability, due to the geographic boundaries of the data collected for the study. The inferences drawn from such a sample in İstanbul may not be fully generalizable to whole country or the employees from other countries in different cultures.

Another limitation is about the content of the measurement items. The organizational trust scale was developed for Turkish culture by Turkish academicians; but work engagement and work pressure scales were developed by scholars from other cultures. Thus, they may not be as suitable as the organizational trust scale for the sample of the research.

Finally, due to the research scope that focuses on work engagement, this study did not address other institutional variables, such as firm ownership, workplace cultures, working hours, organizational sizes, organizational structure and profitability.

### **5.2.2. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

In order to make a better explanation of the relationship between the research variables, a broader geographic region can be chosen with a higher number of participants as the sample group. This would enable the research findings to be more valid and accredited. Moreover, to increase the credibility of the study, like the scale used measuring organizational trust in this research which provides a well-advised design of measurement of organizational trust; also for the other variables, the new scales developed for Turkish culture should be used.

Another suggestion for other researchers is the application of another questionnaire to supervisors about their subordinates. In this way, in addition to the perceptions of the relatively lower level employees, also the opinions of their supervisors and managers can be acquainted.

Besides organizational trust, there are many other factors which have an impact on work engagement; such as perceived organizational support, procedural justice, rewards and recognition. In further research, these important variables can also be included to embrace the subject in a broader way. Furthermore, additional variables like working hours, organization size and performance can also be taken into account.

## REFERENCES

1. Aguinis, H. (1995). Statistical power problems with moderated multiple regression in management research. *Journal of Management*, 21(6), 1141-1158.
2. Ahuja, M.K., Chudoba, K.M., Kacmar, C.J., McKnight, D.H., George, J.F. (2007). IT road warriors: Balancing work-family conflict, job autonomy, and work overload to mitigate turnover intentions. *MIS Quarterly*, 31(1), 1-17.
3. Altuntaş, S., Baykal, Ü. (2009). Relationship between nurses' organizational trust levels and their organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 42(2), 186–194.
4. Bal, E.A., Sinangil, H.K. (2008). Self-efficacy, contextual factors and well-being: The impact of work engagement. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
5. Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., de Boer, E., Schaufeli, W.B. (2003a). Job demands and job resources as predictors of absence duration and frequency. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62, 341–356.
6. Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13(3), 209-223.
7. Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W.B. (2003b). Dual processes at work in a call centre: An application of the job demands – resources model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 12(4), 393–417.
8. Bakker, A.B., Hakanen, J.J., Demerouti, E., Xanthopoulou, D. (2007). Job resources boost work engagement, particularly when job demands are high. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(2), 274–284.

9. Bakker, A. B., W. B. Schaufeli. (2008<sub>a</sub>). Positive organizational behavior: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 147-154.
10. Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B., Leiter, M.P., Taris, T.W. (2008<sub>b</sub>). Work engagement: An emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 187-200.
11. Baron, R.M., Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
12. Boonsathorn, W. (2007). Understanding conflict management styles of Thais and Americans in multinational corporations in Thailand. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 18(3), 196-221.
13. Bozaykut, T., Gürbüz, F.G. (2009). The effect of perceived power of supervisor on trust in supervisor: An application in not-for-profit health care institutions. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Management and Organization Master Thesis.
14. Burke, R.J., Singh, P., Fiksenbaum, L. (2010). Work intensity: potential antecedents and consequences. *Personnel Review*, 39(3), 347-360.
15. Caligiuri, P.M., Tung, R.L. (1999). Comparing the success of male and female expatriates from a US-based multinational company. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(5), 763-782.
16. Carayon, P., Zijlstra, F. (1999). Relationship between job control, work pressure and strain: studies in the USA and in The Netherlands. *Work & Stress*, 13(1), 32- 48.
17. Chughtai, A.A., Buckley, F. (2009). Linking trust in the principal to school outcomes: The mediating role of organizational identification and work engagement. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 23(7), 574-589.

