

**Relationship between Authentic Leadership, Trust and Work Engagement
of security guards in a private security firm operating
in the Western Cape**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that investigating the: *Relationship between authentic leadership trust and work engagement of security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape*. This research has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Signature.....

Nomsangaphi Reginah Nduku

Date.....

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ABSTRACT

Globally both public and private businesses are experiencing an enormous number of challenges posed by both the internal and external environment. However, the private security industry is not immune to that as they are facing challenges such as, weak and ineffective regulations and enforcement , long working hours, inconsistent recruitment and selection standards nonexistence of accountability and transparency which makes it easy for leaders to be involved in illegal practices, poorly compensations of security guards with limited or no benefits, low skills because of lack of training often undertaking dangerous jobs in contentious spaces.

These challenges and allegations attributed to leaders bring about an increase in stress/workload which in turn can possibly result into loss of trust, and disengagement on part of security guards against their leaders. According to literature, a new breed of authentic leaders should be developed in order to overcome these challenges. Authentic perspective of leadership believed that, this type of leadership display high degree of integrity has a deep a sense of purpose, and committed to their core values. Consequently they promote a more trusting working relationship between them and their employees that can also translate into a motivated and engaged workforce.

The objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between authentic leadership of supervisors / managers, trust and work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape. A sample of 218 security guards was chosen through the non-probability convenience sampling with the use of the non-experimental cross sectional design. A composite questionnaire consisted of biographical data section, Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), Workplace Trust Survey (UWES) (Trust in the immediate manager sub-scale), and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used in the present study.

The data was analyzed by means of statistical techniques such as factor analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis.

In the measurement model, a significant relationship was found between authentic leadership, trust and work engagement, however the correlation between authentic leadership and trust was moderate.

Additionally findings also indicated that security guards agreed strongly with respect to moral perspective (self-regulation) as an important component of authentic leadership, integrity as a component of trust, and lastly vigor as the most important component of work engagement.

Keywords: Authentic leadership, Trust, Work Engagement.

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

This study explores the relationship between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, in relation to trust and work engagement of security guards in the private security firm. The researcher aimed specifically to explore whether authentic leadership of supervisors and managers influences trust and work engagement of the security guards in the private security firm. The chapter begins with the problem statement, followed by the aim of the study, motivation and setting for the study. Finally the research objectives, definition of important concepts, limitations of the study, the chapter summary, as well as the outline of the remainder of the study are presented.

1.2 Problem statement

The private security industry is experiencing an enormous number of challenges and allegations posed by both the internal and external environment, such as weak and ineffective regulations and enforcement, long working hours, inconsistent recruitment and selection standards, non-existence of accountability and transparency which makes it easy for leaders to be involved in illegal practices, poor compensations of security guards with limited or no benefits, low skills because of lack of training, often having to undertake dangerous jobs in contentious spaces (Jaynes, 2012).

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These challenges and allegations attributed to leaders bring about an increase in stress/workload, which in turn lead to loss of trust, and disengagement on the part of security guards against their leaders (Okanga & Drotskie, 2015). This gives rise to the concept of authentic leadership on the part of management, which can translate to trust and high levels of work engagement to employees, which in this instance are security guards. Individuals occupying leadership positions in organizations have the duty and

responsibility to pull through these challenges, showing understanding of the workforce, recognition and appreciation in order to pledge trust to the employees to remain engaged in the workspace (Babcock-Robertson & Stricklands, 2010). These individuals, as leaders in their respective organizations, should be able to identify and focus on the strengths and accomplishments of their followers as employees, in order to achieve organisational objectives, which consequently impact on their followers' feelings of trust and work engagement (Rothman & Jordaan, 2006). As the workspace of security guards is so strenuous and risky, their job description demands trust, not only from their co-workers, but trust also in their leaders (managers and executives), so as to stay engaged (Chung & Jackson, 2011).

Both the internal and external environments pose challenges to security guards which can hamper their ability to work optimally (Carstens & Barnes, 2006; Onorato & Zhu, 2014). Literature review in this regard shows that style of leadership has a vital impact on employees' trust and work engagement, and also positive relationship between the leader and employee (Carstens et al., 2014). It is against this background that this study attempts to investigate the relationship between the authentic leadership of supervisor and managers, trust and work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

1.3 Aim of the study

This study seeks to determine and establish whether or not a relationship exists between the authentic leadership of supervisor and managers, trust and work engagement of the security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western

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Cape, and how authentic leadership, influences trust and levels of work engagement of these employees (security guards).

1.4 Research Objectives

The primary aim of this study is to investigate a relationship between the authentic leadership, trust and the work engagement of security guards in a private security firm

operating in the Western Cape. In order to achieve the primary aim of this study the following sub-objectives were formulated:

- To determine whether a relationship exists between the authentic leadership of supervisors and managers , and trust of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape;
- To determine whether there is a relationship between the authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, and the work engagement of security guards working in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape, and
- To establish whether a relationship exists between trust in supervisors and managers, and the work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

1.5 Motivation of the study

The importance of this study includes both theoretical and practical contributions in the field of authentic leadership, and trust and work engagement in the workspace. Generally, there is a scarcity of academic and empirical literature on the topic of the three variables, namely authentic leadership, trust and work engagement, as well as security guards in the industry (Lebeer & Saurd, 2003). This study seeks therefore to enrich the existing literature in this regard (Lebeer et al., 2003).

The private security sector will be equipped with useful information regarding the concept of authentic leadership, trust and work engagement, which will also assist to formulate policies accordingly. The private security sector as a new phenomenon could also use these findings and recommendations for better human resource management

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outcomes and the overall general performance in achieving its objectives (Lebeer et al., 2003).

1.6 The setting for the study

The study was located in an undisclosed leading international security company operating in South Africa, particularly in the Western Cape.

1.7 Definition of important concepts

The following concepts are defined to facilitate an understanding of various terminology used in this study:

1.7.1 Authentic leadership

Despite the enormous amount of work done on leadership studies and leadership definitions, a precise definition of authentic leadership still seems to be ambiguous in nature (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008). Luthans and Avolio's (2003) initial definition of authentic leadership was to advance a refined definition that more fully reflects the underlying dimensions of the construct posited by Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May and Walumbwa (2005); Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahragang (2005). Specifically, authentic leadership is defined as "a pattern of leader behaviour that promotes and is inspired both by positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information processing, and transparency on the part of leaders and employees" (Walumbwa et al., (2008,p.4). For the purposes of this study, this modified definition of authentic leadership by Walumbwa et al.(2008) was adopted. This definition is divided into the following dimensions namely;

Self-awareness refers to the extent to which leaders know their strengths and weaknesses, which is fundamental to any adaptation or development (Walumbwa et al., (2008).

Balanced processing refers to the practice of objectively analyzing all relevant data before coming to a decision, which means collecting data without prejudice and

considering self-relevant information whether it is positive or negative in nature (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Self-regulation refers to the way that is consistent with one's true self (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Relational transparency refers to the openness of sharing information and expressing one's true feelings and thoughts (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

1.7.2 Trust

Ferres (2003), defines trust as the willingness of a person to trust another based on his or her perception of a trust referent (peer, supervisor, manager, leader, and organisation) as being caring, supportive and cognizant of others. This study will focus only on two-sub-factors of trust namely; trust in a supervisor and trust in a manager. According to this study trust in an immediate supervisor and manager means the levels of support and assurance an employee receives from him/her (Ferres, 2003). In the same breath Ferres and Travaglione (2003) hypothesized trust in the immediate supervisor as the ability of the supervisor/manager to be open, fair and honest with his subordinates; to listen to employees' complaints and to give recognition for work well done.

In addition to that, Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995); Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998) advocated a well-known cited definition of trust, where (Mayer et al, 1995, p. 712) define 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 the other party". In similar vein, Rousseau et al. (1998, p 395.) suggest that trust is "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another". From the above definitions it can be concluded that

there are two critical features of trust, namely, positive expectations and a willingness to be vulnerable (Mayer et al., 1995). Mayer et al.(1995) differently highlighted three

characteristics namely; ability, benevolence, and integrity of a person that have a major influence on whether that person will be trusted or not.

Ability/competence means a group of skills and competencies that enable one to have influence within some specific domain (Mayer et al., 1995).

Benevolence means the extent to which a trustor (employee) perceives that the trustee (leader) intends to do good to him or her in their relationship (Mayer et al., 1995).

Integrity refers to the trustor's perceptions that the trustee adheres to certain principles, which the trustor finds acceptable (Mayer et al., 1995). For the purpose of the current study the view of trust advocated by Mayer et al. (1995) was adopted.

1.7.3 Work Engagement

Work engagement is defined by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p.295) as a "fulfilling, satisfying and positive work-related state of mind, characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption", where:

Vigour reflects a desire to devote effort in one's work, perseverance in the face of job related obstacles, and an expression of a high level of energy and mental toughness while working (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

Dedication refers to a particularly intense work involvement and encompasses feelings of inspiration, pride, enthusiasm, significance and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

Absorption is characterized by being totally focused on one's work activities to such an extent that time appears to pass speedily and one finds it increasingly difficult to disengage from one's work. The definition of work engagement advocated by Schaufeli and his colleague (2004) was adopted for the purpose of the study.

1.7.4 Private security industry

In terms of the South African Private Security Regulation Act (Act 56 of 2001),” the private security industry” consists of four sectors, namely: (1) private security firms that perform activities on a professional basis for third parties. Their objective includes the preservation of the security of persons and property or the maintenance of public law and order, using mainly manpower for that purpose. This is known as “contract – security”: (2) private in-house security services are organizations that perform functions for their own firm. Their objective includes, the preservation of the security of persons and property or the maintenance of public law and order, using mainly manpower for that purpose. This is also known as’ ‘in-house security’. (3) private central alarm-monitoring stations are enterprises that perform functions for third persons on a professional basis, their intention being to preserve the safety of persons and property or to maintain public law and order. They do this by using detectors that transmit their findings by telecommunication links to one or more central points where the findings are recorded and evaluated; and (4) private high security transport firms are undertakings that transport limited quantities of cash and other valuables for third persons on a professional basis (South African Private Security Regulation Act 56 of 2001).

1.7.5 Private Security Firm

The South African Security Industry Regulation Act (Act 56 of 2001) describes a private security company, as a company which provides one or more of the following services: guarding, monitoring, armed reaction, escorting, investigating and other security-related services to private individuals and companies or institutions in the country for the purpose of making a profit. Therefore for the purpose of the study, a private security firm is defined as a private security firm which specializes in property guarding.

1.7.6 Security guard/officer

The South African Security Industry Regulation Act(Act 56 of 2001) describe the security officer as “any natural person who is employed by another person , including an

organ of State, and who receives or is entitled to receive from such other person any remuneration, reward, fee or benefit, for rendering one or more security services”.

1.8 Limitations of the study

The following might limit the findings of this study. Firstly, the study is limited only to one organization of the industry and the sample is too small, therefore the results cannot be generalized (Sekarana, 2000). Secondly, due to time and resources, the cross-sectional survey design made it impossible to test the assumptions over time (as would be the case with the longitudinal design) (Sekarana, 2000). Lastly, the use of questionnaire presents the limitation in that rich, qualitative information which could be adding value will be not part of the design (Sekarana, 2000).

1.9 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study is to determine whether a relationship exists between authentic leadership, trust of subordinates and work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape. The insight into the background and the motivation for the study were presented, research objectives, the setting for the study, and the definitions of important concepts to be used in the study were also set out. The chapter concluded with the study limitations, chapter summary and an overview of the chapters of the study. The next chapter reviews the relevant literature relating to the private security industry, authentic leadership, and trust and work engagement.

1.10 Overview of the Chapters

Chapter One: provides an introduction and orientation of the study, with an overview of the rationale and significance of the study.

Chapter Two: deals with the literature review on the development of the private security industry, overview of the theoretical background of the main constructs, namely authentic leadership, trust and work engagement. It provides the theoretical basis

this formulates the premise of the study. The references to the various and applicable theories relevant to authentic leadership trust and work engagements made are presented.

Chapter Three: This chapter provides an overview of the research methodology and design used to execute the study. In particular the selection of the sample, data collection methods, psychometric properties of the measuring instruments and statistical techniques used to test the hypothesis, is discussed.

Chapter Four: This chapter presents the analysis of the data, and makes an association with the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

Chapter Five: describes the summary of the main findings, the conclusion and recommendations obtained from the study. Finally, this chapter concludes with recommendations and suggestions that may add value for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a literature review on the history and the legislative framework of the private security industry in South Africa. Firstly, the historical background and the legislative framework will be discussed after which the relevant constructs namely; authentic leadership, trust and work engagement with their respective relationship to one another found in previous research studies are also highlighted and discussed, and consequently hypotheses are formulated. The chapter concludes with the theoretical model for the study and the chapter summary.

2.2 Historical background and legal framework of South African private security industry

South Africa's story is a fairly unique one in terms of history of the development of private security and the legislative framework endorsed (Berg & Howell, 2017). The South African private security industry has evolved through the process of being unregulated and ended up being a fully regulated industry (Berg et al., 2017). In South Africa the Code of Practice are revolutionary agreements which are legally binding on all security service providers, irrespective of whether are registered with the Private Security Industry Regulation Authority or not (Berg et al.,2017). In addition to that, it is also legally binding on every person using his/her own employees to protect or safeguard his/ her premises or other interests, or persons or property on his/her premises or under his / her control(Berg et al.,2017). The Code of Conduct that has been drawn up and made binding in terms of the Security Officers' Act 1987 (Act 92 of 1987) has been repealed and made provision for promulgation of the Improper Conduct Enquiries Regulations , 2003. This is an absolute indication that this sector is fully regulated (Berg et al., 2017).

