

TRUST IN PEERS, SUPERVISOR, AND TOP MANAGEMENT:

A TWO COUNTRY STUDY

A Dissertation

by

AZIZ BAKAY

Submitted to Texas A&M International University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2012

Major Subject: International Business Administration

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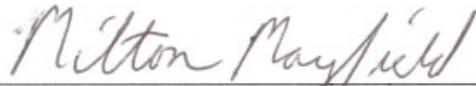
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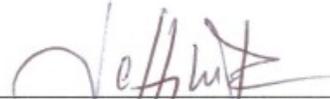
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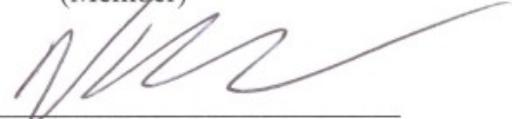
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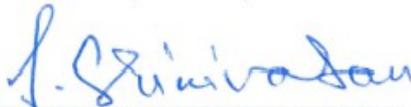
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ABSTRACT

Trust in Peers, Supervisor, and Top Management: A Two Country Study (August 2012)

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The current research examined the three trust referents with respect to workplace outcomes in two countries. The trust objects and their unique power in explaining workplace behavior and attitude have been examined in a meta-analysis (Dirk & Ferrin, 2002). The present study employed an approach of distinguishing three trust objects; namely trust in peers, trust in supervisor, and trust in top management. Moreover, this research empirically studied the explanatory power of these trust referents on the behavioral and workplace outcomes: Affective commitment, intention to turnover, job performance and job satisfaction. The contribution of this research lies in the fact that aforementioned relationships were investigated in two countries: Turkey and the United States. Using two samples from two countries permits a better understanding of the trust phenomenon as well as its relative importance with the global workplace attitudes. In this study, extra emphasis on capturing the contextual effects on the relationships between variables was given due to the importance of the social psychological environment of the organizational behavior (Johns, 2006). Findings suggested that in two samples, affective commitment was positively associated with trust in peers and trust in top management. Intention to turnover did not

associate with any of the trust variables implying the distinction between social exchange and economic exchange. In the US sample, job satisfaction was promoted by the trust in supervisor only. Trust in peers in the US sample, implying team effect, undermined job performance whereas trust in top management in the Turkey sample, suggesting the role of uncertainty avoidance factor, reduced the job performance. Findings and implications are discussed.

DEDICATION

Değerli eşim Rukiye'ye..

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1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. Background

“Where people are trusting and trustworthy, and where they are subject to repeated interactions with fellow citizens, everyday business and social transactions are less costly” (Putnam, 1993, p. 288).

We are surrounded by the presence of highly interdependent social and business life. We engage into social interactions and economic transactions with people and entities. In organizational settings, there is internal uncertainty that is characterized by the interdependence of components of the complex organization (Thompson, 1967). The prevalence of uncertainty and complexity in the workplace requires healthy interpersonal relationships (Luhmann, 1979). With the increasingly diverse workplace environment, individuals have goals and aims that require interactive behavior with other organizational members including cooperation, reliance and dependence (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Trust has been considered to be an essential precondition of stable social relations (Blau, 1964). It is argued that the achievement of organizational goals is predicated on the trust with respect to the interdependency among the organizational members (McAllister, 1995). Interpersonal trust as an integral and prime element of organizational behavior allows employees to engage efficiently resulting in individual and organizational effectiveness. Managerial practices in mutual exchanges as interdependence of organizational components can be managed and channeled to efficient outcomes if there is confidence and trust in interpersonal relations. Therefore, due to the importance of extensive mutual accommodation and exchange among personnel in today’s organizations, it is essential to

explore trust, trustworthiness, reliance, and confidence issues in a workplace with respect to organizational and individual outcomes.

In different fields of studies, trust researchers utilized a variety of conceptualizations of trust (Nooteboom & Six, 2003). These include Howorth & Moro (2005) who researched the Italian small and medium enterprises, and how the decisions were made with regards to the entrepreneurs' trustworthiness. From a financial perspective, their research explored the function of trust in reducing agency costs. Morgan & Hunt (1994) created a conceptual framework for relationship marketing that incorporates relationship commitment and trust as key constructs to understand the phenomenon. Egger (2003) theorized what makes consumers trust in e-commerce websites and he developed a methodological framework to enable researchers and web masters to utilize trust forming factors in designing e-commerce websites. In the same vein, Gefen, Karahanna & Straub (2003) empirically supported the fact that the trust of online shoppers on websites explained as much variance as the variables of technology acceptance model explained in intended behavior of consumers. Affective and cognitive components of trust were detailed and their association with behavioral outcomes were investigated (McAllister, 1995). Rotter (1967), who predicated trust in the theory of expectancies from a psychological point of view, developed a scale for measuring interpersonal trust. Cummings & Bromiley (1996) enabling researchers to operationalize trust construct within and between organizations built an inventory to assess the trust within organization theory. Aforementioned research symbolizes the vast embracement of trust concept in various fields of business, management and psychology.

Theorists integrated trust concept in their research, validated its basic importance and application in their respective fields of study. In the present study, the vantage point towards

trust is presented as a normative point of view that accommodates and assumes the vitality of trust in interpersonal relations in organizations.

1.2. Conceptual Underpinnings of the Study

The relationships between trust and job outcome variables are the basic premise of the current study. The research that is relevant to the underlying concepts is drawn from a variety of disciplines. This study draws from the literature on management, organizational behavior, sociology, psychology and social psychology. The trust literature in management research (Mayer et al., 1995) benefits from the discussions of Luhmann (1988) and Barber (1983). These thinkers addressed trust concept from a more general point of view and their writings posed trust in a social context. Luhmann's (1979) discussions of trust consider trust as a tool for dealing with the uncertainty and complexity that surrounds people in everyday life. He argued that it is basically a heuristic that allows individuals to sustain life, and he affirms the necessity of trust in the social order. Barber's writings explicate the link between the expectations about the trusted party and the trustor. The nature of the relationship between culture and trust, the extent to which a trusted party is technically competent and the expectations of trustor are among the issues on which Barber (1983) predicated his discussions. Putnam (1993) also argued that with the existence of trust, transaction costs are lowered and professionals function efficiently in workplaces.

Along with the aforementioned sociological and social psychological viewpoints, the current research benefited from the discussions of trust as a psychological state that is determined throughout the childhood period of an individual. Therefore, it is considered to be a crucial element of the personality that is consistent across situations and has a stable nature.

Writings of Deutsch (1958) and Rotter (1967, 1971) contributed to the understanding of the dispositional trust that could also be linked to a general faith in others (Rosenberg, 1956). According to the literature in this research stream, the trait-like characteristics in a certain individual may explain some of the trust phenomenon. Therefore, the assumption employed in the current study is that the trust in certain or any object (i.e., colleagues, friends, and organization) is partly determined by the dispositional trust or propensity to trust that has evolved and developed over time mostly in the childhood period of the individual.

Numerous research studies explored the links between trust and a variety of organizational variables. These include the relationships between intra-organizational trust and participation (Brown, 2011); interpersonal trust and cooperation (Smith, 2010); organizational trust, intention to quit, organizational satisfaction, and organizational performance (Glissmeyer, 2010); trust in management and affective commitment to change (Kalyal & Sverke, 2010); organizational trust and empowerment (Vineburgh, 2010); organizational trust and support for innovation (Lee, 2009); trust in plant manager/top management team and individual performance, organizational citizenship behavior (Mayer & Gavin, 2005); trust in general manager, turnover and organizational performance (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer & Tan, 2000); trust in top management and performance appraisal systems (Mayer & Davis, 1999); trust in immediate supervisor/top management and satisfaction, organizational effectiveness, information sharing (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001); affective/cognitive based trust and citizenship behavior, manager/peer performance (McAllister, 1995).

The present study focuses on the relationships between the four workplace outcomes –affective commitment, intention to turnover, job performance, and job satisfaction- and the

actual level of trust in peers, supervisor and top management. Do these relationships exist and if yes, do they help understand the function of trust? Besides, do these relationships show similarities across two samples from two different countries? Attempting to answer these questions, the social psychological aspect of the workplace context was taken into consideration. Organizational and job characteristics are included to reveal the emphasis of workplace environment and work design. As such, current research addresses the impact of type of the organization (non-profit vs. for-profit), number of people working in the organization; and the job autonomy and role ambiguity as various aspects of work design. By separating the influences of these variables, pure impact of trust on global workplace outcomes is investigated. In addition to the primary outcome variables of job satisfaction and job performance; an important problem with today's organizations –turnover- is examined with respect to interpersonal trust (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008). Discontinuance of work is associated with a variety of costs from recruiting and training of new employees, to stalled customer relationships, decreased employee satisfaction and productivity (Davis et al., 2000). Besides, the affective commitment of the employees is a critical factor included in the present research because the loyalty of the employees and the extra effort employees willing to put constitute the premise of the overall effectiveness of the organization (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

1.3. Purpose of the Study

It is important to note that current study explores the relationships between the actual trust of a professional in three different objects and four workplace outcomes. These trust objects are individual's (1) peers, (2) supervisor and (3) the top management. Based on the

discussions of Deutsch (1958) and Rotter (1971), the actual trust of an individual towards any object is therefore a priori function of the individual's predisposition. In other words, individual's trust in certain objects is predetermined by the personality and dispositional aspects of their character. Current study utilizes the *propensity to trust* construct in order to involve the dispositional dimension. The theoretical model includes four job outcome variables: affective commitment, intention to turnover, job performance, and job satisfaction. To what extent these job outcome variables could be explained by three trust variables are of central to the current study (Figure 1).

In the literature, there is adequate coverage on the organizational trust, as well as links between trust and satisfaction, and performance. However, there is limited research that covered the simultaneous inclusion of trust variables directed towards multiple objects: Peers, supervisor and top management. This study would fill this aforementioned gap in the literature by considering the contextual factors such as organizational and job characteristics as well as elaborating on the psychological contracts between employee and the organization.

The simultaneous inclusion of three trust variables brings rigor to the theoretical model in the sense that the trust variables capture the majority of the organizational members as objects of trust. Therefore, their individual impact on each of the outcome variables can be observed. In the literature, one can find research studies that explored the various relationships of interpersonal trust.

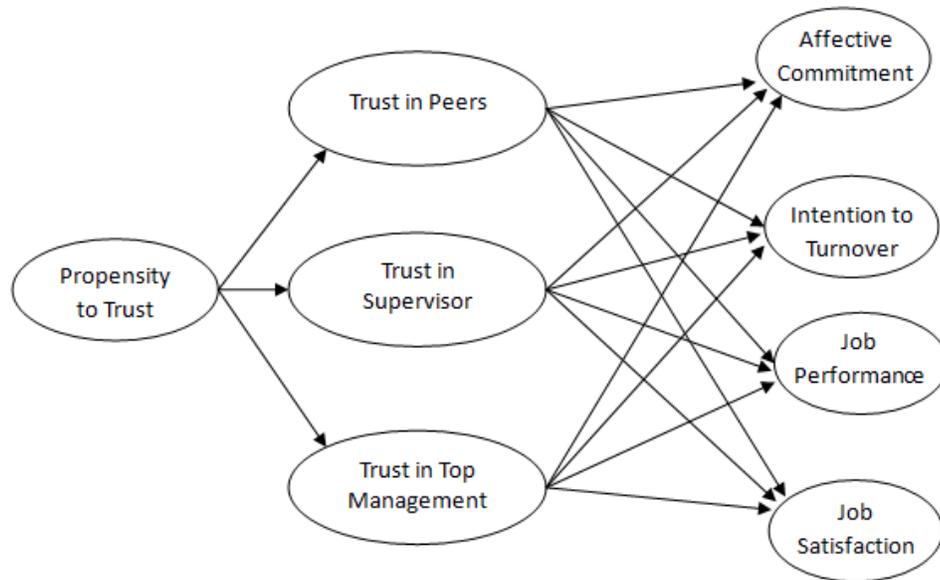


Figure 1. Theoretical Model of Trust, Propensity to Trust and Related Outcome Variables.

In the present study, the surveys were not limited to a single or a few organizations but the each sample included a number of different organizations in a variety of industries. Role ambiguity, job autonomy, income, educational attainment, and demographic variables were taken into consideration in the analysis to capture the relevant influence of these contextual factors. In addition, Hofstede (2001)'s four cultural dimensions' items were included in the data collection process. Therefore, it allowed for manipulation check of the two samples showing on which dimensions samples differ. Two samples were shown to have distinct characteristics and samples are representative of their nations.

1.4. Research Questions

Considering job satisfaction, job performance, affective commitment and intention to turnover as behavioral and job outcomes; current research addressed the following research questions:

- 1- Does propensity to trust relate to the actual trust levels on three objects?

- 2- Does trust in peers associate with the level of behavioral and job outcomes?
- 3- Does trust in supervisor associate with the level of behavioral and job outcomes?
- 4- Does trust in top management associate with the level of behavioral and job outcomes?
- 5- What kind of contextual factors explain the variance in outcome variables?
- 6- How does demographic information relate to the workplace outcomes?
- 7- How do cultural values and norms play a role in affecting the relationships between trust variables and outcome variables?

1.5. Definitions of Key Terms

Trust in peers/supervisor/top management is defined as the “willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712).

Propensity to trust is defined as the “general willingness to trust others” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 715).

Affective commitment refers to “the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 67).

Psychological contract is defined as “the individual beliefs in a reciprocal obligation between the individual and the organization” (Rousseau, 1989, p. 121).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Phenomenon of Trust

Attempting to create a typology of trust, McKnight and Chervany (1996) reviewed the literature on trust and drew distinctions among many definitions of the concept. Similarly, Worchel (1979) clustered the trust research into four streams: (1) investigating the variety in personalities with respect to readiness to/dispositional trust, (2) examining the perspective of personality development and factors related to this development, (3) exploring conditions that constitute the premise of the interpersonal trust, (4) analyzing the situational cues that bound the trust relation. Benefiting from those classifications, the current research discusses trust on three axes: Dispositional trust, impersonal/structural trust and interpersonal trust.

Dispositional Trust

This view is of development psychologists including Erikson (1953, 1963, 1968), and Deutsch (1958) who understood trust as a part of an individual's personality and it is rooted throughout the childhood of a person. Across individuals, it is observable that there are different levels of trust developed towards a particular person or a party. Other than varying perceptions of trustworthiness of a particular party, there is intrinsically configured part of the actual trust towards objects in a generalized fashion. Identification and description of this perspective includes the variation of generalized trust that is not posed towards any specific individual or a party, but it elaborates on the trust in a general context (Dasgupta, 1988;

Morrone, Tontoranelli & Ranuzzi, 2009). Some research studied the dispositional aspects related to the trustor, and their characteristics (Rotter, 1967; Conlon & Mayer, 1994).

In Erikson's (1968) study, he defined trust as "a sense of basic trust, which is a pervasive attitude toward oneself and the world" (p. 96). Dispositional trust view directly focuses on the attributes, characteristics and traits of a certain individual that develop trust without explicitly referring to the trusted party (McKnight & Chervany, 1996). The dispositional factors, trait-like characteristics of individuals and social contextual factors play a role in the development of the *dispositional* trust or *readiness* to trust. These dispositional factors delve into the psychological domain of trust implying that it is a central element in the integral personality of the individual (Erikson, 1953). Therefore, trust is evaluated as an ingredient that is necessary to the establishment of a healthy personality.

Students of personality theory researched the differences in personalities in regards to the trust behavior. The vantage point of the personality theory is that experiencing trustful relationships is simply the norm of the exchange and reciprocity. Moreover, from a normative view trust is concerned as "good" whilst the distrust is considered as "bad", a psychological problem and disorder that are to be tackled (Erikson, 1963). However, the trust levels appeared to be only remotely connected to the personality research. Worchel (1979) reported that "to date, prediction of individual differences in trust behavior from personality tests have been disappointing" (p. 186). MacDonald, Kessel and Fuller (1970) reported that willingness for self-disclosure is not connected to the trust scores of the respondents. A number of research studies using prisoner's dilemma games provided empirical evidence that US college students are competitive, exploitative and scored less on trust, however these findings did not associate with any personality tests (Worchel, 1979). Therefore, one can

argue that the influence of the context and situational cues override the influence of different personality in experimental studies. On the other hand, in highly structured experiments with strict controls, one might observe that influence of the personality is more visible. At this junction, with recognizing the importance and validity of the personality theories, such as big five personality (Goldberg, 1990; Costa & McCrae, 1992), the fact that trust behavior can be explained in conjunction with the differences in personality is still disputable (Worchel, 1979).

Generalized Trust in Cross-Cultural Surveys

Referring to the dispositional trust, a number of cross-national studies attempted to capture the level of generalized trust. World Value Survey (WVS) depends on a single question in order to measure trust across cultures. Developed by Rosenberg (1956), this particular question reads: “Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?” Analyzing the answers (1- most people can be trusted; 2- can’t be too careful; 3- don’t know) for this question, WVS provides a cross-national dataset that enables researchers to assess the correlations of generalized trust with relevant macro-level variables (Morrone et al., 2009). By the same token, General Social Survey includes two and European Social Survey includes three items tapping on the generalized trust that were measured in the US and European countries respectively (See Reeskens and Hooghe (2008) for a good discussion of measurement equivalence of generalized trust in comparative research).

Relationship among Trust Constructs

McKnight and Chervany (1996) have depicted a number of trust constructs and the hypothesized relationships among them (Figure 2). It could be argued that the existence of dispositional trust in the process of observing trust behavior takes the initial stage as well as

four other constructs: (1) system trust, which is detailed in subsequent section of impersonal trust, (2) situational decision to trust, that is elaborated in the section of importance of context, and (3) belief formation leading to (4) trusting beliefs which is slightly addressed in section of the cultural variation across samples. Figure 2 provides a framework to understand the trust development process. Departing from the relationship model of trust constructs below, that involve direct and mediated relationships, the present study positions the dispositional aspect of the trust as a preceding factor to the actual trust.

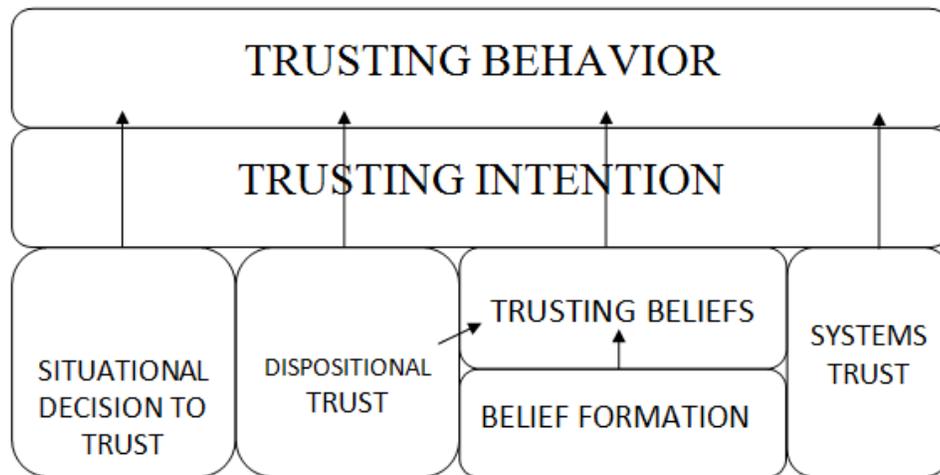


Figure 2. Relationships among Trust Constructs. Adopted from McKnight and Chervany (1996)

The current study utilized the dispositional aspect of trust in the theoretical model. Including the prior trait-like aspects of trust and translating these aspects into one construct creates the propensity to trust. The propensity to trust in other words means the “general willingness to trust others” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 715). Because propensity to trust is individual specific, it does not alter with changing situations. Thus, it stays stable within a certain individual across different contextual states, and it exists prior to any type of interaction of trustor and trustee. Hence, it is a more generalized level of trust that may vary

across individuals however assumed constant towards different parties within an individual. Therefore, this construct may be considered as a determinant of trust before any information about trustee is acquired, and processed by trustor. Mayer et al. (1995) have proposed a conceptual model of trust that is determined by the factors of trustworthiness (trusted party) as well as a dispositional factor (trustor). Employing Mayer et al. (1995)'s theoretical model of organizational trust, a large number of research conducted empirical analysis testing and validating the association between the dispositional aspect that determines the trust (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis, 2007). Colquitt, Scott, and Lepine (2007)'s meta-analysis found that the propensity to trust theorized as the antecedent of the actual trust significantly correlated with the trust as well as the outcome variables including risk taking behavior, job performance, citizenship behavior, and counter-productive behavior. Based on the arguments above; the propensity to trust will predominantly determine the level of trust in any referent. Therefore;

P₁: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-.

P_{1a}: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust in peers.

P_{1b}: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust in supervisor.

P_{1c}: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust in top management.

Impersonal Trust

Structural Trust

Structural trust involves the factors related to the position, role and institution that form trust rather than personal characteristics and individual attributes (Kramer, 1999). Trust

itself is not positioned within the frontiers of one's personality but it is part of situational and organizational characteristics. Barber (1983) explicates the *role-based* trust which is construed by the existing system and the position of an individual in an institution. Therefore, trust that other people develop towards this particular person may be largely due to the expertise, the fulfillment of obligations that the role or position connotes. The expectations of the others in regards to this particular individual indeed form trust. The trust formation occurs with the signals emitted by the occupancy of the role, even though there may be no relevant knowledge or shared history or interaction with respect to this certain individual (Kramer, 1999; Johansen, 2007). Kramer pinpoints the *role-based* trust as "it is not the person in the role that is trusted so much as the system of expertise that produces and maintains role-appropriate behavior of role occupants" (1999: 578). In a similar fashion, *rule-based* trust connotes the expertise and the procedural profession that the organization has established by its rules, and regulations. Rules in both formal and informal forms shape the behavioral interaction and mutual trust among the individuals in organizations. Therefore, the appropriate behavior is predicated on the system of expertise in a depersonalized manner (Kramer, 1999). This type of trust was exemplified in a technology corporation in which engineers are allowed to use the office equipment freely as well as they are allowed to take them home for personal use (Miller, 1992). Because the rules are honored and personnel trust each other on bringing the equipment back, the organization recognizes the open lab stock policy and the importance of trust. Fine and Holyfield (1996) investigated how mutual trust is formed by the tacit understanding and formal rules in a society of leisure activity. This society consists of amateur mushroom aficionados who participate voluntarily, collecting mushrooms. Because the risk of eating a "bad" mushroom could be tremendous due to

possibility of illness and even death, credibility among the members is very crucial. Therefore, members of the society are attentive to secure the trust among them by strictly embracing to the rules of the organization.

Sociologists' Point of View

Sociologists have often utilized the trust phenomenon in a relationship with social life in general, institutions, and relationship among them (Luhmann, 1988). Having a general context without specifying the object in detail would allow predicating trust as a generic part and lubricant of social life, essential tool facilitating interaction. Another variation of this type of trust is that it is conceptualized as a phenomenon through which individuals perceive certain institutions. Therefore, theorists conceptualized trust towards a system and the level of trust is determined by the basic constituting dimensions and characteristics of the underlying institute and seeing it as a system in relation to other institutions.

Drawing on the trust discussions of Misztal (1996) and Dasgupta (1988), trust becomes a public commodity which the economic, political systems and the social order accommodate. The existence of trust in a society is profoundly intertwined with the political institutions that govern and maintain the social order as well as the economic structure through which the transactions take place. Having trust therefore paves the ground for the establishment of the sense of community and therefore, stimulates the cooperation and working together. As one narrows down the level of analysis to a business organization, the trust in a personal sense would enhance the cooperation of the organizational members provided that trust among the parties is well-established.

Lieberman (1981) remarked that the US society has become a highly litigious society. He discusses the increase in the number of the lawsuits and types of lawsuits with respect to

the fact that the personal relationships in parts of the social life especially education system and health care have become more of fiduciary relations rather than business and professional relationships. Malpractices of medicine, defective products, and infringement of individual rights have increased the number of the lawsuits. Not only giving instances from greedy lawyers or odd lawsuits, he posited “loss of trust” in one another as the causal factor of high litigation in every aspect of the society. An example given is a person confined to wheelchair opening a lawsuit to New York Road Runners Club to enter a marathon. Lieberman (1981) claimed that these ungrounded lawsuits and excessive litigation phenomenon may partly be mitigated by first allowing society to understand and value redressing of damaged relations that otherwise usually conclude in the court. Therefore, rebuilding trust was argued to be the antidote of the rampage on extensive suing.

