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**The role of organization culture, motivation and trust as determinants of  
employee engagement in a multinational manufacturing enterprise**

Rola kultury organizacyjnej, motywacji i zaufania jako determinant  
zaangażowania pracowników w międzynarodowym przedsiębiorstwie  
produkcyjnym

**Doctoral dissertation**

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Date of submission:

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Poznań 2020

*How you engage your people "The first responsibility of the leader is to define reality. The last is to say thank you. In between, the leader is a servant".*

*(Hermann Miller former CEO in Max DePree as cited in Zak, 2017)*

## **Acknowledgment**

First and foremost I would like to thank and express my appreciation to Prof. Jan Polowczyk who guided me, as my supervisor, throughout this five year research study and supported me in the long and challenging journey and specifically whenever I was faced with difficult decisions. Prof Jan's contribution manifested itself both in his methodological guidance and in the empathy and friendly approach he demonstrated towards me.

I would also like to thank Prof. Piotr Trąpczyński who, as my Secondary PhD Advisor, significantly contributed to discussions regarding methodological- theoretical challenges and to the construction of the statistical segment of the research.

My grateful appreciation goes to a good friend of mine, Dr Ido Lieberman from Israeli Bar Ilan University, who supported me greatly in analyzing the research data and in giving me meaningful insights.

I would like to express my respect to all the employees and managers in the Asian manufacturing corporation who participated in the research for this dissertation and without their full cooperation it would have been impossible to write this dissertation.

A huge, warm 'thank you' to my son Assaf who is my close partner in our company "Laniado Employee Engagement" for the last 25 years. A hug to my dear wife Billy who has accompanied me for the last 52 years and encouraged me a lot to dare to take the decision to go to this exciting journey.

I am grateful to Poznan University of Economics and Business and the its academic staff and specifically to Prof. Sylwester Białowąs for his hospitality and kind support along the way.

It is impossible to mention the names of all the people who have made their contribution throughout the years of study, researchh and writing this paper. This research study would not have been completed without their dedication and kind assistance.

## **Abstract**

Strengthening employee engagement in the sense of creating a higher threshold of motivation in organizations and corporations, is now a first-priority managerial challenge, against the backdrop of tough global competition and to retain skilled manpower, increase productivity, productivity and profitability while maintaining a competitive price level and product quality. All this in an era of severe instability especially in the time of the corona virus. The global employee engagement rate over the past decade continues to stand at a very low rate of 15% (Gallup, 2017). Organizations pay a heavy price for this mainly due to loss of productivity. Disengaged employees cost U.S. companies \$ 450 billion to \$ 550 billion per year in lost productivity (Gallup, 2013, p. 4). Hence the need to better understand what influences employees to be engaged to their workplace and with their work and what motivates them.

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine the relationships among organization cultures, motivation, and trust (the independent variables) and employee engagement (the dependent variable) in a multinational manufacturing enterprise. The three independent variables were proved in the literature review and in this dissertation's research to be the determining factors to predict and explain employee engagement and to influence its creation.

The dissertation critically examines and analyses the following main issues:

1. The correlations among the three independent variables; organizational culture, motivation and trust and the correlations between them and the dependent variable, employee engagement.
2. The role of each above-mentioned independent variable on achieving employable engagement.
3. The prediction model of employee engagement and its relevance to the academic and practical levels.
4. The differences between countries regarding the variables and the correlations between them.

5. The relationships between the organizational culture, national culture and corporate culture.

6. The leader's role in motivating their people and the achievement of employee engagement.

To examine these issues a global quantitative survey was conducted among 6,738 employees in an Asian manufacturing industry corporation located in six countries: India, US, Canada, Hungary, Romania, and Israel.

The research findings indicate the following: There are strong positive and significant correlations between the independent variables; organizational culture, motivation, and trust and the dependent one, engagement. The three independent variables together can predict and explain 77% of employee engagement. Organizational culture and motivation are significantly more influential on predicting and explaining employee engagement than trust. Trust as a predictor of engagement is significantly weaker although it is significant in all analyzed geographical regions. There is direct prediction model between the three independent variables and the dependent variable. There are differences between the countries regarding the variables and the correlations between them, and this difference can explain the higher influence of organizational and corporation cultures on achieving employee engagement in comparison to the national culture. The leaders have a major role in assimilating organizational culture focused at developing the human capital in the company, by reinforcing motivation, trust, and employee engagement.

Finally, the dissertation supports previous studies in the field. At the same time the dissertation discusses different approaches to researching the impact that the important factors of organizational culture, motivation and trust have on creating employee engagement. These approaches rely mainly on behavioral economics, brain research and its impact on behaviors and the adoption of the behavioral approach as a basis for strengthening employee engagement. Adopting the behavioral approach is a key success factor to improve employee engagement. This conclusion is based on researches and on the author's experience to assimilate organizational cultural processes to improve employee engagement in leading multinational corporations throughout the last 15 years.

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## **Introduction**

### **Research topic relevance and research gaps**

Organizations need today to engage workers more than ever before as they are performing in a growing global and local competitive work environment which is characterized mainly by frequent management and employee turnover (in the US alone the turnover rate rose, over the last decade, to 1.3 % per month), reductions in health benefits and in pensions contributions or even elimination of them, a higher level of stress because of the fear of losing jobs, instability and particularly in this time of the Coronavirus. On the other hand, those who find new jobs are often overqualified, hired at lower compensation as it is a buyer's market. Whereas in the hotter job markets employees choose to jump from one job to another in order to move up in title and salary while expressing a low level of commitment to their workplace and to their customers (Phillips et al., 2016). On the top of it organizations are performing in an era of heightened corporate transparency, severe skills shortages, significant changes in the work itself regarding the meaning and the way it is accomplished (Phillips et al., 2016; Ramlall, 200). Competing on price or product qualities is not enough. Management is constantly exerting increasing pressure on its workforce to achieve optimal performance, where customers are a top priority, and long hours of work are the norm (Bandyopadhyay, 2014).

Globalization and the unprecedented changes in the global market, since organizations are able to exist without national boundaries, compel organizations to implement constant changes in their strategic planning (Taneja et al., 2015). Yet there are a lot of companies who outperform their industry peers and excel at a variety of business parameters such as shareholder value, profitability and growth, they are more innovative, they have a strong employee value proposition to retain employees and a compelling brand to attract new talents. These successful companies are characterized by employing engaged persons, employees who deliver superior performance, create innovative products and solutions, and serve as brand ambassadors to drive customer loyalty and attract great talents (Phillips et al., 2016). The majority of organizations (87%) quote culture and employee engagement as their top HR challenge and 50% of them call the problem "very important". Employee engagement is defined as one of the three top trends experienced by

organizations (Goodman et al., 2009; Phillips et al., 2016). According to MacLeod and Clarke (cited in Welch, 2011) employee engagement is a cause for concern for leaders in private, public, and voluntary sector organizations. This is the reason that the topic of employee engagement has attracted enormous interest over the two past decades and a great deal of attention in academic and work organizations (Albrecht et al., 2015; Phillippe et al., 2016).

Psychological and economic reasons have been offered to explain the popularity of work engagement. The individualization of work, reflecting a decline in collective activity and the growth of interest among psychologists, in general, in positive psychology (Schaufeli, 2014). To engage employees a company needs a radical shift from the D's approach (damage, disease, disorder, and dysfunction) which focus on preventing poor performance, low motivation and well-being, even health and disengagement, to the empowerment approach focusing on the employees' strengths and employee engagement and this is where positive organizational behavior (POB) comes in (Bakker & Schaufely 2008). The POB emerged from the positive psychological approach which addresses the mental wellness of employees, in comparison to the psychology, which is addresses the mental illnesses and they consist of an infrastructure for developing of the employee engagement approach. It is a proactive, positive approach emphasizing strengths, rather than continuing in the downward spiral of negativity trying to fix weaknesses (Luthans, 2002). Other researchers explained the popularity of employee engagement because the emphasis in business strategy on human resources which are increasingly seen as the key resource to leverage competitive advantages. All managers will agree that employees make a critical difference when it comes to innovation, organizational performance, competitiveness, and thus ultimately business success. (Bakker & Scaufely, 2008; Rees et al., 2013). In modern organizations the focus is on the management of human capital because it is recognized that employee contribution becomes a critical business issue and companies have no choice but to try to engage not only the body but the mind and the soul of every employee as cited by Bakker & Scaufely, 2008, p. 147). The economic reasons include extrinsic and intrinsic reasons. The intrinsic reasons are based on what Guest (2014) defined as the "employee engagement deficit "which is a result of a low percentage of employee engagement in the organizations" (p. 143). These processes were analyzed on a global scale by the Gallup report which differentiated between three types of employees who are engaged at work — "employees are highly involved in and enthusiastic about their work and workplace.

They are psychological “owners,” drive performance and innovation, and move the organization forward”. —and their percentage worldwide is just 15%, and employees who are not engaged – “employees are psychologically unattached to their work and company. Because their employee engagement needs are not being fully met, they are putting time — but not energy or passion — into their work”, and their percentage worldwide is 67% and employees who are actively disengaged- are not just unhappy at work — they are resentful that their needs aren’t being met and are acting out their unhappiness. Every day these workers potentially undermine what their engaged coworkers accomplish "and their percentage worldwide is 18% (Gallup, 2017). The two western hemisphere regions — U.S./Canada and Latin America — lead the world in the percentage of employees who are engaged at work (Table 1)<sup>1</sup>.

Business organizations all over the world pay a heavy price because of unengaged and uncommitted employees, including a high turnover rate. That low percentage of engaged employees is a barrier to creating high-performing cultures and It implies a stunning amount of wasted potential (Gallup, 2017). Disengaged employees cost U.S. companies \$450 billion to \$550 billion per year in lost productivity (Gallup, 2013, p. 4). Gallup estimates that 80.3-105.1 billion euros are lost each year due to disengaged German workers, through higher annual absentee rates (10.3 days for actively disengaged employees, compared with 6.5 days for engaged workers) or customer facing employees who transfer their negativity to consumers (Gallup, 2017). There are many potential reasons for the “employee engagement deficit” — but resistance to change is a common underlying theme and organizations and institutions have often been slow to adapt to the rapid changes produced by the spread of information technology, the globalization of markets for products and labor, the rise of the gig economy, and younger workers’ unique expectations (Gallup, 2017).

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<sup>1</sup> Based on the global aggregate from Gallup data collected in 2014, 2015 and 2016 across 155 countries (Gallup, 2017).

**Table 1: Employee engagement results among residents who are employed for an employer**

Region	Engaged %	Not engaged %	Actively disengaged %
The World	15	67	18
USA & Canada	31	52	17
Latin America	27	59	14
Post-Soviet Eurasia	25	61	14
South Asia	19	70	11
Sub-Saharan Africa	17	65	18
Eastern Europe	15	69	16
Australia/New Zealand	14	71	15
Middle East /North Africa	14	64	22
South Asia	14	65	21
Western Europe	10	71	19
East Asia	6	74	20

Source: Gallup, 2017.

The employee engagement theory, first presented by Kahn (1990), tried to bring a new dimension to the motivation theories. Employee engagement is a comprehensive construct which relates to all facets of human resource management. Employee engagement, which is based on the foundation of earlier concepts, such as job satisfaction, employee commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior, is broader in scope than these. It is considered a stronger predictor of positive organizational performance, reflected in the two-way relationship between employer and employee as compared to the three earlier ones constructs. Engaged Employees are emotionally linked to their organization, highly involved

in their job, very keen for their employer to succeed, and ready to go "the extra mile", beyond the employment contractual agreement (Markos & Sridevi, 2010).

The structured literature review of this dissertation reveals several gaps in the research of the employee engagement concept which are addressed here. While most studies have examined the interplay between one or two of the important determinants, as for example between employee engagement and motivation or between employee engagement and organizational culture or trust between employee engagement and two of these determinants, this dissertation analyzes the strongly interconnected and strong relationships between the three important influencing determinants on creating employee engagement: organizational culture, motivation and trust. On the top of it most studies have not analyzed the strength of the relationships between each of the three determinates on the creation of engagement. This dissertation addresses these gaps and shows the strong relationships between the three determinates and engagement. Therefore, this dissertation aims to make an important contribution to understanding the close relationships that exist between these three important determinates and their impact on creating employee engagement. There are organizations that focus on the need to strengthen only motivation or building trust without addressing the three determinates. The result in many cases is that the level of employee engagement in these organization does not increase. This dissertation presents seven different approaches to employee engagement and seventeen measurement methods to analyze them, while most studies on employee engagement present one or two approaches to this topic (mainly the employee engagement to the workplace or the job), and one measurement method for employee engagement. Therefore, these diversities of approaches and measurements contribute to the understanding of the complexity of the subject and the fact that we cannot address employee engagement based on just one approach. So when we come to define and analyze the term employee engagement in research and practically in organizations , we should ask ourselves what type of employee engagement do we want to analyze, is it employee engagement to the job or to the work place or both of them and what should be the appropriate measurement to do it?.

A review of the employee engagement literature indicates that there are two different approaches in academic research referring to employee engagement: one is the practitioner approach and the other is the academic approach. The practitioner approach differs from the

academic approach in purpose and outcomes (Arrowsmith & Parker, 2013; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wefald & Downey, 2009). It focuses on "doing engagement". In contrast, the academic approach is focused on defining and validating the psychological concept, concentrating more on the micro-individual level in order to better understand antecedents, variables and outcomes and the relationships between them; (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Crawford et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Most studies in employee engagement represent the academic approach as clarified. This study attempts to bridge the gaps between the two approaches, the academic and practical by presenting some of the findings relating to how we create employee engagement alongside with the academic researchers.

The professional experience of the dissertation's author in the last 15 years in assimilation of organizational culture quality culture and high-performance culture in different types of manufacturing industries will also assist in bridging the gaps between these two approaches. The practical approaches will be based on findings from multidisciplinary fields of communication, behavioral economics, emotional Intelligence, the behavioral approach, the impact approach and building trust based on a neuroscientific approach and management approaches of numerous important researchers in the field.

### **Research problem and research questions**

In considering the research topic the research problem is related to the role of an organization's culture, motivation, and trust as determinants of employee engagement in a multinational manufacturing enterprise. To understand the context of this research problem the dissertation analyses thoroughly the following questions:

- 1) What is the role of each independent variable on achieving engagement?
- 2) Are there strong and significant correlations between the variables?
- 3) Are there mediating correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variable or it is a direct correlation between each of the independent variables and the dependent variables?
- 4) What are the approaches to assimilate the drivers?

5) What is the leaders' role in motivating their people and to achieve employee engagement?

6) Are there differences between countries regarding the variables and the correlations between them?

7) What are the influences of national culture, organizational culture, and corporate culture on employee engagement?

To examine the research questions mentioned above a quantitative survey in global manufacturing Asian industry corporation located in six countries: India, US, Canada, Hungary, Romania, and Israel was conducted.

### **Goals and objectives**

Research has tried over the years to present different motivation theories till Kahn (1990) presented the employee engagement theory based mainly on intrinsic motivation. A variety of twenty theories have emerged since the employee engagement theory was first presented by Khan and have been used by researchers to explain conditions in which employees would be intrinsically motivated when performing a job and its association to the employee engagement construct (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2008; Bailey, et al., 2017a). An enormous number of articles and books were published on this subject. Around 350 of them were studied in this dissertation. The goals of this dissertation are the following:

1. To focus on the integration of the three mentioned variables as a framework for better understanding and improving employee engagement.
2. To contribute to the global knowledge of raising the level of employee engagement.
3. To encourage corporations and leaders to focus on the management of human capital, because what makes the difference is how employees choose to execute their jobs and the extent of discretionary effort they are prepared to expend in these terms
4. To present to leaders and managers insights on the complex issue of how to engage their people and where to focus their managerial energy.

This will require the leaders to better understand the motivation intrinsic and extrinsic drivers and how to balance between them. It is assumed in this doctoral thesis that ethical communication, as regards to the way and the content of communication, and leadership skills are perceived as key successes in behavioral factors to improve employees' engagement. To achieve the goals of the dissertation the following objectives have been formulated:

1. Identification of the main intrinsic theories, definitions, approaches, antecedents, outcome drivers and disengagement factors (Chapter 1.1-1.7).
2. Analyze the main important employees' engagement factors: organizational culture, motivation, and trust (Chapter 2.1-2.3).
3. Identifying the relationship between employee engagement, organizational culture, motivation, and trust (Chapter 2.4).
4. Identification of the measurements of employee engagement in accordance with its definitions and approaches and its relevance to this dissertation

### **The dissertation structure**

The dissertation consists of an introduction, four chapters and summary and conclusions. The four chapters are:

The first chapter is a literature review which examines deeply the multi facets of employee engagement concept: the evolution of the concept, the four most important employee engagement theories, the seven different approaches to employee engagement which explain the diversity and complexity of the concept , definitions and approaches, the antecedents and the two outcomes of engagement, both performance and the moral. It also examines the main drivers of employee engagement which mainly discuss the empowerments factors and the disengagement factors and the role of managers in creating employee engagement.

The second chapter combines theoretical and practical issues and focuses on a review of the factors which influence employee engagement which include the three independent variables; organizational culture, motivation and trust and examines its main definitions,



approaches and drivers. It presents a comprehensive review of the main motivation theories, which are perceived as the basic layers of the employee engagement theories, the concept of organizational culture as the basis of organizational existence the differences between the three types of cultures: organizational culture, national culture and corporation culture , the role of the values and behaviors in the context of the culture . It analyzes the trust factor and refers to the newest approach of neuroscience management to build trust. It presents the most important approaches for assimilation to create employee engagement. The chapter ends with a comprehensive review of different employee engagement measurements.

The third chapter of the dissertation opens with a presentation of research, assumptions and methodology, the presentation of the results of the study which are based on an analysis of a qualitative survey. Three analysis methods served as the basis: Pearson, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA,) and Multiple regression. The questionnaire was built on a Likert scale from 1-5, which included statements referring to the four variables: organizational culture, motivation, trust, and engagement. The internal reliability was checked using Cronbach's alpha as a measurement tool and was found to have a high level of reliability. The calculation of each index was a mean of all the items related to the index

The fourth chapter is the discussion of the findings in the light of the literature research, the survey findings, and the work experience of the author of this dissertation. . The first part of the chapter summarized the research findings and discussed the correlations between the variables and its influence on employee engagement. The second part analyze main topics such as the direct prediction model of employee engagement and its significance and implications, the relationship between national culture, organizational culture, and corporate culture, national culture and corporate culture as predictors of employee engagement, the roll of the leaders and managers in building and sustaining a high employee engagement level and the third part refers to the contribution of this research to theory its practical implications and the limitations of the research and future research directions.

*Businesses that orient performance management systems around basic human needs for psychological employee engagement get the most out of their employees (Gallup, 2017).*

## **Chapter 1: Literature review of employee engagement**

The purpose of Chapter 1 is to introduce the employee engagement concept which represent a new approach in management to create a higher motivation level of employees. Thus, the chapter analyzes the main components of the employee engagement approach. It starts with the presentation of the research development of the term employee engagement going through the analysis of the four intrinsic main theories which are perceived as the main important layers for understanding the employee engagement theory, analyzing the different approaches and definitions of employee engagement . The following paragraphs display the main antecedents of employee engagement followed by a presentation of the benefits of creating an engaged employee and the role of the leaders to achieve it, presenting the important drivers to create a supportive work environment, which is considered a key success factor for creating employee engagement and ends by analyzing the disengagement factors and a summary of Chapter 1.

### **1.1 The evolution of the concept of employee engagement**

Welch (2011) defined three stages or 'waves' in the evolution of the concept of employee engagement. The first wave (1990-1999) begins with early scientific work on employee engagement and closes with a large amount of interest in the topic of employee engagement by practitioners. The first wave begins in the 1990s with Kahn's work on personal employee engagement (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Kahn (1990) was the first to present an academic paper on employee engagement which offered employee engagement as a new way to approach employee motivation. He depicted it from a behavioral perspective based on three dimensions of physical, emotional, and cognitive employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Guest, 2014; Shuck, 2010). The second wave (2000-2006) can be seen in works produced during the first half of the 2000's and consisted of a huge amount of practitioner work, and lot of

interest from academics. Consultancy firms linked high employee engagement to high business performance and developed different employee engagement measurement tools such as the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) (Harter et al., 2002) based on the Q12 employee engagement questionnaire (Harter et al., 2016). An important development in this wave was the presentation of the positive psychology movement which switched focus from negative consequences to work like job burnout, to positive drivers like employee engagement (Welch, 2011). At the forefront of the third wave (2006-2010) stands the work of A.M. Saks (2006), who was the first to define both job employee engagement and organizational engagement. His work gave legitimacy to the employee engagement approach as he directly addressed the fear that the concept was more of a buzzword than a serious construct. His work provided a convincing argument that presents employee engagement as a scientific concept, and his endorsement of the construct inspired subsequent scientific endeavors (Welch, 2011).

Employee engagement was defined differently from the two similar constructs: commitment and employee satisfaction. Nohria et al. (2008), explained the differences between the related constructs: Employee engagement is perceived as "the energy, effort, and initiative employees bring to their jobs" while satisfaction is perceived as "the extent to which employees feel that the company meets their expectations at work and satisfies its implicit and explicit contracts", and commitment is perceived as "the extent to which employees engage in corporate citizenship" (Nohria et al., 2008, p. 1).

## **1.2 Intrinsic motivation theories as the basis for engagement**

According to Basset-Jones & Llyod (2005) the four most important traditional motivation-needs theories which are still taught to business students today are - the hierarchy pyramid of needs theory by Maslow (1943), the two-factor theory (TFT) by Herzberg et al. (1959), expectancy theory (ET) by Vroom (1964), existence and relatedness-growth theory (ERGT) by Alderfer (1972). All these theories claimed that extrinsic drivers, such as rewards, punishment, and incentives, are needed to create employee performance, perseverance, and productivity (Heath, 1999; Steers et al., 2004). But it was the human relations movement which presented a new approach to employee motivation which analyzed the interaction of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Steers et al., 2004). Intrinsic motivation, which is important

in the understanding of employee engagement, is an internal part of the person and linked to the task itself, rather than the context of the task. Intrinsically motivated behavior is characterized as follows: "the work and action taken by the employee are not dependent upon the supervision of others nor upon rewards mediated by others" (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 668). It is "associated with self-determination, or the idea of freely choosing to act, on the basis of one's own motivation, in adherence with internal standards that are integrated into the self" (Anderson & Pearson, 1999, p. 269). Intrinsic motivation is linked to the internal human being's nature to examine the environment, develop its own abilities, and meet challenging goals. When people are motivated intrinsically, they feel sense of choice and incorporate the activity in which they are engaged (Guntert, 2015). Prior research which distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation reached the conclusion that intrinsically motivated people feel more satisfaction at their workplace (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Miserandino, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Ryan, Sheldon & Kasser, 1996).

At least twenty theories have emerged since the employee engagement theory was first presented by Kahn in 1990 and have been used by researchers to explain conditions in which employees are intrinsically motivated when performing a job as well as the association between intrinsic motivation and the employee engagement construct (Bailey et al., 2017a; Schaufeli et al., 2006). The most relevant theoretical frameworks for this study, which can best explain the interrelations between the study variables of organizational culture, motivation, trust, and engagement, are the following: job demands-resources theory (JDRT) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007); social exchange theory (SET) (Emerson, 1976); self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci et al., 1989; Deci & Ryan, 2000); and job design theory (JDT) (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

### **1.2.1 The job demands-resources theory**

The job demands-resources theory (JDRT), developed by Bakker & Demerouti (2007) is the most cited in this field associated with the concepts of work employee engagement and organizational employee engagement (Albrecht et al., 2015; Balducci et al., 2010; Bailey et al., 2017b.; Rees et al., 2013). The JDT model assumes that each occupation has its own specific risk factors associated with job stress. These factors are divided into two categories: job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Resources like job-related

resources (e.g. autonomy, feedback, supervisor support) or personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy, optimism, resilience) may create a motivational process which may result in job-related learning, work engagement, and organizational commitment (Salanova et al., 2005; Taris & Feij, 2004). Schaufeli & Bakker (2004a, 2004b) defined job demands as physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job which demand continuous physical and/or psychological effort. Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn stress factors in a job when meeting demands which are associated with high effort, high work pressure, emotional demands, and role ambiguity and can lead to sleep problems, exhaustion, and impaired health (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). There are six areas of work which can influence the employee's perception of job demands and job resources and in turn influence engagement. The six areas of work life are: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Albrecht et al., 2015). These JDR factors can influence work engagement, and in turn influence important outcomes and financial returns. When employees have personal and job-related resources, they will be more engaged with their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bailey et al., 2017a).

### **1.2.2 Social exchange theory**

Social exchange theory (SET), developed by Emerson (1976), is the second most-widely used theoretical framework and states that employee engagement is a reciprocal relationship which leads to trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments, taking into account that rules of exchange are observed (Bailey et al., 2017a; Blau, 2017; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Emerson, 1976; Harter et al., 2002; Reissner & Pagan, 2013; Saks, 2006). When employees feel that they are well treated and valued, when they perceive the organization's conduct to be fair, they will respond by investing more effort through their sense of employee engagement (Alfes et al., 2012; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Saks, 2006). The organizational practices and behaviors send signals to employees about how much they are valued and trusted, and these signals heighten the employees' feelings about their obligation to work and reciprocate by showing positive behaviors (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007).

Guest (2014) raised an important aspect of employee engagement by raising the dilemma that organizations, having engaged employees, do not offer employees anything in return. He concluded that any approach to promote employee engagement should attract

employees by offering them reasons to be engaged. Social exchange theory is an important layer of organizational behavior and can give leaders a guiding framework of how to develop an organizational employee engagement policy (Saks 2006; Steers et al., 2004). When an employee is given something positive, he will feel obliged to reciprocate (Guest ,2014). This theory is a frame of reference within many theories which can speak to one another. Its scope is defined by the assumption that any source will continue to flow only if there is a value-return contingent upon it. Psychologists called this 'contingent-return reinforcement', while economists called it 'reciprocally contingent flow exchange' (Emerson, 1976, p. 359).

### **1.2.3 Self- determination theory**

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a general approach to human motivation and personality that communicates with quality motivation developed by Deci & Ryan (1985). SDT is based on the understanding that people have an inner drive for learning from birth, which is influenced by the environment (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). The way this natural drive is realized, depends on meeting one's psychological needs. There are three psychological needs which influence intrinsic motivation: competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Social contexts can destroy or build intrinsic motivation based upon the way you meet these needs. Based on this theory, researchers identified three types of interaction between these needs and the environment:

1. Intrinsic motivation - the drive to perform an action or any work for the sake of pleasure or satisfaction.
2. Extrinsic motivation – executing any job or activity driven by a feeling of obligation, or to achieve an end.
3. Amotivation - the lack of inner drive to perform any activity because of not valuing it or feeling unable to get a desired outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Vallerand et al., 1992).

Deci & Ryan (2000) defined four types of extrinsic motivation: external motivation (defined as acting based on an external inducement or reward), introjected motivation (refers to acting based on introjects, or feelings of guilt, shame, or fear), identified motivation (characterized by action taken because the individual sees a meaningful relationship between the action and their own personal goals) and integrated motivation

(experienced when the action is deeply aligned with the individual's sense of self, or identity).

There are differences between the four types of extrinsic motivation regarding the extent of self-determination which is linked with the behavior of the individual. The more internalized or more integrated behaviors create a greater sense of self-determination (Ryan et al., 1996). SDT differentiates between autonomous motivation (engagement) and controlled motivation (withdrawal). There is another motivational state identified within SDT which is the reactive autonomy. Koestner & Losier (1996) have shown that people sometimes react to loss of autonomy by rebelling against the source of control. SDT explores the processes through which extrinsic motivation can become autonomous, and this makes the theory unique. Research suggests that intrinsic motivation (based on interest) and autonomous extrinsic motivation (based on importance) are both related to performance, satisfaction, trust, and well-being in the workplace (Gange & Deci, 2005).

SDT defines the needs as universal necessities, which are crucial for human development and integrity (Ryan et al., 1996). Regarding this definition a need exists only to the extent that its satisfaction promotes psychological health. SDT explains not only employee engagement but also the psychological states and behavioral reactions that can result in the absence of employee engagement (Meyer & Gagne, 2008). SDT theory is considered a breakthrough in understanding work motivation (McGregor & Doshias, 2015) and without it we would be unable to believe that employees are sometimes motivated because they truly enjoy what they do (Facer, 2012). SDT was also defined as "'motivation 3.0', an evolutionary drive process which presumes that humans also have a third drive: to learn, to create, and better the world" (Pink, 2009, p. 210).

#### **1.2.4 Job design theory**

The job design theory (JDT) places the task itself at the center of employee motivation. The theory defined boring and monotonous jobs as factors which destroy motivation to perform well, while factors which are considered as challenging in a job include: variety, autonomy, and decision autonomy, job enrichment and job rotation (Ramlall, 2004). The job design theory is correlated to two other motivation theories: the motivation-hygiene theory and the job characteristic model.

Herzberg was one of the first researchers who analyzed the correlation between job redesign and motivation (Herzberg et al., 1966; Herzberg, 1968). His theory is based on a survey conducted among 200 accountants. The participants described a satisfying experience relating to factors that were intrinsic to the job itself. These factors, which were defined as “motivators” included: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. While the factors which harm motivation and result in a dissatisfying experience were defined as “hygiene” factors, mainly as an outcome of extrinsic, non-job-related factors, and were related to company policies, salary, coworker relationships, and supervisory styles (Steers & Porter, 1983).

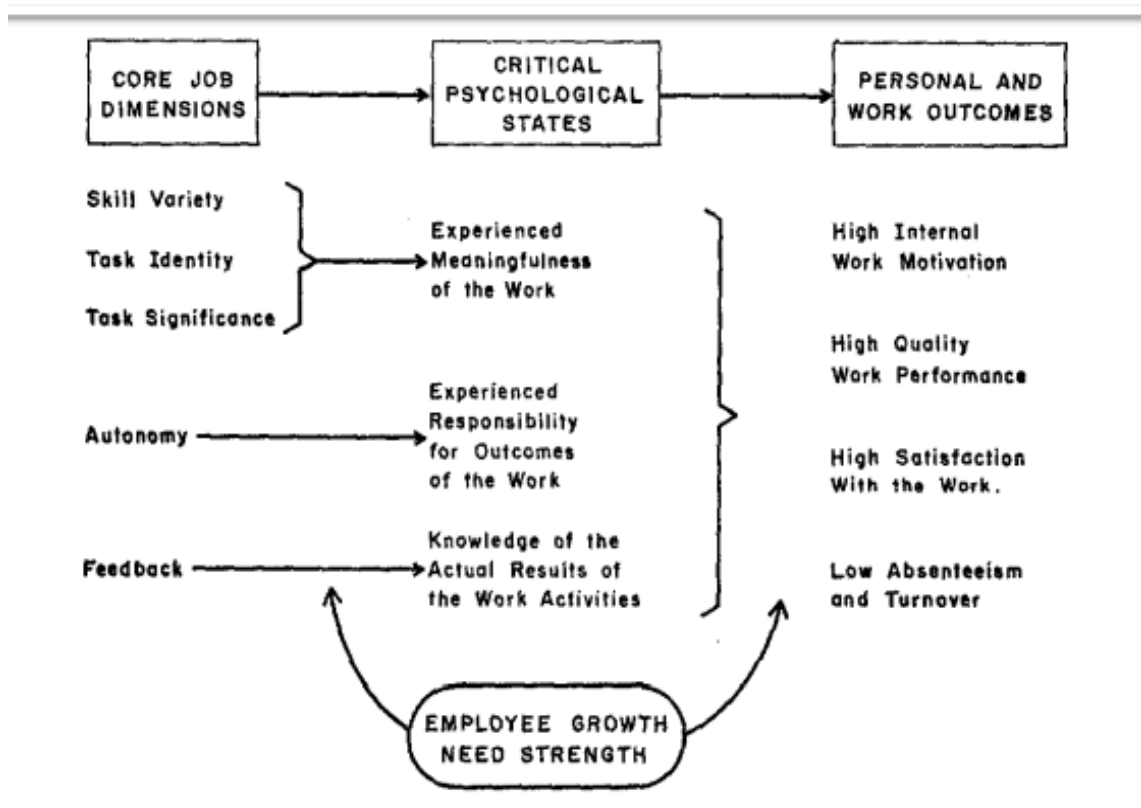
Herzberg claimed that satisfaction (and motivation) can occur only because of the application of motivators and through basic changes in an employee’s behavior while focusing only on eliminating the reasons of dissatisfaction will result on creating a neutral state satisfaction (Steers & Porter, 1983). Thus, to increase challenge and responsibility, opportunities, personal growth, and recognition we should redesign the job according to the employee skills and capabilities. Herzberg (1968) disputes the ideas shared by managers that money and benefits motivate employees. Instead he believes that continuous job enrichment will motivate employees. Herzberg’s ideas were supported years later by Basset-Jones & Lloyd (2005), who conducted a large survey with over 3,200 responses about “What motivates employees to contribute ideas?”. They found that Herzberg’s predictions, of factors associated with intrinsic satisfaction, play a more important part in increasing motivation. Their work demonstrates that despite the criticism, Herzberg’s two-factors theory still has utility nearly 50 years after it was first developed (Furnaham et al. 2009; Herzberg et al., 1966; Herzberg & Brahler, 2006; Hunter, 2012; Jason, 2014).

Hackman & Oldham (1976) presented the most popular theory on job design which is quite the same of Herzberg theory (Pinder, 1998). The model of Hackman and Oldham (1976) (Figure 1) explained clearly how people are motivated in the work place as a result of five specific core factors of jobs essential for creating meaningful work: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These core factors have been described by various authors in the following ways: Skill variety as the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 257). Task identity as the



degree to which the job requires completion of a 'whole' and identifiable piece of work; that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. Task significance as the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment. Autonomy is described as the degree to which the 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. And feedback as degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance (Hackman & Oldham 1976, p. 257-258). These five core factors promote three sociological states which are defined as the main keys for creating engagement: meaningfulness, personal responsibility for outcomes and understanding the connection between the job and the actual results of it. The result of the processes will lead to a useful outcome on both the personal and work levels: high Internal work motivation, high quality work performance low absenteeism and staff turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 255-258). Thus based on the job characteristics model the potential of a job to create intrinsic work motivation should be highest when there is a full alignment of the following three conditions ; the job is high on at least one (and hopefully more) of the three job dimensions that lead to experienced meaningfulness, the job is high on autonomy, and the job is high on feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p.258). They argued multiple job talents are perceived as more meaningful and as a result are more intrinsically motivating.

Pinder (1998) supported this idea but Kahneman et al. (2011) introduced a different approach to job enlargement and job enrichment. He argued that switching intensively from one assignment to another requires a lot of effort specifically in a time of pressure and is not enjoyable to the person who is doing it.



**Figure 1: The job characteristics model of work motivation**

Source: Hackman & Oldham (1976).

### 1.3 Definitions and approaches

There are many disagreements about the definition of employee engagement and how to measure it. As a result, there is an absence of a universal, undisputed definition and measurement (Bailey et al., 2017a; Bedarkar & Panndita, 2014; Douglas, 2010). Precise definitions of employee engagement are rare, and there are many interchangeable terms, e.g.: 'organizational climate', 'organizational engagement', 'organizational culture', 'managerial climate', 'organizational atmosphere', or 'management culture' (Guest, 2014; Owens, 1981). All of them refer to a positive attachment to work, and they contain reciprocal theoretical references to each other (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). Employee engagement is conceptualized as the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles (Kahan, 1990), and the investment of an individual's complete self into a role" (Rich & Crawford, 2015, p. 617) and gives a larger explanation of the relationship with performance than other well-known concepts (Rich & Crawford, 2015). Researchers agree that employee engagement is a psychological construct but continue to debate whether employee

engagement is an approach, a behavior, or a group or individual level phenomenon (Douglas, 2010). Employee engagement is associated with a large-scale understanding of the organization's purpose (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006) and evolved as a core construct in industrial and organizational psychology to describe the mental state underlying high levels of work motivation (Bledow et al., 2011).

Saks (2006) claimed that employee engagement can be perceived as the individual's pay back to their organization and that employees choose to engage themselves as a response to the resources they receive from their organization. Strong employee engagement behavior with work can be perceived as a relationship which turns over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Work employee engagement is a dynamic motivational state that changes with altering circumstances (Sonnentag et al., 2010). Thus, high work employee engagement is associated with a change of the employee's situation moving from negative events and negative mood to a situation in a high-positive mood (Bledow et al., 2011). By building a culture that promotes positive events and that strengthens the beneficial rather than the detrimental consequences of negative events, organizations can increase employee engagement (Bledow et al., 2011).

A synthesis of narrative evidence involving 214 studies that focused on the definitions, meaning, antecedents, and outcomes of employee engagement revealed that definitions of employee engagement could be grouped under the four following main headings (Bailey et al., 2017a, 2017b): personal role engagement, work task engagement, multidimensional employee engagement, management practice and self-employee engagement with performance.

### **1.3.1 Personal role engagement**

Kahn (1990) viewed personal role engagement as the individual's cognitive, emotional, and physical expression of the authentic self at work. He argued that there are three psychological conditions: meaningfulness, psychological safety, and experienced availability, which are considered as determining and mediating effects on employee engagement (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Meaningfulness has the strongest positive relationship with employee engagement (May et al., 2004). Meaningfulness is conceptualized as feeling that one's work was worthwhile and is accompanied by a sense of value in one's accomplishment at work (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Meaningfulness is present for employees when they derive a personal

return on investment through increased physical, psychological, and cognitive energy (Kahn, 1990, 1992).

Psychological safety is experienced when employees believe they can show up as their true selves without fear of negative consequences to their personal or professional standing in the organization (Kahn 1990, 1992). Employees feel safe when they can trust that there will be no negative repercussions to their personal employee engagement at work. Finally, psychological availability refers to employees having the physical, emotional, and psychological resources which allow them to stay engaged despite personal and professional distractions that occur day-to-day and moment-to-moment. In contrast employees who are highly disengaged in their work roles do not invest their physical, cognitive, and emotional energies, and this is reflected in task activity that is, at best, robotic, passive, and detached (Crawford et al., 2010; Goffman, 1959).

Meaningfulness, or meaningful work, can be considered as a deeper level of intrinsic motivation (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). They defined it as a holistic approach to workplace motivation which combines intrinsic aspects of work motivation with the contextual and organizational factors. According to the researchers meaning is more deeply intrinsic than values, which are defined in the organization literature as drivers to motivation based on the result or outcome. These levels of intrinsic motivation are about the meaning of the work itself to the individual (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). "As long as a goal provides clear objectives, clear rules for action and a way to concentrate and become involved, any goal can serve to give meaning to a person's life" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 215). The importance of Csikszentmihalyi's research was to discover how intrinsically motivated people are driven by the work itself rather by the accomplishment of the task. In his research he discovered a kind of experience where people's performance seemed effortless. These people describe the feeling of being able to continue forever at the task and want to learn additional skills to master more demanding challenges and this feeling is labeled as "flow". He stated that situations arise in which attention can be freely invested to achieve a person's goals as there is no disorder to be straightened out and no threat to be defended by the person. This he called the flow experience which is the opposite of physic entropy sometimes called negentropy meaning that those who attain this state develop a stronger, more confident self

because they have invested more of their psychic energy in their goals that they have chosen to pursue of their own volition(Csikszentmihalyi , 1990 p. 40).

However, the work itself is only one aspect of the construct of meaningful work (Chalofsky & Krishna's, 2009). They identified three other themes which are the basis of a deeper level of motivation, which are: sense of self, the work itself and the sense of balance. These themes build a deeper motivation than the traditional intrinsic values of a sense of accomplishment, pride, satisfaction, and praise from one's supervisor. They differentiate between the meaning of work and the meaning at work. Meaning of work is the desire "to be part of an organization that is going to take care of them and help them take care of their families, support their growth through skill and knowledge development, understand the need to have some work/life balance and use their skills and abilities in a way that is meaningful" Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009, p. 194). Whereas meaning at work is connected to the relationship between the person and the organization or the workplace, in terms of commitment and engagement. When there is meaning at work "only then the work turns to be more joyful and the organization can flourish with commitment, passion, imagination, spirit and soul" (Richards, 1995, p. 94). When there is meaningful work, the commitment and employee engagement to the organization and to the work itself are stronger. As a result, meaningful work can bring a lot of benefits to the organization, lead to work outcomes such as satisfaction, employee engagement and commitment, individual and organizational fulfillment, productivity, retention, and loyalty (Geldenhhuys et al., 2014).

### **1.3.2 Work task engagement**

This is the dominant stream of research which views employee engagement as an activate positive state directed toward the work task (Bailey et al., 2017a). This is based on the idea that employee engagement is the opposite of burnout. Maslach et al. (2001) who presented this theory define employee engagement as a positive affective state characterized by high levels of activation and pleasure. 'Burnout' was conceptualized to be the erosion of engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a) in their study which focused on burnout and its positive antipode, engagement, concluded that burnout and employee engagement are considered opposites, particularly as far as exhaustion and vigor, and cynicism and dedication are concerned. The Utrecht Group defined employee engagement as "a positive,

fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor (high level of energy, willingness to invest effort, persistence), dedication (strong involvement in work, experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm) and absorption (being fully connected to work, where time passes quickly)" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 85; Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006, p. 701).

### **1.3.3 Multidimensional employee engagement**

Saks (2006, p. 601) defined employee engagement as a "distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral competence that is associated with individual role performance", thereby distinguishing between work employee engagement and organization employee engagement. There is a conceptual differentiation between the two concepts. Work employee engagement relates to employee well-being. It is a psychological term, which operates at the individual level. While organizational employee engagement is primarily concerned with improving organizational performance (Saks, 2006; Guest, 2014). This approach views employee engagement as a composite attitudinal and behavioral construct. Swanberg et al. (2011) who represent this approach adopted the Utrecht definition of employee engagement but analyzed it in the context of cognitive and emotional employee engagement as well as behavioral engagement, and thereby went beyond the employee engagement construct proposed by the Utrecht Group. This approach is perhaps the closest to what many practitioners understand as "employee engagement", since it includes positive attitudes towards the organization, including satisfaction with managers, communication, and resources (Swanberg et al., 2011).

### **1.3.4 Management practice and self-employee engagement with performance**

This approach is a new and emerging area of interest (Bailey et al., 2017a). It lies more within the field of involvement, intervention, and participation, and is linked to the practitioner approach which differs from the academic approach in purpose and outcomes (Arrowsmith and Parker, 2013; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wefald & Downey, 2009). The practitioner approach focuses on the usability of employee engagement and its actionable outcomes to improve retention, commitment, and productivity (Saks, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009). Human resource management considers employee engagement a management practice, which is, "doing engagement" instead of "being engaged" and is a

very different view of employee engagement and far from its original roots, within the positive psychology movement (Truss et al. cited in Bailey et al. 2017a, p. 35).

The practitioner literature pointed out that managers try to engage employees without taking in consideration the occurrence of conflicting interests and identifications of employees, or of job features which may be of benefit to employees (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013). In contrast the academic approach is focused on defining the psychological concept, and giving more attention to the micro individual level for getting a better understanding of the engagements' antecedents, variables and outcomes and the interrelation between all of them which impact the development of employee engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Crawford et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Based on an examination of these two approaches the researchers found six main organizational features of employee engagement drivers: 1. organizational values; 2. job features; 3. organizational support; 4. social relationships ; 5. employee voice; 6. organizational integrity, i.e., the way in which organizational values are translated into practice (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013, p. 2685). There are two key components of employee engagement related to performance: spontaneity (Goffman, 1959) and variability (Kahn, 1990). Spontaneity means that we can accept an unwanted role, we can be forced to perform it - but we cannot be ordered to engage with it. Variability means that a person can feel engaged with one role and not with another (Goffman, 1959; Kahn, 1990).

#### **1.4 Antecedents of engagement**

Antecedents of employee engagement can be grouped under five main headings (Bailey et al., 2017a, pp. 37-39): 1. the psychological states; 2. experienced job-design-related factors; 3. perceived leadership and management; 4. individual perceptions of organizational and team factors; 5. organizational interventions or activities (Bailey, et all., 2017). Wollard & Shuck (2011) conducted a relational analysis of 265 abstracts relating to employee engagement, and they sum up a list of individual and organizational antecedents to employee engagement (Table 2).

