THE EFFECT OF FATALISTIC BELIEFS REGARDING OCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENTS ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST IN HOTEL INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

Occupational accidents pose serious problems in both Turkey and the world. The human factor seems to be the most common reason for these accidents. While preventive measures can be taken against occupational accidents, there are some humanistic obstacles, such as fatalistic beliefs, that impede these measures. The main purpose of this study is to test the effect of fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents on job satisfaction and organizational trust. It was hypothesized that fatalistic beliefs in regards to occupational accidents have a negative effect on job satisfaction and organizational trust of employees. The study was carried out in five and four star accommodation companies in Alanya, Turkey. A quantitative research approach was adopted. Fully structured questionnaires were used as the measurement instrument. 1564 questionnaires were analysed. The Structural Equation Modelling analysis indicated that fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents have a strong negative effect on both job satisfaction and organizational trust of employees in accommodation companies; therefore the hypotheses were strongly supported. These results indicate that attempting to overcome fatalistic beliefs and investing in occupational health and safety is a good business decision, as well as an ethical one.

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INTRODUCTION

Although certain developments in occupational health and safety have been implemented across the world, occupational accidents are still among the most important problems of business life (Chau et al., 2002; Song, He, & Li, 2011). According to data from the International Labor Organization (ILO), 153 employees each 15 seconds experience occupational accidents and of those 1 employee loses his/her life due to occupational accidents or occupational diseases. As a result of occupational accidents or occupational diseases, more than 2.3 million people lose their lives across the world. According to projections of the ILO, the economic cost of not taking necessary precautions regarding occupational health and safety amounts to 4% of gross domestic product around the world (ILO, 2015). As understood from these numbers, material and non-pecuniary losses resulting from occupational accidents and occupational diseases can reach critical levels in terms of a country's economy (Ceylan, 2011: 19).

In analyzing the reasons for accidents from a general perspective, the results show that the root of almost all accidents is human error (Gerek, 2006: 29). In a study by Kepir (1983), it was found that 10% of occupational accidents are caused by mechanical error and 88% of them are human factor-based. Çelikol (1977) revealed that 20% of occupational accidents result from inappropriate production means and environmental conditions and 80% of them result from human factors (Camkurt, 2007: 81; Copur, Varlı, Avşar & Şenbaş, 2006: 158; Karakurt, Satar, Bilen, Acıkalın & Bilen, 2012). Results of research by Aybek, Güvercin and Hursitoglu (2003) on technical personnel working in public institutions point out the importance of human behavior in terms of occupational health and safety. According to respondents in managerial positions, 84.4% of occupational accidents are caused by distrustful behaviors of employees and 15.6% of them occur because of unsafe working conditions. According to the 2011 statistics from the Turkish Electric Distribution Association Company (TEDAŞ), 13% of accidents result from not using health and safety equipment, 17% are caused by not taking necessary precautions and 24% of them are due to negligent risk assessment of situations (Geçer, 2014). In their study carried out on employees working in a heavy metal manufacturing, construction and building company, Gulhan, Ilhan & Civil (2012) found that occupational accidents occurred due to insufficient personal protective equipment (44%), lack of attention (37%), personal reasons (17%), not taking safety precautions (17%) and lack of vocational training.

It can be understood from these research results that human factor ranks first among reasons underlying occupational accidents. These results indicate that preventive measures could be taken to avoid accidents. According to the Health and Safety Executive (HSE), a prestigious authority that addresses occupational health and safety, 90% of occupational accidents result from human-driven mistakes. In addition, it is indicated that 70% of accidents could be prevented if particular precautions were taken in advance (Hughes & Ferett, 2012: 70). The fact that occupational accidents mostly result from the unsafe behaviors of employees draws attention to the necessity to focus on human factors in terms of preventing accidents (Camkurt, 2007: 81; Yıldız, Yılmaz, & Bakış, 2015: 2-3). One reason that the issue of occupational accidents is an important one is that they can be prevented (İlhan, Kurtcebe, Durukan, & Koşar, 2006: 434).

The fact that most occupational accidents are caused by human error indicates the importance of research on underlying human factors. In this regard, a point gaining importance in terms of occupational accidents is to what extent employees react to occupational accidents. Fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents impact how employees react to these accidents. In other words, fatalistic beliefs that occupational accidents cannot be prevented, even if all precautions in terms of occupational health and safety are taken, result in the attitude that taking these precautions is useless.

In a review of the literature, it was found that fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents are deterrent to preventing and decreasing these accidents. Moreover, occupational accidents occur more often in firms where employees have higher fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents (McClure, Allen, & Walkey, 2001; Patwary, O'Hare, & Sarker, 2012; Salminen, 1992; Wong & Weiner, 1981). Past research also proves that when the employees have fatalistic beliefs, they tend to apply the worker safety precautions less seriously. Fatalism affects the perception of safety awareness negatively (Akalp et al., 2015). Even more, employers with fatalistic beliefs reclaim that worker safety precautions are meaningless because destiny cannot be intervened (Kiani & Khodabakhsh, 2013; Kouabenan, 1998; Patwary et al., 2012; Rundmo & Hale, 2003; Yılmaz, Yıldız, & Kanıt, 2015). A recent example from Turkey is a strong indicator of how fatalism can cause serious occupational accidents with catastrophic outcomes. In 2014, three hundred miners have lost their lives as result of a mine subsidence in Soma mainly because the proper precautions weren't taken. And fatalism was one of the reasons behind

that (Yılmaz, 2014). Therefore, it can be argued that fatalistic beliefs have an indirect yet significant effect on occupational accidents.

People who have fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents believe that there is nothing in their power to prevent occupational accidents. This fatalistic approach is a form of external locus of control which is attributing incidents to fate or other external forces (Rotter, 1966: 1). Therefore, this personal feature could also cause serious organizational results. Past research shows that fatalism has a negative effect on job satisfaction (Gemmill & Heisler, 1972). Moreover, the perception of the safety climate has an effect on job satisfaction and organizational trust (Avram, Ionescu, & Mincu, 2015). Attributing the past and possible future occupational accidents to the fate and not holding the organization, their colleagues nor themselves responsible would affect their relationship with the organization. This study, with an organizational behavior research perspective, examines the effect of fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents of employees in accommodation companies on job satisfaction and organizational trust levels which are very important for a firm's performance. Job satisfaction and organizational trust are essential on increasing productivity, employee performance, customer satisfaction and loyalty, decreasing employee turnout and maintaining organizational commitment and organizational citizenship (Chen, 2008; Cook & Wall, 1980; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Sarwar & Abugre, 2013; Shields & Price, 2002; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000).