Economic Point of View

Williamson (1993) purported the importance of the assumptions in transaction cost economics: Bounded rationality and opportunism. Agents are willing to operate as much rationally as they could do, compulsively staying within the boundaries and limits. In a contractual context, the argument translates to a certain economic contract which does cover some of the contingencies but certainly not all of them. Because of the fact that a contract cannot include all the contingencies, there is certain level of hazard, which however, could be precluded by safeguards. The rationale of having safeguards is predicated on the bases of defending the benefits against the opportunistic behavior of the other party. Therefore, the calculative process with respect to the hazardous possibilities and safeguards devised the contract which Williamson called high-trust outcome as opposed to a low-trust outcome where there is a contract with equivalent hazards but without safeguards. Having safeguards

in a contract characterizes it as a *far-sighted* one. Having discussed the calculative approach in economic transactions, Williamson remarked the dissimilarities between calculative trust – he argues that it is indeed a contradiction in terms- and personal trust. Latter involves completely non-commercial relations and it is characterized as well-nigh non-calculus by three aspects: “(1) the absence of monitoring, (2) favorable or forgiving predilections, and (3) discreteness (1993: 483). Benign intent was recognized as an element of personal trust (Dunn, 2000) which may result in betrayal, demoralizing the actors. However, in calculative relations breaching of a contract does not necessarily result in inefficient outcomes, it could very well be an efficient outcome. Utilizing transaction costs as the theoretical underpinnings, Nooteboom (1996) emphasized the role of trust and opportunism in process and control models; and some other research have contributed to the literature by highlighting the familiarity and history as predicting variables of trust in an inter-firm context (Gulati 1995; Gulati & Sytch, 2008). Within the span of this research, trust as a firm level phenomenon (buyer-supplier relationships, strategic alliances etc.) has been a very prolific field and received attention from theorists (Ketkar, Kock, Parente & Verville, 2011; Wasti & Wasti, 2008).

Lewicki and Wiethoff (2000) referred to calculus-based trust and identification-based trust. The former was intended to correspond to the benefits and rewards associated with being trusting and trustworthy, as well as the threats that could arise in case trust is violated. Having a reputation of trustworthiness could be an asset in this perspective that adds value to the relationship regardless of the actual trustworthiness level of one party. The nature of the trust relationship in this sense is fragile and most business relations in professional, non-social and task oriented context could be characterized with calculus-based trust. The second

parallels to the situation of an interpersonal contact and the socialization process helps build up the trust. The socialization includes sharing the same office space, performing similar tasks or different tasks under the same project. Therefore, the interpersonal relationship then adds value to the other party without any benefits expected. For instance, against a frivolous insult from another party, one could defend his trusted colleague very seriously. This type of trust enhances the reciprocity because one can count on the behavior of others as the person keeps the good conduct towards them. Consequently, there is a productive cycle of benevolent behavior towards each other building a collective identity, creating joint products and achieving shared goals. From the vantage point of Lewicki and Wiethoff (2000), former type of trust involves an economic approach and the latter type of trust links to socially responsible behavior and reciprocity tying it into the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

Function and Formation of Trust

Luhmann (1979) discussed trust in relation to its functions more than a cause and effect perspective. The discourse on which Luhmann conducted his thought is highly practical in the sense that he explained trust as a tool that reduces the uncertainty in the social order. He acknowledged the fact that social life postulates the increasing complexity than ever with its relations among the players in the life. Considering the increasing interaction among individuals and higher dependency on the systems, trust in and of itself as a tool and heuristic allows one to deal with the sophistication. Hence, the reduction of the complexity would entail the predictability of behaviors and attitudes of an individual with whom one engages into interdependency.

Another dimension of trust Luhmann (1979) argued is the fact that a person presents at least some of his personality in his everyday behavior and attitude. Any type of human

interactions including communications with people, participating in a project, sharing the same office space etc. entails some sort of self-presentation of the individual. Over time, individual with these postulated self-presentations generates relationships with other parties over a history of behaviors and norms shaped by the web of these past self-presentations. Therefore, the trust itself is being built by pieces and elements with the process of time. The individual then becomes bounded by the level of trustworthiness that is constituted by the cognition of his past behavior in the minds of the people in his social environment. Hence, one can be capable of predicting the future behavior and attitude of an individual if the above mentioned conditions have occurred. Thus, Luhmann's argumentation leads to the fact that the trust for self must be formed through the behavioral interactions. However, it can be offered but it cannot be asked from trustee without prior commitment. At this junction, Luhmann pointed the mutual commitment among the trustor and trustee which is posed as the requirement for and/or the foundation of trust. These discussions can be linked to the steps in psychological contracts framework (Rousseau, 1989) including interactions, expectations and formation of trust over time by fulfilling the expectations and obligations.

Appropriation of trust in a professional relationship can be achieved by expressing "supererogatory performance" (Luhmann, 1979, p. 43). The exceeding outcome and/or desired behavior would return derive at least a gratitude and supererogatory performance which is meritorious. Such behaviors as it raises reciprocity can be thought as a function that sustains the trust relationships. At this junction, the capability of the trusted party as a characteristic will be discussed in the trust attributes section.

Interpersonal Trust

Third category is of social psychologists' point of view that examines interpersonal trust in which the trusting party and trusted party are recognized as the two players. Rotter (1967) defined trust with an emphasis on the interpersonal relations: "expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). The expectations of trusting party are based on characteristics of the other party. The risk relevant to behaving or acting in a certain manner concurring with the expectations and beliefs about the other party is central to this type of understanding of trust. The theories in this perspective encompass the interpersonal relations, interdependency, the creating and destructing of trust and contextual factors. Interpersonal trust implies the existence of two or more parties, either be it persons or groups. The mutual exchange, properties and characteristics of each party determine the quality of the relationship therefore develop trust (McKnight & Chervany, 1996).

Deutsch (1958) discussed the elements of common usage of trust which are predictability and expectation. These would not adequately define the underlying meaning of trust, therefore he included the suspicion and trust relationship in specific contexts where the trust may or may not be fulfilled. In such a case, the trustor is concerned about suffering the possible unpleasant consequences. Therefore, following statements underline the understanding of the undesired behavior of the trusted party: "An individual may be said to have trust in the occurrence of an event if he expects its occurrence and his expectation leads to behavior which he perceives to have greater negative motivational consequences if the expectation is not confirmed than the positive motivational consequences if it is confirmed" (Deutsch, 1958, p. 266). This approach entails the comparison of the relevant consequences

one would experience in both of the cases, where trust is fulfilled and not fulfilled. Kramer (1999) highlights the perceived uncertainty of the actions and motives of the other individual(s) as one of the characterization of trust. The notion of uncertainty becomes crucial because the individual is dependent upon the prospective actions of the other party. The recent theories and conceptualizations in trust have stimulated different ideas integrating antecedent factors to interpersonal trust in order to have a good glimpse and prediction of the likely behaviors of trustee (Schoorman et al., 2007).

Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) Model of Trust

A seminal research developed theoretical underpinnings of interpersonal trust within organizational boundaries including antecedents of trust, risk taking behavior and outcomes (Mayer et al., 1995). In the present study, I used the definition of trust by Mayer et al. (1995): “willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (p. 712). In this definition, one can clearly identify the psychological state of willingness to be *vulnerable* as well as the *expectations* that are involved with the trusted party. Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998) provided a similar definition of trust that is predicated on “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another” (p. 395).

Mayer et al. (1995)’s comprehensive research developed their organizational trust model by drawing on sociological, economic literature (Figure 3). Authors built the model

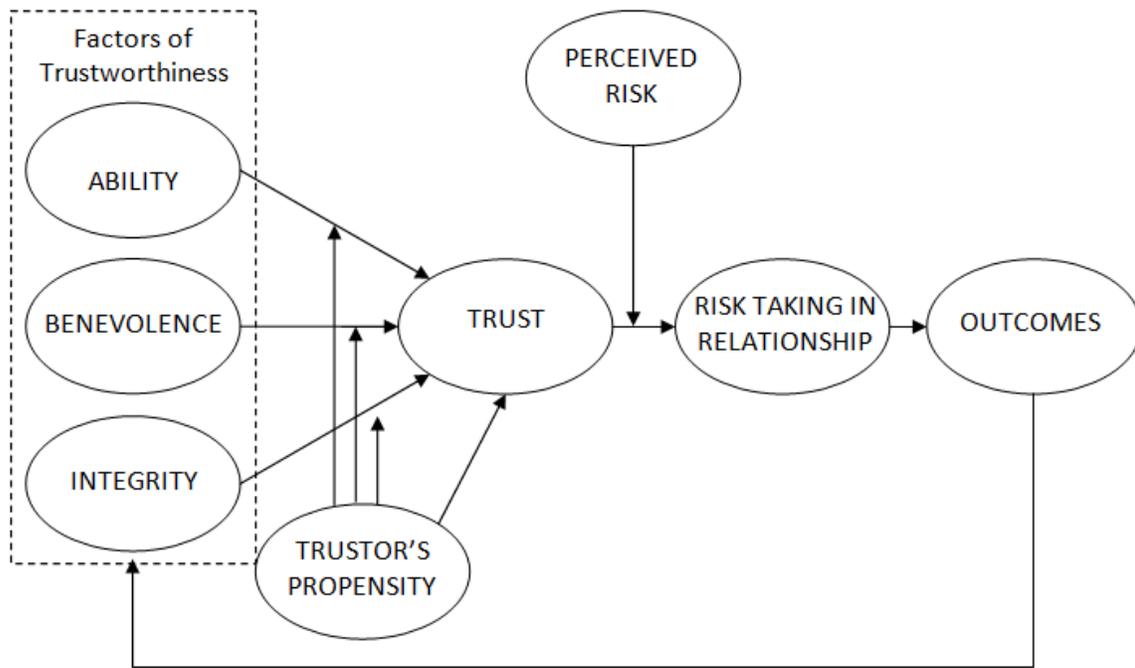


Figure 3. Mayer et al.'s (1995) Proposed Conceptual Model of Trust.

employing the antecedent factors of trust that include the characteristics of the trustee and the trustor. The characteristics of the trustor pertain to the trait-like aspects of the individual that has a tendency to trust others intrinsically. It is specific to the trustor and it is assumed to be stable across contexts and over time. Hence, this factor was named as the propensity to trust implying the generalized trust. With respect to the characteristics of the trustee, in other words “trustworthiness” of the trustee, three relevant aspects of trusted party are analyzed: Ability, benevolence and integrity. Ability aspect taps on Luhmann’s (1979) discussion of supererogatory performance and meticulousness. Benevolence aspect is related to benign intent in the discussions of Williamson (1993) and Dunn (2000). Trustworthiness as a separate conceptualization from trust itself and the propensity to trust allow researchers to examine the trustee and trustor characteristics as distinct properties of the context.

Figure 3 depicts that Mayer et al. (1995)'s conceptualization of trust is associated directly with the risk taking behavior. A person's willingness to take risk, as a psychological state, can indeed predict the actual risk taking behavior, which is presented by the employee, preceding the outcomes. Therefore, as a mediating variable between trust and outcome, Mayer et al. (1995) included risk taking behavior in their conceptual model.

In addition, Mayer et al. (1995)'s conceptual model employed trustor's point of view of the *trustee*. Trustor's perception of the capability, benevolence and integrity of the trustee plays a role in the actual development of trust. The antecedents of the willingness to take risk are argued to be contingent upon a number of trustee characteristics that include trusted parties' skills, trainings, altruistic behaviors, honesty etc.

It is assumed that trustees with equivalent or higher levels of authority than that of trustor cannot be controlled by the trustor. It is essential to have such an assumption because the existence of controlling will increase the likelihood of enforcement by providing incentives for desired behaviors and penalties for undesired behaviors. Therefore, having the ability or the authority to control, monitor or enforce the trusted party to obtain a desired outcome would change the nature of the situation. In such a case, there would be no need to actually trust because as a matter of fact there would be no risks associated with the interdependency. There might be certain level of interdependency of the two parties; however the nature of the relationship would then not involve any vulnerability.

Trust as a Synonym of other Concepts?

A number of studies considered trust as synonymous to some other concepts similar in meaning such as confidence, cooperation, risk taking and trustworthiness (Kee & Knox, 1970; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Wheelless & Grotz, 1977). Luhmann (1988) explicated on

three notions; familiarity, confidence and trust highlighting how each has its distinct conceptualization, using the following argumentation to draw the distinctions: In a trust situation, risk is relevant as opposed to a confidence situation. In a trust context, there is a proactive involvement of the individual. Because one makes a decision to undertake an engagement, risk is assumed by the person as opposed to a confidence situation in which individual does not act and behave considering the contingencies. Confidence does not involve any prior engagement such as decision making or assuming any risk. Supporting this argument, Rotter (1967) investigated and found support for the distinction and positive relationship between trust and several constructs: Trustworthiness, dependency, popularity, and friendship. Mayer et al. (1995) drew on the literature related to trust extensively and utilize various perspectives for the purpose of distinguishing trust from other constructs. In Smith (2010), trust and cooperation were studied as separate and distinct constructs that are in a direct relation. Considering the affective and cognitive component, trust was investigated and the study found a positive link, trust being the driver of cooperation among dyad peers in a strategic alliance context (Smith, 2010). The slight differences among these concepts sometimes led researchers to use them interchangeably causing confusion (Mayer et al., 1995). The conceptualization of trust in the present study clearly differentiates trust from trustworthiness, confidence, and predictability as well as cooperation and risk taking.

Balance and Consistency View

The approach of balance and consistency provides a useful outlook for understanding the behavioral phenomenon and trust in particular. This research stream has foundations in Festinger (1957)'s theory of dissonance and Heider (1958)'s work on psychology of interpersonal relations. Following questions were addressed in this view: Do you want to

work with a person whom you hate? Does/can a person get along with another person who insults him? Would you accept an interdependent group project with people that you like the most? Attempting to answer questions in similar fashion, this view proposes that human behavior has a homeostatic nature and avoids any psychological imbalance and inconsistencies in a relational situation. An individual tends to either like or dislike, either trust or distrust. The reasoning is that the inconsistent cognitions due to the other party and/or others' behavior are attempted to be avoided, resulting in a homogenous behavior and attitude. Imagine a case where a professional experiences a negative impression from a party with regards to a certain job duty and at the same time, a positive impression from the same party with regards to a personal connection. In this case, two cognitions create a psychological imbalance and inconsistency, and the individual experiences dissonance. What would the resultant attitude of the individual towards the other? Theory adheres to the understanding that inconsistent cognitions tend to be instable and therefore, individual exerts cognitive effort to avoid the imbalance trying to resolve and minimize. Individuals may manage the instable situation trying to change his/her understanding of the relational impressions. Departing from these discussions, in a trust situation the relation between parties including all of the interactions settles into a level of trust as a unidimensional consequential psychological state. Therefore, the trust phenomenon could be understood in a bipolar continuum; high trust/low trust. A recent research by Lewicki, McAllister and Bies (1998) –whose research is detailed in the interpersonal trust section below- questioned the simplistic high/low trust view without bringing empirical support. However, the present study in line with above theoretical standpoint operationalizes the bipolar high/low trust attitude among trustor and trustee basing it on the propensity of the trustor.

Trust and Distrust Matrix

Lewicki et al. (1998) established a new way of thinking about trust and distrust, referring to simultaneous existence of both concepts. They argued that because the actual relationships in real life are multi-faceted, a traditional view of consistency and psychological balance may instable. The relationships between parties don't have to be viewed in a bipolar nature; such as good/bad, like/dislike, love/hate or trust/distrust. Contrary to the understanding of the consistency and balance view, as new information received by the individual, the psychological imbalance becomes a stable state rather than a temporary state that is being avoided. Hence, it is not necessarily perceived as dissonance. Therefore, different facets of relationships could be characterized by seemingly opposing cognitions of the other party. The individual may very well live with differently characterized facets of relationships. They argued that bipolar high trust (low distrust) / low trust (high distrust) do oversimplify the multi-dimensional trust phenomenon and discard the nature of multi-faceted and multiplex relationship. Questioning the assumption that the operational levels of low trust and high distrust refer to same meaning, Lewicki et al. (1998) proposed a 2 by 2 matrix through which (high/low) distrust and (high/low) trust could be merged and observed with their own specifications (Figure 4). This theoretical perspective allows multidimensional conceptualization of trust (distrust).

	Low Distrust	High Distrust
	No fear Absence of skepticism Absence of cynicism Low monitoring No vigilance	Fear Skepticism Cynicism Wariness / Watchfulness Vigilance
High Trust Hope Faith Confidence Assurance Initiative	High-value congruence Interdependence promoted Opportunities pursued New incentives	Trust but verify. Relationships highly segmented and bounded. Opportunities pursued and down-side risks continually monitored.
Low Trust No hope No faith No confidence Passivity Hesitance	Casual acquaintance Limited interdependence Bounded, arms-length transactions Professional courtesy	Undesirable eventualities expected and feared. Harmful motives assumed Interdependence managed Preemption: best offense is a good defense Paranoia

Figure 4. Integrating Trust and Distrust. Adapted from Lewicki et al. (1998)

The following example provides a framework for understanding the multiplex relationships which support the thesis of simultaneous existence of distrust and trust (Lewicki et al., 1998):

For instance, I may get to know a professional colleague in my academic department fairly well. Over time, I may learn that this colleague is excellent as a theoretician, adequate but not exceptional as a methodologist, highly limited in skills as a classroom teacher, completely at odds with me in his political beliefs, outstanding as a golfer, tediously boring in committee meetings but periodically quite insightful, and terrible at keeping appointments on time. My disposition toward my colleague will be a function of all of these different encounters with him, and I may have to learn to live with all of them if he becomes my department chair. (p.442)

As a managerial implication, in a group of professionals, trust among group members might be considered as a compulsory ingredient of the nature of the relationships in the group. This would allow for cohesion and solidarity. On the other hand, groupthink can be precluded by the function of distrust without denying the efficiencies brought by trust among

group members. One could very well benefit from questioning the group decisions and can overcome groupthink trap by the function of distrust (Lewicki et al., 1998). Acknowledging that trust/distrust view brings new research dimensions for exploration; the theory base and empirical support for the relationship between trust and distrust were entrusted to the future researchers to build and expand. Thus, the current research assumed that having a resultant level of trust (i.e., balance and consistency view) with respect to another party constitutes the underlying premise of the research questions.

2.2. Trust Attributes

The actual trust can be partly explained by the characteristics of the trusted party which have been construed differently across scholars. One widely accepted theoretical model considers the characteristics of the trusted party as trustworthiness factors. This approach is trifold: Ability, benevolence and integrity of the trusted party (Mayer et al., 1995). Another research has perpetuated the trustworthiness factor approach and therefore listed sixteen attributes that were referred by the trust definitions and discussions in the literature (McKnight & Chervany, 1996). Thus, these factors could be taken as trustworthiness attributes that may constitute the ground on which a trustor to actually trust in the other party.

As the development of trust is examined from the perspective of the trustor, the generalized trust as the propensity to trust is highlighted. When the focus is the referent, or the trustee, there is also similar trait like characteristics; abilities, training, attitudes, honesty etc. which determine the level of trust that the trustor would have with respect to that referent (Butler, 1991). A large number of investigations studied the antecedents of trust from the

trustee characteristics perspective (Butler, 1991; Mayer et al., 1995). In an interpersonal trust context, considering trustor and trustee relationship, trustor should be able to know whether the referent can actually undertake his/her duties and responsibilities as well as whether the trustee will actually choose to do so. Because the expectations from another party with respect to the mutual exchange and fulfillment of these expectations are prime elements of the trust issue (Erikson, 1953; Deutsch, 1958; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007), trusted party's characteristics should provide valuable cues about the level of trustworthiness. The extant literature has delved into many aspects of trustworthiness and investigated it from a variety of perspectives. McKnight and Chervany's (1996) thorough study reviewed 60 seminal articles and/or books on trust providing satisfactory however sometimes vague classifications of trust constructs. In Table 1, sixteen trust attributes which were consistently found among these 60 seminal articles and/or books, are listed as well as providing the frequency of each attribute. The most frequently referred trust attributes include *benevolent / caring / concern* (18%) followed by *competence* (12%), *goodwill / intentions* (12%), and *honesty* (9%). Considering the first four attributes, one can easily relate to the Mayer et al. (1995) study that included three trustworthiness factors: 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). Benevolence is defined as "the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive" (Mayer et al, 1995, p. 718). Integrity relates to "the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable" (Mayer et al, 1995, p. 719).

Table 1. Types of Trust Attributes. Adopted from McKnight and Chervany (1996)

#	ATTRIBUTES	Percentage of total
1	Benevolent / Caring / Concern	18%
2	Competence	12%
3	Goodwill / Intentions	12%
4	Honesty	9%
5	Predictability	8%
6	Goodness/ Morality	8%
7	Reliability	8%
8	Dependability	6%
9	Responsiveness	5%
10	Expertness	4%
11	Dynamism	4%
12	Openness / Open minded	2%
13	Careful / Safe	2%
14	Credibility	1%
15	Personal Attraction	1%
16	Shared Understanding	-
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100%</i>

Mayer and Davis (1999) investigated top management's trustworthiness and the performance appraisals of the employees by the top management. The relationship between performance appraisal system and trust is found to be mediated by the trustworthiness of the top management by using quasi-experimental research. This particular study, collected data three points in time over a period of 14 months which allowed researchers to identify the changes in the variables of interest. Therefore, the employees who evaluated the new performance appraisal system as more acceptable appeared to develop more trust for top management. Results suggested that trustworthiness factors fully mediated the link between perceptions of the appraisal system and trust for top management.

The discussion above serves for understanding the development of trust with regards to the trusted parties' attributes and trustworthiness. Current research focuses on the level of the willingness to be vulnerable in a mutual exchange situation. Therefore, the assumption

made here is that the level of willingness to be vulnerable is indeed a result of processing the characteristics of the trusted party using the perceptions of the trusted party's attributions; ability, benevolence, honesty, integrity, attraction etc. One might name this phrase as trust formation (see Johansen (2007)'s rigorous work on the explication of formation of trust in initial encounters) which results in an identifiable psychological state of the trustor constituting the underlying foundation of the trust constructs.

2.3. Trust Bases and Trust Foci

McAllister (1995) developed a theoretical model to investigate the two distinct trust constructs for interpersonal cooperation in organizations (Figure 5). His model included cognition-based and affect-based trusts which are devised as two different but interrelated trust bases. The former is associated the extent of knowledge pertaining to the referent will give the trustor the "good reasons" that will constitute the trustworthiness of the trusted party. The latter is associated with the emotional bonds between individuals. This particular study conceptualized affect-based and cognition-based trust not different than trustworthiness itself. In addition, the cognition-based trust was suggested to be causal antecedent of affect-based trust and each construct was hypothesized to have their own distinct and unique pattern of association with respect to antecedent and outcome variables. Interestingly, the antecedents of cognition-based trust, a peer's reliable role performance, professional credentials and social-ethnic similarity were not significantly associated with cognition based trust. The significant predictors of affect-based trust are interaction frequency, and peer affiliative citizenship behavior. With respect to the power of predicting the consequential

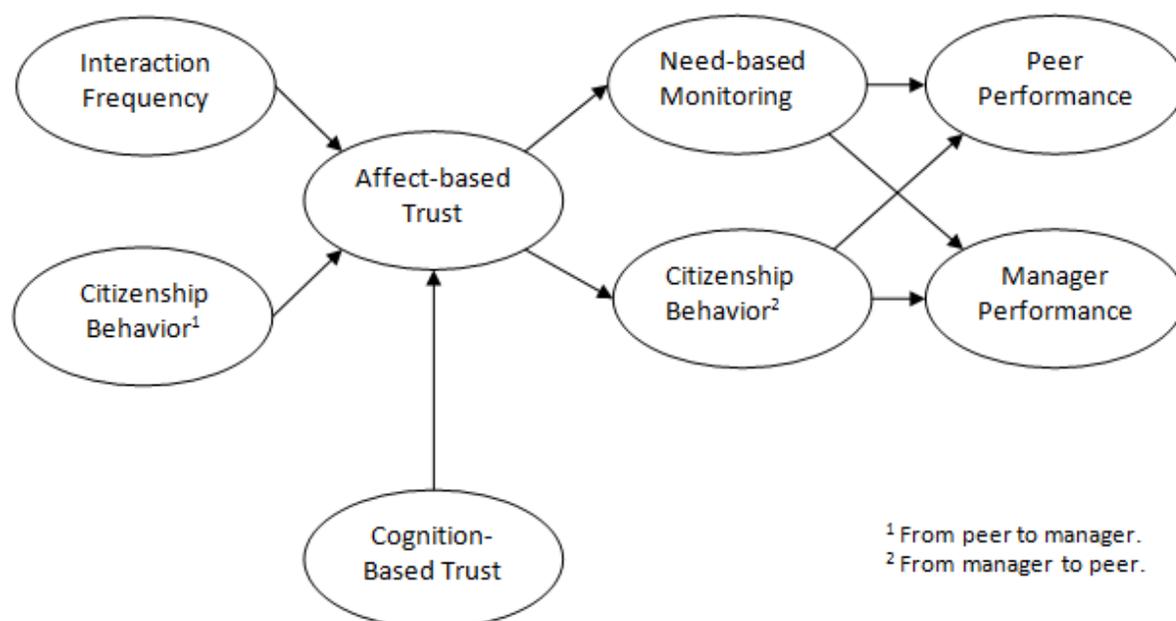


Figure 5. Theoretical Model of the Role of Trust in Interpersonal Relationships in Organizations.
- Adapted from McAllister (1995).

variables, only affect-based trust predicted manager monitoring as well as manager's citizenship behavior. Cognitive-based trust did not predict any workplace attitudes and performance measures. Therefore, the manager monitoring and manager's citizenship behavior indeed were found to be the driving factors of the performances of peers and managers.