**Table 2: Individual and organizational antecedents to employee engagement**

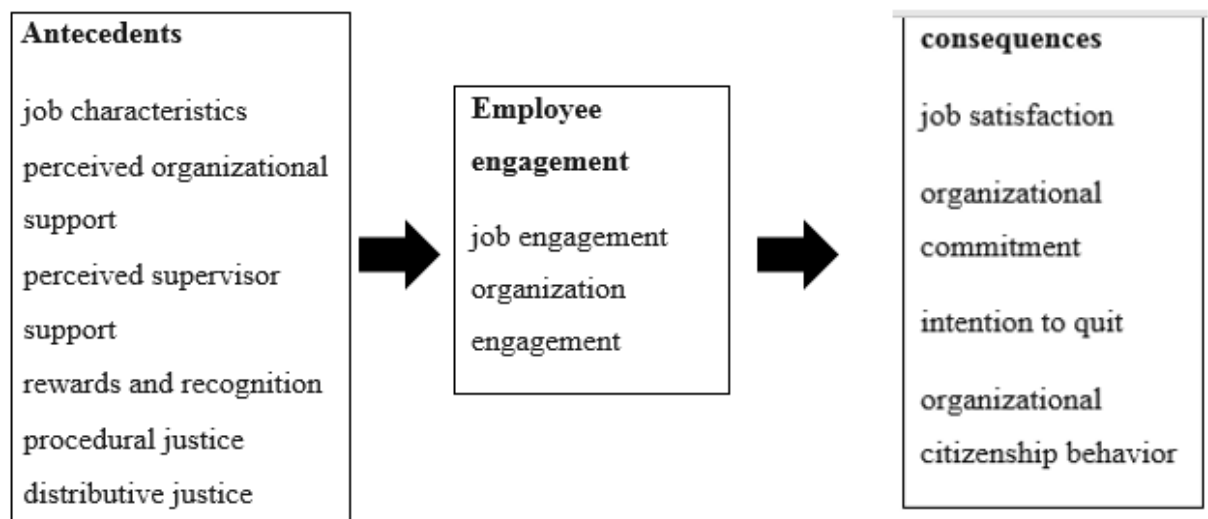
Individual antecedents to employee engagement	Organizational antecedents to employee engagement
<p>Absorption</p> <p>Available to engage</p> <p>Coping style</p> <p>Curiosity</p> <p>Dedication</p> <p>Emotional fit</p> <p>Employee motivation</p> <p>Employee/work/family status</p> <p>Feelings of choice &amp; control</p> <p>Higher levels of corporate citizenship</p> <p>Involvement in meaningful work</p> <p>Links between individual and organizational goals</p> <p>Optimism</p> <p>Perceived organizational support</p> <p>Self-esteem, self-efficacy</p> <p>Vigor</p> <p>Willingness to direct personal energies</p> <p>Work/life balance</p> <p>Core self-evaluation</p> <p>Value Congruence</p> <p>Perceived Organizational Support</p>	<p>Authentic corporate culture</p> <p>Clear expectations</p> <p>Corporate social responsibility</p> <p>Encouragement</p> <p>Feedback</p> <p>Hygiene factors</p> <p>Job characteristics</p> <p>Job control</p> <p>Job fit</p> <p>Leadership</p> <p>Level of task challenge</p> <p>Manager expectations</p> <p>Manager self-efficacy</p> <p>Mission and vision</p> <p>Opportunities for learning</p> <p>Perception of workplace safety</p> <p>Positive workplace climate</p> <p>Rewards</p> <p>Supportive organizational culture</p> <p>Talent management</p> <p>Use of strengths</p>

Source: Wollard & Shuck, (2011).

Individual antecedents were defined as constructs, strategies, and conditions that were implemented directly by individual employees while organizational-level antecedents were defined as constructs, strategies, and conditions implemented across an organization: both types are basic to the development of employee engagement (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). The courage and readiness of employees to speak up, raise their voices, and tell the truth to their managers is an important antecedent for employee engagement. It relates to the safety environment, or climate, which was defined as the ability to be one's preferred self without



fearing "negative consequences to self-image, status or career" (Kahn, 1990, p. 705). There is an ambivalence about employee engagement as a predictor of behavior. Even though researchers have agreed that engagement, as a motivation variable, should lead to a high level of job performance, "we know little about engagement's uniqueness as a predictor of job performance" (Christian et al., 2011, p. 89). Employees' satisfaction at work can be an important antecedent to their engagement, and this can be measured by the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) (Gallup 2017). Saks (2006) differentiates between job employee engagement and organization employee engagement and defined it in a model which combined both organization and job employee engagement and its antecedents and consequences (Figure 2).



**Figure 2: A model of antecedents and consequences of employee engagement**

Source: Saks (2006).

Job and organization engagements stand at the heart of the model as employees have multiple roles in the organization. The six antecedents mentioned in the model influence both types of employee engagement; 1. Job characteristics are a dominant antecedent and include, as described in Hackman and Oldham's model (1976): skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback which permit employees to invest an extra effort into their work or to be more engaged) 2. Perceived organizational and supervisor support create a psychological safety environmental workplace and enable the employee to work in a fearless environment and to be more engaged (Kahn, 1992). Additionally, it creates an

employees' obligation to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization achieve its organizational and businesses goals (Rhoades et al., 2001). 3. Rewards and recognition. There are differences in employees' attitudes toward their employee engagement as a function of their perceptions of the benefits they receive from a role. It is assumed that employees will be more likely to engage themselves at work to the degree that they perceive a greater amount of rewards and recognition for their role performance (Kahn,1990). Maslach et al. (2001) have suggested that while a lack of rewards and recognition can lead to burnout, appropriate recognition and reward is important for engagement. 4. Distributive and procedural justice; the safety dimension identified by Kahn (1990) includes social situations that are predictable and consistent. It is important for an organization to be predictable and consistent in terms of the distribution of rewards as well as the procedures used to allocate them. While distributive justice pertains to one's perception of the fairness of decision outcomes, procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means and processes used to determine the amount and distribution of resources (Colquitt, 2001; Rhoades et al., 2001 as quoted in Saks 2006, p. 606) ).Thus when employees regard their organization's justice highly , they are more likely to feel engaged and to perform their roles by giving more of themselves through greater levels of engagement. On the other hand, low perceptions of organizational justice will lead employees to withdraw and disengage themselves from their work role. Consequently, the job and organizational engagement changed the relationships between the antecedents and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to quit, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Saks, 2006, p. 600). OCB is defined as the readiness of the employee to exceed what they perceive to be their job requirements (Morrison, 1994) or the "contributions that participants choose to proffer or withhold without regard to considerations of sanctions or formal incentives"(Organ as cited in Morrison, 1994, p. 1562).

### **1.5 Outcomes of employee engagement**

Bailey et al. (2017a) defined two types of outcomes of employee engagement: performance and moral outcomes (Bailey et al., 2017a+b). Most researchers agree that employee engagement is associated with high performance and meaningful business outcomes, higher levels of profit and a higher overall revenue and growth, at a magnitude that is important to many organizations and that these relationships generalize across

companies (Albrecht et al.,2015; Federman, 2010; Harter et al.,2002; Gallup, 2017; Oehler et al., 2015; Rich et al., 2010; Sinha & Tivedi, 2014; Taneja et al., 2015; Shuck, 2010; Swington – Douglas, 2010; Ugwu et al., 2014). Markos & Sridevi (2010) defined three general behaviors which indicate a high level of employee engagement and which improve organizational performance. These behaviors are defined as the three S's:

**Say** - the employee will recommend his workplace to co-workers and customers.

**Stay** - the employee will demonstrate a high loyalty to the organization despite opportunities to work elsewhere.

**Strive** - the employee exerts extra mile effort to contribute to the success of the business.

Shuck (2011, pp. 2-5), based on several studies, defined the following performance outcomes of employee engagement: the employee will stay longer with his company. Engaged employees are 87% less likely to leave a company (Buchanan, 2004; Gallup, 2017). Their willingness to go above and beyond the call of duty increases by 57%, resulting in a 20% increase in individual performance improvement (Buchanan, 2004). It was found that highly engaged employees are exposed to fewer accidents on the job (Wagner & Harter, 2006), realize 70% fewer safety incidents and 58% fewer patient safety incidents, experience 28% less shrinkage (the dollar amount of unaccounted-for merchandise) and 40% fewer quality incidents (defects) (Gallup,2017). They have been shown to score between 12% and 34% higher on customer-satisfaction rating scales, and they average \$80,000 to \$120,000 in higher sales each month (Wagner & Harter, 2006). Recent evidence points toward a direct employee-engagement-profit linkage (Czarnowsky, 2008; Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Ketter,2008; Wagner & Harter, 2006). Having a higher proportion of engaged employees in an organization has been shown to correlate positively with a company's profit margin (Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Ketter, 2008; Wagner & Harter, 2006). Engaged employees are more present and productive; they are more attuned to the needs of customers; and they are more observant of processes, standards, and systems. The behaviors of highly engaged business units result in 21% higher profitability. Companies with engaged workforces have higher earnings per share (EPS (Gallup, 2017).

Paul & Fenlason (2014) reported that 3M decided to leverage its existing high level of employee commitment and use employee engagement as a tool to boost creativity and efficiency simultaneously. They concluded that "if you want to be the first in the marketplace

with innovative products, then you need your people to be engaged in innovation" (Paul & Fenlason, 2014, p. 8). As they explained, as a foundational change in the company culture 3M began by instituting a common worldwide definition of employee engagement and moved away from measuring only employee satisfaction and expanded it to measuring employee engagement (Paul & Fenlason, 2014).

Moral outcomes can be related and associated with participation, satisfaction, and the energy and focus that employees bring to work. These engaged employees try to shape what happens in the workplace and not just let life happen, they enjoy a state of well-being, vigor, dedication to and absorption in work activities (Bailey et al., 2017a; Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Smith & Dougan, 1996; Swington-Douglas, 2010; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Employees who are more engaged morally are likely to behave in positive and cooperative ways to benefit themselves and the corporation (Salanov & Schaufeli, 2008). They will show a higher interest in their work and will be ready to "go the extra mile" for their firm (Alfes et al., 2012; Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009; Rich et al., 2011). On the contrary employees who are not engaged in their work are less committed and are more likely to leave their organization or quit their jobs (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). They are more concentrated on their unhappiness and distrust toward management, often share their poor experiences with coworkers (Shuck, 2011). Results of the research conducted by Bailey et al. (2017a) showed that employee engagement was most strongly correlated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and they found a moderate correlation between employee engagement and turnover intentions.

### **1.6 Drivers of employee engagement**

Drivers relate to the causes of the employee engagement rather than the effects on antecedents rather than outcomes. The drivers of employee engagement can be categorized by both extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors include the role of the leaders, the human and technological environment, the machinery, and other external factors. Intrinsic motivation factors include all factors which meet the psychological and mental needs of the employees, such as autonomy, voice, recognition, acknowledgment and feedback, respect, and care. There are numerous employee engagement drivers mentioned by the researchers,

among them: senior management’s interest in employees’ well-being, the sense of feeling valued and involved, organizational values, and a collaborative approach (Table 3). A study conducted by Victor & Hoole (2017) maintained that although extrinsic rewards are important to heighten trust and employee engagement within the workplace, intrinsic rewards should not be overlooked, as the modern workforce is increasingly intrinsically driven. They found a moderate-to-strong positive relationship between rewards, trust, and work engagement, and observed that rewards (and more so, intrinsic rewards) were able to predict workplace trust and work engagement. Their study showed that over the past few years, linking organizational rewards with workplace trust and work employee engagement has become significant (Victor & Hoole, 2017). Autonomy is also considered to be an effective driver of engagement. Pink (2009) explained that the desire to direct our own lives leads us to prefer autonomy over task (what they do), time (when they do it), team (with whom they do it), and technique (how they do it). Consequently, companies that offer their employees autonomy, sometimes in extreme doses, outperform their competitors.

**Table 3: Employee engagement drivers**

Name of the researchers	Employee engagement drivers	Notes
Markos & Sridevi (2010)	<p>Senior management’s interest in employees’ well-being, challenging work, and decision-making authority</p> <p>Sense of feeling valued and involved. Involvement in decision making.</p> <p>∓ The extent to which employees feel able to voice their ideas. The opportunities employees must develop their jobs, and the extent to which the organization is concerned for employees’ health and well-being</p>	<p>These are the top three drivers among ten drivers listed by the Towers Perrin Talent Report (2003), based on a comprehensive survey conducted in UK among ten thousand employees.</p>
Jenkins & Delbridge (2013)	Organizational supports,	Based on an examination

	job features, social relationships, employee voice, organizational integrity	of the two approaches to employee engagement the academic and the management practice
Dasgupta et al. (2014)	Collaborative approach. respect and recognition. flexible working arrangements, trust. clear direction; autonomous and challenging tasks, person-job match, flexible working arrangements, brand image, and location near hometown	

Source: Own research.

The author decided to elaborate on the main four following drivers which are highlighted in the literature review and are perceived by the author as crucial for creating employee engagement: 1. empowerment, leadership, and line manager's support. 2. organizational voice. 3. acknowledgement and recognition, appreciation, respect and credit. 4. organizational and personal communication.

### **1.6.1 Empowerment , leadership and line managers' support**

Leadership can be perceived as an antecedent of organizational engagement, and organizational effectiveness (Pugh & Dietz, 2008). Leaders set the tone for the entire organization: "employees look to them for cues about what constitutes acceptable conduct" (Crystal & Brian, 2014, p. 17). They have a crucial influence in enhancing motivation and employee engagement by creating a supportive and safe atmosphere among their employees. Active leadership means that leaders are a source of inspiration to their employees by "walking the walk, not just talking the talk", leading with purpose, leading the vision, mission and values, and implementing them through a cascading system through the middle managers to all employees (De Mello et al., 2008; Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

To empower means not only to give power to your people but also to grant them authority, so that empowerment can mean authorization. Power also may be used as

capacity, according to Conger and Kanungo (1988), who define self-efficacy as identifying and eliminating the conditions that create powerlessness. Power also means energy. Thus, to empower can also mean to energize. This latter meaning best captures the present motivational usage of the term (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). A key aspect of employee development is to allow employees the opportunity to exercise their judgment, beliefs, and skills, including how to personally shape and implement organizational core values. Employees who perceive their managers as authentic, supportive, and sincere are more engaged (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Gallup research shows that about 70% of the variance in employee engagement among workgroups can be attributed to their manager) Gallup, 2017). In contrast passive leadership can directly influence the culture of incivility and be spread in a spiral manner in the organization (Crystal & Brian, 2014; Porath & Pearson, 2013). Incivility is one of the most aggressive behaviors in the workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). A survey performed among thousands of workers in the United States and in Canada in 2012 shows that 50% of the workers behaved rudely in the workplace in 2012, in comparison to 25% in 1998a This behavior creates a feeling of disrespect for the worker, harms his or her creativity, causes a feeling of abandonment, reduces the output and quality, and costs the organizations a considerable amount of money (Porath & Pearson, 2013).

According to Kahneman et al. (2011) managers have an important role in reducing the level of decisions influenced by cognitive bias to improve the quality of the decision-making process in the organization. The researchers note that managers are influenced by their own cognitive biases and as a result make mistakes in the process of decision making by subconsciously ignoring facts that do not serve their preconceptions and prior opinions. However they can correct this in themselves and among members of their staff if they are given the tools, so that over time, they reduce the biases in their organization and significantly improve the quality of the decision-making (Kahneman et al., 2011).

But the main question is still whether the existing perceptions of management are an obstacle to the assimilation of the organizational culture and thus an obstacle to increasing employee engagement.

One of the assumptions is whether there is a need to turn the pyramid upside down and put the worker at its base. Researchers in the field, such as Drucker (2011) and Hamel (2001), note that corporations must change their management perception and place greater

emphasis on flexibility, creativity, ability to perform a rapid strategic change, cooperation between units, and true empowerment of workers at all levels. According to Hamel (2001), the existing management structure is an outdated bureaucratic structure that should be removed, and, in its place, self-management should be created to empower the workers and give them a larger degree of autonomy so that they can achieve their mission to improve business results. He presents two companies, Morning Star and W.L. Gore & Associates, which succeeded in dramatically improving their business results because of the transition to self-management. At the end of the process the organization was more efficient and humane (Hamel, 2001).

Polowczyk (2012) states that managers must go beyond the company and create common good. Companies must consider themselves as social entities that have the creation of sustainable advantages for the company in their mission. They need to create social and economic value, otherwise they will not survive. Managers in the new era need to understand that all is subject to change. They must aspire to innovation and understand the emotional connection of workers to their work. According to Drucker (2011), the workers of the new era must manage themselves. They must position themselves in a way that will allow them to contribute the utmost, but for this purpose they must ask themselves several questions, such as: Who am I? What are my strong areas? How do I work? Where do I belong? What is my contribution to the organization? According to Hamel & Breen (2007), the intangible constraints that exist today in industrial firms are not found in the business model or operative model of the company but in the management model. The laws of management are not parallel to the Newtonian laws of physics, in which everything is determined ahead of time. Therefore the generic method of management invented by managers in the 20th century, which supports a regular management hierarchy, the need for specialization, a pyramid of authorities, the setting of clear objectives, planning on the basis of predictions, supervision over compliance to programs, introduction of motivation through rewards for meeting objectives and so on, cannot serve the companies in the 21st century.

The time has come to discuss ways to change organizational thinking and to undertake a management revolution (Hamel & Breen, 2007).

Managers, particularly line managers, who are perceived as trustworthy and who enable employees to raise their voice and participate actively in the operational processes, can



influence the employees' behavior and attitudes in positive ways because employees feel recognized and listened to (Rees et al., 2013). Studies suggest that managers' behavior and attitudes, at all levels, have a significant influence on the engagement of their employees. Managers who adopt a servant-leadership approach towards their employees and support them can create a highly organizationally engaged environment (Rees et al., 2013). Poor management, at the level of line-managers, when employees cannot express themselves and communicate with their line managers and receive information and feedback from them, can be a root cause of employee disengagement (Purcell, 2010). Trust in senior managers and in line managers constitute the two key aspects of the social-exchange relationship required for employee engagement to flourish (Rees et al., 2013).

### **1.6.2 Organizational voice**

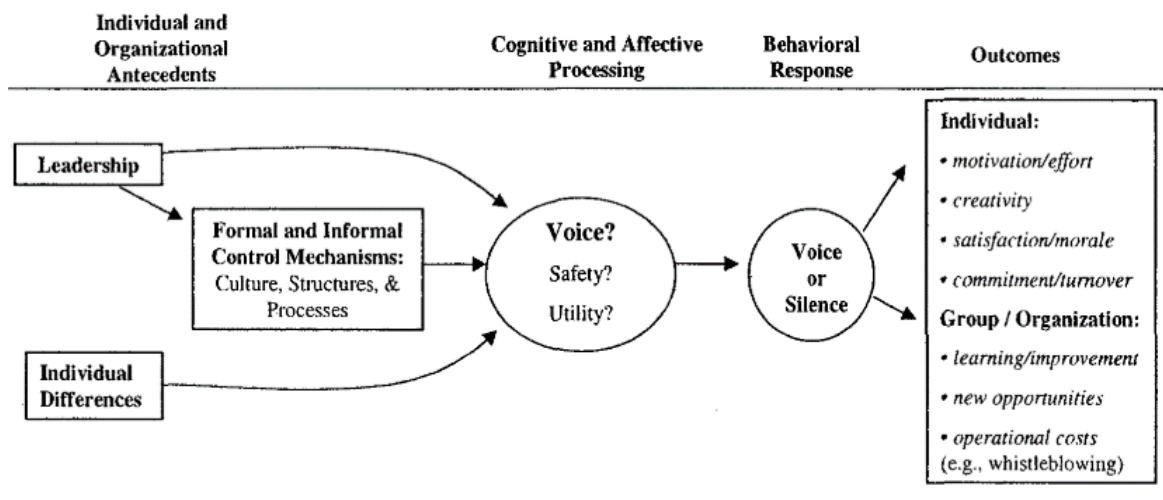
Employee voice is defined as how employees have a say about what is going on in their organization through formal and informal, direct, or indirect channels (Morrisson et al., 2011). Employee voice can also be defined in terms of employees making innovative suggestions for change, even when others disagree (Van Dyne & Lepine, 1988). Recent studies defined employee voice as being "more a matter of the perceptions of employee voice, which will determine whether employees will try to voice their concerns to management or remain silent and/or exit the organization" (Benson & Brown, 2010, p. 82 ). Rees et al. (2013) argued that there is a positive relationship between voice and engagement, voice and trusting senior management, trusting senior management and engagement, voice, and employee–line manager relationship and employee–line manager relationship and engagement. He maintained that when employees feel that they have opportunities for voice, they will respond better and raise their level of engagement.

If employees perceive their work environment to be one where they can share their opinions, ideas, and concerns, i.e, their “voice”, then in turn they are more likely to demonstrate higher levels of engagement. This aspect of employee “voice” is the employee's perceptions of the degree to which he/she feels empowered to engage in behavior to improve their personal work and especially the group work (Rees et al., 2013).

An employee voice can develop in an organizational culture, which adopts the three levels of “learning organization” approach; individual level (people openly discuss mistakes in order

to learn from them, people view problems in their work as an opportunity to learn), team or group level (the ability of teams or groups to revise their thinking because of group discussion or information collected and that people are confident that the organization will act on the recommendations), and organizational level (the readiness of an organization to share with all employees lessons learned and to recognize people for taking initiative to support employees taking calculated risks (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). All these aspects of a learning organization help to foster the development of employee voice.

Leadership is an antecedent of employee voice and should be conceptualized as a multi-level force involving both direct and indirect effects on employee voice of both closest (e.g., immediate supervisors) and distant leaders (e.g., site directors) (Detert, 2003). The following model of organizational voice shown below in Figure 3 is broadly consistent with Morrison & Milliken’s (2000) model of organizational silence, Crant’s (2000) model of the antecedents and consequences of proactive behaviors, Scott and Bruce’s (1994) model of the antecedents of innovative behavior, and Edmondson’s (1999) group-level model depicting the antecedents and outcomes of psychological safety. As depicted in Figure 3 the process of voice is shown as involving individual and organizational antecedents, cognitive and affective processing by the individual, a behavioral response, and subsequent individual, group, and organizational outcomes (Detert, 2013, p. 8).



**Figure 3: The Voice Motivation Model (VMM)**

Source; Detert (2003).

The Voice Motivation Model (VMM) explains the links between leadership behavior (and other voice antecedents) and subordinate voice perceptions. The VMM examines the cognitive and affective processing involved in the formation of voice perceptions in much greater detail than previous conceptions. This model combines ideas from need hierarchy and decision theories into an expectancy-like framework that predicts whether the net motivation to speak up will be positive or negative (Detert, 2003, p. 17).

### **1.6.3 Acknowledgement, recognition, appreciation, respect, and credit**

People at all organizational levels need to be informed, respected, and acknowledged as a person, as a valuable self with their own value and meaning. It should be emphasized that respect for individuals is important at all hierarchical levels of the organization and in all directions. People become more motivated, more engaged, more efficient in their work when they are appreciated by their organizations for their work (Mattila, 2008). When people are appreciated, they perceive their managers as fair regarding the processes and the outcome, and this serves an important psychological need (Greenberg, 1990).

Understanding the relationship between affect and work employee engagement can increase managers' awareness of the importance of giving positive feedback to their employees, especially when employees make mistakes, instead of blaming them, singling them out for criticism, or in the worst cases, humiliating them publicly. Corrective and empowering feedback can create the shift from negative to positive feelings. According to the affective shift model (Beldow, 2011), for employees who are experiencing a shift from negative affect to positive, the motivating potential of positive affect can unfold, and work-employee engagement can increase (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Appreciation fosters well-being and success directly as well as indirectly, through forging and maintaining social bonds, encouraging helping, and building trust. Appreciation may help employees feel valued, which unleashes their intrinsic motivation and desire to excel and to help others - including customers, supervisors, and peers (Fagley & Adler, 2012).

Credit refers to the acknowledgment and appreciation shown by others for an employee's work. It relates to any effort or contribution made to a workplace activity, assignment, or work project, including offering ideas and assistance. Ethical behavior requires that credit be allocated in a fair and just way so that genuine contributors are valued and recognized, as

this may have implications: personally, organizationally, and socially. When credit is unfairly given, it comes at the expense of another employee, who will experience this as unjust, deceitful, and devaluing - even undermining their identity within the organization (Graham & Cooper, 2013). Ariely (2016) defined acknowledgment as "a kind of human magic, a small human connection, a gift from one person to another that translates into a much larger more meaningful outcome" (p. 293). We can increase motivation by simply acknowledging the effort of our employees. If we treat our employees as unique individuals, appreciate them and respect them for their creativity and their intelligence, we can increase their motivation (Ariely, 2016).

#### **1.6.4 Organizational and personal communication**

Communication (downward, upward, and horizontal), is a crucial factor for engagement. It is a key vehicle for employee engagement actions and behaviors and a critical factor for enhancing performance through employee engagement (Bakker et al., 2011; Welch, 2011; Sarangi & Srivastana, 2012). Communication is perceived as the top priority in leading employees to employee engagement (Markos & Sridevi, 2010). In the process of engaging, employees need clear communication from senior management to understand how their own roles fit in with the leadership vision (MacLeod & Clarke, 2009). Managers, on the other side, who communicate strategic and operational issues to employees, have been found to facilitate the creation of employee engagement (Welch, 2011). Fostering two-way communication in management behavior helps organizations create an environment, a culture, in which employees can be engaged (Bakker et al., 2011; Christian et al., 2011; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Employees respond positively to such communication, as it makes them feel valued and involved, which enhances their propensity to engage with the organization. Employees have an active role to play in the employee engagement activities offered by managers (Reissner & Pagan, 2013).

An important variable in organizational communication is openness, which is described as an essential characteristic of an effective organization which influences performance, job satisfaction, role clarity and information adequacy. Thus, while there is no single accepted definition of communication openness, the concept includes both the message sending as

well as the message receiving behaviors of supervisors, subordinates, and peers with regard to a job task, as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: The dimensions of communication openness**

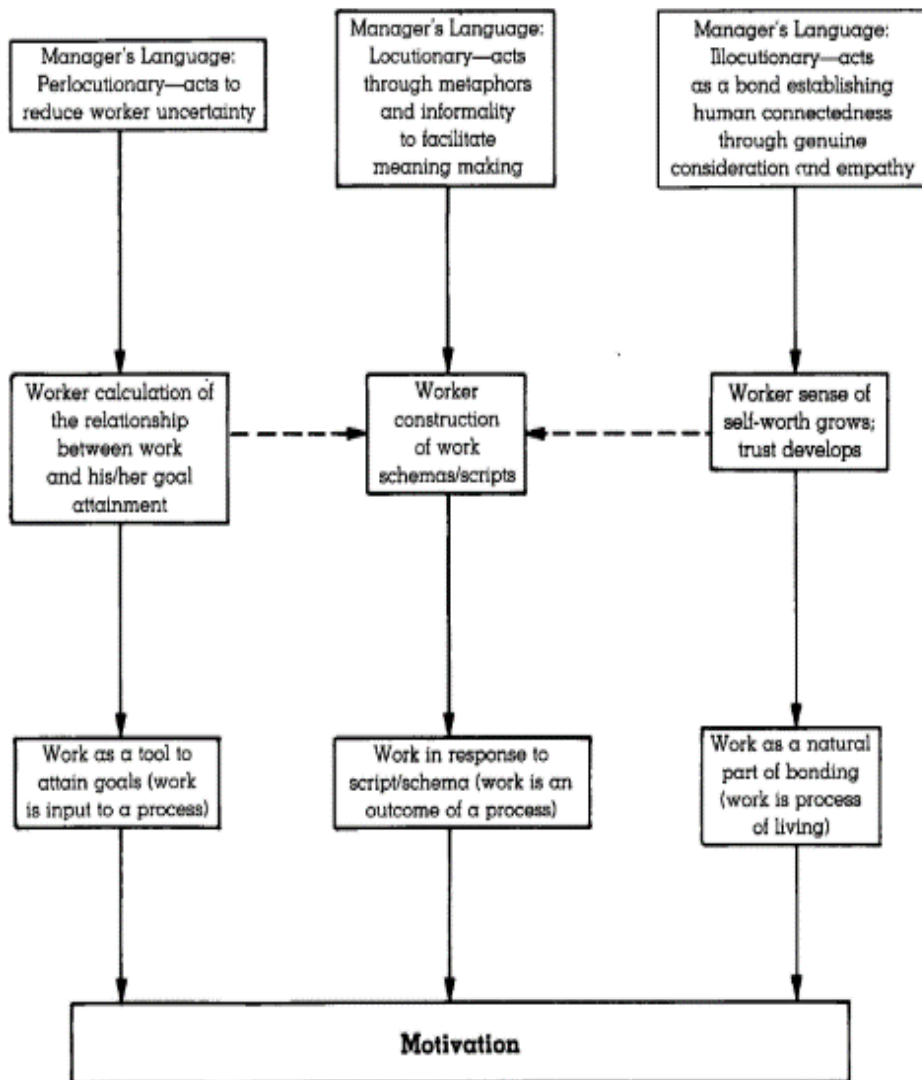
<b>Job title</b>	<b>Message sending:</b>	<b>Message receiving:</b>
<b>Superior behavior</b>	From superior to subordinate (downward)	To superior from subordinate (upward)
<b>Subordinate behavior</b>	From subordinates to superior (upward)	To subordinates from superior (downward)
<b>Peer behavior</b>	From peer to peer (horizontal)	To peer from peer (horizontal)

Source: Redding(1972 as quoted in Roger, 1987).

There are many different communication channels - written, electronic, and digital, but the most effective and valuable channel of communication is still personal face-to-face communication (Goodman & Truss, 2004), which allows for discussion and debate rather than the more impersonal types of communication. A study conducted by the Gallup organization in 2015 which included 2.5 million managers and team leaders in 195 countries found that work-force employee engagement was improved when supervisors had some form of daily communication with direct reports (Zak, 2017-b). This type of communication, both top-down and bottom-up, allowed both managers and employees to have an active role in fostering employee engagement and improved employee performance (Sanders & Frenkel, 2011).

To engage people managers at all levels must choose the most appropriate and effective communication channels, but mainly should use motivational language. What a manager says to an employee affects employee motivation. Motivational language gives the employees, through clear communication and in an ethical way, the knowledge they need for understanding their level of goal performance. The function of language is to facilitate the belief-toward-knowledge process (Sullivan, 1988). The motivating language theory (MLT) (Sullivan, 1988) (Figure4) postulates that uncertainty-reducing language is the primary form of communication. The manager's goal is to communicate with the worker to learn his or her

needs and then to tell the worker how those needs can be satisfied (Sullivan, 1988). MLT proposes that the strategic managerial application of all three speech acts - uncertainty-reducing acts, meaning-making acts and human-bonding acts (Mayfield & Kopf, 1995; Sullivan, 1988) will have a significant and positive effect on employee performance and process outcomes. Figure 4 illustrates the process through which managerial speech can lead to increased motivation levels at work and improved job performance. The more varied the speech, the greater the likelihood that the manager will influence employee motivation (Sullivan, 1988). MLT is correlated with choice theory, motivation, goal setting, expectancies, operant-conditioning, and equity theory. People want to know and understand their performance as regards their job goals to reduce uncertainty, and they perform better if they are properly informed by supervisors. Expectancy theory and operant-conditioning focus on information given to reduce reward uncertainty rather than process and goal uncertainty. Finally, equity theory presumes a demand by the worker for information about fairness (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978; Locke, 1978; Mitchell, 1982).



**Figure 4: The motivating language theory (MLT)**

Source: Sullivan (1988).

Figure 4 describes how managerial speech can lead to motivated work and improved performance. The dotted lines linking schemas to other mental entities depict how these constructions can occur in response to both convincing and unconvincing speech actions. However most worker schema building occurs in the informal communications of managers with employees; these communications will include the small talk, managerial role playing, account giving, folklore, myth making, and use of metaphoric language which constitute locutionary language usage (Sullivan, 1988, p. 111).

### **1.7 Employees' disengagement factors**

Numerous factors are responsible for obstructing motivation and employee disengagement. Here we will discuss the two main factors which have a great influence on demotivating employees, fear, and stress (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

1. Fear is a powerful and pervasive emotion, influencing human perception, cognition, and behavior. Fear in the workplace can be a result of intrinsic psychological causes, but more often it is an outcome of the manager's behavior, e.g., bullying employees, shaming them, or even humiliating them (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). A culture of fear prevails in the organization when fear is the dominating feature of most managers' behavior, of bullying and lack of respect, or at the extreme point, a culture of humiliating employees can paralyze motivation (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). They defined manager bullying as work-related, personal, emotional, and/or physically threatening. These behaviors negatively impact both the individual (in terms of health - both physical and emotional, and motivation) and the organization. Negative organizational impacts of workplace bullying are classified in terms of cost, productivity, reputation, legal issues, and organizational culture. But the implications of fear clearly do not stop with silencing employees, but influence other organizational behaviors and outcomes as well, including communication and co-worker relationships in teams, intergroup relationships, boundary spanning, and employees' restraint to contribute knowledge (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Pillania, 2006).

A culture of fear creates, according to the experience of the author's dissertation, a culture of 'silent survival' employees. This is a culture where employees are scared to speak up or to report in real time about deviations and errors or to suggest new ideas, thus their work motivation is undermined, and they come to the workplace simply in order to earn money to survive.

2. Researchers identified occupational stress as one of the major factors causing demotivation. This factor was also termed 'role stress'. This factor drew much attention from organizational psychologists after it was analyzed in detail in the review of literature in the journal "Personal Psychology" in 1978 by Terry Beehr and John Newman (Bandyopadhyay, 2014). Caplan et al. (1975) defined occupational stress as a symptom of aspects of the job



environment which feel like a threat to the employee. Copper and Marshal (1976) defined the term as a negative environmental factor or stressor associated with a job. Kyriacou & Sutcliffe (1978) defined occupational stress as an experience of unpleasant emotions like depression, anger, tension, frustration, etc..

Orpen (1991) observed that a major source of stress is derived from the occupational environment; supporters of this view tend to argue that role holders in certain occupations, irrespective of individual differences, are much more likely to experience stress. Here the emphasis is on the individual demands of various jobs that have the capacity over a period to exhaust the physical and psychological resource of employees in the organization. Researchers such as Jex et al. (1992) identified attributes like anxiety, anger, frustration, depression etc., as the psychological variables operating within individuals which may be a result of occupational stress. It has also been typically associated with the negative feelings that any employee possesses about his or her work. The researchers are in constant search of alternative ways to improve the motivational level of employees, thereby increasing productivity and reducing occupational stress.

Neuroscience researchers (Zak, 2017 b) differentiate between two kinds of stress: challenge stress that is good for us and chronic stress that is bad for us. Chronic stress which is like a feeling of a weight on our shoulders which never seems to end, and can result in cardiovascular disease, depression and diabetes. One of the main reasons for chronic stress can be the uncertainty about what will happen in the organization. This affects parts of the brain and diminishes motivation and cognition. Uncertainty puts the brain on high alert, reducing concentration and productivity and the ability to evaluate future events, and even to integrate multiple streams of information. More than that, a person cannot even think when he or she faces high levels of uncertainty (Zak, 2017b).

## **1.8 Summary**

The literature revealed that engagement, as an industrial organizational psychological construct, is described as a scientifically behavioral approach (Saks, 2006) and indicates a high level of motivation (Bedow, 2011). Employee engagement is distinguished from other similar constructs, like commitment and job satisfaction and is categorized, in comparison to these two similar constructs, by "harnessing of organization members' selves to their work

roles" (Kahan, 1990). It provides a better explanation of the relationship with performance than other well-known concepts (Crawford et al., 2010; Kahan, 1990). Employee engagement represents a new approach in behavior science, which is first presented in an academic paper written by Kahan (1990). It is difficult to find in the literature precise definitions of employee engagement (Bedarkar & Panndita, 2014; Douglas, 2010) but most of them are relating the term employee engagement to a positive relationship to work, to reciprocal theoretical references to each other (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006), to the internal desire of human beings' nature to explore the environment, create their own abilities and meeting challenges successfully. When intrinsically motivated people feel the sense of choice (Guntert, 2015).

There has been a wide range of research which demonstrates that a high level of employee engagement among employees has a direct relationship with an organization's success. Employee engagement contributes to achieve better organizational results, accompanied by higher levels of profit, higher overall revenue and growth, and maintaining a high level of competitive advantages (Albrecht et al., 2015; Federman, 2010; Rich et al., 2010; Siddiqi, 2013; Sinha et al., 1992; Taneja et al., 2015; Shuck 2010; Swington 2010; Ugwu et al., 2014). Moreover, employee engagement has moral outcomes like participation, satisfaction, and a higher level of energy that employees bring to work.

Employees who are engaged are more likely to trust their management and are more likely to concentrate on achieving their mission attainment, strategic direction, and organizational goals. The engaged employees try to influence the day to day current work and not just let life happen, they usually will enjoy a state of well-being, vigor, dedication to and absorption in work activities (Bailey et al., 2017a; Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Smith, 1996; Swington-Douglas, 2010; Wollard & Shuck, 2011).

One can conclude from the literature that the essence of employee engagement is connected directly with the understanding of the different motivation theories. These theories explain the human needs, which lie at the heart of the motivation theories. It was the human relations movement which introduced the new view of employee motivation which examined the dynamic of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and the concept of performance, as well as the influence of human dynamics (Steers et al., 2004). The most

relevant theoretical frameworks for this study, which can best explain the interrelations between the study variables of organizational culture, motivation, trust, and engagement, are: Job demands-resources theory (JDRT) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007); social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976); Kahn's personal employee engagement theory (Kahn, 1990, 1992), self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and job design theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The SDT theory helps to explain not only employee engagement but also the psychological states and behavioral reactions that can result in the absence of employee engagement (Meyer & Gagne, 2008). SDT theory is considered a breakthrough in understanding work motivation (McGregor & Doshias, 2015).

The review of the employee engagement literature indicated that there are two different approaches in academic research referring to engagement: one is the practitioner approach and the other is the academic approach. The practitioner approach differs from the academic approach, in purpose and outcomes (Arrowsmith and Parker, 2013; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wefald & (Downey, (2009). The practitioner approach focuses on "doing engagement", and its influence on achieving outcomes as: improving retention, commitment, and productivity (Saks, 2006; Wefald & Downey 2009). In contrast the academic approach is focused on defining and validating the psychological concept, concentrating more on the micro-individual level in order to better understand antecedents, variables and outcomes and the relationships between them, that influence the development of employee engagement(Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Crawford et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Overall what is apparent from the motivation theories' research is that the intrinsic factors have a bigger effect on the creation of engagement. When considering the construct of employee engagement in relation to intrinsic motivation the literature revealed some interesting drivers which strengthen the sense of employee's engagement: senior management's interest in employees' well-being, sense of feeling valued and involved, the extent to which employees feel able to voice their ideas, the opportunities employees have to develop their jobs, organizational in general and line managers' support in particular , collaborative approach, respect and recognition, open communication and using motivating language, flexible working arrangements, trust, clear direction; autonomous and challenging tasks, person-job match, flexible working arrangements, brand image, and location near

hometown (Markos & Sridev, 2010; Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Dasgupta et al., 2014; Roger, 1987; Sullivan, 1988). In addition to this active organizations' leaders have a critical role in building the conditions and the supportive safe environment where these drivers can develop. Active leadership means that leaders are a source of inspiration to their employees by "walking the walk, not just talking the talk", leading with purpose, leading the vision, mission and values, and implementing them through a cascading system through middle management to all employees (De Mello et al.; 2008; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). These drivers are linked to the main antecedents which predict the existence of employee engagement; perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice Saks, 2006).

## **Chapter 2: Factors influencing employee engagement**

The purpose of Chapter 2 is to highlight the main factors which influence employee engagement which are: organizational culture, motivation, and trust. In each of the first three paragraphs we analyze the major role of the independent variables in creating employee engagement, defining the approaches, definitions, key dimensions, styles, frame works and key attributes and the leader's role in building and enhancing the factors which create employee engagement. The paragraph referring to the organizational culture includes detailed research about the differences between the organizational culture, national culture and corporate culture and its influences on employee engagement.

The second paragraph about motivation includes detailed research about the main 5 motivation theories which influence employee engagement.

The third paragraph about trust includes an updated analysis of the neuroscience management approach to create relationships based on trust, and three approaches to building motivation trust and engagement.

The fourth paragraph refers to the interrelations between the three undependable variables, organizational culture, motivation and trust and the dependable variable engagement.

The fifth paragraph analyzes each of the measurements referring to each of the four variables and the sixth paragraph includes a summary of Chapter 2.

### **2.1 Organizational culture**

The concept of culture represents, in a very broad and holistic sense, "the qualities of any specific human group that are passed from one generation to the next because they are believed to be useful for survival and adaptation. The American Heritage Dictionary defines "culture" more formally, as the "totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population."(Denison & Neal, 1999). The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project defines culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across

generations” (House, Hangs, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, as cited in Tsui et al., 2007, p. 430) These definitions claim that common experiences and shared meanings are important factors of a cultural group. (Tsui et al., 2007).

Even though the concept of culture has been greatly elaborated since the time it was first defined, it has not been fundamentally changed (Singh, 1990). Culture has been analyzed in this dissertation on three main levels: Organizational culture, national culture, and corporate culture. The importance of understanding the impact of corporate and national cross- cultures is reinforced in the 21st century where organizations live and operate in a global atmosphere, in a multicultural and multinational work environment. Companies export not only goods but also jobs and the world has become a “flat world” (Friedman, 2005) or a “global village”). A world in which employee mobility between multinational companies in general and between companies in the same multinational corporation changes the way in which corporate managements must develop corporate cultures that will strengthen the trust motivation and employee engagement among employees from diverse cultural backgrounds(Tsui et al., 2007).<sup>2</sup>

### **2.1.1 Approaches and definitions to organizational culture, national culture, and corporate culture**

#### **2.1.1.1 Organizational culture**

Organizational culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization's management system, as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles. Researchers have gone on to note that there are a lot of definitions of OC and two main disciplinary foundations: sociological (organizations have cultures) and anthropological (organizations are culture) (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In other words, from the anthropological perspective an organization does not have a culture, it is culture. This means that an organization and its

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<sup>2</sup> The authors of this research analyzed 93 empirical studies published in the sixteen leading management journals from 1996 to 2005 to analyze the progress in organizational behavior research with national culture as the major explanatory variable. They claimed that the 21st century should be, if it is not already, the century of international management research (Tsui et al., 2007)

culture, are isomorphic - one cannot be distinguished from the other, and both are grounded in the communicative practices of those who constitute the organization (Smircich, 1983). A clear and concise definition in the literature for organizational culture is Shine's definition (Schine, 2010) culture to a group is what personality or character is to an individual. He continues by stating that culture is a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaption and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore to be taught to new members. (p. 14, 18).

Schine proposed three levels of organizational culture: artifacts, espoused beliefs and values and underlying assumptions. Artifacts include rituals, language, myths, dress, and organization space. What can be seen, touched, smelled, and perhaps tasted - if the organization is Ben and Jerry's (Rupp & Thornton, 2014). Although many artifacts may seem the same across an organization, the meaning attached to them can be quite different. Schein's next level of culture is the espoused values - what organizational members say about those aspects of culture which are reported by management as core values of the organization, though they may or may not reflect the reality in the organization. Schein's third level concerns the underlying assumptions of organizational life. Those models of behavior and feelings that are below the surface, unspoken and usually buried within the collective unconscious of an organization's members. It is the way we do or do not do things, but we cannot tell you why (Schneider & Barbera, 2016). This is the most important and inclusive definition of organizational culture in this category. Schein's definition includes the concept of learning and in this context, it is associated with the conceptualization of the organizational learning process (shared assumptions, group learning, problem solving, followed by processes of adaptation and integration) and its impact on the organizational culture (Gourdine, 2011; Marsic & Watkins, 2003).

Other important definitions of organizational culture are "A path to give a sense of purpose or meaning for us. Cultures are defensive constructions against chaos (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), "A perception-or a grammar for the production and structuring of meaningful action (Avruch & Black, 1993, p. 7).[a] The training or refining of the mind; civilization; [b] the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another—and this meaning corresponds to the use of the term culture in anthropology (Hofstede & Hofstede] as quoted in Miligor, 2009).

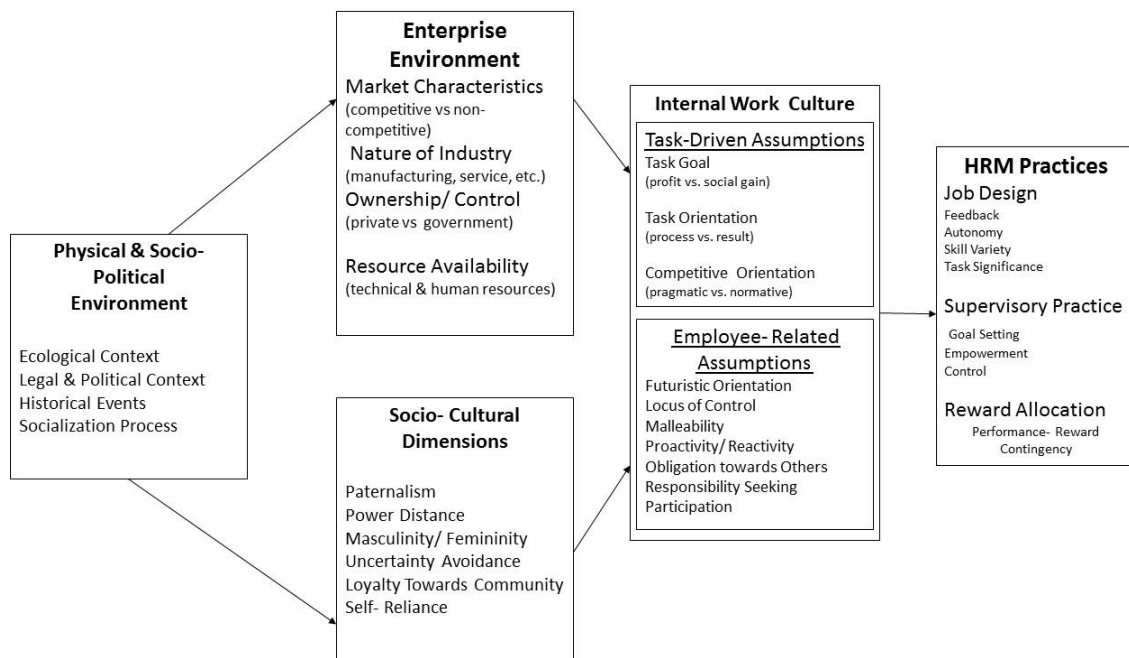
### **2.1.1.2 Organizational culture vs. National culture**

Organizational culture and national culture, are defined as the internal and external environmental forces operating dynamically and interactively within organizations and affecting internal and external organizational work environments.