18. Costigan, R. D., Ilter, S. S., Berman, J. J. (1998). A multi-dimensional study of trust in organizations. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 10, 303–317.
19. Costigan, R.D., Insinga, R.C., Berman, J.J., Ilter, S.S., Kranas, G.,Kureshov, V.A. (2006). The effect of employee trust of the supervisor on enterprising behavior: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 21(2), 273-291.
20. Çeri-Booms, S.M., Yahyagil, M. (2009). An empirical study on transactional, transformational and authentic leaders: Exploring the mediating role of “Trust in leader” on organizational identification. Yeditepe University Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
21. Daft, R. (2006). *New Era of Management*, USA: South-Western Press.
22. Dalay, G., Torun, A. (2007). The relationship between the variables of organizational trust, job engagement, organizational commitment and job involvement. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Master Thesis.
23. De los Salmenes, M. M. G., A. H. Crespo, I. R. del Bosque. (2005). Influence of corporate social responsibility on loyalty and valuation of services. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 61(4), 369–385.
24. Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Nachreiner, F., Schaufeli, W.B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 499-512.
25. Dikkers, J.S.E, Geurts, S.A.E., Kompier, M.A.J., Taris, T.W., Houtman, I.L.D., Van den Heuvel,F. (2007). Does workload cause work-home interference or is it the other way around?. *Stress and Health*, 23, 303–314.

26. Erim, F.N.A., Artan, İ.E. (2009). Individual response to organizational change: Creating facade of conformity its antecedents and effects on participating in decision making, work engagement, job involvement and intent to quit. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
27. Ertürk, A. (2007). Increasing organizational citizenship behaviors of Turkish academicians: Mediating role of trust in supervisor on the relationship between organizational justice and citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 257-270.
28. Ganesan, S., Hess, R. (1997). Dimensions and levels of trust: Implications for commitment to a relationship. *Marketing Letters*, 8(4), 439–448.
29. Gilbert, J., Tang, T. (1998). An examination of organizational trust antecedents. *Public Personnel Management*, 27, 321-338.
30. Glasø, L., Vie, T.L., Holmdal, G.R., Einarsen, S. (2011). An application of affective events theory to workplace bullying. *European Psychologist*, 16(3), 198–208.
31. Güneşer, A.B., Artan, İ.E. (2007). The effect of person-organization fit on organizational commitment and work engagement: The role of person-supervisor fit. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
32. Güzel, Ö., Özarallı, N. (2009). The relationship between social power bases and organizational commitment: The moderating effect of trust in organization. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Philosophy of Master Thesis.

33. Halbesleben, J.R.B., Wheeler, A.R. (2008). The relative roles of engagement and embeddedness in predicting job performance and intention to leave. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 242-256.
34. Hallberg, U.E., Johansson, G., Schaufeli, W.B. (2007). Type A behavior and work situation: Associations with burnout and work engagement. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 48, 135-142.
35. Hausser, J.A., Mojzisch, A., Niesel, M., Schulz-Hardt, S. (2010). Ten years on: A review of recent research on the Job Demand-Control (Support) model and psychological well-being. *Work & Stress*, 24(1), 1-35.
36. Hopkins, S.M., Weatington, B.L. (2006). The relationships between justice perceptions, trust, and employee attitudes in a downsized organization. *The Journal of Psychology*, 140(5), 477-498.
37. İslamoğlu, G., Birsnel, M., Börü, D. (2007). *Kurum içinde güven*. İnkılap Kitapevi, İstanbul.
38. Joseph, E. E., Winston, B. E. (2005). A Correlation of servant leadership, leader trust, and organizational trust. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26(1), 6-22.
39. Karasek, R., Brisson, Q., Kawakami, N., Houtman, I., Bongers, P., Amick, B. (1998). The job content questionnaire (JCQ): An instrument for internationally comparative assessments of psychosocial job characteristics. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3(4), 322-355.
40. Kiffin-Peterson, S.A., Cordery, J.L. (2003). Trust, individualism and job characteristics as predictors of employee preference for teamwork. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 93-116.

41. Kim, H.J., Shin, K.H., Swanger, N. (2009). Burnout and engagement: A comparative analysis using the Big Five personality dimensions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 96–104.
42. Koyuncu, M., Burke, R.J., Fiksenbaum, L. (2006). Work engagement among women managers and professionals in a Turkish bank: Potential antecedents and consequences. *Equal Opportunities International*, 25(4), 299-310.
43. Kuşculuoğlu, S., Bozkurt, T. (2008). The roles of organizational justice, trustworthiness, trust and propensity of trust in the relationship of LMX with OCB and job satisfaction. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
44. Kramer, R.M. (1999). Trust and distrust in organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual Reviews Psychology*, 50, 569-598.
45. Lahno, B. (2001). On the emotional character of trust. *Ethical Theory and Moral Practice*, 4, 171 -189.
46. Langelaan, S. (2007). Burnout and work engagement: Exploring individual and psychophysiological differences. Utrecht University, Department of Social and Organizational Psychology, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
47. Langelaan, S., Bakker, A.B., van Doornen, L.J.P., Schaufeli, W.B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement: Do individual differences make a difference?. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40, 521–532.
48. Lapidot, Y., Kark, R., Shamir, B. (2007). The impact of situational vulnerability on the development and erosion of followers' trust in their leader. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 16-34.
49. Lin, Chieh-Peng. (2010). Modeling corporate citizenship, organizational trust, and work engagement based on attachment theory. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 94, 517–531.