Yang (2005) asked the question of whether trust foci and bases matter. In a workplace, trust with different referents might pose individual and unique impact on the relevant job outcomes. Therefore, she utilized three trust referents in an organization; trust in coworkers, trust in supervisor and trust in management. On the other hand, the research conceptualizes trust in affective and cognitive bases and examines their relationship with organizational commitment, upward and lateral communication, task performance, job satisfaction, openness to organizational change. Findings indicated that the affective trust in

management predicted affective commitment on the basis of emotional overlap that the two constructs lay on. Trust in supervisor was found to be a significant factor explaining the task performance. Helping behavior and open communication with coworkers were also explained by the both the cognitive and affective based trust in supervisor. Affective trust in supervisor was found to be stronger in explaining the lateral and upward communication than that of cognitive trust in supervisor. In addition, job satisfaction was found to be linked with the three trust referents and two trust bases implying the fact that each trust variable had its own distinct power to explain the variance of the job satisfaction variable. The employees do not interact with the top management personnel as intensively as they do with their immediate supervisor and coworkers. Thus, employees might identify the management team as the organization itself. These discussions help to the argument that the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the subject could be predicated on two processes; affective and cognitive. The individual can assess the emotional (i.e., affective) aspects of the relationship between him/her and the subject as well as consider the professional (i.e., cognitive) aspects of the relationship.

2.4. Relationships between Trust and Workplace Outcomes

The focus of the present study is to identify the unique impacts of the three trust variables on the relevant workplace outcome variables in two samples. Moreover, the social psychological aspects are taken into consideration for the purposes of capturing the context. The underlying mechanism of the impact of trust variables in the affective commitment, intention to turnover, job satisfaction, and job performance could be understood through the lenses of the psychological and implied contracts that Denise Rousseau deciphered.

The psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1989) suggest that colloquially there are relationships between employees and employer other than the actual written contractual agreements. The psychological and implied contracts do not explicitly state the terms that two parties agree on, which could include compensation, job-related benefits, and job-duties. The psychological contracts originate from having “good faith attempts to implement promises” (Rousseau, 1989, p.121). The historical patterns, employee-organization relationship, precedents, commitments (oral or written) in the past are the departure point of the implied contracts. Therefore, two types of contracts are characterized with intense subjectivity and expectations. The psychological contracts involve the beliefs and expectations of an employee about the obligation of the reciprocity of the organization. Such perceptions are only in the eye of the beholder. Therefore, it is not shared by the two parties at the same time. For instance, an employee can expect to obtain reimbursement for any of the expenses that he/she incurs for the work required. However, it is still a perception and can be considered as part of the psychological contract because the employee himself/herself is attributing the obligation of reciprocity without any type of involvement from the organization. If the expectations are unmet, beliefs and the trust attached to the psychological contract can yield high levels of sense of injustice, feeling of betrayal and bitterness (Rousseau, 1989). Implied contracts are characterized on a relational basis, employee-organization. These contracts are based on sharing the prevalent organizational values.

At this junction, how one can link the psychological / implied contracts held by the individuals to the organizational commitment could be intriguing. Referring to the conceptual study of Rousseau (1989), first, an interaction between the employees and the employer occurs. The development of psychological contracts involves a step wise procedure of

interaction, communication, expectations, and obligation (Figure 6). With the initial interaction, two parties agree on the basic terms of the written or the oral contracts. Reciprocity is regarded as a norm and used as an assumption of the social exchange. According to the social exchange principles (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), the interactions between the parties over time brings about reciprocity of the promises, expectations and beliefs. These future interactions ideally should include corresponding behaviors from two parties fulfilling the obligation of reciprocating. Employees might have the belief of the fact that working hard would result in continued occupation. Therefore, constant behaviors that satisfied the other party such as hard work by a new employee, was replied with the continuance of the employment. As these are observed in a consistent fashion over a period of time, then the retention of the satisfactory employee in the organization is recognized. The individual can then build trust and confidence in the direct leader and/or in the management. At this point, it

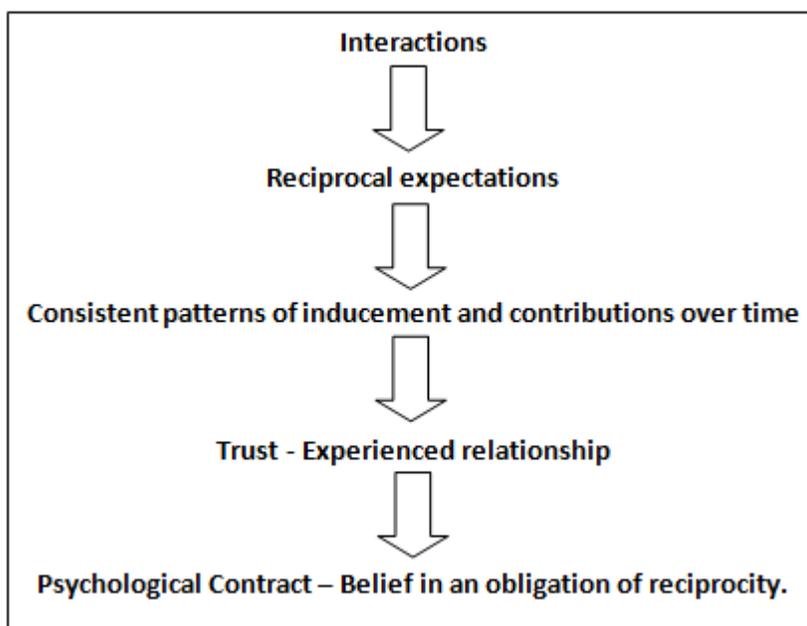


Figure 6. Development Model of Psychological Contracts – Adapted from Rousseau (1989)

can be argued that these strong beliefs and expectations, which have been built up over time by the interactions that fulfill the obligation of reciprocity, do indeed predict future responses of the organization in a positive frame. In addition, believing in the fact that organization would not “let you down” by pleasing the employee and satisfying his/her expectations, one can expect to observe higher organizational commitment. Similarly, if the individual has not build such trust and confidence in the supervisor or in coworkers or in the management, one can argue that because of the unmet reciprocal obligations, the individual can experience dissatisfaction of the work and depict low organizational commitment and job performance.

Trust and Affective Commitment

Bateman and Strasser (1984) gave the following definition of organizational commitment: “Multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership” (p.95). The research by Meyer and Allen (1997) have deciphered the “commitment” in organizations and delineated on its multidimensional nature. This construct has three primary factors distinct from each other: Normative commitment, continuance commitment and affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) provided the definitions of three types of organizational commitment:

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with

a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization. (p. 67).

The normative commitment pertains to the values and norm systems that are prevalent in the organization that imposes a soft requirement on the individual to keep the position. Similarly, continuance commitment due to the costs associated with quitting the job, canceling the job contract, and finding another job revert the stimulus of job seeking. Therefore, it leads to individual inertia and the employee finds it more comfortable to keep and secure the current job position (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment, because of its conceptualization and its relevance to emotional attachment, is included as one of the outcome/dependent variables in the present study. The willingness to take risks as the definition of trust entails a pro-active involvement in the outcomes that comprises a certain level of perceived risks. Therefore, this pro-active involvement can be linked to the affective organizational commitment through the individual expectations of the organization. In addition, the employee who receive care and concern from his/her coworkers, supervisor and top management, might perceive and respond with behaviors that fulfilled the expectations of the other parties. Having considered all similar and consistent interaction of the two parties, an employee with a certain level of trust in a party can be argued to have certain amount of emotional bond with the organization, mostly created by the history of the affiliation and the repetitive good conduct from both parties.

Meyer and Allen (1997) explained why and how affective commitment could be linked with the organizational outcomes. Considering a professional employee with strong affective commitment, the individual would have higher motivation and desire which will contribute to the organization. The motivation and the organizational commitment will shape

the behavior of the employee resulting in less absenteeism and greater performance on the job. Other research suggested causal and negative links between affective commitment, absenteeism and turnover (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002).

The individual's organizational affective commitment could be explained by the observed level of trust in peers, supervisor and top management. The affective commitment entails emotional attachment to the organization and the individual is willing to provide extra effort and support for the organization itself. Mutual commitment between the individuals as a basis of trust may translate into the organizational affective commitment. Literature suggests that there is a positive correlation between affective commitment and trust in management (George, 2003). Ferres, Connell & Travaglione (2004) affirmed with empirical evidence that coworker trust has explanatory power of affective organizational commitment. Yang (2005) stated that affective trust in management was positively and significantly related to affective organizational commitment in two medical centers in Southeastern United States. Michaelis, Stegmaier and Sonntag (2009) found empirical support for the relationship between employees trust in top management and affective commitment to change, using data of 194 employees working in R&D teams of a multinational automotive company. Examining the supplier–customer relationships in high-technology markets, de Ruyter, Moorman and Lemmink (2001) reported the positive predictive power of trust in the affective commitment. Kaneshiro (2008) found that in a single public organization, organizational justice and organizational trust are significantly related to the organizational commitment. Based on the discussions above:

P₂: Trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with the affective commitment.

P_{2a}: Trust in peers is positively associated with affective commitment.

P_{2b}: Trust in supervisor is positively associated with affective commitment.

P_{2c}: Trust in top management is positively associated with affective commitment.

Nyhan (1999) using data of over 600 employees working in three public sector organizations stated that supervisory trust is a key correlate of affective commitment rather than systems trust (which could be related to the trust in management or top management). The anecdotal evidence from interviews supported their findings in the sense that through their relationships with supervisors, employees were able to identify themselves with the organization, understand organization's goals better and exert extra effort for the success of the organization. On the other hand, the trust on the top management referring to the organization itself as a system was argued to be more directly and strongly associated with the organizational commitment than any other construct (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In line with the former argument, the trust in supervisor may account for substantial amount of the emotional attachment of the individual to the organization, hence driving affective commitment more compared to the other trust objects:

P_{2d}: Strongest association of the affective commitment is with trust in supervisor.

Trust and Intention to Turnover

Intention to turnover measures to what extent the individual is willing to quit his/her current job. Intention to turnover is utilized in many of the organizational behavior research studies (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Glissmeyer, 2010; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer,

1993). Relationship between intention to quit and trust in leader was revealed by the findings of the meta-analysis by Dirks and Ferrin (2002). The intention precedes the behavior according to the reasoned action theory (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The theoretical underpinnings of reasoned action theory lie in the fact that the attitude of an individual is highly correlated to the intention of the party and attitude precedes intention. Behavior follows the intention. Therefore, the theory proposes causality from attitude towards the intention, hence the individual having the intention prior to the actual behavior will most likely engage in the behavior in the future. Hence, in this study intention to turnover is assumed to be a strong predictor of actual turnover. There is adequate research indicating the fact that intention to turnover is in fact a viable surrogate for actual turnover behavior (i.e., Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008; Roberts, Coulson & Chonko, 1999). Besides, the studies confirmed that intention to turnover produces reasonable estimates in analytical studies compared to actual turnover. Therefore, examining and collecting information with regards to the intention to turnover was preferred in this study, acknowledging its practicality.

Davis et al. (2000) researched branches of a restaurant chain and attempted to capture the trust in the general manager and its relation with turnover, and business unit performance in terms of sales and profit. If the general manager was perceived as having higher benevolence and integrity, the restaurant employees on average tended to have higher trust in the general manager. The trust in general managers of restaurants predicted the profits and sales of restaurants controlling for the restaurant size, household, and median income. Their results suggested that the difference in turnover between high trusted general managers and low trusted general managers is marginally significant, implying the fact that restaurants that have trusted general managers were found to have less turnover. Ferrer et al. (2004) focused

on the coworker trust and its relation to organizational perceptions and attitudes. Coworker trust significantly predicted the perceived organizational support and affective commitment to the organization, undermining the intention to turnover.

Distinguishing the trust referents, Tan and Tan (2000) investigated the trust in supervisor and trust in organization. Their results suggested that the trust in supervisor was connected to the characteristics of the supervisor, referring to the ability, benevolence and integrity. Besides, the trust in organization is highly associated with the procedural and distributive justice as well as lower intention to turnover, and higher organizational commitment. Luis (1995) examined an archival data base of 807 employees at a large aerospace corporation and found strong association between trust in management and intention to turnover. The meta-analysis by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) supported the negative causal link ($r = -.40$) between trust and intention to quit by examining 17 samples amounting to 3,297 observations. Based on the discussions above:

P₃: There are inverse relationships between trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- and intention to turnover.

P_{3a}: Trust in peers is negatively associated with intention to turnover.

P_{3b}: Trust in supervisor is negatively associated with intention to turnover.

P_{3c}: Trust in top management is negatively associated with intention to turnover.

P_{3d}: Strongest association of the intention to turnover is with trust in supervisor.

Trust and Job Performance

Rich (1997) found empirical support for the relationship between trust in sales manager and overall performance of the sales personnel. The trust in sales manager explained the variance in the overall performance and the standardized coefficient of the trust variable was estimated to be .40 indicating a very strong association. Yang (2005) found empirical evidence supporting the fact that trust in supervisor had a significant and positive impact on the task performance, however, the study did not find any support for the relationship between task performance and other trust referents; coworkers and top management. Similarly, Mayer and Gavin (2005) investigated the relationship between trust in plant manager/top management team and in-role performance/organizational citizenship behavior, mediated by the ability to focus that corresponds to extent which the employee is not considered “covering one’s back”. Therefore, the employee is only expected to focus on professionally performing his/her job and not trying to secure the position for the self by trying to obtain information and documenting his/her satisfactory performance. Their study was unable to find direct and indirect relationship between trust variables and in-role performance of the employees.

Similarly, the meta-analysis by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) did not find any relation between trust in the leadership and job performance. However their results found a considerable association between trust in direct leader and job performance ($r = .17$). Their study revealed that trust in supervisor has unique strength over and above the trust in leadership in four of five workplace outcomes. Colquitt et al. (2007) in their meta-analysis utilizing 27 samples amounting to 4,882 observations, found that the task performance is positively and significantly correlated with the trust ($r = .33$). Considering these mixed

empirical evidence, from a normative point of view, interpersonal trust would function as a social glue and lubricant in organizations. Thereby it improves the efficiency and interaction quality. Therefore in the current study, the relationships between trust variables and job performance were hypothesized to be positive.

P₄: Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with job performance.

P_{4a}: Trust in peers is positively associated with job performance.

P_{4b}: Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job performance.

P_{4c}: Trust in top management is positively associated with job performance.

P_{4d}: Strongest association of the job performance is with trust in supervisor.

Trust and Job Satisfaction

The extent to which individuals are satisfied with their current organization is the definition of job satisfaction in the present study (Sims, 2000). Job satisfaction as a workplace attitude is highly correlated to job performance and it was found to be related to variety of organizational behaviors and constructs; including job-involvement, turnover, absenteeism, and job stress (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997). Job satisfaction as a global workplace attitude and its relationships to trust variables are of interest to the present study. Three distinct trust referents were argued to be linked to job satisfaction. Analysis sought to answer the question of whether these three variables can explain the phenomenon independently. Besides, comparing relative impacts of the trust referents on job satisfaction will enable researchers and practitioners to understand to what extent trust in certain organizational members can indeed be more relevant to the employee satisfaction.

Helliwell and Huang (2010) examined trust in management, trust in co-workers, life satisfaction, job satisfaction, workplace characteristics utilizing samples obtained from Canadian Equality, Security and Community (ESC) and General Social Survey (GSS). These large-scope surveys (1,862 and 9,949 observations, respectively) include cross-sectional and cross-national components that aim to answer demographic, behavioral and attitudinal questions as well as investigating the changing trends over time. Their analyses included robust control variables including personal/household income, education level, marriage status, gender, age group, and ethnic identity. The job satisfaction in the ESC sample was significantly explained by the trust in management variable whereas in the GSS sample job satisfaction was significantly predicted by trust in co-workers, however less strongly. Helliwell and Wang (2011) elaborated on the relationship between trust and wellbeing and their research supported the link that the two constructs are highly correlated. Their evidence supported the argument that directionality is from trust to subjective well-being.

Rich (1997) investigated the relationship between trust, job satisfaction, and job performance considering that in an organization employees might perceive sales manager as role models. His research found empirical support for the fact that role modeling of sales manager indeed drives the actual trust of the salespeople on their manager. Because the role-modeling of the manager signals the honest behaviors to the salespeople, it establishes a trustworthy perception. Therefore, the trust in the manager was found to significantly predict the job satisfaction and overall performance, having a stronger impact on satisfaction. The standardized path coefficients were estimated to be .42 and .30 for job satisfaction and overall performance, respectively predicted by trust in sales manager.

Yang (2005) found empirical support for the aforementioned three trust referents that drive the job satisfaction of employees in two health care facilities. Each trust variable was found to have unique positive impact on the job satisfaction. Therefore, her analysis empirically proved that employees are capable of distinguishing the trust referents and attributing each referent distinct perceptions. Tan and Tan (2000)'s results suggested that satisfaction with supervisor is associated with the level of trust in supervisor. Based on the empirical results as discussed above:

P₅: Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-are positively associated with the job satisfaction.

P_{5a}: Trust in peers is positively associated with job satisfaction.

P_{5b}: Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job satisfaction.

P_{5c}: Trust in top management is positively associated with job satisfaction.

P_{5d}: Strongest association of the job satisfaction is with trust in supervisor.

2.5. Importance of Context

The contextual factors are crucial in organizational behavior research (Johns, 2006). Traditional studies of trust contain their research to a limited number of organizations; some limit to a single organization (i.e., Kaneshiro, 2008) which may not allow researchers to control for a variety of different characteristics of the organizations. As a matter of fact, as Cascio (1995) remarked, the new paradigm of the organizational psychology will be challenged by the changing nature of the work environment. This change involves the switch from making a product to producing a service, the impact of the information technology, higher the frequency of smaller businesses employing fewer people. Hence, such changes

create a redefinition of the work itself therefore providing niche areas for researchers to concentrate and derive connections that lead to human welfare. These contextual aspects can also be considered as social and structural properties (Blau, 1964) that emerge from collectivities and these aspects are not observable on the elements of such collectivities. The sum or Gestalt has a nature that could be differentiated easily from the constituents. Blau (1964) mentioned that the reductionism in psychological/clinical research, which has advantages, is limited by its ignorance of the emergent properties. In order to avoid such reductionist fallacy, in the current study, for the purposes of delving into the organizational and job characteristics, contextual variables were taken into account. Thus, more robust relationships between trust constructs and global work outcomes shall be found.

Johns (2006) argued the importance of viewpoints, relevant facts and events which define the context of the situation that is being investigated. Recent research has indicated the limited emphasize on the contextual factors in organizational behavior research and trust studies (Lewicki et al., 1998; Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Omitting the context of the research might be detrimental to the robustness of findings in the sense that, as Rousseau and Fried (2001) stated the rapid change of work environment can dramatically distort the understandings of the relational situations in organizations. Besides, the translation of social science models from a particular society to another due to internationalization of the research necessitates the researcher to contextualize. Following is John's (2006) definition of context adopted in the current study: "Situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organizational behavior as well as functional relationships between variables" (p. 386).

The relationships between variables of interest are most of the time a function of the context. In organizational behavior research in order to integrate the contextual factors, two paradigms were offered: Journalism and social psychological dimension (Johns, 2006). In the former, it was argued that one should become a journalist and ask the questions of who, when, where and why. Asking these questions will help describe the environment of the relationship that is being investigated. Latter dimension focuses on the discussions of social psychology of context. This section involves the factors that influence the relation between the individual and the organization, the employee and his/her professional social network in the organization. Moreover, the physical environment of the workplace, the job duties, job responsibilities, role ambiguity and job autonomy are among those that can be included in this section. One can argue that these factors could be highly intertwined with the interdependency of the employees in the organization with regards to solving problems and making decisions. Considering the different job positions and objectives of the organization, controlling for role ambiguity and job autonomy can help capture the contextual conditions. Therefore, the analyses of the trust relationships can be taken into account more robustly. In current theoretical model, investigation of the trust situations by including role ambiguity and job autonomy is considered as an important step exploring the context dimension.

2.6. Cultural Differences across Samples

A corollary to the contextual analysis, differing national characteristics in two countries of interest requires should be addressed in terms of macro dimension of the context. The current research examines the relationships between trust constructs and workplace outcomes as well as the variation in the cultural values and norms among professionals in

two countries. Addressing the differences of the cultural norms and values using a cultural typology would enhance the robustness of the study as well as attempting to differentiate the respondents from Turkey and the US on their scores on cultural values and norms.

The definition of culture provided by Hofstede (2001) is as follows: “Collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (2001: p.9). One could argue that the salience of the seemingly unobvious cultural texture can in fact override most of the relations and behavior in business and social life. Thus, it is important to note that differences in culture across countries could very well be the underlying broad factor that could manipulate the relationships in our theoretical model.

Addressing the vexing importance of the context, the present study, aims to capture the cultural values of the respondents by capturing the four cultural dimensions that Hofstede has identified: (1) Individualism/collectivism, (2) power distance, (3) masculinity/femininity, and (4) uncertainty avoidance. Because there is no score for the fifth dimension (long term orientation) for Turkey in Hofstede (2001)’s work, it was excluded in the current study. Johns (2006) argumentation of context as a “configuration or bundle of stimuli” (2006: p. 388) provides insight about the underlying values and norms. Followings are brief definitions of these four dimensions (Hofstede, 2001):

“*Individualism* stands for a society in which the ties between individuals are loose: Everyone is expected to look after him/herself and her/his immediate family only. *Collectivism* stands for a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.” (p. 225)

Power distance is defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally.” (p. 98)

“*Masculinity* stands for a society in which social gender roles are clearly distinct: Men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success; women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with quality of life. *Femininity* stands for a society in which social gender roles overlap: Both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life.” (p. 297)

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations.” (p. 161)

The values and norms as elements of a culture, creates a path on which one’s cognitive process of everyday interactions take place. In the current study, Hofstede’s cultural dimension items are included to assess the cultural differences between Turkey and the US in four dimensions. In the Figure 7, the country scores are given for Turkey and the United States (Hofstede, 2001). Turkey ranks higher in power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimension, whereas the US ranks higher in individualism and masculinity dimension.

For two samples, Hofstede’s four cultural dimension scores were created using three questions for each dimension. The inclusion of cultural dimensions in this research serves for the following reason: Acknowledge that the two samples are representative of the countries from which the samples are collected, by comparing the scores of two samples and by looking to the Hofstede’s country scores.

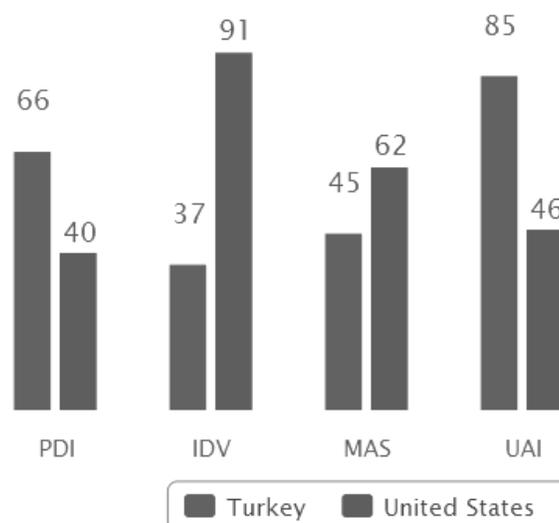


Figure 7. Scores of Four Cultural Dimensions of the US and Turkey in Hofstede's (2001) Study

Calculation of the country scores is based on the central tendency in a country. Therefore, finding the central tendency for each of the cultural dimension allows for ecologic analysis, which is the summation of the means of the three questions for each dimension. After collecting data from Turkey and the US, this procedure revealed that three of the four dimensions concurred with the Hofstede's original scores reported above. On power distance dimension, the Turkey sample scored (7.90) higher than the US sample (7.53). On uncertainty avoidance dimension, the Turkey sample scored (8.88) higher than the US sample (8.84). On masculinity dimension, the US sample scored (7.25) higher than the Turkey sample (7.18). However, on individualism dimension, the Turkey sample scored (7.89) higher on the US sample (7.72) contradicting the Hofstede's scores. Thereby, having three cultural dimensions reflect the same comparison with respect to the Hofstede's scores, the two samples collected from Turkey and the US can be said to be representative of their nations in comparison to each other.

3. METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the theoretical framework and hypotheses are explained. Measurement instruments for each latent variable citing the relevant literature are provided. The involvement of control variables including the demographical variables, job and organizational characteristics variables is discussed. Survey design, data collection and sample characteristics follow the discussion. Finally, partial least squares (PLS) method is detailed and its advantages are explained.

3.1. Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

As Rotter (1967) explicated, interpersonal trust is a form of expectancy of future behavior, verbal or written promise of another party (Rotter, 1967). Because the trustor assumes the possibility of these future behaviors to be valid, vulnerability becomes a critical aspect of interpersonal trust. Trust is also a “calculation of likelihood of future cooperation” (Smith, 2010, p. 46) which enables professionals to operate efficiently minimizing the transactions costs (Putnam, 1993). Having lowered the transaction costs in an organization, professionals can manage their interdependencies effectively giving rise to the enhanced individual and organizational outcomes. According to Erikson (1953), trust is a necessary ingredient in a healthy personality that functions as glue that facilitates interaction. Trust in peers, supervisor and top management would very well be a function of the dispositional aspects of trust in one’s personality. Based on the discussions in the previous chapter and from a normative point of view, following hypotheses are formulated:

H₁: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-.

H_{1a}: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust in peers.

H_{1b}: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust in supervisor.

H_{1c}: Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust in top management.