Consequently, section 28 (1) of Chapter 4 of the Private Security Industry Regulation Authority Act, 2001 (Act 56 of 2001) stipulates that the Minister must, after consultation with the Council , prescribe a Code of Conduct for security service providers which contains sufficient procedures and rules of evidence for its enforcement (Berg et al.,2017).

In terms of the South African Private Security Regulation Act (Act 56 of 2001),” the private security industry” consists of four sectors, namely: (1) private security firms that perform activities on a professional basis for third parties. Their objective includes the preservation of the security of persons and property or the maintenance of public law and order, using mainly manpower for that purpose. This is known as ‘contract-security’: (2) private in-house security services are organizations that perform functions for their own firm. Their objective includes, the preservation of the security of persons and property or the maintenance of public law and order, using mainly manpower for that purpose. This is also known as’ ‘in-house security’. (3) private central alarm monitoring stations are enterprises that perform functions for third persons on a professional basis, their intention being to preserve the safety of persons and property or to maintain public law and order. They do this by using detectors that transmit their findings by telecommunication links to one or more central points where the findings are recorded and evaluated; and (4) private high security transport firms are undertakings that transport limited quantities of cash and other valuables for third persons on a professional basis (South African Private Security Regulation Act 56 of 2001).

Currently, regarding the current legislation regulating private security in South Africa in brief, the following documents are the primary documents (some of which are amended or revised) Private Security Industry Regulation Act of 2001; Appeal Regulations of 2002; Improper Conduct Enquiries Regulations of 2003; Code of Good Conduct for Security Service Providers of 2003; and others (Berg et al., 2017). In addition to that, the Private Security Industry Regulation Act of 2001 provides for the establishment of a regulatory body called Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA), as well

as a Council (consisting of five persons) which governs and controls PSIRA (Berg et al., 2017).

PSIRA inspectors have been given a lot of power to ensure that companies and officers in the private security industry are registered and comply with the law (Berg et al., 2017). Because private security industry is not immune from the leadership challenges prevailing in the South African business landscape and also being a new concept in the academic research space it is therefore imperative to test some of our theories in this regard.

2.3 Definition of constructs

2.3.1 Definition of Authentic Leadership

Walumbwa et al. (2008, p.233) define authentic leadership “as a process that draws both from positive psychological capacities and highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development”. Through this process leaders are deeply aware of how they think and behave in the context in which they operate, which is consequently perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values and moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009). It also positively influences self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of both leaders and followers; and instills positive personal growth and self-development (Ilies et al., 2005). Nonetheless, several authors have a problem in defining authentic leadership as encompassing the positive psychological capacities of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience. Based on Michael Kernis’s (2003) conception of authenticity, Ilies et al. (2005) postulated a more focused four-component model of authentic leadership that included self-awareness, unbiased processing, authentic behaviour/acting, and authentic relational orientation.

Table 1: Authentic leadership factors

Factor	Definition
Self-awareness	“One’s awareness of, and trust in, one’s own personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings and cognitions” (p.

	377).
Unbiased Processing	“Not denying, distorting, exaggerating or ignoring private knowledge, internal experiences, and externally based evaluative information” (p. 378).
Authentic Behaviour/Acting	“ Whether people act in accordance with their true self as opposed to acting merely to please others or to attain rewards or avoid punishment through acting falsely” (p.380)
Authentic Relational Orientation	“ An active process of self-disclosure and the development of mutual intimacy and trust so that intimates will see one’s true self-aspects, both good and bad” (p.390).

(Source: Ilies et al., 2005)

Walumbwa et al. (2008) relied on the above works to develop their Authentic Leadership Questionnaire which bases their higher order, multi-dimensional authentic leadership construct on the four factors shown below in Table 2.

Table 2: Authentic leadership factors

Factor	Definition
Self- awareness	“An understanding of how one derives and makes meaning of the world and how that meaning-making process impacts the way one views himself or herself over time. It also refers to showing an understanding of one’s strengths and weaknesses and the multifaceted nature of the self, which includes gaining insight into the self through exposure to others, and being cognizant of one’s impact on other people” (p. 95).
Balanced/	“Showing that they objectively analyse all relevant data before

Unbiased processing	coming to a decision. Such people also solicit views that challenge their deeply held positions” (p. 95).
Internalized moral perspective	“Refers to an internalized and integrated form of self-regulation. The sort of self-regulation is guided by internal moral standards and values versus group, organizational, and societal pressures, and it results in expressed decision making and behaviour that is consistent with these internalized values” (p. 95).
Rational transparency	“Presenting one’s authentic self (as opposed to fake or distorted self) to others. Such behaviour promotes trust through disclosures that involve openly sharing information and expressions of one’s true thoughts and feelings while trying to minimize displays of inappropriate emotions” (p.95).

(Source Walumbwa et al., 2008)

Table 2 contains the working definitions of authentic leadership for this study in order to keep the concepts consistent between the instrument and discussion (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Ilies et al., 2005; Endrissat, Muller & Kaundell-Baum, 2007). Looking from a different perspective, Shamir and Eilam (2005) describe authentic leadership behaviour as “...primarily motivated by components of the self-concept such as values and identities, rather than by calculations or expected benefits” (Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Sosik, Kahai & Piovosio, 2009). They defined authentic leaders as people who have the following attributes: 1. “the role of the leader is a central component of their self-concept, 2. they have achieved a high level of self-resolution or self-concept clarity, 3. their goals are self-concordant, and 4. their behavior is self-expressive” (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates to be leaders. The authentic leader is true to him/her and the exhibited behaviour positively transforms or develops associates into leaders themselves (Ilies et al., 2005). Authentic leaders are leading followers toward a higher purpose and helping to promote their health. Authentic

leaders moreover provide a supportive and positive environment where a positive mood is nurtured. The authentic leader also influences followers through unconditional trust on the part of the follower, positive emotions, and a commitment to foster self-determination and growth in their followers (Macik-Frey, et al., 2009).

George (2003) also described an authentic leader as a person who brings people together around a shared mission and values and empowers them to lead in order to serve their customers while creating value for all, used here since it is integral to the development of the instrument (Authentic Leadership Questionnaire) used in measuring the construct of authentic leadership in this study.

In line with the prevailing empirical research on authentic leadership, as conceptualized by Avolio, Gardner and colleagues (Avolio et al., 2004; Gardner et al., 2005), from the above discussion it is therefore imperative for the researcher to analyze authentic leadership from the perspectives of Peterson and Luthans (2003) and Peus, Wescher, Striecher and Braum (2011). This is influenced by the fact that these markers' factors can serve as a yardstick for the followers to perceive a leader's authenticity (Gardner et al., 2011). In that case it is therefore very important to discuss these factors, namely self-knowledge/awareness, balanced/unbalanced processing, internalized moral perspective and rational transparency, both in theory and in practice.

2.3.1.1 Antecedents of authentic leadership

Gardner et al. (p. 344, 2005) posit that in order to act authentically, one has to "know oneself" and act "in accordance with one's true self", hence self-knowledge and self-consistency are regarded as key antecedents of authentic leadership.

- **Self-knowledge**

Bennis (2003) and Eriksen (2009) emphasize the fact that gaining self-knowledge is a prerequisite to the development of authentic leadership. Shamir and Eilam (2005) went further and claimed that leaders who possess a high degree of self-knowledge know the values and convictions clearly. Brason(2007) confirmed that viewpoint and stressed it

is through coming to know and understand one's self-concept that leaders can develop a meaning system from which to feel, think, and act with authenticity. Additionally, Erickson (1994) states that because authentic leaders know their values thoroughly they can act in accordance with their values even if challenged by social or situational circumstances. Summarily, self-knowledge is about values, convictions as well as personal strengths and weaknesses so that leaders are expected to act in a way which is perceived to be authentic by their followers (Peus et al., 2011).

Self-knowledge is also a prerequisite for the other three components of authentic leadership. Walumbwa et al. (2008) argued (as cited in Peus et al., 2011, p.95) that self-knowledge precedes balanced processing since leaders who “also solicit views that challenge their deeply held positions” first have to know their positions before being able to challenge them. In that situation one is governed or guided by internal moral standards to display such behaviour as internalized moral perspectives stipulating clear knowledge of one's personal standards is necessary (Peus et al., 2011).

On the basis of the leadership theory literature, persons who clearly know their attitudes and values as well as their strengths and weaknesses across different domains and situations experience higher levels of positive effect and well-being, which may in turn enable them to behave authentically (Kernis, 2003, as in cited in Peus et al., 2011). Conclusively, a clear knowledge of one's values and convictions, as well as strengths and weaknesses seems to be a prerequisite for people to express their views and values and act in accordance with them which is likely to be perceived as being authentic by others (Peus et al., 2011).

- **Self-consistency**

According to Walumbwa et al. (2008, as cited in Peus et al., 2011, p.93), beyond knowing themselves, it is very important to demonstrate “consistency between their values, beliefs, and actions...” in order to be perceived as an authentic leader. Based on the previous statement, according to Peus et al. (2011), self-consistency seems to be an additional predictor of perceived authentic leadership. According to Avolio et al.

(2004), a leadership style does not differentiate the authentic leader from the inauthentic leaders but what is important is that authentic leaders act in accordance with deep personal values and convictions. Sparrowe (2005,p. 423) takes it further and elaborates that “authentic leaders are effective in leading others because followers look for consistency between their leader’s true selves as expressed in values, purpose, or voice and their behaviour”.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) highlighted the fact that an alignment between a leader’s values and his/her behaviours cultivates credibility in the eyes of followers which is regarded as a core personal identity image of authentic leaders. Furthermore the authentic leaders align their values with their intentions and actions which results in achieving self-consistency which is perceived as self-regulatory (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans & Avolio 2003). According to Brason (2007), this alignment between values and behaviours makes leaders to be “true selves” (for example their values, convictions, and attitudes) and being transparent to followers. Since this alignment between values and behaviour makes leaders “true selves” is almost regarded as enduring in most writing on authentic leadership (Ilies et al., 2005, cited in Peus et al., 2011).

According to Avolio et al. (2004), empirical evidence on the relation between authentic leadership and follower work attitudes and behaviour is still scarce owing to the novelty of the construct. However, preliminary evidence supports the relations proposed by Avolio et al. (2004). For example, Walumbwa et al. (2008) posited that authentic leaders influence high levels of satisfaction with the supervisor and commitment as well as the willingness to act beyond contractual duties among followers. In accordance with their predictions, Walumbwa et al. (2008) found authentic leadership to be a significant positive predictor of a follower’s satisfaction with their supervisor, organizational commitment, and willingness to make extra effort at work. Another recent empirical investigation provided further support for the positive impact of authentic leadership on followers’ work-related attitudes and performance which was purported by Clapp-Smith et al. (2009).

Peus et al. (2011) reported authentic leadership to be significantly related to nurses' work engagement, voice behaviour, and perceived unit care quality, and consequently those findings for work engagement received further support by Giallonardo, Wong and Iwasiw (2010) which in the same breath announced a positive relation between authentic leadership and follower job satisfaction. Although these findings support the predictions by Avolio et al. (2004), they only "represent a first step" (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 118), therefore it is necessary to shed further light on the relation between authentic leadership as conceptualized by Avolio et al., (2004) and followers' satisfaction with their supervisor, organizational commitment and extra-effort.

- **Self-awareness**

Looking into the existential literature and the work of Walumbwa et al. (2008, p.95) who define self-awareness as an "an understanding of how one derives and makes meaning of the world and how that meaning –making process impacts the way one views himself or herself over time. It also refers to showing an understanding of one's strengths and weaknesses and the multifaceted natures of the self, which includes gaining insight into the self through exposure to others, and being cognizant of one's impact on other people". Judge, Locke, Durham and Klinger (1998) also concurred with this by saying authentic leaders with self-awareness can reflect the extent to which they know their strengths and weaknesses, which is fundamental to any adaptation or development. They went further and argued that those with a positive self-concept are likely to be more self-aware, and their emotional intelligence reflects a greater understanding of themselves and their own emotions. Therefore, according to Judge et al. (1998), this suggests that leadership selection and promotion systems are fundamental in adaptation and development. They also affirmed that the best strategy in developing self-awareness in leaders is through the utilization of multi-source feedback because it is through feedback that the leaders can gain insight into how they are viewed by others, namely followers, peers, supervisors and other people with whom they interact. The feedback can give more accurate insight into one's own values and beliefs as well

as more precise information about one's strengths and weaknesses (Judge et al., 1998).

- **Balanced/Unbiased processing**

Ilies et al. (2005) describe a balanced process as the practice of objectively analyzing all relevant data before coming to a decision, which means collecting data without prejudice and considering self-relevant information, whether it is positive or negative. According to Ilies et al. (2005), the absence of distortion when processing self-relevant information lies at the very heart of integrity, thus suggesting that integrity should be an important selection yardstick. They went further and argued that because individuals who process information are unbiased and are more likely to actively select information-generating situations, learning goal orientation should also be an important selection criterion for authentic leaders. Because not all individuals in the real work situation will be expected to demonstrate this competency, it can be developed through assessment centres using techniques such as role plays, leaderless group discussions, and many more others relevant in developing such a competency (Ilies et al., 2005).

- **Self-regulation**

According to Ilies et al. (2005), self-regulation refers to the way that one is consistent with one's true self. They went further and pointed out two key traits that are likely to lead to authentic behaviour, namely the extent to which a leader is low in other-directedness and has high levels of self-esteem. These two personal traits suggest that leaders will not attempt to behave in ways that are inconsistent with their personal values, and will be secure in their own identity (Ilies et al., 2005). The development interventions which can be used to develop such authentic behaviour include coaching or mentoring programmes because they have a high potential for positive behavioural role modeling and feedback (Ilies et al., 2005).