FATALISTIC BELIEFS REGARDING OCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENTS

Throughout centuries, the belief in fatalism has been one of the most powerful factors influencing individuals' opinions and behaviors. Fatalism, in simplest terms, is the belief that an individual does not have sufficient power to intervene in incidents that happen in the short and long term (Taylor, 1962: 56). A belief in fatalism has been present in all cultures and religions and an influence on people throughout history (Al-Haq, 1969: 225). Fatalism is interpreted in different ways in different societies and cultures. For instance, in Islam, fatalism is examined together with the term "resignation" and resignation is defined as "an individual's trusting in God after doing his/her best for anything that s/he desires to be realized" (Kurt, 2008: 62). On the other hand, in terms of the Protestant work ethic that emerged in the West and considered as the source of capitalism by Max Weber, the internal locus of control is at the forefront

which is a fact that reduces the effect of fatalism on daily life (Mudrack, 1997: 218).

Belief in fatalism is one of the components of external locus of control which refers to the fact that people associate reasons for incidents with external factors rather than themselves. A belief in fatalism influences many aspects of daily life and furthermore manipulates human behavior, all the more so for occupational accidents. Occupational accidents can be regarded as incidents that are not planned in advance and endanger safety and that mainly result in individual injuries, damages to production machines or halting production for a period of time (Ceylan, 2011: 19). According to ILO (2015), approximately 2.3 million people across the world experience occupational accidents and diseases each year. According to the most contemporary data available in Turkey, the number of employees, in 2013, who experienced occupational accidents amount to 191,389 and those having caught occupational diseases amount to 371. One thousand three hundred and sixty people lost their lives and 1694 people become permanently disabled. These accidents and occupational diseases caused a 2,358,135 day-labor losses. Therefore, occupational accidents are an important issue that needs to be seriously examined (SGK, 2015).

The most important step to be taken in order to prevent occupational accidents is undoubtedly to find the reasons that lead to the accidents. The causes can then be eliminated and accidents prevented. The point where a belief in fatalism is mostly felt is during this step. Unless an occupational accident cannot be prevented despite all efforts, somebody has to be responsible for this accident. At this point, it may be quite difficult to find reasons for an accident because witnesses want to protect their colleagues and themselves, managers do not want people to discuss whether their employee received effective occupational safety training and employers think about the extra costs (Woodcock, 1995: 908). Under such circumstances, a belief in fatalism can occur as a self-defense mechanism or as an excuse for evading responsibility. Faced with an occupational accident, people with fatalistic beliefs tend to find an external reason that they could not personally control (Kouabenan, 1998: 250). Walster's (1966) study has revealed that people try to find someone who is responsible or guilty, especially when it comes to accidents that have heavy consequences. In addition, Shaver (1970) indicated, through defensive attribution hypothesis, that those suffering from occupational accidents are prone to evaluate the accident defensively and claim they were not responsible for it. In the study in which he tested this hypothesis on

occupational accidents, Salminen (1992) observed those suffering from such accidents associated the reasons for the accidents with external factors. Research revealing that people generally link positive incidents with internal factors and negative ones with external factors (e.g., Wong & Weiner, 1981) support this argument.

Another factor claimed to influence fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents is to what extent the work is dangerous. A study carried out by Harrell (1995) on 263 workers has shown that the fatalistic perception of employees increases as danger levels of the work rise. Mining, which is one of the most dangerous lines of work and where occupational accidents have serious results, such as disability or death, comes to the forefront as a line of work in which fatalistic belief is densely observed. However research where the opinions of miners and workers employed in others sectors than mining has been carried out on outlook toward occupational accidents (Chiappone & Kroes, 1979; Gyekye, 2003) and any data showing that miners are fatalistic people could not be found. Therefore, it would be appropriate to examine different factors affecting fatalism.

Culture also plays a part in fatalistic belief. In Western societies where the culture of individualism is foremost, the internal locus of control is strong, whereas the external locus of control is commonly observed in Eastern societies where collectivism is more dominant (Mueller & Thomas, 2001: 51). Therefore, in examining fatalism as a part of external locus of control, we can infer that fatalism is more dominant in Eastern countries. As an example, a study of 213 students in Canada from different ethnic origins revealed that students from Eastern Asia were more fatalistic than those from Europe (Norenzayan & Lee, 2010).

Another study in Nigeria revealed that people living in the Yoruba region who are closely bound by traditions believe that death and accidents are the result of destiny (Dixey, 1999). Similarly, employees and workers working in medical waste sectors in another Asian country, Bangladesh, also associate occupational accidents with destiny (Patwary et al., 2012).

The fact that 85% of American workers participating in a study carried out in the USA revealed their belief that occupational accidents cannot just happen, that there must be an underlying reason (Chiappone & Kroes, 1979: 1177), supports the effect of culture on the perception of fatalism. It was indicated in another study carried out in the USA that approximately three out of four respondents did not associate the word

"accident" with faith (Girasek, 1999: 22). On the other hand, a study in Ghana, Africa revealed that fatalistic beliefs are quite common across the country; however, workers in mines and factories did not consider faith as an important factor for occupational accidents (Gyekye, 2003). Hence, the claim that occupational accidents are associated with faith in societies where fatalism is commonly adopted is not a generalizable fact. A working environment can be considered a place that is closely associated with the society, but that bears its own dynamics.