Affective commitment as an emotional bond that stimulates the employee to exert extra effort in the workplace towards organizational goals (Meyer and Allen, 1997) would entail a trusted relationship. The quality of the relationship between the professionals in organizations indicates that the individual identifies himself/herself with the organization thereby giving rise to the organizational commitment. Noting the multidimensional nature of the organizational commitment, only affective commitment is investigated in the present study. Confirming to the extant literature, positive association between trust variables and affective commitment (Ferres et al., 2004) is hypothesized:

H₂: Trust variables are positively associated with the affective commitment.

H_{2a}: Trust in peers is positively associated with the affective commitment.

H_{2b}: Trust in supervisor is positively associated with the affective commitment.

H_{2c}: Trust in top management is positively associated with the affective commitment.

Departing from the conclusions of the research by Nyhan (1999), one can argue that the trust across three objects translate to organizational commitment of the professional mostly through supervisor. Because the work related issues including performance appraisals, job duties, job responsibilities, job autonomy are primarily communicated to the employee from the first line supervisor, trustful professional relationship between supervisor

and the employee could be the utmost important path that renders the organizational commitment. Thus:

H_{2d}: Strongest association of the affective commitment is with trust in supervisor.

The relationship between intention to turnover and trust in coworkers, supervisor and top management is intuitive in the sense that the level of vulnerability upon a trust relationship, which is perceived by the employee, will be associated with the intention to leave the organization. If an individual does not perceive a risky relationship, then the lesser the vulnerability is perceived. Thereby, it will strengthen the organizational commitment and lower the intention to quit. In line with the findings of Davis et al. (2000):

H₃: There are inverse relationships between trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- and intention to turnover.

H_{3a}: Trust in peers is negatively associated with intention to turnover.

H_{3b}: Trust in supervisor is negatively associated with intention to turnover.

H_{3c}: Trust in top management is negatively associated with intention to turnover.

H_{3d}: Strongest association of the intention to turnover is with trust in supervisor.

From a normative point of view, interpersonal relationships involving the mutual trust can be managed efficiently. Such a psychological state towards an object will stimulate the in-role performance. Recognizing the fact that some studies (i.e., Mayer and Gavin, 2005) did not find any significant associations between trust and in-role performance, the meta-analysis by Dirks and Ferrin (2002)'s results provided necessary confidence for proposing a

confirmatory hypothesis of positive relationships between trust variables and job performance. Hence:

H₄: Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with job performance.

H_{4a}: Trust in peers is positively associated with job performance.

H_{4b}: Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job performance.

H_{4c}: Trust in top management is positively associated with job performance.

H_{4d}: Strongest association of the job performance is with trust in supervisor.

Trust foci matter in explaining the variance in job satisfaction considering the findings of Yang (2005). Each trust variable might possess unique predictive power of the employee's satisfaction with the job. In line with the extant empirical support on the trust and job satisfaction relationship (Tan & Tan, 2000):

H₅: Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-are positively associated with the job satisfaction.

H_{5a}: Trust in peers is positively associated with job satisfaction

H_{5b}: Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job satisfaction

H_{5c}: Trust in top management is positively associated with job satisfaction.

H_{5d}: Strongest association of the job satisfaction is with trust in supervisor.

Following is the analytical model of the interpersonal trust and related individual outcome variables (Figure 8). In Table 2, the list of all hypotheses is given.

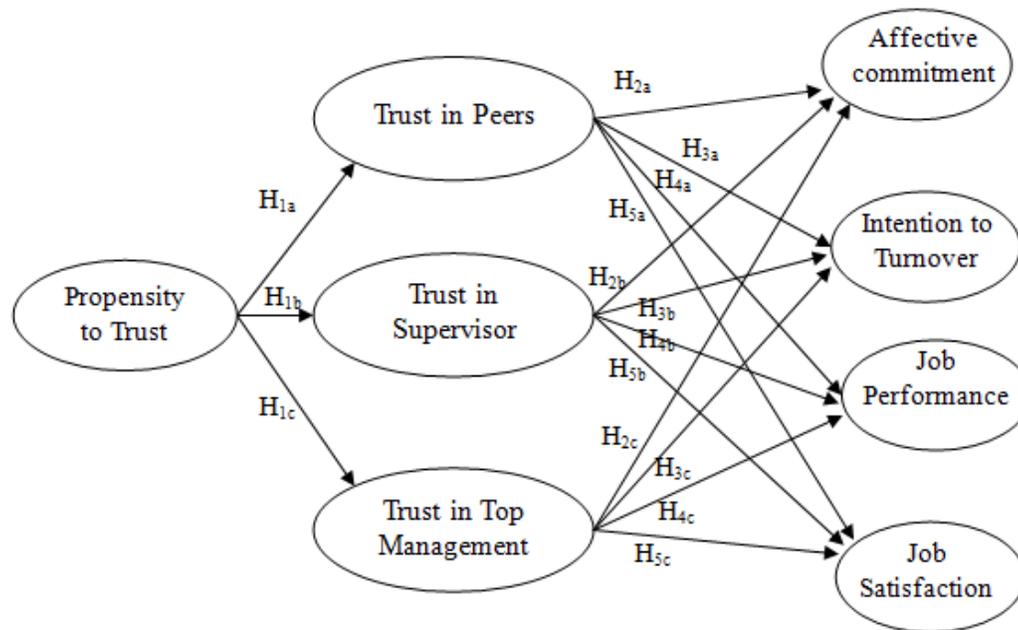


Figure 8. Theoretical Model of Interpersonal Trust with Hypotheses Numbers

3.2. Measures

Trust

The present study employed the trust scale that was developed by Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (1996). This particular scale proved to be reliable in workplace settings in a large number of studies and its discriminant validity was confirmed (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Schoorman et al, 2007). Reported Cronbach's alpha is .82 (Schoorman et al., 1996). This measurement of trust entails the vulnerability of the trustor to the actions of the trustee because of the interdependence and presence of exchange among individuals in an organization. This measurement scale consists of four items. Two of the items are reverse-scored. These four statements tap into the trust conceptualization as a whole from various points of views, forming a *reflective* latent variable. The respondents were asked to check a

Table 2. List of the Hypotheses

#	Hypotheses Related to Propensity to Trust
H ₁	Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-.
H _{1a}	Propensity to trust is positively associated the trust in peers.
H _{1b}	Propensity to trust is positively associated the trust in supervisor.
H _{1c}	Propensity to trust is positively associated the trust in top management.
	Hypotheses Related to Affective Commitment
H ₂	Trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with the affective commitment.
H _{2a}	Trust in peers is positively associated with the affective commitment.
H _{2b}	Trust in supervisor is positively associated with the affective commitment.
H _{2c}	Trust in top management is positively associated with the affective commitment.
H _{2d}	Strongest association of the affective commitment is with trust in supervisor.
	Hypotheses Related to Intention to Turnover
H ₃	There are inverse relationships between trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- and intention to turnover.
H _{3a}	Trust in peers is negatively associated with intention to turnover.
H _{3b}	Trust in supervisor is negatively associated with intention to turnover.
H _{3c}	Trust in top management is negatively associated with intention to turnover.
H _{3d}	Strongest association of the intention to turnover is with trust in supervisor.
	Hypotheses Related to Job Performance
H ₄	Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with job performance.
H _{4a}	Trust in peers is positively associated with job performance.
H _{4b}	Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job performance.
H _{4c}	Trust in top management is positively associated with job performance.
H _{4d}	Strongest association of the job performance is with trust in supervisor
	Hypotheses Related to Job Satisfaction
H ₅	Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-are positively associated with the job satisfaction.
H _{5a}	Trust in peers is positively associated with job satisfaction
H _{5b}	Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job satisfaction
H _{5c}	Trust in top management is positively associated with job satisfaction.
H _{5d} :	Strongest association of the job satisfaction is with trust in supervisor.

score for each statement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) that most closely describes their opinion of each of item. Following is given as a sample item from this trust scale: “I would be comfortable giving my supervisor a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.” All of the items of this scale can be found in the Table 3. This scale items are repeated in the questionnaire for three different objects: Peers, supervisor, and top management. Each trust object is examined in and of itself separately pertaining to the outcome variables. Prior literature also supported the internal consistency of this scale. Schoorman et al. (2007) noted that even though some studies reported moderately low reliabilities of about .60, it was proved to be useful in a variety of context therefore, “... its conceptual clarity, test-retest reliability, and relationship with other variables in the nomological net” leverages and supports the embracement of the construct (p. 348). All survey items with reliabilities and sources are given in Appendix A.

Table 3. Items of Trust Scale

1	If I had my way, I wouldn't let have any influence over issues that are important to me. (Reversed)
2	I would be willing to lethave complete control over my future in this company.
3	I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on (Reversed)
4	I would be comfortable givinga task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.

Propensity to Trust

The measurement scale of propensity to trust, which was adapted and tested in many studies, was obtained from Schoorman et al. (1996). The reported Cronbach’s alpha for this scale is .71. This scale includes eight items; each posing a statement that refers to general public (as *most people*) or members of a profession. The respondents answered to what

extent general public and these people with different occupations in social life are reliable, trustable. These items form a *reflective* latent variable. Followings are sample questionnaire items from the scale: (1) “Most people answer public opinion polls honestly”. (2) “Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.” All of the items are given in the Table 4. The respondents were asked to check a score for each statement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) that most closely describes their opinion of each of item.

Table 4. Items of Propensity to Trust Scale

1	One should be very cautious with strangers.
2	Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.
3	Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.
4	These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.
5	Most salespeople are honest in describing their products.
6	Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their specialty.
7	Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.
8	Most adults are competent at their jobs.
9	One should be very cautious with strangers.

Affective Commitment

The affective commitment scale is adapted from Meyer and Allen (1997). The scale includes 6 items. There are 3 reverse-coded items. Each of the statements taps on the emotional bond with the organization, and the employee’s personal commitment based on the level of their loyalty to the organization. Hence it is a *reflective* latent variable. The followings are sample items from the questionnaire: (1) “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.” (2) “I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.” All of the items of this scale can be found in the Table 5. Meyer and Allen (1997)

remarked in their work that considering the estimates of the scale (more than 40), the reported median Cronbach's alpha for affective commitment scale is .85. The respondents were asked to check a score for each statement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) that most closely describes their opinion of each of item.

Table 5. Items of Affective Commitment Scale

1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (Reversed)
5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (Reversed)
6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (Reversed)
7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (Reversed)

Intention to Turnover

The scale of intention to turnover includes 7 items and it is adapted from Mayfield and Mayfield (2008). Intention to turnover scale is under a Creative Commons license. There are 3 reverse-scored items in this measurement scale. The scale is forming a *reflective* latent variable. Followings are two sample questionnaire items from this scale: (1) "I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now", (2) "I am actively looking for another job." All of the items of this scale can be found in the Table 6. The respondents are asked to rate each statement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .75.

Table 6. Items of Intention to Turnover Scale

1	I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now. (Reversed)
2	I would change jobs if I could find another position that pays as well as my current job.
3	I am actively looking for another job.
4	I would like to work for my current employer until I retire. (Reversed)
5	I would prefer to be working at another organization.
6	I can't see myself working for any other organization. (Reversed)
7	I would feel very happy about working for another employer.

Job Performance

The present study employs self-reported job performance measure by asking 10 questions pertaining to the subjects' performance. The scale was developed by Mayfield and Mayfield (2006) as a *reflective* scale and cronbach's alpha was reported as .93. This scale employs wording of comparisons with other employees in the organization. In order to have adequate level of variance in responses, the scale anchors were adjusted. The responses were (1) Poor, (2) Average, (3) Above Average, (4) Far above Average, (5) Excellent. Therefore, having only one option below the average was assumed to increase the spread (variance) in the job performance variable. The followings are sample items from the questionnaire: (1) "Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?" (2) "How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' levels?" All of the items of this scale can be found in the Table 7.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an enduring construct in organization studies (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997). Job satisfaction's conceptualization can be made in a way to distinguish it from the employee morale that favors the feelings with respect to future as well as it relates

Table 7. Items of Job Performance Scale

1	Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?
2	How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' levels?
3	How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues' levels?
4	How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?
5	Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?
6	Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could affect the way you work?
7	How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?
8	How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?
9	How well do you handle work place emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resource allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?
10	Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?

the individual to the group within an organization (Locke, 1976). Even though the existence of a variety of conceptualizations of job satisfaction, it can be said that the researchers have a considerable consensus on the characteristics of job satisfaction including pay, promotion, working conditions security, relationships with peers and supervisor (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997). Even though many researchers established scales to measure the job satisfaction, generalizability of the conceptualization is limited in the sense that different job satisfaction levels are levied by the various job characteristics. Therefore, Macdonald and MacIntyre (1997) pointed out that the results of prior research could only be generalizable to the limited populations of their respective samples. Addressing the aforementioned limitation, they developed a scale which proved to be a reliable and valid showing that it is applicable to a wide range of occupational groups. In the present study, this particular scale

was used to assess the job satisfaction of the respondents. This scale consists of 10 items that tap into different aspects of job satisfaction. Reported Cronbach's alpha of the scale is .77. The scale is forming a *reflective* latent variable. The followings are three sample questionnaire items from the scale: (1) "I get along with my supervisors." (2) "All my talents and skills are used." (3) "I feel good about my job." All of the items of this scale can be found in the Table 8. The respondents were asked to check a score for each statement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) that most closely describes their opinion of each of item.

Table 8. Items of Job Satisfaction Scale

1	I receive recognition for a job well done.
2	I feel close to the people at work.
3	I feel good about working at this organization.
4	I feel secure in my job.
5	I believe management is concerned about me.
6	On the whole, I believe work is good for my physical health.
7	My wages are good.
8	All my talents and skills are used at work.
9	I get along with my supervisors.
10	I feel good about my job

3.3. Control Variables

A number of control variables were employed in the present study: Tenure (in years), income, gender, number of employees in the organization, profit seeking/non-profit organization, marital status, age, and education. In addition, role ambiguity and job autonomy were included in the present model as social psychological factors that might very well change the nature of relationships among organizational attitudes and behaviors. The

definition of role ambiguity is “existence or clarity of behavioral requirements, often in terms of inputs from the environment, which would serve to guide behavior and provide knowledge that the behavior is appropriate” (Rizzo et al., 1970, p. 156). Role ambiguity scale was adopted from Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) and reported Cronbach’s alpha is .78. Job autonomy is “the degree to which job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman and Oldham, 1976, p. 258). Job autonomy scale was adopted from Hackman & Oldham (1980) and they reported that Cronbach’s alpha is .78. For job autonomy and role ambiguity, 3 indicators and 6 indicators form their respective latent variables. These two latent variables are *reflective* in nature and all the indicators are provided in the Table 9 and 10 below. These variables are operationalized as latent variables. Education and number of employees in the organization are categorical variables. Education variable has a range of 1(high school) to 8 (post-doc) and number of employees in the organization has a range of 1 (1-50 people) to 5 (1001 and more people).

Table 9. Items of Job Autonomy Scale

1	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

Table 10. Items of Role Ambiguity Scale

1	I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
2	I know that I have divided my time properly
3	I know what my responsibilities are.
4	I know exactly what is expected of me.
5	I feel certain about how much authority I have on the job.
6	Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

3.4. Survey Design

All scales were compiled into a questionnaire with a sentence clarifying the instructions. The survey was translated to Turkish by the present author and it was back-translated to English by another bilingual professional. Then, two persons elaborated on the accuracy and the equivalency of the constructs and statements in two languages. Except for a few wording issues, almost all of the items were left without discussion. The initial rater congruence was very high. Considering that there is 63 survey items in all of the scales, rater congruence was more than 90%. Any discrepancies were fixed throughout the discussion making sure the respondents were asked the equivalent questions in both versions. English and Turkish paper copy versions of survey are given in Appendix B and C, respectively.

The general format of the soft and hard copies of the survey, the wording of the demographic variable items, and the general survey instructions were shaped by the discussions with the Ph.D. students majoring in a business discipline as well as with the faculty members. Focus group is a supportive research method employed in the present dissertation. The focus group of three Ph.D. students was simply asked to participate in the survey, therefore they were asked to provide their reflections about the survey in terms of timing, the quality of questions, how clear the statements were, and how the item wordings could be improved. Such discussions helped to shape the instructions of the survey as well as formatting and making visible the help statements for respondents. Help statements simply describe the way respondents select an answer for survey items (see below for survey instructions and help statements).

Survey Instructions

This survey is administered by Aziz Bakay, Ph.D. candidate at Texas A&M International University. This survey is anonymous. The information you provide will not be shared with anybody. You are not asked to identify yourself in this questionnaire in any way. If you wish to be notified about the results of this survey, please send a request email to azizbakay@dusty.tamtu.edu. Participation in this survey is voluntary. Thank you.

Help Statements

- 1- Please **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) **to the left of each statement** that describes your opinion of each of the items.
- 2- Please read the sentences below and **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) **to the left of the items** on the designated place for each of the three objects: My Peers, My Supervisor, and Top Management.
- 3- Please indicate **to the left of each statement** the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements.

3.5. Data Collection

Data was collected from professionals in two countries; Turkey and United States. Two versions of each survey, paper and electronic copies were prepared. The survey's electronic copy was posted on the principal investigators personal website as well as another professional's internet domain. Besides, the links to the survey and to principal investigator's personal website were emailed to a number of professionals working in the US and Turkey. Principal investigator inputted data of those who filled the paper survey. Variable codes are

given in Appendix D. Data collection took place between January 9th, 2012 and February 16th 2012.

3.6. Sample

Sample was collected from two countries: Turkey and United States. Descriptive statistics and sample characteristics are given in Table 11. Sample sizes for the US and Turkey were recorded as 163 and 140, respectively. 16 observations for which the respondents provided their location somewhere else than the US and Turkey were deleted (Canada 7, China 1, Mexico 1, UK 6, Thailand 1). After deleting for another 3 observations from the US sample including the duplicate items and incomplete surveys, pooled sample had 284 observations. The Turkey sample included 134 observations whereas US sample included 150 observations. 59% of the pooled sample reported to be married. Of those who reported their gender, 41% were female. Average age was found to be 36. On average, respondents had 13.6 years of total experience. The number of years worked with the current or last organization (if unemployed at the time of survey) was 6.3 years on average. Average annual income of the Turkey and US samples were \$24,185 and \$52,479, respectively. Those who have Bachelor's degree constituted the 25% and 33% of the US sample and the Turkey sample, respectively.

3.7. Statistical Analysis Using Partial Least Square

Data analysis was conducted using partial least square (PLS). The data analysis using PLS has a number advantages over other techniques including co-variance based structural equation modeling (SEM) and multiple regression analysis (Kock, 2010). PLS as opposed to co-variance based SEM techniques and regression analyses, does not require normality

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables

Variables	US Sample	Turkey Sample	Pooled Sample
Age	40.0	32.9	36.5
Nonprofit org.	55 %	43 %	49 %
Experience (in years)	17.3	9.8	13.6
Tenure (in years)	6.8	5.9	6.3
Married	59 %	60 %	59 %
Average Income	\$52,479	\$24,185	\$38,090
High School	9 %	5 %	7 %
Some College	7 %	3 %	5 %
Bachelor's	25 %	33 %	29 %
Graduate Certificate	1 %	4 %	2 %
Master's Degree	30 %	29 %	30 %
Some Doctoral	8 %	4 %	6 %
Ph.D. Degree	19 %	17 %	19 %
Post-doc	1 %	4 %	2 %

assumption for the variable distributions. The structural equation modeling could be based on an exploratory relationship using PLS in addition to a confirmatory analysis. The PLS analysis allows researchers to analyze path analysis involving several regression analysis. Moreover, co-variance based SEM usually require larger sample size and reflective indicators to form latent variables, however, PLS can produce stable path coefficients and significant p-values with samples sizes less than 100 (Kock, 2012).

Even though most of the relations between natural and behavioral phenomenon are not linear, structural equation modeling software tools capture linear relationships between constructs of interest, ignoring the non-linear associations. Taking into consideration of the non-linearity between latent variables is indeed an inevitable aspect of a robust analysis. However, with the current structural equation modeling software tools, researchers are unable to account for the non-linear associations in a PLS analyses. The only exception to this limitation is the WarpPLS software (Kock, 2011a). Researchers can employ WarpPLS software that allows for non-normal data analysis as well as exploratory and confirmatory

factor analysis, and path relationships accounting for the non-linear nature of the links. It generates indicator loadings and cross-loadings as well as the general model fit indices. WarpPLS accounts for not only non-linearity; but also it captures the nature of the non-linear association between latent variables. Therefore the software identifies the cyclicity of the non-linear relationship that includes non-cyclical (U- or J-curves) and mono-cyclical (S-curves) relationships (Kock, 2011b). The software estimations default to a lower degree of relationship in the cases of unsupported hypothesized relationships (Kock, 2010). For instance, if the hypothesized relationship is an S-curve, software defaults to J-curve or linear relationship if the software cannot find support. Moderation effects can also be estimated using WarpPLS.

WarpPLS also allows researchers to estimate mediating effects between two other variables using Baron and Kenny's (1986) criteria (Kock, 2011a). The three sampling techniques WarpPLS offers are Jackknifing, Bootstrapping and Blindfolding. Jackknifing as an effective resampling method tackles the outliers and estimates more reliable P values with small sample sizes (less than 100 observations). Jackknifing can also produce good results in the presence of outliers that might be either due to the nature of the data or errors in collection of data (Kock, 2011a).

4. MODEL ASSESSMENT

4.1. Model Fit Indices and General Model Elements

Model fit was assessed by three measures: Average path coefficient (APC), average R-squared (ARS), and average variance inflation factor (VIF) (Table 12). As long as the first two are significant under 5% level and the third measure is lower than 5, one can conclude that there is a good fit of the model with the data (Kock, 2012; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). ARS in two samples are not statistically significant, remaining measures indicate there is a good fit of the model. This might be an indication of Simpson's paradox (Kock, 2012; Wagner, 1982) which is characterized by the fact that the correlation and path coefficient of a predictor latent variable with respect to a criterion latent variable have the opposite signs. This occurrence implies that those certain paths might be improbable / nonsensical or direction of relationship is reversed (Kock, 2012). Therefore, these paths in the model reduce the explained variance in the criterion variable. Further elaboration, elimination of improbable/nonsensical paths and analysis of revised model addressing this occurrence may be found in the Appendix E.

Table 12. General SEM Analysis Results

	US Sample	Turkey Sample
APC=	0.105, P<0.001	0.120, P<0.001
ARS=	0.154, P=0.273	0.196, P=0.924
AVIF=	1.507, Good if < 5	1.573, Good if < 5
Algorithm used in the analysis:	Warp2 PLS regression	Warp2 PLS regression
Resampling method used in the analysis:	Jackknifing	Jackknifing
Number of cases (rows) in model data:	150	134

Resampling method for the current study is jackknifing. Compared to bootstrapping, jackknifing method resulted in more stable coefficients. There was no substantial difference observed with blindfolding resampling method. Using jackknifing is believed to generate better outcomes for data with outliers and smaller sample sizes (i.e., $n < 100$) (Kock, 2012). In the current research, for each indicator there were missing observations (i.e., only several percentage of the sample) and the sample size is 150 and 134 for the US sample and the Turkey sample, respectively. Thus, due to the presence of outliers, jackknifing method outperformed other resampling methods.

WarpPLS 3.0 offers several algorithms for analysis: Warp3 PLS Regression, Warp2 PLS Regression, PLS Regression, and Robust Path Analysis. Considering the nature of the sample data, the Warp2 PLS Regression algorithm was employed in the present study and it generated better results (i.e., stable coefficients) compared to other algorithms. Warp2 PLS is an algorithm that recognizes “a U-curve relationship between latent variables, and, if that relationship exists, the algorithm transforms (or “warps”) the scores of the predictor latent variables” allowing that the estimated path coefficients reveal the actual nature of the U-shaped relationship (Kock, 2012, p.11).