- **Relational transparency**

Kernis (2003) acknowledged the potential that relational transparency focuses upon sharing information openly and expressing one's true feelings and thoughts, and on the other hand, implies minimizing displays of inappropriate emotions, given the fact that authentic leaders are not faking this behaviour therefore are genuinely open, and truthful in relationships with others. Unlike with the other three components of authentic leadership, according to Kernis (2003) this component can be traced back to the pattern of the past relationships the leader has had with others in the organization. Moreover, it can be taken as the best way to determine promotions based on the peer and follower rating of trust or leader-member exchange. In case that information is there for one reason or the other, one possibility is to develop past interview questions in order to assess the quality of the past relationship a leader has developed with his/her followers (Kernis, 2003). According to Huffcutt, Roth, Conway, and Stone (2001) and Posthuma, Morgeson and Champion, (2002, as cited in Ilies et al., 2005), recent research has suggested that through the use of structured interviews such quality of the past relationship is assessed effectively.

Contrary to other three components, this component would appear to be difficult to develop, since it depends on numerous factors many of which will be beyond the control of such potential intervention (Ilies et al., 2005). Under the circumstances upward feedback is suggested which might be helpful because of its capacity to be able to highlight low trust situations that could then be directly addressed (Ilies et al., 2005). Another alternative of intervention by Scandura and Graen (1984) is training in leader-member exchange that can yield a higher quality relationship between leaders and followers. This brings us to the positive mediating mechanism trust which the authentic leaders used to influence followers' attitudes and behaviour in the study (Scandura et al., 1984).

2.4 Definition of trust

Research evidence indicates that a climate of trust leads to wide and diverse benefits for individuals and teams across levels of organizations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Many studies have demonstrated trust impacts directly or indirectly in more positive workplace

behaviours and attitudes (Dirks et al., 2002), better team processes (Jones & George, 1998) and superior levels of performance (Dirks, 2000). Although there is widespread agreement among scholars concerning the importance of trust in the smooth functioning of organizations, there is surprisingly non-occurrence on the definition of trust (Dirks et al., 2000). In his comprehensive review Kramer (1999, p. 571) concluded that “a concise and universally accepted definition of trust has remained elusive”.

One of the most widely cited definitions of trust is given by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995). Mayer et al. (1995) posits that a party decides whether to trust another (the trustee) based on expectations about the other party's future behaviour, as determined by the perceived trustworthiness of the trustee. Bäckstr (2008, p. 21) defines trust as concerning “one party's confidence in an exchange partner”. According to Reina and Reina (1999, p. 11), trust is “a relationship of mutual confidence in contractual performance, honest communication, expected competence and a capacity for unguarded interaction”.

Butler (1991) concluded the first model consisted of ten main components namely; availability, competence, consistency, discreetness, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, promise fulfillment and receptivity. According to Butler (1991), these components are argued to have a positive connection to trust. Shortly after that Mishra's (1993) model, based on competence, openness, concern and reliability, was also examined which all of the above components can be identified and measured in the empirical data gathered. Mayer et al. (1995) established a model that was argued to cover both Butler's (1991) and Mishra's (1993) models, based on the three components, namely integrity, ability/competence and benevolence which were all used to measure the trust of employees in their supervisors and managers where;

Ability/competence means a group of skills and competencies that enable one to have influence within some specific domain (Mayer et al., 1995).

Benevolence refers to the extent to which a trustor (employee) perceives that the trustee (leader) intends to do good to him or her in their relationship (Mayer et al., 1995).

Integrity implies a trustor's perceptions that the trustee adheres to certain principles, which the trustor finds acceptable (Mayer et al., 1995). For the purpose of the current study the view of trust advocated by Mayer et al. (1995) was adopted.

Norman (2006) and Rousseau et al. (1998) posit trust as a basically mutual understanding between two persons that vulnerabilities will not be exploited and that the relationship is safe and respectful. Doney, Cannon, and Mullen (1998) regarded trust as a willingness to rely on another party and to take action in circumstances where such action makes one vulnerable to the other party. Reflecting the growing consensus among trust researchers, trust is defined as a psychological state comprising the positive expectation that another party will perform particular actions that are important to one-self, coupled with a willingness to accept vulnerability which may arise from the actions of that other party (Lane, 1998; Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). Avolio et al. (2004) do not only posit a number of positive outcomes of authentic leadership, but also describe how such leaders influence followers' attitudes and behaviour through trust.

Based on the above discussion for the purpose of this study, within organizations there are at least two possible foci for the interpersonal trust of individual employees: their supervisor and their co-workers (Mayer et al., 1995) The trust relationship between supervisor and subordinate (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Deluga, 1994) has enjoyed more research attention than trust in co-workers (Den Hartog, Shippers & Koopman, 2002). According to Mayer et al. (1995), trust in a supervisor is an interpersonal form of trust that emerges from an employee's perception regarding the supervisor's benevolence, integrity, ability, openness to share the information, and consistency of behaviour (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Clarke & Pyne, 1997; Mayer et al., 1995; Schindler & Thomas, 1993; Tan & Tan, 2000). Therefore, this study focuses on trust relationship between subordinate, supervisor and management which necessitate clarifying further the

characteristics of trust which were mentioned earlier in this section (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Deluga, 1994).

2.4.1 Characteristics of trust

Mayer et al. (1995) highlighted three characteristics of the trustee, namely ability, benevolence and integrity, which can affect trustor's trust in the trustee. These components/dimensions were found to be most significant and relevant for measuring trust between the security guards and their supervisors and managers in the current study (Mayer et al. (1995).

2.3.1.1 Ability/competence

Ability or competence means a group of skills and competencies that enable one to have influence within some specific domain (Mayer et al., 1995). A number of scholars have argued that for employees to trust their managers they must perceive that their managers have the ability to make a difference for them in a positive way (Butler, 1991; and Conger, 1990) If the managers are therefore believed to be incompetent, employee expectations of a capable and trustworthy role model are unmet, this can be the recipe for distrust on part of the managers which can lead to employee cynicism (Anderson, 1996).

2.3.1.2 Benevolence

(Davis et al., 2000) perceive benevolence as the extent to which a trustor (employee) perceives that the trustee (manager/leader) intends to do good to him or her in their relationship. Logically, if employees believe that their leader has their interests at heart and cares about their well-being, they would be willing to place their trust in them as supervisors and managers (Davis et al., 2000).

2.3.1.3 Integrity

Finally, integrity refers to trustor's perceptions that the trustee adheres to certain principles which the trustor finds acceptable (Mayer et al., 1995). Consequently Mayer et al. (1995) argue that the relative importance of these factors will change with the

phases of the relationship between them. In the early phase of the relationship, there is limited interaction between the trustor and trustee and as a result the trustor is unable to gauge the benevolence of the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995). However, at this stage the trustor might be able to acquire information about the integrity of the trustee through the third sources. Thus, in these early stages of the relationships, the trustor's interactions with the trustee will increase and he or she will be able to gain a deeper insight into the trustee's benevolence. In this situation benevolence will start to exert a more significant influence on trust (Mayer et al., 1995).

Several studies have provided empirical evidence that a trustee's trustworthiness can be an important predictor of trust (Mayer et al., 1995). For example, Mayer and Davis (1999) conducted a nine-month quasi-experiment to examine the impact of the three trustworthiness factors, namely ability, benevolence and integrity, on employee trust in top management. The results of this study revealed that all three trustworthiness factors were significant predictors of trust in top management (Mayer et al., 1999).

Davis et al. (2000) explored the impact of ability in general managers within the restaurant industry, and the correlation relation analysis revealed that all three trustworthiness factors were positively correlated with employees' trust in their general managers. However, in the regression only benevolence and integrity emerged as positive predictors of trust. Davis et al. (2000) attributed these findings to the likely effects of multi-collinearity.

Mayer and Gavin (2005) also reported similar results. More specifically these researchers sought to examine the influence of the trustworthiness factors regarding employee trust in their plant managers and top management team in a sample of 288 employees drawn from a small non-union manufacturing firm. The results from this study indicated that all the three trustworthiness factors, namely ability, benevolence and integrity, were positively associated with trust in the plant managers, whereas only benevolence and ability emerged as significant predictors of trust in the top management team (Mayer et al., 2005).

Finally, Colquitt, Scott, and LePine (2007) in their meta-analytic study replicated these findings and showed that ability, benevolence and integrity were significant predictors of authentic leadership.

2.4.2 The importance of authentic leadership when examining the concept of trust

Employees will trust a leader if the leader is trustworthy and demonstrates characteristics of trustworthiness such as honesty, kindness, generosity and acceptance (Zeffane, 2010). Authentic leadership is made up of characteristics that are built in the trust relationship between a leader and a follower (Zeffane, 2010).

Walumbwa et al.(2008, p.231) define authentic leadership “as a process that draws both from positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development”. They further claimed that through this process, authentic leadership positively influences self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on part of both leaders and followers, it also instills positive personal growth and self-development (Illies et al.,2005). In the same process the authentic leaders have the strength and courage to transform their moral intentions into ethical behavior, which can be referred to as a high behavioural consistency (Zhu, May & Avolio, 2004). Sparrowe (2005, p.423) alluded to that by saying “ authentic leaders are effective in leading others because followers look for consistency between their leaders “ true selves as expressed in values, purpose, or voice and their behavior”. Then when the employees perceive such a consistency in doing and saying the things, trust in their leader will result.

Zhu et al. (2004) highlighted an important point, the fact that authentic leadership allows employee participation in decision-making procedures and facilitates personal growth and self-development. On the basis of that, employees will develop trust in their leaders by showing confidence in them because of their credibility and trustworthy behavior. Dadhich and Bhal (2008) discovered that affective trust and cognitive ability are

predictors of authentic leadership. Wong et al. (2010) in a similar way point out that authentic leadership has a positive direct effect on trust. As the authentic leaders strive to relate to their followers with transparency, and truthfulness, which indicate the positive influence of employees' trust (Wong et al., 2010).

Avolio, May and Zhu (2004) found that employees viewed leaders with authenticity as fundamental in planting trust in management, which in turn promotes work engagement. In its simplest terms, the authentic leader-employee factor of trust served as a mediating factor between authenticity and work engagement. In keeping with this literature, it is expected that authentic leadership will relate to trust (Avolio et. al, 2004).

2.5 Definition of work engagement

Within the academic literature the concept of work engagement was first introduced by Kahn (1990). Kahn (1990, p.694) defined work engagement as “the harnessing of organizational members’ selves to their work roles’ performance”. In contrast, personal disengagement refers to the decoupling of the self from the work role and involves people withdrawing and defending themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performance. Kahn (1990) contends that work engagement behaviour refers to the act of simultaneously injecting energies into one’s work roles and being able to express one’s “preferred self” while performing one’s work role. According to Kahn (1990), when people exhibit work engagement behaviour, they feel physically involved in their work activities, cognitively vigilant, and emotionally connected to other.

Subsequently, Kahn (1992) differentiated engagement from psychological presence. To be specific, Kahn (1992) argued that when people are fully present psychologically while performing their work roles, they are more likely to feel “attentive, connected, integrated and focused in their role performances” (Kahn, 1992, p.322). Engagement behaviour that reflects the act of diving energies into one’s work role is in fact an outcome of such psychological presence. Kahn (1990) also identified three psychological conditions associated with engagement or disengagement which exists at work: psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological

availability. Psychological meaningfulness refers to the feeling that one is receiving an adequate return on investment of one's physical, cognitive and mental resources in one's role performance (Kahn, 1990).

Individuals experience psychological meaningfulness when they feel useful and valuable, and believe that they are not being taken for granted. This psychological condition is particularly affected by job characteristics (such as variety, learning opportunities and autonomy), work role fit and rewarding interpersonal interactions with co-workers. Psychological safety refers to the belief that one can express his/her true self "...without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career" (Kahn, 1990, p.708). Kahn (1990) argued that supporting and trusting supervisory and co-workers' relations were mainly responsible for engendering feelings of psychological safety. Finally, psychological availability refers to the belief that one has the required physical, emotional and psychological resources to engage the self in a particular work role. Kahn (1990) found that workers were more engaged with their work in situations that provided them with more psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability.

May, Gilson and Harter (2004) provide the only experiential investigation of Kahn's (1990) model to date. More specifically, May et al., (2004) found that although all the three psychological conditions, namely meaningfulness, safety, and availability, were significantly related to work engagement, experiencing meaningfulness exerted the most impact on this construct. Additionally, they also discovered that the job enrichment and role fit were significantly associated with meaningfulness; rewarding co-worker and supportive superior relations were positively associated with safety; while adherence to co-workers and self-consciousness were negatively related to this psychological condition, and finally, resources available had a positive impact on psychological availability, whereas participation in outside activities had a negative impact on this particular condition.

One of the shortcomings of Kahn's model is that it has not been empirically tested in different contexts and among different occupational groups (May et al., 2004). As

mentioned above, the May et al. (2004) study provides the only empirical test of Kahn's model. This study was based in the United States and was conducted within the restraints of a large insurance company (May et al., 2004). Thus, it remains to be seen whether Kahn's model will work in other contexts or countries or diverse occupational groups (May et al., 2004). Subsequently other researchers have also adopted Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement. For example, Rothbard (2001), like Kahn (1990), defines engagement as psychological presence in or focus on role activities, but goes further to state that it involves two critical dimensions: attention and absorption.