There is no doubt that belief in fatalism is influential on behaviors of individuals in certain cultures. This approach can be an obstacle when it comes to measures taken to prevent occupational accidents. According to research carried out by McClure et al. (2001), people who believe that precautions will not reduce the damage caused by natural disasters, resign themselves to fate. This similar perspective can be observed in occupational accidents. Research (Patwary et al., 2012) in Bangladesh has revealed that 95% of workers working in the medical waste sector are subject to occupational accidents at least once and 89% consider these occupational accidents from a fatalistic perspective. 73% of workers who do not wear safety clothing while working said in reference to occupational accidents, "This is the fate of this job." More critical results from the same study are that managers too consider occupational accidents from a fatalistic perspective. Managers in the research used such statements as: "It is not our business to intervene in destiny" (Patwary et al., 2012). This view hinders the precautions to be taken to prevent accidents. One of the important and ideal managerial behaviors for ensuring occupational safety in a company is low fatalistic belief (Rundmo & Hale, 2003: 571).

Another negative effect of fatalism on the struggle against occupational accidents is to consider the accidents as if they are quite normal and negligible. More than 800,000 accidents are reported annually in Germany, whose population is 83 million, whereas this number is under seventy thousand between 2009-2011 in Turkey, whose population is 74 million (Ceylan, 2011: 21). This insufficient reporting can be considered as an indicator of the fact that the struggle against occupational accidents is not seriously taken into consideration in Turkey.

However, the effects of fatalistic perspectives regarding occupational safety can be compensated for with occupational training and occupational safety training. According to Salminen and Gyeyke's (2009) research, employees with occupational training have higher

occupational safety awareness than their colleagues (including university graduates). In addition, employees' contribution to preparation and implementation of occupational safety precautions can be beneficial in terms of imposing on them a sense of responsibility and control (Gyekye, 2010: 413). Another recommendation for reducing the negative effects of fatalism on occupational safety is to pay attention to fatalistic attitudes of individuals during job interviews (Henning et al., 2009: 344). This recommendation may be effective in societies where fatalism is not so common; however, not employing individuals with fatalistic perspectives would not be realistic in societies with a fatalistic culture.

NUMERIC INFORMATION CONCERNING OCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENTS IN TURKEY

Occupational accidents are one of the most important problems facing businesses in Turkey, as well as in the world. Numeric data regarding occupational accidents and occupational diseases in Turkey during specific periods have been recorded by the Social Security Institution (SSI). These data are shared annually with the public on the institution's official website. We gathered the data on occupational accidents included in the statistical records of 2006 and 2014 in Table 1.

Table 1. *Data on occupational accidents*

Year	The number of occupational accidents	Frequency of occup. accid. / per 100 people	Weight Velocity Velocity / Day
2006	79,027	0.91	961
2007	80,602	0.81	634
2008	72,963	0.70	519
2009	64,316	0.62	641
2010	62,903	0.55	706
2011	69,227	0.55	721
2012	74,871	0.55	395
2013	191,389*	1.32	507
2014	221,366*	1.47	514

* As explained in the statistical annual in 2014, the number of occupational accident cases closed after receiving related payments was taken into consideration when providing statistics regarding the number of insured workers having experienced occupational accidents in 2012 and previous years. After occupational accident notification forms to be filled out became available on electronic platforms, data regarding the number of all insured workers having experienced occupational accidents started to be provided in line with the EU standards since 2013.

Source: Statistic Annuals of SSI for 2005-2014

As understood from the data in Table 1, the number of occupational accidents in 2013 and 2014 was higher than that of other years. However, at this point it should be taken into consideration that the data were recorded in line with EU standards starting from 2013 and only the number of occupational accidents occurring before 2012 and covered after paying necessary fines was taken as the basis for statistics. This situation makes it impossible to compare obtained data with those in statistical annuals on a yearly basis.

According to the explanation included in the SSI statistic annual for 2014, *frequency velocity of occupational accidents* indicates the number of accidents that occurred per 100 full time employees. In light of the explanation of the institution for 2012, examining relevant years excluding 2013 would be more appropriate. In this regard, it is seen that there is a sharp decrease in frequency velocity of occupational accidents from 2006 to 2010 and it is stable between 2010 and 2012. *Weight velocity for occupational accidents* included in Table 1 shows how many work days were lost because of occupational accidents per 1 million work-hours in a calendar year. Accordingly, the number of work-days lost due to occupational accidents in 2012 was lower compared to the previous six years. In 2013 and 2014, 191,389 and 221,366 occupational accidents occurred respectively. While frequency velocity for occupational accident was 1.32 in 2013, it increased to 1.47 in 2014. As well, one can see that weight velocity for occupational accidents was 507 in 2013; it was calculated as 514 in the next year and 7 work days were lost in total.

Aside from the above-mentioned data, particular databases were analyzed so as to reveal occupational accidents and occupational disease statistics of countries across the world. At first, the database, ILOSTAT, where ILO records data on global working conditions, was researched. In order to determine general performances of countries in this regard, frequency velocities of occupational accidents were examined. However, it became apparent that no records for many countries on this matter were included in the ILOSTAT database. Generally, the number of occupational accidents and occupational diseases, departments where these accidents happen and other factors, such as gender, age etc., are included in the database. In brief, it was difficult to make comparisons between countries through data obtained from the database.

Except for the above-mentioned data, occupational accident statistics for 2008-2014 were examined within the scope of the accommodation sector and Table 2 was prepared. As no distinction was

made on a departmental basis in statistic annuals before 2008, data as to 2008 and previous years were not included in the table.

Table 2. *Accidents occurring in the accommodation sector between 2008 - 2014*

YEAR	The number of occupational accidents in the accommodation sector	Total number of occupational accidents in the relevant year	Rate as to Total Number of Accidents	Total Bed Capacity in Turkey (number)*
2008	617	72,963	0.85%	567,470
2009	659	64,316	1.02%	608,765
2010	734	62,903	1.17%	629,465
2011	778	69,227	1.12%	668,829
2012	894	74,871	1.19%	706,019
2013	4,183	191,389	2.19%	749,299
2014	5,019	221,366	2.26%	807,316

* Data as to the total number of beds in facilities with tourism operation license were taken into consideration.