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

Tables 13 and 14 show the pairwise correlations, means and standard deviations of all the variables used in the current research for the US sample and the Turkey sample, respectively. The mean comparison using a t-test was carried out for each of the latent variables. Table 15 shows the mean comparison tests results of the latent variables employed

Table 13. Pairwise Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations - The US Sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ITT	RA	JA	TEN	EXP	INC	AGE	FEMALE	EDU	MARRIED	NPROFIT	NUMPEOPLE	
PtT	1																			
TiP	0.3108*	1																		
TiS	0.3669*	0.5672*	1																	
TiM	0.3557*	0.4514*	0.7687*	1																
AC	0.2425*	0.1895*	0.2887*	0.3497*	1															
JS	0.132	0.0961	0.3217*	0.3035*	0.7160*	1														
JP	0.0221	-0.0318	0.0935	0.1066	0.2640*	0.2141*	1													
ITT	-0.1680*	-0.1063	-0.1827*	-0.2818*	-0.7224*	-0.5871*	-0.0626	1												
RA	0.0063	-0.0061	-0.0793	-0.1191	-0.0811	-0.0737	-0.0381	0.0982	1											
JA	0.0609	-0.0815	-0.1466	-0.1452	0.0197	-0.0001	-0.0342	0.024	0.5689*	1										
TEN	0.1673	0.1077	0.1049	0.0971	0.2422*	0.1647	0.1426	-0.3714*	-0.0892	0.0653	1									
EXP	0.2351*	0.1111	0.1903*	0.1593	0.2551*	0.1674	0.1977*	-0.3908*	-0.0207	0.0211	0.6024*	1								
INC	0.1703	0.174	0.1865*	0.0748	0.0733	0.0901	0.1452	-0.0791	0.0387	0.0921	0.3082*	0.4096*	1							
AGE	0.2693*	0.1435	0.1953*	0.1880*	0.2850*	0.1626	0.2225*	-0.3933*	0.0242	0.0877	0.5835*	0.8661*	0.4407*	1						
FEMALE	-0.0257	-0.0117	0.0383	-0.0011	0.0069	0.0576	0.0386	0.0625	-0.0327	-0.0229	0.1812*	0.0837	-0.076	0.0232	1					
EDU	0.2026*	0.2125*	0.1134	0.0205	0.0095	-0.0372	0.0591	0.0721	0.0456	0.0117	-0.0315	0.1499	0.4419*	0.2229*	-0.1989*	1				
MARRIED	0.161	-0.0866	0.129	0.1219	0.0756	0.1451	0.1345	-0.0694	-0.0938	0.0759	0.1900*	0.3481*	0.2734*	0.3165*	-0.0651	0.0873	1			
NPROFIT	0.1886*	0.0086	0.013	-0.0228	0.0857	0.0538	0.1077	0.0049	0.0179	-0.0189	0.0075	0.1211	0.2552*	0.1614	-0.0273	0.3095*	-0.0461	1		
NUMPEOPLE	0.0278	-0.014	0.0071	-0.0759	0.1034	0.1195	-0.0687	-0.0992	0.0942	0.0339	-0.0035	-0.0506	-0.1016	-0.0001	0.1085	0.0098	-0.0407	0.0185	1	
MEAN	2.92	3.28	3.27	3.14	3.47	3.54	3.21	2.71	3.79	3.84	6.81	17.35	52479	40.04	0.56	4.39	0.59	0.55	2.25	
STD DEV	0.59	0.84	0.90	0.88	0.89	0.75	0.76	0.89	0.81	0.89	6.97	12.98	30197	13.36	0.50	1.93	0.49	0.50	1.43	
MIN	1.67	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	10000	16	0	1	0	0	1	
MAX	4.67	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	37	48	200000	71	1	8	1	1	5	

Table 14. Pairwise Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations – The Turkey Sample

	PT	TIP	TIS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ITT	RA	JA	TEN	EXP	INC	AGE	FEMALE	EDU	MARRIED	NPROFIT	NUMPEOPLE	
PT	1																			
TIP	0.2432*	1																		
TIS	0.2822*	0.5920*	1																	
TiM	0.2411*	0.3404*	0.6776*	1																
AC	0.1977*	0.3040*	0.2928*	0.2751*	1															
JS	0.2903*	0.2096*	0.3191*	0.3258*	0.5426*	1														
JP	0.1912*	0.0321	-0.0364	-0.0854	0.133	0.14	1													
ITT	-0.1733*	-0.1566	-0.1860*	-0.2091*	-0.6143*	-0.5227*	-0.0223	1												
RA	0.1771*	0.0893	0.02	0.0201	-0.0321	0.0638	0.0564	0.0161	1											
JA	-0.0513	0.0572	-0.0916	-0.0372	0.1122	0.1105	0.2785*	-0.1538	0.3688*	1										
TEN	0.1924*	-0.0613	-0.0742	-0.0504	0.1657	0.1748*	0.2939*	-0.1904*	-0.1141	-0.0834	1									
EXP	0.2101*	0.0478	0.1101	0.0964	0.2470*	0.3285*	0.2871*	-0.3348*	-0.0851	0.0225	0.6506*	1								
INC	-0.0285	0.0027	-0.0835	-0.0525	-0.127	-0.1155	-0.1581	0.0016	-0.0884	-0.1298	0.2156*	0.1505	1							
AGE	0.1552	0.0119	0.0613	0.0366	0.1842*	0.2070*	0.2040*	-0.3370*	-0.0717	0.0467	0.5381*	0.9055*	0.1761	1						
FEMALE	0.089	-0.017	0.0143	0.072	-0.1083	0.1344	-0.0467	0.1738	0.0884	-0.0744	-0.2073*	-0.2837*	-0.137	-0.2682*	1					
EDU	0.0155	0.0604	0.1393	-0.0685	0.1258	0.1458	0.1299	-0.2196*	-0.047	-0.048	0.2416*	0.4189*	0.0599	0.4719*	-0.1969*	1				
MARRIED	0.0745	0.0331	0.092	0.0993	0.1682	0.1328	0.2604*	-0.3612*	0.1212	0.0681	0.2923*	0.4973*	-0.0213	0.5006*	-0.3434*	0.3868*	1			
NPROFIT	0.1647	0.1171	0.0723	-0.1571	0.3125*	0.2009*	0.0986	-0.2284*	-0.1776*	-0.0078	0.2301*	0.4287*	-0.0502	0.4339*	-0.1948*	0.3855*	0.1957*	1		
NUMPEOPLE	0.0455	0.119	0.1747*	0.1497	0.2230*	0.012	0.0312	-0.0958	-0.0811	0.0495	0.0593	0.0341	0.3287*	0.0847	-0.1652	0.0613	0.0863	-0.0601	1	
MEAN	2.80	2.96	3.06	2.93	3.54	3.59	3.41	2.76	3.84	3.84	5.95	9.85	24185	32.95	0.25	4.56	0.60	0.43	2.28	
STD DEV	0.57	0.82	0.78	0.87	0.81	0.59	0.71	0.75	0.55	0.79	6.48	7.64	16657	8.40	0.44	1.83	0.49	0.50	1.46	
MIN	1.67	1	1	1	1.5	2.17	1.56	1	2.17	1.67	0	0	2	19	0	1	0	0	1	
MAX	4.17	4.67	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	28	30	90000	57	1	8	1	1	5	

in the SEM model for both of the samples. Comparing the means of two independent samples and using a t-test, one should check for the following assumptions: Random sampling, populations with normal distribution and equal variance of two samples (Park, 2009). T-test results may be distorted due to non-normality and skewness in the distributions. Therefore, normality tests were conducted for each latent variable. In the US sample, Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that trust variables (PtT, TiP, TiS and TiM) are all normally distributed and test statistics are not statistically significant to reject the normality hypotheses. For three out of four workplace outcome variables (AC, JP, and JS) as well as role ambiguity and job autonomy test results suggested non-normality. Similarly, in the Turkey sample all trust variables (PtT, TiP, TiS and TiM) were found to have a normal distribution. For only AC, RA and JA variables normality hypotheses were rejected. The remaining latent variables were found to be normally distributed. Considering the non-normal nature of the data distribution of some of the latent variables, one should be cautious in interpreting the t-test results.

Table 15. Results of the Mean Comparison Tests across Samples

Latent Variable	US			TR			Mean Comparison p-value (one tail)
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Normal dist.?	Mean	Std. Dev.	Normal dist.?	
PtT	2.92	.59	✓	2.80	.56	✓	.039 **
TiP	3.28	.84	✓	2.98	.82	✓	.000 ***
TiS	3.27	.90	✓	3.07	.78	✓	.020 **
TiM	3.14	.88	✓	2.93	.87	✓	.017 **
AC	3.47	.89	✗	3.54	.81	✗	.242 ^{NS}
ItT	2.71	.89	✓	2.75	.75	✓	.311 ^{NS}
JP	3.21	.76	✗	3.40	.70	✓	.014 **
JS	3.54	.75	✗	3.59	.59	✓	.295 ^{NS}
RA	3.79	.81	✗	3.84	.55	✗	.266 ^{NS}
JA	3.84	.89	✗	3.84	.79	✗	.479 ^{NS}

Notes: PtT= Propensity to trust, TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover, RA=Role ambiguity, JA=Job autonomy.

Significance levels: 1% (***), 5% (**), 10% (*). ^{NS}: Not significant.

The variances of two samples for each of the latent variables were contrasted and for those latent variables of equal (PtT, TiP, TiM, JP, AC, and JA) and unequal variances, separate procedures were adopted in STATA software for t-tests.

In the Table 15 above, all the trust variables (PtT, TiP, TiS and TiM) have higher means in the US sample and job performance has statistically higher mean in Turkey than the US. Affective commitment, intention to turnover, job satisfaction, role ambiguity and job autonomy did not have statistically different means across samples. In the Table 16 below, the results of the mean comparison tests for the trust variables are given. These tests were carried out within samples and therefore the significant p-values indicate that within the US sample or the Turkey sample there is statistical difference between the means of the specified two latent variables. In the US sample, it was found that trust in peers and trust in supervisor are not statistically different from each other. Therefore, means of these two variables are statistically higher than the mean of trust in top management variable. In the Turkey sample, it was found that the highest mean is of trust in supervisor and it is statistically different (i.e., higher) than the means of other two variables. Means of trust in peers and trust in top management are not statistically different than each other.

Table 16. Results of the Mean Comparison Tests within Samples

Sample	Latent Variable 1	Mean	Std. Dev.	Latent Variable 2	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean Comparison p-value (one tail)
US	TiP	3.28	.84	TiS	3.27	.90	.44 ^{NS}
	TiP	3.28	.84	TiM	3.14	.88	.05 **
	TiS	3.27	.90	TiM	3.14	.88	.00 ***
TR	TiP	2.98	.82	TiS	3.07	.78	.05**
	TiP	2.98	.82	TiM	2.93	.87	.34 ^{NS}
	TiS	3.07	.78	TiM	2.93	.87	.00 ***

Notes: TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, Significance levels: 1% (***), 5% (**), 10% (*). ^{NS}: Not significant.

4.3. Measurement Model

An analysis was conducted using WarpPLS 3.0. The full collinearity check before the actual SEM analysis revealed that the collinearity with respect to TEXP (total experience in years) variable may be problematic. VIF score of TEXP variable was found to be just above 7. Therefore, this variable was excluded from the SEM analysis in both samples. The VIF scores of the latent variables were obtained after the SEM analysis and reported in this section below.

The current study employed confirmatory factor analysis. The relationships between indicators and the latent variables were already defined. Loadings and cross-loadings of indicators for two samples are shown in the Tables 17 and 18 below. Because these loadings are from a structure matrix (i.e., unrotated), all the loadings are between -1 and +1 (Kock, 2012). Cross-loadings were reported from pattern matrix (i.e., rotated). In order to show that the model has acceptable convergent validity, the loadings should be higher than 0.5 and p-values associated with the loadings should be lower than 0.05 (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2009). All of the loadings for two samples except one are higher than 0.5 and significant under 0.001 level. As it can be seen in the tables below, those indicators that do not load higher than .5 on the respective latent variable were dropped. Therefore, in the US sample the numbers of indicators for the latent variables of PiT, TiP, TiS, TiM, AC, JS, JP, ItT, RA, and JA are 6, 2, 2, 2, 7, 6, 9, 7, 6 and 3, respectively. In the Turkey sample, the numbers of indicators are 6, 3, 3, 3, 6, 6, 9, 7, 6, and 3 respectively.

Using the average variance extracted (AVE) coefficients; discriminant validity of the latent variables can be shown (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003). This method is also

Table 17. Loadings and Cross-loadings - The US Sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ItT	RA	JA
PtT 2	(0.619)	-0.052	-0.086	0.125	-0.063	0.201	-0.068	0.075	-0.151	0.118
PtT 3	(0.665)	0.268	-0.162	-0.009	-0.061	0.052	0.138	-0.154	-0.141	0.198
PtT 5	(0.597)	-0.392	0.226	-0.073	0.172	-0.005	-0.150	0.262	0.023	-0.134
PtT 6	(0.712)	-0.216	-0.014	0.168	-0.069	-0.091	-0.021	-0.061	0.110	-0.113
PtT 7	(0.650)	0.008	0.300	-0.226	0.136	-0.217	0.053	0.038	0.224	-0.165
PtT 8	(0.545)	0.599	-0.581	0.221	-0.188	0.128	0.040	-0.206	-0.135	0.131
TiP 3	0.001	(0.768)	-0.162	0.284	-0.174	-0.037	0.049	-0.213	0.014	-0.056
TiP 4	-0.007	(0.806)	0.082	-0.192	0.141	0.039	-0.046	0.192	-0.014	0.050
TiS 3	-0.153	0.053	(0.740)	0.633	-0.030	-0.109	0.059	-0.099	-0.006	0.046
TiS 4	0.105	-0.028	(0.871)	-0.392	0.025	0.068	-0.052	0.083	0.017	-0.044
TiM 3	-0.117	0.070	-0.183	(0.744)	-0.028	-0.154	0.058	-0.218	0.071	-0.033
TiM 4	0.087	-0.055	0.086	(0.807)	0.023	0.119	-0.057	0.207	-0.049	0.024
AC 1	0.062	0.055	0.028	0.027	(0.825)	-0.087	0.028	-0.222	0.004	-0.024
AC 2	0.034	0.340	-0.085	-0.012	(0.738)	0.082	0.088	-0.082	-0.028	0.018
AC 3	0.069	-0.226	0.249	-0.035	(0.644)	-0.045	-0.008	0.262	-0.054	0.097
AC 5	-0.099	-0.228	0.173	0.027	(0.796)	0.123	0.022	-0.113	0.082	0.070
AC 6	-0.042	-0.138	0.007	0.039	(0.808)	-0.199	-0.128	0.213	0.023	-0.042
AC 7	0.059	0.120	-0.183	-0.032	(0.849)	-0.017	0.001	0.020	-0.060	-0.088
AC 8	-0.081	-0.018	-0.155	0.170	(0.871)	0.015	-0.004	0.068	0.066	-0.023
JS 1	-0.161	-0.061	-0.002	0.203	-0.029	(0.759)	0.012	-0.132	-0.017	0.156
JS 2	0.077	0.450	-0.591	0.143	0.114	(0.701)	0.000	0.254	-0.168	-0.144
JS 4	0.085	-0.105	0.328	-0.173	-0.140	(0.782)	0.050	-0.087	-0.020	0.124
JS 5	0.062	-0.189	-0.214	0.370	-0.044	(0.780)	-0.073	0.251	0.083	0.051
JS 8	0.002	0.006	-0.030	-0.109	0.173	(0.695)	-0.073	-0.081	0.031	-0.179
JS 9	-0.097	-0.121	0.544	-0.364	0.088	(0.701)	0.090	-0.170	0.126	-0.051
JP 1	-0.026	-0.171	0.361	-0.185	-0.247	0.432	(0.545)	-0.111	0.037	-0.089
JP 2	0.095	-0.137	0.288	-0.212	-0.014	0.003	(0.766)	0.056	-0.036	0.009
JP 3	0.097	-0.078	0.111	-0.102	0.035	-0.019	(0.794)	0.089	0.016	-0.044
JP 4	0.172	0.073	-0.130	0.032	0.186	-0.189	(0.804)	-0.037	-0.112	0.167
JP 5	-0.070	-0.032	0.029	-0.069	0.169	-0.100	(0.813)	-0.011	0.005	-0.077
JP 6	-0.029	-0.105	0.179	0.008	-0.023	-0.123	(0.862)	0.007	-0.102	0.103
JP 7	-0.090	0.017	-0.074	0.198	0.058	-0.005	(0.794)	0.090	0.006	-0.060
JP 8	-0.144	0.151	-0.178	0.128	-0.035	0.020	(0.834)	0.028	0.065	-0.013
JP 9	-0.006	0.064	-0.362	0.216	-0.108	-0.049	(0.788)	-0.101	0.131	-0.053
ItT 1	-0.114	-0.226	0.245	-0.185	0.086	-0.007	-0.081	(0.710)	0.062	-0.006
ItT 2	0.108	0.243	0.101	-0.319	0.187	0.005	0.024	(0.786)	-0.123	0.062
ItT 3	-0.141	0.086	-0.284	0.213	0.253	-0.113	0.043	(0.823)	-0.031	0.060
ItT 4	-0.079	-0.019	-0.089	0.143	-0.442	0.207	0.007	(0.721)	0.011	-0.071
ItT 5	0.073	0.020	0.012	-0.009	-0.136	0.043	-0.007	(0.909)	-0.033	0.010
ItT 6	-0.006	-0.074	0.074	0.007	-0.034	-0.126	0.032	(0.664)	0.135	-0.133
ItT 7	0.147	-0.065	0.090	-0.082	-0.058	0.047	-0.006	(0.767)	-0.054	0.092
RA 1	0.017	0.007	-0.152	0.093	-0.029	0.148	-0.027	0.079	(0.884)	0.163
RA 2	0.016	-0.138	0.562	-0.363	0.035	-0.294	-0.035	-0.192	(0.741)	0.215
RA 3	-0.081	0.057	0.015	-0.028	0.008	-0.134	-0.055	-0.195	(0.767)	-0.091
RA 4	0.064	-0.122	0.099	-0.144	0.040	0.048	0.045	0.135	(0.971)	-0.018
RA 5	-0.103	0.085	0.051	0.028	0.052	-0.056	0.069	0.023	(0.926)	0.052
RA 6	0.103	0.128	-0.415	0.255	-0.190	0.211	-0.007	-0.038	(0.763)	-0.098
JA 1	0.006	-0.004	-0.029	0.029	-0.020	-0.095	0.026	-0.065	-0.024	(0.938)
JA 2	-0.055	-0.097	0.233	-0.077	-0.072	0.048	0.005	0.016	0.026	(0.905)
JA 3	0.059	0.089	-0.140	-0.013	0.073	0.037	-0.027	0.010	-0.124	(0.930)

Notes: PtT= Propensity to trust, TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover, RA=Role ambiguity, JA=Job autonomy.

Table 18. Loadings and Cross-loadings – The Turkey Sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ItT	RA	JA
PtT 2	(0.679)	-0.445	0.652	-0.324	0.111	-0.079	0.159	-0.050	0.257	-0.358
PtT 3	(0.490)	-0.104	-0.384	0.336	-0.208	0.089	0.147	-0.095	-0.002	0.106
PtT 5	(0.620)	0.269	-0.411	0.230	-0.079	0.031	-0.044	0.047	-0.051	0.071
PtT 6	(0.654)	0.158	-0.314	0.065	0.150	0.042	-0.021	0.150	-0.069	-0.005
PtT 7	(0.557)	0.187	-0.157	0.109	0.069	-0.014	-0.179	0.098	-0.158	0.238
PtT 8	(0.512)	0.098	0.383	-0.369	-0.220	0.009	-0.091	-0.296	0.033	0.030
TiP 1	0.127	(0.748)	0.140	-0.155	0.420	-0.101	-0.162	0.083	-0.203	0.275
TiP 2	-0.321	(0.686)	-0.325	0.519	-0.472	0.265	0.100	-0.123	0.248	-0.264
TiP 4	0.186	(0.683)	0.197	-0.353	-0.006	-0.118	0.076	0.002	0.010	-0.052
TiS 1	0.062	-0.223	(0.765)	-0.205	0.282	-0.160	-0.127	-0.103	-0.147	0.125
TiS 2	-0.334	0.320	(0.613)	0.552	-0.570	0.304	0.023	-0.031	0.261	-0.339
TiS 4	0.187	-0.039	(0.728)	-0.253	0.124	-0.039	0.100	0.091	-0.018	0.112
TiM 1	-0.001	-0.159	-0.161	(0.663)	0.045	-0.179	-0.144	-0.249	-0.167	0.171
TiM 2	-0.149	0.145	-0.369	(0.778)	-0.211	0.139	0.104	0.057	0.209	-0.144
TiM 4	0.146	-0.012	0.496	(0.754)	0.143	0.056	0.010	0.116	-0.030	-0.024
AC 1	0.043	-0.001	0.178	-0.096	(0.664)	-0.021	-0.055	-0.556	0.129	-0.041
AC 3	-0.052	0.090	0.001	0.059	(0.567)	0.227	0.260	-0.375	0.024	-0.287
AC 5	-0.081	0.093	-0.058	0.006	(0.755)	-0.053	-0.152	0.352	-0.086	0.000
AC 6	0.049	-0.114	0.051	-0.068	(0.844)	-0.172	0.150	-0.084	0.091	0.058
AC 7	0.200	-0.037	0.086	-0.113	(0.735)	0.209	-0.018	0.018	-0.120	0.043
AC 8	-0.145	-0.004	-0.199	0.114	(0.842)	0.069	-0.082	0.207	0.002	0.008
JS 1	0.005	-0.079	-0.091	-0.120	0.022	(0.644)	0.123	-0.086	-0.054	-0.071
JS 2	-0.208	0.140	0.096	0.197	-0.231	(0.572)	0.072	-0.201	0.270	-0.283
JS 4	0.175	0.076	-0.279	0.010	0.045	(0.647)	-0.033	-0.025	-0.256	0.145
JS 5	0.120	-0.191	0.209	-0.095	-0.128	(0.653)	0.131	-0.315	-0.212	0.082
JS 8	0.048	0.104	-0.183	0.027	0.159	(0.644)	-0.049	0.227	0.168	-0.221
JS 9	-0.180	-0.002	0.231	-0.091	0.005	(0.499)	-0.265	0.327	0.145	0.282
JP 1	-0.089	0.073	-0.143	0.251	-0.185	0.361	(0.586)	-0.122	0.056	0.019
JP 2	-0.167	0.023	-0.247	0.248	-0.225	0.150	(0.776)	-0.098	0.103	-0.104
JP 3	-0.084	0.033	-0.227	0.259	-0.117	-0.110	(0.806)	-0.114	-0.003	-0.003
JP 4	0.003	0.038	-0.423	0.307	0.076	0.062	(0.759)	-0.016	0.152	-0.122
JP 5	0.006	-0.110	-0.066	0.149	0.146	-0.214	(0.833)	0.065	0.102	0.030
JP 6	-0.012	0.031	0.093	-0.108	0.219	-0.257	(0.733)	0.108	-0.123	0.009
JP 7	0.022	0.043	0.512	-0.505	0.146	-0.139	(0.709)	0.154	-0.116	-0.034
JP 8	0.078	-0.087	0.568	-0.630	0.157	-0.014	(0.673)	0.099	-0.156	0.045
JP 9	0.171	0.103	-0.128	-0.003	-0.372	0.267	(0.706)	-0.130	-0.080	0.029
ItT 1	0.123	-0.210	0.166	-0.097	0.236	-0.084	-0.211	(0.580)	-0.130	0.341
ItT 3	-0.058	0.114	-0.106	0.035	-0.009	0.178	-0.023	(0.736)	-0.045	-0.037
ItT 4	-0.033	-0.125	0.037	-0.015	0.174	-0.216	0.000	(0.707)	0.069	0.118
ItT 5	-0.132	0.127	0.018	0.103	-0.135	0.022	-0.014	(0.758)	0.039	-0.199
ItT 6	0.215	0.008	-0.007	-0.210	-0.042	0.221	0.026	(0.537)	-0.055	0.058
ItT 7	-0.034	0.053	-0.079	0.211	-0.091	-0.214	0.162	(0.703)	0.049	-0.107
RA 1	0.202	-0.139	-0.125	0.035	0.088	-0.071	0.045	-0.181	(0.627)	-0.021
RA 2	-0.012	0.008	-0.525	0.101	0.112	0.246	-0.100	0.342	(0.585)	-0.032
RA 3	-0.093	-0.216	-0.006	0.230	0.020	-0.234	0.117	-0.156	(0.661)	-0.055
RA 4	-0.082	0.126	0.140	-0.004	-0.202	0.016	0.089	-0.217	(0.622)	-0.243
RA 5	-0.081	0.069	0.220	-0.169	0.129	-0.191	0.023	-0.042	(0.638)	0.032
RA 6	-0.028	0.193	0.353	-0.237	-0.162	0.117	-0.116	0.076	(0.616)	0.142
JA 1	0.030	0.088	-0.198	0.112	-0.145	0.068	-0.044	0.017	0.033	(0.858)
JA 2	-0.117	0.104	-0.123	0.050	0.065	-0.100	0.055	-0.056	0.078	(0.908)
JA 3	0.096	-0.213	0.341	-0.182	0.038	0.039	-0.001	-0.018	-0.044	(0.829)

Notes: PtT= Propensity to trust, TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover, RA=Role ambiguity, JA=Job autonomy.

known as Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion and it was found to be widely used in research (Ringle, Sarstedt & Straub, 2012). In the Tables 19 and 20 below, the square roots of average variance extracted of latent variables as well as latent variable correlations are shown for the US sample and the Turkey sample, respectively. Square roots of AVEs are given on the diagonal. The criterion is that square roots of the average variance extracted for each latent variable should be higher than any of the correlations of that respective latent variable.

Table 19. Square Roots of AVEs and Latent Variable Correlations – The US Sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ItT	RA	JA
PtT	(0.633)									
TiP	0.329	(0.788)								
TiS	0.336	0.620	(0.808)							
TiM	0.337	0.473	0.761	(0.776)						
AC	0.240	0.212	0.290	0.337	(0.793)					
JS	0.142	0.112	0.341	0.305	0.706	(0.737)				
JP	0.014	-0.029	0.075	0.113	0.248	0.200	(0.783)			
ItT	-0.154	-0.133	-0.202	-0.271	-0.691	-0.551	-0.025	(0.772)		
RA	0.030	0.013	-0.069	-0.090	-0.080	-0.076	-0.043	0.090	(0.847)	
JA	0.072	-0.051	-0.133	-0.108	0.018	-0.011	-0.031	0.031	0.570	(0.924)

Table 20. Square Roots of AVEs and Latent Variable Correlations – The Turkey Sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ItT	RA	JA
PtT	(0.589)									
TiP	0.266	(0.706)								
TiS	0.275	0.565	(0.705)							
TiM	0.260	0.340	0.658	(0.734)						
AC	0.209	0.280	0.277	0.285	(0.741)					
JS	0.271	0.184	0.271	0.305	0.515	(0.612)				
JP	0.149	-0.013	-0.085	-0.136	0.098	0.126	(0.735)			
ItT	-0.154	-0.180	-0.209	-0.244	-0.599	-0.515	0.003	(0.675)		
RA	0.214	0.089	0.048	0.068	-0.022	0.104	0.016	0.017	(0.625)	
JA	-0.038	0.116	-0.040	0.010	0.106	0.159	0.231	-0.165	0.331	(0.866)

Notes for Table 19 & 20: Square roots of average variances extracted (AVE's) shown on diagonal.