Rothbard (p. 656, 2001) defined attention as a "cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role", while absorption "means being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role". Similarly, Saks (2006) conceptualizes work engagement as the extent to which an individual is psychologically present in a particular organizational role mode. In the development of the concept of work engagement, most of the important contributions in terms of literature come from the burnout literature, which position work engagement as a positive antipode of workplace burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Maslach and Leiter (1997) define burnout as an erosion of work engagement with the job. In their view work engagement is characterized by three dimensions, namely energy, involvement and efficacy, which are the direct opposites of the three facets of burnout (Maslach et al., 1997).

In other words, these researchers suggest that when individuals experience the feelings of burnout, "energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism and efficiency turns into effectiveness" (Maslach et al., 1997, p.24). In terms of this conceptualization, work engagement can be measured by the reverse pattern of scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey dimensions (MBI-GS) (Maslach et al., 2001). This implies that work engagement is characterized by low scores on exhaustion and cynicism, and high scores on professional efficacy. Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker (2002), however, criticize Maslach et. al's. (1997) conceptualization

of work engagement on the grounds that it depicts work engagement and burnout as end poles of a single range.

A major disadvantage of this approach is that it prohibits the examination of the relationship between burnout and engagement because both concepts are considered to be opposite poles of the same field and are assessed with one instrument (the MBI-GS) (Maslach et al., 1997).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) also position work engagement as the positive antipode of workplace burnout. However, they argue that instead of being two opposite poles, burnout and work engagement are independent yet negatively correlated states of mind (Schaufeli et al., 2004). Consequently, they define work engagement in its own right as a “positive fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2004, p.295).

Vigour reflects a desire to devote effort in one’s work, perseverance in the face of job related obstacles, and an expression of high levels of energy and mental toughness while working (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

Dedication refers to a particularly intense work involvement and encompasses feelings of inspiration, pride, enthusiasm, significance and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

Absorption is characterized as being totally focused on one’s work activities to such an extent that time appears to pass speedily and one finds it increasingly difficult to disengage from one’s work (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

When one compares Schaufeli et al’s (2004) model of work engagement to the other models mentioned earlier, it meets all the criteria for the inclusion in Positive Organizational Behaviour (Schaufeli et al., 2004). In addition to that, this model has existed and thrived over the past three decades and can therefore be measured by a psychometrically valid questionnaire called Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

(Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). This instrument has been tested and validated in many different countries among many diverse occupational groups (Schaufeli et al., 2004). In the present study the definition of work engagement advocated by Schaufeli et al. (2004) was adopted.

2.4.3 Drivers of work engagement

While there are many research studies that point to the percentage of engaged and disengaged employees, few studies have looked at what really drives employee work engagement (Ryan & Deci, 2003). According to Ryan et al., (2003), drivers of work engagement means different forces that combine to make workers want to, or not want to, engage at work. They went further and classified them into three categories, namely; external environment (the economy, unemployment, private vs. state owned, gender mix in economy, national culture); organizational culture, and individual drivers (workers' personalities and experience etc.).

2.5.2 Work engagement and job resources

Previous research shows that job resources are the most important driver of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2004; Bakker et al., 2008). The positive association between the job resources and work engagement is in agreement with the job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1980 cited in Willson-Kirsten, 2011). This theory postulates that job resources such as, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback have motivational potential and as a result can enhance intrinsic motivation, a concept which is closely knit to the construct of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2007). Hackman et al. (1980 cited in Willson-Kirsten, 2011) concurred with this model and claimed that if skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback are not in place, employees are likely to lack the desire to perform to their potential. As a result, in response, many organizations have reviewed the content of jobs in order to prevent this (Willson-Kirsten, 2011).

These findings are also in line with the self-determination theory (Ryna et al., 2003) which posits that job resources have the potential to fulfill basic human needs, such as

needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness. For example, job resources such as job control might fulfill the basic human need for autonomy, whereas effective supervisory coaching and social support may satisfy the need for competence and relatedness respectively (Ryna et al., 2003). The satisfaction of the basic human needs, in turn, can increase well-being, intrinsic motivation and consequently work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2007). Conversely, a lack of job resources might expose the individuals to the negative effects of job demands and at the same time may hinder task completion and goal achievement (Schaufeli et al., 2007). In addition, an insufficient supply of job resources may be likely to manifest in disengagement from work (Schaufeli et al., 2007).

Empirical research on work engagement has consistently demonstrated that job resources such as supervisory coaching, social support from colleagues and supervisors, autonomy, a positive work climate, performance feedback, task variety, and training facilities can play a pivotal role in an augmenting employee's work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2007). For example their study on Dutch workers belonging to diverse occupational groups, Schaufeli et al. (2004) showed that three job resources, namely performance feedback, social support and supervisory coaching, were significant predictors of work engagement.

Similarly, Hakanen, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2006) also found evidence of a positive relationship between work engagement and job resources. In their study (Hakanen et al., 2006) of Finnish teachers revealed that job control, information, supervisory support, an innovative climate and social support were all positively associated with work engagement. Another study of Finnish teachers Bakker et al.(2007) reported similar findings. More particularly, they found that six job resources namely; job control, supervisor support, climate, innovativeness, information and appreciation, were positively significantly linked with teachers' levels of work engagement (Bakker et al, 2007).

The association between work engagement and job resources has also been established in non-Western cultures only (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2006). For example, Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum (2006) conducted a study to determine the work engagement levels of women managers and professionals working in a large Turkish bank. The results of this study uncovered that work life experiences, particularly control, rewards and recognition and value-fit, significantly predicted all the three dimensions of work engagement, that is, vigour, dedication and absorption. Furthermore, previous research shows that personal resources may have a buffering effect on work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

2.5.3 Work engagement and personality traits

Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen and Schaufeli (2006) examined whether burnout and work engagement could be differentiated on the basis of personality and temperament. They hypothesized that burnout would be characterized by high levels of neuroticism and low levels of extraversion and work engagement (Langelaan et al., 2006). The results revealed that burnout employees were high on neuroticism, whereas engaged workers were characterized by low levels of neuroticism, high levels of extraversion and high levels of mobility (Langelaan et al., 2006). This evidence suggests that generally engaged employees adapt well to changes in their work environment (mobility), are cheerful and outgoing (extraversion), and are less likely to experience negative emotions such as fear, depression and frustration (neuroticism) (Langelaan et al., 2006).

Rothman, Mostert, and Strydom (2006) also reported similar findings in their study on 1,794 police officers conducted in South Africa. More specifically, the results of this cross-sectional study showed that three personality traits, namely emotional stability, conscientiousness and extraversion, exercised significantly unique effects on the two core dimensions of work engagement namely; vigour and dedication (Rothman et al., 2006).

The effects of the big five namely; personality dimensions, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness, were also explored by Kim, and Brymer (2011) in their study on employees working for quick-service restaurants. Their findings revealed that work engagement was particularly predicted by conscientiousness and neuroticism (Kim et al., 2011). Conscientiousness was a positive predictor of work engagement, whereas neuroticism had a negative association with this construct in this study (Kim et al., 2011).

2.5.4 Other predictors of work engagement

Although work engagement has been primarily expressed as an outcome of job and personal resources, there is evidence which suggests that work engagement may be induced by other situational and psychological factors (Kahn, 1990). For instance, Kahn (1990) in his qualitative study interviewed summer camp counselors and organizational members of an architecture firm about their moments of engagement or disengagement at work. As mentioned earlier, Kahn (1990) found that there were three psychological conditions associated with work engagement or disengagement at work: psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability. This is the only study which empirically tests Kahn's (1990) model, May et al. (2004) found that all three psychological conditions proposed by Kahn (1990), namely meaningfulness, safety and availability, were significantly related to work engagement.

Additionally, Saks (2006) also explored the antecedents of two dimensions of work engagement, namely job engagement and organizational engagement. The results for the study revealed that both job characteristics and organizational support were significant predictors of work engagement, whereas organizational support and procedural justice were predictive of organization engagement (Saks, 2006).

Finally, recent research studies indicated that perceptions of organizational justice might have an important bearing on employees' levels of work engagement as a result Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Ramos, Piero and Cropanzo (2008) attempted to investigate the effects of procedural and interactional justice on work engagement in a sample of 317

contact employees who were working in the Spanish service sector. The results for this study disclosed that both procedural and interactional justice emerged as positive predictors of work engagement (Moliner et al., 2008). Furthermore, the results showed that work engagement fully mediated the effects of the two justice dimensions on the extra role of customer service. These findings point out that if the employees are treated fairly and respectfully, they are likely to show greater energy enthusiasm and involvement in their work (Moliner et al., 2008).

2.5.4.1 The importance of authentic leadership when examining the concept of work engagement

Employees will experience work engagement when they are committed to their work, find enjoyment and will go an extra mile for their work (Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014). Macey, Schneider, Barbera and Young (2009) propose that work engagement comes as a result of employee's capacity, being motivated, has freedom and knowledge to engage. Authenticity in leadership presents different characteristics such as self-awareness, balanced /unbiased processing, self-regulation and relational transparency which can be related with work engagement in terms of line of thinking according to Macey et al.(2009).

Alok and Israel (2012, p.506) proposed that authentic leadership and work engagement were closely connected, and this was revealed from their study which showed that the "relationship between an authentic leader and followers' work engagement", can occur when two conditions are satisfied: a) followers see their leaders as personal manifestations of an organization's intent and, b) followers experience moderate to high levels of promotion (Alok et al., 2012). This study also yielded other important findings that; the emersion of the PO-Org as a work engagement tool and the relational importance of the PO-Org to work engagement and contextual authentic leadership theory (Alok et al., 2012).

Giallonarolo, Iwasiw and Wong (2010) also conducted a research study where they discovered that authentic leadership and work engagement were correlated within

newly graduated nurses. Their study showed that nurses, who were new to the profession, with three years of experience or less, were more satisfied when authentic leadership was demonstrated and felt a higher sense of work engagement (Giallonarolo et al., 2010).

A study by Hassan and Ahmed (2011, p.156) also links authentic leadership with positive follower attitudes towards their work and concluded, that “if leaders are seen as transparent, acting according to espoused values, and not displaying self-protective motives then they develop a trusting relationship with their employees which in turn contributes to positive employees’ work outcomes such as work engagement”.

Wildermuth and Pauken (2008) and Wallace and Trinkka (2009), concurred that work engagement occurs naturally when leaders are inspiring, which means that employees feel engaged when their work is considered important and meaningful. The task of leadership is therefore to ensure that employees see how their specific task contributes to the overall business success (Gardner et al., 2005). According to Gardner et al., (2005) and Schneider, Macey, and Barbera (2009), authentic and supportive leadership is theorized to impact employee engagement of followers in the sense of increasing their involvement, satisfaction and enthusiasm for work (Gardner et al., 2005).

Taking the above argument further, when employees recognize that their immediate supervisors and top management have the skillful insight and ability to augment the growth and productivity of the organization by making competent decisions, it gives the subordinates an increased assurance of a more profitable future with the organization (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). Therefore there can be an increase in levels of work engagement amongst employees if there is a sound sense of trust in the competence and capability of their immediate supervisor (Spreitzer et al., 2002). This means that assisting employees in locating their goals, organizing their work, highlighting drawbacks, taking a keen interest in their professional and career advancement, and offering advice as needed have been positively related to work engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

2.4.6 The importance of trust when examining the concept of work engagement

Previous research studies indicated that job resources (such as external environment, organizational culture and individual drivers) mentioned earlier in this chapter are the most important predictors of work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). For instance, work engagement has been found to be positively related to job resources such as social support from co-workers and superiors, performance feedback, coaching, job control, task variety and training facilities (Schaufeli et al., 2007). The fact that work engagement has been primarily articulated as a function of job resources is not surprising because most of the empirical research on the antecedents of work engagement revolves around the job demands-resources model (Schaufeli et al., 2007). As a result the relationship between work engagement and variables other than job resources has received scant empirical attention. Thus there is a growing need to examine the impact of other personality, psychological and situational variables on work engagement in order to gain a better understanding of this construct (Schaufeli et al., 2007).

To fill this gap, part of this study attempts to examine the relationship of trust on employees' work engagement. More specifically, the central aim of this paper is to conceptually analyze the relationship of authentic leadership trust on work engagement. There can be an increase in the levels of work engagement amongst employees if there is a sound sense of trust in the competence and capability of the immediate supervisor (Schaufeli et al., 2007). If the employees view their supervisor as competent, they would feel more confident that they could depend on him/her to help them out when they encounter job-related impediments (Schaufeli et al., 2007).

Previous research studies have established that supervisory coaching in the form of assisting employees in locating their goals, organizing their work, highlighting drawbacks, taking a keen interest in their professional and career advancement, and offering advice as needed, has been positively related to work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2007).

Such sharing of information, provision of instruction and support can only be possible if the supervisor is well-informed about the organizational culture and is an excellent judge of issues pertaining to interpersonal and political concerns of the organization (Mayer et al., 1995). Thus, it is suggested that employees' trust in the capability and proficiency of their immediate supervisor is likely to make them realize that they have the resources to successfully achieve their desired work goals (Mayer et al, 1995). This should give them confidence to exercise more effort in their work, which in turn may lead to greater work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

The openness dimension entails that supervisors exchange ideas and information with employees without inhibitions, which means that information in the form of constructive and positive feedback from supervisors not only helps employees to work more efficiently but also facilitates communication and understanding between supervisors and employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Appropriate feedback from supervisors cultivates learning and enhances the job competence of employees. Such positive communication and understanding would result in greater intrinsic motivation and work engagement (Bakker et al., 2007).

Furthermore, employees are likely to be more engaged in their work when they feel that their supervisors are supportive and concerned about their welfare and interests (Schaufeli et al., 2004). Supervisors who promote a helpful and encouraging work environment characteristically demonstrate a concern for employees' requirements and opinions, provide constructive feedback, encourage them to be vocal about their concerns, and develop and cultivate new skills to help resolve work engagement-related problems (May et al., 2004). These positive attempts by the supervisors should augment feelings of psychological safety and promote learning, growth and development (May et al., 2004). It is realistic to assume that such an encouraging and productive work engagement can play a pivotal role in breeding work engagement (May et al., 2004).

