

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT
AND WORKPLACE TRUST: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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A minithesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Magister Commercii
in the Department of Industrial Psychology,
University of the Western Cape

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15 NOVEMBER 2011

KEY WORDS

Perceived Organisational Support

Workplace trust

Contribution

Well-being

Social exchange

Socio-emotional rewards

Co-worker trust

Organisational trust

Organisational justice

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour



ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND WORKPLACE TRUST: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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As organisations struggle to meet the demands placed on them by contextual challenges, they place more emphasis on relationships for effective organisational functioning. Trust is a critical component of workplace relationships and has been linked to numerous beneficial organisational outcomes. However, as trust is difficult for organisations to influence directly, Perceived Organisational Support may encompass a set of actions organisations can take that directly create workplace trust.

The aim of this study was to elucidate the relationship between workplace trust and Perceived Organisational Support. Workplace trust was examined as a three-dimensional model, with the trust referent (Organisation, Immediate Manager, Co-Workers) forming each dimension. Perceived Organisational Support was examined as a two-dimensional model, based on performance-reward expectancies (“Contribution”) or socio-emotional need fulfilment (“Well-being”).

A multi-method survey methodology yielded $n = 212$ participants in a South African organisation. The consolidated questionnaire sought biographical information from the sample as well as their responses to the Workplace Trust Survey and the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support. The reliability coefficients of the Workplace Trust Survey, Survey of Perceived Organisational Support and each of the dimensions were established as sufficient. Next, Confirmatory Factor Analysis confirmed that a three-dimensional factor structure for workplace trust and a two-dimensional factor structure for Perceived Organisational Support

can and should be used in a South African sample. Correlation analysis indicated a significant, positive relationship between each dimension of workplace trust and both of the dimensions of Perceived Organisational Support. Regression analysis confirmed that Perceived Organisational Support contributes to a significant proportion of the variance in workplace trust. However, there was one exception: The Contribution dimension of Perceived Organisational Support did not contribute significantly to Trust in Co-workers.

This research, based on a South African sample, confirms much of the previous international research into the relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and workplace trust. In addition, it makes two new contributions to the field. First, it found that Perceived Organisational Support can and should be considered a two-dimensional construct in a South African sample. This is in contrast with international studies that indicate a uni-dimensional construct for Perceived Organisational Support. Second, by using the two-dimensional Perceived Organisational Support construct, it found that only the Well-being, and not the Contribution, dimension of Perceived Organisational Support had a significant, positive impact on workplace trust.

Recommendations are made for future research, based on limitations of the current study as well as on the research results.

15 NOVEMBER 2011

DECLARATION

I declare that *The relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and workplace trust: An exploratory study* is my own work, that it 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.

FULL NAME:

DATE:



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As with many of life's challenges, this minithesis has been a journey that I had to take alone. However, it would not have been possible without the many people who gave me mental and emotional sustenance along the way:

Ms Marieta van Staden, my supervisor, whose patient guidance, intelligent insights and emotional support were invaluable. In her I have found a true coach and a good friend.

Mr Petrus Nel, of the University of the Free State, who assisted with the statistical analysis and interpretation. I was fortunate that the lures of Cape Town allowed me to take advantage of his insight and kind assistance.

The CEO, HR Manager, Marketing Executive, Marketing Manager and participants at the research organisation. I am grateful to have found a company brave enough to allow me to research these two fascinating topics. I am particularly indebted to the Marketing Manager who tirelessly and cheerfully helped me to communicate to the employee body.

My husband Gary, who is so proud of my achievements and never once complained about the time my studies were taking from our life together. Thank you for seconding me on my personal Cape Epic.

Finally, my mother, Louise Parr, who has been and continues to be my primary mentor in life and work. Mum, thank you for allowing me the cognitive, emotional and practical space to complete this degree, for challenging me to set a deadline and stick to it and for supporting me when times were tough and it felt as if this goal was out of reach.

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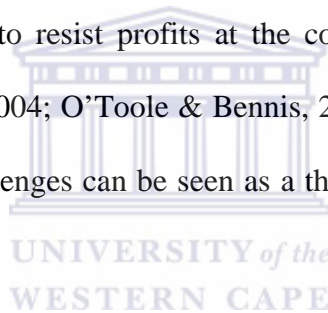


CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.1 CURRENT ORGANISATIONAL PRESSURES AND RESPONSES

1.1.1 WORLDWIDE CONTEXTUAL CHALLENGES

Worldwide, organisations face a number of contextual challenges. These include increasing globalisation; increasing speed of market change; greater market instability; growing technological innovation and reliance upon technology; the growing importance of knowledge capital, and increasing pressure to resist profits at the cost of the environment (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Meyer & Botha, 2004; O'Toole & Bennis, 2009; Rothwell, Prescott & Taylor, 2008; Senior, 2002). These challenges can be seen as a threat to organisational profitability, growth and therefore survival.



These contextual challenges dictate that organisations respond and adapt how they exist or face extinction. McKinsey's 7S framework of organisations provides a useful structure in which to interpret how these organisational changes are taking place. Changes in today's companies can be interpreted in their (a) strategy (the plan to build and maintain competitive advantage), (b) structure (the way in which reporting lines are designated), (c) systems (how daily activities and procedures are done), (d) staffing requirements, (e) skills and capabilities, (f) leadership style and (g) shared values evident in the corporate culture and the general work ethic (Waterman, Peters & Phillips, 1980).

Structural changes include flatter and more network-based organisations (Atkinson, 2004; Costa, 2003). Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner (1998, in Connell, Ferres &

Travaglione, 2003) recognised that environmental and competitive pressures are pushing organisations towards flat, team-orientated structures where employees perform multidimensional work with the autonomy to make decisions. In addition, these organisational forms are in part a response to employees demanding to be active participants instead of passive members (Brown & Harvey, 2006). Work has increasingly become the responsibility of self-directed and self-managed teams rather than individuals (Costa, 2003; Frye, Bennett & Caldwell, 2006; Han & Harms, 2008). These teams must use their combined creativity and innovation to solve complex problems (Senior, 2002).

Team-orientated organisational structures and even virtual teams are possible because of changes in technology (Senior, 2002). Consequently, information systems have become more important than mass production systems in creating organisational competitiveness (Senior, 2002). Additionally, organisational systems must now facilitate communication, through email and web-based technology for example, between team members and co-workers who may very often not work in the same physical space (Douglas, Martin & Krapels, 2006; Senior 2002).

Staffing, meaning who does the work and how it is done, has also changed. The workforce has become increasingly diverse (Brown & Harvey, 2006) as more women and minority groups (internationally) and previously-disadvantaged groups (South Africa) join the formal workforce (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Meyer & Botha, 2004). Today's workforce also includes a greater variety of generational differences as 'Baby Boomers', those born between 1946 and the early 1960s, remain in the workforce rather than choosing to retire (Coughlin, 2007; Senior, 2002).

Jobs demand a much higher level of skill from employees than before because of a move away from an industrial, production-orientated economy towards a knowledge-based, service-

orientated one (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Senior, 2002). Increased reliance on technology means that employees are less likely to rely on physical effort and instead drive competitive advantage through their applied intelligence, creativity and effective knowledge management (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Meyer & Botha, 2004; Senior 2002). The impact of increased teamwork on employee skill requirements is a greater demand for those with specialist rather than generalist skills (Han & Harms, 2008). The rise of teamwork also demands that employee skills include not only technical or professional competence, but also the ability to collaborate (Costa, 2003).

Much has been written in the past thirty-five years about the need for senior staff in organisations to move from having purely managerial skills to developing additional leadership capabilities (Blanchard, 2000 in Meyer & Botha, 2004; Schein, 2004; Zaleznik, 1977). Leadership relies less on hierarchy and position-driven power with a command-and-control style and more on shared participation (Costa, 2003; Brown & Harvey, 2006; Meyer & Botha, 2004), a compelling vision (Meyer & Botha, 2004) and a Transformational Leadership style (Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo & Sutton, 2011).

Management literature places greater emphasis on the personal values of those in leadership positions than in the past (Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999). This is because a number of studies have demonstrated the relationship between the values of those in management and aspects of managerial behaviour (Davis & Rasool, 1988; Woodcock & Francis, 1989). This behaviour, in turn, impacts on organisational performance (Wallace et al., 1999).

Shared organisational values and culture are increasingly those of mutual responsibility (Costa, 2003; Meyer & Botha, 2004) and high performance that are benchmarked against world-class organisations (Meyer & Botha, 2004). Some argue that shared team values are more difficult to create in modern organisations because of the increasing diversity of the

workforce and the increasing use of teams (Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz, 2011). Team members whose values differ markedly may hold different assumptions and expectations about one another's behaviour. This may make it difficult for them to achieve consensus, to collaborate or to coordinate with one another, possibly resulting in greater team conflict (Klein et al., 2011).

There is a difference of opinion around which corporate values promote organisational effectiveness (Wallace et al., 1999). However, O'Toole and Bennis (2009) suggest that, because today's digital media enables fast and widespread communication, the values of corporate transparency and a culture of candour are critical to restore people's trust in organisations. They argue that this is particularly important in the wake of a number of prominent organisational failures and scandals (O'Toole & Bennis, 2009).

Strategic changes are the "company plans in response to or in anticipation of changes in its external environment" (Waterman et al., 1980, p.20). They form the impetus behind the changes in organisational structure, systems, staffing, skills, leadership style and shared values. Today's competitive organisations place more emphasis on long-term strategic planning than ever before (Brown & Harvey, 2006). However, as academics and business people alike recognise increasing market and contextual turbulence, strategic flexibility is acknowledged as critical while strategic planning has become a particularly complex and difficult challenge (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Senior, 2002). In addition, modern organisations must develop strategies with teams, rather than individuals, as the basis for organisational performance (West & Markiewicz, 2004).

1.1.2 SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXTUAL CHALLENGES

The challenges described in the previous section all apply to South Africa, as the country becomes a global player in the international market (Meyer & Botha, 2004).

South Africa's status as a developing nation means that South African organisations wishing to become or remain competitive face particular challenges in addition to those already mentioned. The World Competitiveness Report, compiled by the Swiss Institute for Management Development (IMD), has summarised these into three challenges. These challenges are, (a) the poor capacity of management to identify and implement competitive practices, (b) the fragile relationship between labour and management and (c) South Africa's low productivity output, which falls in the bottom 10% when compared with other developing nations (Meyer & Botha, 2004).

The need for improved competitiveness is crucial if South Africa is to improve its standing as the lowest-ranking of forty-seven countries in the World Competitive Reports (Meyer & Botha, 2004). One possible way may be to draw on the Black South African cultural value of 'Ubuntu', from the aphorism "*Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu* – a person is a person because of or through others" (Poovan, Du Toit & Engelbrecht, 2006. p.16). *Ubuntu* can be defined as "the capacity in African culture to express compassion, reciprocity, dignity, humanity and mutuality in the interest of building and maintaining communities with justice and mutual caring" (Bekker, 2006 in Poovan et al., 2006, p. 17). One South African study (Poovan et al., 2006) found that the social values of *Ubuntu* had a positive impact on team performance.

The changing contextual conditions create an unprecedented need for organisations to become adaptable. If they fail to adapt, organisations risk becoming irrelevant. Consequently, there is a greater emphasis on managing people within organisations than ever before, highlighting the need to focus on interpersonal human relationships for organisational survival.

1.2 THE VALUE OF RELATIONSHIPS IN ORGANISATIONS

More than ever before, current organisational characteristics place emphasis on relationships – inter-personal, inter-organisational and between individuals and organisations – for effective organisational functioning (Costa, 2003). This is because of the prevailing belief that negative work relationships can hinder performance, while positive work relationships help people deal with difficult work experiences and contribute to improved positive performance. This section explores this in more detail.

Psychologists have long held that poor relationships at work hinder people's ability to perform (Finney, 2008; Fiske, Gilbert & Lindzey, 2010). Recent physiological evidence from the new field of neuroscience (the study of the nervous system, in particular the brain, and its role in behaviour and cognitive functions) supports this assertion (Rock, 2009). Functional Magnetic Resource Imaging (fMRI) and electroencephalograph (EEG) scans have identified that the brain's 'threat' responses are triggered by people's perceptions of the way they are treated by others. For example, when people feel rejected, the active areas of the brain are the same areas that respond to physical pain (Eisenberger, Lieberman & Williams, 2003). Consequently, poor relationships cause the brain's threat responses. These threat responses in turn impair working memory function and therefore analytical thinking, creative insight and problem-solving (Rock, 2008). All of these skills are critical in today's knowledge-based organisations.

As described earlier, modern organisations are characterised by uncertainty. Psychological research asserts that positive relationships enable people in organisations to cope with levels of uncertainty while previous bureaucratic structures could not. This can facilitate organisational effectiveness (Graen & Scandura, 1987, in Atkinson 2004).