The internal environment of an organization is represented by its internal work culture, whereas the external environment is represented by the enterprise environment (e.g., market characteristics, nature of industry, ownership status, resource availability) and the sociocultural environment (e.g., paternalism, power distance). Both of these environmental forces are, in turn, influenced by the physical and sociopolitical context (e.g., ecological, legal, social, political, and historical forces (Aycan et al., 1999; Burke & Litwin, 1992; Burke, 2014, Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Rupp and Thornton, 2014).

Ralston et al (1997) emphasizes the power of economic ideology on the work environment. The Model of Culture Fit (Figure 5 ), as proposed by Kanungo and his associates (Kanungo & Jaeger & Mendonca & Kanungo, cited in Aycan et al., 1999), integrated both these two independent bodies of research, the national and organizational culture. The model asserts that the national culture or its sociocultural environment affects internal work culture and human resource management (HRM) practices (Aycan et al., 1999). The organizational culture or the internal work culture is reflected in the managerial assumptions and beliefs relating to two important factors; the task ( the nature of the task ,and how to implement it ) and the nature of the employees and their behaviors. These two factors constitute the basis of the implementation of HRM procedures which are shaped by diverse environmental forces (Aycan et al., 1999).





**Figure 5: The model of cultural fit**

Source: Aycan et al., 1999.

The national culture is defined as the shared values and orientations of the society. The national cultural dimensions which characterize them and distinguish between them were a subject of much research among them; Bond, 1988; Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996; Hall, 2011; Hofstede & Bond, 1984; Hofstede et al., 1990; Hofstede & Peterson 2000; McSweeney 2002; Rao 2013; Schwartz, 1994; Smith et al., 1996; Tayeb, 1994; Triandis, 1982; Trompenaars, cited in Aycan 1999;). They debated the effect of national culture on management practices and found that as nations develop, they embrace work-related behavior common to industrialized countries (Ralston et al., 1997). As a result, organizations in different industrialized countries become more alike and adopt universal practices about work and corporate culture as the country develops (Child & Keiser, 1979; Shenkar & Ronen, 1987).

At the research forefront of this topic stands Hofstede , who defined independent dimensions of differences among national value systems based on the of the 6-D Model ( Hofsted et al. 1990) which are:

1. Power distance "(large vs. small). This dimension deals with the fact that all individuals in societies are not equal, and it expresses *the* attitude of the culture toward these power inequalities amongst us. 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. It has to do with the fact that a society's inequality is endorsed by the followers as much as by the leaders;

2. Uncertainty avoidance "(strong vs. weak), The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that they try to avoid;

3. Individualism vs. collectivism the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members-it has to do with whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "We". In Individualist societies people are supposed to look after themselves and their direct family only. In Collectivist societies people belong to 'in groups' that take care of them in exchange for loyalty;

4. Masculinity vs. femininity. A high score (Masculine) on this dimension indicates that the society will be driven by competition, achievement and success, with success being defined by the "winner" or "best-in-the-field. A low score (Feminine) on the dimension means that the dominant values in society are caring for others and quality of life.

A Feminine society is one where quality of life is the sign of success and standing out from the crowd is not admirable. The fundamental issue here is what motivates people, wanting to be the best (Masculine) or liking what you do (Feminine)."

5. Long term orientation- how every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and future.

6 Indulgence- the extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses (Hofstede insights, 2020). On the top of these six dimensions the cultural fit model defined paternity as a cultural dimension. Within this cultural context managers assume a paternal approach to their employees, support them and protect them. Employees reciprocate by manifesting a higher level of loyalty and compliance to their bosses (Ayman, 1999).

GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) provides a different model that considered the most updated data gathered in the recent decade on national culture in 61 different countries (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE framework consists of nine

cultural dimensions: power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, future orientation, performance orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, uncertainty avoidance, and humane orientation. Although GLOBE provides data only at the national level, the conceptual definitions of the GLOBE cultural dimensions also apply to the organizational level, which can measure the organizational culture inside the firm (House et al., 2004, p. 21).

National culture could affect organizational culture since managerial assumptions about employee nature and behavior may be influenced by national culture. A study by Aycan et al. (1999) on cultural fit gives support for this perspective. They found that several dimensions of national culture influence organizational culture. For example, power distance and uncertainty and avoidance at the national level create low autonomy at the organizational level. In addition, the national cultural dimensions of paternalism, loyalty toward the community, and self-reliance influence managers' assumptions about employee reactivity and obligations towards others. Schneider (1988) argues that employees and managers bring their cultural background to the workplace. Although researchers identified not only a different amount but also various kinds of national culture dimensions, one common message is clear: the cultures of certain countries differ from each other. Furthermore, there are certain aspects of culture (dimensions), which can be used to get a better understanding of how people in different countries may think / act.

Comparing the results of the studies mentioned above it can be seen that certain dimensions or variations of a dimension are mentioned in more than one approach. It seems that Power distance, Uncertainty avoidance, Collectivism, Time orientation are the most important aspects, which differ from culture to culture (Table 5 )(Scheffknrcht, 2014).

### **2.1.1.3 Corporate culture**

Being a global organization implies having a universal corporate culture where all members of the organization – regardless of where in the world these individuals grew up or now work – have similar views and beliefs that guide their behaviors when transacting business with members from other societies, as well as with members from their own society (Ralston et al. 1997, p. 1).

Multinational enterprise has a history of its own (like a nation) and the people of the company, who share this history have their own mind set of values, assumptions, and way of

doing business. Each one of them has somehow contributed to develop the actual culture / is part of the culture. If a multinational is going to become a truly global organization, the diverse individual work values from the various geographic locations of a multinational corporation must converge and be integrated into a common set of values to create a universal corporate culture. Multinational enterprises are in fact not one homogenous company but most often a conglomerate of companies spread out around the world 'with different organizational cultures. Therefore, most of these multinational enterprises try to establish a common organizational culture within their companies. Although the efforts are high to create such a culture there are still national or regional cultural influences which cannot be avoided. If the organizational culture or at least the efforts to establish such a culture are the same within one international enterprise, differences in certain behaviors may arise from these national differences (Scheffknecht, 2014).

**Table 5: Cultural dimensions comparison**

Hofstede/ Hofstede/ Minkov (2010)	Hall/ Hall (2011)	Trompenaars/ Hammond-Turner (TU Chemnitz 2011)	GLOBE (House 2004)
Power distance Uncertainty avoidance Individualism vs. collectivism		Equality vs. hierarchy Analysing vs. integration Individualism vs. communitarianism	Power distance Uncertainty Avoidance Institutional collectivism
		Inner- directed vs. outer- directed	In- Group collectivism
Masculinity vs. femininity			Gender egalitarianism
Long term orientation Indulgence vs. restraint	Time (monochromic vs. polychromic)	Time sequence vs. time synchronization	Future orientation Humane orientation
	Low vs. high context	Universalism vs. Particularism	
		Achieved status vs. ascribed status	Assertiveness Performance orientation

Source: Scheffknecht (2014).

### **2.1.2 Dimensions, attributes styles and frameworks of organizational culture**

Researchers provide a multidisciplinary approach, diverse attributes styles and frameworks to define and understand the nature and the D.N.A of OC. Grossberg et al. (2018) focused on the human dimension while others like Jacobs et al., (2011) focused on the work and environment dimensions. Grossberg focused on people's interactions and responses to change; Peoples interactions mean the spectrum of independence that people have at the workplace. It ranges from highly independent to highly interdependent. The more an organization's culture encourages independence, the organization will focus more on autonomy, individual action, and competition, while those focusing on interdependency will encourage more integration, managing relationships more closely and coordinating group efforts. Response to change; there are two approaches, one focusing on stability and the other on flexibility. Stability focuses more on consistency, predictability, and maintenance of the status quo, while flexibility focuses on adaptability and receptiveness to change.

Cultures which favor stability tend to follow rules, use control structures, reinforced hierarchy and strive for efficiency, while cultures which are in favor of flexibility tend to prioritize innovation, openness, diversity, and longer-term orientation (Grossberg et al., 2018). Jacobs et al. (2011) refers to the work and environmental dimensions and defined nine dimensions of organizational culture; workload; autonomy; management/leadership style; teamwork and communication; employee orientation; customer orientation; task vs. goal orientation; and internal vs. external orientation.

The accepted attributes of OC which can help us to analyze the essence of the OC are: Shared culture- Culture can only exist in a group. It is reflected in shared behaviors, values, and assumptions and is most experienced through the norms and expectations of a group, which creates the unwritten rules. Pervasive- Culture is pervasive and permeates multiple levels and applies very broadly within an organization. Enduring- Culture can direct the thoughts and actions of group members over the long term. It develops through critical events in the collective life and learning of a group or an organization. Implicit- An important and often overlooked aspect of culture is that despite its subconscious nature, people

effectively respond to it instinctively (Carpar et al., 2015; Groysberg et al., 2018; Keyton, 2014).

Defining an organization’s cultural style can contribute to a better understanding of the DNA of the organization and the leader’s requirements of how to achieve organization goals. Groysberg et al., (2018) defined eight styles of culture and focused on the following aspects: the various workplace styles, what kind of workplace environment is needed for each specific style, what are the values which unite the employees, where leaders should emphasize their focus for each workplace style and what are the advantages and disadvantages of the various workplace styles. The Groysberg’s styles of organizational culture are presented in Table 6.

**Table 6: Eight styles of organizational culture**

The style of culture	The focus	Work environment	The value which unites the employees	The leaders emphasize	Advantages	Disadvantages
Caring warm, sincere relationships	Relationships and mutual trust	Warm, collaborative, people help and support each other	Loyalty	Sincerity, teamwork, positive relationship --	Improved teamwork, engagement, communication, trust and sense of belonging	Emphasis on consensus building may reduce exploration of options, stifle competitiveness and slow decision-making
Purpose driven, idealistic, tolerant	Idealism and altruism	Tolerant, compassion , people try to do good for the long-term future of the world	Sustainability and global communities	Shared ideas and contributing to a greater cause	Improved appreciation for diversity, sustainability, and social responsibility	Over emphasis on the long-term purpose and ideas may get in the way of practical and immediate concerns
Learning open, inventive, exploring	Exploration, expansiveness, creativity	Inventive, open-minded, people spark new ideas and explore alternatives	Curiosity	Innovation knowledge and adventure.	Improved innovation, agility and organizational learning	Over emphasis on exploration may lead to a lack of focus and and in the ability to exploit existing advantages
Enjoyment playful, instinctive, fun loving	Fun and excitement	Lighthearted places, people tend to do what makes them happy	Playfulness, stimulations	Spontaneity and a sense of humor	Improved employee morale, employee engagement and creativity	Over emphasize on autonomy and engagement may lead to a lack of discipline, and create possible compliance governance issues
Results. Achievement driven, goal- focused	Achievement and winning	Outcome-oriented and merit-based, people aspire to achieve top performance	A drive for capability and success	Goal accomplishment	improved execution, external focus capability building and goal achievement	Over emphasis on achieving results may lead to communication

						and collaboration breakdowns and higher levels of stress and anxiety
Authority bold, decisive, dominant	Strength, decisiveness, boldness	Competitive places, people strive to gain person advantage	Strong control	Confidence and dominance	Improved speed of decision making and responsiveness to threats or crisis	Over emphasis on strong authority and bold decision making may lead to politics and a psychologically conflicts
Safety realistic, careful, prepared	Planning, caution, preparedness	Predictable places, people think it through carefully	Desire to feel protected, anticipate change	Realistic and planning	improved risk management, stability, and business continuity	Over emphasis on Standardization and Formalization may lead to bureaucracy, inflexibility, dehumanization of the work environment
Order. Rule abiding, respectful, comparative	respect, structure shared norms	methodological places, people tend to play by the rules and want to fit in	Cooperation,	shared procedures	Improved operational efficiency, reduce conflict and greater civic mindedness	Overemphasis on rules and traditions may Reduce individualism, Stifle, creativity, and limit organizational agility

Source: Based on Groysberg et al., (2018).

Leaders should consider cultural styles and key organizational and market conditions if they want their culture to help drive performance. They should try to align culture with strategy, leadership style, and organizational design, take into consideration national and regional cultures and organizational design as there is a two-way relationship between a company's culture and its particular structure. (Groysberg et al., 2018).

A different model (Hofsted insights, 2020) to analyze the organizational culture is The Multi-Focus Model consisting of six autonomous dimensions or variables. This enables the provision of insights on the fit between the actual culture and any strategic direction a manager may think of. Different combinations of dimensions provide insights into various strategic fits.

The six dimensions are:

1. Means-oriented vs. goal-oriented. In a means-oriented culture, the key feature is the way in which work has to be carried out; people identify with the “how”, while highly means-oriented culture, people perceive themselves as avoiding risks and making only a limited effort in their jobs, while each workday is pretty much the same.

2. Internally driven vs. externally driven. In a highly internally driven culture employees perceive their task towards the outside world as a given, based on the idea that business ethics and honesty matters most and that they know best what is good for the customer and the world at large. In a very externally driven culture, the only emphasis is on meeting the customer’s requirements; results are most important, and a pragmatic rather than an ethical attitude prevails.

3. Easy going work discipline vs. strict work discipline. This dimension refers to the amount of internal structuring, control, and discipline. A very easy-going culture reveals a fluid internal structure, a lack of predictability, and little control and discipline; there is a lot of improvisation and surprises. A very strict work discipline reveals the reverse. People are very cost-conscious, punctual, and serious.

4. local vs. professional. In a local company, employees identify with the boss and/or the unit in which one works. In a professional organization, the identity of an employee is determined by his profession and/or the content of the job.

In a very local culture employees are very short-term directed; they are internally focused and there is strong social pressure to be like everybody else. In a very professional culture, it is the reverse.

5. Open system vs. closed system. This dimension relates to the accessibility of an organization. In a very open culture newcomers are made immediately welcome, one is open both to insiders and outsiders, and it is believed that almost anyone would fit in the organization a very closed organization it is the reverse.

6. Employee-oriented vs. work-oriented. This aspect of organizational culture is most related to the management philosophy. In very employee-oriented organizations, members of staff feel that personal problems are considered, and that the organization takes responsibility for the welfare of its employees, even if this is at the expense of the work. In very work-oriented organizations, there is heavy pressure to perform the task even if this is at the expense of employees (Hofsted insights, 2020).



### **2.1.3 Values as the basis of organizational culture**

There is a consensus among researchers that values are a vital component of organizational culture and are perceived as the heart of it. Values can be perceived as the litmus test of organizational culture quality (Csikszentmihalyi 1990; Ferguson & Milliman 2008; Kotter & Hasket 1999; Ostroff, Kinicki & Tamkins as quoted in Friedman & Barkat, 2006; Schine 2010; Zak, 2017b). Values are defined by Brown (1976) as the belief upon which a person acts by preference; an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse model of conduct or end-state of existence(p. 16).

Values represent the philosophical views, priorities, and sense of purpose of the organization, the soul of the organization, the principles that guide all a company's actions and the cultural cornerstones. As such, the values provide the foundation for organizational practices and the context in which employees think, act, and make decisions. Core organizational values influence the attitudes and behaviors of employees to achieve institutional and greater societal goals. They impact both organizations and the people who work in them. Values impact organizations by guiding organizational decisions, motivating, and inspiring people to a goal and alignment with the organizational vision and higher purpose. They can play an important role in guiding employees and managers to act in an ethical and socially responsive manner. Values that are not lived are not true, they should be lived and authentic. When values are decorations, they are ignored and have a counterproductive influence on the employees (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008). There are two kinds of values: the declared and the assimilated and there are differences between the two. The declared values are those that the organization's management aims for and recommends achieving, while the assimilated values, which have a more important part in the daily work, are those according to which the members of the organization behave every day. The difference between declared values and assimilated values may explain the patterns of behavior of workers in an organization and how the workers project from these patterns onto the organizational culture (Clark, 1999, p. 11).

What is apparent from the research is that successful OCs have employees with common basic organizational values and assumptions (Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Denison, 1990; Gordon &

DiTomaso,1992; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Van den A Berg & Wilderom, 2004). Maslach & Leiter (2008) emphasized that a mismatch in values results in disrupting the relationship of people with their work. The personal impact that workers have on their work is at the heart of the values area and a positive personal impact will occur only with value congruence. The ideal employee is one with the greatest overlap of values with the organization. The smaller the overlap between individual and organization values, the more often staff members find themselves making a trade-off between work they want to do and work they must do (p. 501).

A values' mismatch reduces involvement in a job as it limits the point at which staff members are confident that their efforts are making an important contribution (Maslach & Leiter 2008). This supports a significant need of the people for more trust, cooperation, and empowerment. But these studies were criticized by some of the researchers, including Brown (1998), O'Reilly & Chatman (1996) & Wilderom et al., (2000). They found that these studies lacked a clear connection between conceptual and operational definitions. Moreover, culture strengths indicated only the degree of employee consensus but did not indicate the level of the organizational culture on several dimensions of organizational culture strength (Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004).

#### **2.1.4 The role of the behavioral factor in organizational culture**

The word behavior refers to anything you can see someone 'do' or hear someone 'say' (Pounds et al., 2015). There is a strong relationship between organizational culture and behaviors - as culture influences employee attitudes and behaviors and the organization creates a behavioral expectancy that directs their employees to behave in ways that are consistent with its culture (Gregory et al. 2009). Smircich (1983, p. 346) stated that "Culture serves as a sense-making device that can guide and shape behavior". The study of organizational culture is therefore about understanding people's perceptions of the organizations in which they work and how these perceptions influence their work (Jacobs et al., 2011). People do not behave in and respond to the world 'as it really is' but as they perceive its values, beliefs, and assumptions (Buchanan & Huczynski, 1985). Behaviors become a part of the culture when most group members actively encourage new members to follow those practices. Solutions which repeatedly appear to solve problems tend to

become a part of the culture. So organizational culture is a behavioral pattern which is implemented over the long-term life of the organization (Kotter & Haskett, 1992).

The behavioral approach explains that culture can be changed through changing the behaviors. We can only change management practices and employee behaviors or organizational norms, which are the product of the work group and the company climate that in turn may change over time and influence culture (Pounds et al., 2015). So, the goal of improving culture is to strive to change organizational behaviors. This will happen only if individual behaviors change. The behavioral approach sees culture as the behaviors that an organization maintains through feedback and recognition rather than to simply count on culture being created by executives. Culture change proponents need executive support to build feedback and recognition for incorporating positive cultural behaviors into each process (Pounds et al. 2015).

The objective of every improvement initiative (or any other organizational culture improvement) should be to specifically identify activities, behaviors, that a front-line employee can do that will improve culture, and then to verify through measurement, that this behavior led to improvement (Pounds et al. 2015). Komaki's (2005) research scientifically established a new paradigm for the supervisory role. Her research indicates that the most successful supervisors assume a coaching role with front-line employees. A coaching conversation requires spending more time talking with front-line employees about their daily work experience and can be productive in many ways. One major result of these coaching conversations is that supervisors learn in advance whether there are issues related to the machinery, process, materials, resources, or any other factors that might influence employee performance and output quality. Ultimately guideline statements and behaviors are needed to help employees better understand and implement the values in their daily work and decision making (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008).

#### **2.1.5 The role of organizational climate**

The researcher's interest in the important differentiation between climate and organizational culture derives fundamentally from the fact that both represent the concept of organizational culture on one hand but differ in their goals, conceptualization, perception and influence on the organizational day-to-day work-life, on the other hand (Schnider &

Barbara, 2016). Climate and culture are strongly and reciprocally connected. Culture (values, basic assumptions, beliefs) is manifested in the policies, practices, and procedures that define the workplace climate. Core values refer to what the organization believes and highlight its foundational principles and ideals while organizational climate refers to the meaning employees relate to the organization's policies and practices (Schneider et al., 2013). Climate is focused on work, unit observables, largely under the control of local leadership, while culture deals with deeper organizational values and beliefs (Smith 2009).

Schnider & Barbara (2016) summarize what they consider to be the central themes relating to the relationship between organizational culture and climate: 1. Climate and culture influence everything that happens in the organization. 2. Climate and culture are multilevel phenomena. 3. Climate and culture are differentiated phenomena. 4. Organizations have multiple foci for climates and cultures. 5. Organizational culture and climate emerge and can change over time. 6. Leadership is central to climate and culture formation and maintenance. 7. Climate and culture emerge from systems of stimuli; 9. Climate and culture are measurable. 10. Climate and culture can yield competitive advantages (Schnider & Barbara, 2016).

### **2.1.6 Organizational culture and its influence on business aspects and performance**

Organizational culture (OC) is an important factor which influences all aspects of the organizational life and can be considered a crucial factor for the growth of an organization. It can be perceived as the grounds on which we base our values and behaviors, our norms and actions, our motivation and engagement. It is a powerful managerial tool which influences human aspects and business processes and activities (Groysberg et. al., 2018; Kotter & Hasket, 1992; Latham & Pinder, 2005; McGregor & Doshi, 2015). Whereas Gartner's research reveals most organizations still are not correctly turning their cultural visions and plans into action.

Employees failing to demonstrate the culture is a shortcoming caused by three gaps:

1. A knowledge gap (69% of employees). The culture exists as an idea in the organization, but the workforce does not believe in or act on the culture.

2. A mindset gap (87% of employees) Employees buy into what they think the culture is but do not actually understand it or act on it. 3. A behavior gap (90% of employees) Employees' actions are aligned with the culture, but employees do not. (Gartner, 2019).

There is a wide range of research which indicates that OC has a huge influence on performance motivation and employee engagement and seems to be the factor that most directly affects employee engagement and motivation (Groysberg et. al., 2018; Latham & Pinder, 2005; McGregor & Doshi, 2015). It is one of the four main factors that shape behaviors. The other three being: formal structure, systems, and policies (Kotter & Hasket, 1992). Moreover, an improved culture gives leaders more time to focus their energy on what they do best (Zak, 2017b). On a more micro level researchers have found significant relationships between the 'fit' of employees and the prevailing organizational culture and several important outcomes such as job commitment and turnover - both of which affect an organization's effectiveness (Debode et al., 2013; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schein, 2010;). Nonetheless we can conclude from the research that culture is not static, and it evolves as the people and the purpose of the organization changes and can be managed and improved continuously (Zak, 2017b).

Researchers support the idea that organizational culture has acquired a status-like structure, strategy, and control and that all of them are partly overlapping constructs with the concept of culture (Denison & Neal, 1999; Hofstede al., 1990). The messages of the organization's culture are closely aligned to the organization's strategy and management practices, and have great influence on the employees, even though the cultural system is not necessarily seen. But all employees' organizations are very familiar with it and the law of the culture often outweighs any other law. In many organizations it may be the strongest message of all (Denison & Neal, 1999).

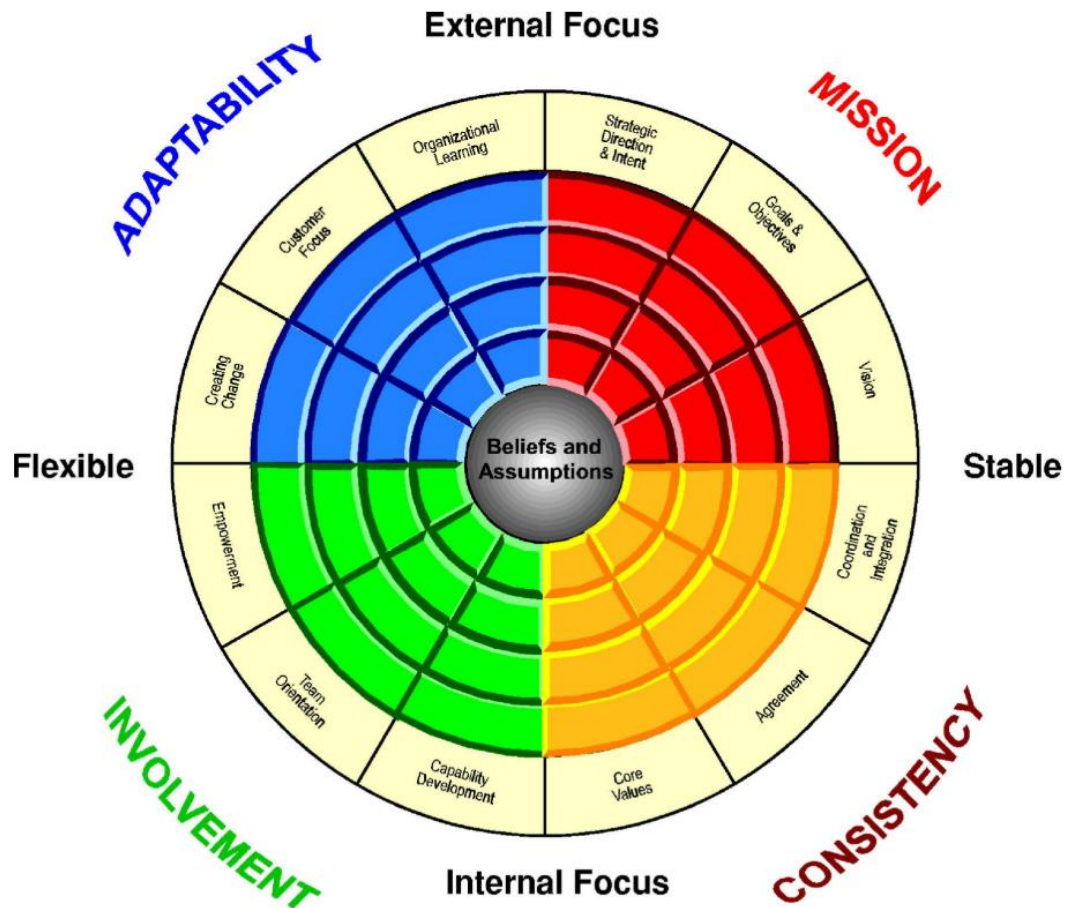
Kotter & Heskett (1992) differ and conclude that OC can play an important role in shaping peoples' behaviors and managerial practices, even though culture in a business enterprise is not the same as firms' strategy or structure. But researchers agreed that OC has been commonly acknowledged as a strategic asset for the success of businesses, and has a great impact on the people who work there. Successful American companies like Walmart, Southwest Airlines and Apple highlight their organizational culture as a key ingredient in their success. The success of these firms has as much to do with values, personal beliefs, and

vision as well as with market forces, competitive positioning, and resource advantages. All successful companies that are leaders in their industries have a distinctive and readily identifiable organizational culture (Kotter & Heskett, 1992).

Organizational culture enables leaders to take rapid and coordinated action to respond to competitors or to satisfy customers (Denison & Neal, 1999; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). However organizational culture contributes to the business in several domains; it is considered as the operating system of an organization according to Balthazard et al., 2006, p. 711; Chatman & Jehn, 1994 has been accepted as a fact of organizational life by managers and has become an integral aspect of many organizational development programs (Denison & Neal, 1999), is an important factor fostering technology adoption and organizational growth and has a crucial role in determining the success or failure of mergers and acquisitions (Javidan, 2001; Weber et al., 1996). Overall what is apparent is that most important organizational changes failed because of a neglect of the organization's culture. The failure to change the organization's culture doomed other kinds of organizational changes that were initiated. But organizations that succeed to build great cultures can meet the demands of the fast-paced, customer-centric world we live in (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

According to Collins & Porras (1995), who researched eighteen companies that have survived for about a century, the management of these companies had a vision based on core values that did not change over time and were the basis of the organization's culture.

Although we usually speak about OC in the singular, all firms have 'multi-cultures', usually associated with different functional groups or geographic locations (Hofstede et al., 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Zak, 2017a). The importance of culture in global business has received more and more attention, and researchers have been able to collect evidence about how and when culture affects employee attitudes and behaviors (Messner & Schafer, 2015; Tsui et al., 2007). The Denison organizational culture model based on the four following cultural traits has been shown in the literature to have an influence on organizational performance: involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission.



**Figure 6: The Denison Organizational culture model**

Source: Denison et al., 2006.

These four traits are operationalized by three factors or indices as shown in Figure 6. The traits of adaptability and mission together represent an external focus; the traits of involvement and consistency represent an internal focus; the traits of mission and consistency together represent a focus on stability; and the traits of adaptability and involvement together represent the organizations' flexibility. Empirical research has demonstrated positive relationships between organizational culture and various indices of organizational effectiveness (Kotrab, et.al., 2012). Table 7 explains the definitions of each of the traits and indexes.

**Table 7: Denison model traits, indices, and definitions**

Trait	Index	Definition
Involvement		Employees are committed to their work, feel a sense of ownership, and have input.
	Capability development	The organization continually invests in the development of employees' skills in order to stay competitive and meet on-going business needs.
	Team orientation	Value is placed on working cooperatively toward common goals to which all employees feel mutually accountable. The organization relies on team effort to get work done.
	Empowerment	Individuals have the authority, initiative, and ability to manage their own work. This creates a sense of ownership and responsibility toward the organization.
Consistency		The level of cohesion, integration or agreement around values and norms.
	Coordination/ Integration	Different functions and units of the organization are integrated and are able to work together to achieve common goals.
Adaptability	Agreement	The organization is able to reach agreement on critical issues. This includes the underlying level of agreement and the ability to reconcile differences when they occur.
	Core values	Members of the organization share a set of values that create a strong sense of identity and a clear set of expectations.
		Organizational capacity to change in response to external conditions.
	Creating change	The organization is able to create adaptive change. The organization is able to read the business environment, quickly react to the current changes, and anticipate future changes.
	Customer focus	The organization understands and reacts to the customer, and anticipates their future needs. It reflects the degree to which the organization is driven by a concern to satisfy the customer.
	Organizational learning	The organization receives, translates, and interprets signals from the environment into opportunities for encouraging innovation, gaining knowledge, and developing capabilities.

Source: Kotrba et al.,2012.

### **2.1.7 The leader's role in building and changing organizational culture**

Researchers have stated that even though culture is not unique to management and it belongs to all employees, it is still the main role of leaders and founders to establish and



embed the culture among them (Hofstede and Peterson 2000; Kotter & Hasket, 1992; Zak, 2017b). When it comes to leaders they need to understand that the incentive to change or improve culture should come from the top, starting with the senior leaders of the organization. To achieve it they need to deal with several challenges: They should believe in the change that they want to implement and take significant steps toward setting a vision which is meaningful to employees. Practices, behaviors, and actions should all cascade down, from the top of the organization to everyone from the middle managers to the shop-floor employees. They should understand that organizational culture is important because it influences the way that their organizations react to the changing demands of the business environment. A genuine change requires strong, clear, simple, and consistent messages. Senior leaders must remain in place for a long enough to be able to execute and see the change realized. It is important to balance shorter-term objectives (i.e., climate adjustments and transactions) with longer-term goals (i.e., culture transformation) (Denison & Neal, 1999; Church, et al., 2014).

Managing organizational culture, including workplace employee engagement, requires the leaders to focus on the human aspects and on the motivation and values' aspects of their people, because what differentiates one organization from another is its employees (Taneja et al., 2015). Leaders should understand the interrelationship between motivation, organizational culture, trust and engagement. They should realize that at the center of the organizational and employee engagement cultures lies, profoundly, the ethical values of the organization (Feldt, 2016; Huhtala et al., 2011).

Latif (2000) defined it as "moral reasoning" explaining that individuals who use advanced ethical reasoning skills have better conceptual tools and the means for making sense of social or moral situations, thus guiding their decision-making processes. Ferguson & Milliman (2008) referred in this context to the essential quality of "spiritual leadership" (p. 445) in implementing the organizational values.

Some of the key aspects of spiritual leadership in the workplace include the following: Articulating a higher cause or purpose, being authentic, and being committed to developing and empowering employees. Workers hold leaders responsible for operating ethically (Swington, 2010). The organization needs to reduce some of its power and role orientation in favor of achievement and support. The company and its management need to develop the

ability to empower people and create cooperation, team spirit and trust (Appelbaum et al., 2004). We can conclude in regarding the role of the leader with a quote from the former Hermann Miller CEO, Max DePree: "The first responsibility of the leader is to define reality. The last is to say thank you. In between, the leader is a servant" (Zak, 2017b, p. 2488).

## **2.2 Motivation**

### **2.2.1 Evolution of the motivation concept**

There is a long history of research regarding what motivates employees. The word 'motivation' is derived from the Latin word 'movere', meaning 'to move' (Kretiner & Krinicki, 1998). The earliest approaches to understanding human motivation date from the time of the Greek philosophers and focus on the concept of hedonism as a principle driving force in behavior. Hedonism is where individuals focus their efforts on seeking pleasure and avoiding pain. This principle was later refined and further developed in the works of philosophers like Locke, Bentham, Mill, and Helvetius, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (Steer et al., 2004).

At the beginning of the 20th century motivation became of interest to psychoanalysts and experimental psychologists like Freud, James and McDougall. Among these early models of motivation were instinct theories such as those proposed by James, Freud, and McDougall. Instead of viewing behavior as highly rational, these theorists argued that much of human behavior resulted from instinct, which was defined by McDougall as curiosity, sociability, fear, jealousy, and sympathy (Steer et al., 2004). During the 1950s and 1960s the study of motivation in North American psychology was not considered a respectable pursuit. The field was dominated by behaviorists, and motivation was argued by them to lie outside the person in the form of reinforcers and punishers (Locke & Latham, 2002). When research into motivation was undertaken, during the mid-twentieth century, the classic motivation theories argued that individuals have an inherent need for a work life that they believe is meaningful (Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Maslow, 1943, 1954, 1971; McClelland, 1965; McGregor, 1960; Rogers, 1959, 1961). The focus of the behavioral researchers on what motivates employees changed during the mid-20th and early 21st centuries. During the 1960's and 1970's need and content theories emphasized the individual as a source of motivation and during the 1970's through the 1990's researchers emphasized the person-environment interaction and they focused mainly on performance,

organization and systems, and productivity, and therefore most of the research was in relation to these theories. Beginning in the 1990s and through the beginning of the 21st century, as a result of the emerging interest in intrinsic factors such as meaning, purpose, spirituality, commitment and engagement, the research on motivation focused on the role of work as a motivator in the organization (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Fox, 1994; Lockwood, 2007; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The spirituality and meaning approach emerged as a reaction to several developments and events: the loss of job security, environmental disasters like Chernobyl, and Bhopal which increased people's consciousness of corporate social responsibility. Other influencing events were the ethical scandals of Enron and others. As a result lots of books, papers and other media questioned the misuse of the planet, the role of work in capitalist societies and the moral ethical and spiritual point of view around life's meaning and purpose (Holbecke & Springnetti, 2004).

### **2.2.2 Definitions of motivation**

Human motivation is complicated and difficult to define as it encompasses almost every aspect of human life. It is difficult to provide a single definition or perspective for viewing motivation. Philosophers, psychologists and even crime novelists (and many others) have tried to give an answer as to what drives us and motivates us, but much work is still on its way (Ariely, 2016). Katzell & Thompson (1990, p. 144) define work motivation as "a broad construct pertaining to the conditions and processes that account for the arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person's job", but most researchers agree with Ryan's definition who stated that motivation is a psychological phenomenon, an internal state of a person that impels them towards action, and as such is an individual characteristic. However, the ability to satisfy a motivational need occurs within a specific context or environment and as such is contingent on organizational characteristics (Ryan, 2014, p. 356).

Thus it is understood that the concept of motivation refers to internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action.

The three aspects of action that motivation can affect are direction (choice), intensity (effort), and duration (persistence) (Locke et., 2014). Behavioral scientists define motivation in terms of power, energy and willingness, which exert high levels of influence on the effort

to achieve business and organizational goals, driven by the desire to satisfy some individual need or desire (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Leonard et al., 1999; Luthans, 2002; Pinder, 1998; Robbins, 2003; Vroom, 1964). Motivation can occur because people align themselves with their organization's values or because there is strong outside pressure to perform. They can be moved to action by deep-seated self-interest or by some other incentives. They can perform their work out of a personal desire to excel or from their anxiety about not wanting to be micromanaged (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, motivation is a psychological process resulting from the interaction between the individual and the environment.

Self-determination theory (SDT) recognizes that motivation is not a single construct; rather individuals are motivated by various factors influenced by their experiences and consequences (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). SDT notes that these differences lie on a continuum of motivation predicated on everyone's innate nature and the interaction with their external environment that either supports or impedes their motivation (Martinez, 2016). But the issue of definitions in the motivation field is still not clear and defined properly (Latham & Pinder, 2005).

### **2.2.3 Main motivation theories**

Motivational theorists have different approaches and views regarding the issue of from where the energy for motivation is derived and on the needs that a person is attempting to fulfill, but most would agree that motivation demands a desire and ability to act, as well as having a goal on which to focus one's efforts.

A metatheory of work motivation written by Leonard et al. (1999), which integrates the idea of self-concept with a wide range of existing motivation theories defines five sources of work motivation: 1. Instrumental motivation refers to the tangible rewards aligned with workplace activities. 2. Intrinsic process motivation relates to the relationship between workplace activities and the enjoyment/fun gained from the activity. 3. Goal internalization motivation represents motives derived by the congruence between an individual's value system and a workplace value. 4. Internal self-concept motivation represents an individual's motivation to adhere to their internal standards of traits, competencies, and values. 5. External self-concept motivation looks to others as a point of reference for acceptable or preferred behaviors and goals. The meta-theory explained that everyone can be described by

a motivational profile which presents the relative strength of each of these five profiles. In each person we would find a dominant source of motivation which is the basis of making decisions and adopting specific behaviors. In a case of contradiction between the sources the dominant source of the person's motivation will prevail. People can also have different motivational-source profiles in different situations regarding their different identities - such as workplace identity and home life identity (Leonard et al., 1999).

Work motivation research over the past 60 years includes a variety of needs-based theories which attempt to explain the internal factors that energize behavior. Needs are the physiological or psychological deprivation which arouses behavior. These needs can be strong or weak and are influenced by environmental factors. Thus human needs vary over time and place (Ramlall, 2004). We cannot understand motivation theories without understanding needs' theories. Kanfer (1991) stressed the importance of needs as internal tensions that influence the mediating cognitive processes that result in behavioral variability. Based on their socio-analytic theory, Hogan & Warremfeltz (2003) argued that people have innate biological needs for: 1. acceptance and approval; 2. Status and power, and control of resources; 3. predictability and order. These needs translate into behaviors for getting along with others, getting ahead in terms of status, and making sense of the world. Need-based theories explain why a person must act, but they do not explain why specific actions are chosen in specific situations to obtain specific outcomes. Moreover they do not easily account for individual differences. Hence, along with increased attention to needs, there has also been a resurgence of interest in individual differences, including about the effects of job characteristics on employee motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Haslam et al. (2000) explained that to understand motivation, one must first understand the aspirations for the self that exist in a hierarchy

For the purpose of this research the author focuses on the following motivation theories which can best explain the concept of employee engagement: 1. Maslow's need-hierarchy theory; 2 McClelland's' achievement theory; 3. Vroom's expectancy theory; 4. Equity theory; 5. Goal-setting theory.

#### **2.2.3.1. Maslow's Need Pyramid Theory**

Among the first pioneers who researched this issue was Abraham Maslow, a clinical psychologist who realized that there were higher needs that people perceived which

influenced motivation. Maslow outlined a complete theoretical model of needs and motivation in 1943, drawing upon his clinical experience as a psychologist. He believed needs could be arranged in a hierarchical manner, where once a set of lower needs had been satisfied, they no longer served to motivate the individual and a set of higher-level needs would become important to motivate the individual (Maslow, 1943). His pyramid of needs is listed as follows:

1. Physiological needs - the most basic level in the hierarchy, correspond to hunger, thirst, sleep, shelter, and sex, etc. Once these basic needs are satisfied, they no longer motivate the individual. Only the next level of needs will motivate.

2. Safety needs - these are the second level of needs that an individual seeks, such as emotional security and safety. Like physiological needs, once they are satisfied, they no longer serve to motivate the individual.

3. Affiliation and love - these are the third level of needs which concern an individual's acceptance and a feeling of belonging to a group and society.

4. Self-esteem needs - this is one of the higher levels of individual need where power, achievement and status become important. This level includes both self- esteem and esteem from others.

5. Need for self-actualization - once all other needs are satisfied the individual seeks self-fulfillment and seeks realization of his or her potential (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow did not apply the hierarchy of needs to work motivation for almost twenty years, nonetheless, others popularized Maslow's theories in the management literature. Note that Maslow's theory was developed in American society in the 1940's and fails to explain issues regarding why people deprived of lower-level needs Maslow's theory also failed to consider the influence of culture on social needs in the workplace (Hunter 2012). The implications of this theory provided useful insights for managers and other organizational leaders: managers can find ways of motivating employees by devising programs or practices aimed at satisfying emerging or unmet needs, to implement support programs and focus groups, to help employees deal with stress, especially during more challenging times and realizing the importance of taking the time to understand the needs of the respective employees (Kreitner& Kinicki, 1998). In the case of embedding a need-hierarchy concept, the implications for managers are clear. "Managers have the responsibility to create a proper

climate in which employees can develop their fullest potential. Failure to provide such a climate would theoretically increase employee frustration and could result in poorer performance, lower job satisfaction, and increased withdrawal from the organization” (Steers & Porter, 1983, p. 32).

#### **2.2.3.2 McClelland's' achievement theory**

McClelland (1965) described a theory of needs focusing on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. This was labeled as the Achievement Theory. The need for achievement is the drive to excel, to strive to succeed in relation to a set of standards. The need for power is to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise. The need for affiliation is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships. Achievement theory proposes that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of one’s need for achievement (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). McClelland explained that at any given time individuals possess several or often competing needs which motivate their behavior. This contrasts with Maslow’s notion of a steady progression over time up a hypothetical hierarchy as individuals grow and mature (Steers et al., 2004). Researchers found a correlation between these three needs and the way they influence managers' nature and managements' styles. They proposed that high achievers are more likely to be successful entrepreneurs. Contemporary behavioral research into entrepreneurship heavily cites McClelland’s work on the issues of why people become entrepreneurs (Hunter 2012). The need for affiliation suggested that people have the desire to spend time in social relationships and activities, joining groups, and wanting to be loved. Individuals high in this need are not the most effective managers or leaders because they have a hard time making difficult decisions without worrying about being disliked (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). The need for power reflects an individual’s desire to influence, coach, teach, or encourage others to achieve. McClelland proposes that top managers should have a high need for power coupled with a low need for affiliation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). McClelland (1965) also showed that need achievement and motivation could be learned and that self-esteem and mutual group reinforcement and support is very important to this.

### **2.2.3.3. Vroom's expectancy theory**

Vroom (1964) introduced his expectancy theory, which was influenced by Maslow's pyramid of needs theory (Latham & Pinder, 2005), as a process theory of motivation due to individual perceptions of the environment. According to Vroom (1964), people choose courses of action based on perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs. There are three components that determine motivational force: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Vroom, 1964).

Expectancy theory explains the relationships between the intention and readiness to act and the expectations which will be followed by a given outcome, and the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Robbins, 2003). Vroom's theory assumes that the "choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior" (Vroom, 1964, p. 15). This basically says that peoples' behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives, and these choices are systematically related to psychological processes, particularly perception and the formation of beliefs and attitudes (Pinder, 1998).

### **2.2.3.4 Equity theory**

Equity theory is one of two dominant theories in behavioral organizational science (O'Reilly et al., 1991). The equity theory argued that employees are sensitive to the differentiation in their rewards compared to their colleagues and they can feel a sense of stress which can negatively influence their day to day work. It will also influence their work motivation as the motivation concept is built on equity at work (Robbins, 2001). Adams who was one of the first researchers who considered clearly and significantly how individuals evaluate social exchange relationships (Steers & Porter, 1983).

The main principles of his theory are: 1. Employees develop beliefs and perceptions towards fair and adequate rewards of their efforts and their contribution to their workplace. 2. Employees tend to compare with what is perceived by them regarding the relationship with their employers. 3. When people will assume that they do not get a fair attitude relatively to what they expected they will respond accordingly; a decrease in the employee's input and output in comparison to other employees, till they become convinced that the equity expected by them was achieved' or the possibility that they will quit from their organization (Champagne & McAfee, 1989; Ramlal, 2004).



### **2.2.3.5 Goal setting theory**

Locke & Latham (1990) argued that goal difficulty is linearly related to performance. The establishment of specific, difficult goals is associated with levels of performance higher than those associated with instructions to 'do your best' or with an absence of assigned goals. Further, goal commitment is crucial to the effectiveness of goal setting. Pritchard et al. (1988) report the results of a field study using five intact work groups studied over two years.

The study involved multiple sequential examinations of how feedback, goal setting, and incentives affected group productivity. Group-level feedback increased productivity by an average of 50% over baseline, group goal setting increased productivity another 25%, and incentives increased productivity still further. This study provides convincing evidence for the utility of goal setting, feedback, and incentives in attempts to increase group productivity. Erez & Earley (1987) showed that participation in goal setting was crucial to obtaining goal commitment. Latham et al. (1988) in their experiments showed that the motivational effects of assigned goals are as powerful as those of participants setting their own goals in generating goal commitment and subsequent performance.