Finally, employees would be more motivated to work with greater vigour and dedication towards the completion of their job requirements once they realize that their supervisors are trustworthy and dependable (May et al., 2004). Such an attitude from the employees stems from the fact that the supervisors are responsible for all those decisions that will directly impact employees' potential to attain their goals (May et al., 2004). These decisions include evaluating performance, helping with job responsibilities, training and career development, and providing recognition and rewards (Dirk et al., 2002). Employees can easily regress into a state of psychological distress if they feel that they do not have faith in their leader to make fair and impartial decisions with regard to these aspects of the job. Such deviation could then lead to disengagement from work (May et al., 2004).

However, if the employees have full faith in their supervisors to show impartiality in their dealing with the employees, and to fully acknowledge their efforts by providing suitable rewards and recognition, they are likely to devote all their energies to role performance and would consequently be more positively engaged in their work (Schaufeli et al., 2007). As an amalgamation of the above discussion the following hypotheses can be formulated:

2.5.6 Research hypotheses

On the basis of the above discussion the following hypotheses can be formulated:

Hypothesis 1: *There is not significant relationship between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, and trust of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.*

Hypothesis 2: *There is not significant relationship between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers and work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.*

Hypothesis 3: *There is no significant relationship between trust in supervisors and managers and work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.*

2.6 The theoretical framework for the study

The variables that were researched and explored in this study are authentic leadership, trust and work engagement, authentic leadership being an independent variable and both trust and work engagement being dependent variables. The conceptual argument states that a relationship exists between these three variables. The relationship between the variables was also analyzed with regard to antecedence and effects of these variables. This information will support the development of an effective intervention to develop authentic leadership, trust and work engagement in the proposed private security firm. It is proposed that authentic leadership influence both trust and work engagement as illustrated below:

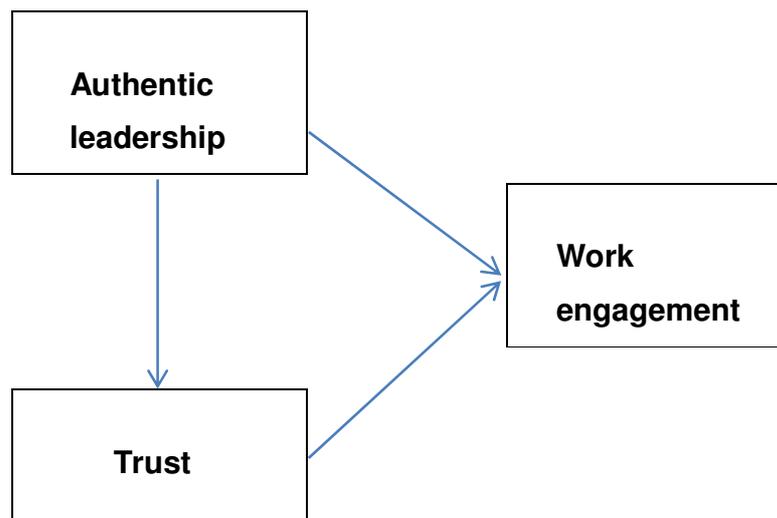


Fig 3: Proposed theoretical framework (Source: Hassan and Ahmed (2011))

2.7 Chapter summary

Summarily the evolution, definition and models of the authentic leadership, trust and work engagement constructs were discussed in this chapter. Emphasis was placed on research, postulating that relationships will be found between the respective variables in the organizational behaviour field. The variables that were researched and explored in this study are authentic leadership, trust and work engagement. The conceptual argument states that relationships exist between these variables. This information will support the development of effective intervention to develop authentic leadership, trust and work engagement in the proposed private security firm. It is proposed that authentic leadership and trust lead to increased levels of work engagement. The following chapter describes the data collection and data analysis for the present study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH PLAN AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

This study is guided by the research aim of determining and establishing whether a relationship exists (or not) between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, trusts and work engagement of security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape. To systematically provide answers to the above, an appropriate research plan and design is required. In this chapter, the research plan and design, and statistical techniques used to achieve the research objectives are discussed. The chapter concludes with the chapter summary.

3.2 Research Methodology and Design

3.2.1 Research Method

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) define research methodology as the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project, to some extent, this approach dictates tools the researcher selects to prove certain propositions. Based on various authors (Bergman, 2008; Singh, 2007) who identified qualitative and quantitative as various methods of orientation to research study. The term quantitative research method refers to those approaches that strives to formulate laws that apply to populations and which explains the causes of objectively observable and measurable behavior (Welman & Kruger, 1997). The quantitative research also emphasizes the measurement and analysis of casual relationship between variables not processes. Contrary, qualitative research method is a multi-method focus involving an interpretive, natural settings which attempts to make sense to interpret phenomena in terms of meaning people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These approaches both differ according to their advantages and disadvantages (Welman et al., 1997). Based on the topic and the nature of the present study, a quantitative method following a non-experimental descriptive correlational research design was a more appropriate approach to answer the research problem as stated **“Is there a relationship, or no between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, trust and work**

engagement of security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape?

A non-experimental research in general is defined as any kind of quantitative or qualitative research that is not an experiment, is the predominate kind of research design used in the social sciences (Reio Jr, 2016). In addition, an advantage of this type of research when reported accurately, makes a tremendous contribution because it can be used for conducting research when experimentation is not feasible or desired as well as used to make tentative recommendations for practice. A survey and correlational research are examples of a non-experimental quantitative research.

Correlational research according to Cook and Cook (2008) examines the degree to which two or more variables are associated or related. Also, correlational research can also be used to examine differences between groups on variables of interest. Furthermore, it is considered non-experimental because it involves neither (a) random assignment of participants to group nor (b) the active introduction or manipulation of an intervention by a researcher, the central tenets of group experimental research. The variables mentioned can be related in terms of direction and strength, meaning, the direction can be either positive (i.e., when one variable increases, the other also increases) or negative (i.e., when one variable increases, the other decreases). Invariably, strength in this case is the consistency with which the variables correspond with one another (Cook & Cook, 2008).

Thus, a non-experimental descriptive correlational research design for this study is a research design with a primary purpose of describing or portraying a phenomenon where two or more quantitative variables are associated or related. Accordingly, Struwig and Stead (2011) state one of the advantages of the quantitative approach to include large samples in which the data collection procedures used are structured, and data statistical analysis. Lastly a cross-sectional survey research design was followed in the collection of data since is done once, meaning is not spread over a period (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delpont, 2005). For this study, primary data was used.

3.2.2 Research design

A research design is defined as a “plan” or “blue print” of how the researcher intends to conduct research study “(Babbie & Mouton, 2001). While McMillan and Schumacher (1993) define research design as a plan and structure of investigation used to obtain evidence to answer the research question, Mouton (1996) on the other hand defines research design as a set of guidelines and instructions to be followed to reach a certain goal. The above definitions imply that research design is made up of the following key components namely; research question, data collection methods, and data analysis (Yin, 1994). The research design is therefore an evidence of how a researcher conducts the research study and arrived at certain conclusions and findings.

In view of the foregoing, as recommended by McMillan et al., (1993), the researcher adopts a quantitative method approach using correlational cross-sectional survey design to answer the research question. In agreement with Sekaran (2003), Cook and Cook (2008) explains correlational research design to involve studies that determine relationships between variables. This study focuses on correlational research that attempts to determine and establish a relationship between authentic leadership, trust and work engagement of the security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

The survey design involves the determination of the relationship that occurs among two or more variables without the option of intervention (McMillan et al., 1993). Therefore, due to the nature of this study, a cross-sectional survey was adopted. The cross-sectional nature of the survey means measurement that occurred at a point in time and time-frame of the study. The cross-sectional study usually aims to present a description of the general picture of a phenomenon, a situational problem or an attitude or issue by accessing a cross-section of a given population at a particular time (Jesson, 2001). This study therefore asked several questions to a broad spectrum of a population in order to address the determination, description, and identification of the relationship between authentic leadership, trust and work engagement of private security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

A major advantage of the cross-sectional research design, is that it avoids problems relating to the use of longitudinal research designs. These problems are specifically related to longitudinal designs being time-consuming and costly, ultimately making respondents less interested in taking part in the research. A major limitation of cross-sectional design is that research conducted at one point in time and changes over time are thus ignored (Welman et al., 1997). The rationale and logic for selecting a cross-sectional design for this study was based on the limited availability of time and financial resources.

3.2.3 Research procedure

To start the process, the researcher submitted a written application asking permission to collect the data at the company through the CEO. The copy of the letter used is provided in Appendix A. After the permission was granted by the CEO, the researcher submitted all the relevant documentation describing how the research process is going to unfold to the management. The survey was conducted by distributing questionnaires by hand to employed security guards at different sites of the firm operating in the Western Cape. This survey was conducted at one point in time and no follow-up was made. The questionnaires were distributed by hand to ensure participants' confidentiality. All questionnaires were in an envelopes and participants given a duration of over three weeks to complete and return. The researcher was on standby to address any questions and concerns respondents might have when visiting the company premises to retrieve completed questionnaire.

After the completion of the questionnaires, the instruction was to put them into a special secured box at each site. The boxes were delivered at the head office where the boxes were opened in the presence of both the researcher and the management.

3.2.4 Sampling

For the study, the population was $N=500$. A formula (stated below) of 218 employees has been calculated as the sample for this study. The minimum sample size drawn from

the sampling frame above can be interpolated from the formula below as advocated by Cochran (1977), and expressed mathematically as:

$$n = \frac{N * Z_{\alpha/2}^2 * p * q}{(N - 1) * d^2 + Z_{\alpha/2}^2 * p * q} = \frac{500 * (1.96)^2 * 0.5 * 0.5}{499 * (0.05)^2 + (1.96)^2 * 0.5 * 0.5} = 214.4917 \cong 218$$

This resulted in an estimated response rate of 100% of the estimated 250 respondents who had participated in the data collection. Convenience sampling was utilized for the study. Convenience sampling (also known as haphazard sampling or accidental sampling) is a type of non-probability or non-random sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). In addition, it is also referred to the researching subjects of the population that are easily accessible to the researcher. The members of the target population are homogeneous, that is, there are no difference amongst the security guards. This sampling technique has some advantages of being affordable, easy and the participants are readily available. Continuing, Etikan et al., (2016) state that convenience sampling places primary emphasis on generalizability (i.e., ensuring that the knowledge gained is representative of the population from which the sample was drawn). It has disadvantages such as biases, unpredictable, non-representative as well as neither purposeful nor strategic.

3.3 Research Instruments

3.3.1. Composite Questionnaire:

A composite questionnaire was used for this study which consisted of a biographical data section which includes; tenure, gender, population group, position and highest qualification, and three measuring instruments namely; Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALQ) (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), Workplace Trust Survey (WTS) (Ferres, 2003),

and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002). The complete composite questionnaire used is provided in Appendix B.

3.3.1.1 Biographical information Section

This section includes personal information such as your age, gender, population group, tenure in the organization.

3.3.1.2 Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

This measure was developed to investigate authentic leadership based on the theoretical framework of Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008). The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) is a theory-driven leadership survey instrument designed to measure the components that have been conceptualized as comprising authentic leadership (Avolio et al., 2007). This tool was designed to help get a better estimate of how genuinely one is perceived by others (Rater version), and how one sees him/herself (Self-rater version) in their leadership role (Avolio et al., 2007). The measure consisted of four dimensions: self-awareness (S), relational transparency (R), balanced processing (B), and internal moral perspective (M).

It is consisted of 16 items measured on a five-point Likert scale (from 0 –Never, to 4 – frequently, if not always), divided into four dimensions mentioned above which are; relational transparency (items 1 to 5, e.g., item 4: Tell you the hard truth), moral and ethics (items 6 to 9 , e.g., item 6: Demonstrate beliefs that are consistent with actions); balanced processing (items 10 to 12, e.g., item 11: Analyze relevant data before coming to a decision); and self-awareness (items 13 to 16; e.g., item 16: Shows I understood how specific actions impact others). The definitions for these dimensions are highlighted below:

Self-awareness: refers to various facets of leaders that involve their self-awareness in values, identity, emotions, objectives, and goals, as well as the consequences of their acts on the employees. Knowing oneself means more than being aware of one's own thoughts, values, and motives; self-knowledge also implies the awareness of one's own emotions as well as the knowledge of contradictory internal aspects (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Relational transparency: refers to presenting one's authentic self (as opposed to a fake or distorted self) to others. Such behavior promotes trust through disclosures that involve openly sharing information and expressions of one's true thoughts and feelings while trying to minimize displays of inappropriate emotions (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Balanced processing: implies objectively analyzing facts and data, both external and self-referential (Gardner et al., 2005). It means that the leaders do not distort, exaggerate, or ignore information and they objectively analyze all the important data before taking a decision (Gardner et al., 2005). This allows them to avoid bias in their perceptions due to self-defense, self-exaltation and/or self-protection (Kernis, 2003). Balanced processing is at the base of personal integrity (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Internalized moral perspective: the behavior of such authentic leader's rests on moral and ethical standards in the face of possible group, social, or organizational pressure; it produces ethical and transparent behaviors, aimed at serving the common group interests, which are sometimes in direct conflict with the leader's own personal interests (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This type of behaviors implies an integrated form of self-regulation (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

The instrument is being tested and re-tested both nationally and internationally using Cronbach 'Alpha above 0.70 (Avolio et al., 2007). For the purposes of the current study, only the later version was utilized, as respondents were requested to evaluate their supervisors/team leaders, and managers perceived authentic leadership behavior.