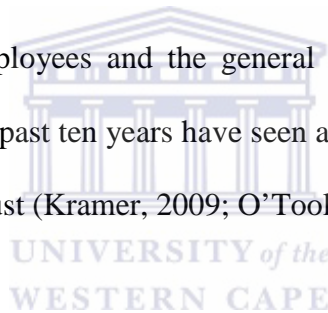
Additional neuroscientific research has demonstrated that when people feel a sense of relatedness, defined as a sense of safety with others (Rock, 2008), their ability to collaborate improves. This is because the brain's threat response declines, resulting in a greater sense of affiliation (Rock, 2008). The ability to collaborate with others is critical to teamwork and teamwork is a defining feature of 21st century organisations. Therefore, evidence from neuroscience provides physiological evidence that good working relationships are important for effective organisational functioning.

Leading research and practice therefore no longer question the value of positive and enduring relationships in business, but instead focus on how to create and maintain them (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Finney, 2008).

Research from the field of clinical psychology has for many years demonstrated that trust is a critical element in positive interpersonal relationships. Research in organisational psychology, borrowing from this idea, has indicated that trust is critical to building working relationships (for example, Barney & Hansen, 1994, in Watson, 2005; Costa, 2003; Druskatt & Wolff, 2001). Of all work-based relationships, those among team members have become particularly critical with the rise of today's team-based organisations. Some have argued that the organisational capabilities that can give companies sustainable competitive advantage are embedded in the skills and knowledge of organisation members and in the interactions between them, in particular within groups and teams (Jones & George, 1998). Co-operative behaviour and synergistic team relationships are more likely to occur when unconditional trust is present in relationships (Jones & George, 1998).

1.3 THE RELEVANCE OF TRUST IN MODERN ORGANISATIONS

There has been a proliferation of literature on trust in recent years, including articles in and special publications of scientific journals, business publications and books addressing the issue of trust in organisations (Schlechter, 2005). This increasing interest indicates that there is a general understanding of the value of trusting relationships in the workplace (Childs, 2001 in Atkinson, 2004; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995; Schlechter, 2005; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998 in Watson, 2005) for both academics and practitioners (Connell et al., 2003). In the private sector, and even more so in the public sector, trusting relationships are vital to achieving stability and development (Kroukamp, 2008 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). The increasing interest in trust coincides with the declining trustworthiness of organisations in the eyes of employees and the general public (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). This is partly because the past ten years have seen a series of significant and pervasive abuses of employee and public trust (Kramer, 2009; O'Toole & Bennis, 2009).



1.3.1 BENEFITS OF TRUST IN THE ORGANISATION

Galford and Drapeau (2003) suggest that it takes skills, intelligent supporting processes and the focused attention of senior management to build trust within an organisation. They argue that trust within an organisation is more difficult to build than trust between organisations and they have three explanations for this. The first hindrance to intra-organisational trust, they suggest, is the barrage of contradictory communication often prevalent inside companies. The second hindrance is the different, sometimes conflicting goals held by various groups within organisations. Finally they suggest that internal trust is hindered because it is difficult for any party within an organisation to leave if there is a problem in the relationship (Galford & Drapeau, 2003).

Trust is valued in organisations for two main reasons. The first is the centrality of trust to good working relationships, on which organisations are increasingly reliant (Connell et al., 2003; Schlechter, 2005). This reliance on relationships occurs at the same time as a decreasing reliance on other, historically relevant factors for organisational success. Today, organisational profitability is generated less through physical energy, independent employee efforts and managerial control and more through knowledge management, team-based efforts and stewardship by leaders (Brown & Harvey, 2006; Jones & George, 1998; Meyer & Botha, 2004; Senior, 2002) – all of which require trusting relationships. Trusting relationships are a major contributor to organisational competitiveness, because they are not easy to imitate or replicate (Jones & George, 1998).

The other reason why trust is valued in organisations is that it is believed to contribute to management and organisational effectiveness and efficiency (Schlechter, 2005). Because of increasingly uncertain and complex working conditions, mutual confidence or trust is required to make sustained, effective and co-ordinated action possible (Thompson, 1967 in McAllister, 1995). Seligman (1997 in Möllering, Bachmann & Lee, 2004) argues that people are relying more on trust than ever before because of the lack of security and predictability of organisational and other aspects of life. Whereas previously people's confidence in organisational systems was evidence-bound, trust necessitates a leap of faith (Seligman, 1997, in Möllering et al., 2004).

1.3.2 BENEFITS OF TRUST IN THE IMMEDIATE MANAGER

Developing and maintaining trust is frequently acknowledged as being a central component of managerial relationships (Creed & Miles, 1996; Davis, Schoorman, Mayer & Tan, 2000; McAllister, 1995). Trust in leaders is particularly important for well-functioning teams and in organisations where tasks are complex and unstructured. These organisations require high

levels of interdependence, co-operation and information sharing (Creed & Miles, 1996; Zand, 1972). Trust is believed to be critical for Transformational Leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990) and has been shown to be important to Servant Leadership (Dannhauser, 2007; van Staden, 2007).

1.3.3 BENEFITS OF TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

A climate of trust requires organisations as a whole, and the individuals within them, to be both trustworthy and trusting (Watson, 2005). As already discussed, workplaces are increasingly becoming less secure. Therefore, because people seek to fulfil socio-emotional needs at work (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo & Lynch, 1998), the need for support in an unpredictable work context becomes ever more critical (Byrne, Pitts, Chiaburu & Steiner, 2011).

Interpersonal team processes are positively associated with team functioning and team member satisfaction (LePine, Piccolo, Jackson, Mathieu & Saul, 2008). These processes rely on unconditional trust (Jones & George, 1998). They result in team members being able to manage internal conflict, motivate each other, build each other's confidence and create affective ties that mitigate stress and frustration (LePine et al., 2008).

Finally, changes in organisational structure (flatter, more team-based) and work structure (employees performing more multidimensional work with decision-making autonomy) require trust between employees and their managers to be successful (Whitener et al., 1998, in Connell, et al., 2003).

1.3.4 TRUST AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

South Africa's socio-political history has been characterised by extreme mistrust of one group by another (Schlechter, 2005). The previous political regime's apartheid policy relied on

inter-racial fear and mistrust; however, since the country's move to democracy in 1994, efforts have been made at a national level to improve trusting relationships between various parties. South Africa's legislative framework contains numerous examples intended to build and protect trust. For example, Edwards (2008 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010) lists thirteen Acts and White Papers promulgated to promote ethical behaviour and accountability in the public sector. In addition, South Africa's employment regulations are well-documented and require adherence by all organisations (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). Despite these legislative efforts, the national context is still characterised by mistrust among people (Schlechter, 2005).

In organisations, research has shown that the most positive expressions of personal trust come from those with more senior job grades or higher levels of education, while those with low educational levels or in lower job grades have the most negative expressions of personal trust (Cyster, 2005 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). In a country with a paucity of education and a large number of unskilled workers, this indicates that mistrust is likely to be widespread. In addition, public sector employees' experience of trust is significantly lower than that of their counterparts in the private sector (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).

South Africa's history and widespread negative experiences of trust, particularly in the civil service, emphasise the importance of finding ways to build trusting relationships in the South African context.

1.3.5 ORGANISATIONAL INFLUENCE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF WORKPLACE TRUST

Although the benefits of workplace trust have been recognised for fifty years, organisations still find it difficult to create this trust. Trust is a complex, multi-dimensional construct (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998); it is a psychological state

(Rousseau et al., 1998; Möllering et al., 2004) that is created over time (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis, 2007). Trust is an attribute of the person who trusts, namely the trustor, rather than a state created by the target of the trust, namely the trustee (Möllering et al., 2004).

Can organisations influence the development of a culture of trust? Research since the middle of the last century indicates that, because people and their organisations interact through exchange relationships, this is possible. The Norm of Reciprocity dictates that when people feel that they have been the recipient of benefits, they incur an obligation to return that benefit (Gouldner, 1960 in Armeli et al., 1998). This reciprocation need not be in kind. Social Exchange Theory holds that employees will trade their efforts and loyalty for both tangible benefits, such as pay and employment benefits, and social benefits, such as esteem and approval (Blau, 1964 in Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002).

The question now becomes: What actions can an organisation take to influence a culture of trust and build trusting workplace relationships? One way organisations could influence workplace trust is by demonstrating support for their employees. This will be explored further in the following section.

1.4 THE RELEVANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

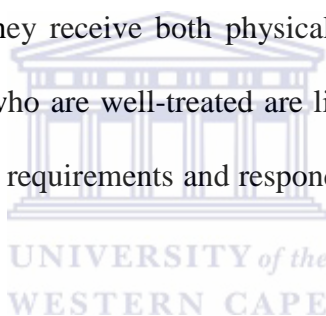
1.4.1 INDIVIDUAL BENEFITS FROM ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

The socio-emotional rewards that people receive from their working lives has been recognised by social scientists for many years (Armeli et al., 1998). These rewards include need fulfilment for esteem (praise and recognition), affiliation (affection and cognitive stimulation) and emotional support (consolation and sympathy when experiencing distress) (Hill, 1987 in Armeli et al., 1998).

In addition, employees today seek support from their organisations to help them juggle the demands of work and home (Byrne et al., 2011). This appears to be particularly true of 'Millennials', the generation born between 1977 and 1997 (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). One characteristic of Millennials is that they tend to view work as a key part of life, rather than a separate activity that needs to be balanced (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Because this generation comprises a significantly large and growing percentage of the working population, their concerns will become increasingly significant.

1.4.2 ORGANISATIONAL BENEFITS FROM ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

The Norm of Reciprocity and Social Exchange Theory explain that employees will give their time, efforts and loyalty when they receive both physical and psychological rewards from their organisations. Employees who are well-treated are likely to be more committed to the organisation, exceed performance requirements and respond well to organisational challenges (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).



Competitive organisations therefore recognise the value gained in meeting both the financial and socio-emotional needs of their employees. When organisations support employees, they encourage employee behaviour and attitudes that help those organisations remain competitive (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

1.4.3 ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

South African employees face a number of challenges outside of the workplace that impact on their ability to perform well when they are at work. These challenges include the high risk of being a victim of violent crime; poor levels of education; high levels of unemployment resulting in the employed population needing to support the unemployed; and the prevalence and impact of HIV/AIDS (Meyer & Botha, 2004). South African organisations need to find

ways to mitigate the difficulties of everyday life for their employees if they want to ensure they perform to the best of their ability. One way to do this is to offer their employees support. This gives a strong impetus for organisational support in the South African context.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE AND AIMS OF THIS STUDY

1.5.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE OF THIS STUDY

This research explores the relationship between workplace trust and organisational support. Workplace trust, in this study, describes the trust between the organisation and its employees, between immediate managers and the people who report to them and between co-workers. Organisational support is examined from the perspective of those whom the organisation intends to support: employees. Therefore Perceived Organisational Support (POS) is the belief that employees hold about the extent to which their organisation values their contribution and cares for their well-being.

Many studies of workplace trust restrict the scope of the trust referent to the organisation and/or the immediate manager (for example, Aryee, Buhwar & Chen, 2002; Byrne et al., 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Korsgaard, Brodt & Whitener, 2002). With the increasing necessity for team-based organisations, as outlined earlier, there is a greater need for research with co-workers as the trust referent.

The impact of organisational support on employees has been studied for many years. However, there has been an increase in studies in this area since Eisenberger and colleagues' definition of Perceived Organisational Support (POS) as employees' "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986, p. 500). The development of statistically reliable and valid measures for this construct has also contributed

to the number of studies. However, as the literature review will show in the following chapter, there have been very few studies of POS in African countries and only limited studies of POS in South Africa.

Some studies that examine both workplace trust and POS indicate that POS is the antecedent of workplace trust, when the trust referent is the organisation (De Connick, 2010) or the immediate manager (Connell et al., 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995 in Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage & Sucharski, 2004). However, Byrne et al.'s study (2011) of managerial trustworthiness and social exchange found that managerial trustworthiness predicted POS. Little has been researched about trust at the co-worker level and POS, but one study has indicated that it is co-worker trust that predicts POS rather than vice versa (Ferres, Connell & Travaglione, 2004). It seems therefore that the relationship between workplace trust and POS is reciprocal.

This study aims to elucidate gaps in the research related to co-worker trust and POS in a South African context and in the relationship between workplace trust and POS.

1.5.2 AIMS OF THIS STUDY

This study seeks to:

- Test the relationship between workplace trust and POS
- Evaluate the construct validity of the Workplace Trust Survey and the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support
- Determine if there are causal relationships between the dimensions of workplace trust and POS
- Offer guidelines for the development of trust in organisations
- Gain insight into the development of co-worker trust

- Determine the degree and distribution of levels of workplace trust and POS in the sample population, giving rise to suggestions for improvements and adaptation of organisational strategy.

1.6 OUTLINE OF MINI-THESIS

This mini-thesis examines the relationship strength and directionality of two constructs that have become progressively more relevant against the backdrop of increased organisational competition and greater organisational volatility: workplace trust and POS.

Chapter 1 gave an overview of the national and international contextual factors that create the impetus for organisational adaptation. It examined the increasing relevance of relationships in organisations and of trust as a key component of positive and enduring work relationships. The chapter explored the benefits of trust in the organisation, immediate manager and co-workers and the experience of trust in the South African context, recognising that workplace trust is difficult for the organisation itself to influence directly. One way organisations could influence the development of a culture of trust is through supporting behaviours directed towards employees. The chapter then discussed the benefits of this support to both the organisation itself and individuals within the organisation and explored organisational support in the South African context. It concluded with the research objectives and the specific aims of this study.