### **2.2.4 The key motivation drivers: emotions and values**

The Society for Human Resource Management found in their motivation surveys that people are much more driven by their emotions, than by money. It does not mean that people do not need a paycheck. On the contrary, they need it, but they do not put their passion into work because of money. People have a strong need to be recognized, to have an identity, to assume a sense of personal responsibility and have a feeling of creation and a sense of accomplishment (Ariely, 2016; Zak, 2017b). A Boston Consulting Group (BCG) survey found that salary is number eight in the list of employee drivers. Salary provides an extrinsic motivation, but most studies have shown that an employee's internal drive, or intrinsic motivation is the key to sustaining performance over the long-term (Zak, 2017b). Emotions, which are motivation drivers generated in response to one's work, are the raw materials that accumulate over time to build the affective component of job attitudes. Based on this theory job attitudes are continuously revised by employees' emotional experiences (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

According to Ashkanasy et al. (2003) a long series of researchers have emphasized that the emotional aspects are an inseparable part of the organization's life. Many models see in emotions the interaction of a cognitive and non-cognitive neural system. In the organization there is a conceptual chain that links events, feelings, and attitudes. Understanding the meaning of behaviors in a conflict or in differences of opinion and understanding the processes that influence the reinforcement of motivation among workers in the workplace are related to the understanding of the place of feelings and emotions in these contexts - how emotions and feelings influence people and the conditions under which they can fill a beneficial or a destructive role (Ashkanasy et al., 2003).

According to Kahneman & Tversky (1979), behavioral economics assumes that people are not fully rational, and that they are motivated by unconscious cognitive biases that form the basis for their emotions. Emotions and feelings have different roles in different contexts. Maiese (2005) notes that emotions are the basis of every conflict. "They influence the conflict management and may be both the cause and the accelerant of the conflict" (Maiese 2005, p. 1). People have emotional needs, such as love, prestige, status, and belonging, and harm to these emotions may cause an aggressive response. People who feel attacked respond with hostility. In contrast, emotional responses, such as trust, prestige, respect, satisfaction, feeling of belonging, and appreciation, have a major role in the resolution of conflict and hence in the motivation of workers and in the reduction of the level of the negative emotions.

Linder (2009) strengthens the approach of Maiese (2005) and argued that, the current research approach tends to see feelings as an inclusive package of meanings, behaviors, social experiences, and cultural norms. Linder noted that people respond with anger when they perceive that a person has addressed them with lack of respect, whether intentionally or unintentionally. Her conclusion is that as we feel more vulnerable, we are angrier. She argued that the sharpest feeling that influences people is the feeling of humiliation and she defined it as the 'atom bomb' of the emotions. "This is the helpless feeling of a person who is not able not to object to the degradation and sees it as not legitimate and not desired" (Linder 2009, p. 277). Emotions of humiliation are accompanied by emotions of shame that cause in the humiliated person the desire for revenge - to bring the person who has humiliated us down to our level, or even lower, down to the very bottom. This can be violent

revenge or verbal revenge or the revenge of separating oneself or others from the system. When there is a feeling of humiliation, it creates a split between various people and destroys the trust between them.

According to Maiese (2005), emotions of humiliation and lack of respect create the emotion of shame. If the harmed person overcomes the shame, then he will return to cooperate, and if he does not, then he will continue to disconnect. Linder (2009) summarized that conflicts influence the feelings of humiliation according to the way in which the conflict is managed. If the conflict is managed and resolved in a respectful way, then it is highly likely that a solution will be found. However, if it is managed in a patronizing and arrogant manner, then every intention to create constructive cooperation will be undermined. One of the most significant challenges of a manager is to manage and resolve the differences of opinion and the disagreements in the organization in a respectful way and from the perspective of an objective mediator who seeks to bring about an agreement between the various sides. Latham & Pinder (2005) in their summary of the ten important conclusions about motivation at "the dawn of the twenty-first century" mentioned that the research today on motivation is no longer focusing on cognition but extended to include the importance of affect and behaviors as well as the reciprocal interactions among cognition, affect, and behavior, and that there is now ongoing research on needs, values, cognition (particularly goals), affect (particularly emotions), and behaviors. They mentioned also that significant advances have been made in understanding how national culture, characteristics of the job itself, and the fit between the person and the organization influence motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005, p. 506)

### **2.2.5 The role of motivation in employees' work life**

A key aspect of employee behavior is motivation, and as such, employee motivation should come first in an organization (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Motivation has been highly valued and sought to be understood for one primary reason: motivation equals production. Managers perceive motivation as an important factor in the performance equation at all levels, while organizational researchers perceive it as a building block in the development of theories of effective management practice (Steers et al., 2004). "Motivation affects energy, direction, persistence, and equifinality in all aspects of activation and intention. Motivation

has been a central and perennial issue in the field of psychology, for it is at the core of biological, cognitive, and social regulation” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 69). The topic of employee motivation plays a central role in the field of management - both practically and theoretically including sub-fields management such as leadership, teams, performance management, managerial ethics, decision making, and organizational change. It is not surprising, therefore, that this topic has received so much attention over the past decades in both research journals and management periodicals (Steers et al., 2004).

The interest in employee motivation is grounded in the belief that there is tremendous benefit in having highly motivated and committed employees (Locke & Latham, 1990). This is especially true in light of the major changes which are currently taking place in the workplace, including liberalization, privatization and globalization, the use of new technologies after restructuring, the development of information technology and less dependence on workers in favor of automation, rapid changes in the operational process of the organizations, heavy work pressures, long hours of work, the resultant development of stress, tremendous pressure on the workforce to achieve optimal performance levels or even higher, customers are the top-priority in the market economy. To meet these challenges the organization tries to utilize its human resources to their fullest capacity by increasing their employees' motivation level (Bandyopadhyay, 2014).

## **2.3 Trust**

### **2.3.1 Definitions of trust**

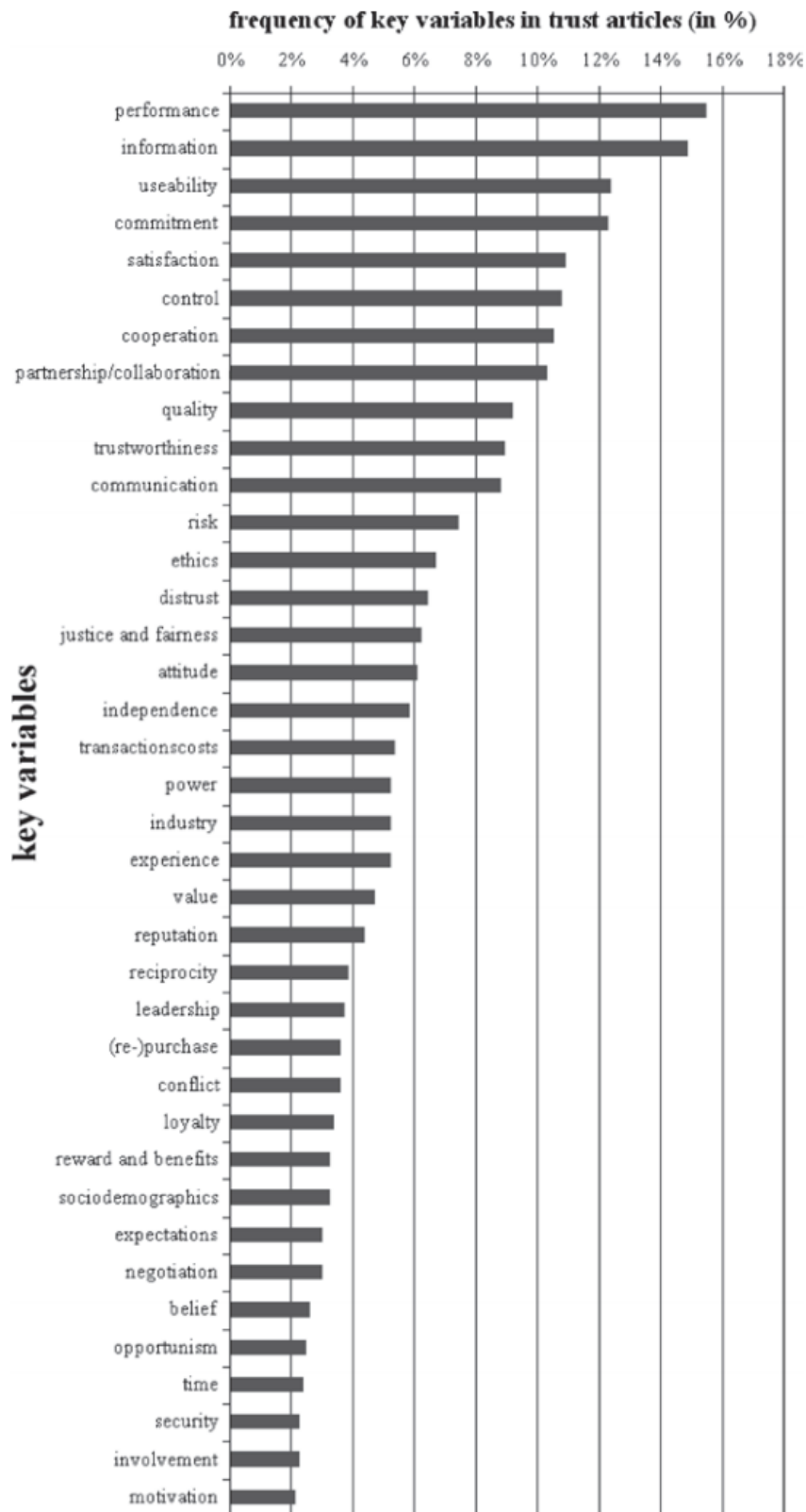
Trust is related to the words: "tree", "truth", "triggwa" (pact, alliance), "treow" (faith, loyalty, truth) and "trog" (wooden vessel). The semantic relationship lies in the concept of wood, which represents firmness and solidity (Ebert, 2009). There is no single universally accepted definition of trust in the literature, whereas there are some commonly used ones (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Hakanen & Soudunsaari, 2012; Bews & Martins, 2002). What is apparent from the research is that Mayer's (1995) definition of trust has become widely accepted in organizational literature (Rousseau et al., 1998). Mayer defines trust 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 that other party" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712). Trust represents an intention to take a risk in a relationship (Gillet al., 2005). Several terms

have been used synonymously with trust, and this creates some confusion about the nature of trust. Among these are: cooperation, confidence, predictability and reliability (Mayer et al., 1995; Ebert, 2009). Luhmann (1988) proposed a distinction to differentiate trust from confidence. He asserted that both concepts refer to expectations that may lead to disappointment. He argued that trust differs from confidence because it requires a previous employee engagement on a person's part, including recognizing and accepting that risk exists. The distinction between trust and cooperation is unclear. Although trust can frequently lead to cooperative behavior, trust is not a necessary condition for cooperation to occur, because cooperation does not necessarily put a party at risk. Trust is based on social relationships and involves risk and vulnerability and is crucial, especially when there is a lack of familiarity (Ebert, 2009, p. 69).

Researchers have described three kinds of trust: general trust, specific trust and mutual trust. Rotter (1967, p. 651) was the first to define general trust as: "A generalized expectancy held by an individual that the word of another ... can be relied on". General trust develops in the first years of childhood and is an important factor in one's personality (Kennedy et al., 2001). In contrast to general trust, specific trust depends on the perception of a specific situation and a specific object of trust, which may include organizations and/or persons (Mayer et al., 1995).

Mutual trust is an important basis of a working relationship in an organization. Workers today are more dependent on each other because of international trends such as globalization and the increasing diversity of workers. They may work together while coming from very different cultures, holding different beliefs and being accustomed to different behaviors. There are strict policies, standards and regulations in manufacturing companies (for example, pharmaceutical companies, which are extremely exacting in their regulations and standards) which require a very high standard of mutual trust between employees in order to avoid errors and deviations - and to report those errors and deviations that do occur in an accurate and timely fashion. The issue of trust becomes even more important in the light of self-directed work teams, which emphasize the importance of trust as a substitute for direct supervision. This can be applicable also to internationally regulated companies (Mayer et al., 1995).

Ebert (2009) defined 40 'key variables' involved in trust-formation, which he derived from the listed variables he found in the 808 articles cited in his literature synthesis (see Figure 6). Performance and availability of information are the most frequently mentioned variables analyzed in connection with trust, and degree of involvement was the least frequently mentioned variable in his literature synthesis. This is important, as frequency is an important indication of the variable's importance in trust research.

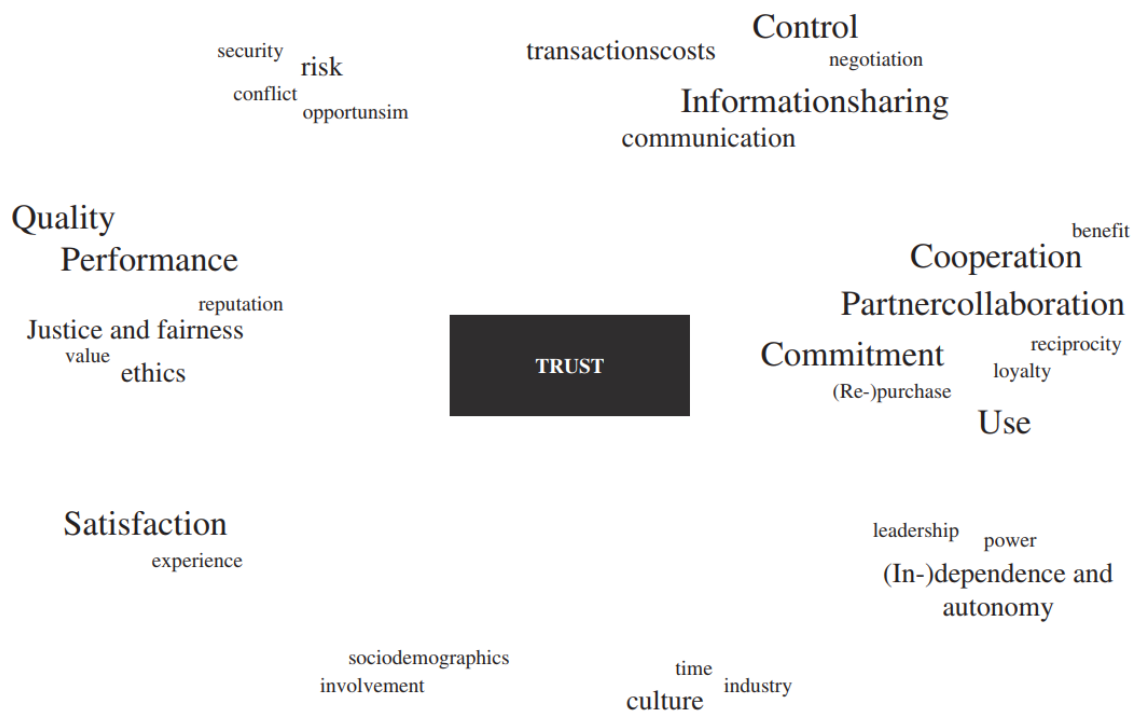


**Figure 7: Frequencies of listed key variables involved in trust creation**

Source: Ebert (2009).

Ebert (2009) categorized trust into eight clusters, which include sub-clusters (see Figure 7). The eight main clusters of trust are: dependency, environment, future intention, person,

reputation, satisfaction, security/risk, and transaction costs. "Dependency" includes the variables of dependence, autonomy, leadership, and power. "Environment" includes the variables of time, industry, and culture. "Future intention" includes the variables of cooperation, benefit, collaboration, commitment, reciprocity, loyalty, (repeat) purchase, and use of product or service (all of these being actions that express the future intention to trust). "Person" includes the variables of socio-demographics and involvement. "Reputation" includes the variables of reputation, quality, performance, justice, fairness, value, and ethics. "Satisfaction" includes the variables of satisfaction and experience, since satisfaction is the result of the perception of experience with a product or service, or an interaction with a trusted partner. "Security/risk" includes the variables of security, risk, conflict, and opportunism. If, for example, a partner behaves opportunistically at the expense of the other, conflicts will occur, the perceived level of risk will be high, and the perceived levels of safety and security will be low. "Transaction cost" includes variables that can be separated in ex-ante and ex-post transactions costs (Ebert, 2009, pp. 77-78).



**Figure 8: The eight clusters of trust variables**

Source: Ebert (2009).

The main question remains unanswered: trust in whom? (Perry & Mankin, 2004). This question is addressed by Ferres et al., (2004) who explained that organizational trust can be



categorized within three dimensions: Trust in the corporation, trust in management and trust in one's co-workers. Employees' trust can differ, and we cannot draw a conclusion from one area of an employee's trust to a different area. Trust in the corporation includes trust in the organizational system and includes the individual's confidence in the company itself rather than in a specific person or group of people (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Galford & Drapeau, 2002; Paliszkiwicz, 2011). Trust in co-workers and in direct management represents an interpersonal form of trust (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Galford & Drapeau, 2002) and this type of trust is often regarded as the "hallmark of effective relationships" (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, p. 3) or the "social glue" of affiliations within a corporation (Abrams et al., 2003). Edmondson (2004) suggests that if team relationships are characterized by trust and mutual respect, "individuals are more likely to believe that they will be given the benefit of the doubt – a defining characteristic of psychological safety" (p. 252.). When employees feel psychologically safe they are more likely to show initiative, experiment with novel work methods and express their true selves and as a result are expected to be more engaged in their work (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004). However trust in direct managers and supervisors is one of the most important elements of employee engagement (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). It further refers to the perception that an individual can be trusted under particular circumstances, either personally in his inner intentions, or in his general character attributes (Brown et al., 2015; McKnight & Chervany, 2001; Tan & Lim, 2009). The dynamics of trust and the potential value therefore can have a major influence on a corporation's functioning and effectiveness. Trust is seen as upholding cooperation within the workplace, as it allows for the sharing of information, enhanced relationships among individuals and teams and enriches problem-solving and conflict resolution, which leads to better organizational performance (Brown et al., 2015; Lyman, 2003; Six et al., 2010).

### **2.3.2 Trust antecedents, models, and the role of trust**

There has been a wide range of research associated with the conditions that lead to trust. Some authors delineated a single dimension that is responsible for trust (Strickland, 1958), whereas other authors delineated as many as ten characteristics responsible for trust (Butler, 1991). A review of factors that lead to trust is summarized in Table 8. We can conclude from the research that three dimensions of a trustee (i.e., the one who is trusted)

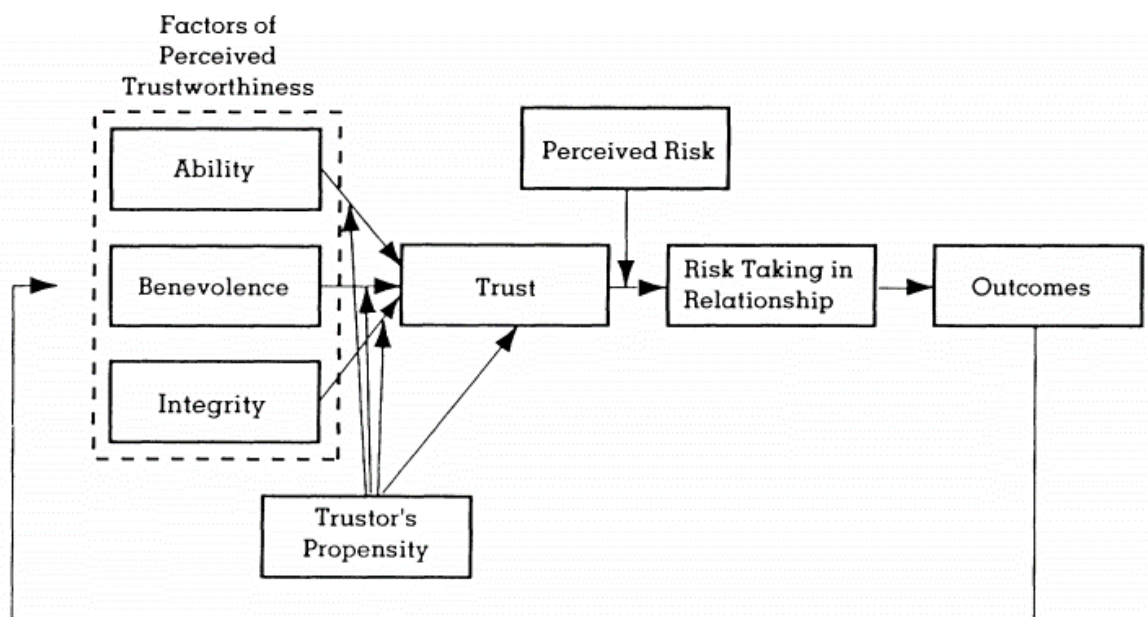
appear often in the literature: ability, benevolence and integrity, and these three appear to explain a major portion of trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995). Ability is that group of skills, competencies, and characteristics over which a party has influence within some specific domain. Benevolence is the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor (the one doing the trusting), outside of a purely egocentric profit motive. Benevolence suggests that the trustee has some specific attachment to the trustor. Integrity involves the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable (Mayer et al., 1995, pp. 717-719). Each of these three factors are important to trust, and each may vary independently of the others. If a trustee is perceived as scoring high on all three factors, the trustee will be perceived as quite trustworthy.

**Table 8: Antecedents of trust**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Antecedent Factors</b>
Boyle & Bonacich (1970)	Past interactions, index of caution based on prisoners' dilemma outcomes
Butler (1991)	Availability, competence, consistency, discretion, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, promise fulfillment, receptivity
Cook & Wall (1980)	Trustworthy intentions, ability
Dasgupta (1988)	Credible threat of punishment, credibility of promises
Deutsch (1960)	Ability, intention to produce
Farris, Senner, & Butterfield (1973)	Openness, ownership of feelings, experimentation with new behavior, group norms
Frost, Stimpson, & Maughan (1978)	Dependence on trustee, altruism
Gabarro (1978)	Openness, previous outcomes
Giffin (1967)	Expertness, reliability as information source, intentions, dynamism, personal attraction, reputation
Good (1988)	Ability, intention, trustees' claims about how (they) will behave
Hart, Capps, Cangemi, & Caillouet (1986)	Openness/congruity, shared values, autonomy/feedback
Hovland, Janis, & Kelley (1953)	Expertise, motivation to lie
Johnson-George & Swap (1982)	Reliability
Jones, James, & Bruni (1975)	Ability, behavior is relevant to the individual's needs and desires
Kee & Knox (1970)	Competence, motives
Larzelere & Huston (1980)	Benevolence, honesty
Lieberman (1981)	Competence, integrity
Mishra (In press)	Competence, openness, caring, reliability
Ring & Van de Ven (1992)	Moral integrity, goodwill
Rosen & Jerdee (1977)	Judgment or competence, group goals
Sitkin & Roth (1993)	Ability, value congruence
Solomon (1960)	Benevolence
Strickland (1958)	Benevolence

Source: Mayer et al., (1995).

There are several trust models which refer to three quite similar components based on trust research (Allen & Pond, 2007; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Reina & Reina, 2007), but the model of Mayer et al. (1995), is considered to be the main model of trust (Figure 9). This model is based on the necessity of building trust between two individuals: a trustor (the individual trusting) and a trustee (the individual being trusted). In his model both the perceived characteristics of the trustor and trustee influence trust. According to this model trust does not involve risk per se, but rather a willingness to engage in risk-taking with the trustee (e.g., sharing sensitive information). The researchers tried to understand how parties process information about others and how they decide how much risk to take with those others. Perceptions of others and perceptions of risk should be processed to come to decisions about taking risks (Schoorman et al., 2007, p. 348).



**Figure 9: Mayer Trust model**

Source: Mayer et al., (1995).

Ability , benevolence and integrity are important to trust and each may vary independently from the others; "Ability is that a group of skills ,competencies and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain"; Benevolence is the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor , aside from an egocentric profit motive "Integrity – the relationship between integrity and trust involves the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles the

trustor finds acceptable" (Mayer, et al., 1995, pp.717,718,719). Knoll & Gill (2011) conducted a study to examine two aspects of Mayer's model of organizational trust: First the possibility to generalize the Integrative model to predict trust across different referents (i.e., supervisors, subordinates, and peers). Second to examine the relative importance of ability, benevolence, and integrity when making upward, downward, and lateral trust judgments. The results of the study support the ability to generalize the model to other referents and that the three components of trustworthiness (et al., ability, benevolence, and integrity) were related to trust in supervisor, trust in subordinate and trust in peer.

Although the model is consistent with other theories of trust it is distinct from previous conceptualizations of organizational trust because it separates trust from its antecedents and outcomes (Knoll & Gill, 2011). Risk is an essential component of a model of trust. While there is no risk taken in the pure willingness to be vulnerable (i.e., to trust), nonetheless, risk is inherent in the behavioral manifestation of the willingness to be vulnerable. One does not need to risk anything to be willing to trust; however, one must take a risk to engage in trusting action. Trust will lead to risk-taking in a relationship, and the form that the risk takes (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 725).

### **2.3.3 The interconnection between employees and trust**

Trust is a strong glue that links people, processes, and the environment, and can therefore improve engagement, while lack of trust in managers and supervisors results in a lack of employee engagement in their work (Covey & Merrill, 2006). Five studies conducted by Evans et al. (2018) on the consequences of generalized trust found that people who trust others are moral and sociable, but not necessarily as competent. When controlling for other traits, there is a negative relationship between being trusting to others and perceived competence. Furthermore people judge those who do not discriminate between trustworthy and untrustworthy groups more negatively than those who only trust groups that are, in fact, trustworthy. From this trust has important consequences in how others see us and how they judge our levels of morality, sociability, and competence (Evans et al., 2018).

Trust between top management and their employees is not as highly personal in nature as other trust-based relationships (Costigan et al., 1998). But top managers can gain their employees' trust if employees believe that the policies and procedures implemented by the

top management are directed towards their well-being (Searle et al., 2007). On the other hand trust between line managers and specifically supervisors and their employees is very personal and therefore the relationships between trust in supervisor and job satisfaction is significantly important and well established in the literature (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). There is also evidence of a significant positive relationship between trust in peers and job satisfaction (Cook and Wall, 1980; Lehmann -Willenbrock & Kauffeld, 2010). Trust researchers argue that if an employee is in a trusting relationship, then the employee feels safe and positive, which subsequently leads to higher job satisfaction (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995; Werbel & Henriques, 2009). On the other hand, if there is distrust an employee is likely to feel anxiety and negative emotions, which results in lower job satisfaction (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995).

What can leaders do to increase their employee's trust? Be authentic. Covey & Merrill (2006) suggested that authentic concern and leadership can stimulate trust, which then leads to reciprocation. Furthermore by adopting good communication skills, supervisors can build mutual trust, which further helps increase employee engagement. Research suggests that supervisors who communicate more transparently and are role models in communication, (i.e., are consistent in both communication and action), lead to positive relationships with their employees, and to an increased trust in the leaders (Elsbach & Eloffson, 2000; Norman et al., 2010). Thus, effective leaders are also effective communicators (Clutterbuck & Hirst, 2002). Avolio et al. (2010) found that the leaders who exhibited high levels of positive psychological capacities had a positive trust relationship with their subordinates. It is also important that through the behavioral expression of moral characteristics, leaders can show their consideration for others, since when there is no moral feeling and empathy, trust cannot be built (George et al., 2007). Trust in leaders plays a mediating role between the leaders' actions and employees' attitudinal variables, such as job satisfaction, while it has no mediating effect on OCB, which is a behavioral outcome. In other words there is a measurable relationship between trust and employees' attitudes, in that if employees believe their leaders are trustworthy, their psychological well-being can be positively affected, and they will be more engaged in their work. Hence when employees consider their supervisors to have authenticity and to be trustworthy, the desire of employees to reciprocate increases voluntarily, which in turn produces trust and dependency and helps employees to engage more fully in their work (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

### **2.3.4 Approaches for building motivation, trust and engagement**

Among the several psychological theories which explain the relationships between the mind and the creation of motivation and trust, the author has chosen the three following as representing the most innovative and challenging.

#### **2.3.4.1 The social mind theory**

Managers at all levels must lead the process of building motivation and trust in the organization. They need to understand what motivates their workers and to understand the physical and mental needs of the workers as a part of the understanding of the processes for the creation of employee engagement among their workers and primarily shop floor workers who suffer from considerable burnout as a result of their routine work. They must understand the importance of the existence of face-to-face conversations with the workers and the creation of chemistry with them. According to Goleman (2007) our mind is intended to be sociable and is attracted from the beginning and consistently to an intimate connection of mind to mind. In every meeting with another person, every time that we create a face-to-face relationship, our social minds fit into one another, or in other words, 'speak' to one another, also automatically. We have the ability through the mind to convey to the mind of our conversation partner emotions and feelings. Goleman has two important definitions of the social mind. The first is the neural circles that act during the interaction with another person, while the second is the discovery of the connections between involvement in relationships that cause distress and the sharp rises in the level of the stress hormones. When it comes to managers it is important for them to understand the following dimensions; the nature of the social mind is built by overhead brain paths, a dry and rational path, and under-brain, which is a network of circles that acts under awareness and is filled with emotions,(which creates an adherence of emotions and feelings between people), they should understand that they have control over their relationships with others in general and their emotional relationships in particular. We can connect to emotions and feelings and create a good atmosphere in conversation, not only through verbal communication but also through our body language. The emotions we absorb have results, and therefore we should understand how to convey them in the best possible way. It is necessary to remember that when two people feel empathy and reciprocal understanding, their physiology is adjusted

and works in harmony and synchronization. The recipe for good chemistry exists every time that we feel that the relationship is pleasant, cordial, and without bumps and when there is chemistry, we can be more creative and more efficient and effective also in our decision making. This special relationship is composed of three factors: reciprocal attention, positive shared sense, and a well-coordinated non-verbal duet. The feeling is that the conversation partner is present all the time in the conversation and the two sides experience it as being experienced positively by one another (Goleman 2007). This theory was elaborated and had been given empirical scientific proof by the Neuroscience management approach (Zak, 2017b).

#### **2.3.4.2 The neuroscience management approach**

Zak (2017b), a neuroscientist and the director of the Center for Neuroeconomics Studies at Claremont University identified the key ingredient in building employee engagement and trust. Based on years of laboratory blood experiments all over the world, he identified the neurochemical Oxytocin as being responsible for enhancing trust and engagement. His experiments showed that when one feels trust, one's brain produces oxytocin which motivates cooperation with others. His conclusion is that the more the brain produces oxytocin the more we feel empathy and connection towards others. Oxytocin connects people emotionally to others and motivates them to invest in supporting and helping them. Zak and his team defined eight leadership factors which are empirically proven to stimulate the brain to release oxytocin. Zak's team noted that the eight factors that neuroscience affirms and that are the building blocks of organizational trust have the acronym OXYTOCIN. This acronym stands for Ovation, Expectation, Yield, Transfer, Openness, Caring, Invest, and Natural.

Ovation (recognizing excellence) can cause the direct release of the neurotransmitter dopamine in the brain, which increases focus and energy and provides a feel-good mood. Expectation occurs when colleagues face a challenge as a group. The goal of expectation is to design challenges that are not too difficult but still attainable. Science experiments on expectations show that it is enjoyable for people to triumph over a challenge. Yield refers to maximizing decision latitude by leaders or supervisors giving control to others. Autonomy and decision-latitude facilitate oxytocin release because of the perceived trustworthiness of

leaders. Transfer refers to the taking on of self-management, which optimizes intrinsic motivation. Openness relates to transparent decision-making, which reduces fear and uncertainty. Transparency with open candid communication increases trustworthiness and reduces stress. Carrying is building relationships of teamwork, collaboration, and cooperation, which stimulate oxytocin and increase empathy. Invest is helping employees grow as professional growth and development are high drivers of employee engagement. Natural is being vulnerable, asking for help when imperfections appear. Empirical tests of the model in for-profit and nonprofit organizations show that together the OXYTOCIN factors explain 100 percent of the variation in organizational trust.

Zak (2017b) argued that trust combined with purpose results in joy at work. Trust affects joy through the interaction of oxytocin and dopamine (a neurochemical which, when released, gives a sense of reward). The challenge for management is to design a culture in which oxytocin can be released many times during the day by positive social interactions. Zak (2017a) introduced eight management behaviors that foster trust based on his experiments. These behaviors are measurable and can be managed to improve performance. They are; recognizing excellence, inducing challenge-stress, giving people discretion in how they do their work, enabling job-crafting, sharing information broadly, intentionally building relationships, facilitating whole-person growth and showing vulnerability (Zak, 2017a). On the other hand, Zak's experiments found that male testosterone inhibits oxytocin and causes people to be selfish. Testosterone tells your brain that you are the center of the world. He advised leaders to be mindful and aware that they can suffer from this syndrome (Zak, 2017b).

#### **2.3.4.3 The Kahneman theory approach**

According to Kahneman (2011), a winner of the Nobel Prize, we are divided creatures who are activated by two operating systems – systems 1 and 2. System 1 (to think quickly) is rapid, *shallow, frequently in error, and delineates the perception of our reality with reliance on stereotypes, generalizations, and metaphors*. System 1 makes extensive use of heuristics, intuition, or rules of thumb to reach easy and rapid conclusions and between them and rational thinking there is a loose relationship, at best. System 1 excels also at 'exchange'. It prefers to understand what is comfortable for it and to cope with a question that provides a



comfortable solution from the intuition that hints to us that we know the answer rather than to cope mentally with lack of knowledge and to dedicate mental energy to the true question. In contrast, system 2 (to think slowly) is heavy, slow, and rather lazy. It excels in rational thinking but requires serious mental effort to activate it over time. However its logic is full and more precise and therefore it makes few errors. The relationships between the two systems is connected to many of the decisions that we make every hour and day, and even system 2, the rational system, which is supposedly in charge of the decision making, in many cases accepts the shallow, and sometimes mistaken, judgment that system 1 creates in a moment and according to which it acts. This does not mean that system 1 is always mistaken. This is a system that functions well most of the time and our physical and emotional functioning is evidence of its ability. The distinction that Kahneman presents is that a large part of the mistakes that we make in our lives are a direct result of our blind belief in our intuition (system 1), even in cases in which the correct decision is simply to force ourselves to think about this (to implement system 2). According to Kahneman, we understand why we sometimes behave in an irrational manner, how basic the bias built into our manner of thinking is, and how much the assumption that the making of economic decisions is based on logic and erroneous benefit. Kahneman addresses the main place of intuitive impressions in our behavior and thinking and the influence of the hatred of loss and excess security on the strategies of organizations and companies, the difficulty of predicting what will cause us happiness in a few years and even in a few hours.

The profound influence of the manner of the presentation of the information on our choices, for instance, the understanding of the perception of cognitive ease, will help us communicate more effectively and efficiently. The positive thinking and adoption of an approach of winning optimism. Thinking that looks forward, which combines flexibility, energy, innovation, and hope in the way in which coping with the task is approached, will improve the performances at work and in the private life (Kahneman, 2011).

#### **2.3.4.4 Communication and managerial approach to build and assimilate motivation trust and engagement**

In the new era managers will need to be communicational leaders. According to Schneider et al. (2015) leadership communication is at the heart of the daily organizational life. The role

of communicational leaders in the new era will be to awaken inspiration which can create motivation among the workers through effective and efficient explanation. In other words, workers should be told when the work is performed correctly, and the goals of the organization should be explained. It is necessary to speak optimistically about the future, to listen attentively to their concerns, to produce an interesting picture of the future in society, and to reveal to them what the expectations of them are. There a number of approaches for the achievement of the goal: to identify negative thoughts and to fight against them, to achieve an advantage through the adoption of an optimistic approach in relation to positive and negative events, to use positive evaluation again, to cope with problems and disappointments, to know how and when to beneficially use negative thinking, to use gratitude and forgiveness to push away the negative thinking (Pritchett, 2015). To place emphasis on the profound human need to control our lives, to learn to create new things, and to act in the best way that will benefit us and our environment. The three elements of true motivation are: autonomy, expertise, and purpose (Pink,2014).

Hamel (2001) notes that assimilation passes through experience. People do not adopt an opportunity because they see it; they adopt it because they feel it and therefore, they must experience it. To assimilate it, it is necessary to prepare a convincing story, which includes components such as why this is important, which change this will bring about, who cares, how people will use it, how this will be seen, and so on. People find it difficult to imagine extreme alternatives. It is necessary to build a bridge between the world in which they live and the world in which others live (Hamel, 2008). To assimilate processes effectively and efficiently, we must better understand how our brain works when making decisions. The rise of cognitive psychology and positive psychology, in parallel with the advance of the brain sciences, brings us closer to a more in-depth understanding of ourselves.

Extrinsic rewards tend to promote the creative performance of employees who regard these incentives as important. Existing studies have reported that the impact of rewards on performance varies between significant positive to non-significant, depending on the importance that employees associate with the rewards (Malik et al., 2015). Motivation may also be influenced by the atmosphere among the workers. Passive leadership can directly influence the appearance of incivility and spread in a spiral manner in the organization (Crystal & Brian, 2014; Porath & Pearson, 2013). Examples of incivility can be the show of

little interest in another's opinion, eye rolling, and checking email (Pearson, 1999). This incivility has been recognized as being one of the most pervasive forms of antisocial behavior in the work place. A survey performed among thousands of workers in the United States and in Canada in the year 2012 shows that 50% of the workers behaved rudely in the workplace in 2012, in comparison to 25% in 1998. This behavior creates a feeling of disrespect in the worker, harms his creativity, causes his abandonment, reduces the output and quality, and costs the organizations considerable amounts of money (Porath & Pearson, 2013). They address the phenomenon through the implementation of education for civility, through the creation of group norms among the workers in which managers share with their workers this need and give them reward for civil behavior .Patterson et.al. (2011) present approaches for the assimilation through groups of those with influence in the organization. In their opinion those with influence will generally be the powerful change agents.

#### **2.4. The relationship between engagement, organizational culture, motivation, and trust**

There are close relationships between the variables discussed in the study. Each of the variables can be treated as an antecedent, mediator, moderator, or outcome. Motivation, organizational culture, and trust have been treated separately in this study as antecedents and mediators to achieve engagement. Employee engagement has been treated mainly as an outcome of the three variables.

##### **2.4.1 The relationship between employee engagement organizational culture and values**

Researchers revealed that there are strong relationships between OC and employee engagement. They found that the main cultural dimensions which predict employee engagement are mainly organizational shared values and behaviors, leadership, management processes and goals, and objectives, respect for an individual's rights, as well as social responsibility (Barbars, 2015; Naido & Martins, 2014). Organizational culture has a great influence on how an employee believes that he/she should behave in a specific context (Schein, 2010) and is linked to understanding organizational commitment, engagement, job satisfaction, individual identity and efficacy (Sarangi & Srivastana, 2012). The values, ideas, way of thinking, beliefs, and assumptions (which are the main layers of culture) as well as the

employees' perceptions of the organization, guide behaviors and facilitate shared meaning. They have been empirically linked to effectiveness and may influence employee willingness to engage (Kotrab et al., 2012; Reissner & Pagan, 2013). There is a direct relationship between organizational culture and authenticity which was defined as employee engagement (Reis et al., 2016). This relationship can be explained by social cognitive theory, whereby the environment influences individual behavior (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Organizational culture is a key success factor for enhancing motivation and employee engagement and is considered an important determinant to raise the motivational level among employees and improve performance (Mahal, 2009). Culture is not static. It evolves as the people and purpose of the organization change. Most importantly culture can be managed and continuously improved to increase employee engagement by employees (Zak, 2017b).

Values, as normative standards, are powerful motivators, as they are identical to needs in their capacity to arouse, direct, and sustain behaviors, and they are considered a step closer to action than needs. They further differ in that needs are inborn whereas values are acquired through cognition and experience (Latham & Pinder, 2005). The power of values derives from being a mechanism used to judge and choose among alternative behaviors. In cases of a conflict of values on the job, where there is a gap between individual and organizational values, workers will make a trade-off between work they want to do and work they have to do (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Research has supported the idea that perceived value-congruence between individual and organizational values helps individuals to have a higher level of employee engagement. As a result employee make higher personal investments in the execution of the organizational goals because they experience meaningfulness in their work roles (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Kahn, 1990, 1992; Kristof, 1996; May et al., 2004). Therefore, organizations fostering ethical values can retain compatible, engaged and more committed employees (Ghadi et al., 2013).

On the other hand, results of a study conducted by Dylag et al. (2013) showed an increase in occupational burnout and a decrease in work employee engagement under conditions of a perceived gap between individual and organization values at work. Arsenault (2016)

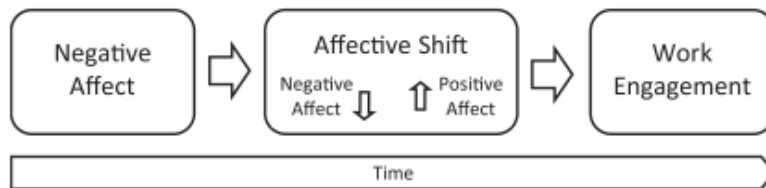
maintained that organizational missions and values impact employees positively, and have been found to help organizations attract, retain, and motivate employees in several ways; by bringing meaning and purpose to their work, by aligning employees' values with organizational values, by giving employees an opportunity to connect to and help the community, by providing employees with a sense of similarity with coworkers and by creating a sense of occupational prestige (Arsenault, 2016, pp. 1-2). Organizational research has also found that when employees strongly identify with missions and values, socially conscious, and environmentally friendly, this may heighten their sense of safety, belonging, and connectedness (Ashforth, 1989). Thus highlighting the ethical values of an organization can enhance employees' ability to understand and perceive the meaningfulness of their work, by sharing power, and showing fairness, care, and concern. Ethical leaders can enhance their employees' work engagement which will influence employee's work behaviors to take more initiative and have less counterproductive behavior (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

#### **2.4.2 The relationship between employee engagement, motivation and emotions**

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors play a crucial role in motivating employees, which in turn, can act to promote employee engagement (Balducci et al., 2010; Evangeline & Ragavan, 2016; Latta & Faith, 2016). Motivation and employee engagement are strongly connected, and are an inseparable part of the organization's life, as reflected in the motivation needs theories in general and in the theories which offer a better understanding of the employee engagement approach in particular (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Emerson, 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). Emotions have an important role in creating motivation and employee engagement as emotions generated at work are perceived as raw materials that accumulate over time to build the affective component of job attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Engaging people largely requires changing their perceptions of their current reality and here, motivation can be the trigger for the process of replacing the present situation with a vision of new realities (Hunter, 2012).

The affective shift model of work employee engagement formulated by Bledow et al. (2011) is built on the premise that both positive and negative emotions have important functions for work engagement. Accordingly a shift from negative to positive affect during

the workday will lead to the emergence of high work engagement, while work employee engagement will remain low among people who are stuck in a negative affect without experiencing any positive affect such as happiness and enthusiasm. These emotions raise employee engagement and function as a signal to approach and continue a line of action (Bledow et al., 2011), as explained in Figure 10.



**Figure 10: The affective shift model of work engagement**

Source: Bledow et al., (2011).

Employees are emotionally and cognitively engaged when they know what is expected of them, have what they need to do their work, have opportunities to feel an impact and fulfillment in their work, perceive that they are part of something significant with coworkers whom they trust, and have the chance to improve and develop (Rich et al., 2010).

### **2.4.3 The relationship between employee engagement and trust**

Workplace trust has a significant and strong positive relationship with work employee engagement (Chughtai & Buckley, 2013; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Men, 2015; Mone & London, 2018; Ozmen, 2017; Victor & Hoole, 2017; Wang & Hsieh, 2013) and this relationship has positive job outcomes, including: organizational effectiveness, productivity, interpersonal organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), proactive behavior (Ugwu et al., 2014, p. 391). In addition, trust has also been linked to better team processes (Jones & George, 1998), to superior levels of performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), and has also been correlated with higher profits, greater levels of innovation, organizational survival, and a variety of crucial worker perceptions and behaviors (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 1999). Trust in the organization's leaders and/or the team is essential to increasing the likelihood that employee engagement behavior will be displayed (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Although trust in leaders and peers is likely to have a significant impact on employee engagement,

researchers noted that, to the best of their knowledge, no previous study has empirically investigated the relationship between these two constructs (Chughtai & Buckley, 2013).

Trust is the glue for building relationships between supervisors and their employees, both within the team and between teams and their managers (Chughtai & Buckley, 2013).

When employees perceive their supervisors to be competent and supportive, they are more likely to trust their superiors when workplace issues arise (Costigan et al., 1998; Victor & Hoole, 2017). Similarly, good relationships between team members encourage them to engage in risk-taking behaviors, such as co-operation, knowledge sharing, and helping colleagues in need because they feel confident that their good deeds will be reciprocated in the future (Chung & Jackson, 2011).

Trust is often credited with creating a psychologically safe and empowering environment where employees dare to take risks, expose their real selves, and try - and perhaps fail - without fearing the consequences of making mistakes, or where they can "safely fail", (Paul & Fenlason, 2014, p. 13), learn from the experience and as result increase their effectiveness and work employee engagement(Kahn, 1990; Ugwu et al., 2014). Psychological empowerment is a moderator of the relationship between organizational trust and employee work engagement, in the sense that employees who perceive both good organizational trust and great psychological empowerment will show higher levels of employee engagement (Ugwu et al., 2014).Essentially the link between trust and employee engagement can be explained by social exchange theory: trust creates obligations within individuals to repay the organization, and employees can do this by exhibiting positive job attitudes, including being more engaged in their work (Ugwu et al., 2014).