3.3.1.3 Workplace Trust Survey (WTS)

The Workplace Trust Survey measures separate identified factors, such as trust in the organization, trust in the immediate manager, and trust in co-workers/ colleagues, and were developed by Ferres and Travaglione (2001). The Questionnaire consisted of 36-items with 12 items loading on each of the three sub-scales (Ferres et al., 2001). The current study adopts the trust in the immediate manager factor with sub-scale consisting of 12 items and measured on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The internal reliability coefficient of the three sub-scales was reported for trust in organization as 0.95, trust in the immediate manager of 0.96 and trust in colleagues as 0.93 (Ferres et al., 2001). Ferres et al., (2001) also highlighted three characteristics of a person having a major influence on whether or not s/he will be trusted: ability, benevolence, and integrity.

Ability/competence: means a group of skills and competencies that enable one to have influence within some specific domain (Mayer et al., 1995).

Benevolence: means the extent to which a trustor (employee) perceives that the trustee (leader) intends to do good to him or her in their relationship (Davis et al., 2000). Logically, if employees believe that their leader has their interests at heart and cares about their well-being, they would be willing to place their trust in the supervisor/manager (Mayer et al., 1995).

Integrity: means the leader's loyalty to a follower's rational convictions in action and forms the foundation of a trusting relationship between leaders and followers (Locke, 2000). It is typically conceived as employees' perceptions of their managers' pattern of word-deed alignment (Simons, 2002; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998). Factors such as adherence to sound principles and having a strong sense of justice do affect the degree to which a person is judged to have integrity (Mayer et al., 1995).

The trust in the immediate manager sub-scale consists of 12 items used. It consists of 12 items addressing Benevolence (4-items), Competency (4-items), and Integrity (4-items).

3.3.1.4 Utrecht Work Engagement (UWES)

Work Engagement was measured by making use of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). This instrument is composed of 17 items made up of the following dimensions: Vigor (6-items), Dedication (5-items), and Absorption (6-items) measuring on a seven-point Likert frequency scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (daily). The three dimensions are briefly discussed below.

Vigor: is assessed by six items that refer to high levels of energy and resilience, the willingness to invest effort, not being easily fatigued, and persistence in the face of difficulties (Schaufeli et al., 2003).

Dedication: is assessed by five items that refer to deriving a sense of significance from one's work, feeling enthusiastic and proud about one's job, and feeling inspired and challenged by it (Schaufeli et al., 2003).

Absorption: is measured by six items that refer to being totally and happily immersed in one's work and having difficulties detaching oneself from it so that time passes quickly, and one forgets everything else that is around (Schaufeli et al., 2003).

Examples of statements relating to the three dimensions are the following: "I am bursting with energy in my work" (vigor); "I find my work full of meaning and purpose" (dedication); and "When I am working, I forget everything around me" (absorption). The high levels of vigour, dedication and absorption point to an individual who experiences a high level of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2003). The internal consistency, Cronbach coefficient of the instrument has been determined between 0.68 and 0.91 (Schaufeli et al., 2003).

The data was analyzed by means of quantitative techniques (Field et al., 2005; Anderson et al., 2006). The following sections elaborate on the various quantitative techniques that were employed to test the hypotheses (Field et al., 2005; Anderson et al., 2006). These include factor analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis (Sekaran, 2003).

3.4 Statistical Analysis

To test the research hypotheses, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 2013 (SPSS) was used. Both descriptive and inferential statistics will be incorporated for data analysis (Sekaran, 2003).

3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), descriptive statistics are statistical computations describing either the characteristics of a sample or the relationship among variables in a sample. Descriptive statistics summarize a set of sample observations and is reported in the form of frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations (Babbie et al., 2001).

3.4.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make inferences or judgments about a larger population based on the data collected from a small sample drawn from the population (Babbie et al., 2001). Inferential techniques are used to determine relationships between variables and whether differences amongst the variables exist. The following inferential techniques were conducted to test the hypotheses under investigation:

3.4.3 Determining the degree of relationship between variables

In Chapter 2, research hypotheses were formulated which suggest statistical analysis techniques that can be used to determine the relationships among the measured constructs (Sekarana, 2000). Two of the most appropriate data analysis techniques that can be employed in evaluating these hypotheses are Pearson Product Moment

Correlation and multiple regressions (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Field, 2005; Hair et al., 2006; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Both techniques are discussed below.

❖ **Pearson Product Moment Correlation**

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficient is a standardized measure of the strength of the relationship between variables (Field, 2005). It can take any value from -1 (as one variable changes, the other changes in the opposite direction by the same amount), through 0 (as one variable changes the other doesn't change at all), to +1 (as one variable changes, the other changes in the same direction by the same amount) (Field, 2005). The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to determine whether there were significant relationships between the three variables (Field, 2005).

❖ **Multiple Regression analysis**

Regression analysis is the name for a family of techniques that attempts to predict one variable (an outcome or dependent variable) from another variable or set of variables (the predictor or independent variables) (Field, 2005). Each of the parameters in the regression analysis can have a standard error associated with it, and hence a confidence interval can be calculated for each parameter with a p-value (Field, 2005). Regression analysis generalizes to a case with multiple predictor variables, referred to as multiple regressions (Field, 2005). The advantage and power of multiple regressions is that it enables the researcher to estimate the effect of each variable, controlling for the other variables, meaning it estimates what the slope would be if all other variables were controlled (Salkind, 2007).

Multiple regression analysis, as a form of general linear modeling, is a multivariate statistical technique that is used in this study to examine the relationship between a single dependent variable (work engagement) and set of independent variables (authentic leadership) (Field, 2005). With its broad applicability, multiple regression has been used for many purposes (Field, 2005). This application falls broadly within two groups, namely prediction and explanation. Prediction involves the extent to which the regression variables (one or more independent variables) can predict the dependent

variables (Hair et al., 2006). Explanation examines the magnitude, sign and statistical significance of the regression coefficients (the amount of change in the dependent variable for a one-unit change in the independent variable) for each independent variable and attempts to develop a substantive or theoretical reason for the effects of the independent variables (Hair et al., 2006). The result of the multiple regression analysis for this study will be discussed in Chapter 4 extensively. The results of the multiple regression will assist in predicting the impact of the independent variables (authentic leadership) and on the dependent variable (work engagement).

Ethical consideration

Data collection and ethical consideration are intersected (Terreblanche & Durrheim, 1999). Ethical consideration includes principles that should be followed during data collection (Terreblanche & Durrheim, 1999). Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the CEO of the security firm operating in the Western Cape. Employees were informed that participation in the study is voluntary (with informed consent) and that they could withdraw at any time should they wish. During data collection phase rights of employees were maintained and respected. Confidentiality was maintained throughout the research process and participants were assured that anonymity would be strictly maintained.

3.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, an overview of the research methodology and design used for this study is outlined. The methodology included both measuring instruments and statistical techniques were looked at. The measuring instruments and their psychometric properties were highlighted. The techniques used for data analysis, including correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis, were also presented. In Chapter 4, the results of data analyses conducted using the methodology explained in this chapter is presented.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the results obtained from the statistical analysis presented in the previous chapter. The most salient sample characteristics are presented graphically in the form of frequencies and percentages. Thereafter, the inferential statistics based on the examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research is presented. The hypotheses were tested at either the 0.05 or 0.01 significance statistical level. The next section will discuss descriptive statistics presenting the characteristics of the sample.

4.2. Demographic information of the sample

This section summarizes the results of the demographic variables which were included in the biographical questionnaire (see Appendices) gathered from the research sample (n = 281).

4.2.1 Biographic characteristic of respondents (n = 218)

Composition of the sample with respect to the number of years of experience, gender, age, population group, job level and highest academic qualification. (n=218). A total number of 218 participants completed the questionnaire manually. The characteristics of the sample of respondents who completed the survey questionnaires are described below in the next section. Their characteristics are provided in Table 4.1. in terms of the following variables: the years of experience in the company, gender, age, population group, job level and highest academic qualification.

Table 4.1. Biographic characteristic of respondents

Demographic Factors	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Tenure			
(< 6) months	17	7.8	8.5
(6-1+) years	35	16.1	17.4
(1-3+) years	53	24.3	26.4
(3-5+) years	56	25.7	27.9
(5-7+) years	40	18.3	19.9
Gender			
Male	145	66.5	68.5
Female	67	30.7	31.6
Age			
(18-29+)	77	35.3	35.6
(30-39+)	99	45.4	45.8
(40-49+)	32	14.7	14.8
(50-59+)	8	3.7	3.7
Population Group			
African	179	82.1	82.9
White	11	5.0	5.1
Colored	25	11.5	11.6
Indian	1	.5	5
Job level			
Site Manager	23	10.6	10.6
Team Manager	20	9.2	9.3
Supervisor	16	7.3	7.4
Security guard	154	70.6	71.3
Highest Qualification			
Grade1-5	15	6.9	7.0
Grade 6-7	26	11.9	12.2

Grade8-9	59	27.1	27.7
Grade 10-12	109	50.0	51.2
National Diploma /National Diploma	4	1.8	1.9

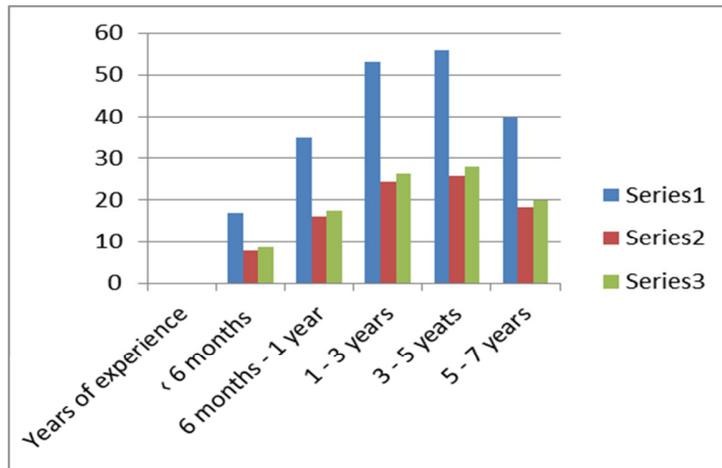
4.2.2 Reliability on the instrument

The instrument was piloted using the first thirty cases of the sample to confirm its reliability. The instrument is a composite questionnaire, consisted of four sections namely, section 1: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) version 1 Rater, developed by Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa (2007); section 11: The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003); section 111: Workplace Trust Survey was developed by Ferris and Travaglione (2003). Only the subscale of trust of co-worker (12 items) was used for the study, and the self-developed biographical questionnaire (Demographic Information). The analysis performed on results of the pilot study produced Cronbach's Alpha of $\alpha=.95$. A reliability coefficient of 0.6 is generally considered acceptable for social and emotional indices and a coefficient larger than 0.7 is usually regarded as acceptable for cognitive indices (Kriel, 2003 as cited in Schaap and Erasmus (2003). In this study, the questionnaires were self-administered and were delivered to the participants by hand (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The research yielded a hundred percent response rate.

4.2.1.1.1The number of years of experience distribution

The number of years of experience distribution of respondents in the sample employed by the private security firm indicated that 19.9% (n=40) have worked for a period between 5-7 years, 27.9% (n = 56) were employed for a period of 3-5 years at the private security company, whilst 26.4% (n = 53) have been employed for a period between 1-3 years. 17.4% (n=35) were employed for between 6 months to 1 year and 8.5% (n=17) have been employed for a period less than 6 month. The graph below shows the demographic profile of respondents by years of experience.

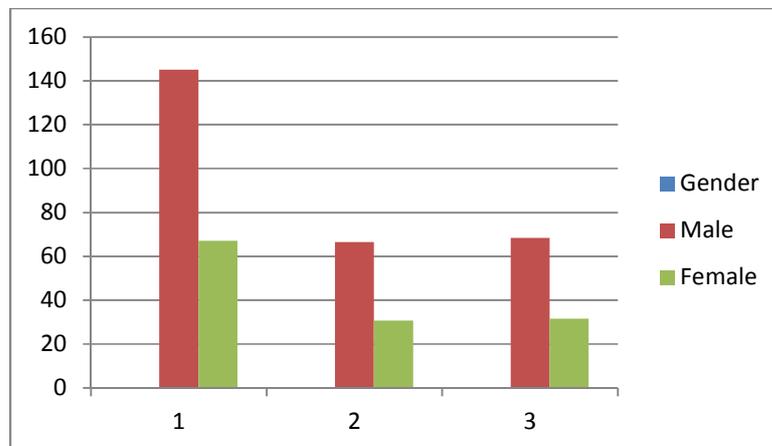
Table 4.1: Years of experience distribution of the sample (n=218).



4.2.1.1.2The gender distribution

The gender distribution of respondents is 68.4% (n =145) males, and 31.6% (n = 67) females of security guards. The graph below shows the demographic profile of respondents by gender distribution.