Chapter 2 is a literature review of workplace trust and POS. Each of these constructs is reviewed in terms of the history of research, definitions, dimensions, antecedents, consequences and measurement. The chapter also examines research that has examined both workplace trust and POS, which leads to the development of the research problem. The

hypotheses of this research are explained and a proposed theoretical model of the relationship between workplace trust and POS is given.

The third chapter presents the research methodology and discusses the quantitative research paradigm and its suitability for this research. The research design is then explained, including the survey methodology, the population, the sample and the procedure used. The descriptive statistics of each biographical variable describe the sample's characteristics. This study uses a consolidated survey consisting of a biographical questionnaire, a measure for workplace trust (the Workplace Trust Survey) and a measure for POS (the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support). Each of these is discussed and explained in terms of its relevance to the study and psychometric properties. Finally, chapter 3 gives an overview of the statistical analysis to be used to interpret the data.

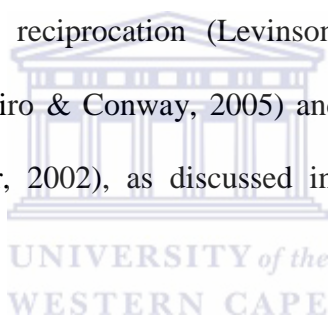
Chapter 4 contains the data analyses of the WTS and the SPOS giving descriptive statistics for each of the two surveys to indicate the overall evaluation of the constructs by the sample. A factor analysis is undertaken to identify the factor structure of each measuring instrument. Furthermore, inferential statistics indicate the justification for drawing conclusions about the population based on the sample data. The chapter ends by summarising the main points arising from the analysis.

The final chapter, chapter 5, summarises and discusses the salient points emanating from the research. It draws conclusions based on the findings of this research and from prior research as indicated in the literature review (chapter 2). Correlations with and deviations from previous research are discussed and possible reasons for these are suggested. This chapter acknowledges limitations of the research, makes suggestions for future research, before concluding by recognising the implications of this research for organisations and for those who work in them.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW OF WORKPLACE TRUST AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER

For the past fifty years, organisational researchers have identified that the relationship between employees and organisations can be mutually beneficial, with employers getting favourable outcomes if they treat employees well (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). The continuous process of fulfilling mutual expectations, satisfying mutual needs and carrying out a psychological contract in the relationship between people and their organisations is conceptualised as a process of reciprocation (Levinson, 1965). Gouldner's Norm of Reciprocity (1960 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005) and Blau's Social Exchange Theory (1964 in Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002), as discussed in chapter 1, help to explain this reciprocation.



The two constructs that are the focus of this study, workplace trust and POS, are both grounded in Social Exchange Theory and rely on the Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).

Workplace trust has been shown to have a positive relationship with lower intended employee turnover (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002) and actual employee turnover (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer & Tan 2000; Watson, 2005), increased organisation commitment (Aryee et al., 2002) and enabling cooperative behaviour (Gambetta, 1988 in Watson, 2005). This evidence supports the underlying Norm of Reciprocity in workplace trust.

A positive relationship has been found between POS and organisational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Tetrick, 1991 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005); job performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 1990); and

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Shore & Wayne, 1993 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). A negative relationship has been found between POS and absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986). These results support the underlying Norm of Reciprocity in POS.

The relationship between workplace trust and POS, however, is unclear, and to date a literature review reveals no study of POS that includes all three of the possible trust referents: the organisation, the immediate manager and co-workers. This study aims to elucidate this relationship. The remainder of this chapter will review current research on and measurements of workplace trust and POS, and will examine research that has sought to explain the relationship between workplace trust and POS. The problem statement will be given and the research objectives of this study will be explained.

2.2 WORKPLACE TRUST

2.2.1 HISTORY OF THE TRUST CONSTRUCT

The concept of trust is probably as old as the earliest forms of human association (Watson, 2005). From an evolutionary perspective, trust is critical because human beings are born dependent on others (Kramer, 2009). There is recent evidence from the field of neuroscience that human brains are structured to enable the social connections required to form dependency (Kramer, 2009).

The word “trust” is thought to date back to the 13th century, having its roots in expressions symbolising faithfulness and loyalty (Möllering et al., 2004). Its importance has been recognised in the writings of both Eastern and Western cultures: around 500 BC, Confucius considered trust to be a precondition and basis for social relationships (Hann, 1968 in Möllering et al., 2004), while European classical writers noted that trust is required to prevent the paralysis of social life (Möllering et al., 2004). Trust as a necessity in political life was

first discussed by the English philosophers Hobbes, Locke and Hume, in the 17th century (Anderson, 2003; Möllering et al., 2004).

Despite its importance throughout history, trust received relatively little research attention until the last fifty years (Möllering et al., 2004; Rousseau et al., 1998; Schlechter, 2005). From the 1960s trust research took place in many disciplines, including psychology, sociology, management and organisation studies, marketing, organisational behaviour and public relations (Möllering et al., 2004; Watson, 2005). Because trust has been studied in varied contexts and at different levels of analysis, it has defied a single definition (Costa, 2003). Early research included Goffman's (1963 in Möllering et al., 2004; Watson, 2005) study into the essential role of trust in maintaining social processes. Around the same time, Erikson's developmental psychology approach argued that learning to trust is critical in childhood development, emphasising the deep psychological embeddedness of trust (1965, in Möllering et al., 2004; Watson, 2005). Rotter's (1967) conceptual and operational definition of trust in terms of attributes of trustors, attributes of trustees and several internal cognitions that result from personal attributes (Rousseau et al., 1998) dominated for the next forty years (Schoorman et al., 2007).

Zand's (1972) early research into trust as an organisational and management phenomenon posited that trust and distrust are gradual, self-reinforcing phenomena. Luhmann (1979 in Möllering et al., 2004) made an important distinction between personal trust and system trust and theorised that trust functions as a mechanism for the reduction in social complexity. This underpinned Zucker's argument (1986 in Möllering et al., 2004) that process-based trust and characteristic-based trust (both person-specific trust types) have been replaced by institutional-based trust. Sociologist Giddens argued that trust needs to be actively developed at the interpersonal level because of the relative instability of societal bases for trust (1994, in Möllering et al., 2004).

At a societal level, Fukuyama (1995 in Rousseau et al., 1998) argues that trust facilitates all large-scale activities in society. Some argue that societal trust is the basis for alternative forms of economic organisation (Möllering et al., 2004).

2.2.2 TRUST APPLIED TO THE WORKPLACE

In management research, many authors suggest that trust is an important element of relationships in a business environment (e.g., Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Perry & Mankin, 2004; Watson, 2005). Trust has also been studied with respect to organisational governance: Workplace trust is recognised as an alternative to authority, a key factor in managerial philosophies and the starting point for problem-solving work groups (Creed & Miles, 1996).

2.2.3 DEFINITIONS OF WORKPLACE TRUST

One of the challenges of studying trust is the lack of a single definition for trust itself (Mayer et al., 1995; Möllering et al., 2004; Perry & Mankin, 2004). Watson's (2005) cross-disciplinary review of trust found thirty-two different definitions across the fields of psychology, sociology, management, marketing, organisational behaviour and public relations.

An early definition of trust in management literature is Zand's (1972):

Actions that (a) increase one's vulnerability, (b) to another whose behavior is not under one's control, (c) in a situation in which the penalty (disutility) one suffers if the other abuses that vulnerability is greater than the benefit (utility) one gains if the other does not abuse that vulnerability. (p. 230)

One of the most-cited researchers in the trust literature is Mayer et al.'s (1995), whose definition of trust is "the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712). Rousseau et al.'s (1998) definition builds on Mayer et al.'s (1995), defining trust as, "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another" (p. 395). Fukuyama's (1995) work on societal trust defines trust as, "the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest, and cooperative behavior, based on commonly shared norms on the part of other members of that community" (p. 26, in Watson, 2005).

Common to all these definitions is a willingness to be vulnerable and a hope or expectation of positive outcomes. Möllering et al. (2004) summarise that competence, benevolence, integrity and predictability are recurrent and generic themes that indicate trustworthiness.

Möllering et al. (2004) argue that it is bad practice to apply what is essentially an inter-personal construct into a person-organisation construct because this anthropomorphises the organisation. This, Currall and Judge (1995 in Möllering et al., 2004) claim, raises the unresolved question of "to what extent trust can be generalised and institutionalised beyond the momentary state of mind of the individual" (p. 560). However, Ferres and Travaglione's (2003) qualitative and quantitative study supported the notion that workplace trust is distinguished by three referents, namely trust in the organisation, trust in the immediate manager and trust in co-workers. This study will use factor analysis to determine if these three dimensions of trust are distinct in a South African sample.

2.2.4 TYPES OF TRUST

Trust is generally accepted by scholars as being a multi-dimensional construct (Butler, 1991 in Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). Various forms and degrees of trust, from complete trust to complete distrust, are described in the literature and summarised in this section.

Rousseau et al. (1998) note that one form of trust found in the literature is deterrence-based trust. This occurs when a party trusts another because the cost of a breach of that trust would outweigh any of the benefits from that breach. Trust is therefore a utilitarian consideration (Rousseau et al., 1998). While acknowledging that some view deterrence-based trust as a form of trust (for example, Shapiro, Sheppard & Cheraskin, 1992 in Rousseau et al., 1998), Rousseau et al. (1998) and others (for example, Sitkin & Roth, 1993) argue that deterrence-based trust is in fact an absence of mistrust, or a low level of distrust, rather than a form of trust.

In cognition-based trust the trustor's trust is based in his/her own judgments of the trustee's competence or reliability (McAllister, 1995). This form of trust is based in rational choice when credible information about the other's competence is available (McAllister, 1995). Rousseau et al.'s (1998) typology of calculus-based trust is also based on rational choice. They hold that this form of trust emerges when credible information about the trustor (from outside of the trustor-trustee relationship, in the form of reputation or certification) is available. However, they note that the range of calculus-based trust is often limited to situations where failure to perform can be verified in the short-term (Rousseau et al., 1998). Lewicki and Bunker (1996) argue that this form is not real trust, but rather a strategic decision or action based on a cost-benefit analysis, and that suspicions about the other party may remain.

Lewicki and Bunker's degrees of trust model (1996) holds that a threshold is crossed into 'real trust' when suspicions are replaced by positive expectations based on confident knowledge about the other party. This knowledge includes information about the other's motives, abilities and reliability. Lewicki and Bunker's model (1996) terms the first post-threshold form of trust knowledge-based trust. They argue that this exists when trustors have positive confidence in the trustee, based on the trustee's prior predictability (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

A fourth form, affect-based or relational trust, is argued to be distinct from previously discussed forms of trust because it stems from the emotional relationships between people (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Rousseau et al. (1998) argue that relational trust is created after repeated interactions between the trustor and trustee, so that information from within the trustor-trustee relationship itself forms the basis for trust. While acknowledging the reliability and dependability aspect of Lewicki and Bunker's (1996) knowledge-based trust, Rousseau et al. (1998) argue that emotion enters the relationship with these longer interactions. In Rousseau et al.'s (1998) model, knowledge-based trust is subsumed into affect-based trust. McAllister (1995) found that cognition-based trust precedes and is positively correlated with affect-based trust. Affect-based trust impacts significantly on need-based monitoring and Organisational Citizenship behaviour (OCB), both of which were significantly related to the performance levels of the managers in McAllister's (1995) study. At its broadest scope, affect-based trust is called identity-based trust, in which both parties assume a common identity and can represent the other's interests with their full confidence (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Rousseau et al. (1998) include a final form of trust in their typology, namely institution-based trust. They argue institution-based trust can act as a broad support for the development of

calculative or relational-based trust (Rousseau et al., 1998). Institutional trust may promote the formation of trust despite other deterrents, because of the reputation of the institution (Rousseau et al., 1998). At the organisational level, it includes teamwork culture (Miles & Creed, 1995 in Rousseau et al., 1998) and at the societal level, it includes cultural supports such as legal systems (Fukuyama, 1995, in Rousseau et al. 1998). However, there is some debate about whether this form of trust is more akin to control than support (Shapiro, 1987 in Rousseau et al. 1998).

2.2.5 RELEVANT MODELS OF TRUST

There are many models of trust in the literature (for example, Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995; Zand, 1972). Three models of trust, relevant to this study, will be discussed.

Rousseau et al.'s model of trust (1998) has been very influential in the trust literature (Watson, 2005). These authors posit that over time institutional-based trust remains consistent, while repeated interactions allow for calculus-based trust to be gradually replaced with relational trust. Deterrence-based trust, a fourth trust form that Rousseau et al. (1995) identified in the literature, does not form part of the model as they do not believe this is a true form of trust. This relationship is depicted in the model below.