Source: Statistical Annuals of SSI for 2008-2014; Statistics for Facilities with Operation Licence of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism

In Table 2, the number of occupational accidents between 2008 and 2013 was examined within the scope of the accommodation sector and rates were determined on a yearly basis. The highest accident rate within seven years was observed in 2014 with 2.26%. In other words, 2.26% of occupational accidents in 2014 occurred in the accommodation sector. Within seven years, total bed capacity in Turkey increased to 42%. On the other hand, the rate of occupational accidents in the accommodation sector increased from 0.85% to 2.26%. In light of this data, it is indicated that the rate of occupational accidents in the accommodation sector increased in parallel with the growth in the volume of activity in the related sector in Turkey.

While searching on the Internet in order to compare countries, it was observed that Turkey ranked first in Europe and third in the world in terms of fatal occupational accidents. However, according to a statement on ILO's Office website in Turkey, there is no official ranking of countries in terms of occupational safety. ILO Turkey stated that such kinds of consequences are inferred in light of data obtained from ILO's website and they are not official. It was considered that making such comparisons could hinder making sound inferences, because ILO's database is not a structure covering all countries in all aspects. In addition, it contains

absolute values, and particular additional data would be necessary to compare countries (ILO Turkey News, 2015).

JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most examined subjects within organization and organizational behavior contexts. In a general sense, job satisfaction reflects an individual's feelings toward his/her job (Spector, 1997: 2) and indicates positive or negative evaluations regarding the job (Weiss, 2002: 175). Much research has been conducted on job satisfaction and its causal correlations with other components of job attitudes. The research has revealed that high job satisfaction has a beneficial impact on both individuals and organizations and has comparatively negative correlations with employees' work stress, absenteeism and voluntary turnover intention (Huang, 2006: 155).

Job satisfaction is important in terms of the physical and mental wellness of individuals. Working is a significant part of daily life. An individual spends a great part of his/her life in a working environment. In this regard, analyzing factors related to job satisfaction in a correct manner contributes to the wellness of a reasonable number of employees (Oshagbemi, 2000: 88-89). Job satisfaction is influenced by many factors, including socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education, position, tenure, etc. (Hodson, 1989; İşcan & Sayın, 2010; Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009; Koç, Boylu, & Arslantürk, 2009; Oshagbemi, 2000; Scott, Swortzel, & Taylor, 2005; Toker, 2007**)**. In addition, organizational factors are effective on job satisfaction. Organizational factors affecting job satisfaction have been examined under such categories as wages (economical returns), the jobs themselves (job-employee harmonization), promotion opportunities, relations with colleagues and management styles (Akıncı, 2002; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Friday & Friday, 2003; Luthans, 1992; Singh & Loncar, 2010).

Another important variable that influences job satisfaction is personality. Within this context, job satisfaction is related to the emotional aspect of a personality. Besides the present psychological conditions of individuals, their personal characteristics may affect their business lives and have a positive or negative effect on their job satisfaction levels. In some organizations, personal characteristics are taken into consideration during interviews and in-house promotions (Dormann & Zapf, 2001: 484). In explaining the relationship between personal characteristics and job

satisfaction, some studies have based their research on the five-factor personality theory. For instance, in a study by Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002), the relationship between five-factor personal characteristics and job satisfaction was examined. According to the findings, emotional stability and extraversion are the most effective characteristics that impact job satisfaction. Similarly, conscientiousness is seen as being one of the personal characteristics in the five-factor model that positively affects job satisfaction. On the other hand, there is a weak relationship between agreeableness and openness and job satisfaction. According to researchers, being emotionally stable and extrovert are among the main characteristics of a happy personality. Happiness contributes to job satisfaction in a positive way, as well (Judge et al., 2002: 533-4).

Fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents are based on the opinion that occupational accidents cannot be prevented even if all precautions for occupational health and safety are taken; therefore, taking precautions is not useful. Briefly, fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents indicate that prevention of these accidents is impossible. An individual having this faith does not associate his/her behavior or the outcomes s/he has faced as a result of this behavior with his/her own will and responsibility. In this regard, fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents reflect an approach based on external control. Findings in the locus of control studies in which fatalistic belief is examined from a different perspective explain particular wrong behavioral intentions regarding safety culture (Koydemir, Akyürek, & Topçuğlu, 2014: 21)

Locus of control is often considered as a dispositional factor that influences employee perceptions on work satisfaction. The concept of locus of control is framed in line with social learning theory and was first used by Rotter (1996) as an individual characteristic (Salazar, Pfaffenberg, & Salazar, 2006: 2). Locus of control contains personal characteristics of an individual and the extent s/he perceives his/her control on his/her life. As such, locus of control is related to how individuals perceive incidents happening around them, including in their jobs, and how they develop behaviors accordingly. Therefore, it is expected that there is a relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction (Akbolat, Işık, & Uğurluoğlu, 2011: 24-25).

Locus of control falls under two groups: external and internal locus of control. External locus of control is a construct that positions one's belief and/or perception that outcomes and consequences in life are uncontrollable and completely at the mercy of outside forces (Hamwi,

Rutherford, Boles, & Madupalli; 2014). Individuals with external locus of control believe that they cannot intervene in incidents. It is observed that individuals having this faith tend to associate incidents affecting them with luck, faith or other powerful factors rather than the consequences of their own capabilities, features and behaviors (Akbolat et al., 2011: 24-25; Bernardi, 2003). In contrast, individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that incidents result primarily from their own behaviors and actions (Basak & Ghosh, 2011: 1200). People with strong internal locus of control believe they themselves can control their goals, successes, failures or any consequences in the future (Huang, 2006: 154).

Much research has been carried out on locus of control and it has been found that locus of control impacts job satisfaction, job stress, job performance, stress and depression (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001; Akkaya & Akyol, 2016; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003; Kalbers & Fogarty, 2005; Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005; Milz, Husstedt, Reichelt, & Evers, 2016; Rahim, 1996). According to research on locus of control, job satisfaction levels of employees tending to external locus of control are low (Geersbro & Ritter, 2010; Hamwi et al., 2014; Kalbers & Fogarty, 2005; Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed, 1975; Salazar et al., 2006; Vijayashreea & Jagdischchandra, 2011; Wang, Bowling, & Eschleman, 2010), whereas job satisfaction levels of those with internal locus of control are high (Basak & Ghosh, 2011; Dailey, 1980; Hough, 1992; Huang, 2006; Judge & Bono, 2001; Organ & Greene, 1974; Shrestha & Mishra, 2012; Spector, 1982; Vijayashreea & Jagdischchandra, 2011).

ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

In today's modern management system, the hierarchical structure of superior-subordinate relationships has begun to lose its dominance. Within this scope, organizational structures are being reorganized in a way that fewer stages exist in hierarchical relationships, participation is gaining importance and horizontal in-house relationships have come to the forefront. As a result, inter-organizational relationships take on different dimensions. Participation and trust are of importance so that individuals possessing different personal characteristics and capabilities gather around common purposes. Trust has become compulsory for mutual hierarchical relationships today (Asunakutlu, 2002: 5). Successful management of human resources, which are the most important components of organizations, is effective on employees' feelings of trust. In this regard, executing practices, such as inter-organizational

supervision, rewards and performance evaluations, in a fair way is important in order to gain the trust of members in an organization (Creed & Miles, 1996: 19-31).

Feelings of trust come into existence both at individual and organizational levels; however, there is a difference in how trust is viewed on these individual and organizational levels. Trust at the individual level can be regarded as a need for reducing uncertainties which individuals face in their social relationships. In other words, individuals have dealings with those they trust and work with them. Trust at the organizational level comes into existence as a result of employees' generalizing the feeling of trust to the whole organization and its members (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995: 137). According to Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998), organizational trust can be defined as trust intentions of employees to their organizations. According to researchers, the fact that organizations and their members show trusting and fair behavior forms the basis for organizational trust intention (Zaheer et al., 1998: 143).

In light of particular studies in the literature, it is seen that organizational trust has three main components. These components are trust in managers, the organization and colleagues (Creed & Miles, 1996; McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992; Tan & Lim, 2009; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). An organization's members' feelings of trust are established with the interaction between managers, other employees and the organization itself. In other words, parties with which organization members are in a relationship can be regarded as a dimension or component of organizational trust (Jones & George, 1998: 531).

According to Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis and Winograd (2000), trust is a term related to both job satisfaction and productivity. Trust helps to improve individuals' capabilities and increase their organizational efficiency through job satisfaction. Organizations with high organizational trust levels tend to have low operational cost as they don't need unnecessary bureaucratic control systems (Uray, 2014: 16). Formation of employees' inter-organizational relationships has a positive influence on job satisfaction level. An employee's trust in his/her organization, seniors, managers and colleagues lays the foundation, which give the opportunity for him/her to voluntarily contribute to organizational objectives, love his/her job and work with high motivation (İşcan & Sayın, 2010: 203).

In a study by Driscoll (1978), it was found that participation and trust impact job satisfaction. According to the findings, the effect of organizational trust on job satisfaction is stronger than participation

perception in decision-making processes. In the opinion of the researcher, an organization's member whose needs are met can be satisfied with his/her job even though s/he is not totally in agreement with organizational decisions. Satisfaction of expectation forms the basis of cost-benefit based feelings of trust (Driscoll, 1978: 54). In another study (Rich, 1997), it was determined that managers' role model behaviors positively influence employees' trust in them. In addition, it was found that there is a positive relationship between trust in managers and job satisfaction and job performance. According to findings, perceiving managers as role models is not directly effective on job satisfaction and job performance. Aside from displaying role model behaviors, managers have to gain the trust of employees. As a result, it was found inter-organizational trust was important and influenced job satisfaction (Rich, 1997: 325). Siddiqi and Kharshiing (2015) also argue a positive effect of organizational trust on job satisfaction. This positive effect was also observed in the hotel industry (Öktem, Kızıltan, & Öztoprak, 2016). Straiter (2005), on the other hand, examined organizational trust from a different perspective. The researcher examined the relationship between managers' trust in subordinates and their job satisfaction. Findings show that job satisfaction increases in parallel with managers' trust in subordinates. According to the researcher, a manager who considers subordinates to be trustful and capable individuals believes that they can satisfactorily fulfil their duties. Therefore, the manager feels job satisfaction, because s/he thinks s/he can fulfil his/her own responsibilities more effectively (Straiter, 2005: 94-95).

Particular studies in Turkey reveal the positive relationship between organizational trust and job satisfaction. Research by İşcan and Sayın (2010) shows there is a positive and high level relationship between job satisfaction and organizational trust. As a result of regression analysis, it was observed that first justice perception and then job satisfaction were effective on organizational trust. According to the researchers, employees having faith in both managers and their organizations is related to high job satisfaction and that they believe inter-organizational decisions are fair. In this regard, managers provide a working environment that will bring these positive outcomes to employees (İşcan & Sayın, 2010: 209-213). Koç and Yazıcıoğlu (2011) have also found that there is a positive relationship between trust in managers and job satisfaction. In addition, considering public and private sectors separately, the relationship between trust and job satisfaction is more important in the private sector (Koç and Yazıcıoğlu, 2011: 55). Within the framework of the examined

studies, it is understood that organizational trust and job satisfaction are two closely related organizational outcomes. In this regard, organizational trust and job satisfaction can be defined as factors that show up as reasons and consequences of each other and facilitate reaching organizational objectives through creating positive working environments.

In light of past research (Gemmill & Heisler, 1972; Avram et al., 2015; Kouabenan, 1998; Kiani and Khodabakhsh, 2013) it can be argued that as fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents affect the occurrence of occupational accidents, they also have an effect on fundamental organizational behaviors like job satisfaction and organizational trust. This study aims to test this effect for hotel employees particularly. Accordingly, the hypotheses to be tested are presented as following:

H1: Fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents negatively affects employee job satisfaction.

H2: Fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents negatively affects employee organizational trust.

H2a: Fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents negatively affects trust in managers.

H2b: Fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents negatively affects trust in organization.