## **2.5 Measurement**

### **2.5.1 Employee engagement measurement**

Several important research tools to measure employee engagement were used by researchers and have been detailed in the narrative synthesis done by Bailey et al. (2017a) (Appendix 1). Five of these measurement tools are used in this research: 1. The Brit et al. (2005) measurement tool assesses the level of self-employee engagement with performance based on a four-item scale assessing the extent of responsibility and commitment the individual feels for his or her job performance and how much job performance matters to

them (Appendix 6). 2. Saks (2006) assesses the multi-dimensional level of workplace engagement, which is based on two key types of employee engagement: job and organizational engagement. Saks' measurement tool consists of six questions that assess job employee engagement and seven questions assessing organizational employee engagement (Appendix 7). 3. Denison et al. (2006) assesses the organizational culture but can also be used as a good basis to assess organizational employee engagement as some of the questions reflect them. The measurement tool includes 60 questions divided into twelve clusters (Appendix 8); 4. Swanberg et al. (2001) assesses the level of employee engagement as a composite measure which combines the three facets of employee engagement- vigour, dedication and absorption - into one overall eight-item measure, which was then divided into three clusters; cognitive, emotional and behavioural engagement(Appendix 9); 5. Schaufeli et al. (2002), measurement tool, labeled as the Utrecht Work Employee engagement Scale (UWES) assesses work employee engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related, state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption.

The Utrecht Work Employee engagement Scale (UWES) includes the seventeen -item version (there is also a shortened nine item version and other versions comprising fifteen or sixteen items validated for use in other languages or adapted from other scales) comprised of three facets that can operate independently or as part of one overall employee engagement factor (see Appendix 10). (Gallup's Q12) Gallup measures employee engagement using a twelve-element survey rooted in employees' performance management needs. When those needs are met, employees become emotionally and psychologically attached to their work and workplace. As a result, their individual performance soars, and they propel their team and organization to improved crucial outcomes such as higher levels of productivity, safety and quality.

Specifically, the Q12 is based on four types — or levels — of employees' performance development needs: 1. basic needs 2. individual needs 3. teamwork needs 4. personal growth needs (Gallup, 2017) (Appendix 11).

### **2.5.2 Organizational culture measurement**

Several authors and researchers acknowledge that it is difficult (or impossible) to measure culture directly. Instead we need to rely on "artifacts" and creations in the physical and social



environment (Paul & Fenlason, 2014; Schein, 1992). When we do measure culture, we are likely measuring the behaviors that indicate the presence of norms that result from the employees' interpretation of underlying beliefs and assumptions. Ashkanasy et al., (2003) have provided an extensive review of survey measures of organizational culture that has been developed from a stream of research on culture and effectiveness: (Denison, 1990; Denison & Neale, 1999, Denison et al., 2006).

Among other important tools used in the study of organizational culture, we can mention: the Competing Values framework (CVf), in a version adapted for corporate culture diagnosis (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, 2011; Schein, 2010); the Eight Corporate Ethical Virtues model, developed by Kaptein (2008); the Quantitative Organizational Culture measurements, developed by Xenikou & Furham (1996); the Organizational Beliefs questionnaire developed by Sashkin & Rosenbach (2013), which measures organizational values. In this study we used three tools to measure organizational culture as they correlate with the goals and objectives of the study: 1. The Quick Survey of Organizational Culture, developed by Groysberg et al., (2018) (see Appendix 15), which measures corporate organizational culture; 2. the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Zumal, 2000) which focuses on behaviors that facilitate fitting into the organization and meeting expectations of coworkers (see Appendix16). 3. the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (Denison et al., 2006), was chosen because its 60-item instrument survey gives a simple and comprehensive analysis of the culture of an organization by evaluating the underlying cultural traits and management practices that influence business performance. It is behaviorally based and was designed and created within the business environment. It uses business language to explore business-level issues and is linked to bottom-line business results. It enables leaders, key stakeholders, and employees to understand the impact their culture has on the organization's performance and learn how to redirect their culture to improve organizational performance (Denison et. Al 2006),(see Appendix8).

### **2.5.3 Motivation measurement**

Any results of research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theories depend on the measurement tools used to operationalize and measure both types of motivations. In this research we used the following three measurement tools : 1. The Spreitzer (1995)

measurement tool measuring empowerment, which would be appropriate for this research as empowerment is defined as an increased intrinsic motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his work role (Spreitzer, 1995).

A. Meaning - the value of the work goal or purpose judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards B. Competence or self-efficacy - an individual's belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill C. Self-determination - a mastery of one's own behavior, resulting in an individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions, D. Impact - the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Appendix 12). 2. the Work Preference Inventory (WPI) (Amabile et al., 1994) which measures Intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation. The WPI is composed of 30 questions, among them were fifteen items measuring intrinsic motivation and fifteen items measuring extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation was defined as internal motivation, competence, curiosity, being involved with tasks, interest in tasks, and enjoyment in tasks. Extrinsic motivation was defined as motivation from outside sources such as receiving recognition, salary incentives, competition, and other specific rewards; elements included evaluation concerns (Amabile et al., 1994) (Appendix 13). 3. The most used tool is the Motivational Sources tool (MMS) developed by Ryan (2011), as a revision of Barbuto and Scholl's Motivation Sources Index (MSI) (Faith, 2015). The MMS is a measure of the motivation constructs included in the meta-theory (Leonard et al., 1999), which includes 28 questions with six statements relating to the dimensions of intrinsic process motivation, instrumental motivation, external self-concept motivation and internal self-concept motivation. Four other statements relate to the dimensions of goal internalization motivation (Leonard et al., 1999). Each of the five sources of work motivation has four to six corresponding questions in the survey. Using this tool all five scales have been found to have Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Ryan, 2011; see Appendix 14).

#### **2.5.4 Trust measurement**

Some of the most important trust measurement tools are summarized by Dietz & Hartog (2006). From this list four measurement tools were used in this research as they fit its direction. They include 1. Gillespie (2003) (See appendix 16); Mayer & Davis, (1999) (See Appendix 17); McAllister (1995) (See Appendix 19) and Tzafrir & Dolan (2004), (See Appendix

20). Based on the combined research it has been shown that trust can be measured through different work-based relationship channels; between an employer and an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers, between an employee and one's immediate work colleague, between an employee and her/his employer or with management representing the employer, between an employee and the rest of the organization, between multiple relationships throughout the organization (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). All the measures cover the four areas of trust: integrity, benevolence, competence, and predictability. On the other hand, trust can be measured as an outcome of a psychologically supportive culture which is based on the learning organization approach and open communication which plays an important role in creating trust (Thomas et al., 2009). For this purpose, we used two measurement tools: The Communication Openness measurement (Rogers, 1987), (Appendix 5) and the Dimension Learning Organization questionnaire (DLOQ) measurement tool (Marsic & Watkins, 2003;Appendix 4).

## **2.6 Summary**

The literature review reveals that employee engagement is achieved as a direct result of the internal interactions between the three independent variables: organizational culture, motivation, and trust. These three independent variables are interconnected and are considered by the researchers as the main factors which can explain, predict and influence employee engagement. Organizational leaders in general and top management leaders in particular have a crucial role in building employee engagement based on these three factors

Multinational corporations are influenced by three powerful cultures: The organizational , the national and the corporate cultures, but mainly they are influenced by their organizational and corporate cultures. There is a consensus among researchers regarding the importance of organizational culture to the existence of organizations, to their long term growth, and to their capacity to compete successfully in their local and global markets (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Groysberg et al., 2018 ; Kotter & Hasket,1992; Salacuse 1998; Smircich, 1983;). The main reason to explain this is that organizational culture has a great influence on how an employee believes that he or she should behave in a specific context (Groysberg, et al., 2018; Kotter & Hasket, 1992;Latham & Pinder, 2005; McGregor & Doshi, 2015; Schein, 2010.) .Organizational culture is perceived by

most researchers as one of the four main strategic factors that shape employee behaviors. The other three are: formal structure, systems, and policies (Groysberg ,et al., 2018; Kotter & Hasket, 1992; Latham & Pinder, 2005; McGregor & Doshi, 2015;). Hence there is a strong relationship between organizational culture and behaviors, as culture influences employee attitudes and behaviors and the organization creates a behavioral expectancy that directs the employees to behave in ways that are consistent with its culture (Gregory et al., 2009) "culture serves as a sense-making device that can guide and shape behavior" (Smircich,1983, p. 346). So organizational culture is a behavior pattern which is implemented over the long-term life of the organization (Kotter &Haskett, 1992).

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon, an internal state of a person that impels him towards action, and as such is an individual characteristic (Ryan, 2014, p. 356).Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors play a crucial role in motivating employees, which in turn, can act to promote employee engagement (Balducci et al., 2010; Evangeline & Ragavan, 2016; Latta & Faith, 2016). But there is a consensus among researchers that intrinsic motivations are the most influential in building employee engagement. Motivation and employee engagement are strongly connected, and are an inseparable part of the organization's life, as reflected in the motivation needs theories in general and in the theories which offer a better understanding of the employee engagement approach in particular (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Emerson, 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). Emotions have an important role in creating motivation and employee engagement, as emotions generated at work are perceived as raw materials, that accumulate over time to build the affective component of job attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Engaging people largely requires changing their perceptions of their current reality and here, motivation can be the trigger for the process of replacing the present situation with a vision of new realities (Hunter, 2012). Motivation and employee engagement are strongly connected.

Trust is often regarded as the "hallmark of effective relationships" (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, p. 3) or the "social glue" of affiliations within a corporation, which links people, processes, and the environment, and can therefore improve employee engagement (Abrams et al., 2003; Covey & Merrill, 2006). Trust has a significant and strong positive correlation with workplace employee engagement (Chughtai & Buckley, 2013; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Men, 2015; Mone & London, 2018; Ozmen, 2017; Victor & Hoole, 2017; Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

Trust is credited with creating a psychologically safe and empowering environment where employees dare to take risks, expose their real selves, and try, and perhaps fail (i.e. 'safely fail'), without fearing the consequences of making mistakes (Paul & Fenlason, 2014, p. 13) and where they can learn from the experience and as result increase their effectiveness and workplace employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Ugwu et al., 2014). Leaders who exhibited high levels of positive psychological capacities had a positive trust relationship with their subordinates. It is also important that through the behavioral expression of moral characteristics, leaders can show their consideration for others, since when there is no moral and empathetic foundation, trust cannot be built.

The literature review indicates that there are several definitions and approaches to analyze each of the four variables according to the various research disciplines and the different approaches of the researchers to each of the four variables. Therefore, we found in the literature review many different tools to measure the four variables. In this dissertation I choose to use 17 measurement tools which fit the goals of the research.

## **Chapter 3: Empirical study**

### **3.1 Research design**

#### **3.1.1 The research model and hypothesis**

Relying on the theoretical background and taking in consideration the gaps identified in the literature review conducted in Chapters 1 and 2 above, the following research hypotheses were formulated:

H1: There is a positive relationship between organizational culture and engagement.

H2: There is a positive relationship between motivation and engagement.

H3: There is a positive relationship between trust and engagement.

H4: There is a positive relationship between organizational culture and motivation.

H5: There is a positive relationship between organizational culture and trust.

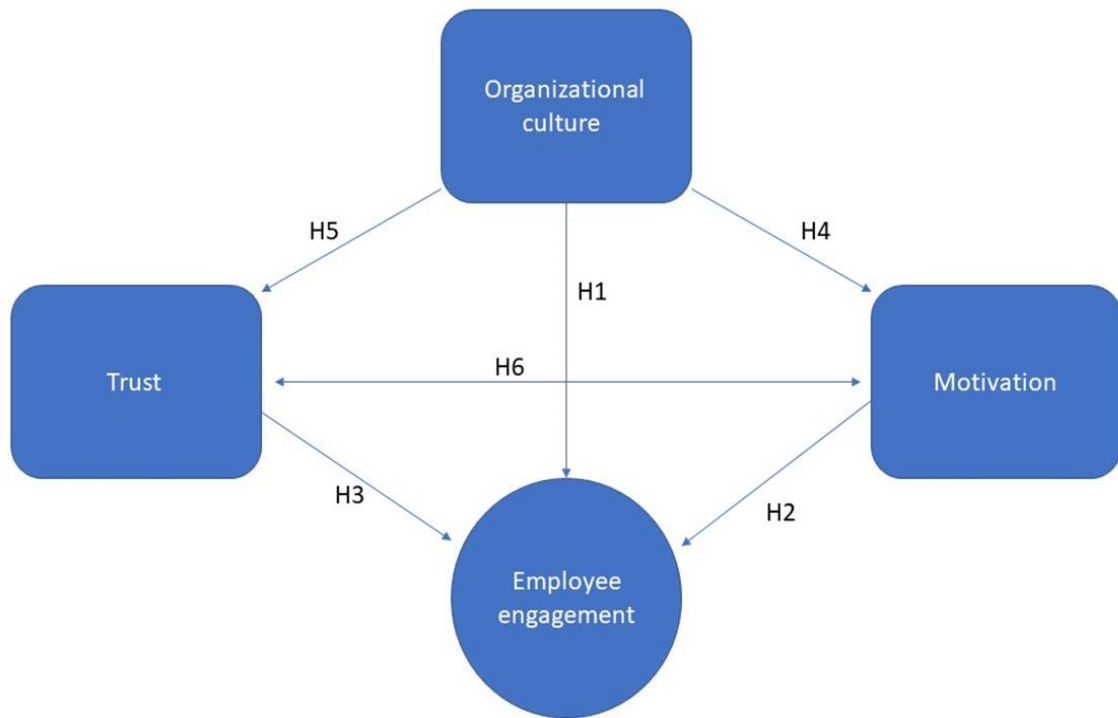
H6: There is a positive relationship between motivation and trust.

H7: There are differences among countries regarding the hypothesis: H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6 (i.e., there is a moderating effect of country culture on the relationships described in H1-H6).

H8: There are differences in the average value among countries with regard to organization culture, motivation, trust and engagement.

H9: There are differences among employees with different professional experience regarding the correlations between the four research variables.

The model assumes that organizational culture is the main important layer of the organization which influences employee engagement through the motivation and trust which play a mediator role to achieve it. The model claims that the three independent variables; organizational culture, motivation and trust are predictors of the dependent variable, engagement. On the top of it the model raises the possibility that it is a prediction mediator model in which the variables motivation and trust are mediated by the organizational culture in predicting the variable employee engagement, but this model was not significantly proved to be stronger than the direct prediction model . Therefore, it can be concluded that the mediation model does not constitute the appropriate model for predicting the variable and that the direct prediction model is more appropriate for this study (Figure 11).



**Figure 11: The direct prediction model of employee engagement**

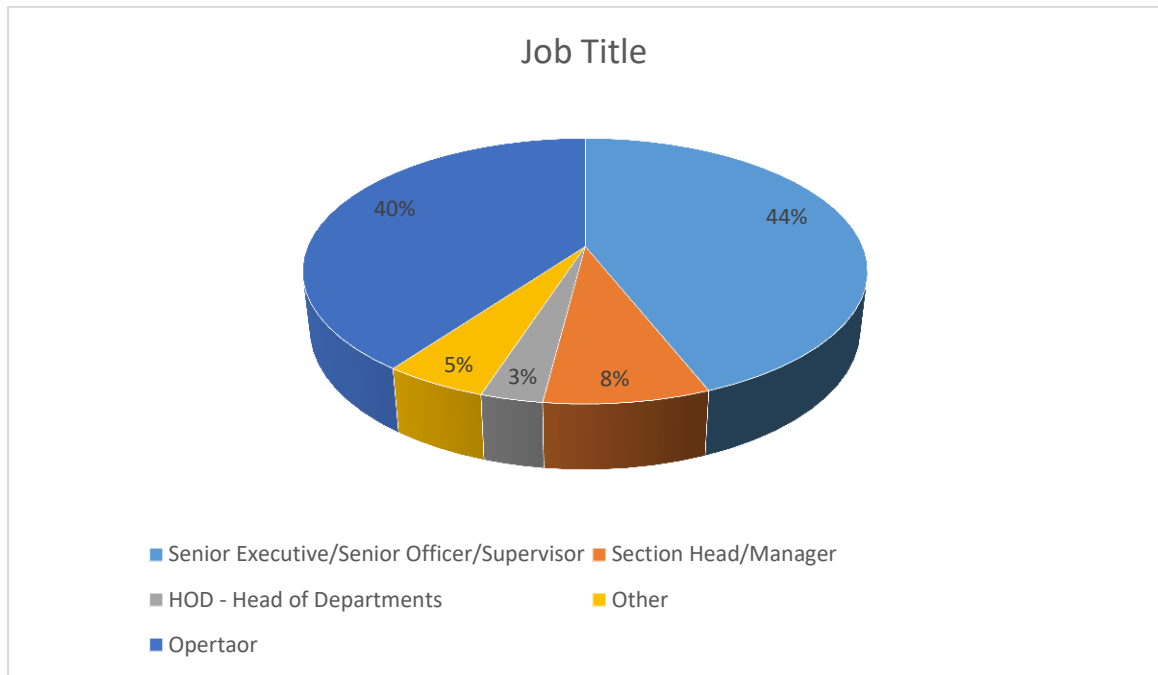
Source: own research.

### 3.1.2 Research sample

The research sample consisted of 6,738 employees, who responded to the questionnaire in the factories which were part of the project that was executed in an Asian manufacturing corporation located in nineteen manufacturing factories. The questionnaire was sent to all 13,000 employees in these factories and around 50% answered the questionnaire. The corporation in which the survey was conducted is a multinational corporation based with factories in India, USA, Europe, and Israel. The company started out as a local Indian company working mainly for the local Indian market. In stages the company's owners decided to develop and adopt a policy of acquisitions and mergers of factories from within the industry which is its area of expertise. They focused on acquisitions of manufacturing factories in different countries and continents.

The distribution of jobs in this corporation characterizes the reality that exists in most traditional manufacturing industries. In these factories the highest percentage of workers is on the production floor and is divided between the operators who work on the production lines and the production department managers and shift managers. These employees

constitute in the corporation in which the survey was carried out about 84 percent of the total company employees. Therefore, they were the main target audience of the survey. The rest of the staff are in various corporate headquarters positions such as corporate departments, quality, safety and environment, research and development, marketing, procurement, supply chain and logistics, human resources, and finance(Figure 12).



**Figure 12: Distribution of respondents to the questionnaire divided by job title**

Source: own research.

### 3.1.3 Data collection

The research consisted of three stages:

In the first phase of the study which was conducted in July 2015 through January 2016. The author of this dissertation interviewed 120 senior managers and middle managers and conducted fifteen focus groups each of them including twelve employees. The in-depth interviews and focus groups were conducted with managers and employees, to understand the correlations between the four variables of the study. Considering the results of the qualitative research, the quantitative research questionnaire was prepared as the basis for conducting this research. The quantitative method was chosen as it is considered an important basis for analysing database change which is one of the most powerful strategies



for organizational development (Huse & Cummings, 1985). The advantages of quantitative methods include the ease of cross-sectional assessments and comparisons (across individuals, organizations, or sub-units), the replicability of the assessment in different units or locations and by other researchers or organizational development professionals, and a common articulated frame of reference for interpreting the data. Although both methods, the quantitative and qualitative, have the potential for producing cumulative bodies of information for assessment and theory testing, quantitative approaches may be more practical for purposes of analysing data-based change in organizations (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988, p. 246). Thus, the quantitative approach fitted the main goal of our work to improve and change organizational culture and was a better approach on which to base the survey.

The questionnaire of this research which includes 39 questions (36 questions referring to the four variables: organizational culture, motivation, trust, and engagement, and another three questions referring to the personal details of the survey's respondents), was based on different measurement tools. These tools can be considered appropriate measurement tools as they can assess behaviours and norms which are reflected in the survey research questionnaire (see Appendix 2). The questionnaires were answered by 6,738 employees, who represent around 50% of the total number of employees of an Asian manufacturing industry corporation located in nineteen manufacturing sites in India, US, Canada, Romania, Hungary and Israel. The employees represent various ranks and perform different jobs. The internal reliability was checked using Cronbach's alpha as a measurement tool and was found to have a high level of reliability. The calculation of each index was a mean of all the items related to the index.

In the second phase we validated the clarity of the questionnaire through two focus groups of employees and middle managers. Based on their remarks we prepared the final questionnaire.

In the third phase which took place between November-December 2016 I sent the questionnaire to all participants in English and translated into four local languages: Two Indian local languages, Romanian and Hungarian. It was an anonymous questionnaire and was answered in two forms; A web-based questionnaire was sent to all employees having access to the Internet and a Pencil-Paper questionnaire was handed out to all employees who did not have access to the Internet which was answered through an online form and a

pen-and-paper questionnaire. All questionnaires translated into local languages were double-checked by local senior managers.

All the measurable tools which were chosen to assess the four variables in this study are appropriate instruments because they can assess behaviors and norms which are reflected in the 39 questions of the survey research questionnaire (see Appendix 2). The questions included in the survey are inspired by questions from several different measurement tools, each of which is dedicated to measure one specific variable or more (see Appendix 3). Since the variables are interconnected, we used two additional measurement tools to assess more than one specific variable: The Dimensions of a Learning Organization questionnaire (DLOQ) (Marsick & Watkins, 2003), (See Appendix 4), as it reveals a lot about the organization, specifically its culture, levels of motivation and levels of trust (Pace, 2002). A second cross-measurement tool is the Communication Openness Tool (COM) (Rogers, 1987) (See Appendix 5) as its thirteen questions can be used as a basis to assess all the four variables of this research considering the crucial impact of communication on motivation, trust and engagement. The common form of the COM is a distillation of thirteen core questions from an original 120 item questionnaire. These thirteen questions ask the respondent as to the degree of perceived communication between themselves, peers, superiors, and subordinates in their organization.

To measure the four variables of this study we set up a questionnaire which consists 39 questions (Appendix 2). Each variable was measured by a set of questions and different measurement tools: For measuring the different types and different levels of workplace and work engagement, a set of ten questions was created (Appendix 3) based on five measurement tools (Appendices; 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11). In order to provide a means of input to quantify the motivation variable in the questionnaire, a set of twelve questions was created to measure the different types and different topics of motivation (Appendix 3). These questions were based on three different measurement tools (Appendices 12, 13, 14). In order to provide a means of input to quantify the organizational culture variable in the questionnaire, a set of five questions (Appendix 3) was created to measure the different types and different topics of organizational culture based on three measurement tools (Appendices 8, 15, 16,). For measuring the different types and different levels of trust a set of nine questions was created (Appendix 3) based on six measurement tools (4, 5, 17, 18, 19,

20). In total there are 36 questions to measure the independent and dependent variables. Another three questions referred to the workers' unit, region and position.

The questionnaire was built on a Likert scale from 1-5, which included statements referring to the four variables: organizational culture, motivation, trust, and engagement. The internal reliability was checked using Cronbach's alpha as a measurement tool and was found to have a high level of reliability. The calculation of each index was a mean of all the items related to the index (Table 9).

**Table 9: Cronbach alpha measurement**

Variables	Role	Alpha	Questions
Motivation	Independent	0.87	1 2 8 9 18 19 20 22 23 29 30 31
Trust	independent	0.71	3 7 10 12 14 15 16 21 32
Organizational culture	Independent	0.75	5 6 11 17 33
Employee engagement	dependent	0.91	4 13 24 25 26 27 28 34 35 36

Source: Own research.

### 3.1.4 Analytical procedures

#### 3.1.4.1 Pearson correlation coefficient

Pearson is a metric designed to find a statistical relationship between two interval variables and is one of the most useful metrics in inferential statistics. For example, when an examination of the relationship between a household's income and its expenditure on consumption is required, both variables are by quantitative variables (monetary amount) and therefore their relationship can be described by the Pearson correlation test. The Pearson test result indicates both the intensity of the relationship that is between 0 and 1 when the higher the number, the stronger the intensity of the relationship, and the direction of the relationship which can be positive (there is an identity between the variance of the two variables) or negative (there is a contrast between the variance of both variables). In addition, to allow the results of the analysis to be included on the entire study population,

significant value is also obtained. It is common to divide the power of the adapter into three: up to 0.2 it is a low adapter, between 0.2 and 0.4 it is a medium fit and above 0.4 it is a strong fit. Of course, these values are also true for negative values, see (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1998; Frankfort -Nachmias & Leon Guerroero, 2014; Walliman, 2011).

#### **3.1.4.2 One-way variance analysis (Anova)**

One-way variance analysis selected for this dissertation is a statistical analysis that examines whether there are significant differences between multiple groups (more than two groups) and, in particular, whether differences found between groups in the sample reflect "real" differences between the appropriate groups in the population. The division of the groups is required to be based on some categorical variable and/ or discrete serial or quantitative variable with few values. The analysis itself is done on a quantitative variable basis only. For example, we can ask whether there is a difference in income between employees living in the south, the center, and the north. To calculate this analysis, one must first examine the "normality" of each of the groups in the dependent variable since for the purpose of the test we assume of normality. The test takes the average of the standard deviation of each of the groups in the dependent variable. The result of the analysis is based on the f test (variance test) where the obtained statistical value is the ratio of two types of variance: variance between groups (S.S.B) and variance within groups (S.S.W). The higher the result of the relationship between the two, the more heterogeneous the groups themselves, and therefore it impossible to indicate a difference between the groups. Conversely, if the value of the ratio is low it is likely that the difference is due to the difference between the groups and not within the groups. This analysis adds significant value to allow the inclusion of the results on the study population. After finding differences, the analysis should be deepened and examined through analysis, which indicates the differences between the specific groups and not just in general. (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1998; Frankfort -Nachmias & Leon Guerroero, 2014; Walliman, 2011).

#### **3.1.4.3 Multivariate linear regression analysis**

Multiple regression and correlation are a technique for estimating the simultaneous effect of several independent variables on the phenomenon being investigated. In multiple

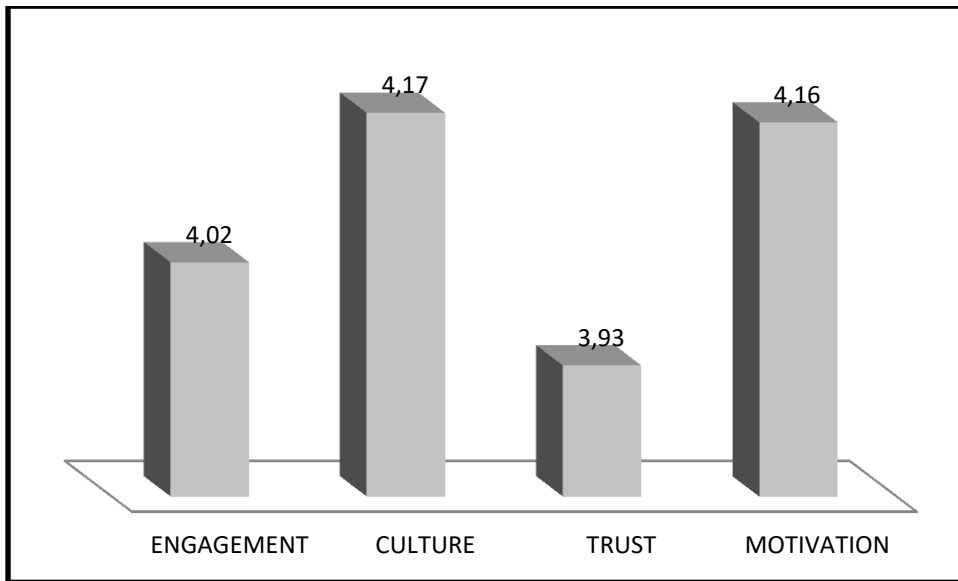
regression, the degree of change in variables dependent by an independent variable is estimated.

Multivariate linear regression analysis is an analysis designed to examine the possibility that a few variables predict a dependent variable. The analysis gives some important data. The first of these is the R<sup>2</sup> which explains how a set of variables explains a dependent variable as well and thus to make fewer errors when we predict the dependent variable based on the results of the independent variable. The R<sup>2</sup> percentage of variance squared means the percentage of variance of the dependent variable that we manage to predict using the independent variables. This figure is accompanied by a given significance, the percentage of chance of making a wrong prediction. The following data set is the predictor variables data. In this data series we find the  $b$  - the coefficient of prediction of the regression formula, the  $\beta$ , i.e. the level of predicting the specific variable and the predictive direction and of course the significance of each of the variables. To this data must be added the constant data, which is the basis of the formula for the regression prediction line. To a linear regression a quantitative variable as a dependent variable can be entered and thus the predictor variables should be either a quantitative or a dummy variable, which is a categorical variable built in a dichotomous variable of values 0 or 1. (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1998, Swansone & Holton, 2005, Newman, 2014).

### **3.2 Presentation of results**

To present the findings the general values of the four main variables in this research project are presented using the means of all the subjects. The data were collected by using the Likert scale, and this presentation provides a general view of all the variables. In general, the scores for all the variables that were measured are quite high; however, the analysis indicates that the level of trust in the organization is relatively low. Even though the values of employee engagement are quite high, there is room for discussing an improvement (see figure 13).

The Tables 13 to 22 present the results of the research carried out in connection with this dissertation.



**Figure 13: the average values for all the variables**

Source: The survey results.

To examine hypotheses Nos. 1 – 6 a Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis was performed. This analysis is associated with performing correlation tests for interval variables, with the assumption expressing a linear correlation.

**Table 10. Pearson's Correlations between the research variables**

	MOTIVATION	TRUST	CULTURE
TRUST	.748**		
CULTURE	.833**	.741**	
ENGAGEMENT	.841**	.718**	.834**

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

The analysis indicates that the correlations between the organizational variables and employee engagement are very high, positive, and significant, and that the chances of making mistakes are very low  $< .05$ . Considering that, it can be stated that **Hypotheses Nos.**

**H1 – H3 were fully supported.** Nevertheless, relatively speaking, the correlation of trust with employee engagement is slightly lower than the correlations of culture and motivation with engagement.

With respect to hypothesis H4 – H6, we can discern strong and positive correlations between the independent variables in the variables model. In this context as well, the correlation between organizational culture and motivation is slightly higher than the correlations of motivation with trust, and organizational culture and trust. Therefore, the findings of the table indicate that in general, strong and significant correlations exist between all four variables; although the trust variable is slightly more of an outsider than the correlations of the rest of the variables, and the correlations of trust with the rest of the variables are weaker. This fact requires an explanation, which will be forthcoming in the discussion chapter. Considering that, it can be stated that **Hypotheses Nos. H4 – H6 were fully supported.**

**Table 11. Pearson's Correlations between the research variables of geographical area in the control model**

In Table No. 11 we used the Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis to check the correlation between the four variables of geographical area in the control model, of the variables.

Region		MOTIVATION	TRUST	CULTURE
<b>India</b>	TRUST	.742**		
	CULTURE	.833**	.733**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.842**	.721**	.849**
<b>USA</b>	TRUST	.768**		
	CULTURE	.835**	.759**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.838**	.742**	.831**
<b>Europe</b>	TRUST	.734**		
	CULTURE	.804**	.728**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.816**	.711**	.769**
<b>North</b>	TRUST	.751**		

<b>America</b>				
	CULTURE	.818**	.715**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.851**	.715**	.831**
<b>Israel</b>	TRUST	.718**		
	CULTURE	.814**	.713**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.840**	.691**	.865**

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

In general, all the variables have a strong correlation among them in all the areas, and there is no great difference among the areas. The division of the correlation analysis by area does not change the findings significantly, and the differences among the areas are small. However, there is a certain difference between the correlations of the variables in Israel, compared with the correlations in the rest of the areas. Usually, the correlations between the variables in Israel are weaker than those in the rest of the areas. Considering that, it can be stated that hypothesis No. 7 is not supported.

**Table 12. Analysis of variance between regions**

	India		USA		Europe		Canada		Israel		
	(n=5109)		(n=350)		(n=457)		(n=239)		(n=341)		
	M	S.D	M	S.D	M	S.D	M	S.D	M	S.D	f
MOTIVATION	4.17	0.53	3.97	0.65	3.95	0.62	4.23	0.54	4.39	0.45	43.95 ***
TRUST	3.97	0.51	3.83	0.62	3.67	0.48	3.86	0.52	3.85	0.46	42.27 ***
CULTURE	4.17	0.55	4.12	0.59	4.02	0.57	4.27	0.57	4.30	0.53	16.24 ***
ENGAGEMENT	4.02	0.63	3.90	0.72	3.90	0.66	4.16	0.65	4.29	0.54	25.26 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

In all four variables there are significant differences between the regions. Considering this, Hypothesis No. 8 can be regarded as supported. The differences arise from the fact that there are two regions where the values are relatively high and two regions where the values are lower. The regions with low values are Europe (Eastern Europe) and the United States,



while the high-value regions are Canada and Israel. India is an intermediate country that is often closer to the low and sometimes higher regions.

In our research assumptions which were analyzed here we found that assumptions 1-6, which analyzed the correlation between the research variables, were confirmed. Assumption No. 7 which analyzed the differences between the countries was not confirmed, even though there are some differences between the findings in Israel and the other countries. Assumption No. 8 was confirmed.

In the next stage of presenting the findings the general model of the research will be analyzed. The model claims that the three independent variables; trust, motivation and organizational culture are predictors of the dependent variable, engagement. On the top of it the model raises the possibility that it is a mediator model in which the variables motivation and trust are mediated by the organizational culture in predicting the variable engagement.

**Table 13 Multiple regression without mediators to predict engagement**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	0.51	0.01	0.44	38.29 ***	
TRUST	0.11	0.01	0.09	9.91 ***	
CULTURE	0.46	0.01	0.40	35.25 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.77
F					7280.27 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

As can be seen in the table the percentage of explained variance R<sup>2</sup> is very high. In other words, by using it, it is possible to explain the 77% variance of the dependent variable by the independent variables. Furthermore, this result is very significant at a high level, so that it can be said that this result is at a very good level of confidence. Among the predictor variables motivation (0.44) and culture (0.40) are very strong predictors. In contrast the prediction of trust is significantly weaker (0.9), although it is significant. In light of that we

can conclude that the three organizational variables do indeed predict, as assumed, the dependent variable at a high and significant level.

**Table 14. Multiple regression with mediators to predict employee engagement**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
CULTURE	0.96	0.01	0.83	22.60 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.69
F					14993.20** *
CULTURE	.46	0.01	.40	35.25 ***	
MOTIVATION	.51	0.01	.44	9.91 ***	
TRUST	.11	0.01	.09	38.29 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.77
F					7280.27 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

Following Table No. 13, Table No. 14 presents prediction as a mediation, so that organizational culture constitutes the main prediction variable, and the motivation and trust variables constitute mediation variables. At the first stage of the analysis we posited organizational culture as the single mediation variable, and this possibility resulted in the percentage of the explained variance being 0.69 at a very good level of significance. At the second stage we also included in the model the mediation variables of trust and motivation. This improved the explained variance by 8%, from 69% to 77%, and brought the percentage of explained variance to a high level of significance. These two steps show that there is a mediation model for predicting the employee engagement variable, but this model is not significantly stronger than the non-mediation model of prediction that was presented in Table No. 13. Therefore, it can be concluded that the mediation model does not constitute the appropriate model for predicting the variable.

**Table 15. Multiple regression with mediators to predict employee engagement- Baron's steps method**

Step & Predictable	ENGAGEMENT					
		B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
1: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	0.96	0.01	0.83	22.60 ***	
	$R^2$					.69
	$F$					14993.20 ***
2: MOTIVATION	CULTURE	0.83	0.01	0.83	122.10 ***	
	$R^2$					.69
	$F$					14990.60 ***
2: TRUST	CULTURE	0.70	0.01	0.74	89.66 ***	
	$R^2$					.55
	$F$					8029.71 ***
3: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	0.27	0.01	0.22	22.60 ***	
	TRUST	0.77	0.01	0.67	68.53 ***	
	$R^2$					.72
	$F$					8332.52 ***

4: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.46	0.01	.40	35.25 ***	
	MOTIVATION	.51	0.01	.44	9.91 ***	
	TRUST	.11	0.01	.09	38.29 ***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.77
	F					7280.27 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table No. 15 also examines the mediation model, as was done in Table No. 14. However, this table is based on Baron's steps method (Baron & Kenny,1986), which examines the mediation method in four steps, and it also shows that mediation does not exist.

a. Step No. 1 examines the prediction of the main dependent variable, engagement, using the main independent variable of organizational culture. According to the findings the percentage of explained variance of the prediction is 0.69; i.e., a very high level of prediction.

b. Step No. 2 examines the prediction of the main dependent variable, engagement, using the independent variables of motivation and trust. According to the findings, the percentage of explained variance of the prediction is 0.69 for motivation, and 0.55 for trust. This is a very high level of prediction using the motivation variable, and a relatively high level using the trust variable.

c. Step No. 3 examines the prediction of the main dependent variable, engagement, using the independent variables of culture and trust. According to the findings, the percentage of explained variance of the prediction is very high – 0.72.

d. Step No. 4 examines the prediction of the main dependent variable, engagement, using the independent variables of culture, motivation, and trust. According to the findings, the percentage of explained variance of the prediction is very high – 0.77.

In light of the findings presented in Table 15 it can be concluded that it is reasonable for a mediation model to be used as proposed in this research project; although the mediation

prediction is not distinctly strong enough, beyond the basic direct prediction. Therefore, as was also concluded from Table 14 it can be said that the mediation assumption was not fully proved.

To date the main assumption was tested on all the subjects, without any internal division among them based on grouping variables. However, since the subjects are from various geographical areas, from various cultures and with various positions, it would be appropriate to examine the influence of these moderating variables on the model.

**Table 16.1. Multiple regression without mediators to predict engagement: India**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	.500	.015	.423	32.31 ***	
TRUST	.156	.013	.127	11.70 ***	
CULTURE	.438	.015	.382	29.24 ***	
$R^2$					.76
$F$					5519.38 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 16.2. Multiple regression without mediators to predict engagement: USA**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	.347	.059	.311	5.90 ***	
TRUST	.128	.054	.110	2.36 *	
CULTURE	.626	.059	.515	10.64 ***	
$R^2$					.79
$F$					440.93 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 16.3. Multiple regression without mediators to predict engagement: Europe**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	.613	.041	.577	14.81 ***	
TRUST	.052	.045	.038	1.14	
CULTURE	.376	.046	.328	8.20 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.81
F					631.96 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 16.4. Multiple Regressions without mediators to predict engagement: North America**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	.448	.079	.376	5.67 ***	
TRUST	-.008	.057	-.006	-.13	
CULTURE	.626	.070	.553	8.92 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.81
F					326.71 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 16.5. Multiple Regressions without mediators to predict engagement: Israel**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	.470	.065	.388	7.23 ***	
TRUST	.074	.047	.063	1.58	

CULTURE	.454	.056	.441	8.10 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.69
F					257.87 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Tables 16.1 – 16.5.** In these tables the prediction model is presented with a division into areas. In an overall general view of all the tables the prediction model is strong and significant among all the areas to a rather similar degree. At the same time, however, similarly to previous findings, here also it seems that prediction among the subjects in Israel is weaker and slightly different than prediction among the rest of the subjects from the rest of the four regions (India, the USA, Europe and Canada). Thus, here also, we have verification that the prediction model is indeed valid in general, but different in Israel from the other areas.

1. In all regions the prediction is very strong (according to  $R^2$ ) and very significant (according to the F analysis). However, in Israel it is slightly lower
2. In all regions, the variable "trust" is a much weaker predictor (and in most regions not significantly) than the other two variables that predict a much stronger and much more significant level
3. In India and Europe, the direct effect ( $\beta$ ) of the Culture variable is lower than the direct effect of the Motivation variable, in the rest of the regions (Israel, Canada and the USA) the effect of the Culture variable is higher than that of the variable Motivation

A second approach to review the model is through the Baron & Kenny (1986) four stages model, as done in Table 15. The next tables will present this analysis which will be divided by states and regions

**Table 17.1. Multiple regression with mediators to predict employee engagement-India**

Step & Predictable	ENGAGEMENT				
		B	SE B	$\beta$	t
1: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.95	.01	.83	106.28***

	R <sup>2</sup>					.69
	F					11297.44***
2: MOTIVATION	CULTURE	.81	.01	.83	107.65***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.72
	F					11590.44***
2: TRUST	CULTURE	.70	.01	.75	80.89***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.56
	F					6542.63***
3: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.74	.01	.64	57.03 ***	
	TRUST	.31	.01	.25	22.23 ***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.72
	F					6441.45***
4: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.44	.01	.38	29.24 ***	
	MOTIVATION	.50	.02	.42	32.31 ***	
	TRUST	.16	.01	.13	11.65 ***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.76
	F					5519.37***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 17.2. Multiple regression with mediators to predict engagement- USA**

Step & Predictable	ENGAGEMENT					
		B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
1: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	1.05	.03	.87	32.29***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.75
	F					1042.91***
2: MOTIVATION	CULTURE	.92	.03	.85	29.59***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.72
	F					875.59***



2: TRUST	CULTURE	.84	.03	.80	24.76***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.64
	F					613.38***
3: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.81	.05	.67	15.69 ***	
	TRUST	.29	.05	.25	5.79 ***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.72
	F					6441.45***
4: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.63	.06	.51	10.64 ***	
	MOTIVATION	.35	.06	.31	5.89 ***	
	TRUST	.13	.05	.11	2.35 *	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.76
	F					5519.37***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 17.3. Multiple regression with mediators to predict engagement- Europe**

Step & Predictable	ENGAGEMENT					
		B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
1: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.96	.03	.84	32.46***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.70
	F					1053.40***
2: MOTIVATION	CULTURE	.90	.03	.83	31.84***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.69
	F					1013.89***
2: TRUST	CULTURE	.63	.03	.75	24.52***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.57
	F					601.69***

3: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.79	.04	.69	18.10 ***	
	TRUST	.26	.05	.19	4.95 **	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.71
	F					566.21***
4: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.38	.05	.33	8.20 ***	
	MOTIVATION	.61	.04	.58	14.81 ***	
	TRUST	.05	.05	.04	1.14	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.81
	F					631.96***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 17.4. Multiple regression with mediators to predict engagement-North America**

Step & Predictable	ENGAGEMENT					
		B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
1: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	1.00	.03	.87	29.01 7***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.88
	F					28.66***
2: MOTIVATION	CULTURE	.84	.03	.88	29.01 ***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.78
	F					842.01***
2: TRUST	CULTURE	.65	.04	.73	16.21 ***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.53
	F					262.85* **
3: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.92	.05	.81	18.37 ***	
	TRUST	.12	.06	.09	2.08 *	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.78

	<i>F</i>					418.77* **
4: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.63	.07	.55	8.92 ***	
	MOTIVATIO N	.45	.08	.38	5.67 **	
	TRUST	-.01	.06	-.01	-.13	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.81
	<i>F</i>					326.70* **

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 17.5. Multiple regression with mediators to predict engagement- Israel**

Step & Predictable	ENGAGEMENT					
		B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
1: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.82	.03	.80	24.52***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.64
	<i>F</i>					<b>601.18***</b>
2: MOTIVATION	CULTURE	.70	.03	.82	26.26***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.67
	<i>F</i>					690.00***
2: TRUST	CULTURE	.56	.04	.64	15.30***	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.41
	<i>F</i>					234.20***
3: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.74	.04	.72	17.10 ***	
	TRUST	.15	.05	.13	3.12 **	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.65
	<i>F</i>					313.22***
4: ENGAGEMENT	CULTURE	.45	.06	.44	8.09 ***	
	MOTIVATION	.47	.07	.39	7.23 ***	

	TRUST	.07	.05	.06	1.57	
	R <sup>2</sup>					.70
	F					257.86***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

Tables 17.1- 17.5 present a regression analysis that examines a mediation model according to Baron's four-step method, divided into areas. These tables are similar in structure to Table 14, although this Table presents the analysis on all the subjects, whereas these tables present the analysis by division of the subjects into the various areas. The findings resulting from these tables continue the findings that were found in previous analyses. On the one hand, there is a certain verification of the mediation model, but it is weaker and not significantly more outstanding than the direct model. This finding is true, as seen previously, both on all the subjects as well as in each of the four areas. The second finding that arises from these tables indicates that the mediation analysis in Israel is different to a certain degree from the mediation analysis in the rest of the areas, so that it can be concluded that prediction in Israel is weaker.

**Table 18. Pearson's Correlations between the research variables in a division by Job Title**

Job Title		MOTIVATION	TRUST	CULTURE
<b>H.O.D (Head of department)</b>	TRUST	.593**		
	CULTURE	.796**	.580**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.787**	.483**	.761**
<b>Section Manager</b>	TRUST	.725**		
	CULTURE	.849**	.733**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.856**	.694**	.879**
<b>Senior Executive</b>	TRUST	.768**		
	CULTURE	.846**	.768**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.845**	.747**	.848**
<b>Operator</b>	TRUST	.767**		
	CULTURE	.822**	.747**	
	ENGAGEMENT	.837**	.738**	.826**

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 18 analyzes the correlations between the variables in a division by Job Title. This analysis shows that the correlations between the variables among the H.O.D are different than among the rest of the position holders. It is especially clear that the correlation between motivation and trust is low. From that it can be concluded that the organizational position constitutes an important variable in understanding the correlations among the variables.