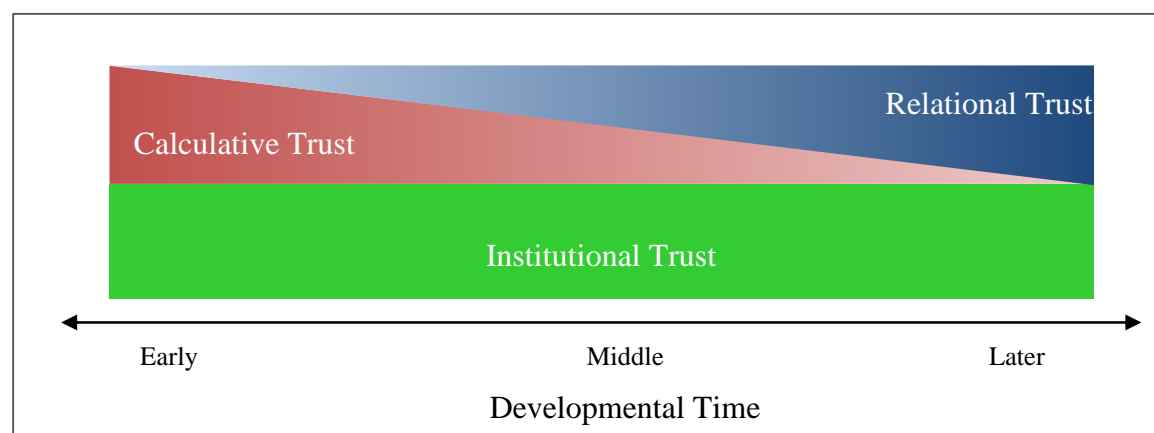


Figure 2.1: Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer's (1998) model of trust

Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) adapted Mayer et al.'s (1995) and Ross and LaCroix's (1996 in Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006) models. Dietz and Den Hartog's model (2006) differs in that it uses an open-systems approach. This model of trust in organisations suggests the trust process (that is, trust as a belief or decision) is informed by the trustor (his/her predisposition to trust); the trustee (his/her character, motives, ability and behaviour); the relationship between trustor and trustee, and the situational and domain-specific concerns that form the context for the trustor-trustee relationship. The output is an intention to act.

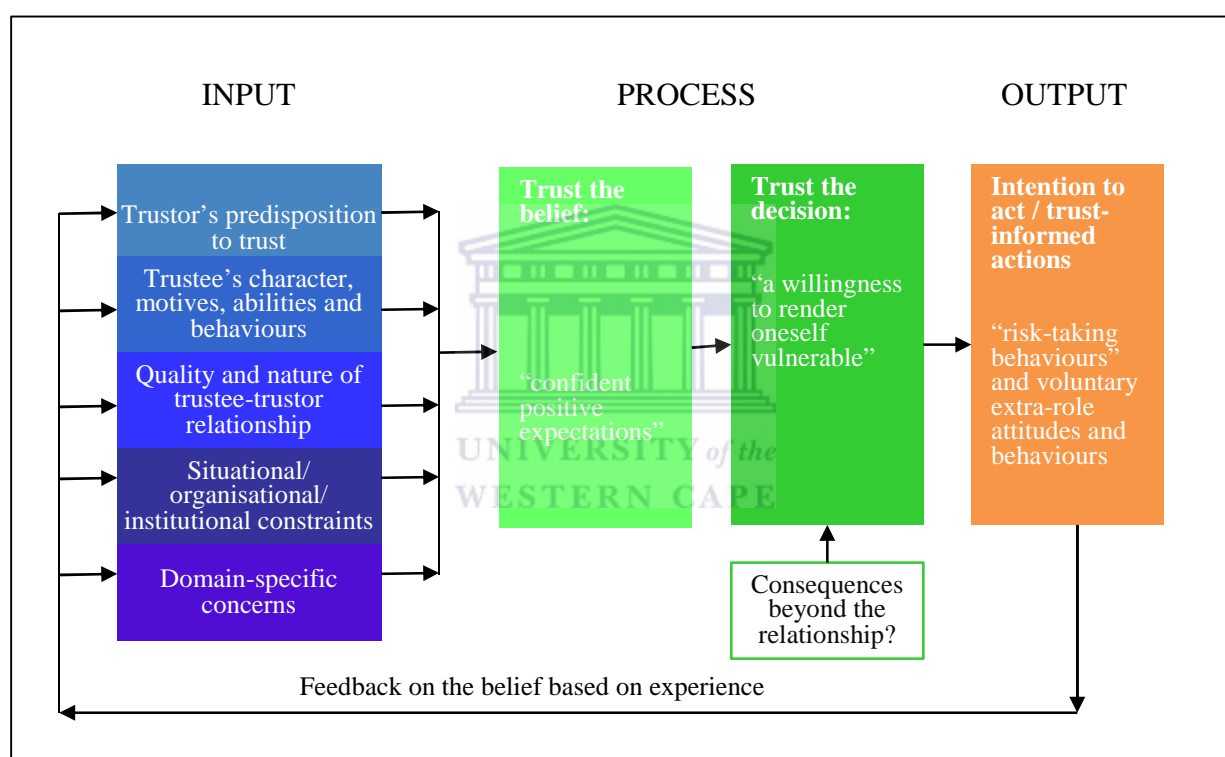


Figure 2.2: Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) model of the trust process

Ferres and Travaglione (2003) proposed a model of workplace trust that included three levels of trust, or trust referents, namely organisational trust, manager trust and co-worker trust. Their proposed model also included four dimensions or types of trust, namely cognitive trust, affective trust, behavioural trust and normative trust. The model was tested using a 36-item Workplace Trust Survey (Ferres & Travaglione, 2003). However, factor analytical investigations did not support the construct validity of the cognitive, affective, behavioural

and normative intent dimensions of trust. Instead, the emergent factors were trust in the organisation, trust in the immediate manager and trust in co-workers.

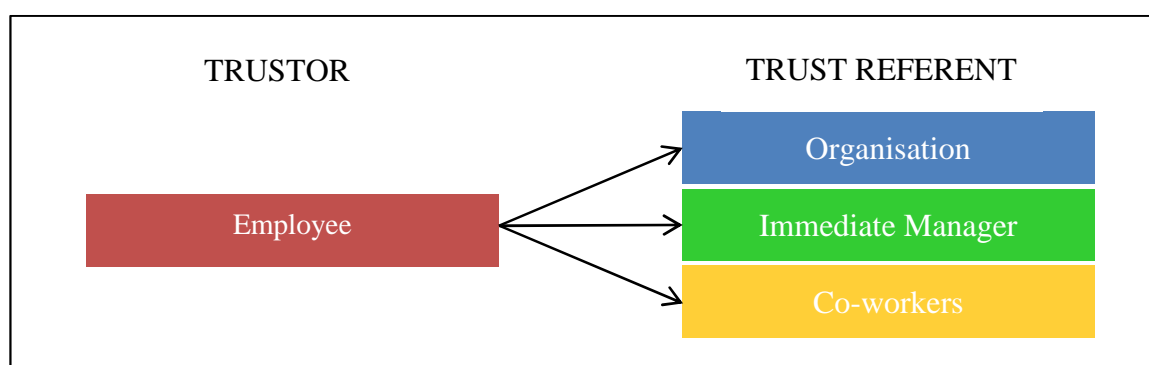


Figure 2.3: Ferres and Travaglione's (2003) workplace trust referent model

2.2.6 TRUST REFERENTS

Ferres and Travaglione (2003) were the first to empirically identify three trust referents with the Workplace Trust Scale, as described previously. However, earlier research into workplace trust also focused on one or more of the three trust references: the organisation, the immediate manager and co-workers. These trust referents are discussed in more detail below.

2.2.6.1 TRUST IN THE ORGANISATION

Galford and Drapeau (2003) define organisational trust as the trust people have, not in any individual, but in the company itself. They argue that organisational trust includes perceptions about how well organisational processes work and whether the company has integrity (Galford & Drapeau, 2003). They also distinguish strategic trust as a separate form of trust. This is the trust employees have in the senior management to make the right strategic decisions, allocate resources well, fulfil the mission and ensure the company's success. Ferres and Travaglione (2003) differ from this view and subsume strategic trust into organisational trust. Zaheer et al. (1998, in Watson, 2005) argue that organisational trust has

its basis in individuals because it is individual members of organisations, not organisations, who are trusted.

2.2.6.2 TRUST IN THE IMMEDIATE MANAGER

Trust in leadership is critical to the very definition of leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and provides a basis for management legitimacy (Nanus, 1989 in Schlechter, 2005). Galford and Drapeau (2003) posit that the personal trust that employees have in their own managers refers to things such as fair treatment, putting the company's needs ahead of their own personal desires and considering employees' needs when making decisions that affect them. Employees' trust in their managers has been shown to be directly and positively related to improved employee performance in institutions that are prosocially-driven (Grant & Sumanth, 2009). However, this direct relationship has not been proven in profit-generating organisations (Byrne et al., 2011). There is more evidence to support trust in managers being related to a range of productivity-related processes, which in turn may impact on organisational outcomes. These include improvements in communication, problem-solving, discretionary effort, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, employee turnover intention and turnover rates (Byrne et al., 2011; Connell et al., 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust in one's direct supervisor has been shown to be a stronger predictor of organisational outcomes than a predisposition to trust (Butler, 1991 in Schlechter, 2005).

As previously discussed, Galford and Drapeau (2003) argue that personal trust in managers is distinct from strategic or organisational trust. However, they maintain that there is a link between the two because a violation of trust in one trust referent will impact on trust in another. Tan and Tan (2000, in Schlechter, 2005) and Ferres and Travaglione (2003) have found empirical evidence to support the notion that trust in one's manager and trust in the organisation are distinct.

However, other researchers do not agree that there is a distinction between trust in the organisation and trust in immediate managers, because managers play an important role in determining the overall level of trust (Creed & Miles, 1996). It is argued that manager actions across different vertical levels in the organisation demonstrate a level of trust which is reciprocated (Creed & Miles, 1996). In addition, managers control information and other resources which influence the level of trust within or between organisational levels or units (Pfeffer, 1992 in Creed & Miles, 1996). Finally, managers' roles in designing and carrying out organisational governance play a critical part in influencing workplace trust (Creed & Miles, 1996). This has been supported by research in South Africa. Dannhauser's study (2007) used the Workplace Trust Survey which makes a distinction between the organisation, immediate managers and co-workers as trust referents. Her study of 417 South African salespeople found that no distinction could be made between trust in the organisation and trust in the manager. It was noted that her research sample did not have direct contact with those in more senior levels in the organisation (Dannhauser, 2007), which may have accounted for this lack of distinction. In summary, as those in management are seen as agents of the organisation, employees may extend their perceptions of trustworthiness of the manager to the organisation (Byrne et al., 2011; Eisenberger et al., 1986).

2.2.6.3 TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

Co-worker trust concerns the confidence that one's colleagues are competent and will act in a fair, reliable and ethical manner (Cook & Wall, 1980; McAllister, 1995; Mishra, 1996 in Ferres et al., 2004). It includes the notions that co-workers will support their peers, not withhold information from each other and that they have faith in each other's words and actions (Ferres et al., 2004). Studies of this type of lateral trust, in contrast with hierarchical or vertical trust, are growing in importance in organisations (Sheppard & Tuchinsky, 1996 in

Schlechter, 2005). As discussed in chapter 1, this may be because organisational structures and styles today require greater voluntary co-operation and extra-role behaviours.

2.2.7 ANTECEDENTS OF WORKPLACE TRUST

As discussed, previous research on workplace trust has examined employees' perceptions of trust in various referents namely, the organisation, the immediate manager and co-workers. Dirks and Skarlicki (2004, in Schlechter, 2005) believe the trust referent is just as important as the type and dimensions of trust because each trust referent might be associated with different consequences. Therefore, this study will examine perceptions of trust in these three trust referents.

2.2.7.1 ANTECEDENTS OF TRUST IN THE ORGANISATION

Huff and Kelley's (2003) multi-country study examined levels of trust between individualistic and collectivistic cultures, with respect to internal trust at the organisational level. Survey data was collected from six Asian countries (Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, China and Malaysia) as collectivistic nations and the United States of America as an individualistic nation. They found no significant differences in levels of trust based on national culture (Huff & Kelley, 2003).

Leadership style has been shown to impact on trust in the organisation. Joseph and Winston's research (2005) found that organisations perceived as servant-led exhibited higher levels of both leader trust and organisational trust than organisations perceived as non-servant-led.

Perceptions about organisational justice have been shown to lead to organisational trust. Aryee et al. (2002) found that distributive, procedural and interactional justice were all antecedents of trust in the organisation. Thus, employees will form trust in their organisations to the extent that they believe that (a) their work outcomes are fair (distributive justice), (b)

the means through which these outcomes are determined is fair (procedural justice) and (c) the quality of the relationship between the employee and the organisational agents is good (interactional justice) (Aryee et al., 2002).

Seniority does not appear to influence organisational trust. Von der Ohe and Martins' (2010) South African study indicated that job level did not have an impact on experiences of organisational trust.

A positive relationship between trust in the organisation and POS has been found in a US study (Ristig, 2009). However, the same study found that integrity accounted for a greater amount of incremental variance in organisational trust than POS did. Other studies (for example, Annamalai, Abdullah and Alazidiyeen's 2010 study of Malaysian teachers) have not found support for POS as an antecedent of organisational trust.