PtT= Propensity to trust, TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover, RA=Role ambiguity, JA=Job autonomy.

In the US and the Turkey samples, all of the square roots of AVEs are higher than the correlations of that respective latent variable. This indicates that all the questions in the survey were understood and answered correctly in the way they meant. Respondents directly associated the questions to the underlying latent variables and thereby respondents were not confused by answering the questions with respect to other latent variables. With respect to the relatively lower AVEs (i.e., AVE of PtT in table 19), a discussion by Ping (2005) states that even though AVEs are lower, latent variables with strong reliability coefficients still indicate a good discriminant validity:

“.. acceptably reliable LV's can have less than 50% explained variance (AVE). Nunnally raised his suggested minimum acceptable reliability from 0.7 (Nunnally 1978) to 0.8 (Nunnally 1993) perhaps in response to this. Thus, a compelling demonstration of convergent validity would be an AVE of .5 or above.... Although there is no firm rule for discriminant validity, correlations with other LV's less than |.7| are frequently accepted as evidence of discriminant validity.” (p.2)

In the Tables 21 and 22 below, the R-squared coefficients, composite reliabilities and VIF scores of each dependent variable were given for the US and the Turkey sample, respectively. The R-squared coefficients of the workplace outcomes are between 13% and 34%. Composite reliability coefficients take indicator loadings into consideration. The generally accepted threshold for composite reliability is 0.7 or higher (Hair et al., 1992; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For both the US and the Turkey samples, all of the latent variables have composite reliabilities higher than 0.7.

The full collinearity check was performed and this test is based on the variance inflation factors for each of the latent variables. Traditional and conservative threshold of

VIF scores is 5 or lesser. From a more relaxed perspective VIFs should be lower than 10 (Hair et al., 2009). In the US sample, highest VIF (3.436) was recorded for TiS variable and

Table 21. Latent Variable Coefficients – The US sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ItT	RA	JA
R-squared coefficients		0.108	0.116	0.114	0.207	0.181	0.139	0.215		
Composite reliability	0.800	0.766	0.789	0.752	0.922	0.877	0.934	0.911	0.938	0.946
Full collinearity VIFs	1.377	1.938	3.436	2.713	3.137	2.372	1.249	2.554	1.586	1.599

Table 22. Latent Variable Coefficients – The Turkey Sample

	PtT	TiP	TiS	TiM	AC	JS	JP	ItT	RA	JA
R-squared coefficients		0.075	0.076	0.072	0.347	0.254	0.235	0.313		
Composite reliability	0.759	0.749	0.746	0.777	0.878	0.781	0.913	0.832	0.794	0.900
Full collinearity VIFs	1.424	1.647	2.688	2.251	2.236	1.837	1.434	2.149	1.428	1.445

Notes for Table 21 & 22: PtT= Propensity to trust, TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover, RA=Role ambiguity, JA=Job autonomy.

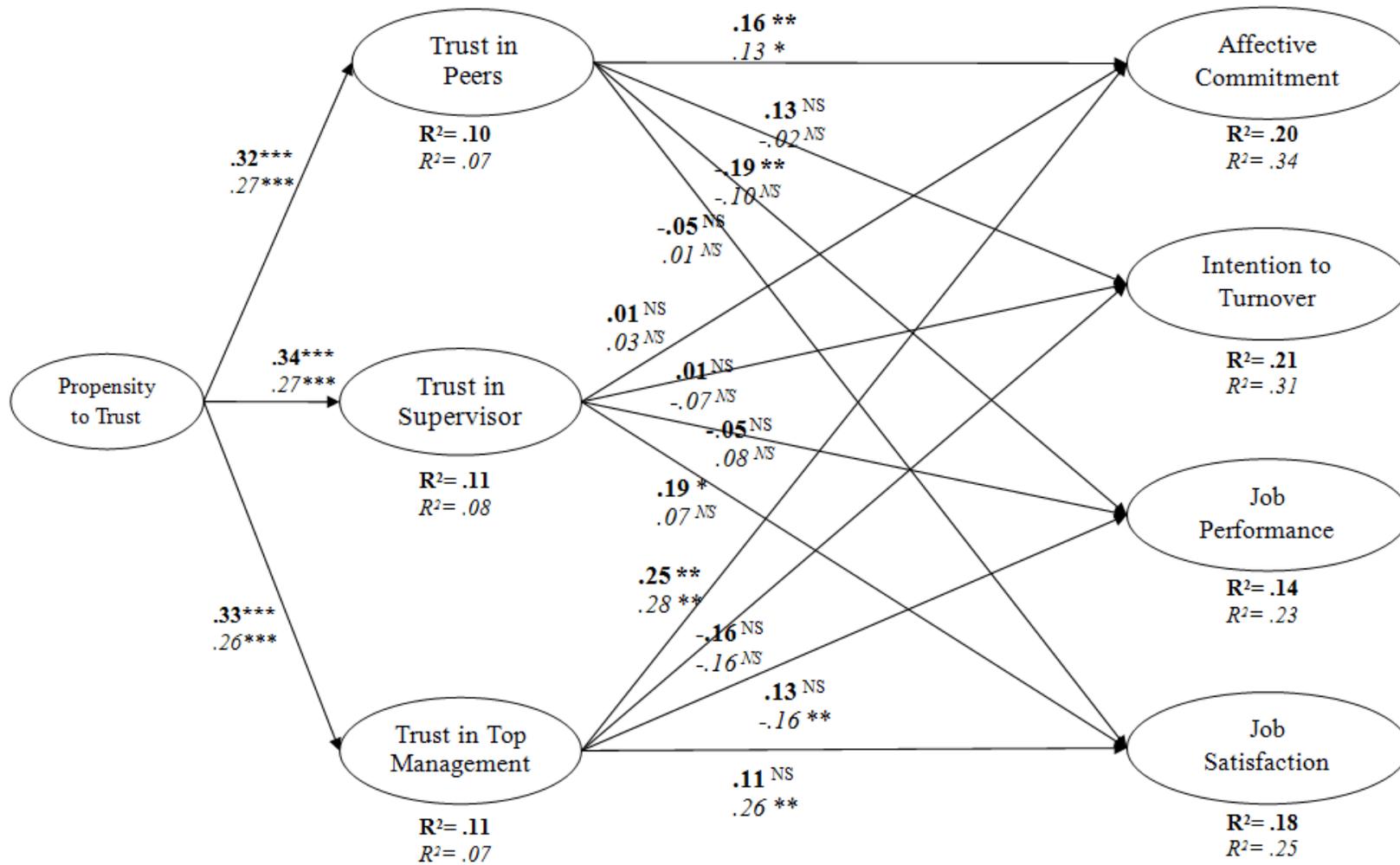
the second highest (3.137) is AC variable. On the other hand, in the Turkey sample the highest VIF (2.688) was recorded for TiS variable. Most of the VIFs scores are even lower than the threshold of 3.3 which was suggested as a cap from the experiences of using WarpPLS 3.0 software for many SEM analyses (Kock, 2012). Considering that the highest VIF score is 3.436 in the current model, existence of no multicollinearity can be strongly stated.

5. RESULTS

5.1. Overview of Results

The means of the latent variables and mean comparisons provide insightful information (Tables 15 and 16). Four variables (PtT, TiP, TiS, and TiM) were reported to have higher means in the US sample than those in the Turkey sample. These differences were found to be statistically significant. Higher propensity to trust in the US sample is consistent with the results of cross-cultural studies of generalized trust (Morrone et al., 2009). Among the remaining latent variables, only JP variable was reported to have higher mean in the Turkey sample than it is in the US sample. This difference was also found to be statistically significant. In two samples, among three objects (i.e., peers, supervisor and top management), the highest trusted party with respect to the mean scores of the latent variables differ. In the US sample, trust in peers was reported to have the highest mean score whereas in the Turkey sample, trust in supervisor was reported to have highest mean score. The lowest mean score within the US sample and within the Turkey sample is of trust in top management.

Estimated path coefficients and the R-squared coefficients for the two samples are provided on the Figure 9 below. All of the variables except the some of the control variables are latent variables in nature. Therefore, the oval shape for latent variables was employed in the graphical depiction of the theoretical model. The control variables included in the model for workplace outcomes are role ambiguity, job autonomy, tenure (in years), income, gender, number of employees in the organization, profit seeking/non-profit organization, marital



Notes: Significance levels are 1% (***), 5% (**), and 10% (*).
Coefficients of the US sample are in bold; coefficients of the Turkey sample are in italic.

Figure 9. Estimated Coefficients of the Path Analysis for the US and the Turkey Samples

status, age, and education. Due to the model complexity, the control variables were not depicted in the Figure 9.

In the Tables 23 and 24 below, the estimated coefficients of the control variables are given for the US and the Turkey samples, respectively. The control variables are used to capture the relevant variance in the dependent variables so that the estimations of the coefficients of the primary latent variables are not distorted. The significance levels for the estimated coefficients are also given. In the US sample, role ambiguity, income, marital status, education, and non-profit organization did not associate with any of the workplace outcome variables. Job autonomy negatively associated with job performance. Higher tenure in terms of number of years with current organization results in lesser intention to turnover. Gender was only associated with intention to turnover and females on average tended to have higher intention to quit. Number of people in the organization as a proxy of the size of the organization is positively associated with affective commitment and job satisfaction. This indicates that in organizations with higher number of employees, higher the emotional bond with the organization is observed. Similarly, the employees feel more satisfied and have lower intention to turnover if the organization is on average larger in size. The job performance of the employee is lower if the organization is larger. Age was found to increase affective commitment whereas there is a negative effect on intention to turnover.

In the Table 24 below, role ambiguity was found to increase the intention to turnover and job satisfaction. Higher the job autonomy is, higher the job satisfaction and lower the intention to turnover are. Tenure is positively associated with affective commitment, job performance and job satisfaction. Income is negatively associated with affective commitment and job performance. Higher the number of people in the organization is, higher the affective commitment. Therefore, employees on average tend to have stronger affective ties to their

Table 23. The Estimated Coefficients of the Control Variables - The US Sample

	RA	JA	TEN	INC	FEM	NPEOP	MARR	EDU	NPROF	AGE
AC	-0.07	0.08	0.08	0.07	-0.04	0.152 **	0.02	0.05	0.11	0.183 **
ItT	0.08	0.03	-0.167 **	-0.04	0.167 **	-0.15 **	0.08	0.13	0.02	-0.294 ***
JP	0.02	-0.108 *	0.01	0.07	0.07	-0.111 *	0.10	0.01	0.08	0.12
JS	-0.03	0.02	0.06	-0.03	0.04	0.165 **	0.12	-0.01	0.07	0.06

Table 24. The Estimated Coefficients of the Control Variables – The Turkey Sample

	RA	JA	TEN	INC	FEM	NPEOP	MARR	EDU	NPROF	AGE
AC	-0.078	0.095	0.176 *	-0.207 **	-0.067	0.209 ***	-0.014	0.015	0.226 **	0.015
ItT	0.121 *	-0.165 **	-0.066	0.092	0.067	-0.126	-0.173 **	0.01	-0.06	-0.147
JP	-0.029	0.165	0.311 ***	-0.276 ***	0.123	0.065	0.107	0.072	-0.034	-0.014
JS	0.188 ***	0.129 *	0.202 **	-0.095	0.124	-0.116	-0.017	0.051	0.13 *	0.018

Notes for Table 23 & 24: AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover, RA=Role ambiguity, JA=Job autonomy. TEN= Tenure in years, INC= Annual income, FEM= Female, NPEOP= Number of people in the organization, MARR= Marital status (1 if married), EDU= Education, NPROF= Non-profit org. Significance levels: 1% (***), 5% (**), 10% (*).

organization if the organization is larger. Being married lowers the intention to turnover. Working with a non-profit organization entails higher affective commitment and lower performance. Gender, education and age did not associate with any of the workplace outcomes significantly.

5.2. Hypotheses Testing

Based on the SEM analysis results, Table 25 shows the results of the hypotheses testing. The hypotheses are supported empirically if the estimated path coefficient is in the hypothesized direction and significant. If an estimated path coefficient is not significant or it is in the opposite direction and significant, the hypothesis is not supported (i.e., rejected). On the right columns of the Table 25, ticks and crosses were reported for the US and the Turkey samples.

Table 25. Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

#	Hypotheses Related to Propensity to Trust	Supported?	
		US	TR
H₁	Propensity to trust is positively associated with trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-.	✓	✓
H_{1a}	Propensity to trust is positively associated the trust in peers.	✓	✓
H_{1b}	Propensity to trust is positively associated the trust in supervisor.	✓	✓
H_{1c}	Propensity to trust is positively associated the trust in top management.	✓	✓
	Hypotheses Related to Affective Commitment		
H₂	Trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with the affective commitment.	partially	partially
H_{2a}	Trust in peers is positively associated with the affective commitment.	✓	✓
H_{2b}	Trust in supervisor is positively associated with the affective commitment.	✗	✗
H_{2c}	Trust in top management is positively associated with the affective commitment.	✓	✓
H_{2d}	Strongest association of the affective commitment is with trust in supervisor.	✗	✗
	Hypotheses Related to Intention to Turnover		
H₃	There are inverse relationships between trust variables –trust in peers/supervisor/top management- and intention to turnover.	✗	✗
H_{3a}	Trust in peers is negatively associated with intention to turnover.	✗	✗
H_{3b}	Trust in supervisor is negatively associated with intention to turnover.	✗	✗
H_{3c}	Trust in top management is negatively associated with intention to turnover.	✗	✗
H_{3d}	Strongest association of the intention to turnover is with trust in supervisor.	✗	✗
	Hypotheses Related to Job Performance		
H₄	Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management- are positively associated with job performance.	✗	✗
H_{4a}	Trust in peers is positively associated with job performance.	✗	✗
H_{4b}	Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job performance.	✗	✗
H_{4c}	Trust in top management is positively associated with job performance.	✗	✗
H_{4d}	Strongest association of the job performance is with trust in supervisor	✗	✗
	Hypotheses Related to Job Satisfaction		
H₅	Trust variables -trust in peers/supervisor/top management-are positively associated with the job satisfaction.	partially	partially
H_{5a}	Trust in peers is positively associated with job satisfaction	✗	✗
H_{5b}	Trust in supervisor is positively associated with job satisfaction	✓	✗
H_{5c}	Trust in top management is positively associated with job satisfaction.	✗	✓
H_{5d}	Strongest association of the job satisfaction is with trust in supervisor.	✓	✗

Hypothesis 1 and its sub-hypotheses (H_{1a} , H_{1b} , and H_{1c}) were supported by the empirical findings. Estimated path coefficients from propensity to trust, pointing to the trust in peers, trust in supervisor and trust in top management are all significant under 1% level in both samples. The magnitude of these coefficients ranges from .329 to .341 for the US sample and .268 to .276 for the Turkey sample. The strongest relationship in the both samples is between propensity to trust and trust in supervisor (.341 and .276 for the US and the Turkey samples, respectively).

Partial support was found for the hypothesis 2. H_{2a} and H_{2c} were supported by the empirical findings in both samples whereas there was no support for H_{2b} and H_{2d} neither in the US nor in the Turkey sample. In both samples, there were no significant associations between trust in supervisor and affective commitment. In two samples, the links between trust in peers and affective commitment proved to be positive and significant under 10% level (.16 and .13 for the US and the Turkey sample, respectively). Similarly, in the two samples, the links between trust in top management and affective commitment were found to be positive and significant under 5% level (.25 and .28 for the US and the Turkey sample, respectively).

Related to hypothesis 3 and its sub-hypotheses (H_{3a} , H_{3b} , H_{3c} , and H_{3d}), there appeared to be no significant association with respect to the three trust variables, therefore rejecting the hypotheses. Even though the most of the estimated path coefficients of trust variables pointing to intention to turnover were negative, the significance levels are too high to make conclusions. The empirical findings showed that the variance in intention to turnover variable could not be explained significantly with any of the three trust variables. Therefore, the hypotheses were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 and its sub-hypotheses (H_{4a} , H_{4b} , H_{4c} , and H_{4d}) were not supported. There are two variables negatively and significantly associated with job performance; trust in peers in the US sample, and trust in top management in the Turkey sample. The remaining trust variables in two samples turned out to have no association with respect to job performance. In the US sample, the relationship between trust in peers and job performance was estimated to be $-.19$ and significant under 5%. In the Turkey sample, the relationship between trust in top management and job performance was estimated to be $-.15$ and significant under 5%. These two significant and negative associations do not support the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 5 received partial support from the empirical results. In the US sample, trust in supervisor is positively associated with job satisfaction ($.19$) and this path coefficient is significant under 10% level. On the other hand in the Turkey sample, trust in top management is positively associated with job satisfaction ($.25$) and it is significant under 5% level. Remaining trust variables are not significantly associated with job satisfaction therefore only H_{5b} for the US sample and only H_{5c} for the Turkey sample are supported.

5.3. Path Coefficient Comparisons

Below, Table 26 shows the comparisons of the path coefficients of two samples. T-tests were employed to test for the multi-group difference effect when the research includes two or more samples that are generally collected in multiple countries. This test allows researchers to see whether there are statistically significant differences between the estimated path coefficients using the standard errors and sample sizes (for information about this test,

see Chin's discussion at <http://disc-nt.cba.uh.edu/chin/plsfaq/multigroup.htm> and discussion at <http://warppls.blogspot.com/>).

Table 26. Results of Path Coefficient Comparison Tests

US Sample			Turkey Sample			P-value
Path	β	Std. Err.	Path	β	Std. Err.	
TiP → AC	.160**	.091	TiP → AC	.126*	.092	.39 ^{NS}
TiM → AC	.255**	.134	TiM → AC	.282**	.138	.44 ^{NS}
TiP → AC	.160**	.091	TiM → AC	.282**	.138	.22 ^{NS}
TiP → JP	-.193**	.090	TiM → JP	-.158**	.093	.39 ^{NS}
TiS → JS	.195**	.142	TiM → JS	.259**	.125	.37 ^{NS}

Notes: TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance.

Results of these tests show that there is no statistical difference of the path coefficients between the US and the Turkey samples. Because some of coefficients are not already statistically different than zero and because some others paths were estimated at similar levels, this test did not find any difference among the path coefficients of two samples.

5.4. Warped and Linear Relationships between Latent Variables

The relationships between latent variable can be visualized with the help of plots provided by WarpPLS 3.0. The figures below show the standardized values of the latent variables therefore the interpretation of these relationships is based on the changes in standard deviations. First, Figure 10 shows the nature of the positive relationships between affective commitment and trust in peers in two samples. In the US sample on average, considering the estimated coefficient (.16, p-value < 0.05), one standard deviation increase in

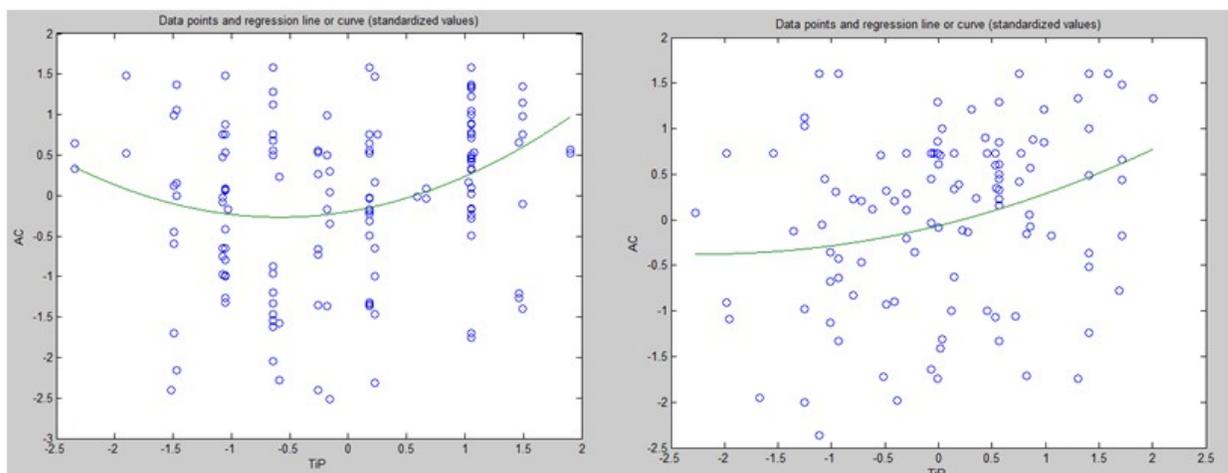


Figure 10. Positive Relationships between Trust in Peers and Affective Commitment (Left: US sample)

trust in peers (i.e., 16.8 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale) leads to .16 standard deviation increase in affective commitment (i.e., 2.8 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale). In the Turkey sample on average, the estimated coefficient is .13 (p -value $< .10$). Hence, one standard deviation increase in trust in peers (i.e., .16.4 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale) leads to .13 standard deviation increase in affective commitment (2.4 point increase on a 1 to 100 likert scale). Besides, the plot on the left (US sample) depicts sort of a u-curve. For the association for the very low levels of trust in peers, higher commitment may be observed. One could argue that there is a threshold for trust in peers after which the association becomes positive and curve picks up. The plot on the right (the Turkey sample) depicts a flatter curve with a stable positive slope.

Similarly, trust in top management was found to have positive and significant associations with affective commitment in two samples (Figure 11). Estimated coefficients for trust in top management compared to the estimated coefficients of trust in peers are larger in magnitude in the two samples. This indicates that a stronger effect on the affective commitment originates from trust in the higher level of authority in the organizations. The

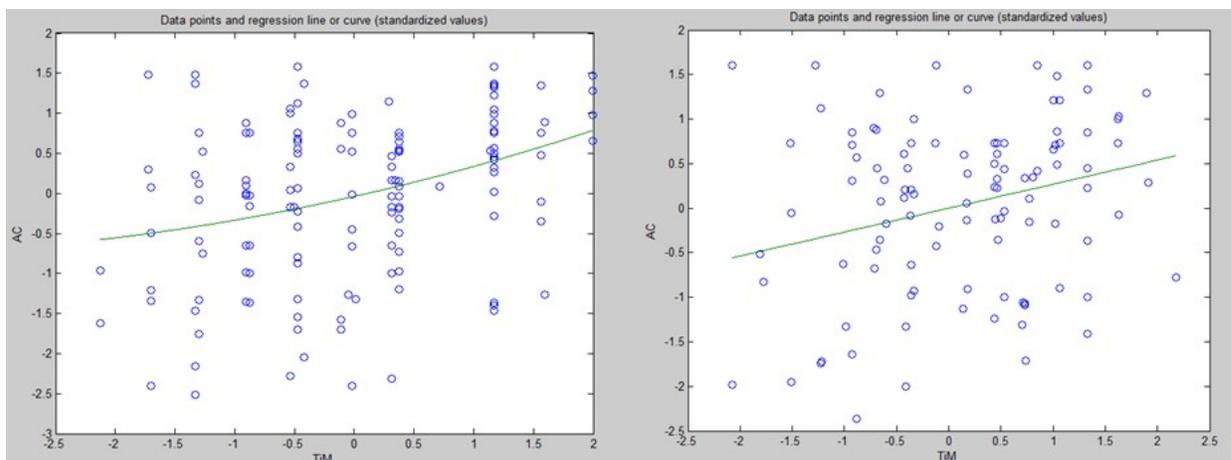


Figure 11. Positive Relationships between Trust in Top Management and Affective Commitment (Left: US sample)

interpretation of these beta coefficients is as follows: One standard deviation increase in trust in top management (i.e., 17.6 point increase in the US sample, 17.4 point increase in the Turkey sample) leads to .25 and .28 standard deviations increase in affective commitment (i.e., 4.4 and 5.0 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale) in the US and the Turkey samples, respectively. In both of the plots, the curves depict more of an upward sloping straight line.

With respect to the job performance, the plots are shown on the Figure 12. Both of the plots depict U curves indicating the fact that higher job performance levels are associated with very low levels of trust in peers in the US sample and very low levels of trust in top management in the Turkey sample. In the US sample, one standard deviation increase in trust in peers (i.e., 16.8 point increase on a 1 to 100 likert scale) leads to .19 standard deviation decrease in job performance (i.e., 2.8 point decrease on a 1 to 100 likert scale). In the Turkey sample, one standard deviation increase in trust in top management (i.e., 17.4 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale) leads to .16 standard deviation decrease in job performance (i.e., 1.8 point decrease on a 1 to 100 scale).