H2c: Fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents negatively affects trust in colleagues.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was carried out with employees working in five and four star accommodation companies in Alanya (Turkey). The data were collected from July to November 2015. In Alanya, there are 72 five-star and 107 four-star accommodation companies with an operating license from the Ministry of Culture (ALTSO, 2015). At first, a pilot test was conducted on 65 employees in three five star hotels to ensure the reliability of the scales to be used in the questionnaires. In the pilot study, respondents were asked to fill questionnaire forms and indicate their opinions about mistaken, deficient or meaningless statements. As a result of the pilot study, it was determined that all questions were clear and understandable.

After the pilot study, 50 five-star and 50 four-star hotels were selected from the list of the hotels manually via cluster random sampling technique. According to Üngüren and Çevirgen (2014) the average numbers of employees are 187 for five-star and 73 four-star hotels in Alanya. Therefore, the target population can be calculated as 21,275 employees and the proper size for the sample is 379 (Sekaran, 1992). The total number of 100 selected hotels was more than enough. However; it was thought that the number of volunteer employees in the hotels would be limited. It was also important for the researchers to make a short interview with the human resources managers and explain the procedure of the sealed envelopes, so the possible limitation on number of human resource managers who could spare time for the research was also considered.

Human resource managers of selected hotels were contacted. Information as to the purpose and content of the study was provided and then appointments were arranged. Phone calls took eight days and the human resource managers of 41 five-star and 34 four-star accommodation companies were asked for appointments. HR managers of 13 hotels could not be reached and those of 12 hotels indicated they could not participate in such a research on principle. Following the telephone interviews, questionnaire forms were delivered in sealed envelopes. A questionnaire form and an information form explaining the purpose of the study and how questionnaire forms should be filled out were included in the envelopes. In the explanation regarding the filling out of the questionnaires, respondents were asked to put the forms into sealed envelopes and deliver them to the human resource offices. 1838 out of 2500 questionnaire forms were collected. 274 of 1838 questionnaire forms which were mis-filled, multiply-selected or not filled were eliminated. After eliminating these questionnaires, 1564 usable questionnaires were analyzed.

The Measurement Instrument

In the research, the survey form was used as a data collection tool. The questionnaire form was composed of two sections. The first section included items to determine the demographical features of the respondents. The survey instrument of the second part included scales for measuring job satisfaction, organizational trust and fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents. All measurement items were adapted from the literature. Firstly, the participants were asked to respond to 21

items derived from Lewicka and Krot (2013**)** and Tokgöz and Aytemiz-Seymen (2013) to assess their organizational trust. Job satisfaction was measured via the Job Satisfaction Sub-Scale of Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire composed of three items. In previous research where this scale was used, it was found that Cronbach's alpha was high (Spector, 1997, p, 19). Bowling and Hammond (2008), too, carried out a study proving structural reliability of the scale. Fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents were measured using three items derived from Håvold and Nesset (2009). This evaluated employees' fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents. The fact that the total score obtained from the scale was high shows that fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents is high, as well. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used for all items in this study, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

Data analysis

Data regarding the demographical features of respondents were analyzed through frequency and percentage distributions. Analysis on the research model was performed at two stages. At the first stage, the measurement model was tested via confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and findings as to validity and reliability of the measurement were obtained. Reliability tests were first conducted for internal consistency for all the factors. Average AVE values were utilized for convergent and discomposition reliabilities. At the second stage, the hypotheses in the study were tested via Structural Equation Model (SEM).

RESULTS

Characteristics of Respondents

In Table 3, the demographical and professional features of the employees in the hotels are provided. The vast majority of the respondents were composed of male employees. Accordingly, 28.1% of respondents (n=439) were female and 70.1% were male (n=1097). When examining respondents depending on their ages, it was seen that most of them were young. 74% of respondents were composed of employees aged 18-41, whereas 14% were composed of those aged 42 and over. 12% of them did not want to indicate their ages (n=188). Examining respondents according to their education levels, 40.1% of them graduated from high school (n=627), 36.7%

graduated from primary school (n=574), 10.6% had Bachelor's degrees (n=166), 9.2% graduated with associate degrees (n=144) and 1.3% graduated with post-graduate degrees (n=20). 2.1% of respondents (n=33) did not want to provide information about their education levels.

Table 3. *The respondents' profile*

Gender	N	Percentage (%)	Age	n	Percentage (%)
Female	439	28.1	18-25	430	27.5
Male	1097	70.1	26-33	415	26.5
Missing	28	1.8	34-41	313	20.0
Department			42-49	170	10.9
Food and Beverage (F&B)	416	26.6	50 and over	48	3.1
Culinary	297	19.0	Those not indicating	188	12.0
House keeping	255	16.3	**Education**		
Front office	162	10.4	Primary School	574	36.7
Department Manager	118	7.5	High School	627	40.1
Accounting	77	4.9	Associate Degree	144	9.2
Security	51	3.3	Bachelor's Degree	166	10.6
Human Resources	47	3.0	Post Graduate	20	1.3
Sales-Marketing	27	1.7	Total	1531	97.9
Those not indicating	114	7.3	Missing	33	2.1

In Table 3, besides the demographical and professional features of employees in the hotels, information on their departments is provided. Employees from nine different departments joined the research. 7.3% respondents (n=114) did not want to indicate their departments. The vast majority of respondents worked in five departments and primarily in food and beverage. These five different departments (F&B, culinary, housekeeping, front office and department managers) comprise 80% of all respondents.

Measurement Model

Firstly, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted and five dimensions were identified. Factor loadings of items included under each factor were found to be 0.50. These five factors explained 73.451% of the total variance. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy had a value of .953 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (χ^2= 33984,157 (p< 0.001, df= 351) was significant at 0.01 level. Obtained results show data was appropriate for factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Sharma, 1996; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001).

After EFA, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed via the maximum likelihood estimation method. Table 4 shows the results of the CFA of the five-factor model. All standardized factor loadings exceeded 0.5 and all items had high t values. This result indicates that items in the scale were loaded on relevant implicit variable in a statistically significant way (Randall & Lomax, 2004). In a general sense, fit indices statistics (x^2= 18,437, df= 7, x^2/df= 2,634, p< 0.000, RMSEA= 0.047, GFI= 0.992, CFI= 0.992, IFI= 0.992, NFI= 0.987, RFI= 0.972) show the measurement model is acceptable (Chau, 1997; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003).