2.2.7.2 ANTECEDENTS OF TRUST IN THE IMMEDIATE MANAGER

In addition to the impact on organisational trust, perceptions of justice also impact on trust in immediate managers. Interactional justice has been found to be an antecedent of trust at the immediate manager level (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), while there have been mixed outcomes from studies of procedural justice and trust in immediate managers. Some studies (Connell et al., 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) indicate that procedural justice supports trust in the manager, while others do not draw this conclusion (Aryee et al., 2002). Distributive justice has been shown to be a small but significant predictor of trust in one's manager (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

The immediate manager's personal leadership style, evidenced by employees' perceptions of his/her behaviour, is also predictive of trust. Transformational Leadership is a leadership style that is focused on building employee commitment to organisational objectives and empowering employees to achieve these objectives, (Yukl, 1998 in van Staden, 2007). Trust

in the immediate manager is strongly predicted by employee perceptions of their manager as having a Transformational Leadership Style (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff, et al., 1990). This is consistent with Gillespie and Mann's (2004) study of leadership practices, which found that three factors together accounted for 67% of the variance in team members' trust towards leaders, namely (a) consulting team members when making decisions, (b) communicating a collective vision and (c) sharing common values with the leader. Additionally, the extent to which managers communicate and demonstrate concern is positively related to trust in managers (Korsgaard et al., 2002). These managerial behaviours could be described as Transformational Leadership practices.

Servant Leadership is similar to Transformational Leadership in that they are both people-oriented leadership styles and each framework "incorporates [the characteristics of] influence, vision, trust, respect or credibility, risk-sharing or delegation, integrity and role-modelling" (van Staden, 2007, p. 10). These leadership styles differ in that Servant Leadership places greater emphasis on service to others and on gaining influence in non-traditional ways (van Staden, 2007). Therefore, it is not surprising that perceptions of Servant Leadership correlate positively with both leader trust and organisational trust (Joseph & Winston, 2005). This is consistent with Joseph and Winston's (2005) research linking servant-led organisations to higher trust in organisations.

A Transactional Leadership style is described as placing less emphasis on the leader-follower relationship and more emphasis on ensuring that leaders are seen as fair, dependable and having integrity (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Podsakoff et al. (1990) found that a Transactional Leadership style predicts trust in the immediate manager, but to a lesser extent than a Transformational Leadership style does. This is consistent with Whitener et al. (1998, in Korsgaard et al., 2002), who found that judgments of managerial trustworthiness arise from

inferences based on observations of manager behaviour. This behaviour is clustered into five categories, namely (a) behavioural consistency, (b) acting with integrity, (c) sharing and delegation of control, (d) openness in communication and (e) demonstration of concern (Whitener et al., 1998, in Korsgaard et al., 2002). Support has also been found for the impact of a Transactional Leadership style in the South African context. Von der Ohe, Martins and Roode's (2004) South African research indicated that the traits of being organised, hardworking, dependable, thorough and responsible lead to behaviours that lend managers credibility and, in so doing, enhance employee trust in their managers. The behaviours described in Whitener et al.'s (in Korsgaard et al., 2002) and Von der Ohe et al.'s (2004) studies can be described as indicative of a Transformational Leadership style.

When employees' expectations at work are not met, there is a small but significant impact on their trust in the immediate manager (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). However, Grant and Sumanth (2009) found that a high propensity to trust compensated for low manager trustworthiness, suggesting that employee personality may account to some degree for perceptions of manager trustworthiness.

Ambrose and Schminke's (2003) study found that organisational structure has an impact on the relationship between perceptions of justice (interactional and procedural) on the one hand and exchange relationships, including organisational support and supervisory trust, on the other. Organisational structure is, "the recurrent set of [formal and informal] relationships between organizational members" (Donaldson, 1996, p. 57 in Ambrose & Schminke, 2003, p. 295). It includes power and reporting relationships, rules governing employee behaviour and patterns of decision-making. Ambrose and Schminke's study (2003) indicated that interactional justice predicts trust in immediate managers and is mediated by organisational structure. Specifically, these authors found that this relationship is stronger when the

organisational structure is organic, that is, flexible and decentralised in structure, with formal rules and regulations being subservient to goal accomplishment. In organisations with a mechanistic structure, that is, more rigid, with centralised power where formal rules and regulations predominate, Ambrose and Schminke (2003) found that although interactional justice predicted trust in the immediate manager, it was less predictive than in organic organisations.

Von der Ohe and Martins' (2010) South African study found that job level did not have an impact on experiences of trust. This was consistent with their finding that job level did not impact on organisational trust (Von der Ohe and Martins, 2010). However, it is inconsistent with two other South African studies. Bews and Uys (2002, in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010) and Esterhuizen and Martins (2008 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010) found that there was a direct relationship between job-level seniority and trust. This difference may be explained by the fact that Von der Ohe and Martins' (2010) study was done across sectors, while the other two were done within a specific organisation (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).

Trust has been described as a construct that is achieved over time in social situations (Blumer, 1964 in Jones & George, 1998). However, empirical research has found that the length of the relationship between managers and subordinates has no impact on the trust employees place in their immediate managers (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Schoorman et al. (2007) suggest that the influence of time on trust depends on the basis of the trust. They define trust as a combination of ability, benevolence and integrity and note that many studies have shown a high correlation between benevolence and integrity; especially where relationships were short. They therefore suggest that, over time, trust based on perceived benevolence is distinguishable from trust based on perceived integrity (Schoorman et al., 2007).

Finally, as for organisational trust, those from an individualistic culture are no more likely to demonstrate trust in the immediate manager than those from a collectivist culture (Huff & Kelley, 2003).

2.2.7.3 ANTECEDENTS OF TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

Some organisational factors have been shown to impact on co-worker trust. Cook and Wall (1980, in Ferres et al., 2004) found that job satisfaction had a positive relationship with peer-level trust, as did organisational identification and involvement.

Co-worker trust is enhanced by the manner and frequency of co-worker interactions, and whether employees perceive themselves and their co-workers as a team, with the team's goals as their own. McAllister's study of manager-level peers (1995) found that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), helping behaviour that goes beyond normal job requirements, was a predictor of peer-level affect-based trust. While length of time in the employee-manager relationship has not been shown to impact on manager-level trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), time does appear to play a role in co-worker trust. McAllister (1995) found that frequent interactions, allowing people sufficient evidence to make attributions about peers, predicted affect-based trust. Han and Harms (2008) found that team identification, when co-workers feel "psychologically intertwined with the group's fate" (Mael & Ashforth, 1995, p. 310 in Han & Harms, 2008, p.21), mediated by trust in peers, was negatively related to levels of task conflict and relationship conflict.

Employee perceptions of their co-workers' competence have also been shown to play a role. McAllister (1995) found that those who trusted their peers from a cognitive perspective – believing them to be competent, responsible, reliable and dependable – were more likely to have developed affect-based trust. This may be because cognitive trust forms a 'baseline

expectation'. Once this baseline is established, people are willing to invest emotionally in the relationship (McAllister, 1995).

Finally, consistent with their results indicating a lack of relationship between individualistic and collectivistic cultures at the organisational and manager-level, Huff and Kelley (2003) found no significant differences with respect to colleague-level trust and culture type. However, this study was not done in cross-cultural organisations, but in companies comprised of a single culture. Research in a cross-cultural context may yield different results.

2.2.8 CONSEQUENCES OF WORKPLACE TRUST

Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) literature review of trust definitions grouped the forms that trust can take into three, namely, (a) beliefs, (for example, the trustor's positive expectations of the trustee), (b) decisions, (such as the trustor's decision to be vulnerable to the trustee) and (c) actions, (including the trustor's risk-taking and extra-role behaviours or attitudes). These beliefs, decisions and actions can be identified according to the trust referent (organisation, immediate manager or co-worker) and according to the trustee, as described in the following section.

2.2.8.1 CONSEQUENCES OF TRUST IN THE ORGANISATION

Numerous studies have demonstrated the organisational benefits that result from organisational trust (Ayree et al., 2002; Barney & Hansen, 1994 in Huff & Kelley, 2003; Kramer, 2009; Kroukamp, 2008 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Möllering et al., 2004; Schoorman et al., 2007; Zaheer, McEviley & Perrone, 1998 in Watson, 2005). The most tangible benefits include improved performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), specifically higher sales, increased profits and lower employee turnover (Davis, et al., 2000).

Beneficial organisational outcomes from organisational trust, that are generally believed to ultimately improve company profitability, include lower employee turnover intention (Aryee et al., 2002) and lower actual employee turnover (Davis et al., 2000), increased organisation commitment (Aryee et al., 2002) and enabling cooperative behaviour (Gambetta, 1988 in Watson, 2005). The latter is also beneficial for collegiate relationships (Watson, 2005).

Jain and Sinha's study (2005) examined the links between emotional intelligence, trust and organisational support. They found that trust in employers (who, in this study were not the immediate supervisors, but mid-level executives) predicted psychological health of employees in terms of a "botheration-free existence" (p. 257), that is, the absence of stresses, strains, difficulties and a sense of worthlessness (Jain & Sinha, 2005). Trust in the organisation was also predictive of a measure of the employees' emotional intelligence, namely assertiveness and positive self-concept (Jain & Sinha, 2005).

Finally, organisational trust has been shown to be positively associated with employee job satisfaction (Aryee et al., 2002).

2.2.8.2 CONSEQUENCES OF TRUST IN THE IMMEDIATE MANAGER

As for organisational trust, employees' trust in their managers has also been shown to have direct, tangible organisational benefits and indirect benefits that are believed to lead to improved organisational performance.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found a small but significant relationship between trust in leader and job performance, as did Flaherty and Pappas (2000 in Watson, 2005). Grant and Sumanth's study in prosocially-motivated organisations (institutions aimed at delivering social value) found that manager trustworthiness strengthened the relationship between employee motivation and performance, depending on the degree of task significance (2009). They also

found that employees' propensity to trust impacted on the relationship between manager trustworthiness and employee performance. Trust in one's immediate manager has also been found to be positively related to that manager's perceptions of employee task performance (Aryee et al., 2002).

An employee's trust in his/her manager has been linked to other organisational benefits such as higher commitment to the organisation (Flaherty & Pappas 2000, in Watson, 2005), specifically, higher affective commitment (when people remain in an organisation because they want to) and lower continuance commitment (when people remain in an organisation because they need to) (Connell et al., 2003). High trust in one's manager has also been shown to decrease turnover intention (Connell et al., 2003; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007 in Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010) and increase organisation citizenship behaviour (Aryee et al., 2002; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Korsgaard et al., 2002).

When immediate managers are seen as trustworthy, employees tend not to attribute negative events to that manager (Korsgaard et al., 2002). This is especially true when Human Resources (HR) policies are seen to be unfair; Korsgaard et al., (2002) presume employees attribute the negative event to the policies rather than to the manager as an individual. Conversely, if employees do attribute a negative event to their manager, then the degree to which they trust them decreases (Korsgaard et al., 2002).

An employee's trust in his/her manager has been linked to individual outcomes such as greater job satisfaction; (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Flaherty & Pappas, 2000 in Watson, 2005); the belief that information given by the manager is accurate; and greater commitment to decisions made or goals set by the manager (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

2.2.8.3 CONSEQUENCES OF TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

This section explores how trust in co-workers has been shown to impact on organisational performance, team performance and on co-workers at an individual level.

Zand's early study (1972) of managerial groups' ability to problem-solve measured the impact of trust, flow of information, group member interdependence and mutual influence. Zand found that low levels of trust resulted in interpersonal relationships interfering with and distorting perceptions of the problem to be solved, while groups with a high level of trust had less socially-generated uncertainty and solved problems more effectively. Costa (2003) and Ferres et al. (2004) found that co-worker trust is a significant predictor of affective commitment towards the organisation, while the former also noted that co-worker trust leads to decreased continuance commitment (Costa, 2003). Co-worker trust has also been demonstrably linked to a lower intention to leave (Ferres et al., 2004).

At the team level, co-worker trust heightens team member co-operation (Gambetta, 1988 in Watson, 2005; Smith, Carroll & Ashford, 1995 in Han & Harms, 2008). It has also been shown to reduce relationship and task conflict (Han & Harms, 2008) and improve team satisfaction (Han & Harms, 2008). This corresponds with research demonstrating improved individual perception of task performance, when team trust is high (Costa, 2003). Erdem, Ozen and Atsan (2003) found a direct relationship between intra-group trust and self-assessed group performance. However, they recognise that other factors were also at play, leading them to conclude that trust is a 'hygiene factor' for team performance, that is, it is a necessary foundation for team performance, but is not sufficient in itself (Erdem et al., 2003). The degree of trust between co-workers more than the co-worker's individual trust disposition has been shown to predict whether people prefer to work in a team (Kiffin-Peterson & Cordery, 2003).

Co-worker trust has several outcomes at the individual level. McAllister's (1995) study of manager-level peers indicated that high levels of affect-based trust resulted in managers' concern for colleagues' work-based and personal needs. He posited that this was because of the communal nature of their relationship, rather than because of an exchange relationship (McAllister, 1995). The same study found, perhaps as a consequence of the communal nature of the co-workers' relationship, that affect-based trust leads to a greater level of interpersonal citizenship behaviour. This behaviour, McAllister argued, was not intended as a reciprocal act to restore the relationship, but instead expressive of the value of the relationship (McAllister, 1995). When team members have high levels of trust in each other, they may have a higher perception of their own team's task performance (Costa, 2003).