**Table 19: Analysis of variance between Job Title**

	H.O. D		Section Manager		Senior Executive		Operator		f
	M	S. D	M	S. D	M	S. D	M	S. D	
	(n=203)		(n=536)		(n=2813)		(n=2557)		
MOTIVATION	4.29	0.46	4.18	0.55	4.15	0.54	4.14	0.57	4.94 ***
TRUST	3.86	0.43	3.85	0.50	3.96	0.52	3.93	0.53	7.60 ***
CULTURE	4.30	0.44	4.16	0.57	4.14	0.55	4.18	0.57	5.87 ***
ENGAGEMENT	4.22	0.50	4.07	0.62	4.02	0.61	3.99	0.67	9.54 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

Based on the analysis of variants it appears that there are methodical differences which repeat themselves among the different types of employees in each of the research variables. The general finding is that senior managers -H.O. D highly valued the four variables while operators at the shop floor have a low evaluation to these variables. This difference appears to be significant in the Post Hoc analysis of Sceffe (1999) type. All other employees, Section Manager, Senior Executive are usually at the center with a tendency towards the operators

**Table 20.1. Multiple Regressions without mediators to predict engagement: H.O.D**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	0.55	0.08	.388	7.28 ***	
TRUST	-0.04	0.06	.063	-0.73	
CULTURE	0.43	0.08	.441	5.49 ***	

$R^2$					.82
$F$					134.32 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 20.2. Multiple Regressions without mediators to predict engagement: Section Manager**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	0.432	0.041	0.385	10.49 ***	
TRUST	0.026	0.036	0.021	0.742	
CULTURE	0.587	0.041	0.536	14.43 ***	
$R^2$					.82
$F$					784.96 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

**Table 20.3. Multiple Regressions without mediators to predict engagement: Senior Executive**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	0.454	0.020	0.398	22.58 ***	
TRUST	0.139	0.017	0.119	8.10 ***	
CULTURE	0.468	0.020	0.420	23.81 ***	
$R^2$					.78
$F$					3351.17 ***

**Table 20.4. Multiple Regressions without mediators to predict engagement: Operator**

Predictors	ENGAGEMENT				
	B	SE B	$\beta$	t	
MOTIVATION	0.508	0.022	0.430	23.42 ***	
TRUST	0.158	0.020	0.124	7.88 ***	
CULTURE	0.452	0.021	0.379	21.38 ***	
R <sup>2</sup>					.77
F					2775.98 ***

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*\*\*  $p < .001$

According to the regression analysis as shown in Tables 20.1-20.4 it appears that there is a significant difference in the prediction level of the dependent variable between the manager level and the operator level. It is important to mention that in all the four groups of employees the prediction is positive, strong, and significant. Therefore, we can conclude with a high level of certainty that the three independent predictive variables are significant variables to predict the dependent variable. However, as mentioned, the prediction among the manager level which include the H.O.D and the Section Managers are stronger than among the junior employees which include Senior Executive s and Operators. We can also conclude from the regression analysis that the trust variable is a weak predictive variable among all respondents. On the other hand, the strength of the prediction of the two-independent variable is significantly strong while the motivation variable is slightly weaker

Summary of the results: The following hypotheses are supported: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9. Hypothesis 7 is not supported.

## Chapter 4: Discussion and implications

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the results of a quantitative study which was conducted in an Asian manufacturing industry corporation located in six countries: India, USA, Canada, Hungary, Romania and Israel. This discussion will be conducted in the context of the research questions, the hypotheses, the literature review and the work experience of the author of this dissertation (The author has had experienced 20 years in developing organizational cultures mainly quality culture in multinational and local corporations).

This chapter is divided into six sections: 1. An executive summary of the results 2. A discussion of the results in accordance with the research hypotheses, questions, and existing literature on the subject 3. The study's contribution to the theory 4. The practical implications 5. The scope and limitations of the research 6. The future directions for further research

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of organizational culture, motivation, and trust as determinants of employee engagement in a multinational manufacturing enterprise. The main research question of this dissertation as formulated at the outset was how the three independent variables (organizational culture, motivation and trust) influence employee engagement and what are the correlations between the three variables and employee engagement in a multinational manufacturing industry corporation. In light of this question the following four topics will be discussed with reference to the hypotheses:

1. The meaning and the consequences of the strong correlations between the independent variables, motivation, and trust and between each of them and the dependent variable employee engagement.
2. The direct relationship model between the independent variables and the dependent variable and its significance.
3. The correlation between national culture, organizational culture, and corporate culture, in light of the differences between the countries regarding the relationships between the variables.
4. The role of leaders in building employee engagement.



#### **4.1 Summary of the key research results**

The summary will refer to the five main topics: 1. The correlations between the four variables, 2. Trust as an outsider variable. 3. The differences between the regions 4. The prediction model of employee engagement. 5. The analysis of the correlations between the variables in a division by job title.

##### **4.1.1 The correlations between the variables**

There are strong positive and significant correlations between all four variables in all areas and the chance of making mistakes are low (0.5) (see Table 10). However, there are some differences between the correlations; the correlation between organizational culture and motivation is slightly higher than the correlations of motivation with trust, and organizational culture and trust (Table 10). The correlation of trust with engagement is slightly lower than the correlation of OC and motivation with engagement (Table 10) and trust as a predictor of engagement is significantly weaker (0.9) although it is significant in all regions Table 13). The variable "Trust" is a much weaker predictor (and in most regions is not significantly so) than the other two variables that predict a much stronger and much more significant level (Table 16).

There is a certain difference between the correlations of the variables in Israel, compared with the correlations in the rest of the areas. Usually the correlations between the variables in Israel are weaker than those in the rest of the areas (Table 11). The prediction among the subjects in Israel is weaker and slightly different than prediction among the rest of the subjects from the rest of the four regions (India, USA, Europe, and Canada) (Table 17). The correlation between the four variables is strong in regional analysis. We did not find significant differences in the organizational culture and motivation with engagement relationships between the variables between regions (Table 11). Although differences were found between the regions at the level of research variables. The differences arise from the fact that there are two regions where the values are relatively high and two regions where the values are lower. The regions with low values are Europe (Hungary and Romania) and the United States, while the high-value regions are Canada and Israel. India is an

intermediate country that is often closer to the low and sometimes higher regions (Table 12).

#### **4.1.2 The prediction model of engagement by the independent variables**

The direct prediction model reveals that the combined three organizational variables do explain and predict 77% of employee engagement. Among the predictor variables, motivation (0.44) and culture (0.40) are very strong predictors. In contrast the prediction of trust is significantly weaker (0.9), although it is significant. (Table 13). The mediation prediction model reveals that the organizational culture predicts and explains 69% of employee engagement while motivation and trust explain and predict only 8% of employee engagement (Table 14). The research reveals that when testing the predictive power of the variable employee engagement by a mediation model it was found that although there is a tendency to a mediation model, this tendency is not strong enough and therefore we can conclude that it is a direct prediction model and not a mediation prediction model (14+15, 17.1-18.5). The prediction direct model of employee engagement by the three independent variables is strong (according to R<sup>2</sup>) and significant (according to F analysis) among all the areas and jobs to a rather similar degree. In India and Europe the direct effect ( $\beta$ ) of the Culture variable is lower than the direct effect of the Motivation variable, in the rest of the regions (Israel, North America and the USA) the effect of the Culture variable is higher than that of the variable Motivation. However it seems that prediction among the subjects in Israel is weaker and slightly different than prediction among the rest of the subjects from the rest of the four regions (India, the USA, Europe and North America, see Tables 16.1-16.5, 20.1-20.4)

#### **4.1.3 The analysis of the correlations between the variables in a division by job title**

The analysis of the correlations between the variables in a division by job title reveal that the correlations are strong in all types of positions (Tables 20.1-20.4), but there are methodical differences which repeat themselves among the different types of employees in each of the research variables:

1. Senior managers - H.O.D. highly valued the four variables while operators on the shop floor have a low evaluation to these variables. All other employees, Section Manager, Senior Executive are usually at the center with a tendency towards the operators (Table 19).

2. The prediction among the managers' level which include the H.O.D and the Section Managers are stronger than among junior employees which include Senior Executive s and Operators (Tables 20.1-20.4).

3. The correlations between the variables among the H.O.D. are different than among the rest of the position holders. It is especially clear that the correlation between motivation and trust is low (Table 18).

4. Trust variables is a weak predictive variable among all respondents. On the other hand, the strength of the prediction by the two-independent variable organizational culture and motivation is significantly strong while the motivation variable is slightly weaker (Tables 20.1-20.4). Considering these findings, it can be concluded that the organizational position constitutes an important variable in understanding the correlations among the variables.

## **4.2 Discussion of findings against extant literature**

### **4.2.1 The Influence of organizational culture motivation and trust on employee engagement (H1-H6)**

The literature review revealed that organizational culture is an important key success factor to achieving employee engagement. The actual research validates this finding and reveals that organizational culture can predict and explain 69% of employee engagement (Table 14). However, we found in the research that motivation is a significant variable and its relationship to employee engagement is no less strong than the relationship between organization culture and employee engagement. In the Person analysis, the correlation between organizational culture, motivation and employee engagement is higher than the correlation between trust and employee engagement (Table 10). Even when examining the predictive factor as a mediator, we found that organizational culture alongside motivation are the most important predictors of employee engagement (Tables 14 and 15). However, the significant correlations between the independent variables can explain 77% of the drivers to create employee engagement while the other 23% can be explained by other drivers like wages, work environment, technological factors, and personal characteristics.

#### **4.2.1.1 The positive relationships between organizational culture and values and employee engagement**

The strong relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement has been explored by many researchers who have found that organizational culture, as a factor that greatly influences motivation and employee perceptions and beliefs, has a significant impact on creating employee engagement. These perceptions influence the perception of reality and employee behavior and hence the ability of culture to influence employee engagement (Wood & Schine, 2010; Kotrab et al., 2012; Sarangi & Srivastana, 2013; Reissner & Pagan, 2013). Our study supports this conclusion and states that organizational culture and motivation are strong predictors of employee engagement in comparison to trust (Table 13). These findings are in line with the researchers consensus in the literature review about the crucial role of organizational culture and motivation on creating employee's engagement. Even though, as it is revealed in the current research, there are differences between countries regarding the extent of the influence of organizational culture on employee's engagement. The main studies explain the reasons of the perceived crucial role of organizational culture on creating an employee's engagement:

1. Organizational culture has a great influence on how an employee believes that he/she should behave in a specific context (Schein, 2010) and is linked to understanding organizational commitment, engagement, job satisfaction, individual identity and efficacy (Sarangi & Srivastana, 2012). The values, ideas, way of thinking, beliefs, and assumptions (which are the main layers of culture) as well as the employees' perceptions of the organization, guide behaviors and facilitate shared meaning. They have been empirically linked to effectiveness and may influence employee willingness to engage (Kotrab et al., 2012; Reissner & Pagan 2013).

2. Values, as normative standards, are powerful motivators as they are identical to needs in their capacity to arouse, direct, and sustain behaviors, and they are considered a step closer to action than needs. They further differ in that needs are inborn whereas values are acquired through cognition and experience (Latham & Pinder, 2005). It is one of the four

main factors that shape behaviors. The other three being: formal structure, systems, and policies (Kotter & Hasket, 1992).

3. Organizational culture has a huge influence on performance motivation and employee engagement and seems to be the factor that most directly affects employee engagement and motivation (Groysberg et. al., 2018; Latham & Pinder, 2005; McGregor & Doshi, 2015).

4. Researchers support the idea that organizational culture has acquired a status as structure, strategy, and control and that all of them are partly overlapping constructs with the concept of culture (Denison & Neal, 1999; Hofstede al., 1990).

5. OC contributes to the business in several domains; it is considered as the "operating system of an organization" (Balthazard et al., 2006, p.711; Chatman & Jehn, 1994), has an important factor fostering technology adoption and organizational growth and has a crucial role in determining the success or failure of mergers and acquisitions (Javidan, 2001; Weber et al., 1996).

6. There is a direct relationship between organizational culture and authenticity which was defined as employee engagement (Reis et al., 2016). This relationship can be explained by social cognitive theory, whereby the environment influences an individual behavior (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Organizational culture is a key success factor for enhancing motivation and employee engagement and is considered an important determinant to raise the motivational level among employees and improve performance (Mahal, 2009).

#### **4.2.1.2 The positive relationships between organizational culture and behaviors and employee engagement**

Culture and behaviors are inseparable. Organizational culture can be perceived as a behavioral pattern which is implemented over the long-term life of the organization (Kotter & Haskett 1992). The study of organizational culture is about understanding people's perceptions of the organizations in which they work and how these perceptions influence their work (Jacobs et al., 2011). Smircich (1983, p. 346) stated that "Culture serves as a sense-making device that can guide and shape behavior". People do not behave in and respond to the world 'as it really is', but as they perceive its values, beliefs, and assumptions

(Buchanan & Huczynski, 1985). Therefore the objective of any improvement initiative is to specifically identify activities, behaviors, that an employee can execute in order to achieve the project's goal. In our case, in the multinational corporation, the goal was to improve the level of quality culture in the corporation through enhancing the level of employee's proactive personal responsibility. Thus, the behavioral approach had been chosen to achieve the goal.

The Behavioral Approach (Pounds et al., 2015) draws its strength from the existing organizational culture in the company, which is focused on shared values and behaviors. The behavioral approach sees culture as the behaviors that an organization maintains through feedback and recognition rather than to simply count on culture being created by executives. The behavioral approach focuses on managing the behaviors and not just the operational processes to improve performance. It is focused on human behaviors and its drivers, on the interrelation between human work environment and the technological work environment. Based on this approach employees should know which of their behaviors influence the process the most and how well they are performing those behaviors. At the heart of this approach is the employee engagement of the managers to an organizational culture which values the employees' empowerment and motivation, an appropriate human work environment and mainly giving employees feedback and acknowledgement. Adopting the behavior management approach, along with managing other processes in the company, can create a positive force-multiplier that will enhance performance.

A key success behavioral factor, which we analyzed in the quantitative survey was the relationship between the supervisor and the technicians and operators. We asked employees questions about their relationship with their supervisors, the level of support they receive from supervisors, and the degree of openness that exists between them which allows them to operate without fearing the consequences of making mistakes, or where they can "safely fail", (Paul & Fenlason, 2014, p. 13), learn from the experience and as result increase their effectiveness and work employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Ugwu et al., 2014). The answers helped us understand where to place special emphasis on the important operational and organizational behaviors needed to reinforce the concept of proactive personal responsibility. We have defined for this purpose, in collaboration with the management team, five important dimensions for defining proactive personal responsibility

and five critical behaviors for the implementation of the concept. The five dimensions are: vigilance, respect for procedures, quality and safety assurance, acceptance of ownership and initiative. The critical behaviors are: do not take shortcuts, follow exactly the updated procedures and policies, share information boldly and keep your workspace clean.

#### **4.2.1.3 The positive relationships between motivation and employee engagement**

Employee engagement is a higher degree of motivation and our research reveals that, motivation is the strongest predictor of employee engagement, compared to organizational culture and trust (Table 15). The findings of the present study suggest that there are close and strong relationships between motivation and engagement. These findings are supported by the findings of various studies which indicate that motivation and employee engagement are strongly connected, and are an inseparable part of the organization's life (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Emerson, 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). The present study reveals that the most important motivating factors are intrinsic factors such as: a clear definition of the employee's role, the impact of open communication, fairness, appreciation of the employee, employee involvement in decision making. This finding is consistent with the findings of the literature review which indicate that intrinsic motivation factors are the most important factors influencing motivation (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Miserandino, 1996; Ryan, Sheldon & Kasser, 1996; Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Guntert, 2015).

#### **4.2.1.4 The positive relationships between- trust and employee engagement**

Although the literature review supports the findings that trust is an important factor in creating engagement, we did not find in the literature reference to the relative weight of trust or any of the independent variables in creating engagement. Workplace trust has a significant and strong positive relationship with work employee engagement (Chughtai & Buckley, 2013; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Men, 2015; Mone & London, 2018; Ozmen, 2017; Victor & Hoole, 2017; Wang & Hsieh, 2013) and this relationship has positive job outcomes, including: organizational effectiveness, productivity, interpersonal citizenship behavior proactive behavior (Ugwu et al., 2014, p. 391). In addition, trust has also been linked to better team processes (Jones & George, 1998), to superior levels of performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and has also been correlated with higher profits, greater levels of innovation,

organizational survival, and a variety of crucial worker perceptions and behaviors (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 1999).

Trust is often credited with creating a psychologically safe and empowering environment where employees dare to take risks, expose their real selves, and try - and perhaps fail. But the actual research reveals that even though trust has an important weight in creating engagement, it is still to a lesser extent than the two independent variables, organizational culture, and motivation. This finding is consistent across all the types of analyzes we performed. We also found that the relative weight of trust in creating employee engagement varies by country. Trust in comparison with the other two variables is also a weaker predictor of employee engagement which varies by country. Probably the reason for the low relative weight of trust is because both variables, organizational culture and motivation are inclusive variables, basic and deep variables. In contrast trust is a specific variable that constitutes one aspect of reality. If we test trust individually versus engagement, as most studies do, trust will be a key player in creating engagement. But if trust is linked and analyzed in relation to the two dominant and significant variables, organizational culture and motivation, trust as a variable takes on a different proportion, and therefore in this research trust receives relatively a low weight in creating engagement.

Consequently, we can assume that as strong as organizational culture and motivation is built, we may inevitably build trust and engagement. In contrast if we try to build only trust, we will put a lot more effort on one factor and not necessarily achieve the expected result of trust. In light of the above it can be concluded that organizational culture and motivation are the cornerstones of employee engagement and therefore one must invest in building these while fostering the trusting relationship between employees and managers and between them and their peers.

#### **4.2.2 The direct prediction model of employee engagement – its significance and implications**

The research model formulated in this dissertation was a prediction mediator model, which means that employee engagement is predicted by organizational culture mediated by trust and motivation. However, what is apparent from the actual study is that there is no evidence of the mediator predictive model and that the direct predictive model is nearly



identical in its intensity to the mediator model. When we analyzed the predictability of the variable employee engagement by a mediation model, it would appear more and more that although there is an indication for mediation this indication is not strong enough to conclude that it is a mediator prediction rather than a direct prediction. Considering this it can be concluded that there are direct relationships between the independent variables, Organizational culture, motivation, and trust and the dependent variable employee engagement

The existence of a prediction direct model between the three independent variables has implications for the academic research and management practice. In academic research I found no reference to the existence of a prediction direct or a mediation model between the three independent variables as a one construct and the dependent variable .The academic research did not adequately conduct comparative studies of the relationships between organizational culture and engagement as compared to relationships between motivation and employee engagement or the relationships between trust and employee engagement or between the three independent variables as one construct and employee engagement , as well as analyzing the relative weight of each of these independent variables on employee engagement creation.

Instead there had been a wide range of studies which illustrates the different dimensions that make up the independent variables as predictors of work and workplace employee engagement and highlight the direct relationships between them. These studies do not indicate the existence of one integrative relationship prediction direct or mediation model, between the three independent variables and engagement, as shown in the actual study. Here are some of the studies that analyze the independent variables and their relationship to the dependent variable. Studies on the relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement: Arsenault, 2016; Ashforth, 1989; Bandura, 1991; Brown & Leigh, 1996; Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Ghadi et al., 2013; Kahn, 1990, 1992; Kotrab et al., 2012; Kristof, 1996; Mahal, 2009; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; May et al., 2004; Reis et al., 2016; Reissner & Pagan 2013; Sarangi & Srivastana, 2012; Schein, 2010; Wood & Bandura, 1989. Studies on the relationship between motivation and employee engagement: Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Balducci et al., 2010; Bledow et al., 2011; Emerson, 1976; Evangeline & Ragavan, 2016; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hunter, 2012; Kahn, 1990;

Latta & Faith, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b; Rich et al., 2010; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996. Studies on the relationship between trust and employee engagement: Chughtai & Buckley, 2013; Chung & Jackson, 2011; Costigan et al., 1998 ; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Men, 2015; Mone & London, 2018; Ozmen, 2017; Paul & Fenlason, 2014; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 1999; Ugwu et al., 2014; Victor & Hoole, 2017; Victor & Hoole, 2017; Wang & Hsieh, 2013. New comparative studies may contribute to a better understanding of employee engagement antecedents and drivers and to formulate new surveys that will redefine the important elements for creating and reinforcing employee engagement.

Regarding management practice for employee engagement, the prediction direct model places on the organizational leaders' new challenges as to how to raise the bar of employee engagement and reduce the employee disengagement percentage. These challenges refer to procedures of personal change, change management priorities, and focus on the relevant financial and organizational resources to realize the increase in employee engagement. Based on the author's experience corporations do not always attribute the dominant weight to corporate culture in creating employee engagement and tend to determine, when addressing this issue, values that serve as a good backdrop for internal and vital organizational needs rather than a solid ground for creating or improving the organizational culture. Some of the processes of assimilating organizational culture are based on communication processes which clarify the importance of values to the organization. But these communication processes do not create the employees' gordian knot between values and operational behaviors, and are not linked necessarily to the personal example of organizational leaders and to adopting an empowering organizational culture which is a prerequisite for creating employee engagement, as clarified in this study.

Organizational leaders tend to set a strategic outline for achieving short-term business goals, so they invest most of their financial and organizational resources in strengthening short-term drivers aimed at achieving rapid improvement in the short-term performance level, regardless of a strengthening the employees' intrinsic motivation drivers which are essential for creating employee engagement and are based a long term leadership vision . There can be many reasons for taking this short-term approach by the leaders over the long-term; Leaders tend to stay usually a short period in their position and as a result their vision is to achieve measurable operating profit goals in the short term, at the expense of long-

term investment. The organizational cultural changes require the leaders to make a personal cultural change which is quite challenging and exerts a lot of mental energy which they prefer to invest in achieving their short term business goals: inadequate training, and lack of management tools to make cultural changes, tensions between the top management, corporation board members who do not see eye to eye on the importance of instilling long-term organizational culture, lack of backing from the CEO. This study can raise for organizational leaders the question whether the path to achieve a high level of employee engagement in the organizations progresses through adopting a pyramid strategy based on organizational culture and motivation and trust on the two facets of the pyramid .In this case leaders will have to act simultaneously and in parallel to nurture each of these three facets of the pyramid and especially the organizational culture which is the foundation of the entire organizational pyramid. Focusing on one facet of the pyramid will not probably break the glass ceiling of the low percentage of engaged employees.

#### **4.2.3 The relationships between national culture, organizational culture and corporate culture (H7-H8)**

In light of the findings of the actual research, which strongly support the assumption that organizational culture has a significant role and influence on creating employee engagement and performance, the question of the correlation between national culture, organizational culture, and corporate culture and its influence on employee engagement and performance is evident . This will be explained by the results of the hypotheses 7+8, the literature review and the work experience of the author.

Research seems to support the idea that organizational culture has more of an effect on employee engagement and performance than national culture. In an era of globalization these results have practical implications for organizations expanding across national boundaries by developing an internal organizational culture consistent with a high-performance manufacturing culture (Naor et al., 2010). National culture could affect organizational culture since managerial assumptions about employee nature and behavior may be influenced by national culture. A study on cultural fit gives support for this perspective and the cultural fit model (Figure 4 explains the integration between these two

constructs, the organizational culture and the national culture (Aycan et al. 1999). This finding stands in line with the findings of the present study (Table 13+12). Table 12 presents a macro perspective of the correlations between the national and organizational culture while Table 13 presents the micro perspective of these correlations. Table 12 reveals strong and significant correlations between the regions regarding the four variables. These findings indicate that the characteristics of the organizational culture are fundamentally inherent in the character of the employee's corporation. If the characteristics of the national culture were more dominant in the six factories which are part of the corporation (as they really are if we analyze them according to the six dimensions model of Hofstede (Appendix 21) we should see more significant differences between the countries regarding the independent variables. But we cannot ignore the influence of the national culture which is reflected in the findings of Table 13. These findings revealed significant differences between the countries thus we can conclude that national culture has a limited influence on engagement.

Considering this it can be concluded that the characteristics of the organizational culture that have evolved in the corporation are more dominant than the characteristics of the national culture. This finding is supported, for example, by cultural comparative research conducted in Canada and India. The research analyzed the relationship between the national and organizational cultures in Canada and India , and brought up a number of findings, reinforcing the actual research approach, that national culture has a limited impact on organizational culture: Although Indian national culture is characterized by masculinity which does not encourage a futuristic management approach, Indian managers in the Indian factory preferred a futuristic management approach, much more than the Canadians. Moreover, examining two important cultural dimensions, which characterize Western cultures, sharing and working according to goals, it was found in the research that Indian managers attributed more importance to these two dimensions than did their Canadian counterparts. There were also no differences between the Indians and Canadians on the proactive approach of the managers, although Indian cultural dimensions did not indicate this. The managers of both Canadian and Indian cultures also assumed that the nature of the workers was adaptive and that there were opportunities for improvement in the two workplaces which were part of the research (Aycan et al., 1999).

These findings stand in line with the main conclusion of the activity we conducted in the corporation. Although the influence of national cultures on employees was evident in the various factories in accordance with their national belonging, the following corporate culture procedures, were the ones that dictated the operational and organizational processes and activities in the corporation and were enforced in all the factories by the managers; Compliance with procedures, severe adherence to quality and safety rules, adoption of western management practices and international quality metrics, adoption of operational and supply chain strategies, warehouse management and innovative marketing methods, compliance with timelines, acceptance of personal and proactive responsibility, and rapid adaptation to changing conditions in competitive and difficult market conditions. These policies and procedures were all adopted in all the factories in the corporation.

National culture, on the other hand, had a major impact on the human work environment, management approaches, and employees' interactions. Against this backdrop tensions between the two cultures, the corporation, and national cultures, were created in countries in which there were significant cultural gaps between them. A Gartner research recommends defining culture as a set of tensions, not attributes, and argues that culture tensions can arise due to conflicting values, stakeholders, objectives, or priorities. The research mentions the following reasons for tension between cultural attributes; Different markets and/or industries require different norms; different stakeholders need different outcomes. rapid organizational growth causes priorities to constantly shift, business units' priorities are misaligned with those of the rest of the organization (Gartner, 2019). However, the management's guidelines were uncompromising in the implementation of corporate values policies and procedures. In all the factories in India, for example, despite the challenges associated with the characteristics of national culture (Appendix 21), corporate management has managed to create a uniform work environment that met the criteria of international regulators. In all factories in Canada and the United States, corporate values and national values were highly correlated. The salient feature of these cultures is individualism (Appendix 21) that contributes to the strengthening of employees' engagement; employees know that they must trust themselves more and that they must show initiative and achievements, and high operational standards, there is informal

communication, employees will dare to challenge their managers and not take them and their instructions for granted, and there is a sense of equality.

In Israel the characteristics of the Israeli culture (Appendix 21) were in line with the corporate culture, such as; Entrepreneurship and thinking out of the box, the ability to be a hard worker, the accuracy, the informal communication, the employees will challenge the managers until they agree to receive what they need. In Hungary and Romania (Appendix 21), there was a balance between corporate values and national values such as, loyalty to the corporation and being treated as part of their community life, strict adherence to quality and to high operational standards and a high work ethic. Ultimately corporate executives in all factories have adopted the common corporate culture, policies, and procedures over the years, based on the joint successful experience of the various factories in the corporation and the adoption of international up to date technologies and managerial approaches and methods. The choice of all managers across the corporation to change and adopt the corporate culture, despite their national and organizational cultural differences, was inevitable because of the Internal and external competition. On the internal level the corporation's industrial factories are in a fierce and incessant competition between them for quality and profitability. Factory managers are aware that corporate management always has the option to move inefficient production lines from a country that does not meet the standards and targets required, to a factory outside the country and it is the same for moving production lines to another factory within that country. On the external level the severe control of the American regulator (the FDA) and the constant threat of the regulator closing factories which do not meet FDA regulatory standards have been a significant catalyst to create a sense of urgency for cultural change and for the adoption of the common corporation culture.

The intercultural tensions between national culture and corporate culture characterize multinational corporations. They require executives to properly manage and sensitize the resulting conflicts to enable the formulation of a corporate culture that considers the existing cultural gaps and bridges between them and the common corporate culture. The main way to do this is by formulating common values, common policies and work routines for the corporation which should be embedded by their managers who should act as a role model for all their employees.

Corporate culture today, in a time of accelerated globalization and highly intensive acquisitions and mergers, is becoming the distinguishing mark of the corporation in international markets. CEOs are putting a higher priority on changing corporate culture than in the past. In surveys both CEOs and CHROs say that “managing and improving the culture” is the top priority for talent management. But the data suggests that there is lots of room for improvement” (HBR, 2019). These corporation executives understand today more than ever that creating a strong corporate culture is a key success factor for their long-term growth. They should create a framework or other tools to explain cultural tensions to employees and how they can navigate them. At the same time, they must ask themselves three questions; What are the tensions that exist in our culture? Which tensions are vital to our culture? How do we know? How do we help employees navigate those strategic tensions?” (Gartner, 2019). Top executives point out that they sometimes reject making purchase or merger transactions because of the deep cultural gaps and tensions that cannot be bridged between the acquiring company and the acquired company (Welch & Welch, 2011).

#### **4.2.4 National culture and corporate culture as predictors of the level of employee engagement**

Organizational culture can be a direct and strong predictor of the level of employee engagement more than national culture. This finding emerges from the analysis of the level of relationships between the national cultural construct, individualism, and the level of employee engagement of workers in the US, Hungary, Romania, Israel, and Germany. Individualism vs. the collectivism dimension was chosen to be used as a comparative measure of national culture between countries because it has consistently been acknowledged as a powerful indicator of differences among societies and is a key factor in increasing the employee engagement level (Ralston et al., 1997).

In the US the cultural dimension individualism is graded 91 (in a scale of 1-100) while the level of employee engagement is 33% (Table 21), the highest in the world. In Canada, the level of individualism is 80 while the level of employee engagement is 20%. In Hungary the level of individualism is ten while the level of employee engagement is 80%. In Romania the level of individualism is 30 whereas the level of employee engagement is 22%. In Israel the level of individualism is 54 whereas the level of employee engagement is 16% and in India

the level of employee engagement is 16% and the level of individualism is 48. In Germany, which excels in a strong economy the level of employee engagement is 15% and the level of individualism is 67 (Appendix 21; Hofstede insight, 2020; Table 1; Gallup,2017). These findings reveal that there is no direct relationship between the level of individualism, as a powerful indicator of national culture and the level of employee engagement.

Considering the findings, it can be concluded that essentially organizational culture and corporate culture have a greater impact on employee engagement to the workplace and to the work than the national culture. Moreover, they can serve as strong predictors of employee engagement while national culture cannot serve as a strong predictor of employee engagement.

**Table 21. The employee's engagement percentage in the countries included in the current research**

The state	Percentage of engaged employees	Percentage of non-engaged employees	Percentage of actively disengaged employees
India	13%	65%	22%
Israel	16%	67%	18%
Romania	22%	61%	17%
Hungary	10%	66%	24%
USA	33%	51%	16%
Canada	20%	66%	14%

Source: based on Gallup (2017).

#### **4.3 The role of the leaders and managers in building and sustaining a high employee engagement level**

There is a large consensus among researchers as to the crucial role of leaders and managers in leading their companies to achieve a permanent and profitable growth and to



achieve the organizational goals including creating a high level of employee engagement. A leader is a social architect, catalyst, servant, a supporter of empowerment, a builder of coalitions responsible for solving complex problems, ethical decision-making, and supporting workers through organizational change. Leaders focus the energy of workers to achieve success. An effective leader should master information management, diversity, excellence, and collaboration. A leader communicates the organizational vision with an image to which everyone can relate (Bolman&Deal, 2003; Broom, 2003; Elster & Corral, 2009). Leaders set the tone for the entire organization: "employees look to them for cues about what constitutes acceptable conduct" (Crystal & Brian, 2014, p. 1). Studies suggest that managers' behaviors and attitudes, at all levels, have a significant influence on the employee engagement of their employees (Rees et al., 2013).

Gallup research shows that about 70% of the variance in employee engagement among workgroups can be attributed to their managers (Gallup,2019).So an important role of the leaders should be to raise the percentage of the engaged employees, which was 15% worldwide in2016 (Gallup, 2017), through building an empowering organizational and corporate cultures and approaches. They can do it based on different theories. The author of this dissertation recommends basing it on the main three theories which are explained later in this paragraph and by practicing the relevant and innovative managerial approaches to raise the level of motivation and employee engagement (see paragraph 2.3.4). Alongside this the corporate HR management should optimize the training expenditures and focus on employee engagement, concentrate on the shift managers and operators and find the best approaches and tools to focus on the managerial organizational development to raise the managers' skills to engage their employees.

In the USA alone the training expenditures in 2019 reached 83 billion\$( including payroll and spending on external products and services) (Freifeld, 2019). In light of this finding the question still remained as to why the world percentage of disengaged employee in 2016 is still low, 85% (Gallup, 2017). Managers will give a lot of explanations to this question but let consider two approaches: institutions responding slowly to the rapid changes produced by the spread of information technology, the globalization of markets for products and labor, the rise of the gig economy, and younger workers' unique expectation (Gallup , 2019 ). The second one should be to ask each corporate management if they adopt an organizational

culture which focuses on measuring business results only or if they prefer to adopt a culture which focuses on measuring the process focusing on employee engagement, alongside an empowering approach to measuring business results? This can be a crucial dilemma particularly for corporations' managements which prefer to meet the business results as a building block of their organizational culture.

A corporation's management which seeks to strengthen the level of employee engagement will therefore face first and foremost a cultural challenge. Managers decide to assimilate into their organizational culture dimensions that strengthen their employee engagement level, will need to consider the embedding of the most important dimensions as defined by Kahn. Kahn (1990) viewed personal role engagement as the individual's cognitive, emotional, and physical expression of the authentic self at work. He argued that there are three psychological conditions: meaningfulness, psychological safety, and experienced availability, which are considered as determinates and mediating effects on employee engagement. Building a psychological safety work environment required an empowering managerial approach. To empower means not only to give power to your people but also to assign them with authority, so that empowerment can mean authorization. Power also may be used as capacity, according to Conger and Kanungo (1988). A key aspect of employee development is to allow the employees the opportunity to exercise their judgment, beliefs, and skills, including how to personally shape and implement organizational core values. Employees who perceive their managers as authentic, supportive, and sincere are more engaged (Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

Based on the research findings, and on the work experience of the author, creating a psychological safety work environment is a key success factor in creating employee engagement. Psychological safety is experienced when employees believe they can show up as their true selves without fear of negative consequences to their personal or professional standing in the organization (Kahn 1990; 1992). Employees feel safe when they can trust that there will be no negative repercussions to their personal employee engagement at work. Finally, psychological availability refers to employees having the physical, emotional, and psychological resources which allow them to stay engaged despite personal and professional distractions that occur day-to-day and moment-to-moment. In contrast employees who are highly disengaged in their work roles do not invest their physical, cognitive, and emotional

energies, and this is reflected in task activity that is, at best, robotic, passive, and detached (Crawford et al., 2010; Goffman, 1959). Creating a psychological safety work environment makes the difference between employees who come to work to while away the hours of work or to be creative and productive workers, or the difference between a culture of silent survival employees or a culture of innovation, of voice workers influencing the course of business.

As mentioned before, all behaviors and attitudes of all managers in the organization play an important role in creating employee engagement (Rees et al., 2003). However it varies according to their status in the organization: On the first level stand the CEO and the corporate management which is committed to shape the corporate culture, that can serve as a solid foundation for employee engagement , and embed it in the corporation through all the strategic tools, while, demonstrating an active leadership. Active leadership means that leaders are a source of inspiration to their employees by "walking the walk, not just talking the talk", leading with purpose, leading the vision, mission and values, and implementing them through a cascading system through the middle managers to all employees (De Mello et al.; 2008; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). The corporate management should communicate identical clear and non-ambiguous messages regarding the adherence to the values and behaviors of the corporation to all managers and employees. They have to manage the cultural tensions which can be, as an example ,an outcome of business units' priorities which are misaligned with those of the rest of the organization (Gartner, 2019; this topic will be discussed later). All cultural tensions should be resolved in the corporation board room in order to communicate clear and acceptable messages.

At the second level stand the local factory managers which have the important role to apply the organizational culture in their local factory, aligning it with the special nature of the local organizational culture and the people working in it, while adhering to the core values that exist in the corporate organizational culture. These managers should act on the premise of "Think global and act local". The factory managers also play a crucial role in creating a local management that includes the various departmental managers who are fully aligned with the business, operational and organizational goals. The findings of this research revealed that the three independent predictive variables organizational culture , motivation and trust are significant variables to predict the dependent variable engagement at manager level which include the H.O.D and the Section Managers and they are stronger than among

the junior employees which include Senior Executives and Operators (Table 19.1- 19.4). These findings should encourage the factory managers to empower the H.O.Ds , in order to engage them to be the organizational culture influencers among the line managers and the operators.

The factory manager should empower and support the department managers during day-to-day work and give them a safe space where they can exercise errors up to a certain limit, without fear and assume responsibility for mistakes and rectify them. Department managers who receive support and empowerment from the factory manager will better manage the line managers who are the backbone of the production lines. They are the closest group to the production floor workers. Developing trust relationships between these two levels is crucial to the ongoing operational work.

At the third level stand the line managers who should be perceived as trustworthy by their employees and should enable employees to raise their voice and participate actively in the operational processes (Rees et al., 2013). The role of line managers in leading the operators to achieve business and organizational goals is crucial to the success of the factory but corporations which we encountered used to devote more managerial attention and organizational development training resources to the department managers and above, although the line managers and operators constitute more than 84 % of the total number of employees in manufacturing industry corporation (see Figure 13). As a result the line managers, who usually are well trained technically to perform their job, do not get the necessary training and coaching to develop their managerial skills and specially their employee engagement skills. When it comes to the various leadership constructs which can characterize the leaders and managers one can find a variety of constructs summarized by Piccolo et al. (2010); transformational (Bass, 1985), authentic (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005), self-sacrificial (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2004), servant (Grahm, 1991; Greenleaf, 1977) and spiritual models of leadership (Fry, 2003). Managers who focus on employee engagement can adopt a servant-leadership approach towards their employees and support them and as result create a highly organizationally engaged environment (Rees et al., 2013).

#### **4.4 Contribution to theory**

The present study makes a useful contribution to academic research on three key aspects:

1. Presenting four different dimensions, in different countries, related to the role and the weight of each of the following important factors: organizational culture, motivation and trust in creating employee engagement and the positive and significant relationships that exist between these factors. The four dimensions are as follows:

I. The existence of significant and positive relationships among the three important variables; OC, motivation and trust and their impact on employee engagement creation. The present study is among the few studies that analyze the simultaneous effect of the three independent variables on employee engagement. The study revealed that these three variables are strong predictors of employee engagement and they can explain 77 percent of the reasons for creating employee engagement, whereas the 23 percent can be explained by other factors such as technology, the wage level, the company's perception of employees as a decent employer, an environmental employer and personal characteristic reasons.

II. This study presents a different conceptual approach of an integrative model between the three factors for creating employee engagement. The model emphasizes the existence of direct relationships between each of the three independent variables and employee engagement. These findings have great significance in both academic research and in the practical managerial field.

III. Presenting a separate weight of each independent variable on employee engagement creation. The findings highlight the importance of the organizational culture in employee engagement creation, along with motivation. Compared to existing studies the present study does not point to the trust factor as a decisive factor in the employee engagement creation and trust is perceived as a weaker predictor than the other variables predicting employee engagement at all levels of the organization.

IV. There is no difference in the perception and importance of the variables between countries. In light of these four dimensions it can be concluded that the contribution of this study to existing research is in validating some of the research approaches to the role of the independent variables on the creation of employee engagement on the one hand and to

introduce new approaches related to the presentation of the employees employee engagement direct integrative model, as well as the existing gaps between the high levels of management to the operative levels on the other.

The study supports the research approach that in the age of globalization, a strong corporate culture, in comparison to national and organizational culture, serves as a strong adhesive which can consolidate the various factories in the corporation, while minimizing the effects that national and local organizational cultures have on employees. A strong corporate culture results in high productivity and profitability, enhances the competitive advantage of the corporation, enables a high mobility of employees between the different factories in a short time and an effective absorption in a variety of important management positions regardless of their national or local organizational cultures and ultimately strengthens the immediate growth and the sustainable growth of the corporation.

The additional and unique contribution of this study is related to the applied model of proactive personal responsibility presented, which is perceived by senior management as the most important indicator of employee engagement. The model presents a new research approach in the field, aligned with operational behaviors, and based on the research approaches that analyze the place and importance of human behaviors in employee engagement creation. The model defines the behaviors needed to strengthen proactive personal responsibility and consequently strengthen employee engagement. This approach that has been implemented in a number of factories in which we executed improvement programs to strengthen proactive personal responsibility, has resulted in improving employee engagement and enhancing the employee's perception of the importance of quality, compliance and safety and has consequently contributed to achieving the organizational and business goals of the organization

#### **4.5 Practical implications**

Culture and employee engagement are the most important business issues that companies face around the world. 87 percent of organizations quote culture and employee engagement as their top HR Challenge and 50 percent of organizations call the problem "very important" (Evangelin & Ragavan, 2016). Employee engagement is defined as one of the three top trends employed by organizations (Goodman et al., 2009). According to MacLeod and Clarke (cited in Welch, 2011) employee engagement is a cause for concern for

leaders in private, public, and voluntary sector organizations. This is the reason that the topic of employee engagement has attracted enormous interest over the past decade or two and a great deal of attention in academe and work organizations (Albrecht et al., 2015). However, despite the considerable investment by organizations in increasing the level of their employee's engagement the overall world percentage of employees, who are still not engaged with their companies is still high (Gallup, 2017).

Considering the findings of this study and of previous research, as well as the experience of the author of this dissertation's in multinational companies, some major conclusions can be drawn that can serve as guidelines for managers to strengthen their employee's engagement:

- One, managers who seek to perform changes and improve the level of their employee's engagement should be aware of the required transformation in their organizational culture. They should create the right balance between goal-oriented organizational culture and people oriented organizational culture focusing on an ethical and empowering management attitude.
- The second is to address the three factors that influence the employee's engagement OC motivation and trust, and not to just focus on one factor.
- The third is to identify and assimilate, out of all the behaviors, common important behaviors that strengthen engagement.
- Fourth, managers may, for example, focus on defining one key factor for creating engagement, such as proactive personal responsibility and defining it in measurable terms of behaviors and implementing these behaviors among their people.

When I asked managers in all ranks, during my different projects which I executed in manufacturing industries what they would define as a high level of engagement they usually set their expectations on having employees and managers assume proactive personal responsibility (PPR) which is close in its perception to the organizational citizenship behavior (even though this perception is quite unused by most of HR and operational managers with whom we discussed the issue of personal responsibility). PPR means perform tasks beyond what is required in their job description , dare to offer innovative ideas, assume responsibility for malfunctions, alert without fear about malfunctions, be the quality and

safety controllers of themselves and their peers, and not rely solely on professional quality or safety controllers, perform procedures and routines with an understanding of the big picture and an understanding of the relationship between their role and its contribution and the implications on the factory, on the department and on the corporation, on the end product, on customer satisfaction and on the company's image, encourage their friends to join the company and give credit to the company's products.

One can conclude that when managers in manufacturing industries talk about employee engagement, they usually talk in terms of expected operational behaviors. Therefore, it can be recommended to adopt the behavioral approach as the basis for creating employee engagement processes and the adoption of the proactive personal responsibility shown in the model developed by the author (Figure 14).<sup>3</sup> This model defines the employee engagement in terms of behaviors and had been applied by us in some manufacturing corporations. The behavioral approach is an important pillar of organizational culture and emphasizes motivation and trust as important factors for motivating employees and creating employee engagement and is supported by some research (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kotter & Haskett, 1992; Komaki, 2005; Ferguson & Milliam, 2008; Pounds et al., 2015).

The behavioral approach draws its strength from the existing organizational culture in the company, focuses on managing the behaviors and not just the operational processes to improve performance, on human behaviors and its drivers, on the interrelation between human work environment and technological work environment. Based on this approach employees should know which of their behaviors influence the performance processes the most and how well they are performing those behaviors (Pound et al., 2015). At the heart of this approach is the commitment of the managers to an organizational culture which values the employees' empowerment and motivation, an appropriate human work environment and mainly giving employees feedback and acknowledgement. Adopting the behavior management approach, along with managing other processes in the company, can create a positive force-multiplier that will enhance performance. The main principles of the behavioral approach are: To increase the frequency of positive and productive behavior,

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<sup>3</sup> The model is based on another professional study conducted by this author. It is presented in this section as it sheds more light on the practical relevance of some of the variables featured in the quantitative findings of this dissertation, in particular different aspects related to employee engagement and organizational culture.



cease or stop inefficient behaviors, encourage the employee to perform new behaviors (Pounds et al., 2015). Setting behavioral parameters for the employee's proactive personal responsibility allows employees to understand their management's expectations and act accordingly.

Considering this, the question may arise whether proactive personal responsibility should be directed by the manager or should it be left to the employee's personal initiative? Our experience indicates that the integration between the two approaches, the initiative and the guided one, has a higher potential to inspire the employee to assume proactive personal responsibility. The more managers direct the employee to carry out behaviors, which are perceived as proactive personal responsibility, the better the employees can understand the meaning of the concept in a practical way and adapt it later as a way of work life. In this way it will also instill in the brain a structured behavior that will be repeated later, as is the case with any other behaviors. The performance behaviors should be measurable, refer to applicable behaviors and refer to the 'How' and not to the 'why'. They should be measurable, in a way that managers can give actionable feedback to the workers, and workers can be rewarded for executing these behaviors. It is recommended to differentiate between the types of the operational behaviors and between them and the organizational behaviors, to meet expectations with the employees. For this purpose, the author of this thesis defined the following four types of performance behaviors:

- **Current Performance Behaviors (CPBs):** Actual behaviors in all performance units, based on existing procedures.