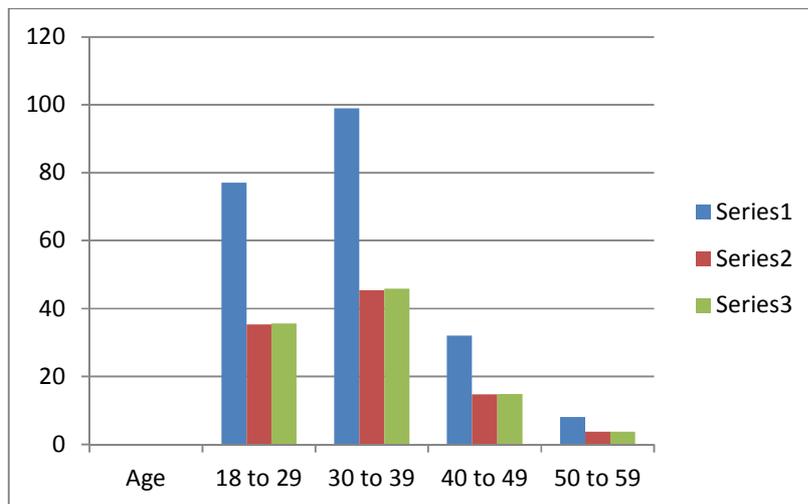
Table 4.2 Gender distribution of the sample (n=218)



4.2.1.1.2The age distribution

The age distribution of the respondents ranges between 18-59 years. The age category 30-39+ years accounted for 45.8% or n = 99 of the respondents, then the age category 18-29+ years (35.6% or n = 77) of the sample. Next is the age category 40-49+ years which accounted for 14.8 % (n=32) and the rest of the sample respondents (3.7% or n = 8) lie within the age category 50-59+ years. The graph below shows the demographic profile of respondents in terms of age distribution.

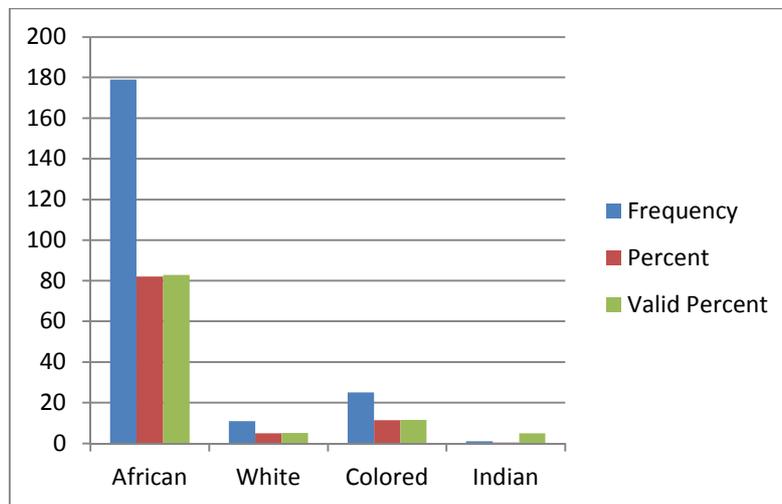
Table 4.3: Age distribution of the sample (n=218).



4.2.1.1.4The population group distribution

Regarding the population group distribution of respondents, the African group had a representation of 82.9% (n = 179), followed by the Colored group of 11 % (n = 25); then the White group of 5.1% (n=11). The Indian group comprised of 5% (n=1) representation. The graph below shows the demographic distribution of respondents by population groupings.

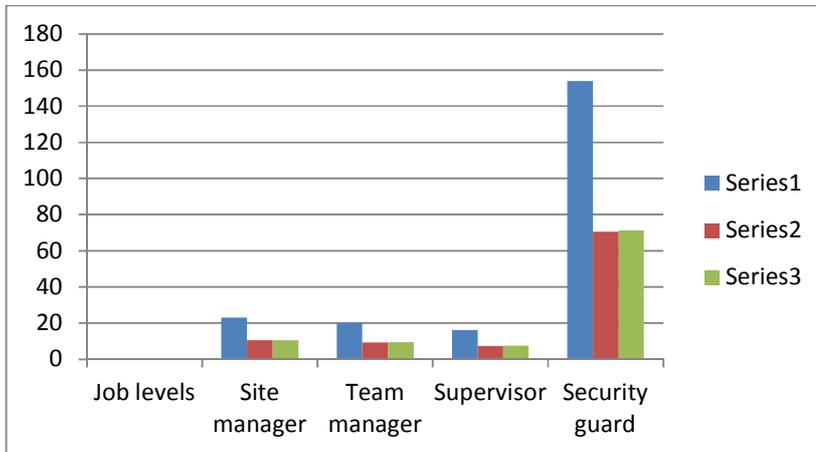
Table 4.4: Population group distribution of the sample (n=218).



4.2.1.1.5 The job level distribution

The job level distribution of respondents comprised of 10.6 % (n=23) site managers, 9.3 % (n=20) team managers, 7.4% (n=16) supervisors, and 71.3% (n=154) security guards. The graph below shows the demographic profile of respondents by job level distribution.

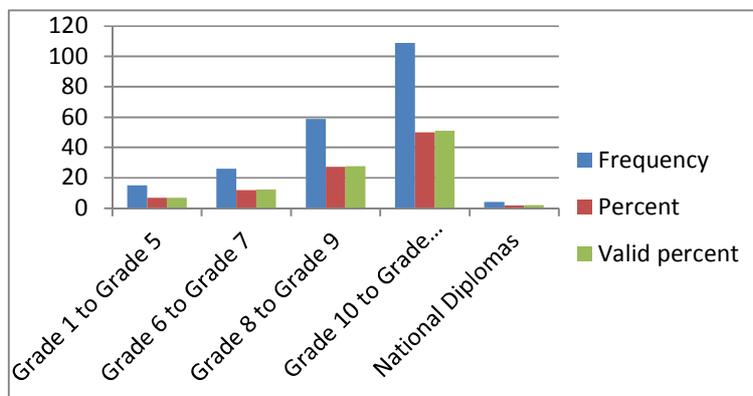
Table 4.5: Job level distribution of the sample (n=218).



4.2.1.1.5 The highest academic qualifications distribution

The academic qualifications distribution of respondents indicated that 51.2 % (n=109) lie in the category of Grade 10 to Grade 12; followed by the category Grade 8 to Grade 9 which accounts for 27.7% (n=59) of the respondents. Next is the category Grade 6 to Grade 7 which accounts for 12.2 % (n=26), followed by the category Grade 1 to Grade 5 which accounts for 7.0 % (n=15). Only 1.9% (n=14) of the respondents fall within the category National Diploma/National Higher Diploma. The graph below indicates the demographic profile of respondents by highest academic qualifications distribution.

Table 4.6: Highest academic qualifications distribution of the sample (n=218).



4.3. Descriptive Statistics

4.3.1. Results of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ); Workplace Trust Survey (WTS), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations for the respondents were computed using the following questionnaire Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) (Avolio et al., 2004); Workplace Trust Survey (WTS) Trust in the immediate supervisor subscale (Ferres & Travaglione, 2001); Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2003) are presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3 presents results on the Means, Standard Deviations and Cronbach's alpha of the components of Authentic leadership, Work Engagement and Trust (n=218).

Variable	Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Authentic Leadership	Self-Awareness (4)	7.98	2.55	0.52
	Balance Processing (4)	8.08	2.64	0.63
	Moral (4)	10.72	3.00	0.54
	Transparency (4)	5.39	1.88	0.76
Work Engagement	Vigour (6)	26.10	7.01	0.73
	Absorption (6)	25.17	7.45	0.76
	Dedication (5)	22.07	6.55	0.77
Trust	Benevolence (4)	15.13	3.61	0.73
	Integrity (5)	18.89	4.28	0.79
	Competence (3)	11.28	2.80	0.72

The results in table 4.3. indicate that the means for authentic leadership dimensions (self-awareness, balance processing, moral perspective, relational transparency) among the security guards ranged from a low of mean of 5.39 to a high mean of 10.72, with the general reliabilities of each dimension ranging from 0.52 to 0.76 (both acceptable). The lowest rated dimension was transparency (Mean=5.39, SD=1.88), while the highest value is related to moral perspective (self-regulation) (Mean=10.72, SD=3.00). This indicated that employees agreed more strongly with respect to moral perspective (self-regulation) as an important component of authentic leadership.

In addition, the results also indicate that the means for the Trust dimension (benevolence, integrity, competence) ranged from a low mean of 11.28 to a high mean of 18.89 with general reliabilities of each dimension ranging from 0.72 to 0.79 (both acceptable). The lowest rated dimension was competence (Mean=11.28, SD=2.80), while the highest value was integrity (Mean=18.89, SD=4.28). This indicated that employees agreed more strongly with respect to integrity as an important component of trust.

Consequently, the last results indicate that the means for Work Engagement dimensions (vigor, absorption, dedication) ranged from a low mean 22.07 to a high mean of 26.10, with general reliabilities of each dimension ranging from 0.73 to 0.76 (both acceptable). The lowest rated dimension was that of dedication (Mean=22.07, SD=6.55), while the highest rated dimension was vigor (Mean=26.10, SD=7.01). This indicated that employees agreed more strongly with respect to vigor as an important component of work engagement

4.4 Inferential Statistics

The primary aim of this study was to investigate a relationship between the authentic leadership, trust and the work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape. In order to achieve the primary aim of this study the following sub-objectives were formulated:

Objective 1: To determine whether a relationship exists between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, and trust of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape;

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant relationship between authentic leadership, and trust, of the security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

Method: Correlations / Bivariate Analysis

This section explores the relationship between two variables. After establishing that the scores are not normally distributed because p- value was 0.000, which means, p-value was < 0.05 . The Spearman Rho Correlation Coefficient was applied to explore the relationship. On the basis of that the next section presents Bivariate Correlation amongst the three variables namely; authentic leadership, trust and work engagement. The results depicted in Table 4.4 below indicate that there are significant positive relationships between almost all the three variables authentic leadership, trust and work engagement. Notwithstanding the coefficient correlation (r) and p- values are respectively $r < 0.51$ (large) and $p = 0.000$, since $p < 0.05$ we conclude that there is a statistically significant positive between authentic leadership and trust. ***Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.***

Objective 2: To determine whether there is a relationship between authentic leadership of supervisors and managers, and work engagement of security guards working in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape;

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant relationship between authentic leadership, and work engagement, of the security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

Method: Correlations / Bivariate Analysis

Table 4.4 below illustrates the results obtained with respect to the relationship between authentic leadership and levels of work engagement of the security guards. The results indicate that there are statistically significant positive relationships between **authentic leadership and** work engagement where (r) and p-value respectively $r < 0.405$ (small) and $p = 0.000$ since $p < .05$ we conclude that there is a statistically significant positive between authentic leadership and work engagement at .01 correlation confidence interval. ***Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.***

Objective 3: To establish whether a relationship exists between trust in supervisors and managers, and the work engagement of security guards in a private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

Hypothesis 3: There is no statistically significant relationship between trust, and work engagement of the security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

Method: Correlations / Bivariate Analysis

Table 4.4 below illustrates the results obtained with respect to the relationship between authentic leadership and levels of work engagement of the security guards. The results indicate that there are statistically significant positive relationships between trust and work engagement where (r) and p-value respectively $r < 0.54$ (large) and $p = 0.000$ since $p < 0.05$ we conclude that there is a statistically significant positive between authentic leadership and work engagement at 0.01 correlation confidence interval. ***Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.***

Table 4.4: Correlations coefficient among authentic leadership, trust, work engagement.

Constructs	Correlation Coefficient	Tot Leader	Tot Work	Tot Trust
Tot Leader	Correlation Coefficient N	1.000 184		
Tot Work	Correlation Coefficient N	0.405 175	1.000 205	
Tot Trust	Correlation Coefficient N	0.506 172	0.539 184	1.000 195

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

Multiple Regressions Analysis

Although the independent variables are all significantly related to the dependent variable, it is still unclear as to their contribution to the explanation of any change in work engagement. In order to determine whether each of the independent variables contribute significantly to the prediction (i.e. variance) of work engagement, multiple regression analysis is called for. In the following section, the results of analyses done to determine if any of the constructs are significant predictor of the work engagement are presented. The results of the multiple regression analysis are presented in this section. The regression model includes authentic leadership, and trust as the predictors (independent variables), and work engagement as the criterion (dependent variable). The results of the multiple regression analysis are explicated in Table **4.5.2** below.

Table 4.5.2: Multiple regression and model summary (dependent variable; work engagement)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	Sig.
	β	Std Error		
Constant	0.987	0.362		0.007
Tot Leader	0.288	0.114	0.184	0.013
Tot Trust	0.679	0.103	0.480	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Tot Work.

Table 4.5.2 reveals that both the independent variables contribute significantly to the prediction of work engagement, but trust being the best predictor. This model is significant at ($p < .000$).

4.5. Chapter Summary

All the results obtained from the sample described in the previous Chapter 3 were presented in this chapter. The results reported, focused on correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis. In addition, significant relationships between the constructs were found. The predictive value of the constructs to predict work engagement as addressed as dependent variable β will be further discussed in Chapter 5. The most important finding was that both authentic leadership and trust were significant predictors of work engagement as based on the multiple regression results, but trust as the best predictor. The implications of these findings will be interpreted and discussed in Chapter 5 which is the next chapter, together with recommendations for intervention and to improve future research in the field of Positive Organizational Behavior.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In this final chapter, the research results as presented in Chapter 4, are discussed and interpreted. The chapter commences with discussion of descriptive statistics for the dimensions of the respective constructs namely ; authentic leadership, trust and work engagement, followed by discussions of correlation and multi regression analysis in the light of the existing literature review discussed in Chapter 2. The chapter concludes with a discussion of limitations and recommendations for intervention and further research.

5.2. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.2.1 Descriptive results: regarding the dimensions of Authentic leadership, Trust, and Work Engagement.

5.2.1.1 Authentic leadership

The results indicated that the mean for authentic leadership dimensions ranged from a low of 5.39 to a high of 10.72. The lowest rated dimension was that of the self-awareness with (mean=5.39, s= 1.787), while the highest value related to moral perspective (self-regulation) with (mean=10.72, s=2.999). This showed that employees agreed more strongly with respect to moral perspective (self-regulation) as an important component of authentic leadership. This is highlighted as significant in studies done by Walumbwa et al. (2008, p.93) cited in (Peus et al., 2011) saying that beyond knowing themselves, it is also very important to demonstrate “consistency between their values, beliefs, and actions” in order to be perceived as an authentic leaders. These findings were also affirmed by Peus et al. (2011) and where self-consistency seemed to be an additional predictor of perceived authentic leadership.