Besides goodness of fit indices, composite construct reliability (CCR) and average variance extracted (AVE) should be examined when testing validity and reliability of a scale in CFA. As seen in Table 4, composite construct reliability coefficients of implicit variables are between 0.869 and 0.953 and Cronbach's alpha values are between 0.822 and 0.952. High construct reliability shows that internal consistency is high, as well, and thus all items under the relevant factor represent the same construct in a consistent manner. Obtained values indicate that the scale is acceptably reliable (Hair et al., 1998; Murphy & Davidshofer, 1988). AVE is another coefficient calculated for the evaluation of reliability and it is said that it should exceed 0.50 (Hair et al., 1998). It is seen in Table 4 that AVE values of factors in the scale exceed 0.50.

Table 4. *Reliabilities and confirmatory factor analysis*

Construct and items	Standardized loadings	t-Value	CCR	AVE	Cronbach's alpha
Trust in Manager					
TIM-1	0.874	Fixed			
TIM-2	0.843	45.328*			
TIM-3	0.817	42.786*			
TIM-4	0.860	47.122*	0.953	0.715	0.952
TIM-5	0.854	46.511*			
TIM-6	0.855	46.588*			
TIM-7	0.863	47.455*			
TIM-8	0.800	41.178*			
Trust in Organization					
TIP-1	0.709	Fixed			
TIP-2	0.754	28.773*	0.921	0.626	0.920
TIP-3	0.681	26.007*			
TIP-4	0.842	32.073*			
TIP-5	0.859	32.724*			
TIP-6	0.826	31.492*			
TIP-7	0.849	32.327*			
Trust in Colleagues					
TIC-1	0.699	Fixed			
TIC-2	0.777	28.771*			
TIC-3	0.755	28.006*	0.906	0.617	0.905
TIC-4	0.813	30.023*			
TIC-5	0.860	31.590*			
TIC-6	0.801	29.610*			
Fatalism					
F-1	0.895	Fixed			
F-2	0.910	49.921*	0.916	0.785	0.916
F-3	0.852	45.487*			
Job Satisfaction					
JS-1	0.924	Fixed			
JS-2	-0.831	-37.014*	0.869	0.690	0.822
JS-3	0.725	26.529*			

*$p < 0.001$

In addition, the fact that Cronbach's alpha, CCR and AVE values are over 0.50 shows that the convergent validity is ensured. Another indicator of structural validity is discriminant validity. The fact that AVE values are higher than squares of correlations between variable sets indicates the discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Results in Table 5 show that AVE value as to each implicit variable is higher than

square of correlations of that variable and other variables. These findings indicate convergence validity and discriminant validity are ensured.

Table 5. *Correlation squares and AVE*

	Trust in Manager	Trust in Organization	Trust in Colleague	Fatalism	AVE
Trust in Manager					0.715
Trust in Organization	0.50				0.626
Trust in Colleague	0.44	0.36			0.617
Fatalism	0.22	0.23	0.14		0.785
Job satisfaction	0.24	0.26	0.22	0.23	0.690

Structural Equation Modelling

SEM was conducted to test the validity of the proposed model and the hypotheses. Fit indices in Table 4 (x^2= 13,417, df= 5, x^2/df= 2,683, p< 0.000, RMSEA= 0.047, GFI= 0.994, CFI= 0.994, IFI= 0.994, NFI= 0.990, RFI= 0.971) show the model fits the obtained data. Findings in Table 6 indicate t values of standardized path coefficients are statistically significant. In light of these results, it can be seen that fatalistic beliefs of employees in accommodation companies affect their job satisfaction and organizational trust levels.

Table 6. *Structural parameter estimates*

	β	t-Value	Results
Fatalism---> Job Satisfaction	-0.476	-21.407*	Supported
Fatalism---> Trust in Manager	-0.474	-21.256*	Supported
Fatalism---> Trust in Organization	-0.481	-21.673*	Supported
Fatalism---> Trust in Colleagues	-0.379	-16.187*	Supported

*p < 0.001

As understood from findings in Table 6, fatalistic beliefs regarding occupational accidents strongly and negatively influence both job satisfaction and organizational trust dimensions. According to the findings examined in order of priority (in line with β value), fatalistic belief regarding occupational accidents influences organizational trust at the highest level (β= -0.481; t= 21,673). Negative Beta (β) value indicates the relationship is negative. In other words, increase in fatalistic beliefs of

employees regarding occupational accidents negatively influences their trust in the organizations. Similar results are observed in the relationship between fatalism and job satisfaction (β= -0.476; t= 21,407). Accordingly, fatalistic beliefs of employees regarding occupational accidents influence their job satisfaction in a negative way. In addition, it is also seen that fatalism beliefs regarding occupational accidents negatively affect trust in managers (β= -0.474; t= 21,256) and colleagues (β= -0.379; t= 16,187). As a result, all hypotheses are supported by the findings.

CONCLUSION

The need for safety, which is directly or indirectly experienced in all fields of life, reflects on the mindscapes and behavioral patterns of individuals as a cultural component, differing significantly according to communities. While particular communities adopt a proactive approach in the way they systematically put preventive measures and precautions into action to avoid possible accidents and disasters, others may show pathological and reactive approaches to occupational accidents and disasters. In this regard, safety culture indicates basic values and attitudes of individuals or institutions regarding the realistic evaluation of possible threats and risks, prioritization and taking necessary precautions in advance that would eliminate these threats and risks (Koydemir et al., 2014: 1).

Fatalism, which makes employees regard occupational accidents as "inevitable phenomena" through negatively influencing safety culture understanding, is the main topic of this study. It is observed that the role and effects of fatalistic approaches on occupational accidents in Turkey have not been researched. Within this framework, the role of fatalism in occupational accidents should be examined from individual and social aspects in more detail. Studies carried out on this subject would make a significant contribution to the country in terms of occupational health and safety. Such kinds of approaches, associating occupational accidents with luck, faith etc. and focusing on the idea that occupational accidents can never be prevented, would may decrease the efficiencies of individual, organizational or social precautions to be carried out.