2.2.9 MEASUREMENTS OF WORKPLACE TRUST

2.2.9.1 THE CHALLENGE OF MEASURING TRUST

“[T]rust is a notoriously elusive construct when it comes to operationalization” (Möllering et al., 2004, p. 562). This is because it is conceptualised in many different ways, as previously discussed, and is therefore also measured differently (Watson, 2005). Researchers in the fields of psychology and sociology tend to view trust as a desirable quality of any relationship and are therefore focused on the motivational aspect of the trust concept (Watson, 2005). Organisation and management theorists extend theories of psychology to organisational settings and recognise that the basis of trust is extended beyond personal, individual relationships to include the organisation (Watson, 2005).

Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) argue that the wide range of possible measures of trust may be reflective both of the fact that it is a multi-dimensional construct and because it has been studied in a variety of disciplines. Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) warn that:

[S]ince our knowledge of a construct can only be as good as the measures we use to examine it, it is essential to evaluate the ‘validity’ of these instruments ... not only for their statistical performance, but perhaps more importantly for how well they reflect the conceptualisation of the construct, with due consideration to its subtleties. (p. 558)

These subtleties may include the trustor’s general propensity to trust influencing their trust in specific individuals or in the organisation (Mayer et al., 1995).

2.2.9.2 METHODS OF MEASURING TRUST

Möllering et al. (2004) summarise methods of measuring trust into three types, namely (a) laboratory experiments, (b) standardised surveys and (c) target-related surveys. Each of these is discussed in this section.

Laboratory experiments measure the degree of trust as a percentage of interactions that are defined as indicative of trust (Möllering et al., 2004). An example is Deutsch’s Prisoner’s Dilemma-type tests, where team members’ levels of co-operation (as opposed to competition) were measured (Möllering et al., 2004; Watson, 2005). Laboratory experiments have been criticised as lacking both external validity, because of the artificiality of the laboratory setting, and internal validity, when the behaviour measured need not depend on a state of trust (Möllering et al., 2004). Referring to Deutsch’s study, Rousseau et al. (1998) argue that “[t]his blurring of the distinction between trust and cooperation has led to a fuzziness in the treatment of behavior-based trust and the construct of trust itself” (p. 394).

The second measure of trust in organisations is a standardised survey. These aim to identify individuals’ predisposition to trust. They are commonly used in psychological work on personality traits and in political science research on social capital (Möllering et al., 2004).

Rotter's twenty-five item self-report Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS), developed in 1967 (Möllering et al., 2004), is an early example of a standardised trust survey. While propensity to trust is an intrapersonal quality, it has been shown to impact on interpersonal relationships (Watson, 2005). Dirks and Ferrin's study (2002) found that follower propensity to trust had a small but significant impact on employee trust in leadership (including the direct leader and organisational leadership). However, although some research indicates that the trustor's predisposition to trust is a significant influence on trust, Möllering et al. (2004) argue that the standardised survey approach may lack external validity because while the survey may predict attitude it may not predict the manifestations of the trust attitude. In addition, internal validity is questionable because the respondent's answers may be more reflective of themselves than of the trust referent and could indicate the respondent's personality or past experiences (Möllering et al., 2004).

The final measure of trust is target-related surveys, such as Cummings and Bromiley's Organisational Trust Inventory (1996 in Möllering et al., 2004); McAllister's (1995) affect- and cognition-based Interpersonal Trust Measure; Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis and Cesaria's (2003, in Watson, 2005) Organizational Trust Index; and Ferrer's (2001, in van Staden, 2007) Workplace Trust Survey (WTS). These self-report surveys measure the trustor's perception of the trustee. Target-related surveys are usually the focus of organisational research (Möllering et al., 2004). However, the validity of this approach can be problematic as it only measures a snapshot of the trustor's subjective perception of the trustee's trustworthiness at a single point in time and in the context of their specific relationship (Möllering et al., 2004).

Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) examined the extent to which measures and operationalisations of workplace trust reflect the essential elements of current trust conceptualisations. Their research led them to argue that trust measures must meet the following five criteria:

- i. They must capture more than belief and must include action.
- ii. They must measure all four component parts of trust, that is, ability, benevolence, integrity and predictability.
- iii. They must identify the source of the respondent's judgement, that is, whether the source is the trustee, trustor, the trustee-trustor relationship or some other aspect.
- iv. The survey items must be clear about the trust referent's identity.
- v. External factors that may be impacting on the trustee's behaviour must be taken into consideration.

2.2.9.3 THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Ferres (2001, in van Staden, 2007) developed a 36-item, target-related, self-report measure of trust called the Workplace Trust Survey (WTS). The WTS measures the respondent's trust in three referents or dimensions: their organisation, their immediate supervisor and their co-workers. There are twelve questions for each dimension and answers are scored on a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

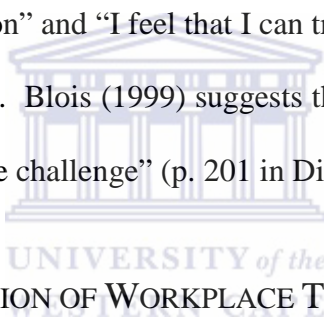
The WTS meets the majority of the suggestions regarding trust measures proposed by Dietz and Den Hartog (2006). First, it aims to capture more than simply the respondent's belief about the other party's trustworthiness, also including intentions to act, for example, "I will act on the foundation that my co-workers display ethical behaviour".

Second, it contains all four content components of their analysis of trust, that is, trust as an ability (for example, "I feel that I can trust my co-workers to do their jobs well"); trust as benevolence (for example, "I think that this organisation offers a supportive environment"); trust as integrity (for example, "I act on the basis that my manager displays integrity in his/her actions"); and trust as predictability (for example, "I think that my co-workers act reliably from one moment to the next").

Third, Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) suggest that the trust measure must take into account the different sources of trust evidence because trust levels vary according to the relationship under examination. As the WTS measures trust at the three dimensions of the organisation, this suggestion is also met.

The WTS does not meet Dietz and Den Hartog's (2006) fourth suggestion, namely to make an overall assessment of the trustee (the workplace). However, it does meet Lewicki et al.'s (1996) assertion that negated items are not included because trust and distrust are not polar opposites (that is, low distrust does not imply trust).

Finally, in all but two questions (namely, "I feel that my manager trusts his/her employees to work without excessive supervision" and "I feel that I can trust my co-workers to do their jobs well") the word 'trust' is not used. Blois (1999) suggests that using the word 'trust' in a trust measurement presents "an emotive challenge" (p. 201 in Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006, p. 566).



2.2.10 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF WORKPLACE TRUST

This study uses Rousseau et al.'s (1998) definition of trust, that is, "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another" (p. 395).

2.3 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

2.3.1 HISTORY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT CONSTRUCT

Eisenberger and his colleagues provide a definition of POS that encompasses the set of beliefs employees hold about the extent to which an organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees take an active interest in how the organisation regards them. As previously discussed, this is because organisations serve as

important resources for socio-emotional well-being (such as self-esteem and affiliation) and tangible well-being (financial rewards such as salary and other rewards for effort) (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Research into POS began as an attempt to better understand organisational commitment processes and aspects of commitment such as absenteeism and turnover (Worley, Fuqua & Hellman, 2009). Academic interest in POS grew after a realisation that when managers are concerned about employee organisational commitment, employees seem to focus on the organisation's commitment to them (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

POS exists because employees tend to give organisations human-like qualities (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This is simultaneously encouraged by the organisation's anthropomorphic tendencies, such as the legal, moral and financial responsibilities it has towards its employees. The actions of organisational agents (for example, managers enacting organisational policies) also contribute, as employees may see these actions as attributable to the organisation itself rather than to individuals (Levinson, 1965). As organisations have power over their employees, employees may interpret their relationship with the organisation in a similar way to an interpersonal relationship with a more powerful individual (Eisenberger et al., 2004). They therefore make attributions about the organisation to interpret the extent to which the organisation values them (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

There were relatively few studies on POS until the mid-1990s (Shore & Shore, 1995 in Eisenberger, et al., 2004), but there has been a sharp increase in the interest in this area since then. A meta-analysis of POS by Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) reviewed seventy studies up to the year 2000 and another fifty studies were carried out in the following two years (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

2.3.2 DEFINITION AND DIMENSIONS OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Eisenberger and colleagues' definition of POS (1986) concerns employees' general perception of the extent to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being. The definition incorporates two dimensions. The first dimension, a sense that the organisation values employees' contributions, is underpinned by performance-reward expectancies (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The second dimension, a perception that the organisation cares about employee well-being, is underpinned by the need for fulfilment of socio-emotional needs at work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Both dimensions are supported by the Norm of Reciprocity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and are greater if employees believe the organisation acts voluntarily, rather than (for example) acting in response to mandated legislation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Despite the two dimensions of POS being conceptually distinct, factor analysis research has shown that employees combine these into a uni-dimensional perception (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Worley et al., 2009). In other words, previous research suggests that employees' perception of their organisation's positive or negative orientation towards them encompasses both their contributions and their welfare (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Factor analysis will be used to determine if these two dimensions of POS can be used for the sample in this study.

As discussed earlier, employees and organisations are in an exchange relationship, with employees exchanging efforts and commitment for financial benefits and socio-emotional rewards (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Research has shown that where favourable job conditions are seen as discretionary (that is, not dictated by external factors such as legislative requirements), the impact of POS is up to seven times greater (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Therefore, POS will be enhanced if the organisation effectively conveys favourable treatment

as discretionary (Eisenberger et al., 2004). This suggests that organisations can practically influence POS and, therefore, employee attitudes. Furthermore, organisations may positively influence employee attitude even when job conditions are difficult by making employees aware of what can and can't readily be changed (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Organisations can achieve this by legitimising their actions and appealing to higher-order values so that employees attribute work difficulties to the nature of the role or industry rather than the organisation itself. Examples of this include linking working conditions to a super-ordinate goal or value and reframing employee perceptions so that they select a new standard of comparison (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

2.3.3 ANTECEDENTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Antecedents of POS can be grouped into four categories, namely (a) employee perceptions of the organisation and job conditions, (b) employee perceptions of their immediate managers, (c) the impact of social and cultural factors, and (d) the impact of individual psychological factors on the employee. Research in each of these categories will be discussed in turn.

2.3.3.1 THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL AND JOB FACTORS ON PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Organisational rewards, such as pay and promotion, and job conditions, such as job security and autonomy (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), have strong positive impact on POS. However, as discussed earlier, when the job conditions are seen as discretionary the impact of POS is up to seven times greater (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Fairness and the related concept of justice have been found to be predictive of POS (DeConinck, 2010; Fasolo, 1995 in Eisenberger et al., 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Justice is comprised of three distinct constructs, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2001 in Loi, Hang-yue &

Foley, 2006), as described earlier. All three types of justice have been found to be predictors of POS (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Loi et al., 2006; Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2002), but their effect is different.

Distributive justice is based in equity theory and is more closely related to economic exchange (Loi et al., 2006). Distributive justice leads to POS because of the exchange of employee work effort for financial reward from the organisation. This supports the positive relationship between perceptions of fair organisational rewards and POS outlined earlier (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Procedural justice, a social exchange phenomenon, gained prominence when research demonstrated that distributive justice did not adequately encompass the concept of fairness (Loi et al., 2006). In organisations it is relevant because it affects the perception of the quality of the exchange relationship individuals have with the organisation (Loi et al., 2006). Ambrose and Schminke (2003) found that in organisations with a mechanistic structure (as described earlier), the positive impact of procedural justice on POS is stronger than that of interactive or distributive justice. In addition, Shore and Shore (1995, in Eisenberger et al., 2004) demonstrated that repeated instances of procedural fairness in decisions have a cumulative positive effect on POS. Importantly for organisational outcomes, POS has been found to fully mediate the relationship between procedural justice and extra-role behaviour (Moorman et al., 1998 in Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Interactional justice does appear to have a small, positive relationship with POS (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003). However, this relationship is not significant and research suggests that interactional justice is more predictive of the quality of employees' exchange relationship with their supervisors than with the organisation (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Masterson et al., 2000 in Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Human Resource (HR) practices serve as signals to employees about the extent to which the organisation values and cares about them as individuals, which are also indicators of POS (Allen et al., 2003). HR practices that are considered supportive of individual development, such as participation in decision-making and growth opportunities (Allen et al., 2003) and training initiatives (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), have a significant impact on POS. Finally role stressors, such as role conflict and role ambiguity, have a moderate negative impact on POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

2.3.3.2 THE IMPACT OF IMMEDIATE MANAGERS ON PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Employees' relationships with their immediate manager or supervisor play a significant and strong role in influencing POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Management actions that have a direct and positive impact on POS include involving employees in decision-making, including them in privileged communication and recognising their work efforts (Wayne et al., 2002). Support from supervisors improves both the employee-organisation relationship and the employee-manager relationship (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Because they are an important source of information for employees, immediate managers influence employees' positive or negative beliefs about managerial or organisational behaviour (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) found that the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support (which is similar to POS but where the support referent is the direct supervisor) and POS increased with the status employees attributed their supervisors. In other words, to the extent that immediate managers are identified with the organisation, they contribute to POS. Perceived employer inducements as part of the psychological contract (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005) are also antecedents to POS.