These findings were in accordance with the findings of Avolio et al. (2004) that a leadership style doesn't differentiate the authentic leader from the inauthentic leaders but what is important is that authentic leaders act in accordance with deep personal

values and convictions, hence self-consistency are regarded as key antecedents of authentic leadership, and which is in line with the findings of this study. These findings were also affirmed this by Sparrowe (2005,p.423) by elaborating that “authentic leaders are effective in leading others because followers look for consistency between their leaders ‘true selves as expressed in values, purpose, or voice and their behavior.

Kouzes et al.(2002)in the similar way point out that the alignment between a leader’s values and behavior cultivate credibility in the eyes of followers which is regarded as a core personal identity image of authentic leaders(Gardner et al.,2005) as cited in Peus et al. (2011). The fact that the authentic leaders align their values with their intentions and actions which result in achieving self–consistency is interpreted to be self-regulatory (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans &Avolio 2003). The findings of this study were also in line with the findings of Brason (2007) which states that the alignment between the values and behavior makes leaders’true selves (e.g. their values, convictions, attitudes) transparent to followers. Since the true self is regarded as enduring in most writing on authentic leadership, followers are posited to evaluate leaders in terms of self-esteem, and creativity (Ilies et al., 2005) as cited in Peus et al. (2011) as well as trust, engagement, and well-being (Gardner at al., 2005), organizational citizenship behaviour and performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008) all cited in Peus et al. (2011) and even elevated levels of health.

It can thus be concluded that authentic leadership, as measured by Authentic Leadership Questionnaire, is a valid and reliable instrument based on the above mentioned results. The authentic leadership measure is thus an accurate representation of the construct in the current study.

5.2.1.2 Trust

The results indicated that the means for the dimensions of trust ranged from a low 11.28 to a high of 18.89. The lowest rated dimension was that of the competence (mean=11.28, s= 2.799), while the highest value related to integrity (mean=10.72, s=2.999). This indicated that employees agreed more strongly with respect to integrity

as an important component of trust. Contrary to the findings of other studies which revealed that all the three trustworthiness factors were significant predictors of trust in top management. These findings were also in accordance with the findings of Mayer et al.(1999) in the study conducted a nine month quasi experiment to examine the impact of the three trustworthiness factors that is ability, benevolence and integrity on which revealed that all the three trustworthiness factors were significant predictors of trust in top management.

Davis et al.(2000) explored the impact of ability in general managers within the restaurant industry, and the results from the correlation relation analysis revealed that all three trustworthiness factors were positively correlated with employee's trust in their general managers. However, in the regression analysis only benevolence and integrity emerged as positive predictors of trust. Davis et al. (2000) attributed these findings to the likely effects of multi-collinearity. Mayer et al.(2005) also reported similar results. More specifically these researchers sought to examine the influence of the trustworthiness, factors on employee trust in their plant managers and top management team in a sample of 288 employees drawn from a small non-union manufacturing firm. The results from this study indicated that all the three trustworthiness factors, ability, benevolence and integrity were positively associated with trust in the plant managers, whereas only benevolence and ability emerged as significant predictors of trust in the top management team. No studies listed above agree with the findings of this study except the finding of Davis et al (2000) which partly agree that only benevolence and integrity emerged as positive predictors of trust. It can thus be concluded that trust, as measured by the Workplace Trust Survey (trust of the supervisors sub-scale) is a valid and reliable instrument based on the above mentioned results. The results of trust measure (trust of the supervisor sub-scale) are thus an accurate representation of the construct in the current study.

5.2.1.3 Work Engagement

The results indicated that the means for the dimensions of work engagement ranged from a low 22.07 to a high of 26.10. The lowest rated dimension was that of the dedication (mean=22.07, s= 6.552), while the highest value related to 26.10 (mean=26.10, s= 7.008). This indicated that employees agreed more strongly with respect to vigor as an important component of work engagement. It can thus be concluded that work engagement, as measured by Utrecht Work Engagement is valid and reliable instrument based on the above mentioned results. The UWES measure is thus an accurate representation of the construct in the current study.

5.3 Discussion and Conclusion:

5.3.1 Inferential Results

5.3.1.1 The relationship between authentic leadership, trust and work engagement.

The findings reported in Table 4.8 indicated that authentic leadership, trust and work engagement are significant correlated with one another, but the correlation between authentic leadership and trust is moderate (0.506), followed by a low (0.405) relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement, and lastly the correlation between trust and work engagement is also reported to be moderate (0.539).

5.3.1.2 The relationship between authentic leadership and trust

A significant positive relationship was found between authentic leadership and trust ($r=0.506$), and therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. More specifically, it was established that authentic leadership and trust are significantly correlated with one another, but the correlation was moderate, because according to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux et al., 2002) any relationship falls within the range (0.4 to 0.7) that relationship is moderate.

This confirmed the conceptual relationship between authentic leadership and trust as referred to in Chapter 2, which alluded to a plethora of literature which emphasized the significant link between authentic leadership and trust (Avolio, May & Zhu (2004); Ahmed & Hassan (2011); Ghorbani, Rezaei, & Zamahani (2011)). Specifically, Ahmed et

al.(2011) provide a conceptual explanation of the link between authentic leadership and trust where mostly leaders who exhibited authentic relationship cultivate trust in employees. Consequently, that authentic leader-employee factor of trust served as a bridge factor between authentic leadership and work engagement.

These findings were also affirmed in various studies, especially with respect to performance or organizational commitment. Ghorbani et al.(2011, p.666)) studies revealed that the “findings shed light on the importance of specific leaders’ behaviour for creating trust on followers and enhancing their performance “. Moreover, results found that a leader’s positive attitude and authentic behaviour were positively associated with increased work performance. These findings were also affirmed by Cummings et al.(2010) stated that authentic leadership affects trust in nursing field which could ultimately affect quality of the core; ability to voice opinions, and work concentrations. Results showed that there more the leaders displayed authenticity in their leadership style , the higher the trust in management by followers in an organization, thereby increasing work engagement and confidence in being able to voice opinions without rebuke.

5.3.1.3 The relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement

A significant positive relationship exists between authentic leadership and work engagement ($r=0.405$).The magnitude of the relationship seem to be low. The findings of this study confirmed a conceptual link proposed by Alok et al.(2012) that authentic leadership and work engagement were closely knit. The results from their study showed that relationship between an authentic leader and followers work engagement occur “when two of the following conditions are satisfied : a) followers see their leaders as personal manifestations of organizations intent and b) followers experience moderate to high levels of promotion PO-Org” (Alok et al.,2012 ,p.506). The study also yielded other important factors like the emersion of the PO-Org as work engagement tool, the relational importance of the PO-Org to work engagement and contextual authentic leadership theory.

These findings were also in accordance with the findings of Giallonarolo et al.(2010) discovered that authentic leadership and work engagement were correlated within newly graduated nurses. The study showed that nurses, who were new to the field, three years or less, were more satisfied when authentic leadership was exhibited and felt a higher sense of work engagement. These findings were also affirmed in various studies (Hassan et al., 2011; Gardner et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2009). Hassan et al.(2011, p.156) links authentic leadership with positive follower attitudes towards their work and concludes that “if leaders are seen as transparent, acting according to adopted values, and not displaying self-protective motives then they develop trusting relationship with their employees in turn contribute to positive employees work outcomes such as work engagement”.

These findings were affirmed by Gardner et al. (2005); Schneider et al.(2009) in their study of authentic and supportive leadership which theorize the theorize the impact of employee engagement of followers in the sense of increasing their involvement, satisfaction and enthusiasm for work. On the basis of that leadership factor comprised indicator on effective leadership and perceived supervisor support (Gardner et al., 2005).

Related skillful insight and ability from their immediate supervisor and top management pertaining to a urging the growth and productivity of the organization by making competent decisions, it give the subordinates an increased assurance of a more profitable future with the organization (Spreitzer et al., 2002), which in turn influence an increase in work engagement amongst employees. The assistance of employees in locating their goals, organizing their work, highlighting drawbacks, taking a keen interest in their professional and career advancement, and offering advice as needed, has been positively related work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

Given the evidence in literature of the significant positive relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement, it seems possible that authentic leadership is related to employee work engagement.

5.3.1.4 The relationship between trust and work engagement

Trust was found to have a positive correlation with work engagement ($r = 0.503$). Specifically the correlation seems to be moderate. Various research studies support the conceptual relationship between trust and work engagement (Schaufeli et al, 2007; Mayer et al., 1995). To be specific these findings were in accordance with the findings of Schaufeli et al.(2007) indicating that there can be an increase in work engagement amongst employees if there is a sound sense of trust in the competence and capability of immediate supervisor. If the employees view their supervisor/managers as competent they would feel more confident that they could result on being depend on him/her to help them out when they encounter job related challenges.

Thus, it is suggested that employees trust in the capability and proficiency of their immediate supervisors/managers is more likely to make them realize that they have resources to successfully achieve their desired work and personal goals. This should give them confidence to exercise more effort in their work, which in turn may lead to greater work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2004).

Finally, Schaufeli et al.(2004) affirmed these findings further by pointing that employees would be more motivated to work with greater vigor and dedication towards the completion of their job requirements once they realize that their supervisors are trustworthy and dependable. Such an attitude from the employees stems from the fact that the supervisors are responsible for all those decisions that will directly impact employees' potential to attain their goals. These decisions include: evaluating performance, help with job responsibilities, training and career development, and providing recognition and rewards (Dirk et al., 2002). Employees can easily digress into a state of psychological distress if they feel that they don't have faith in their leader to make fair and impartial decisions with regards to these aspects of the job. Such deviation could then lead to disengagement from work (Dirk et al., 2002).

However, if the employees have full faith in their supervisors to show impartiality in their supervisors to show impartiality in their dealing with the employees, and to fully acknowledge their efforts by providing suitable rewards and recognition, they are likely to devote all their energies to role performance and would consequently be more positively engaged in their work (Schaufeli et al., 2007).

Conclusively, from the empirical work reported in this chapter, it is clear that there is a positive significant relationship between trust and work engagement, although is moderate.

5.3.1.5 Multiple regression Analysis

The multiple regression analysis results revealed that independent variables contribute significantly to the prediction of work engagement, but trust being the best predictor at ($p < 0.01$). This may be partly affirmed by Spreitzer et al., (2002) when employees recognize that their immediate supervisors and top management have the skillful insight and ability to augment the growth and productivity, of the organization by making competent decisions, it gives the subordinate an increased assurance of a more profitable future with the organization. On the basis of that, there can be an increase in work engagement amongst employees, if there is a sound sense of trust in the competence and capability of their immediate supervisor.

5.4 Conclusion

The objective of this study was to determine whether the relationship between authentic leadership of supervisors/ managers, trust and work engagement of security guards in the private security firm operating in the Western Cape.

The findings of this study indicated that security guards agreed strongly with respect to moral perspective (self-regulations) as an important component of authentic leadership, integrity as an important component of trust, and lastly vigor as the most important component of work engagement.

The empirical findings further indicate that trust is the best predictor of work engagement.

In terms of the stated research hypothesis, the following specific empirical findings emerged from the study:

- A significant positive relationship was found between authentic and trust, but the correlation was moderate.
- There is a significant positive relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement, and the magnitude of the correlation was low.
- A significant positive relationship was found between trust and work engagement, and the correlation was moderate.

The results of the study should be interpreted with caution due to various limitations (which are mentioned in the ensuing section).

5.5 Limitations of the study

The research was conducted within a single organization, and therefore results cannot be generalized to the private security industry as a whole. Furthermore, the current research used non-probability sampling in the form of convenience sampling, sample couldn't not inherently be the true reflection of the population, and lastly certain groups could be under-represented, and other over represented. The biographical composition of the sample was largely mainly of black (Xhosa speaking) and coloured respondents, with the private security guards being the largest representative group. Although this is representative of the demographics of the private security firms in question, it has an impact on the generalizability of the results to the broader South African population. Due to time and resources constraints, the cross-sectional survey design made it impossible to test the assumptions over time (as would be in the case with the longitudinal design). Lastly the use of the questionnaire as the tool to collect the data presented the limitations in that rich, qualitative information which could be adding value was not part of the design.

Cooke et al.(1989) stated that individuals are not always the most accurate judges of their own thoughts and feelings. The authors further maintain that dependent measures based on self-report surveys are best used in conjunction with other measures. Notwithstanding the limitations of the current research, the following recommendations are put forth:

5.6 Recommendations

In attempt to address the limitations of this study, it is recommended that in order to achieve true value from the research, a number of private security firms across the industry should be selected to participate in the study in the near future. Involving numerous private security firms across the industry can add value to explore the three concepts namely, authentic leadership, trust and work engagement.

In addition, both quantitative and qualitative approaches can be used complementary in order to develop a more detailed understanding of the relationship between authentic leadership, trust and work engagement.

Further research is needed to validate the three instruments Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) (Walumbwa et al., 2008), Workplace Trust Survey (WTS)(Ferres et al., 2003) and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)(Schaufeli et al.,2003) within the a private security industry in the South African context, to ensure a multi-cultural sample of participants.

It is also recommended that a proportionate stratified random sample be utilized for further research to ensure that subgroups of the population, especially minority groups, are represented.

6. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented conclusions that were reached with regard to the theoretical and empirical objectives of the study. Finally, the limitations of the study were highlighted and recommendations for practice and future research were put forward.

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