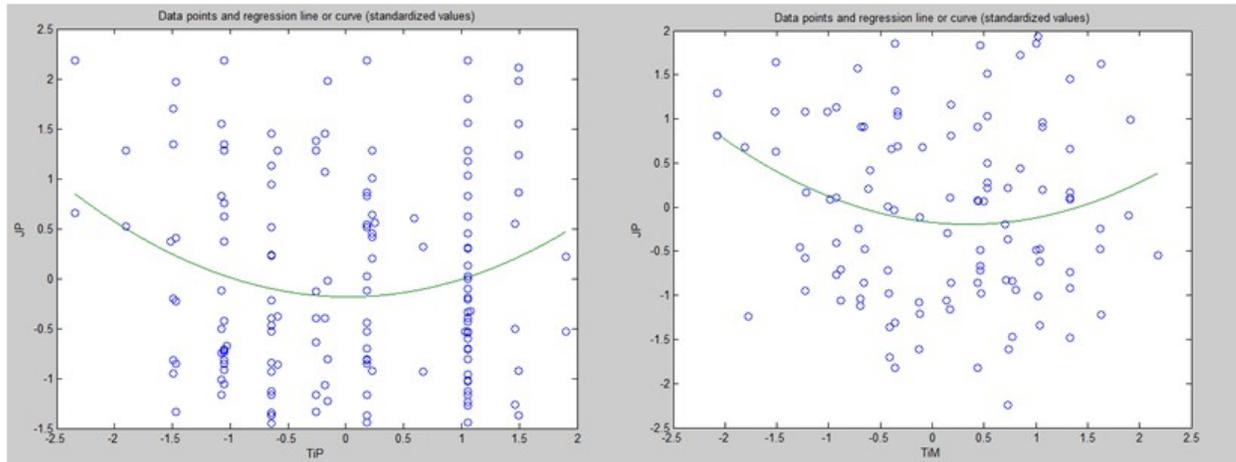


Figure 12. Negative Relationships with Job Performance
(Left: Trust in Peers in the US sample, Right: Trust in Top Management in the Turkey sample)

Job satisfaction was found to have positive associations in two samples but with different variables. Trust in supervisor in the US sample (.19, p -value < .10) and trust in top management in the Turkey sample (.25, p -value < .05) drive job satisfaction. The graphical depiction of the relationships is given on the Figure 13 below. The plots depict more of an upward sloping straight line. The interpretation of betas is as follows: In the US sample, one standard deviation increase in trust in supervisor (i.e., 18.0 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale) leads to .19 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction (i.e., 2.8 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale). In the Turkey sample, one standard deviation increase in trust in top management (i.e., 17.4 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale) leads to .26 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction (3.0 point increase on a 1 to 100 scale).

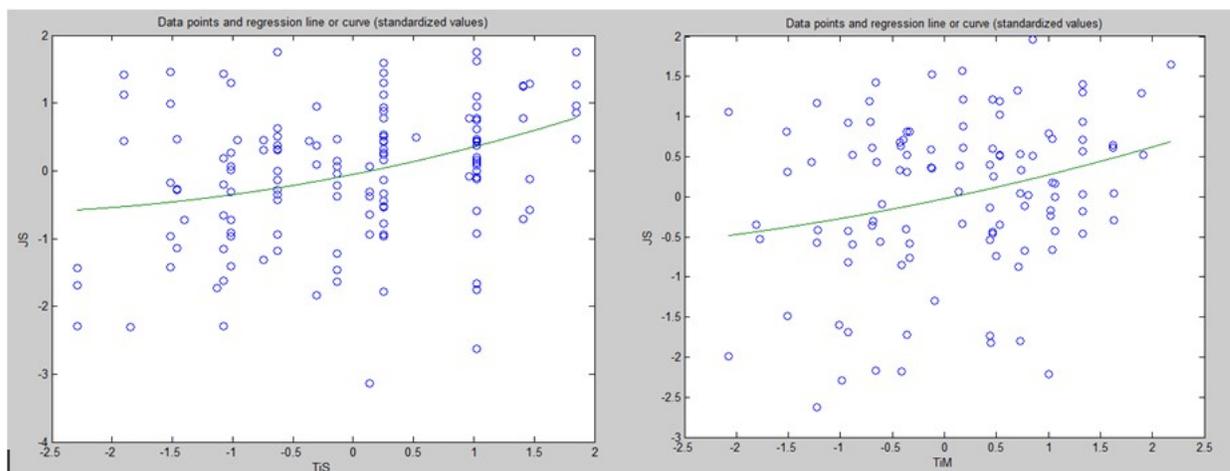


Figure 13. Positive Relationships with Job Satisfaction
(*Left*: Trust in Supervisor in the US sample, *Right*: Trust in Top Management in the Turkey Sample)

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1. Overview of Findings

The current research contributes to the knowledge of interpersonal trust and its associations with workplace outcomes. Review of the literature suggested that the prevalence of trust in interpersonal relations in organizations as well as its function as a lubricant of the social fabric possess importance (Putnam, 1993). The uncertainty that employees face can be reduced by the existence of trust (Luhmann, 1979). The normative point of view of trust as “good” and distrust as “bad” (Erikson, 1963) has been examined in the current research and empirical findings bring new evidence for this notion. An individual’s actual trust was proved to be a function of his/her psychological background and dispositional character. Empirical support for some of the hypotheses in the current research suggests that the level of trust with respect to organizational members plays a role in explaining the global workplace outcomes. Trust is an essential part of the social relationships and its normative point of view was acknowledged with the findings of this research. If not the utmost important element in organizational behavior, trust among employees as one of the prominent factors in highly interdependent organizational environment may function as grease increasing the social exchange and effectiveness in general.

The nature of the data collection sheds light on the associations of trust and workplace outcomes in two countries. The changing sample characteristics –cultural dimensions- were investigated using Hofstede cultural typology. Four cultural dimensions were measured in the survey suggesting that three out of four dimensions concurred with the Hofstede’s scores, therefore, the US and the Turkey samples were found to be representative

of their nations based on these three dimensions. Findings suggest that associations that have similar nature in two samples are with respect to affective commitment whereas those differed across two samples are with respect to job performance and job satisfaction.

6.2. Affective Commitment

The emotional bond of oneself to the organization in the form of affective commitment is predicted positively by the existence of trust in peers and the top management in the two samples. The impacts of trust in peers on affective commitment in the US and the Turkey samples do not statistically differ. Similarly, the impacts of trust in top management on affective commitment were not statistically different from each other in two samples. Consequently, the current research empirically concludes and confirms to the extant literature (i.e., Ferres et al., 2004; Kaneshiro, 2008; de Ruyter et al., 2001; Yang, 2005) in that the trust in peers and trust in top management have significantly explained affective commitment. However, trust in supervisor did not significantly associate with affective commitment.

Prior studies distinguished affective trust and cognitive trust (i.e., McAllister, 1995). With respect to the affective trust and its association with commitment, Yang (2005) noted that “the emotional closeness aroused by management’s genuine care and consideration” (p. 137) could very well explain the link between the affective trust base and employee’s affective commitment. In the current research, the trust conceptualization was the vulnerability perspective and still it can be argued that the affective and cognitive trusts are two facets of one underlying phenomenon. The relation between top management and employees in terms of the contract and employment perspective creates economic exchange. On the other hand, the top management’s treatment of their employees’, (i.e., emphasizing

the importance of the employee, involvement and participation of employees) can be considered as social exchange (Blau, 1964) which promotes trust thereby increasing affective commitment.

Fostering trust in peers may function as a social catalyst that improves individual and organizational effectiveness (Ferres et al., 2004). As the reciprocity of the relationships among peers sustains over time, interpersonal trust is formed which hence transforms to organizational commitment (Cook & Wall, 1980). In the current research, empirical findings suggest that levels of trust in peers can play a role in bringing about affective commitment. Thus, in order to observe reasonable affective commitment levels for professionals and managers in organizational settings, it is very important to form good, healthy and trusting relationships among coworkers.

The current research found that the larger the organization is, higher the affective commitment. This relationship holds in two samples. It may be due to the fact that in larger organizations there are well established rules and regulations, formalizations, well-defined operations, duties, and work designs. It could also be argued that the organizational culture in larger organizations may create a sense of belonging and attachment, hence driving organizational commitment. The corollary to the existence of a strong organizational culture is that the employees are emotionally related to the organization and employees want to continue working with the organization. Another possible explanation departs from the discussion of Meyer and Allen (1997) on the “broader ‘roles’ that require a greater variety of skills and ability to adapt to the demands of situation” (p. 5). In larger organizations, the job complexity might increase the job requirements from an employee and therefore the

organization commits more resources for this particular employee (i.e., training). From a reciprocity perspective, the employee in response feels more committed to the organization.

6.3. Intention to Turnover

The current research has proposed that the three trust referents have distinct and negative impacts on the intention to turnover. The extant literature has found empirical support showing that trust in various referents undermined the intention to turnover (Davis et al., 2000; Ferres et al., 2004; Luis, 1995; Tan & Tan, 2000). Neither of the samples generated any substantial and significant relationships between trust variables and intention to turnover. Departing from the findings of the past research, the current empirical findings do not add to the existing evidence of negative association between trust and turnover relationship. What the current study adds is that intention to turnover arguably is determined by mostly the contractual relationship between the employee and the organization. It can be said that this type of relationship is considered as a heavily economic exchange as opposed to a social exchange (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory acknowledges that “only social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust; purely economic exchange as such does not” (Blau, 1964, p. 94). Therefore, considering an employee and organization relationship which is characterized by the economic terms and benefits, the intention to turnover may not be a function of the actual trust in organizational members because trust is characterized by a process of give and take behavior among organizational members. Instead, intention to turnover may be explained as a function of economic exchange.

Control variables associate with intention to turnover and provide valuable information. In the US sample, tenure, age, size of the organization negatively associated with intention to turnover. Hence, employees with higher tenure, older employees, and employees working with larger organizations tend to quit less. In addition, on average women tend to quit more than men. On the other hand, in the Turkey sample, role ambiguity increases the odds of turnover. Job autonomy and marital status had negative impacts. Married employees on average tend to turnover less compared to single employees in the Turkey sample. These demographic associations are mixed and do not pose any patterns across samples.

6.4. Job Performance

The empirical findings in the current research suggested a negative association between two trust variables and job performance. In the US sample, trust in peers undermined job performance whereas in the Turkey sample trust in top management weakened individual job performance. These results are seemingly counter intuitive. The extant literature suggests a reasonably positive association. Costigan, Ilter and Berman (1998) reported that there was a positive association between motivation and affective trust in coworkers. However, positive link between trust and individual performance has not fully established by the accumulation of empirical research (Yang, 2005). A research study by Dirks (1999) suggested that trust in teammates function as a moderator of motivation rather than having a direct effect, and thereby influencing the team performance. In high trust teams, motivation is channeled to team effort therefore explaining the coordination among team members whereas in low trust teams motivation is channeled to individual efforts

having lesser coordination. One can argue that trust functions as a moderator with respect to motivation and performance rather than having direct effects on workplace outcomes.

Team effect may provide insights about understanding this negative association. Langfred (2004) found that team performance may suffer due to high level of trust when combined with low monitoring of team members. The research suggested that low monitoring combined with high individual autonomy, low team performance was recorded. Noting that level of analysis is not team in the current research, one could argue that based on certain conditions trust may play a role that is detrimental to the individual job performance. In the current research, the explanation of a negative impact of trust in peers which include coworkers, colleagues in the same level of authority in the organization, could be reasonably based on the assumption that the individuals are heavily interdependent with their peers, forming teams. Assuming the interdependency translates into the existence of work teams, the high level of trust in peers and team members can be associated with the relaxed control and lower performance. Besides, examining this link as a negative relationship may be insightful in a deductive sense that the individual does not trust them because these peers may not be trustworthy at all. Therefore, in order to avoid the vulnerability of the dependency on these unreliable peers, the individual exerts extra effort to make up the differential outcome which would otherwise be provided by the peers.

Top management as the utmost decision making mechanism in the organization oversees the employment in general. In the Turkey sample, the risk of termination of the employment as a motivational stimulus may play a role implying a negative relationship between trust in top management and individual performance. As the employee perceives or observes that the top management is not trustworthy and lack of integrity; the person's

psychological state towards leadership might involve low level of trust. The employee's behavioral response to low trust in the leadership of the organization translates to higher performance in the sense that individual tries to secure the job position by showing higher performance, engaging effectively and efficiently with respect to job duties compared to his/her colleagues. This argument is consistent with the higher uncertainty avoidance in Turkey compared to the US. High uncertainty avoidance connotes that people tend to minimize the unknown, anxiety, and tension (Hofstede, 2001). Therefore, respondents in Turkey are willing to stay with their organizations by working even harder, even though they don't trust top management, thereby securing their job positions. This would protect the individuals from facing the uncertainty of job seeking and unemployment. Considering the two digit unemployment rates (10.2 %) in Turkey announced by Turkish Statistical Institute by the time the survey actually took place (the month of January, 2012) furthers the interpretation of such negative association.

6.5. Job Satisfaction

The current research has found that trust in supervisor in the US sample promotes the satisfaction of the employee with the job, whereas in the Turkey sample trust in top management increases the job satisfaction. Trust in peers does not significantly associate with employee job satisfaction. Findings suggest that the level of trust in supervisor is an essential factor that an employee feels happy about his/her job. Confirming the prior studies, the current research concluded that trust in different referents might have main effects on job satisfaction. In the same vein, Rich (1997)'s findings suggested that trust in manager mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and manager's role modeling. Trust fully

mediated the relationship therefore having a direct effect on satisfaction. With respect to the differing referent of trust, Yang (2005) noted that due to the increased vulnerability of an employee in relation to the higher authorities in the organization (i.e., termination of employment), trust in organizational members with higher levels of authority could enhance the satisfaction of the employee.

Trust in supervisor did not associate with any of the outcomes including job satisfaction in the Turkey sample. The highest mean among the trust referents is of trust in supervisor in the Turkey sample. This might be an indication of the monitoring power and the control of the supervisor on the employee in organizations in Turkey. The power differences between the levels of social life including organizational levels are higher in Turkey compared to what it is in the US. This could very well give rise to the fact that high trust is due to the power distance rather than there is substantial social exchange between the employee and the supervisor. Therefore, such high level of trust did not enhance the exchange of favor, gratitude and appreciation of each other's extra-role behavior which would eventually contribute to the outcomes. On the other hand, job satisfaction was leveraged by only trust in supervisor in the US sample which is consistent with the fact that global workplace outcomes are more closely associated with trust in direct supervisor than trust in leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

6.6. Practical Implications

This research using data from the United States and Turkey, empirically examined the associations between the trust variables and workplace outcomes. The professionals had different levels of actual trust in each of the trust objects; namely peers, supervisor and top

management. The workplace outcomes were found to be a function of three trust referents with varying effects. This research suggests that in organizations if there is low level of affective commitment among employees, managers should highlight and investigate the relationships among same line employees. In particular, the increasing interaction leading to trust formation among employees could be addressed in order to stimulate employees' organizational commitment. This could include emphasizing and maintaining the integrity of the employees (Mayer et al., 1995) and increasing the interactions of the peers resulting in more frequent social exchange. Because the social exchange is based on the norm of reciprocity, as the individuals engage in quality give-and-take behaviors, over time the individuals develop higher trust towards peers as well as commitment to each other (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Strong bonds among peers translate into the identification of employees with the organization and individuals tend to have higher sense of belonging and involvement.

Considering the fact that importance of trust in top management holds in the current research, the frequency of interaction between the top management and the employees can stimulate the social exchange among employees and the management. The perception of the employees about the top management can be advanced by expressing and showing more value, respect towards employees and allowing employees to engage with their superiors and senior management (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Therefore, employees can form better perceptions of trustworthiness, benevolence and fairness about the management of the organization. This might very well influence overall effectiveness of the individuals in the organization. By the same token, believing in the fact that the management of the organization "will not let you down" (i.e., no matter what happens, the employment of the

individual is safe) can further the organizational commitment by lowering the risks associated with continuance of the employment (Rousseau, 1989).

The nature of the trust in supervisor poses that the relationship is between two individuals as opposed to a relationship between an individual and a group. Getting along with supervisor is assumed to be associated with the job satisfaction (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997). Such social relationship could involve the fact that each party fulfills the “unspecified obligations” and expectations (Blau, 1964, p. 93) among them forming the confidence and reliance. Therefore, for managers and supervisors it is important to convey integrity, accountability and transparency to the subordinates in order to build trust which would have an impact on affective commitment and job satisfaction.

The hiring practices are also crucial steps towards effective human resources in organizations. Departing from the findings of the current research, the propensity to trust as a strong determinant of trust can be an element to examine in applicants file. Because such dispositional tendency in employees can be linked to higher overall effectiveness, the hiring committee in an organization shall involve specialized tests to actually reveal and understand the applicant’s character thoroughly. The higher propensity to trust can be considered as a plus compared to lower propensity applicants among other decision making criterion.

Finally, training of employees and managers are recommended with respect to the importance of interpersonal trust in the organization. The value and outcomes of having healthy relationships involving trust in the organization can be precious. First, the organizational members must be aware of the fact that at all levels in the organization the vulnerability among individuals due to the interdependence prevails. Second, the trust in organizational members is indeed the social glue that can facilitate and increase efficient

engagement among personnel. Third, considering the trust as a product of social exchange and interactions between employees, the professional relationships can be enhanced by informally organizing social programs, engagements and get-togethers. Training and building quality interpersonal relationships in the organization involving the trust dimension should be a priority in managers' agendas.

6.7. Limitations and Future Research

One of the limitations of the current research is on the nature of the relationships between trust variables and workplace outcomes. This research proposed that there is direct effects of the actual level of trust on the selected attitudinal and performance outcomes. However, having no relationship at all with respect to intention to turnover and having two negative links between trust variables and job performance might suggest that the direct or main effect of the trust variables might not be the case sometimes. Therefore, it would be enlightening to expand the research examining the moderating role of interpersonal trust among organizational behaviors and workplace outcomes (Dirks, 1999).

Organizational behavior as extra-role behavior has been examined as a consequence of trustful relations in organizations. Leadership studies (i.e., Rubin, Bommer & Bachrach, 2010) and studies testing social exchange theory (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) have found sound causal association. Operant leadership in the organization (Rubin et al., 2010) explained the employee citizenship behavior with the mediating effect of trust. Trust as an essential outcome of the social exchange, is formed primarily by the fact that an individual expects to receive rewards from another actor and vice versa (Zafirovski, 2003). In this line, Rubin et al. (2010)'s findings suggest that the leader's contingent and non-

contingent reward behavior build trust improving the citizenship behavior, whereas non-contingent punishment behavior undermine trust and eventually lowering citizenship behavior. Mediation effect of trust was also documented by Aryee et al.'s (2002) research. They found that in an Indian public sector organization trust in organization mediated the relationships between organizational justice (i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and outcomes including satisfaction and citizenship behavior. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) research found empirical evidence for the mediating effect of trust in supervision between the procedural justice and the citizenship behavior. With respect to aforementioned organizational behavior research, trust has been examined as an intervening factor that plays a role in a social exchange context. In the current research, the main impacts of trust variables on the workplace outcome variables were investigated. The interactions of trust as a moderator with respect to aforementioned constructs including interactional justice and citizenship behavior are among topics to be explored theoretically and empirically.

Among the workplace outcome variables, prior research showed that there were causal relations (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Correlations among affective commitment, job satisfaction and intention to turnover could very well be due to the causality reasons that are not specified in the current research model. Tett and Meyer (1993) using path analysis based on meta-analytic study concluded that “satisfaction and commitment each contribute uniquely to turnover intention” (p.285). In the current research, such relationships were simply bypassed which might have changed the analysis results if included. In the future research, furthering the current model with aforementioned associations of satisfaction, commitment and turnover intention, can cast more light into the underlying phenomenon.

Another limitation of the present study is the method of measurement. Performance data was collected using self-reported survey items. The underlying performance construct that the survey measures, could also be obtained from the organizational records or from a superior member of the organization that has authority to assess the individuals' activities. However, there are concerns raised about the validity of the subjective self-reported data (Meyer, 1980; Thornton, 1980; Vandenberg, 2009). The concerns raised about the self-reported scales are high leniency and less variability among the responses. Considering these issues, one could further the findings of the present study by utilizing supervisor measures of performance or other constructs and contribute to the literature by having objective measures. In addition to self-reported measures, common method and common source bias could be thought of the limitations of the present study. The data collection period and the method of data collection for the present study was limited in the sense that collecting longitudinal data of the actual turnover may have resulted in more robust conclusions as opposed to measuring the intention to turnover. Even though the intention to turnover has been found to be an appropriate surrogate for the actual turnover (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008), future studies can further focus on this issue and contribute to the trust literature. Besides, future studies can enrich the understanding of the role of trust in organizations by examining the phenomenon longitudinally and taking the time factor into the consideration. Because the nature of work relationship in an organization can alter dramatically over time (Mayer et al., 1995), it would require a careful analysis of the trust situation to control for the variables that could change the power of the associations and even the sign of the relationship (Johns, 2006).

The fact that trust in supervisor contributed less to the explanation of the variance in the outcome variables can be attributed to the measurement instrument. The scale for this

particular trust variable is adapted by changing the object of items in the survey. In the current model, scale of trust in supervisor has discriminant and convergent validity, as well as reliability. However, some studies (Aryee et al., 2002; Wat & Shaffer, 2005) employed specialized scales to measure the trust in supervisor by asking certain issues relevant to only employee-supervisor relationship. Therefore, the future research can employ specialized measurement scales for each trust referent hoping to empirically capture the associations.

Consideration of the industry of the organizations in the model can further the findings of the current research. The respondents from an academic and educational institution can very well have different perceptions on the influence of trust in the organization from those who are working with a metal mining company. The industrial characteristics as well as organizational characteristics may depict a systematic pattern that can capture or reveal certain associations that are relevant in a social exchange. In conjunction with it, inclusion of the industrial information of the organizations in the model might expand the frontiers of the knowledge.

Lastly, social psychological factors (role ambiguity, job autonomy) did not explain substantial variance in the outcome variables in the US sample as much as they did in the Turkey sample. It could be attributed to the fact that the sample's major portion might be constituted by employees from relatively large several organizations that reduce the variability in work environment. Future studies can address it by attempting to form a homogenous sample. In addition, referent specific contextual factors such as tenure of supervisor can very well be involved for further exploration of the contextual impact.

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APPENDIX A – Survey Scales

Trust - Adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999) - Cronbach's alpha: .82

Each statement were formed for three referents: Peers, Supervisor, Top Management

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let have any influence over issues that are important to me. (R)
2. I would be willing to lethave complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on (R)
4. I would be comfortable givinga task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.

Propensity to Trust - Adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999) - Cronbach's alpha: .71

1. One should be very cautious with strangers.
2. Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.
3. Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.
4. These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.
5. Most salespeople are honest in describing their products.
6. Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their specialty.
7. Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.
8. Most adults are competent at their jobs.

Affective Commitment– Adapted from Allen & Meyer (1990) - Cronbach's alpha: .87

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (R)
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Job Satisfaction – Adapted from Macdonald & MacIntyre (1997) - Cronbach's alpha: .77

1. I receive recognition for a job well done.
2. I feel close to the people at work.
3. I feel good about working at this organization.
4. I feel secure in my job.
5. I believe management is concerned about me.
6. On the whole, I believe work is good for my physical health.
7. My wages are good.
8. All my talents and skills are used at work.
9. I get along with my supervisors.
10. I feel good about my job.

Job Performance– Adapted from Mayfield & Mayfield (2006) - Cronbach's alpha: .93

1. Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?
2. How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' levels?
3. How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues' levels?
4. How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?
5. Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?
6. Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could affect the way you work?
7. How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?
8. How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?
9. How well do you handle work place emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resource allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?

Intention to Turnover–Adapted from Mayfield & Mayfield (2008)-Cronbach’s alpha: .75

1. I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now. (R)
2. I would change jobs if I could find another position that pays as well as my current job.
3. I am actively looking for another job.
4. I would like to work for my current employer until I retire. (R)
5. I would prefer to be working at another organization.
6. I can’t see myself working for any other organization. (R)
7. I would feel very happy about working for another employer.

Job Autonomy - Adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980) - Cronbach’s alpha: .78

1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

Role Ambiguity – Adapted from Rizzo et al. (1977) - Cronbach’s alpha: .78

1. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
2. I know that I have divided my time properly
3. I know what my responsibilities are.
4. I know exactly what is expected of me.
5. I feel certain about how much authority I have on the job.
6. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

APPENDIX B – Survey (ENGLISH)

TRUST IN ORGANIZATIONS

This survey is administered by Aziz Bakay, Ph.D. candidate at Texas A&M International University. This survey is **anonymous**. The information you provide will not be shared with anybody. You are not asked to identify yourself in this questionnaire in any way. If you wish to be notified about the results of this survey, please send a request email to azizbakay@dusty.tamiu.edu. Participation in this survey is voluntary. Thank you.

Section A- PROPENSITY TO TRUST

Please **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) **to the left of each statement** that describes your opinion of each of the items.

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

- ___ One should be very cautious with strangers.
- ___ Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.
- ___ Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.
- ___ These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.
- ___ Most salespeople are honest in describing their products.
- ___ Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their specialty.
- ___ Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.
- ___ Most adults are competent at their jobs.

Section B- TRUST TOWARDS PEERS, SUPERVISOR AND TOP MANAGEMENT

Please read the sentences below and **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) **to the left of the items** on the designated place for each of the three objects: My Peers, My Supervisor, and Top Management.