This study particularly aims to understand the fatalistic approach regarding occupational accidents in tourism sector and make a humble contribution to tourism management literature. Understanding the attitudes of employees regarding occupational accidents is important to build a safety environment. Moreover, whereas the negative effect of

fatalism on occupational accidents is obvious, other possible organizational and personal outcomes are yet to be revealed. This research shows that job satisfaction and organizational trust are affected by the fatalistic attitudes of employees.

As a result of analyses conducted in line with the main purposes of the study, it has been determined that fatalistic beliefs of respondents negatively influence all dimensions of organizational trust. In particular, studies based on locus of control within the scope of psychology found that individuals with internal locus of control tended to trust in the organization rather than those with external locus of control (Massari & Rosenblum, 1972: 358). Much research has been carried out on locus of control and it has been found that locus of control has an impact on job satisfaction, job stress, job performance, stress and depression (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001; Judge et al., 2003; Kalbers & Fogarty, 2005; Martin et al., 2005; Milz et al., 2016; Rahim, 1996)

According to findings in the literature, a fatalistic approach to occupational accidents influences job satisfaction levels of employees in a negative way. In particular, studies carried out within the scope of locus of control supports these findings. For instance, in a study by Mitchell et al. (1975), it was pointed out that individuals with internal locus of control are more prone to job satisfaction and also more eager to take part in management. Results obtained by Chen and Silverthorne (2008) show employees with internal locus of control tend more to job satisfaction and their stress levels are lower than others. Findings of another study (Kirkcaldy, Shephard, & Furnham, 2002) on this matter put forth that job satisfaction levels of employees with internal locus of control are higher than others. According to researchers, employees with external locus of control restrict themselves in terms of showing their capabilities and utilizing their mobility. This situation negatively affects their productivity and job satisfaction levels. Therefore, necessary strategies for leading employees to expectations with internal locus should be put into action (Kirkcaldy et al., 2002: 1370).

Spector (1988) indicates that job satisfaction levels of employees with internal locus of control are higher. In the study on employees in public institutions, Mitchell et al. (1975) found that job satisfaction levels of employees with internal locus of control are higher. In a study on employees in the health sector, Akbolat et al. (2011) concluded that job satisfaction levels of employees with internal locus of control are higher than those of employees with external locus of control. In the study on

accountants in Taiwan, Chen and Silverthorne (2008) indicated that locus of control plays an important role in predicting job satisfaction, stress and performance levels of employees. Individuals with a higher internal locus of control are more likely to have lower levels of job stress and higher levels of job performance and satisfaction. The study Huang (2006) carried out on culinary arts workers in Taiwan revealed that culinary arts workers with strong internal locus of control were significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction. In contrast, there is a significant and negative correlation between job satisfaction levels and culinary arts workers with strong external locus of control.

When fatalism is examined as a dimension of external locus of control, the fact that such kinds of mentality negatively affect individual's job satisfaction can be explained through individuals' not being able to internalize opportunities or prizes provided to him/her. Individuals with external locus of control may think that his/her success results from other factors or that his/her duties have been carried out by particular components rather than him/herself. Under these circumstances, it is quite likely that feelings of satisfaction are negatively influenced or not influenced at all. It is the same for fatalistic approaches to occupational accidents. A fatalistic individual would evaluate occupational accidents as an outcome of faith or luck and therefore not regard him/herself or other stakeholders in the company as responsible. Under this circumstance, not only do occupational health and safety precautions taken by a company not contribute to individuals' job satisfaction, but also they may cause dissatisfaction because these particular employees considers all these precautions as unnecessary.

Occupational health and safety is about systematic activities carried out in order to provide healthy and safe working environments to employees to protect them from occupational accidents and diseases (Tozkoparan & Taşoğlu, 2011: 184). The science of occupational health and safety has emerged as an outcome of the value attributed to human error. Since the beginning of industrial evolution to the present, the importance of occupational health and safety has increased. There are particular justifications revealing the importance of occupational health and safety. Economic reasons for occupational health and safety are related to costs caused by occupational accidents and diseases. On the other hand, penal sanctions imposed as a result of not obeying instructions covered in law and regulations reflect legal justifications for maintaining occupational health and safety. Aside from economical and legal reasons, there are more important social justifications for maintaining occupational health

and safety. First and foremost, occupational health and safety should be regarded by companies as a social responsibility, because providing a healthy and safe working environment to employees is considered by society to be an essential duty of companies. Societies react to accidents or disasters with deep sorrow (Hughes & Ferett, 2012: 8-9; Barnett-Schuster, 2008: 3-4). Turkish people's reactions after the particularly sad incidents in 2014 revealed how important occupational health and occupational safety are in social terms. In this regard, the economic costs and penal sanctions imposed after an occupational accident or disease plays a small part compared to the socio-psychological costs. Therefore, occupational accidents and diseases should be examined from a social perspective rather than purely from an economical aspect.

Researchers agree that changing fatalism culture can be effective for preventing occupational accidents (Kiani & Khodabakhsh, 2013; Kouabenan, 1998; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). In a study on employees in hotels, Koç (2015) found that intention to associate occupational accidents with luck, faith etc. decreases as positive opinions regarding occupational health and safety increase. This conclusion reveals the importance of occupational health and safety training and practices to counteract fatalistic beliefs in occupational accidents. Past research also shows that job satisfaction is almost as effective as fatalism on employees' safety behaviors. According to Håvold and Nesset (2009), some essential managerial actions against occupational accidents could be health and safety trainings to counteract fatalism, making safety instructions as simple as possible and reducing the general perception of job dissatisfaction. This current study proves that actions to counteract fatalism regarding occupational accidents would also serve to increase job satisfaction.

The health and safety trainings would be an effective tool for managers to build a safety climate and underline the values of rationality, logical thought, planned decision making and self-efficacy (Kiani & Khodabakhsh, 2013: 203). In the context of Turkey, it would also worth underlying the Islamic term "resignation" which means doing best before trusting in fate. This way, employees would be more careful in applying the necessary safety precautions and also appreciate the managerial effort to provide a safe working environment. As a result, this appreciation would affect the job satisfaction and organizational trust positively.

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