50. Macey, W.H., Schneider, B. (2008). The Meaning of Employee Engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1*, 3–30.
51. Mayer, R. C., Davis, J.H., Schoorman, F.D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3), 709-734.
52. Macdonald, W. (2003). The Impact of Job Demands and Workload on Stress and Fatigue. *Australian Psychologist, 38*(2), 102-117.
53. McAllister, D.J., Lewicki, R.J., Chaturvedi, S. (2006). Trust in developing relationships: From theory to measurement. *Academy of Management Best Conference Paper*.
54. Medlin, B., Green Jr. W.R. (2009). Enhancing performance through goal setting, engagement, and optimism. *Industrial Management & Data Systems, 109*(7), 943-956.
55. Melikoğlu, M., İslamoğlu, G. (2009). The distinctive role of prestige, communication and trust: Organizational identification versus affective commitment. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Master Thesis.
56. Metin, Ü.B. (2010). The antecedents and consequences of burnout, work engagement and workaholism. Middle East Technical University, The Graduate School of Social Sciences, Department of Industrial and Organizational Psychology Master Thesis.
57. Mishra, A. K. (1996). Organizational response to crisis: the centrality of trust. In R. M. Kramer, T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 261 – 287), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
58. Moore, J. E. (2000). One road to turnover: An examination of work exhaustion in technology professionals. *MIS Quarterly, 24*(1), 141-168.

59. Morgan, D.E., Zeffane, E. (2003). Employee involvement, organizational change and trust in management. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 55-75.
60. Ng, K.Y., Chua, R.Y.J. (2006). Do I contribute more when I trust more? Differential effects of cognition- and affect-based trust. *Management and Organization Review*, 2(1), 43–66.
61. Pirson, M. (2007). Facing the trust gap: Measuring and building trust in organizations. University of St. Gallen, Graduate School of Business Administration, Economics, Law and Social Sciences, Business Administration Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
62. Öner, Z.H., Bozkurt, T. (2008). The mediating effect of organizational justice: Moderating roles of sense of coherence and job complexity on the relationship between servant leadership and work engagement. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Organizational Behavior Department, Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
63. Paul D.L, McDaniel, RRL. (2004). Effect of interpersonal trust on VCR Performance. *MIS Quarterly*, 28(2), 183-227.
64. Pearson, A., O'Brien Pallas, L., Thomson, D., Doucette, E., Tucker, D., Wiechula, R., Long, L., Porritt, K., Jordan, Z. (2006). Systematic review of evidence on the impact of nursing workload and staffing on establishing healthy work environments. *International Journal of Evidence Based Health*, 4, 337–384.
65. Peeters, M.C.W., Montgomery, A.J., Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B. (2005). Balancing Work and Home: How Job and Home Demands Are Related to Burnout. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 12(1), 43–61.
66. Perry, R.W., Mankin, L.D. (2007). Organizational trust, trust in chief executive and work satisfaction. *Public Personnel Management*, 36 (2), 165-179.

67. Rice, J.K. (2009). The role of tenure as a moderator to work engagement and job satisfaction. San José State University, The Department of Psychology, Master Thesis.
68. Ridings C.M., Gefen, D., Arinze, B. (2002). Some antecedents and effects of trust in virtual communities. *Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 11, 271–295.
69. Roberts, D.R., O’Davenport, T. (2002). Job engagement: Why it’s important and how to improve it. *Employment Relations Today*, 29(3), 21-29.
70. Robinson, D., Perryman, S., Hayday, S. (2004). *The drivers of employee engagement, Institute of Employment Studies, Report 405.*
71. Rothmann, S., Joubert, J.H.M. (2007). Job demands, job resources, burnout and work engagement of managers at a platinum mine in the North West Province. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 38(3), 49-61.
72. Saks, A.M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600-619.
73. Saunders M.N.K., Thornhill, A. (2004). Trust and mistrust in organizations: An exploration using an organizational justice framework. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 13(4), 493–515.
74. Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B. (2003). UWES-Utrecht work engagement scale: test manual. Unpublished manuscript. Department of Psychology, Utrecht University (<http://www.schaufeli.com>).
75. Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: a multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 293–315.