2.3.3.3 THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FACTORS ON PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Procedural and distributive justice have been shown to be predictive of POS, both in western (Fasolo, 1995; Wayne et al., 2002 in Eisenberger et al., 2004) and eastern cultures (Loi et al., 2006).

Colleagues in the organisation also influence POS. When employees receive advice from others in the organisation or form friendships with others in similar roles, their perceptions of organisational support are greater (Zagenczyk, Scott, Gibney, Murrell & Thatcher, 2010). This indicates that when relationships between colleagues are strong, as is common in team relationships, perceptions of organisational support may be higher.

2.3.3.4 THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL FACTORS ON PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Employees' language fluency self-efficacy (that is, non-native speakers' subjective beliefs about their ability to communicate in that language) impacts positively on POS (van Dyk, Chaffe-Stengel, Sanchez & Olson-Buchanan, 2006). That is, to the extent that people are comfortable to communicate in the same language that is dominant in their organisation, they will demonstrate POS (van Dyk et al., 2006). In addition, an employee's positive or negative affect and their conscientiousness promote their perceptions of organisational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, employees may be more or less likely to attribute support to their organisations because of their individual self-beliefs or characteristics rather than because of factors associated with the organisation itself.

2.3.4 CONSEQUENCES OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

When employees respond to their perceptions of support from the organisation, these responses may be purely internal, with no observable behavioural change, or they may result

in reactions that are externally evident. Therefore, consequences of POS can be grouped into psychological and behavioural outcomes.

2.3.4.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSEQUENCES OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

POS has been shown to improve positive feelings at work. In Eisenberger et al.'s research (2004), POS showed a positive relationship with positive emotions. This finding is supported by Jain and Sinha's (2005) research, which found that POS predicts one aspect of general psychological health, namely a sense of accomplishment and contribution. Particularly relevant in team-based organisations, POS has been positively associated with socio-emotional need fulfilment (Armeli et al., 1998). POS has also been demonstrated to be an antecedent of job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2003).

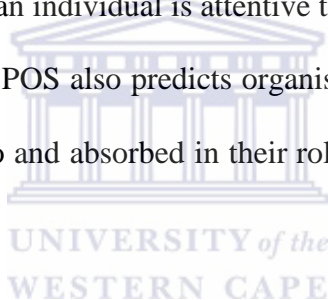
A relationship exists between POS, psychological well-being and organisational commitment. Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2009) argue that POS and commitment shape the resources employees require to carry out their responsibilities as members of the organisation, and in this way explain employees' psychological well-being. Their longitudinal research found several links between POS and organisational commitment, "a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301 in Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2006, p. 225). The results of their study found that POS is strongly positively related to affective organisational commitment, which is the extent to which an individual identifies with and is involved in the organisation (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

Additionally, POS was found to contribute positively to normative commitment, a sense of obligation towards the organisation. POS was also found to contribute to continuance commitment (the perceived necessity to stay with the organisation) in that high POS predicted employees' high perceptions of the sacrifice associated with leaving (Panaccio &

Vandenberghe, 2009). Finally, Panaccio and Vandenberghe's study demonstrated that POS has a significantly negative relationship to employees' belief of a lack of employment alternatives (2009). Other studies (Allen et al., 2003; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002) have drawn similar conclusions.

Perceived employer obligations (part of the psychological contract) have been shown to be negatively related to POS (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Therefore, employees with a strong perception of organisational support are less likely to feel that the organisation is indebted to them than those who have a weak perception of organisational support.

POS has been shown to predict two types of employee engagement. It predicts job engagement, the degree to which an individual is attentive to and absorbed in the performance of their work role (Saks, 2006). POS also predicts organisational engagement, the degree to which an individual is attentive to and absorbed in their role as a member of the organisation (Saks, 2006).

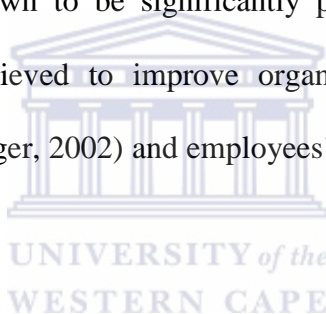


In addition to improving positive emotions at work, POS has also been shown to reduce negative feelings at or about work. A South African study (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008) found that POS was more predictive of intention to quit than job satisfaction, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Eisenberger et al. (2004) found a negative relationship between POS and aversive psychological and psychosomatic responses to work stressors or high demands. They suggest that this is because POS indicates the tangible help and emotional support available to employees to overcome demands (Eisenberger et al., 2004). POS significantly reduces role ambiguity and role conflict. These in turn are significantly positively related to employee well-being, suggesting that POS may partly contribute to well-being through a reduction in role stressors (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

2.3.4.2 BEHAVIOURAL CONSEQUENCES OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Organisations are interested in improving POS because of the potential it has to improve organisational outcomes.

Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades (2001, in Coyle Shapiro & Conway, 2005) found a positive relationship between POS and employee obligation to care about the organisation and help the organisation achieve its goals. A direct relationship was found between POS and task performance (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002) but no conclusion as to directionality could be made. However, a 2009 study successfully established that POS leads to extra-role behaviour and not vice versa (Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski & Aselage, 2009). POS has also been shown to be significantly positively related to a number of variables that are generally believed to improve organisational outcomes, such as job involvement (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002) and employees' ability to manage strains (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002).



While a healthy degree of staff turnover can help organisations quickly inject greater or more up-to-date employee skill, a high staff turnover is expensive (recruitment costs, training costs and the opportunity costs of lower performance while the new employee is inducted into the role affect this), risky and difficult (Charan, Drotter & Noel, 2001). For these reasons, organisations work to improve employees' desire to remain in the organisation, reduce withdrawal behaviour and limit staff turnover. POS has been shown to affect each of these. Rhodes & Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis showed a strong positive relationship between POS and desire to remain in the organisation on the one hand, and a strong negative relationship between POS and turnover intentions on the other. The same study demonstrated a relationship between POS and withdrawal behaviours short of turnover (such as absenteeism and lateness), but found that this relationship is less strong than that between POS and

turnover intentions (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). POS also showed a small but reliable negative relationship with actual staff turnover (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). A further study confirmed the strong, negative POS-withdrawal relationship (Allen et al., 2003). It also indicated that the POS-withdrawal relationship was greater when mediated by organisational commitment and satisfaction, which in turn reduced turnover (Allen et al., 2003).

The consequences of POS have been shown to be of benefit to companies. This has led organisational leadership to seek ways to improve perceptions of organisational support. To do this, they will need a reliable measure of POS.

2.3.5 MEASUREMENT OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

A literature review undertaken by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) reveals that POS is related to, yet distinct from, affective organisational commitment, effort-reward expectancies, continuance commitment, leader-member exchange, supervisor support, perceived organisational politics, procedural justice and job satisfaction. Thus, POS can be said to be a distinct construct (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and therefore can be measured distinctly.

2.3.5.1 THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

The SPOS was initially developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (Eisenberger et al., 1986) as a 36-item, self-report survey with statements assessed by respondents using a seven-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). In order to control for an agreement response bias, half the statements are positively worded and half are negatively worded and reverse-scored (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Several shorter versions of the SPOS exist, including a 17-item, a 16-item, a 15-item, an eight-item, a seven-item, a five-item and a three-item version (DeConinck, 2010; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Fields, 2002; Harris, Harris & Harvey, 2007; Worley et al., 2009). The 17-item

version contains seven negatively worded and therefore reverse-scored items (Fields, 2002) while the three-item measure contains only positively worded items (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

2.3.5.2 DIMENSIONALITY OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) original research using the 36-item measure supported the view that employees form a uni-dimensional belief regarding the organisation's commitment to and support of employees. Worley et al.'s (2009) study of the original 36-item measure also found support for the uni-dimensionality of the SPOS. Several studies using shorter versions of the SPOS have used confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the underlying structure of the survey and have consistently indicated a uni-dimensional POS construct (Worley et al., 2009).

This study used the 17-item questionnaire. Fields (2002) describes the SPOS as a two-dimensional measuring instrument. He indicate that the SPOS consists of eight questions measuring the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and nine questions measuring the degree to which employees believe the organisation cares for their well-being (Fields, 2002). However, Fields does not indicate which of the items is intended to measure which dimension (2002).

2.3.6 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

This study uses the definition of POS as defined by Eisenberger et al. (1986). This definition states that POS is "employees'... global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500).

2.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE TRUST AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Several studies have included the constructs of POS and workplace trust. Workplace trust has been examined in terms of one or more of three referents, namely the organisation, the immediate manager and co-workers. In most studies to date, POS has been identified as a uni-dimensional construct, as discussed earlier. Therefore, there have been no studies indicating a relationship between either of the two conceptually distinct POS dimensions (perception of employer valuation of employee contribution and of care for employee well-being) and the three referent levels of workplace trust (trust in the organisation, trust in the immediate manager and trust in co-workers).

2.4.1 TRUST IN THE ORGANISATION AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

It has been claimed that POS provides the basis for trust in organisations (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shore & Shore, 1995 in Eisenberger et al., 2004). Shore and Shore (1995 in Eisenberger et al., 2004) argue that employees are the less powerful partner and therefore disadvantaged in their exchange relationship with employers. Employees are less powerful as they have to provide effort before they are compensated for this effort and because employer obligations are fulfilled by multiple agents. Shore and Shore (1995 in Eisenberger et al., 2004) argue that POS reduces employees' perceived risk associated with putting in effort before being compensated and with receiving employer obligations from multiple agents of the organisation (1995 in Eisenberger et al., 2004). If employees' perceive that the organisation supports them, then their sense of risk related to rewards arising from their extra efforts is lower, thus paving the way for higher organisational trust.

DeConinck (2010) conducted a more recent study of the relationship between organisational justice, POS, Perceived Supervisor Support and two trust referents (organisational and

supervisory). He found that POS mediated the relationship between procedural justice and organisational trust and that the directionality of the relationship indicates that justice leads to greater perceptions of support, which in turn has a positive impact on trust.

2.4.2 TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Although the positive relationship between POS and trust in immediate supervisor has been demonstrated, there is insufficient clarity in the directionality of this relationship.

POS showed a statistically significant relationship with trust in organisational leaders (which included both immediate managers as well as organisational leadership) in Dirks and Ferrin's study (2002) of eight leader actions and practices. However, directionality could not be established. Similarly, POS had a strong positive impact on trust in manager in Connell et al.'s study (2003) within an Australian public health sector organisation.

In contrast to the studies mentioned above, Byrne et al. (2011) found that perceptions of manager trustworthiness lead to an increase POS. They conclude that the relationship between POS and trust in supervisor may be reciprocal.

2.4.3 TRUST IN CO-WORKERS AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

The literature review yielded only one study of POS and co-worker trust, highlighting the lack of research in this area. This Australian study found that perceptions of co-worker trust lead to increased POS (Ferres et al., 2004). The lack of South African research into POS and trust in co-workers gives further impetus for this study.

2.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

A problem statement informs the reason for conducting a scientific investigation. The problem statement for this research is, “What is the relationship between workplace trust and Perceived Organisational Support?”.

2.5.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Consistent with previous research, described earlier, it is hypothesised that this study will find a correlation between Workplace Trust and POS. Once the variables are examined as broad constructs, this study will examine the relationship between the three referent dimensions of Workplace Trust and the two conceptual dimensions of POS, in order to present a more detailed picture of the relationship between the two constructs.

The research aims to answer the following questions:

- i. Is the factor structure of the Workplace Trust Survey consistent with that of the original measurement instrument?
- ii. Can a two-dimensional factor structure provide a good fit in the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support measurement instrument?
- iii. Is there a significant, positive relationship between the different dimensions of workplace trust and POS?
- iv. What is the impact of the independent variables (namely, employee perception that the organisation values their contribution [Contribution], employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being [Well-being]) on the dependent variables (namely Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-Workers)?

2.5.2 RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

A number of hypotheses will be tested, using descriptive and inferential statistics to analyse the data.

Descriptive statistics will analyse the characteristics of each variable and its dimensions. This will, where applicable, include an analysis of data distribution, central tendency (mean, median and mode) and dispersion (data range and standard deviation of scores).

Inferential statistics will indicate the justification for drawing conclusions about the population based on the sample data. This analysis will include factor analysis to identify if there is a distinction between the three dimensions of workplace trust and the two conceptual dimensions of POS; correlation to describe the degree of relationship between the five dimensions; and multiple regression to identify the relationship, if any, between dimensions.

The following hypotheses will be tested:

HYPOTHESIS 1: TRUST IN ORGANISATION, TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER, TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

H1 The manifestations of the workplace trust construct exist in the same form within a South African sample as was identified by the original authors of the Workplace Trust Survey.

HYPOTHESIS 2: CONTRIBUTION AND WELL-BEING

H2 The manifestation of the Perceived Organisational Support construct can be interpreted as two-dimensional within a South African sample.

HYPOTHESIS 3: TRUST IN ORGANISATION AND CONTRIBUTION

H3 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in the organisation and employee perception that the organisation values their contribution.