- **Important Performance Behaviors (IPBs):** An important set of behaviors that enhance the current set of CPBs, as they have a significant potential impact on the improvement of production shop floor operation, compared to CPBs.

- **Critical Performance Behaviors (CPBs):** A set of critical behaviors that have a critical significant impact on the proactive personal responsibility.

- **Organizational Behaviors (OBs):** Organizational behaviors focused on values and oriented to drive employees' intrinsic motivation and create a higher level of employee engagement (recognition, feedback, sharing, appreciation, etc.).

This approach forms the basis for the proactive personal responsibility implementation model. The model defines five behavioral dimensions of personal responsibility which

employee must perform to achieve a high level of engagement. The model (Figure 14) aims to define the meaning of the Proactive Personal Responsibility (PPR) in a manufacturing industrial company, to understand the dimensions of the PPR, its impact on the critical IPBs and on achieving the operational measurable goals of the company. The employee's and manager's PPR are at the focus of the model influenced by three circles:

1. The five behavioral dimensions: alertness, respecting procedures, adhering to quality and safety processes, taking ownership and initiation;
2. The critical IPBs, which guide the employee as to what to do in relation to each dimension. These behaviors have been identified by the company's management (following an exhaustive mapping process of operational behaviors), as behaviors whose impact on the overall CPBs is significant;
3. The eleven enablers are detailed in Table 22.

**Table 22. The eleven enablers of employee engagement**

1	job attributes
2	safety at work
3	my supervisor
4	fearless atmosphere
5	sense of care for employees
6	job enablers
7	clarity of direction and priorities
8	accountability
9	P process flow
10	workload and compensation fairness
11	organizational culture

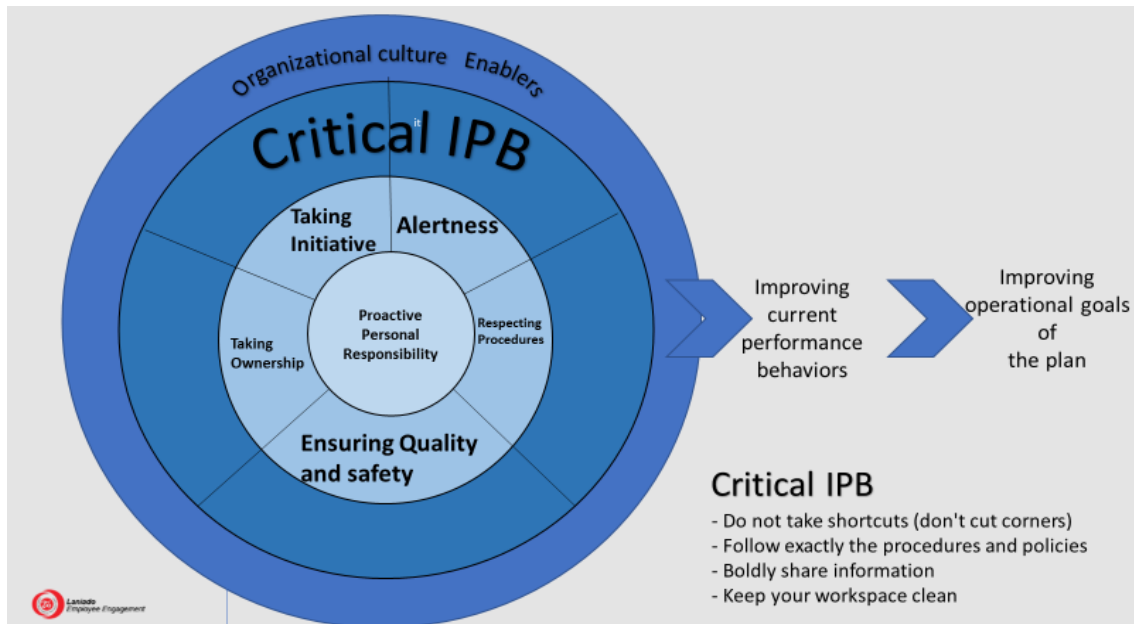
Source: Own research

The organizational culture and the enablers have a substantial impact on the employee's intrinsic motivation and assuming PPR. Subsequently PPR directly affects the performance of

current operational behaviors. and contributes to the achievement of operational objectives.

The advantages of the model are:

- It enables managers and workers to understand the close relationship between PPR and its impact on achieving their measurable goals
- It clearly defines the processes of PPR creation
- It sets out the managers' challenges to increase the sense of PPR. It refines the notion that there is a close interrelation between the organizational culture and the enablers and the IPBs to achieve operational goals
- It sets measurable parameters for subsequent PPR to be expressed in critical behaviors. In the current situation managers generally value employees as having personal responsibility according to a subjective approach
- It gives operational significance to the concept of employee engagement to the job.
- It reduces tensions and pressures created between employees and managers because of the lack of clarity in defining the concept of PPR.
- It is a flexible model that allows managers to determine important critical behaviors according to their operational needs
- This model may be particularly effective if the company undergoes a process of identifying operational failures and operational behaviors that require improvement. From that management can indicate to the employee the relationship between personal responsibility and his or her operational behavior that requires improvement, thereby strengthening his proactive concept of PPR.



**Figure 14: The Proactive Personal Responsibility model**

Source: Own research.

However, when it comes to leaders who wish to embrace proactive personal responsibility as a supreme value for improving work and workplace employee engagement, they must prioritize the required ethical values and create the appropriate work environment, which are essential for assuming proactive personal responsibility. But most of them do not do it. They preach it but are not committed to it. This dual behavior of management characterizes their approach to the topic of organizational culture's values.

A company that preaches action according to values should give them substantial dominant weight in the strategy, policies, work routines, metrics, internal communication and manifest a personal managerial example (Walk the talk). The company's management should decide that it does not compromise its values. But managements prefer in some cases to assume an ambiguous approach towards their values. Consequently, internal culture tensions are created against this background. Here are some examples from different companies.

1. One of the most prominent tensions encountered by the dissertation's author is the tense relationship between the Operations VP and the VP of Quality. Apparently, both agree on uncompromising adherence to quality procedures, especially in corporations regulated by international regulators. But in practice, and too often, operational needs and marketing priorities overcome the quality considerations. The result is usually an increase in the non-quality price, at best, or closure of sites by the regulator, in extreme cases. Therefore, the

corporation's CEO has an important role to play in forming a coalition between the corporate management board which will adhere uncompromisingly to the organizational culture, values, and behaviors, including the quality culture policy. However, I found in some cases the CEO prefers sometimes not to intervene in this issue and in other cases he is biased in favor of achieving business goals at the expense of quality. Consequently, ambiguous quality messages are cascaded to the level of the production shop floor employees

2. Managers were asked to prioritize common goals of the department and factory, but at the same time they were measured by their personal and/or shifts' achievements and not by the department's goals .As a result tensions were created in the companies between shift managers due to the fact that some have preferred to fulfill their personal goals or shift goals at the price of the factories' goals . Consequently, they caused degradation at the performance level

3. The lack of adherence to the value of shared responsibility has created tensions between department managers from areas of operation and quality. Operations managers did not consider themselves responsible for quality control and demanded that the quality issues should be addressed only by the quality controllers, even at the cost of performance impairment.

4. In the field of personal example (Walk the talk) managers turned a blind eye to procedures, the cleanliness hazards or strict adherence to procedures, whereas on the other hand, demanded that workers behave differently and assume proactive personal responsibility for these issues.

5. Some managers prefer to conduct a fear culture and as result do not generate a safe space for their employees to express their views, to dare to and take initiatives and to assume responsibility for mistakes, as opposed to the values of the company. Consequently, employees feel a sense of unfairness and lack of internal justice, and, above all, they feel that their managers deviate from their companies adopted values. As a result, a culture of survival has emerged among the employees and they prefer not to assume proactive personal responsibility for their work. Companies' executives should treat these tensions as cultural ones, rather than technical and organizational ones. Especially as those cultural tensions cost companies a high price; a decline in output and profitability, damage to

reputation, harm to the employees' motivation to excel, increase the level of personal pressures, harm to employee engagement and the turnover of employees and managers.

Therefore Industrial manufacturing managers who aim to engage their employees with their job should balance between the two following organizational cultures and assume the following principles:

1. Balance between an organizational culture which is focused on achievement driven goals and results, working according to tough procedures, strong discipline, and an organizational culture which is focused on empowerment , openness ,honest relationships, trust and enjoyment.

2. To connect the organization's values, like proactive personal responsibility with their employees' operational behaviors.

3. Define the dimensions and enablers of personal responsibility in a way which corresponds with the operational approach.

4. Highlight the values of proactive personal responsibility.

5. Emphasize the principle of reciprocity: the management takes care of the physical and mental needs of the employee while providing a personal example, and the employees assume a personal proactive responsibility for their behaviors, in order to jointly achieve the organizational and business goals.

#### **4.6 Limitations of the study**

The limitations of every study are directly and naturally related to the limitations of the researcher, his human biases, his points of view, and personal experience. These limitations apply to the author of this dissertation, who has a long working experience in the field of cultural changes in leading companies in Israel and the world. In addition, the author of this study recognizes that there are factors which may limit the conclusions of this thesis. The following limitations have been identified:

1. This study is based on much the study of much research, but the attempt to generalize comprehensive research conclusions from different studies and to formulate different theories does not always stand the test of validity and reliability. Not all researchers use the same research metrics, so the attempt to reach a conclusion does not always stand the test

of validity and reliability. Therefore, trying to reach valid and reliable research conclusions based on the various studies is part of the study's limitations.

2. The present study focused on certain variables and dimensions, which are considered by the author as important for this study and for analyzing the relationships between the independent variables; , Organizational culture, motivation trust and the dependent variable employee engagement are validated in existing researches. In doing so the author has set the limits of the research in which he seeks to focus within them. The present study emphasizes three independent variables and several dimensions such as: clear meaning of work and purpose, open communication, support of the direct manager, creating a fearless workspace environment, appreciation, the integrity of the manager, respect for employee norms and shared values. In presenting these dimensions the author considered it as a contribution to the findings of the leading research streams in the field (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Britt et al., 2005; Denison et al., 2006; Saks, 2006; Swanberg et al., 2011). However, the author did not examine other variables and other dimensions that could have influenced the results of the study.

3. This study analyzed the perceptions and attitudes of employees and managers towards three key factors affecting employee engagement. The selection of questions used for this study was inspired by different types of questionnaires in the field of research and in this respect created a unique integration between the various questionnaires that exist. On the other hand, the questionnaire was divided into four variables by the researcher with the understanding of the interplay between the question and the variable and the relevance of the question to the research variable. This may pose a limitation on the analysis of the weight of each variable in the creation of employee engagement since another researcher could attribute the variables to other questions and obtain different results. However this limitation is inherent in this type of study as there are no definitions of the relevance of a question about a variable in this study and therefore this limitation should be considered in the results of.

4. This study was based on an exceptionally large quantitative sample but at the same time it is insensitive to the nuances of cultural variability as it does not present the results of qualitative research such as personal interviews and focus groups. Distribution of the

questionnaire among a group of 6738 employees in different cultures and sub-cultures as in India was associated with limitations that may affect the results.

- The questionnaires were distributed online and sent to each employee's e-mail addresses, but a portion of the employees did not have a personal e-mail address and they replied using written questionnaires sent to the company that performed the work in Israel. These employees answered the questionnaires using computers in factory rooms supervised by managers, and this form of answering may have an impact on employees' biased answers.

- A national cultural characteristic to please superiors in some Asian cultures, such as Indian culture may have influence on the results.

- The questionnaires were translated into the four main national languages in India, but as good as the translation may be, there are still problems which can occur because of the diversity of the sub Indian cultures and therefore respondents in different cultures in India may have understood the items of the questionnaire differently, which could of course distort the data.

- The limitations of a good, large sampling. Although we have sampled factories around the world in a way that represents different cultures well, but it was more difficult to control the sampling to be representative in each factory. This limitation is not dominant in the study as it is balanced with the advantage of the size of the sample.

#### **4.7 Future research directions**

##### **4.7.1 Integration between behavioral economics and neuroscience theories and employee engagement**

A promising endeavor could be made to base future research directions on innovative approaches and theories in the study of behavioral economics and the mind, to broaden understanding of the role of the mind and its significance and effect on human behaviors and, therefore, on the creation of motivation and employee engagements. It is likely that these studies will indicate new approaches to creating increased motivation that will, in turn, present a new approach to employee engagement that has been studied for some 30 years.



In view of this future study directions in the field are likely to be derived from studies such as those of Kahneman (Kahneman, 2011; Kahneman et al.,2011; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979).

I would like to propose research directions that would relate to the challenges posed by behavioral economics regarding the validity of conventional management thought patterns in industry for developing motivation and employee engagement. The following are research questions that could relate significantly to these directions:

- What challenges are being posed by behavioral economics on creating motivation and employee engagement?
- In view of these challenges, do managers in industry invest effort in the right directions to motivate employees to work?
- Are managers in industry bound by erroneous thought patters in their relationships with employees?
- To what extent is managers being judgmental and irrational in decision-making and in creating motivation and employee engagements and what effect does it have?
- What role do emotions play in motivating employees to develop employee engagement on the production floor of industrial enterprises?
- In view of these challenges is the approach of employee engagement still valid in increasing motivation among employees?

A number of sub-questions arise which could guide researchers in their future investigation efforts:

1. What weight is given to managers' biases regarding the creation of motivation and employee engagements amongst employees in general and employees on the shop floor in particular?
2. Do employees believe that the decisions of their direct managers are rational or driven by irrational considerations?
3. To what extent are direct managers affected by emotions when making operational decisions?
4. To what extent do the feelings of a direct manager toward an employee (for example, love or revulsion) affect his motivation?
5. To what extent does a sense of unwillingness to accept personal responsibility for performing a task derive from mental fatigue?

6. To what degree do tasks forced on an employee cause him to feel fatigue and decreased motivation?
7. To what extent does the mood of a direct manager affect an employee's motivation?
8. To what degree are tasks communicated to employees in clear, simple, and comprehensible language?
9. What factors influence an employee to remember performance routines better?
10. To what extent do rapid transitions between operational tasks during a workday encourage or depress motivation and employee engagement?
11. Does the performance of several tasks simultaneously reinforce employees' motivation?
12. To what extent do operational tasks that an employee performs during a working day engross him?
13. Do engrossing tasks create a sense that the time spent performing these tasks has passed quickly for an employee?
14. What tasks engross employees on the production floor?
15. To what extent does changing tasks influence employee motivation?
16. Is the approach of employee engagement still valid as a measure of increased motivation?

#### **4.7.2 Proactive Personal Responsibility (PPR) and Important Performance Behaviors (IPBs)**

This is the second study direction that we recommend performing because very few studies deal with the subject of PPR and its connection to performance behaviors, which is of major importance in reinforcing employee engagement to their job. Personal Responsibility (PR) is defined as one of three main keys for creating employee engagement: meaningfulness, personal responsibility for outcomes and understanding the connection between the job and the actual results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Whereas PPR can be perceived as a higher level of PR and can be compared to some extent to the concept of OCB (Morrisson, 1994). This finding is supported by the author's experience in domestic industries and international corporations. According to the managers with whom i worked the issue of proactive personal responsibility is the most significant index for creating

employee engagement, which improves employee performance. Therefore, the objective of most programs that I was required to conduct was to improve employees' proactive personal responsibility threshold, to reinforce employee engagement with their work and, thus, attain better operational results. Accordingly, the author believes that it is appropriate to conduct studies which would analyze the reciprocal relationships between the dependent variable of proactive personal responsibility, which, according to managers, is the index for motivation and employee engagement and the independent variables, which are important operational behaviors, while relating to the following research questions:

- What is the role of proactive personal responsibility in creating employee engagement to work?
- What is the role and influence of operational behaviors in reinforcing the concept of proactive personal responsibility on creating employee engagement?
- Should important operational behaviors be defined as a basis for creating proactive personal responsibility?
- What are the reciprocal relationships between personal proactive responsibility and employee engagement?
- What factors enable and predict the concept of proactive personal responsibility
  - What are effective models for creating proactive personal responsibility?
  - What are the principal barriers to attaining proactive personal responsibility?
  - Can the proactive personal responsibility approach be firmly established as part of organizational and corporate culture, and how is this achievable?

The following are sub questions that could assist researchers in the field:

1. What are the important elements of proactive personal responsibility?
2. What must a manager do to develop proactive personal responsibility amongst employees?
3. To what degree is proactive personal responsibility influenced by external or internal factors?
4. What are important antecedents of proactive personal responsibility?
5. What are the relationships between proactive personal responsibility and motivation, trust and employee engagement?

6. What are the indices for proactive personal responsibility?
7. Are there grounds for defining proactive personal responsibility in terms of operational behaviors?
8. To what extent is proactive personal responsibility important for creating motivation, trust, and employee engagement amongst all employees in general, and amongst employees on the shop floor in particular?
9. What are the operational advantages of proactive personal responsibility on the production floor?

For industrial enterprises seeking to improve employee engagement by reinforcing the concept of proactive personal responsibility to reach a higher level of performance, we suggest conducting two kinds of surveys– both qualitative and quantitative. The qualitative survey, which enables an in-depth examination of the personal attitudes of managers and employees regarding organizational and operational behaviors, is significant in this field. A qualitative survey would enable a situation picture on existing versus desired important employees' behaviors and failures to be obtained. We recommend conducting the qualitative survey in several stages: The preparation - holding talks with the leading team of the project to set objectives, goals and expected results and conducting an observation in one of the sites. On this basis a qualitative questionnaire must be prepared in collaboration with the leading team of the project (Appendix 22).

The qualitative survey should be executed in two ways:

1. Self-mapping by the managers. All departmental heads in all the factories will be asked to perform self-mapping of behavioral strengths and weaknesses and defining key operational behaviors to be improved. To enable them to do so it is recommended to send them training tools (Appendixes 23,24).

2. Conducting Interviews and focus groups with a sample of employees and managers; Board members, factory managers and most of the department managers. The focus groups should include shift managers and operators representing all departments. Questionnaires for interviews and for focus groups should be fitted to the relevant target groups, as an example: Members of the management, plant managers and department managers, shift managers and operators/ technicians (Appendix 25). The interviews should use semi-structured questionnaires, recorded by the interviewer and verified by the managers.

All departmental behaviors were cross analyzed between company departments within meetings between department managers. At the end of the process each of the managers had a set of IPBs of his department and a set of a cross departmental behaviors. These sets enabled each manager to examine his behavior compared to the corresponding department and implement the required improvements

Mapping organizational behaviors – These behaviors were defined in two separate workshops for factory managers and board members. The quantitative survey, on the other hand, aims to examine employee attitudes and perceptions regarding employee engagement and proactive personal responsibility. The survey will include two sections. One will check the topic of employee engagement and can be selected from one of the existing surveys in the field. The second section will examine attitudes and perceptions of proactive personal responsibility while analyzing important behavioral components as well as the enablers of proactive personal responsibility (Table 23).

In analyzing the findings of the quantitative survey, we recommend presenting the findings in two forms and performing correlation analyzes of the findings: 1 displaying the average percentage in each question. 2. Presentation of findings with emphasis on the TOP5, percentage of respondents who gave the highest score to the question (Grade 5). This approach can highlight the differences between organizational excellence and the overall average. In considering this presentation management could decide to focus on improving issues where the percentage of respondents in the category TOP 5 was low compared to others. If the percentage in the TOP 5 is low it indicates that the specific issues need to be emphasized to achieve improvement. So, the needle will move toward a higher level of employee excellence.

Two statistical analysis of correlations between the findings can be carried out:

1. The correlation between the weight of the enablers and the extent of proactive personal responsibility. The higher the correlation is (between 0 – 1), we can draw a statistical conclusion about the conceptual importance that the employee attributes to the enabler and its impact on the extent of their proactive personal responsibility. For example, if the respondents perceive that the enabler accountability has a considerable influence on the extent of proactive personal responsibility, it can be deduced that emphasis must be

placed on the strengthening of this enabler to increase the perceived understanding of the linkage between accountability and PPR.

2. The correlation between the enablers and the extent of proactive personal responsibility and their influence on outputs by analyzing issues related to outputs, as for example : High yield, low rate of complains, low waste of resources, good adherence to schedule and milestones.

#### **4.7.3 Relationships of trust and employee engagement**

Although trust in leaders and peers is likely to have a significant impact on employee engagement, researchers have noted that, to the best of their knowledge, no previous study has empirically investigated the relationship between these two constructs (Chugati & Buckley, 2013). In view of this remark and in view of research findings indicating that the trust factor is a weaker predictor of employee engagement and notwithstanding the fact that these studies indicated that this factor is highly significant in creating motivation, the author would suggest conducting additional studies into the reciprocal relationships between these two constructs, trust and employee engagement. These studies could take studies performed by Professor Zak regarding trust and the eight behaviors that he specifies as having been proven to be effective in creating trust taken into account. I.e.: recognizing excellence, induce challenge-stress, give people discretion in how they do their work, enable job-crafting, share information broadly, intentionally build relationships, facilitate whole-person growth and show vulnerability (Zak, 2017a).

Future studies in the field of trust will examine the reciprocal relationships between these behaviors and the creation of motivation and employee engagement. While some of the factors that appear in this context are known from existing studies, no study has presented this set of behaviors as a single consolidated set, which can reinforce trust, and certainly no study has examined the relationship between all these behaviors and creating employee engagement. These behaviors were also analyzed by Professor Zak and his team in blood tests that he performed, which demonstrated that, when a person treats a friend in accordance with these behaviors, oxytocin levels are increased, resulting in feelings of empathy and trust toward the speaker are reinforced (Zak, 2017a).

The direct relationship that was proven between these behaviors and their effect on the human nervous system is highly significant for assimilating the empowering approach for building trust amongst managers. Indeed managers are more likely to better understand that adopting an empowering approach toward employees is also vital in the context of an individual's neural responses and that adopting these behaviors is likely to enhance motivation and employee engagement and raise the performance level of employees in general and of employees on the production floor in particular. Future studies in this field can emphasize the context of organizational culture on this subject and adopt the approach of neuroscience management of employees as part of organizational culture, thus, taking a step forward in placing the individual and the concern for his mental needs at the center of the manager's attention more firmly.

## Summary and conclusions

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine the role of organization culture, motivation, and trust (the independent variables) as determinants of employee engagement (the dependent variable) in a multinational manufacturing enterprise. The three independent variables were proved in the literature review and in this dissertation's research to be the determining factors to predict and explain employee engagement. The subjects of this research were the employees and managers of a multinational industrial manufacturing Asian corporation. To summarize the current dissertation contribution to the research and practice some conclusions can be reached:

1. Managers in the organization have a major role in assimilating organizational culture focused on developing the human capital in the company, by reinforcing motivation, trust, and employee engagement. Fifteen percent of employees who are well managed according to the Gallup database are engaged with the organization. The findings of the current research also indicate that department managers and above better understand the importance of the factors affecting employee engagement than the levels below them (Table 21). This does not mean that they establish a high level of employee engagement in their factories and especially among the shop floor employees. The global index of Gallup testing the status of employee engagement worldwide indicated that in 2016, the rate of not engaged hired employees worldwide was still 67% while actively disengaged employees was 18% and only 15% were engaged (Gallup, 2017). This is undoubtedly a low rate of employee engagement, prompting many questions about the effectiveness of managers in creating employees engagement. There can be many reasons for this, most notably that organizations do not embrace organizational or corporate cultures that prioritize the key success factors for achieving employee engagement which are: values of meaning, safe psychological space and belonging (Kahan, 1990) and adopting an empowering culture which places the human being at the center of their businesses strategy. Instead, most corporate executives still prefer to embrace values of achieving immediate business results at the expense of investing in employee engagement. Reality proves that a corporation can succeed in business metrics even if the level of employee engagement is low. This does not contradict studies that prove that organizations with a high level of employee engagement



manage to achieve better business goals than their competitors. In light of this, it can be concluded that as long as the main message of corporates' managements to their managers is to focus on delivering a high return to shareholders, the managers will not raise the flag of engagement and the global disengaged rate will remain as low as it was in recent years.

2. The academic research since the 1940s, have changed their perspective over the years with respect to the factors that create motivation, and employee engagement; from a perspective based on explaining motivation from the extrinsic factors of reward and punishment to a perspective based on emphasizing intrinsic factors. Currently there is almost complete agreement amongst researchers regarding the importance of intrinsic factors for creating motivation and employee engagement. Innovative studies in the fields of behavioral economics and neuroscience emphasize the decisive effect of the mind on human behavior (the concept of thinking fast and thinking slow of Kahneman, 2011) and creating neural stimuli that affect human behavior (Zak, 2017a; 2017b). In view of the numerous researches performed, and of the current research, and in view of this author's experience in domestic enterprises and corporations, it may be concluded that employees everywhere in the world, without any relation to race, geography, position and gender, expect their managers to behave ethically toward them, based on an appreciation of the employee as an employee and as a human being deserving respect, appreciation and feedback, building trustful relationships, delegating authority and autonomy, and receiving support and guidance from the manager and primarily from the direct manager. This approach becomes even more valid when relating to employees in manufacturing industries in which the current managerial mentality in most of these enterprises tends to place processes ahead of people at the top of their priorities (Gallup, 2017). While, of course, employees perceive importance in the concept of fair wages which influence the motivation's and employee engagement's creation studies have indicated that the perception of wages is not at the top of an employee's priorities, given that the other conditions he has, such as satisfying and challenging work and a suitable work environment that strikes a balance between the values of the organization and the employee's needs, are fulfilled.

3. There are strong positive and significant relationships between the independent variables; OC, motivation, and trust and the dependent one, engagement. The three independent variables together can predict and explain 77% of employee engagement while

the remaining 23% can be explained by other factors such as; the level of employees' wages, the level of the technology and automatization, work environment, and personal characteristics. The correlation of trust with engagement is slightly lower than the correlation of organizational culture and motivation with engagement (Table 11). Trust as a predictor of engagement is significantly weaker although it is significant in all areas (Table 14). This finding is consistent across all types of analyzes that were performed. We also found that the relative weight of trust in creating employee engagement varies by country. Probably the reason for the low relative weight of trust is because organizational culture and motivation are inclusive, basic, and deep variables. In contrast trust is a specific variable that constitutes one aspect of reality. If we test trust individually versus engagement, as most studies do, trust will be a key player in creating engagement. But if trust is linked and analyzed in relation to the two dominant and significant variables, organizational culture and motivation, trust as a variable takes on a different proportion, and therefore in this actual research trust receives relatively a low weight in creating engagement. Consequently, we can assume that as strongly as organizational culture and motivation is built, we may inevitably build trust and engagement. In contrast, if we try to build only trust, we will put a lot more effort on one factor and not necessarily achieve the expected results of trust. Considering the above it can be concluded that organizational culture and motivation are the cornerstones of employee engagement and therefore one must invest in building these foundation stones while fostering the trusting relationship between employees and managers and between them and their peers.

4. Organizational culture and motivation are significantly more influential on predicting and explaining employee engagement than trust. Organizational culture can be perceived metaphorically as the ground in which the seeds of motivation and trust are planted. So, if you cultivate the appropriate ground professionally and carefully it's likely that the yield will be successful. This is similar to an organizational culture where if you plant in it strong, healthy seeds of trust and motivation, it will yield probably strong and healthy employee engagement. This requires the building of a sustainable ethical organizational culture, which gives priority to the individual moral and physical needs. While researchers in the field of management are divided on the question as to how to do this, several argue that the perception of contemporary management is outdated and a revolution that would place

the individual at the top of the organizational pyramid is necessary. Researchers such as Drucker (2000) and Hamel (2001), note that corporations must change their management perception and place greater emphasis on flexibility, creativity, ability to perform a rapid strategic change, cooperation between units and true empowerment of workers at all levels.

5. There is a direct prediction model between the three independent variables and the dependent variable. The prediction direct model of employee engagement by the three independent variables is strong and significant among all the areas and jobs to a rather similar degree (Tables 15, 16, 18). Regarding management practice for employee engagement, the prediction direct model places to new challenges for how to raise the bar of employee engagement and reduce the employee disengagement percentage to the organizational leaders. Leaders should adopt a strategy based on organizational culture motivation and trust as the main factors to achieve employee engagement. Leaders will have to act simultaneously and in parallel to nurture each of these three factors and especially the organizational culture which is the foundation of the employee engagement processes. Focusing on one factor will not probably break the glass ceiling of the low percentage of engaged employees. Regarding the academic research on employee engagement, the prediction direct model raises the need to examine the three independent variables as one construct and its influence on employee engagement.

6. Among the three types of cultures which influence employee engagement in a multinational corporation, the national, the organizational and the corporate, it is evident from the current research's findings and the author's experience, that the corporate culture has a stronger influence on achieving the corporations' business goals than the two other cultures (Tables 12, 13). While organizational culture is influenced by national culture, as is apparent from the research, the corporate culture developed to be valid under conditions of strong globalization, the most important culture factor is that which influences the achieving of business goals of the corporation. But the employees' behaviors, to a large degree, is indeed influenced by national culture and the organizational culture. Therefore, multinational corporations' management should insist that all their employee over the world will work according to the same corporation values and the same operational policies, work routines and operational procedures. However, they should take into their consideration that human interaction, the behaviors, beliefs, rituals, and basic assumptions, which

comprise the workers' culture, differs from country to country and to a large extent is influenced by the national culture. The choice of most managers in the corporation, in which the study was conducted, was to change and adopt the corporate culture. It was inevitable for them because of internal and external significant forces. On the internal level factories are competing with each other and the factories' managers are aware that the corporation's executive always has the option of transferring inefficient production lines from a factory in the country, which does not meet the required standards and targets, to a factory outside the country and this holds true for transferring production lines within the same country. On the external level the stringent control of the international regulators, , and the constant threat on the part of the regulator to close factories that do not meet international regulation standards constituted a significant catalyst and created the sense of urgency required for any change but primarily for cultural changes.

7. Overall this study may contribute to academic research by encouraging researchers to focus on new research directions of employee engagement. ; Research that emphasize, for example, the relationship between engagement and behaviors, and examines models that will strengthen the relationship between behaviors as independent variables and employee engagement as a dependent variable similar to the proactive personal responsibility model presented in this research, research which will examine the relationships between brain behavior and employee engagement. The challenge of creating employee engagement, in the sense of the investment of an individual's complete self into a role, and which provides a better comprehensive explanation of the relationship with performance, remains complex and open to further studies.

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## Appendix 1: Definitions and measures of employee engagement

Reference	Definition	Measure
<b>Personal Role Engagement</b>		
<b>Kahn (1990)</b>	The authentic expression of one's preferred self at work	n/a qualitative study
<b>May et al (2004)</b>	<p>'Engagement at work was conceptualized by Kahn (1990) as the "harnessing of organisational members' selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances"' (p. 12)</p> <p>The scale was also adapted by Shuck (2010) and Reio and Sanders-Reio (2011) - see below</p>	<p>Three sub-scales of one higher-order factor:</p> <p><b>Cognitive engagement:</b>            Performing my job is so absorbing I forget about everything else            I often think about other things when performing my job            I am rarely distracted when performing my job            Time passes quickly when I perform my job</p> <p><b>Emotional engagement:</b>            I really put my heart into my job            I get excited when I perform well on my job            I often feel emotionally detached from my job            My own feelings are affected by how well I perform my job</p> <p><b>Physical engagement:</b>            I exert a lot of energy performing my job            I stay until the job is done            I avoid working overtime whenever possible            I take work home to do            I avoid working too hard</p>
<b>Reio and Sanders-Reio (2011)</b>	'Engagement is being psychologically present when performing an organizational role. Engaged employees are more likely to have a positive orientation toward the organization, feel an	<p>Schuck's (2010) 16-item Workplace Engagement Scale, based on a modified version of May et al's (2004) 3 scale s of meaningfulness, safety and availability, including;</p> <p><b>Modified Meaningfulness Scale:</b>            The work I do on this job is very important to me.</p>

Reference	Definition	Measure
	emotional connection to it, and be productive' (p. 464; based on Kahn, 1990)	<p>My job activities are personally meaningful to me.  The work I do on this job is worthwhile.  My job activities are significant to me.  The work I do on this job is meaningful to me.  I feel that the work I do on this job is valuable.</p> <p><b>Modified Safety Scale</b>  I can be myself at work.  At work I can bring up problems and tough issues without fear of being teased or made fun of.  I feel physically safe at work.  At work, I know is expected of me every day.  Each day my work demands are consistent.</p> <p><b>Modified Availability Scale</b>  At work, I have the support I need to complete my job.  At work, I have the resources I need to complete my job.  I am mentally and emotionally absorbed in my job when I am working.  I have the skills and training I need to complete my work at the level that is expected of me.  If I do not have the resources to complete my work, I am confident my organization would help me get them.</p>
<b>Rich et al (2010)</b>	'Kahn noted that engagement is observed through the behavioural investment of personal physical, cognitive, and emotional energy into work roles (Kahn, 1992). Put simply, engagement involves investing the "hands, head and heart" (p. 619).	<p>Three sub-scales of one higher-order factor:  <b>Physical engagement:</b>  I work with intensity on my job  I exert my full effort to my job  I devote a lot of energy to my job  I try my hardest to perform well on my job</p>
Reference	Definition	Measure
		<p>I strive as hard as I can to complete my job  I exert a lot of energy on my job  <b>Emotional engagement:</b>  I am enthusiastic in my job  I feel energetic at my job  I am interested in my job  I am proud of my job  I feel positive about my job  I am excited about my job  <b>Cognitive engagement:</b>  At work, my mind is focused on my job  At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job  At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job  At work, I am absorbed by my job  At work, I concentrate on my job  At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job</p>
<b>Soane et al (2012)</b>	'Kahn (1990) presented engagement as a construct with three facets (physical, cognitive and emotional) that are activated simultaneously to create an engaged state.' (p. 531)	<p>ISA Engagement scale (Intellectual, Social Affective)  Three facets of one higher-order engagement factor:  <b>Intellectual engagement:</b>  I focus hard on my work  I concentrate on my work  I pay a lot of attention to my work  <b>Social engagement:</b>  I share the same work values as my colleagues  I share the same work goals as my colleagues  I share the same work attitudes as my colleagues  <b>Affective engagement:</b></p>

Reference	Definition	Measure
		I feel positive about my work I feel energetic in my work I am enthusiastic in my work
<b>Work Engagement</b>		
Schaufeli et al (2002)	'A positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption' (Schaufeli et al, 2002: 74)	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) 17-item version (there is also a shortened 9-item version and other versions comprising 15 or 16 items validated for use in other languages or adapted from other scales) Three facets that can operate independently or as part of one overall engagement factor: <b>Vigour</b> When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work At my work, I feel bursting with energy At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well I can continue working for very long periods at a time At my job, I am very resilient, mentally At my job, I feel strong and vigorous <b>Dedication</b> To me, my job is challenging My job inspires me I am enthusiastic about my job I am proud of the work that I do I find the work I do full of meaning and purpose <b>Absorption</b> When I am working, I forget everything else around me Time flies when I am working

Reference	Definition	Measure
		I get carried away when I am working It is difficult to detach myself from my job I am immersed in my work I feel happy when I am working intensely
<b>Multidimensional Engagement</b>		
Saks (2006)	'At the core of the model are two types of employee engagement: job and organisation engagements. This follows from the conceptualisation of engagement as role related ... that is, it reflects the extent to which an individual is psychologically present in a particular organisational role. The two most dominant roles for most organisational members are their work role and their role as a member of an organisation' (pp. 603-4).	<b>Job engagement:</b> I really 'throw' myself into my job Sometimes I am so into my job that I lose track of time This job is all consuming, I am totally into it My mind often wanders, and I think of other things when doing my job (r – i.e. reversed coding) I am highly engaged in this job <b>Organisation engagement:</b> Being a member of this organisation is very captivating One of the most exciting things for me is getting involved with things happening in this organisation I am really not into the 'goings on' in this organisation (r) Being a member of this organisation makes me come 'alive' Being a member of this organisation is exhilarating for me I am highly engaged in this organisation
Selmer et al (2013)	'Engagement can be defined as a positive, fulfilling yet pervasive and persistent cognitive state of mind'. Engagement was examined at the work group level (p. 97)	Three facets combined into one overall 14-item scale: <b>Behavioural engagement:</b> a five-item scale adapted after Mor-Barak, Cherin and Berkman's (1998) measure of work group involvement.

Reference	Definition	Measure
		<p><b>Cognitive engagement:</b> a six-item scale adapted after a scale on group success by Martins et al (2003), sample item: 'Everything this department does turnout well'.</p> <p><b>Emotional engagement:</b> a three-item scale measuring satisfaction adapted after Martins et al (2003), sample item: 'I am very satisfied with the way I am treated by my colleagues'.</p>
<b>Engagement as a Composite</b>		
Swanberg et al (2011)	'Work engagement is a positive work-related psychological "state of fulfilment" that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption' (p. 614)	<p>Three facets combined into one overall eight-item measure:</p> <p><b>Cognitive:</b> sample item 'It would take a lot to get me to leave CitiSales'; 'I would like to be working for CitiSales one year from now', and 'Compared with other companies I know about, I think CitiSales is a great place to work;'</p> <p><b>Emotional:</b> 'I really care about the future of CitiSales,' 'I feel like I am an important part of CitiSales' success'</p> <p><b>Behavioural:</b> 'I would highly recommend CitiSales to a friend seeking employment', and 'I am always willing to give extra effort to help CitiSales succeed.'</p>
<b>Engagement as Management Practice</b>		
Arrowsmith and Parker (2013)	Unitarist HR perspectives with an emphasis on acknowledgement and representation of employee interests	Qualitative study of HRM practices
Reference	Definition	Measure
Jenkins and Delbridge (2013)	'Soft' engagement: a focus on promoting positive workplace conditions and relationships between managers and employees. 'Hard' engagement: a focus on increasing employee productivity through engagement	Qualitative study of employee engagement strategies
Reissner and Pagan (2013)	Employee engagement with the organisation, in relationship with employee engagement and communication strategies.	Qualitative study of communication strategies
<b>Self-engagement with Performance</b>		
Britt et al (2005)	'The construct of self-engagement was derived from the Triangle Model of Responsibility ... and is defined as individuals feeling a sense of responsibility for and commitment to a performance domain so that performance "matters" to the individual.' (p. 1476)	<p>A four-item scale capturing the extent of responsibility and commitment the individual feels for his or her job performance and how much job performance matters:</p> <p><b>Responsibility:</b> I feel responsible for my job performance I am committed to my job</p> <p><b>Importance:</b> How well I do in my job matters a great deal to me How I do in my job influences how I feel</p>

Source: The Meaning, Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Engagement: Bailey et al., 2017a; A Narrative Synthesis. Willy online library\jmr12077-sup-0001-text.doc.1,011.5KB

## Appendix 2: The questionnaire

	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. My company quality standards and procedures are clear and comprehensive to me				
2. I understand the reasons behind my company quality standards				
3. My managers have taken time to explain relevant quality standards and procedures to their employees				
4. I always work according to the written quality standards and procedures				
5. My team colleagues always work according to the quality standards and procedures				
6. My managers always work according to the written quality standards and procedures				
7. I feel free to bring up quality problems to my manager				
8. <u>My direct</u> manager listens to my ideas and suggestions of how to improve quality				
9. Many or some of my ideas and suggestions of how to improve quality are valued or even used by my managers				
10. My direct manager encourages me to implement the quality standards and procedures in my daily work				
11. My managers value the importance to the subject of quality				
12. My managers set an example for following the company's quality standards				
13. Whenever I see any quality deviation, I will report it				

14. I feel free to report to my direct manager about quality deviations				
15. My direct manager is willing to listen to my reports about any quality deviations				
16. My direct manager encourages me to report any quality deviations				
17. My team is able to learn from their quality related mistakes and not to repeat them				
18. Employees at my site regularly share and exchange ideas, information and knowledge,				
19. The communication between me and my team colleagues is efficient, and it helps me to do my job better				
20. The communication between me and my direct manager is efficient, it helps me to do my job better				
21. My direct manager listens to my opinions and ideas				
22. The information I get from my manager is mostly or always fully clear and timely				
23. I am included in the decision-making process relevant to my work				
24. I know my company goals and objectives				

25. I understand the connection between my job and my company success				
26. I am proud to work at my company				
27. I would recommend my friends to work at my company				
28. I believe my company is a good place to work				
29. I feel my work is appreciated by my managers				
30. My managers praise me for good work				
31. My managers treat me with fairness and respect				
32. My managers exhibit leadership skills				
33. My company management sets high standards of excellence				
34. My company provides its customers with quality products				
35. I think that my company is perceived as a quality company by its customers				
36. My company customers are satisfied with the company's products				

37: Please mark your unit:

- 1) Quality
- 2) Production
- 3) Packaging
- 4) Engineering
- 5) Warehouse
- 6) Other (HR, Finance, Commercial, Admin, Technology Transfer and etc..)

38: Please mark your region

- 1) Asia
- 2) North America
- 3) Europe
- 4) Middle East

39: Are you currently?

- 1) Manager of department
- 2) Section Head/Manager
- 3) Senior Executive/Executive/Senior officer/Officer/Supervisor
- 4) Operator

Source: Own research

**Appendix 3: The questionnaire divided to variables , types , topics, and inspirational sources**

**v**

<b>Motivation</b>				
<b>No. of question in the questionnaire</b>	<b>The question</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Topic</b>	<b>Inspired by</b>
1	My company quality standards and procedures are clear and comprehensive to me	Intrinsic	Clarity Meaning	Ryan (2011) Spreitzer (1995) Amabile et al. (1994) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
2	I understand the reasons behind my company quality standards	Intrinsic	Meaningfulness	Spreitzer (1995) Amabile et al. (1994)
8	My direct manager listens to my ideas and suggestions of how to improve	Extrinsic	Impact Open communication	Spreitzer (1995) Rogers (1987) Amabile et al. (1994) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)



	quality			
9	Many or some of my ideas and suggestions of how to improve quality are valued or even used by my managers	Intrinsic	Impact Recognition	Spreitzer (1995) Amabile et al.(1994) Ryan (2014) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
18	. Employees at my site regularly share and exchange ideas, information and knowledge	Intrinsic	Sharing information Learning organization Open communication	Rogers (1987) Marsick & Watkins (2003)
19	The communication between me and my team colleagues is efficient, and it helps me to do my job better	Intrinsic	Open communication Learning organization	Rogers (1987) Marsick & Watkins (2003)
20	The communication between me and my direct manager is efficient, it helps me to do my job better	Intrinsic	Open communication Learning organization	Rogers (1987) Marsick & Watkins (2003)

22	The information I get from my manager is mostly or always fully clear and timely	Intrinsic	Learning organization	Marsick & Watkins (2003)
23	I am included in the decision-making process relevant to my work	Intrinsic	Involvement Impact	Denison (2006) Spreitzer (1995) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
29	I feel my work is appreciated by my managers	Intrinsic	Appreciation Benevolence Impact	Ryan (2014) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017))
30	My managers praise me for good work	Extrinsic	Acknowledgment Learning organization	Ryan (2014 Marsick & Watkins (2003 Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
31	My managers treat me with fairness and respect	Extrinsic	Ethical behavior	Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017) Mayer& Davis (1999)
<b>Trust</b>		Type	Topic	Inspired by
3	My managers have taken time to explain relevant quality	Between an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers (Dietz & Hartog,2006)	Benevolence	Tzafrir &Donald (2004)

	standards and procedures to their employees			
7	I feel free to bring up quality problems to my manager	Between an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers ((Dietz & Hartog,2006)	Benevolence Competence Integrity Effective communication	McAllister (1995) Gillespie (2003) Tzafrir &Donald (2004)
10	My direct manager encourages me to implement the quality standards and procedures in my daily work	Between an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers ((Dietz & Hartog,2006)	Benevolence Empowerment	Tzafrir &Donald (2004) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
12	My managers set an example for following the company's quality standards	Between an employer/ employee and her/his immediate manager or managers ((Dietz & Hartog,2006)	Manager's integrity Competence	Ma Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017) Mayer & Davis (1999)
14	I feel free to report to my direct manager about quality deviations	Between an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers ((Dietz & Hartog,2006)	Openness communication Fearless culture	McAllister (1995)
15	My direct manager is willing to listen	Between an employee and her/his immediate	Benevolence Open communication	Marsic & Watkins (2003)

	to my reports about any quality deviations	manager or managers ((Dietz & Hartog,2006	Learning organization	
16	My direct manager encourages me to report any quality deviations	Between an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers (Dietz & Hartog ,2006)	Empowerment Benevolence	Detert (2003)
21	My direct manager listens to my opinions and ideas	Between an employee and her/his immediate manager or managers (Dietz & Hartog, 2006)	Open communication Learning organization Empowerment	Marsic & Watkins (2003) Rogers (1987)
32	My managers exhibit leadership skills	Multiple relationships throughout the organization (Dietz & Hartog, 2006)	Leadership Competence	McAllister (1995) Gillespie (2003) Tzafrir &Donald (2004)
<b>Organization culture</b>		Type	Topic	Inspired by
5	My team colleagues always work according to the quality standards and procedures	Passive defensive culture (Cook & Lafferty,1989, as cited in Cook & Szuma,2013)  Results achievement and	Shared core values  Achievement winning Idealism and	Denison et al.2006. Cook & Lafferty,1989, as cited in Cook & Szuma,2013).  Groyberg et al.2018 Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)

		purpose driven	altruism	
6	My managers always work according to the written quality standards and procedures	Passive defensive culture (Cook & Lafferty,1989, as cited in Cook & Szuma, 2013)  Order. Rule abiding, respectful, comparative	Manager's integrity  Respect, structure shared norms	; Denison et al.2006 Cook & Lafferty,1989, as cited in Cook & Szumal,2013.  Groysberg et al.2018 Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
11	My managers value the importance to the subject of quality	Order. Rule abiding, respectful, comparative. Purpose driven	Manager's integrity  Idealism and altruism	Groysberg et al.2018 Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
17	My team is able to learn from their quality related mistakes and not to repeat them	Learning organization	Learning from mistakes	Marsick & Watkins,2003.
33	My company management sets high standards of excellence	purpose driven, idealistic, tolerant	Leadership Shared ideas and contributing to a greater cause	Groysberg et al.2018
<b>Engagement</b>		Type	Topic	Inspired by
4	I always	Self-	Vigor	Britt, et al,2005.

	work according to the written quality standards and procedures	engagement with Performance (Bailey et al,2017)	Responsibility	Denison & Neal (1999)
13	Whenever I see any quality deviation, I will report it	Self-engagement with Performance (Bailey et al,2017)	Integrity	Britt, et al,2005
24	I know my company goals and objectives	<b>Multidimensional Engagement</b> Job engagement (Bailey et al,2017)	meaningfulness	Saks (2006)  Denison & Neal (1999) Gallup'sq12(Gallup,2017)
25	I understand the connection between my job and my company success	<b>Multidimensionnel Engagement</b> Organisationnel engagement (Bailey et al,2017)	Meaningfulness	Saks (2006) Denison & Neal (1999)
26	I am proud to work at my company	Work Employee engagement (Bailey et al,2017)	Dedication	Schaufeli et al (2002)
27	I would recommend my friends to work at my	Engagement as a Composite (Bailey et al,2017)	Pride Job satisfaction Behavioral engagement	Swanberg et al.2011

	company			
28	I believe my company is a good place to work	Engagement as a Composite (Bailey et al,2017)	Pride Cognitive engagement Job satisfaction	Swanberg et al.2011
34	My company provides its customers with quality products	<b>Multidimensionnel Engagement</b> Organisationnel engagement (Bailey et al,2017)	Pride Dedication	Saks (2006)
35	I think that my company is perceived as a quality company by its customers	<b>Multidimensionnel Engagement</b> Organizational engagement (Bailey et al,2017)	Pride Dedication Customer focus	Sax (2006) Denison & Neal (1999)
36	My company customers are satisfied with the company's products	<b>Multidimensionnel Engagement</b> Organizational engagement (Bailey et al,2017)	Pride Customer focus	Denison et al.2006 Sax (2006)

S Source: Own research

## Appendix 4: learning organization questionnaire

### Dimensions of the learning organization questionnaire

Almost never Almost always

1 2 3 4 5 6

individual Level

- 1 .In my organization, people openly discuss mistakes in order to learn from them.
- 2 .In my organization, people identify skills they need for future work tasks.
- 3 .In my organization, people help each other learn.
- 4.In my organization, people can get money and other resources to support them learning.
- 5 .In my organization, people are given time to support learning.
- 6 .In my organization, people view problems in their work as an opportunity to learn
- 7.In my organization, people are rewarded for learning.
- 8 .In my organization, people give open and honest feedback to each other.
- 9 .In my organization, people listen to others' views before speaking.
10. In my organization, people are encouraged to ask "why" regardless of rank.
- 11 .In my organization, whenever people state their view, they also ask what others think.
12. In my organization people treat each other with respect.
13. In my organization, people spend time building trust with each other.