76. Shirom, A., Nirel, N., Vinokur, A.D. (2010). Work hours and caseload as predictors of physician burnout: The mediating effects by perceived workload and by autonomy. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 59(4), 539–565.
77. Simpson, M.R. (2009). Engagement at work: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 46, 1012–1024.
78. Spector, M.D., Jones, G.E. (2004). Trust in the workplace: Factors affecting trust formation between team members. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 144(3), 311–321.
79. Tan, H.H., Lim, A.K.G. (2009). Trust in Coworkers and Trust in Organizations. *The Journal of Psychology*, 143(1), 45–66.
80. Tan, H. H., Tan, C.S.F. (2000). Toward the differentiation of trust in supervisor and trust in organization. *Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs* 126(2), 241–260.
81. Tuna, B., Ötken, A.B. (2009). Understanding the relationship between transformational, transactional leadership and affective commitment, work engagement. Yeditepe University, Graduate Institute of Social Sciences, Business Administration Master Thesis.
82. Wasti, S. A., Tan, H. H., Brower, H. H., Önder, Ç. (2007). Cross-cultural measurement of supervisor trustworthiness: An assessment of measurement invariance across three cultures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 477–489.
83. Wegge, J., van Dick, R., Fisher, G.K., West, M.A., Dawson, J.F. (2006). A test of basic assumptions of affective events theory (AET) in call centre work. *British Journal of Management*, 17, 237–254.

84. Wilson, E.V., Sheetz, S.D. (2010). A demands-resources model of work pressure in IT student task groups. *Computers & Education*, 55, 415–426.
85. Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W.B. (2007<sub>a</sub>). The role of personal resources in the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(2), 121–141.
86. Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A.B., Dollard, M.F., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W.B., Taris, T.W., Schreurs, P.J.G. (2007<sub>b</sub>). When do job demands particularly predict burnout?-The moderating role of job resources. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(8), 766-786.
87. Yperen, N.W.V., Hagedoorn, M. (2003). Do high job demands increase intrinsic motivation or fatigue or both?-The role of job control and job social support. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(3), 339–348.
88. Yaldiran, M., Yener, M. (2010). The effect of ethical climate on work engagement. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Management and Organization Department, Master Thesis.

## APPENDIX-I : The Questionnaire

### KURUM İÇİNDE GÜVEN VE İŞ BASKISININ İŞE ADANMIŞLIK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Bölümü - Yönetim ve Organizasyon Bilim Dalı'nda yazılmakta olan bir yüksek lisans tezi için akademik amaçlı olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anketi doldururken isminizi ve çalıştığınız kurumun ismini yazmanız istenmemektedir. Soruları içtenlikle ve eksiksiz olarak cevaplamanızı rica eder, değerli katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum		Pek Katılmıyorum		Biraz Katılmıyorum		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<b>Çalıştığım kurum...</b>								
1.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
2.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
3.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
4.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
5.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
6.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
7.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
8.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
9.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
10.	1	2	3	4	5	6		

Aşağıda bulunan; çalıştığınız kurum, birinci dereceden bağlı olduğunuz amiriniz ve iş arkadaşlarınızla ilgili ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyup her biri için "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" ile "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" arasında değişen seçeneklerden sadece birini işaretleyiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum		Pek Katılmıyorum		Biraz Katılmıyorum		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	
	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	
<i>Amirim...</i>								
11. Çalışanlarımı destekleyicidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
12. Dürüst ve adildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
13. Tam bir takım lideridir.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
14. Olumlu bir çalışma ortamı yaratır.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
15. Kendine güvenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
16. Gerginlik yaratmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
17. Bilgisini paylaşır.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
18. Güven veren bir yaklaşıma sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
19. İşinde yetkin biridir.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
20. Astuna yetki verir ve astını önemser.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
<i>Çalışma arkadaşlarım...</i>								
21. Başarıyı bilgi ve çabaları ile yakalamak isterler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
22. Kendilerini geliştirirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
23. Dürüst ve açıktırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
24. Sevecendirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
25. İşyerindeki kuralları istismar etmezler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
26. Hoşgörülüdürler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
27. Sorumluluk sahibidirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
28. Uyumludurlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
29. Politik (içten pazarlıklı) davranışlar sergilemezler.	1	2	3	4	5	6		

Aşğıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyup her biri için "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" ile "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" arasında deęişen seçeneklerden sadece birini seçiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
30. Her sabah uyandığım zaman işe gitmek için can atarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. İşimi yaparken enerji dolu olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Her şey yolunda gitmese bile işimde daima sebat ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Çok uzun saatler çalışabiliirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
İşimde hoş olmayan bir durumla karşılaşsam bile zihnimi çabucak toplayıp işime devam ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. İşimde kendimi güçlü ve dinç hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. İşim yeteneklerimi sınılamama olanak verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. İşim bana ilham verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. İşimi yapmak için çok hevesliyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. Yaptığım işle gurur duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Yaptığım işin anlamı olduğunu ve bir amaca hizmet ettiğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. Çalıştığım zaman çevremdeki her şeyi unutturırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. Çalışırken zamanın nasıl geçtiğini anlamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Çalıştığım zaman yaptığım işe kapılıp giderim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. İşimden kopmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Çalışırken işime dalıp giderim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Yoğun çalıştığım zamanlarda kendimi mutlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizin için ne sıklıkta geçerli olduğunu "Hiçbir zaman" ile "Her zaman" arasındaki seçeneklerden birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz.						
	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
47. İşte uğraştığım problem, talep ya da şikâyet sayısının, beklemediğimden fazla olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. İş miktarının, yapmış olduğum işlerin daha iyi olmasını engellediğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. Kendimi meşgul ya da bir koşuşturma içerisinde hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. Kendimi baskı altında hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

51. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın  Erkek

52. Yaşınız: 20-29  30-39  40-49  50-59  60 ve üstü

53. Eğitim Durumunuz: İlköğretim  Lise  Ön lisans  Lisans  Yüksek Lisans  Doktora ve üzeri

54. Ne kadar sürelik bir iş hayatınız var? 1 Yıldan az  1-5 Yıl  6-10 Yıl  11-15 Yıl  16-20 Yıl  20 Yıldan Fazla

55. Şu an çalıştığımız şirkette ne kadar zamandır çalışmaktasınız?

1 Yıldan az  1-5 Yıl  6-10 Yıl  11-15 Yıl  16-20 Yıl  20 Yıldan Fazla

56. Şu anki yöneticinizle kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız? 1 Yıldan az  1-5 Yıl  6-10 Yıl  11-15 Yıl  16-20 Yıl  20 Yıldan Fazla

57. Şu anki yöneticinizin cinsiyeti: : Kadın  Erkek

58. Çalıştığımız şirkette görev yaptığımız pozisyon: Alt kademe  Orta kademe  Üst kademe

59. Çalıştığımız kurum bir Türk şirketi mi yoksa çok uluslu bir şirket mi? Türk  Çok uluslu

## APPENDIX-II : The Questionnaire Items in English

### 1. ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST (İslamoğlu, Birsel and Börü's Trust Scale, 2007)

#### *Trust in Organization:*

*My company...*

1. Is honest and fair.
2. Has positive image in society.
3. Has peaceful and fair work environment.
4. Puts importance on recruitment and orientation.
5. Creates commitment among its employees.
6. Has financial strength.
7. Respects its employees.
8. Conducts performance appraisal in objective way.
9. Pays attention to the needs of its employees.
10. Provides long term employment.

#### *Trust in Supervisor:*

*My supervisor...*

11. Supports employees.
12. Is honest and fair.
13. Is such a team leader.
14. Creates a positive work environment.
15. Has self-confidence.
16. Does not create the tension.
17. Shares his/her knowledge.
18. Has a trustworthy approach.
19. Is competent at his/her work.
20. Empowers his/her subordinates and pays attention to them.

**Trust in Co-workers:**

*My co-workers...*

21. Want to be successful with their knowledge and effort.
22. Develop themselves.
23. Are honest and clear.
24. Are compassionate.
25. Do not take advantage of the company rules.
26. Are tolerant people.
27. Are responsible people.
28. Are positive.
29. Are not sneaky.

**2. WORK ENGAGEMENT (Schaufeli, Salanova, González- Romá and Bakker's Engagement Scale, 2002)**

1. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
2. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
3. At my job I feel strong and vigorous.
4. To me, my job is challenging.
5. My job inspires me.
6. I am enthusiastic about my job.
7. I am proud on the work that I do.
8. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
10. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.
11. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
12. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.
13. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.
14. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.
15. Time flies when I am working.
16. I get carried away when I am working.
17. I am immersed in my work.

### **3. WORK PRESSURE SCALE (Moore's Perceived Work Overload Scale, 2000)**

1. I feel that the number of requests, problems, or complaints I deal with is more than expected.
2. I feel that the amount of work I do interferes with how well it is done.
3. I feel busy or rushed.
4. I feel pressured.