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

- ⌚ **If I had my way, I would not let has/have any influence over issues that are important to me.**
 ___ My Peers ___ My Supervisor ___ Top Management
- ⌚ **I would be willing to let have complete control over my future in this organization / company.**
 ___ My Peers ___ My Supervisor ___ Top Management
- ⌚ **I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on**

___ My Peers ___ My Supervisor ___ Top Management

⌚ **I would be comfortable giving a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.**

___ My Peers ___ My Supervisor ___ Top Management

Section C- INDIVIDUAL OUTCOMES - Please **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) to the **left of each statement** that most closely describes your opinion of each of the items.

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

⌚ **Job Satisfaction**

⌚ **Affective Commitment**

- ___ I receive recognition for a job well done.
- ___ I feel close to the people at work.
- ___ I feel good about working at this organization.
- ___ I feel secure in my job.
- ___ I believe management is concerned about me.
- ___ On the whole, I believe work is good for my physical health.
- ___ My wages are good.
- ___ All my talents and skills are used at work.
- ___ I get along with my supervisors.
- ___ I feel good about my job.

- ___ I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- ___ I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- ___ I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- ___ I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
- ___ I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
- ___ I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
- ___ This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- ___ I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

⌚ **Intention to Turnover** – Please **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) to the **left of each statement**.

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

- ___ I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now.
- ___ I would change jobs if I could find another position that pays as well as my current job.
- ___ I am actively looking for another job.
- ___ I would like to work for my current employer until I retire.

- ___ I would prefer to be working at another organization.
- ___ I can't see myself working for any other organization.
- ___ I would feel very happy about working for another employer.

🕒 **Job Performance** – Please **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) to the **left of each statement**.

(1) Below Average (2) Average (3) Above Average (4) Far Above Average (5) Excellent

- ___ Which of the above selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?
- ___ How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' levels?
- ___ How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues' levels?
- ___ How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?
- ___ Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?
- ___ Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could affect the way you work?
- ___ How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?
- ___ How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?
- ___ How well do you handle work place emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resource allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?

Section D- JOB AND ROLE CHARACTERISTICS - Please **WRITE A NUMBER** (from 1 to 5) to the **left of each statement**.

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

🕒 **Role Ambiguity**

- ___ I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
- ___ I know that I have divided my time properly.
- ___ I know what my responsibilities are.
- ___ I know exactly what is expected of me.
- ___ I feel certain about how much authority I have on

🕒 **Job Autonomy**

- ___ I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
- ___ I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
- ___ I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

the job.

___ Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

Section E- VALUES AND NORMS - Please WRITE A NUMBER (from 1 to 5) to the left of each statement.

In this section, think of those factors which would be important to you in an "ideal job". **How important is it to you:**

(1) No Importance (2) Little Importance (3) Moderate Importance (4) Very Important (5) Outmost Importance

___ To have a good working relationship with your manager?

___ To have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)?

___ To have an opportunity for high earning?

___ Persistence (perseverance).

___ To work with people who cooperate well with one another?

___ Thrift (ability to carefully manage material resources).

___ To have a job which leaves you enough time for your personal or family life?

___ Patience.

___ To have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?

⌚ **Please indicate to the left of each statement the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements.**

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly Agree

___ Having an interesting work to do is just as important to most people as having high earnings.

___ A corporation should have a major responsibility for the health and welfare of its employees and their immediate families.

___ Company rules should not be broken, even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests.

⌚ **How frequently, in your experience, does the following problem occur? Please indicate to the left of each statement.**

(1) Very Rarely, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Frequently, (5) Very Frequently

___ Employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers.

___ How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?

⌚ **How frequently do you interact with your:** ___Peers ___Supervisor ___Top Management

⌚ **How long do you think you will continue working for that company? (circle one)**

Service

Transportation

Other:

Appendix C – Survey (TURKISH) ORGANİZASYONLARDA GÜVEN

Bu anket Teksas A&M Uluslararası Üniversitesi'nde doktora eğitimi gören Aziz Bakay tarafından yapılmaktadır. Ankette isim sorulmamaktadır. Burada vereceğiniz bilgiler sadece araştırma amaçları doğrultusunda kullanılacaktır. Anket sonuçlarından haberdar edilmek isterseniz azizbakay@dusty.tamui.edu email adresine email atabilirsiniz.

Anketi doldururken en son çalıştığınız işinizi ve organizasyonu / şirketi düşününüz. Anket amaçları doğrultusunda, bazı sorular benzer gözüke de bütün sorulara cevap vermeniz önem arz etmektedir. Bir soruya cevap verebilecek kadar bilginizin olmadığını düşünebilirsiniz. Bu durumlarda, sahip olduğunuz bilgiye dayanarak en iyi şekilde cevap veriniz. Duygu ve düşüncelerinize en yakın gelen yanıtı seçiniz. Aşağıdaki anket yaklaşık olarak 10-15 dakika sürmektedir. Anketi bitirdikten sonra, lütfen bütün maddelere cevap verdiğinizizi kontrol ediniz. Zaman ayırıp anketi doldurduğunuz ve bu projede yardımcı olduğunuz için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Bölüm A- GÜVENME EĞİLİMİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin **sol tarafına**, ifadelerle alakalı düşüncelerinizi yansıtan bir **RAKAM YAZINIZ** (1'den 5'e kadar) .

(1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Tarafsızım (4) Katılıyorum (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

- Yabancılara karşı çok dikkatli olmak gerekir.
- Çoğu uzmanlar bildiklerinin sınırları ile alakalı doğruyu söylerler.
- Çoğu insanlara, yapacaklarını söyledikleri şey hakkında bel bağlayabilirsiniz.
- Bu günlerde uyanık olmalısın ya da birisi seni istismar edebilir.
- Çoğu satış elemanları ürünlerini tarif ederken dürüst davranır.
- Çoğu tamirci, kendi uzmanlıklarını bilmeyenlere fahiş fiyat vermezler.
- Çoğu insan, genel düşünce anketlerine dürüst cevap verir.
- Çoğu yetişkin insanlar işin ehlidir.

Bölüm B- ÇALIŞMA ARKADAŞLARINA, SÜPERVİZÖRE VE ÜST DÜZEY YÖNETİCİLERE OLAN GÜVEN

Lütfen aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyunuz ve ifadelerin **sol tarafına**, ifadelerle alakalı üç farklı nesneye göre düşüncelerinizi yansıtan birer **RAKAM YAZINIZ** (1'den 5'e kadar).

(1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Tarafsızım (4) Katılıyorum (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

⊙ **Eğer fırsatım olsaydı, benim için önemli gördüğüm meselelerde 'ın bir etkisinin olmasına izin vermezdim.**

- Çalışma Arkadaşlarım Süpervizörüm / Yöneticim Üst Düzey Yöneticiler

⌚ 'ın, bu organizasyondaki geleceğim hakkında tam bir denetiminin olmasını isterdim.

___ Çalışma Arkadaşlarım ___ Süpervizörüm / Yöneticim ___ Üst Düzey Yöneticiler

⌚ 'ın üzerinden gözümü ayırmıyacağım bir yol olmasını gerçekten isterdim.

___ Çalışma Arkadaşlarım ___ Süpervizörüm / Yöneticim ___ Üst Düzey Yöneticiler

⌚ Benim için kritik olan bir görevi veya problemi, 'a, onların/onun faaliyetlerini gözetleyemesem de rahatlıkla verebilirim.

⌚ ___ Çalışma Arkadaşlarım ___ Süpervizörüm / Yöneticim ___ Üst Düzey Yöneticiler

Bölüm C- İŞYERİ SONUÇLARI – Lütfen aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyunuz ve ifadelerin **sol tarafına**, ifadelerle alakalı düşüncelerinizi yansıtan bir **RAKAM YAZINIZ** (1'den 5'e kadar).

(1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Tarafsızım (4) Katılıyorum (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

⌚ İş Tatmini

- | | |
|--|---|
| ___ İyi yaptığım iş için takdir görüyorum. | ___ İdarenin benimle ilgilendiğini düşünüyorum. |
| ___ İşteki insanlara kendimi yakın hissediyorum. | ___ Genellikle, çalışmanın fiziksel sağlığıma iyi geldiğine inanıyorum. |
| ___ Bu organizasyonda çalıştığım için mutluyum. | ___ Maaşım güzel. |
| ___ İşimde kendimi güvende hissediyorum. | ___ Bütün yeteneklerim ve becerilerim işte kullanılıyor. |
| ___ İşimden memnunum. | ___ Süpervizörüm ile iyi geçiniyorum. |

(1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Tarafsızım (4) Katılıyorum (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

⌚ Duygusal Bağlılık

- ___ Kariyerimin geri kalanını bu organizasyonda geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım.
- ___ Dışardan insanlarla organizasyonum hakkında konuşmaktan zevk alıyorum.
- ___ Bu organizasyonun sorunlarını kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.
- ___ Bu organizasyona bağlandığım gibi başka bir organizasyona aynı kolaylıkla bağlanabileceğimi zannediyorum.
- ___ Organizasyonumda "aileden biri" olduğumu hissetmiyorum.
- ___ Bu organizasyona "duygusal bağlı" olduğumu hissetmiyorum.
- ___ Bu organizasyon bana kişisel çok şey ifade ediyor.
- ___ Organizasyonuma karşı güçlü bir aidiyet duygusu hissetmiyorum.

⌚ İşten Ayrılma Niyeti

- Bir sene sonrasında şimdiki işverenim için çalışıyor olmayı umuyorum.
- Şu anki işim kadar ücret ödeyen bir pozisyon/iş bulursam, işimi değiştiririm.
- Aktif olarak başka bir iş arıyorum.
- Emekli olana kadar şu anki işverenim ile çalışmak istiyorum.
- Başka bir organizasyonda çalışmayı tercih ederim.
- Başka bir organizasyonda çalışmayı düşünmüyorum.
- Başka bir işveren ile çalışmaktan gayet memnun olurum.

🕒 **İş Performansı**

(1) Ortalamanın Altında (2) Ortalama (3) Ortalamanın Üstünde (4) Ortalamanın Çok Üstünde (5) Mükemmel

- Süpervizörünüz (yöneticiniz), son resmi performans incelemesinde sizi nasıl değerlendirdi?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla (ürün ya da hizmet) üretim miktarınız nedir?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla (ürün ya da hizmet) üretiminizin kalitesi nedir?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla, çalışma verimliliğiniz, kaynakları (para, insan, ekipman) iyi kullanabilmeniz?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla, iş kazalarını engellemede veya azaltmada etkinliğiniz?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla, çalışma tarzınızı etkileyebilecek değişikliklere ayak uydurmada etkinliğiniz?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla, işteki değişikliklere ne kadar hızla alışabilirsiniz?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla, yeni iş değişikliklerine ne kadar iyi alışabilirsiniz?
- Çalışma arkadaşlarınıza kıyasla, işyeri acil durumlarını ne kadar iyi idare edebilirsiniz?

Bölüm Ç- İŞ VE GÖREV ÖZELLİKLERİ - Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin sol tarafına, bir RAKAM YAZINIZ (1'den 5'e kadar).

(1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Tarafsızım (4) Katılıyorum (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

🕒 **Görev Belirsizliği**

- İşimde planlı ve açık hedeflerim var.
- Zamanımı düzgünce böldüğümün farkındayım.
- Sorumluluklarımın neler olduğunun bilincindeyim.
- Benden ne beklendiğini tam olarak biliyorum.

- ___ İşte ne kadar otoritemin olduğunun bilincindeyim.
 ___ Ne yapılması gerektiği konusunda açıklamalar gayet açık.

🕒 **İş Özerkliği (Otonomisi)**

- ___ İşimi nasıl yapacağım konusunda ciddi otonomiye sahibim.
 ___ Çalışmamda nasıl ilerleyeceğime kendim karar verebilirim.
 ___ İşimi nasıl yaptığım konusunda bağımsız ve özgür davranma olanaklarım var.

Bölüm D- DEĞERLER VE İLKELER - Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin **sol tarafına**, bir RAKAM YAZINIZ (1'den 5'e kadar).

Bu bölümde, sizin için "ideal bir işte" nelerin önemli olabileceğini düşününüz. **Aşağıdakiler sizin için ne kadar önemlidir ?**

(1) Önemsiz (2) Biraz Önemli (3) Orta Derece Önemli (4) Çok Önemli (5) Son Derece Önemli

- | | |
|--|---|
| ___ Yöneticinizle iyi bir çalışma ilişkisine sahip olmak. | ___ Eğitim imkanlarına sahip olma (yetenekleri geliştirmek veya yeni yetenek öğrenmek). |
| ___ Yüksek kazanç imkanlarına sahip olmak. | ___ Sebat (azim). |
| ___ Güzel işbirliği yapan insanlarla çalışmak. | ___ Tutumluluk. |
| ___ Kişisel veya aile hayatı için zaman bırakan işte çalışmak. | ___ Sabır. |
| ___ Güzel fiziksel çalışma ortamına sahip olmak (havalandırma, aydınlatma, yeterli çalışma alanı vs.). | |

🕒 **Lütfen aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyunuz ve ifadelerin sol tarafına, ifadelerle alakalı düşüncelerinizi yansıtan bir RAKAM YAZINIZ (1'den 5'e kadar).**

(1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Tarafsızım (4) Katılıyorum (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

- ___ İlginç bir işinin olması, çoğu insanlar için yüksek kazançta sahip olmak kadar önemlidir.
 ___ Ticari bir şirket, çalışanlarının ve onların yakın ailelerinin sağlık ve refahı için ciddi sorumluluk almalıdır.
 ___ Şirketin çıkarına da olsa, şirket kuralları çiğnenmemelidir.

🕒 **Aşağıdaki sorun sizin tecrübelerinize göre ne sıklıkla ortaya çıkar ? Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin sol tarafına, bir RAKAM YAZINIZ (1'den 5'e kadar).**

(1) Hemen Hemen Hiç (2) Nadiren (3) Ara Sıra (4) Sıklıkla (5) Çok Sık

- ___ Çalışanlar, yöneticileri ile olan anlaşmazlıklarını ifade etmekten çekinirler.

___ Çalışırken ne sıklıkla sinirli ve gergin oluyorsunuz?

⌚ **Ne kadar sıklıkla etkileşim içindesiniz?** ___ Çalışma Arkadaşlarım ___ Süpervizörüm / Yöneticim ___ Üst Düzey Yöneticiler

⌚ **Bu şirketle ne kadar süre çalışmayı düşünüyorsunuz ? (daire içine alınız)**

En fazla 2 sene 2 ila 5 sene 5 senden fazla Emekli oluncaya kadar

Bölüm E – SİZİN İLE VE ÇALIŞTIĞINIZ ORGANİZASYON/ŞİRKET İLE ALAKALI BİLGİLER

Organizasyondaki pozisyonunuz nedir? _____ **Organizasyon tipi:** Ticari / Kar amacı gütmeyen

Organizasyondaki departman / şubeniz nedir? _____ **Konum: Ofisiniz hangi şehirde?** _____

Bu organizasyonda kaç senedir çalışıyorsunuz? _____ **Toplamda kaç senelik iş tecrübeniz var?** _____

Son 30 gün içerisinde kaç iş günü kaçırdınız? _____ **Yıllık Gelir (YTL)** _____ **Yaşınız** _____

Organizasyonunuzda çalışan toplam personal sayısı (daire içine alınız): 1-50 51-100 101-500 501-1000 1001-ve fazlası

Yarı-zamanlı / Tam-zamanlı (daire içine alınız) **Cinsiyet:** Kadın / Erkek **Evlilik Durumu:** Evli / Bekar

Eğitim durumunuz (daire içine alınız):

Lise Biraz üniversite 4 yıllık üniversite Mezun Sertifikası Yüksek Lisans Biraz Doktora Doktor (Ph.D. / M.D.) Post-doc

Lütfen aşağıdaki aktivitelerden işinizde önemli miktarda meşgul olduğlarınızı işaretleyiniz.

Araştırma ve Geliştirme	İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi	Üretim, İmalat Yönetimi
Eğitimle ilgili / pedagojik	İnformasyon Teknolojileri	Satın Alma
Finans	Yönetimi	Satış ve Pazarlama
Genel İdare/Yönetim	Mühendislik / teknik	Diğer:
	Muhasebe	

Etnik Kimlik. Bir veya daha fazla seçiniz: Asyalı Beyaz Hispanik / Latin kökenli Siyah / Afro-American

Organizasyonunuz temel olarak hangi endüstride faaliyet göstermektedir? Bir veya daha fazla seçiniz.

Akademik Kurum / Eğitimsel	İnşaat	Kamu	Teknoloji
Diğer Hizmet Sektörleri	İletişim / Haberleşme	Perakende, Toptan Satış	Ulaşım
Finans, Sigorta, Gayrimenkul	İmalat	Sağlık Sektörü	Diğer: _____

APPENDIX D - Codebook

Variable Description	Code
[One should be very cautious with strangers.]	D1
[Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.]	D2
[Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.]	D3
[These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.]	D4
[Most salespeople are honest in describing their products.]	D5
[Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their specialty.]	D6
[Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.]	D7
[Most adults are competent at their jobs.]	D8
If I had my way, I would not let have any influence over issues that are important to me. [MY PEERS]	T1P
If I had my way, I would not let have any influence over issues that are important to me. [MY SUPERVISOR]	T1S
If I had my way, I would not let have any influence over issues that are important to me. [TOP MANAGEMENT]	T1M
I would be willing to let have complete control over my future in this organization / company. [MY PEERS]	T2P
I would be willing to let have complete control over my future in this organization / company. [MY SUPERVISOR]	T2S
I would be willing to let have complete control over my future in this organization / company. [TOP MANAGEMENT]	T2M
I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on [MY PEERS]	T3P
I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on [MY SUPERVISOR]	T3S
I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on [TOP MANAGEMENT]	T3M
I would be comfortable giving a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions. [MY PEERS]	T4P
I would be comfortable giving a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions. [MY SUPERVISOR]	T4S
I would be comfortable giving a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions. [TOP MANAGEMENT]	T4M
Affective Commitment [I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.]	AC1
Affective Commitment [I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.]	AC2
Affective Commitment [I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.]	AC3
Affective Commitment [I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.]	AC4

Variable Description	Code
Affective Commitment [I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.]	AC5
Affective Commitment [I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.]	AC6
Affective Commitment [This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.]	AC7
Affective Commitment [I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.]	AC8
Job Satisfaction [I receive recognition for a job well done.]	JS1
Job Satisfaction [I feel close to the people at work.]	JS2
Job Satisfaction [I feel good about working at this organization.]	JS3
Job Satisfaction [I feel secure in my job.]	JS4
Job Satisfaction [I believe management is concerned about me.]	JS5
Job Satisfaction [On the whole, I believe work is good for my physical health.]	JS6
Job Satisfaction [My wages are good.]	JS7
Job Satisfaction [All my talents and skills are used at work.]	JS8
Job Satisfaction [I get along with my supervisors.]	JS9
Job Satisfaction [I feel good about my job.]	JS10
Job Performance [Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?]	JP1
Job Performance [How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' levels?]	JP2
Job Performance [How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues' levels?]	JP3
Job Performance [How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?]	JP4
Job Performance [Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?]	JP5
Job Performance [Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could affect the way you work?]	JP6
Job Performance [How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?]	JP7
Job Performance [How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?]	JP8
Job Performance [How well do you handle work place emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resource allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?]	JP9

Variable Description	Code
Intention to Turnover [I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now.]	IT1
Intention to Turnover [I would change jobs if I could find another position that pays as well as my current job.]	IT2
Intention to Turnover [I am actively looking for another job.]	IT3
Intention to Turnover [I would like to work for my current employer until I retire.]	IT4
Intention to Turnover [I would prefer to be working at another organization.]	IT5
Intention to Turnover [I can't see myself working for any other organization.]	IT6
Intention to Turnover [I would feel very happy about working for another employer.]	IT7
How important is it to you: [To have a good working relationship with your manager?]	V1- MF1
How important is it to you: [To have an opportunity for high earning?]	V2- MF2
How important is it to you: [To work with people who cooperate well with one another?]	V3- MF3
How important is it to you: [To have a job which leaves you enough time for your personal or family life?] +	V4- IC1
How important is it to you: [To have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?] -	V5- IC2
How important is it to you: [To have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)?] -	V6- IC3
Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of the following statements. [Having an interesting work to do is just as important to most people as having high earnings.]	V7- PD1
Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of the following statements. [A corporation should have a major responsibility for the health and welfare of its employees and their immediate families.]	V8- PD2
Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of the following statements. [Company rules should not be broken, even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests.] +	V9- UA1
How frequently, in your experience, does the following problem occur? [Employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers.]	V10- PD3
In the following section think of your current job, please disregard your ideal job. [How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?] +	V11- UA2
[How long do you think you will continue working for that company?]	V12- UA3
How important is it to you: [Persistence (perseverance)]	V13- LT1
How important is it to you: [Thrift (ability to carefully manage material resources)]	V14- LT2
How important is it to you: [Patience]	V15- LT3
Role Ambiguity [I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.]	RA1
Role Ambiguity [I know that I have divided my time properly.]	RA2

Variable Description	Code
Role Ambiguity [I know what my responsibilities are.]	RA3
Role Ambiguity [I know exactly what is expected of me.]	RA4
Role Ambiguity [I feel certain about how much authority I have on the job.]	RA5
Role Ambiguity [Explanation is clear of what has to be done.]	RA6
Job Autonomy [I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.]	JA1
Job Autonomy [I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.]	JA2
Job Autonomy [I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.]	JA3
You are working (part-time=1 / full-time= 0)?	PARTTIME
Number of total staff / personnel in your organization (1-50=1, 1001 or more=5)	NUMPEOPLE
How frequently do you interact with your Peers/Supervisor/Top Management? [Peers]	FREQP
How frequently do you interact with your Peers/Supervisor/Top Management? [Supervisor]	FREQS
How frequently do you interact with your Peers/Supervisor/Top Management? [Top Management]	FREQM
How many work days have you missed in the past 30 days?	ABS
What is your position in the organization?	POS
What is your department / division in the organization?	DEP
Location: What city and state is your office located?	LOC
Tenure: How many years of work experience do you have in your organization?	TEN
Experience: How many years of total work experience do you have?	EXP
Annual Income (\$)	INC
Age	AGE
Gender (female=1)	GENDER
What is your highest educational attainment (High school=1, post doc=8)?	EDU
Please check all that apply for the major activity with which your work is involved.	WACTIVITY
(Married=1)	MARRIED
Ethnicity	ETH
Type of organization (non-profit=1)	NPROFIT
What is the principal industry of your organization? Select one or more.	IND
Country (TUR=1)	TURKEY

APPENDIX E – Further Elaboration on Simpson’s Paradox

In order to address Simpson’s paradox in the current model, the links between predictor and criterion latent variables were examined. In the model, those paths with positive (negative) correlation and negative (positive) path coefficient are identified and removed. Same PLS analysis was run. The removed paths in the US sample include: From TiP to JS, from TiS to JP and to ItT as well as some paths from control variables to outcome variables. In the Turkey sample, the link from TiS to JP was removed as well as some paths from control variables to outcome variables. The general model elements and model fit indices showed improvement and ARS became significant in two samples (Table 27).

In the US sample, the R-squared coefficients of AC, ItT, and JS variables have increased. There was one substantial change with respect to the path coefficients of the TiM variable in the US sample. Trust in top management variable significantly undermined ($\beta = -.21, p < 0.01$) intention to turnover. In the Turkey sample, the R-squared coefficients of AC, JP and JS variables have increased. The sign of the path coefficients and the significance levels have stayed same with the original model.

Table 27. General SEM Analysis Results of Revised Model

	US Sample	Turkey Sample
APC=	0.116, P<0.001	APC=0.124, P<0.001
ARS=	0.164, P=0.002	ARS=0.205, P=0.004
AVIF=	1.404, Good if < 5	AVIF=1.546, Good if < 5
Algorithm used in the analysis:	Warp2 PLS regression	Warp2 PLS regression
Resampling method used in the analysis:	Jackknifing	Jackknifing
Number of cases (rows) in model data:	150	134

APPENDIX F – Effect Sizes

Below, Table 28 shows Cohen's (1988) *f*-squared effect sizes of only the significant path coefficients in the current model. These coefficients were provided by WarpPLS 3.0. The recommended values for small, medium and large effect sizes are 0.02, 0.15, and .35, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The *f*-squared coefficients lower than 0.02 indicate that they are very weak and may even be irrelevant from practical point of view even if the significance levels are reasonable (Cohen, 1988; Kock, 2012). All of the effect sizes on the Table 28 fall in-between small and medium effect sizes.

Table 28. Effect Sizes for the Original Model

	US Sample	Turkey Sample
PtT → TiP	.108	.075
PtT → TiS	.116	.076
PtT → TiM	.114	.072
<hr/>		
TiP → AC	.046	.037
TiP → ItT	NS	NS
TiP → JP	.035	NS
TiP → JS	NS	NS
<hr/>		
TiS → AC	NS	NS
TiS → ItT	NS	NS
TiS → JP	NS	NS
TiS → JS	.068	NS
<hr/>		
TiM → AC	.087	.08
TiM → ItT	NS	NS
TiM → JP	NS	.037
TiM → JS	NS	.083

Notes: PtT= Propensity to trust, TiP=Trust in peers, TiS=Trust in supervisor, TiM= Trust in Management, AC=Affective commitment, JS=Job satisfaction, JP=Job performance, ItT=Intention to turnover. NS: Not significant.

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