Team or Group Level

- 14 .In my organization, teams/groups have the freedom to adapt their goals as needed.
- 15.In my organization, teams/groups treat members as equals, regardless of rank, culture, or other differences.
- 16 .In my organization, teams/groups focus both on the group's task and on how well the group is working.
- 17 .In my organization, teams/groups revise their thinking because of group discussions or information collected.
- 18 .In my organization, teams/groups are rewarded for their achievements as a team/group.
19. In my organization, teams/groups are confident that the organization will act on their recommendations

Organizational Level



20 .My organization uses two-way communication on a regular basis, such a suggestion system, electronic bulletin boards, or town hall/open meetings.

21 .My organization enables people to get needed information at any time quickly and easily.

22 .My organization maintains an up-to-date data base of employee skills.

23 .My organization creates systems to measure gaps between current and expected performance.

24 .My organization makes its lessons learned available to all employees.

25 .My organization measures the results of the time and resources spent on training.

26 .My organization recognizes people for taking initiative.

27. My organization gives people choices in their work assignments. 28. My organization invites people to contribute to the organization's vision.

29 .My organization gives people control over the resources they need to accomplish their work.

30 .My organization supports employees who take calculated risks.

31.. My organization builds alignment of visions across different levels and work groups.

32 .My organization helps employees balance work and family.

33. My organization encourages people to think from a global perspective.

34 .My organization encourages everyone to bring the customers' views into the decision-making process.

35 .My organization considers the impact of decisions on employee morale.

36 .My organization works together with the outside community to meet mutual needs.

37. My organization encourages people to get answers from across die organization when solving problems.

38 .In my organization, leaders generally support requests for learning opportunities and training.

39 .In my organization, leaders share up to date information with employees about competitors, industry trends, and organizational directions.

40 .In my organization, leaders empower others to help carry out the organization's vision.

41 .In my organization, leaders' mentor, and coach those they lead.

42. In my organization, leaders continually look for opportunities to learn.

43. In my organization, leaders ensure that the organization's actions are consistent with its values

Source: Marsick & Watkins. (2003).

## Appendix 5: Communication Openness Measure (COM)

Likert survey with answers on a scale of 5:

- a. strongly agree
  - b. agree
  - c. neither agree or disagree
  - d. disagree
  - e. strongly disagree
1. In this organization, supervisors ask for suggestions.
  2. In this organization, supervisors act on criticism.
  3. In this organization, supervisors listen to complaints.
  4. In this organization, people ask supervisors' opinions.
  5. In this organization, supervisor's follow-up on people's opinions
  6. In this organization, supervisors suggest new ideas.
  7. In this organization, people ask co-workers for suggestions.
  8. In this organization, supervisors listen to bad news.
  9. In this organization, people listen to new ideas from co-workers.
  10. In this organization, supervisors listen to new ideas.
  11. In this organization, supervisors follow up on suggestions
  12. In this organization, supervisors ask for personal opinions.
  13. In this organization, people listen to supervisors' suggestions

Source: Rogers, D. (1987).

## Appendix 6: Self-engagement with Performance

Definition	Measure
<p>'The construct of self-engagement was derived from the Triangle Model of Responsibility ... and is defined as individuals feeling a sense of responsibility for and commitment to a performance domain so that performance "matters" to the individual.' (p. 1476)</p>	<p>A four-item scale capturing the extent of responsibility and commitment the individual feels for his or her job performance and how much job performance matters:</p> <p><b>Responsibility:</b></p> <p>I feel responsible for my job performance</p> <p>I am committed to my job</p> <p><b>Importance:</b></p>

	<p>How well I do in my job matters a great deal to me</p> <p>How I do in my job influences how I feel</p>
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Source : Britt et al., 2005).

### Appendix 7 : Multidimensionnel Engagement

Definition	Measure
<p>'At the core of the model are two types of employee engagement: job and organisation engagement. This follows from the conceptualisation of employee engagements role related ... that is, it reflects the extent to which an individual is psychologically present in a organisational role. The two most dominant roles for most organisational members are their work role and their role as a member of an organisation' (pp. 603-4).</p>	<p><b>Job engagement:</b></p> <p>I really 'throw' myself into my job</p> <p>Sometimes I am so into my job that I lose track of time</p> <p>This job is all consuming, I am totally into it</p> <p>My mind often wanders, and I think of other things when doing my job (r – i.e. reversed coding)</p> <p>I am highly engaged in this job</p> <p><b>Organisation engagement:</b></p> <p>Being a member of this organisation is very captivating</p> <p>One of the most exciting things for me is getting involved with things happening in this organisation</p> <p>I am really not into the 'goings on' in this organisation (r)</p> <p>Being a member of this organisation makes me come 'alive'</p> <p>Being a member of this organisation is exhilarating for me</p> <p>I am highly engaged in this organisation</p>

Source: Saks (2006).

## Appendix 8: organizational culture survey

Trait	Index	Item
Involvement	Empowerment	<p>1. Most employees are highly involved in their work.</p> <p>2. Decisions are usually made at the level where the best information is available.</p> <p>3. Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when it's needed.</p> <p>4. Everyone believes that he or she can have a positive impact.</p> <p>5. Business planning is ongoing and involves everyone in the process to some degree.</p>
	Team Orientation	<p>6. Cooperation across different parts of the organization is actively encouraged.</p> <p>7. People work like they are part of a team.</p> <p>8. Teamwork is used to get work done, rather than hierarchy.</p> <p>9. Teams are our primary building blocks.</p> <p>10. Work is organized so that each person can see the relationship between his or her job and the goals of the organization.</p>
	Capability Development	<p>11. Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own.</p> <p>12. The "bench strength" (capability of people) is constantly improving.</p> <p>13. There is continuous investment in the skills of employees.</p> <p>14. The capabilities of people are viewed as an important source of competitive advantage.</p> <p>15. Problems often arise because we do not have the skills necessary to do the job. (Reversed Scale)</p>

Consistency	Core Values	<p>16. The leaders and managers "practice what they preach".</p> <p>17. There is a characteristic management style and a distinct set of management practices.</p> <p>18. There is a clear and consistent set of values that governs the way we do business.</p> <p>19. Ignoring core values will get you in trouble.</p> <p>20. There is an ethical code that guides our behavior and tells us right from wrong.</p>
	Agreement	<p>21. When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve "win-win" solutions.</p> <p>22. There is a "strong" culture.</p> <p>23. It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues.</p> <p>24. We often have trouble reaching agreement on key issues. (Reversed Scale)</p> <p>25. There is a clear agreement about the right way and the wrong way to do things.</p>
	Coordination and Integration	<p>26. Our approach to doing business is very consistent and predictable.</p> <p>27. People from different parts of the organization share a common perspective.</p> <p>28. It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the organization.</p> <p>29. Working with someone from another part of this organization is like working with someone from a different organization. (Reversed Scale)</p> <p>30. There is good alignment of goals across levels.</p>

Adaptability	Creating Change	<p>31. The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change.</p> <p>32. We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment.</p> <p>33. New and improved ways to do work are continually adopted.</p> <p>34. Attempts to create change usually meet with resistance. (Reversed Scale)</p> <p>35. Different parts of the organization often cooperate to create change.</p>
	Customer Focus	<p>36. Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes.</p> <p>37. Customer input directly influences our decisions.</p> <p>38. All members have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs.</p> <p>39. The interests of the customer often get ignored in our decisions. (Reversed Scale)</p> <p>40. We encourage direct contact with customers by our people.</p>
	Organizational Learning	<p>41. We view failure as an opportunity for learning and improvement.</p> <p>42. Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded.</p> <p>43. Lots of things "fall between the cracks". (Reversed Scale)</p> <p>44. Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work.</p> <p>45. We make certain that the "right hand knows what the left hand is doing".</p>

Mission	Strategic Direction & Intent	46. There is a long-term purpose and direction. 47. Our strategy leads other organizations to change the way they compete in the industry. 48. There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work. 49. There is a clear strategy for the future. 50. Our strategic direction is unclear to me. (Reversed Scale)
	Goals & Objectives	51. There is widespread agreement about goals. 52. Leaders set goals that are ambitious, but realistic. 53. The leadership has "gone on record" about the objectives we are trying to meet. 54. We continuously track our progress against our stated goals. 55. People understand what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run.
	Vision	56. We have a shared vision of what the organization will be like in the future 57. Leaders have a long-term viewpoint. 58. Short-term thinking often compromises our long-term vision. (Reversed Scale) 59. Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees. 60. We are able to meet short-term demands without compromising our long-term vision.

Source: Denison et al., (2006).

### Appendix 9 : Engagement as a Composite

Definition	Measure
<p>‘Work engagement is a positive work-related psychological “state of fulfilment” that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption’ (p. 614)</p>	<p>Three facets combined into one overall eight-item measure:</p> <p>Cognitive: sample item ‘It would take a lot to get me to leave Citi Sales’; ‘I would like to be working for Citi Sales one year from now’, and ‘Compared with other companies I know about, I think Citi Sales is a great place to work;’</p> <p>Emotional: ‘I really care about the future of Citi Sales,’ ‘I feel like I am an important part of Citi Sales' success’</p> <p>Behavioural: ‘I would highly recommend Citi Sales to a friend seeking employment’, and ‘I am always willing to give extra effort to help Citi Sales succeed.’</p>

Source : Swanberg et al (2011).

### Appendix10 : Work Engagement

Definition	Measure
<p>‘A positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption’ (Schaufeli et al, 2002: 74)</p>	<p>Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) 17-item version (there is also a shortened 9-item version and other versions comprising 15 or 16 items validated for use in other languages or adapted from other scales)</p>

	<p>Three facets that can operate independently or as part of one overall engagement factor:</p> <p><b>Vigour</b></p> <p>When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work</p> <p>At my work, I feel bursting with energy</p> <p>At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well</p> <p>I can continue working for very long periods at a time</p> <p>At my job, I am very resilient, mentally</p> <p>At my job, I feel strong and vigorous</p> <p><b>Dedication</b></p> <p>To me, my job is challenging</p> <p>My job inspires me</p> <p>I am enthusiastic about my job</p> <p>I am proud of the work that I do</p> <p>I find the work I do full of meaning and purpose</p> <p><b>Absorption</b></p> <p>When I am working, I forget everything else around me</p> <p>Time flies when I am working</p> <p>I get carried away when I am working</p> <p>It is difficult to detach myself from my job</p> <p>I am immersed in my work</p> <p>I feel happy when I am working intensely</p>
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Source : Schuélai et al (2002).

### **Appendix 11 : Gallups q12 engagement mesurément**

**The Q12 is a formative measure of “engagement conditions,” each of which is a contributor to engagement through the measure of its causes.**

Overall Satisfaction—On a five-point scale, where “5” is extremely satisfied and “1” is extremely dissatisfied, how satisfied are you with (Name of Company) as a place to work?

1. I know what is expected of me at work.

2. I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right.
3. At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day.
4. In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work.
5. My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person.
6. There is someone at work who encourages my development.
7. At work, my opinions seem to count.
8. The mission/purpose of my company makes me feel my job is important.
9. My associates (fellow employees) are committed to doing quality work. 10. I have a best friend at work.
11. In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress.
12. This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow

Source: Harter et al., 2016

## **Appendix 12: Measuring empowerment**

### **Meaning**

The work I do is very important to me (meaning 1).

My job activities are personally meaningful to me (meaning 2).

The work I do is meaningful to me (meaning 3).

### **Competence**

I am confident about my ability to do my job (competence 1).

I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities (competence 2).

I have mastered the skills necessary for my job (competence 3).

### **Self-Determination**

I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job (self-determination 1),

I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work (self-determination 2).

I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job (self-determination 3).

### **Impact**

My impact on what happens in my department is large (impact 1).

I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (impact 2).

I have significant influence over what happens in my department (impact 3).

Source: Spreitzer, G.M. (1995)

### Appendix 13: Preference inventory (WPI)

Please read each item and indicate how true this item is of you and your thinking		Never or almost never true	Sometimes true	Often true	Always or almost always true
1	I am not that concerned about what other people think of my work				
2	I prefer having someone set the goal for me in my work				
3	The more difficult the problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it				
4	I am keenly aware of the income goals I have for myself				
5	I want my work to provide me with opportunities for increasing my knowledge and skills				
6	To me, success means doing better than other people				
7	I prefer to figure things out for myself				
8	No matter what the outcome of the project, I am satisfied if I feel I gained a new experience				
9	I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks				
10	I am keenly aware of the promotion goals I have for myself				
11	Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do				
12	I am less concerned with what work I do than what I get for it				
13	I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me				
14	I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities				
15	I'm concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas				
16	I seldom think about salary and promotions				
17	I am more comfortable when I can set my own goals				
18	I believe there is no point in doing a good job if nobody else knows about it				

Source: Amabile et al. (1994).



## Appendix 14: Measure of Mutational Sources Instrument (MMS) Response Categories:

### Questions

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Neutral	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. The best aspects of any job are the financial rewards and associated financial benefits.
2. I only work for the financial reward that it provides me.
3. I really only work for the money.
4. If choosing between jobs, the most important criterion is "which one pays the most?"
5. I would readily leave any job if I were offered an alternative that pays more.
6. People should always be on the lookout for better-paid jobs
7. When I have done a good job it is important to me that my contribution is recognized by others.
8. I work harder when I know others are evaluating my work
9. It is important to me that my colleagues should approve of my work behavior.
10. I give my best effort when I know that it will be seen by the most influential people in the organization.
11. I work harder on a project if public recognition is attached to it
12. I often make decisions based on what others will think.
13. If something is not enjoyable, then it is not worth doing.
14. I would rate "enjoyment" very highly among reasons why someone should do a job
15. If choosing between two jobs, the most important criterion is "which would be more enjoyable"?
16. I would only do a job if I found it enjoyable
17. It is important that the work I do gives me a sense of enjoyment.
18. I think being able to enjoy your work is more important than anything else

19. It is important that I work in a job that allows me to use my skills and talents
20. I like to do work that challenges me and gives me a sense of personal achievement
21. Decisions I make reflect the high standards that I set for myself.
22. It is important that I work in a job that allows me to realize my potential.
23. I get personal satisfaction from doing a job well.
24. I try to make sure that my decisions are consistent with my personal beliefs and standards of behavior.
25. It is important to me that the goals of the organization I work for are congruent with my personal goals
26. I would find it very difficult to work for a company if I did not agree with its missions and goals
27. An organization's mission needs to agree with my values for me to work hard.
28. When choosing an organization to work for, I look for one that supports my beliefs and values

Source: Ryan (2011).

## **Appendix 15: Groysberg Culture Survey**

How to use the survey.

1. Partner with a colleague and independently rate each statement according to how well he describes your organization.
2. Add two ratings in each row and then rank the eight styles.
3. The higher the total the stronger the match.
4. Compare your ranking with your colleagues and discuss the following questions
  - a. What do you like most about the current culture?
  - b. What behaviors and mindsets might you evolve?
  - c. How effective are your organization's leaders at role modeling the culture?
  - d. What are the characteristics of people who are most successful in your culture?
  - e. When your people don't succeed in your culture. What is the most common reason?

On a scale of 1–5, rate how well each of these statements describes your organization. 1 = not at all well 2 = not very well 3 = somewhat well 4 = very well 5 = extremely well

THE ORGANIZATION IS FOCUSED ON	THE ORGANIZATION FEELS LIKE:	TOTAL
COLLABORATION AND MUTUAL TRUST	A BIG FAMILY	Caring
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	
COMPASSION AND TOLERANCE	And idealistic community or cause	Purpose
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	
EXPLORATION AND CREATIVITY	A dynamic project	Learning
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	
FUN AND EXCITEMENT	A celebration	Enjoyment
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	
ACHIEVEMENT AND WINNING	a meritocracy	Results
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	
STRENGTH AND BOLDNESS	a competitive arena	Authority
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	
PLANNING AND CAUTION	A meticulously planned operation	Safety
5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1	
STRUCTURE AND STABILITY	A smoothly running machine	Order
1 2 3 4 5	5 4 3 2 1	

Source: Groysberg et al., (2018).

## Appendix 16: Descriptions of the Behavioral Norms Measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory

### Constructive Cultures

**Achievement norms (11):** Members are expected to set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach those goals, and pursue them with enthusiasm

**Self-Actualizing norms (12):** Members are expected to enjoy their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting tasks.

**Humanistic-Encouraging norms (1):** Members are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in their dealings with one another

**Affiliative norms (2):** Members are expected to be friendly, cooperative, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group

**Passive/Defensive Cultures**

**Approval norms (3):** Members are expected to agree with, gain the approval of and be liked by others.

**Conventional norms (4):** Members are expected to conform, follow the rules and make a good impression.

**Dependent norms (5):** Members are expected to do what they're told and clear all decisions with superiors.

**Avoidance norms (6):** Members are expected to shift responsibilities to others and avoid any possibility of being blamed for a problem.

**Aggressive/Defensive cultures**

**Oppositional norms (7):** Members are expected to be critical, oppose ideas of others and make safe (but ineffectual) decisions.

**Power norms (8):** Members are expected to take charge, control subordinates, and yield to the demands of superiors.

**Competitive norms (9):** Members are expected to operate in a "wi- lose"framework, out perform others, and work against (rather than with) their peers.

**Perfectionistic norms (10):** Members are expected to appear competent, keep track of everything, and work long hours to attain narrowly defined objectives

Source: Cook & Laferty quoted in Cooke & Szumal (2013).

**Appendix 17: Types of trust measurement- Gillespie**

- items:	Trust element
“How willing are you to...”	
1. ... rely on your leader’s work-related judgements?	Competence/ Predictability
2. ... rely on your leader’s task-related skills and abilities?	Competence/ Predictability
3. ... depend on your leader to handle an important issue on your behalf?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Predictability
4. ... rely on your leader to represent your work accurately to others?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Predictability

5. ... depend on your leader to back you up in difficult situations?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Predictability
6. ... share your personal feelings with your leader?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Integrity
7. ... confide in your leader about personal issues that are affecting your work?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Integrity
8. ... discuss honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustration?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Integrity
9. ... discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage you?	Benevolence/ Competence/ Integrity
10. ... share your personal beliefs with your leader	benevolence

Source: Gillespie (2003).

## Appendix 18: Measures of Trust, Trustworthiness and Performance appraisal perceptions

### Measures of Trust, Trustworthiness, and Performance Appraisal Perceptions

The following instructions prefaced the scales. The anchors shown below were consistent throughout. Headings of construct names are for clarity of exposition, and were not included in the surveys.

Indicate the degree to which you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree strongly

Think about [company name]'s top management team [names listed in parentheses for clarity]. For each statement, write the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

#### Ability

Top management is very capable of performing its job.  
 Top management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.  
 Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.  
 I feel very confident about top management's skills.  
 Top management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.  
 Top management is well qualified.

#### Benevolence

Top management is very concerned about my welfare.  
 My needs and desires are very important to top management.  
 Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.  
 Top management really looks out for what is important to me.  
 Top management will go out of its way to help me.

#### Integrity

Top management has a strong sense of justice.  
 I never have to wonder whether top management will stick to its word.  
 Top management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.  
 Top management's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.\*  
 I like top management's values.  
 Sound principles seem to guide top management's behavior.

#### Propensity

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.

#### Trust

If I had my way, I wouldn't let top management have any influence over issues that are important to me.\*  
 I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company.  
 I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management.\*  
 I would be comfortable giving top management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.

Think about the performance review system at [company name], and answer the following questions.

#### Accuracy

The evaluation of what skills I have is pretty accurate.  
 How much work I get done is important to my performance review.  
 How many mistakes I make in my work is important to my performance review.  
 Whether or not my supervisor likes me is important to my performance review.\*  
 How much effort I put into my job is important to my performance review.  
 How many "extra" things I do is important to my performance review.  
 Finding ways for the company to save money is important to my performance review.  
 Coming up with good ideas for the company improves my performance review.

#### Outcome instrumentality

Whether or not I get a raise depends on my performance.  
 If you are one of the better performers in this company, you will get one of the better raises.  
 If I perform well, my chances of moving up are improved.  
 \*-Reverse-scored item.

Received February 27, 1997  
 Revision received June 15, 1998  
 Accepted June 16, 1998

Source; Maye&Davis(1999).

### Appendix 19: Types of Trust measurement

Items	Trust content
11. We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings and hopes.	Benevolence
2.I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen.	Benevolence
11. We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together	?
.4 .If I shared my problems with this person, I know that (s)he would respond constructively and caringly.	Benevolence
5.I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship	?
6. This person approaches her/ his job with professionalism and dedication.	Competence
7 .Given this person’s track record, I see no reason to doubt her/his competence and preparation for the job.	Competence
8 .I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work.	Predictability/ Competence
9 .Most people, even those who aren’t close friends of this individual, trust and respect her/him as a co-worker.	General

10 .Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider her/him to be trustworthy.	General
11 .If people knew more about this individual and her/his background, they would be more concerned and monitor her/his performance more closely.	Integrity

Source: McAllister (1995).

### Appendix 20: Types of trust measurement- Zafri & Dolan

Items	Trust element
1.Managers'/ employees' needs and desires are very important to employees/ managers	Benevolence
2. I can count on my employees/ managers to help me if I have difficulties with my job.	Benevolence
3.Employees/ managers would not knowingly do anything to hurt the organization.	Benevolence
4. My employees/ managers are open and upfront with me.	Integrity
5. I think that the people in the organization succeed by stepping on other people.	Integrity
6.Employees/ managers will keep the promises they make	. Integrity/ Predictability
7.Employees/ managers really look out for what is important to the managers/ employees.	Benevolence
8.Employees/ managers have a lot of	Competence



knowledge about the work that needs to be done.	
9 Employees/ managers are known to be successful in the things they attempt to accomplish.	Competence
10. If I make a mistake, my employees/ managers are willing to 'forgive and forget'.	Benevolence/ Integrity
11. Employees'/ managers' actions and behaviors are not consistent.	Predictability
12. Employees/ managers take actions that are consistent with their words.	Integrity/ Predictability
13. It is best not to share information with my employees/ managers.	Benevolence/ Integrity
14. There is a lot of warmth in the relationships between the managers and workers in this organization.	Benevolence
15. Employees/ managers would make personal sacrifices for our group. Benevolence 16. Employees/ managers express their true feelings about important issues.	Integrity/ Predictability

Zafri & Dolan (2004).

### Appendix 21: The six dimensions of the national cultures analyzed in the research

The dimension	The state, scores and meaning	The state, scores and meaning	The state, scores and meaning	The state, scores and meaning	The state, scores and meaning	The state, scores and meaning
Power distance	India (77) Appreciation for hierarchy	Canada (North America (39) interdependenc	US (40) interdependence	Israel (13). Israel is at the very low end of	Hungary (46) independent Hierarchy for	Romania (90) scores: People

	<p>Top-down structure in society</p> <p>And organizations</p>	<p>e Egalitarianism.</p> <p>Lack of overt status and/or class distinctions in society.</p> <p>hierarchy in Canadian organizations is established for convenience.</p> <p>Superiors are always accessible</p> <p>Managers rely on individual employees and teams for their expertise.</p> <p>share information freely.</p> <p>Canadians value a straightforward exchange of information.</p>	<p>Egalitarianism.</p> <p>Lack of overt status and/or class distinctions in society</p>	<p>this dimension compared to other countries.</p> <p>With an egalitarian mindset the Israelis believe in;</p> <p>Independence ,</p> <p>Equal rights,</p> <p>Accessible superiors and that management facilitates and empowers.</p> <p>Power is decentralized</p> <p>Managers count on the experience of their team members</p>	<p>convenience only.</p> <p>Equal rights.</p> <p>Superiors accessible.</p> <p>Coaching leader.</p> <p>Management facilitates and empowers.</p> <p>Power is decentralized and managers count on the experience of their team members.</p> <p>Employees expect to be consulted.</p> <p>Control is disliked and Attitudes towards managers are informal and on first name basis.</p> <p>Communication is direct and participative.</p>	<p>accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification.</p> <p>Hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities.</p> <p>Centralization is popular.</p> <p>Subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat</p>
Individualism vs Collectivism	<p>India (48)</p> <p>A society with both collectivistic and Individualist traits.</p> <p>The</p>	<p>Canada (80)</p> <p>Characterized as an Individualist culture. Like its American neighbor to the south, this translates into a loosely knit society</p>	<p>US (91)</p> <p>one of the most Individualist cultures in the world reflects itself in the following:</p>	<p>Israel (54)</p> <p>The society is a blend of Individualist and collectivistic</p> <p>Small families with a focus on the</p>	<p>Hungary (80),is Individualist society.</p> <p>High preference for a loosely knit social</p>	<p>Romania (30) is considered a collectivistic society.</p> <p>This is manifest in a close long-</p>

	<p>collectivist side means that there is a high preference for belonging to a larger social framework in which individuals are expected to act in accordance to the greater good of one's defined in-group(s).</p> <p>Loyalty by the employee and almost familial protection by the Employer.</p> <p>People are, individually responsible for the way they lead their lives</p>	<p>in which the expectation is that people look after themselves and their immediate families.</p> <p>Employees are expected to be self-reliant and display initiative.</p> <p>Hiring and promotion decisions are based on merit or evidence of what one has done or can do.</p>	<p>Emphasis on equal rights in all aspects of American society and government.</p> <p>Within American organizations, Hierarchy is established for convenience, Superiors are accessible, and managers rely on individual employees and teams for their expertise.</p> <p>Both managers and employees expect to be consulted and information is shared frequently.</p> <p>Communication is informal, direct and participative to a degree.</p> <p>Expectation is that people look after themselves and their immediate</p>	<p>parent-children relationship rather than aunts and uncles are common. And at the same time extended families, with many children and close ties to all other family members are a part of society as well.</p> <p>There is a strong belief in the ideal of self-actualization.</p> <p>Loyalty is based on personal preferences for people as well as a sense of duty and responsibility.</p> <p>Communication is direct and expressive.</p>	<p>framework in which individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families only.</p> <p>In Individualist societies offence causes guilt and a loss of self-esteem,</p> <p>The employer/employee relationship is a contract based on mutual advantage,</p> <p>Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on merit only,</p> <p>management is the management of individuals.</p>	<p>term commitment to the member 'group', be that a family, extended family, or extended relationships.</p> <p>Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount, and overrides most other societal rules and regulations.</p> <p>The society fosters strong relationships where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group.</p> <p>In collectivist societies offence leads to shame</p>
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			<p>families only and should not rely (too much) on authorities for support.</p> <p>There is also a high degree of geographical mobility in the United States. Americans are accustomed to doing business or interacting with people they don't know well. Consequently, Americans are not shy about approaching their prospective counterparts in order to obtain or seek information.</p> <p>In the business world, employees are expected to be self-reliant and display initiative.</p> <p>Hiring, promotion and decisions are based on merit or evidence of what one has</p>			<p>and loss of face</p> <p>,</p> <p>Employer/employee relationships are perceived in moral terms (like a family link), hiring Promotion decisions take account of the employee's in-group, management is the management of groups</p>
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			done or can do. MASCULINITY			
Masculinity VS Femininity	India (56) India is very masculine in terms of visual display of success and power	Canada (52) Characterized as a moderately "Masculine" society. Canadians strive to attain high standards of performance in both work and play (sports). Similarly, Canadians also tend to have a work-life balance and is likely to take time to enjoy personal pursuits, family gatherings and life in general. As a rule, Canadians strive to attain high standards of performance in all endeavors.	US (62) People should "strive to be the best they can be" and that "the winner takes all". Americans will tend to display and talk freely about their "successes" and achievements in life. Being successful per se is not the great motivator in American society, but being able to show one's success There exists a "can-do" mentality which creates a lot of dynamism in the society, as it is believed that there is always the possibility to do things in a	Israel (47) Israel is neither a clear masculine nor Feminine society. Some elements point at more Masculine features. Performance is highly valued. Managers are expected to be decisive and assertive. Status is often shown, especially by cars, watches, and technical devices.	Hungary (88) is a Masculine society. In Masculine countries, people "live in order to work", Managers are expected to be decisive and assertive, The emphasis is on equity, competition, and performance Conflicts are resolved by fighting them out.	Romania (42) is considered a relatively Feminine society. In Feminine countries the focus is on: "Working in order to live", Managers strive for consensus, People value equality, solidarity, and quality in their working lives . Conflicts are resolved by compromise and negotiation. Incentives. Focus is on well-being, status is

			<p>better way, Americans "live to work" so that they can obtain monetary rewards and therefore attain higher status based on how good one can be</p>			not shown.
<p>Uncertainty avoidance</p>	<p>India (40) has a medium low preference for avoiding uncertainty There is acceptance of imperfection. . India is traditionally a patient country where tolerance for the unexpected is high; even welcomed as a break from monotony. People generally do not feel driven and compelled to take action- initiatives and comfortably</p>	<p>Canada (48) Canadian culture is more "uncertainty accepting. "Easy acceptance of new ideas, innovative products and a willingness to try something new or different, tolerance of ideas or opinions from anyone Allow freedom of expression., Canadian culture is not rules-oriented, and Canadians tend to be less emotionally expressive than cultures scoring higher on this dimension.</p>	<p>US (46) A fair degree of acceptance for new ideas, innovative products, and a willingness to try something new or different, Americans tend to be more tolerant of ideas or opinions from anyone and allow the freedom of expression. Americans do not require a lot of rules and are less emotionally expressive than higher-scoring cultures.</p>	<p>Israel (81) is among the stronger uncertainty avoidant countries In these cultures there is an emotional need for rules (even if the rules never seem to work), time is money, people have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, security is an important element in individual motivation. Cultures with a high score on</p>	<p>Hungary (82) on this dimension and thus prefers avoiding uncertainty. Countries exhibiting high Uncertainty Avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behavior and are intolerant of unorthodox behavior and ideas. In these cultures there is an emotional need for rules (even if the rules never seem to work) time is money, people have an inner</p>	<p>Romania (90) A very high preference for avoiding uncertainty. Countries exhibiting high Uncertainty Avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behavior and are intolerant of unorthodox behavior and ideas. In these cultures, there is an emotional need for rules (even if</p>

	<p>settle into established rolls and routines without questioning. Rules are often in place just to be circumvented and one relies on innovative methods to “bypass the system”.</p>			<p>this dimension are often very expressive. Something the Israelis clearly show while talking with their hands, gesticulating and vocal aggressiveness.</p>	<p>urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation.</p>	<p>the rules never seem to work) Time is money, People have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, Precision and punctuality are the norm, Innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation</p>
<p>Long term orientation</p>	<p>India (51) In India the concept of “karma” dominates religious and philosophical thought. Time is not linear, and thus is not as important as to western societies</p>	<p>Canada (36) in this dimension, marking it as a normative society. People in such societies have a strong concern with establishing the absolute truth. They are normative in their thinking. They exhibit great respect for</p>	<p>US (26) Americans are prone to analyze new information to check whether it is true. Americans are very practical, being reflected by the “can-do” . Americans have very strong ideas about</p>	<p>Israel (38) Preference for normative thought. Strong concern with establishing the absolute Truth. Normative in their thinking. Exhibit great respect for traditions, Focus on</p>	<p>Hungary (58) is shown to be a pragmatic country People believe that truth depends very much on situation, context and time. They show an ability to adapt traditions</p>	<p>Romania has an intermediate score of 52 on this dimension.</p>

	In India there is an acceptance that there are many truths and often depends on the seeker.	traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results.	what is “good” and “evil”. American businesses measure their performance on a short-term basis, with profit and loss statements being issued on a quarterly basis. This also drives individuals to strive for quick results within the workplace.	achieving quick results.	easily to changed conditions, A strong propensity to save and invest, thriftiness, Perseverance in achieving result	
Indulgent	India (26) It is a culture of Restraint. Societies with a low score in this dimension have a tendency to cynicism and pessimism. in contrast to Indulgent societies, restrained societies do not put much emphasis on leisure time	Canada (68 ) Canadian culture is classified as Indulgent; People exhibit a willingness to realize their impulses and desires with regard to enjoying life and having fun. Optimistic Place a higher degree of importance on leisure time. act as they please and spend money as they wish.	US (68) Work hard and play hard. The States has waged a war against drugs and is still very busy in doing so, yet drug addiction in the States is higher than in many other wealthy countries. It is a prudish society yet even some well-known televangelists appear to be	Israel- There is currently no score for Israel on this dimension.	Hungary (31) Tendency to cynicism and pessimism. Do not put much emphasis on leisure time and control the gratification of their desires. People with this orientation have the perception that their actions are restrained by social norms and feel that indulging	Romania (20) a Romanian culture is one of Restraint. Societies with a low score in this dimension tend to cynicism and pessimism. Also, in contrast to Indulgent societies, Restrained societies do



	<p>and control the gratification of their desires. People with this orientation have the perception that their actions are restrained by social norms and feel that indulging themselves is somewhat wrong.</p>		immoral.		<p>themselves is somewhat wrong.</p>	<p>not put much emphasis on leisure time and control the gratification of their desires. People with this orientation have the perception that their actions are restrained by social norms and feel that indulging themselves is somewhat wrong.</p>
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Source ; <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison,2020>

**Appendix 22:** Questionnaire for senior executives prior to the implementation of the project to coordinate expectations and refine the goals and objectives and to meet employees' expectations:(These are questions assumed to be asked by employees)

1. What is the purpose of the project - what is it designed to achieve?
2. What is the background for the project?
3. Is there a sense of emergency to execute the program? Or what is the sense of importance to do it?
4. The organization is now successful and so why is the project needed?
5. How will the organization look like after the implementation of the project?

6. What will change in terms of managers and employees?
7. What will be required of them so it will differ from what they do today?
8. What are the behaviors expected of them?
9. How will the project affect the measurements of managers and employees  
- Will there be a new one?
10. What will the organization, department, and employee gain from the project - what will change for each of them?
11. Will the employees need to increase productivity?
12. Will the work processes change?
13. Is the project being implemented because there are flaws in the processes or our work?
14. How do you perceive proactive personal responsibility?
15. Do your employees assume personal responsibility at work, today?
16. What should be done to improve the employee's proactive personal responsibility?
17. Will employees and managers be rewarded for the success of the project?
18. Is the project supposed to affect growth of the Company's profits?
19. Where are similar projects being carried out in the world? Did they achieve their goals?
20. Does all the management support the project?
21. Shall we be partners in implementing of the project and how?
22. Can we influence the project?
23. Shall we get assistance to make the necessary changes?
24. How long will the project be for?

25. How long will it require of us and at whose expense will the additional time invested?

26. Do I have to participate in the project?

Source: own research

### **Appendix 23: Guidelines to managers on different levels as to how to map the Important Performance Behaviors (IPBs)**

#### 1. Department level

Participants in the departmental process: Managers of the performance departments and their management, shift managers, senior technicians, quality controllers, excelling employees.

Outcomes of the departmental process: a set list of operational and behavioral failures and the price the department pays for it, the list of behavioral causes of failure, the list of important departmental IPB to be improved (10-5 behaviors)

The goal - to identify IPB: the Department manager together with the department management will perform the following steps:

1. Identify the main operational failures in the Department
2. Document the failures whilst noting the damage caused to the department in three areas: Operations, Quality and Safety and indicate the cost of the damage (poor-quality cost)
3. Identify the behaviors that hinder from ongoing operational behaviors, while distinguishing between operational behaviors and organizational behaviors
4. Define the important performance behaviors (IPB) that may help improve the situation (record 10-5 behaviors, in simple language and understandable to any operations employee)
5. In order to identify IPB the managers will be assisted by the cumulative experience of department managers and employees, especially the experience of the excelling employees
6. Will have a discussion with the excelling employees with a request to define the enhancement elements of their behaviors and document them

## 2. Factory level

The goal - to create a common set of important behaviors at factory level

The factory manager will hold a joint discussion with department heads to discuss the important complex behaviors mapped and defined in each department. The discussion will be held as follows:

1. Department heads will present the process implemented in the department and their findings

2. The factory's management will discuss these findings and define 10-5 key behaviors, of those presented, common to all employees and that their implementation can improve the level of plant operations and strengthen its operational culture

The outcomes of the factory process.

- List of failures at the plant level (whether they exist in all departments, whether all the managers are aware of the costs?)

- List of IPB success factors at the factory level

- Adapting the above behaviors as part of the factory work routines

Responsibility for implementing the important behaviors in the factory: Plant manager, department managers, shift managers, excelling employees

## 3. The company level

The participants in the process; Members of the board of management, all the factory managers participating in the process

Results of the process at company level; set of organizational important cross-divisional behaviors,

responsibility for implementing important behaviors at the company level; Company management and factories' managements

The goal - to strengthen the organizational culture and create shared and critical organizational behaviors

The company's management will define the organizational behaviors

Source: own research

#### **Appendix 24: The questionnaire to identify IPBs and organizational behaviors**

To all managers who participate in the mapping process and identifying IPBs and organizational behaviors. It is recommended that the process of identifying the IPBs will be shared by shift managers in the department as well as with outstanding employees.

Examine the performance behaviors using the following criteria to make sure that you have a clearly defined behavior (rather than a conceptual idea):

They should refer to actual actions - 'Doing' and not just concepts ('Being')

They should deal with the 'How' and not the 'Why'

They need to be tested according to 3 criteria: 1) whether they are measurable, 2) whether they can be given as concrete feedback that will improve performance; 3) whether the employee can be valued and acknowledged for them

Organizational behaviors will be identified based on the root cause of the problem (e.g., lack of motivation, lack of trust, lack of commitment, etc.)

To identify the root causes, use quality-control tools

#### **The questionnaire**

1. Define the problem (Defining the problem can be derived from the goal you are addressing).
2. Define failure:
3. Identify The reason for the performance and organizational behaviors (focus on the root causes of the problems)

4. List the various negative consequences that are caused by the problem - to the employee, the department and the site, as well as the price of failure and lack of quality
5. List and document the behaviors and capacities (strengths) that support the achievement of the program goals.
6. Identify the Important performance Behaviors-IPB, (that can fix the issues and prevent the causes of failure).

(Define about 5-10 important behaviors).

The identification of the important behaviors will be based on:

Strengths documented, existing procedures, cumulative experience of department managers and site manager and the experience of outstanding employees. Outstanding employees were those whose performance and organizational behaviors prevent or reduce the causes of failure.

Organizational behaviors: lack of discipline, lack of vigilance, lack of personal responsibility, etc., lack of motivation. Why is this? Find the root cause

The IPB that you have defined are not necessarily new behaviors and can be grounded in existing procedures. In this case proceed to find the root cause to understand why the procedures are not implemented and identify the IPB which can drive the employee to implement them

7. Define the role of the manager in the execution of the important behaviors.

Example: Performance behavior:

The manager will share with the employees the problem and ask them to help to find a solution.

8. Define the employees' role in the performance of the important behaviors:
9. Define the proactive responsibility that your subordinate managers, including yourself, should assume the important behaviors:

10. Define the proactive responsibility that employees have in performing the important behaviors.

Example: ..... Please complete with a relevant example.

Thank You Very Much!

Source: own research

## **Appendix 25: The table of questionnaires for the different target audiences**

**1. To members of the company management** - the questionnaire focused on the following issues: (with an emphasis on cultural dimensions.) Managers were asked to define any one of these required behaviors (The essence of personal responsibility - with a request to define and provide examples

- Personal responsibility in the company - a snapshot that emphasizes behaviors to implement rather than general statements
- How to increase personal responsibility in the company?
- Organizational culture - What should be done to encourage organizational culture - emphasis
- Communication - characteristics of communication culture (open or closed, two-way or one-way, etc.).
- Safety and quality - critical behaviors required

### **2. Factory managers and department managers.**

The managers were asked to answer three questions only with reference to their various work processes, for example; shift work and shift change, issues of discipline, order and neatness, problems in the field of quality and safety, adhering to work procedures and work according to a check list, etc.;

- What are the operational failures they encounter in the work processes at the departmental level?

- What are the failing operational behaviors?
- What are the operational behaviors they suggest implementing to rectify the failures pointed out by them?

**3. Shift managers - the focus was on the definition of the behavioral failures of their employees on the production floor. They were asked to answer the following questions**

- What are the key operational behaviors of your employees?
- Are the main operational problems of your employees relating to their behavior or to technology and equipment
  - What are the problems that in your estimation prevent employees from doing their job better, what bothers them, what can you do that will help them to improve their job, what can you do?
- Is there one important issue you would care to emphasize that can improve your work as managers?
- What do you think about the level of proactive personal responsibility of your employees?
  - What should be done to strengthen their sense of proactive responsibility so that they show more such responsibility, why do you think they do not do so? (Do they not know what is expected of them? They are not interested. They are not satisfied)
- What can you advise us to do to improve the situation in this area?
- What can you advise us to do in the field of work to become even more successful and improve the behaviors and responsibilities; what does it depend on? Do you have the knowledge needed to do the job, do you get support?
- What is your most important advice to your managers to succeed?



**4. Operators - the emphasis was on defining their operational failures and behaviors that need improvement and what are their expectations of their managers at the level of individual behavior towards them**

- Define operational behaviors including the provision of examples
- What are the operational problems you are facing?
- What are the behaviors that will improve your performances?
- What should be done at the factory so that you can work better and succeed more?

Can you give examples of personal responsibility from work?

- What should be done so the workers themselves will assume more personal responsibility?
- What can you advise us to do in the field of work to become even more successful than today?
- What does it depend on?
- Do you have the knowledge needed to do the job?
- What do you expect your managers to do to improve the performance level of the production floor?
- Are you satisfied with what you are doing?

What do you advise a company to do to improve performance?

Source: own research