HYPOTHESIS 4: TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER AND CONTRIBUTION

H4 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their immediate manager and employee perception that the organisation values their contribution.

HYPOTHESIS 5: TRUST IN CO-WORKERS AND CONTRIBUTION

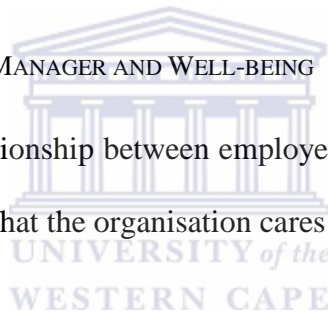
H5 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their co-workers and employee perception that the organisation values their contribution.

HYPOTHESIS 6: TRUST IN ORGANISATION AND WELL-BEING

H6 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in the organisation and employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being.

HYPOTHESIS 7: TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER AND WELL-BEING

H7 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their immediate manager and employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being.



HYPOTHESIS 8: TRUST IN CO-WORKERS AND WELL-BEING

H8 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their co-workers and employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being.

HYPOTHESIS 9: WORKPLACE TRUST AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

H9 There is a significant relationship between workplace trust and Perceived Organisational Support.

HYPOTHESIS 10: DIRECTIONALITY OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE TRUST AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

H10 Perceived Organisational Support contributes to a significant proportion of variance in the dimensions of workplace trust.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The Literature Review began by examining reciprocity in the context of organisations. It explored how reciprocity can result in a mutually beneficial relationship between organisations and their employees, specifically when applied to the two constructs of this study: Workplace trust and POS.

An in-depth examination of workplace trust followed. The history of the trust construct and its application in the workplace were discussed and definitions of trust from a number of fields were reviewed. Different types of trust as well as relevant trust models were considered and the literature related to three workplace trust referents (the organisation, the immediate manager and co-workers) was examined. Antecedents and consequences of trust, grouped by the three trust referents of this study, were then identified. Next, various measurements of trust were examined, including an in-depth review of the Workplace Trust Survey (WTS) which is the measurement instrument used in this research. The section on trust concluded with the operational definition used in this study.

The second construct, POS, was the focus of the following section. The history of this construct, its definition and its dimensionality were considered. Antecedents of POS were discussed according to organisational; managerial; social and cultural; and individual factors. Consequences were discussed according to psychological and behavioural outcomes. Measurement of POS, in the form of the SPOS, was reviewed. The section concluded with the operational definition of POS used in this research.

The few studies in the literature that incorporate both workplace trust and POS were reviewed, indicating the necessity for research to elucidate the relationship between these two constructs. The chapter concluded with the problem statement, research objectives and hypotheses.

The proposed theoretical model is presented below in Figure 2.4.

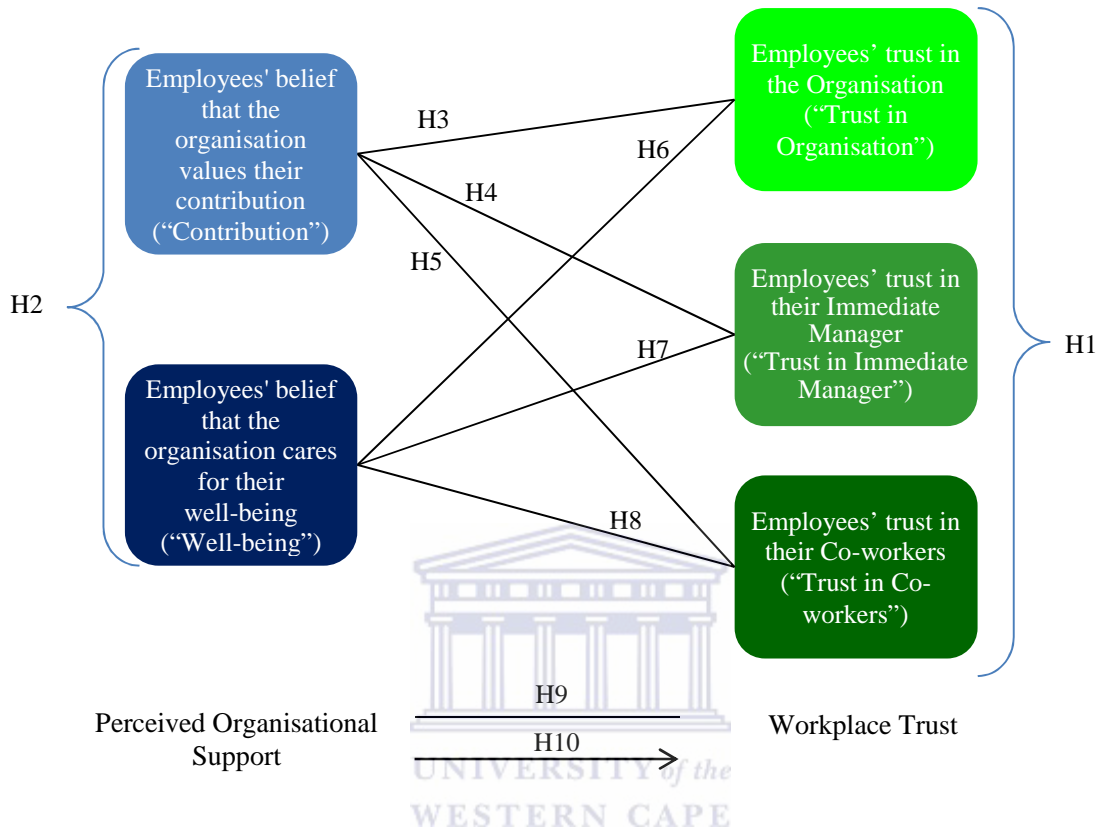
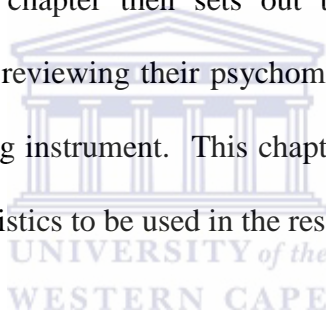


Figure 2.4: Hypothesised model of the relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and workplace trust

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER

This chapter discusses the research methodology used in the research. As this study is quantitative in nature, the chapter begins with a discussion of the quantitative research paradigm. It then discusses the research design and rationale, including the research population, the sampling procedure, the research procedure followed and the survey methodology used. Ethical considerations, which take into account the well-being of the survey participants, are also discussed. The research sample is described from the results of the Biographical Survey. The chapter then sets out the instruments used to measure workplace trust and POS, before reviewing their psychometric properties and discussing the rationale for using each measuring instrument. This chapter concludes with a description of the descriptive and inferential statistics to be used in the research analysis.



3.2 THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH PARADIGM

This study used a quantitative methodology. In the social sciences, quantitative research is the systematic empirical investigation of measurable constructs, properties and relationships (Burns, 2000). Quantitative research aims to develop and employ mathematical models, theories and/or hypotheses by assigning numbers to the perceived qualities of things (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Proponents of quantitative research maintain that its objectivity stems from a value-neutral, quantifying approach with a dispassionate and systematic application of statistical techniques (Babbie & Mouton, 2009).

3.2.1 ADVANTAGES OF A QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

There were several reasons why a quantitative approach was suited to this research study.

The objective of the research was to identify the relationship, if any, between the two constructs of workplace trust and POS. To identify the existence and nature of that relationship, the simultaneous influence of many other variables must be eliminated (Burns, 2000). Quantitative research offers the control necessary to provide this information. It also indicates under what conditions a relationship between workplace trust and POS may exist.

Another purpose of this study was to identify whether POS impacts on workplace trust. A quantitative approach allows this investigation. This is because it includes statistical analysis of the measureable information (data) and allows for causality descriptions to be made regarding the directionality of the relationship between the two constructs (Burns, 2000).

In addition, because the trust construct is an emotive one, participant candour required their confidence in the anonymity of the research data. In the quantitative approach, the researcher does not interact personally with participants. This offers greater assurances of confidentiality to participants.

Finally, the quantitative approach offers the possibility to repeat the study, lending it greater reliability and validity (Burns, 2000).

Apart from the usefulness of a quantitative approach for this study, a qualitative approach would not have been possible for logistical reasons. Qualitative approaches aim to study human action from an insider's perspective (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). This approach demands lengthy time for data collection, analysis and interpretation (Burns, 2000). However, time and access to the research organisation was limited as the researcher was not a member of that organisation.

3.2.2 LIMITATIONS OF A QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

Although there are many advantages to a quantitative approach, there are some limitations.

Firstly, because human experience is complex and not as mechanistic as the scientific approach indicates, it is difficult to rule out or control all the variables (Burns, 2000). Therefore, even if a relationship is found between the variables of workplace trust and POS, this relationship may not be generalisable beyond the research organisation.

The quantitative approach relies on participants' voluntary participation for the collection of data. Contrary to this, the researcher is the "main instrument" in a qualitative research process (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). In this study, one request and two reminders were sent to the sample population for participation in the study. However, the return rate was only 9.3%. A qualitative study may have allowed for more data, including rich descriptions about the relationship between workplace trust and POS in the context of the research organisation.

A final limitation of the quantitative approach is the researcher's lack of personal involvement. While this lends objectivity to the study, it also means subtleties related to the fields of enquiry may be missed (Burns, 2000). The research may fail to take into account people's unique ability to interpret their experiences, construct their own meanings and act on these (Burns, 2000).

Despite these limitations, the research objectives and practical considerations meant that a quantitative approach was more appropriate for the study design than a qualitative one.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study used multi-method data collection to collect primary data from a convenience sample of respondents. This section describes the research population, the sampling

procedure, the survey methodology used and how the research procedure unfolded in the research organisation.

3.3.1 POPULATION

Babbie and Mouton (2009, p. 100) define a population as “that group (usually of people) about whom we want to draw conclusions”. The theoretical population for this study is anyone who is employed in a South African organisation, who has co-workers and who is in a direct reporting relationship. However, because the researcher did not have access to a sufficient sample of this theoretical population, the research population for this study was the permanent employees in the national offices of a South African organisation, in the medical services industry. The research organisation has a small number of employees based in Namibia who were not included in the population.

3.3.2 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

An attempt was made to solicit voluntary participation from everyone in the research population. (Further description of this attempt can be found in section 3.3.3.)

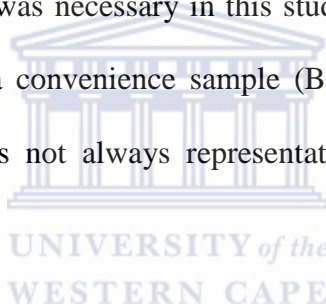
For this study, non-probability sampling in the form of a convenience sample was used. With convenience sampling, the selection of units from the research population is based on easy availability and/or accessibility (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). For ethical reasons, it was important that employees participate voluntarily. Therefore participants were volunteers, drawn from the pool of permanent employees working in the South African offices of the research organisation.

3.3.2.1 ADVANTAGES OF THE CONVENIENCE SAMPLING METHOD

Convenience sampling has a number of advantages that made it appropriate for use in this study. It is relatively easy, uncomplicated, less time-consuming than other methodologies and it is free from statistical complexity (Sekaran, 2002; Welman & Kruger, 2001). In addition, it involves collecting information from members of the population who are accessible and readily available for the research purposes (Welman & Kruger, 2001). Other contributing factors are its relative low cost and time requirements (Babbie & Mouton, 2009; Sekaran, 2002) when compared to probability sampling.

3.3.2.2 DISADVANTAGES OF THE CONVENIENCE SAMPLING METHOD

Although convenience sampling was necessary in this study, it is less possible to generalise the results of studies based on a convenience sample (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). This is because convenience sampling is not always representative of the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2009).



The theoretical population for the study is the South African working population, but participants were drawn from a single organisation. Therefore, it is unlikely that the research population is representative of South Africa's working population at large.

Situational and contextual factors related to the research organisation may also influence the results of the study, further reducing its generalisability (Burns, 2000).

3.3.3 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

3.3.3.1 ACCESS TO RESEARCH ORGANISATION

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the research organisation's HR Executive, on behalf of the Chief Executive Officer. The organisation is a national private-sector medical services organisation whose head office is based in Cape Town. The HR Executive

gave the researcher information about the organisation's structure, employee distribution and staffing numbers.

The researcher liaised with the Marketing Manager, because of her experience in company-wide communication. The Marketing Manager had also assisted previous researchers to conduct studies in the organisation.

At the time of the research, the research organisation employed 2,271 full-time, permanent staff in the South African offices of the business. Because of the wide distribution and the high number of employees, an internet-based survey was considered to be appropriate. However, as not all employees had internet access, a paper-based version was adopted as an additional method for data gathering.

3.3.3.2 PILOT SURVEY

A pilot online survey was conducted. Participants were the researcher's work colleagues and employees in the research organisation's marketing department. The pilot study helped identify unclear instructions as well as any questions in the Biographical Survey that were vague or had insufficient or irrelevant response options. In addition, the pilot survey gave feedback on sufficiency of information given and whether the necessary sense of confidentiality was imparted in the covering email. As a result of the feedback a few minor changes were made to survey instructions and layout. The pilot survey also confirmed that the online methodology worked from a practical perspective. All data from the pilot were erased from the online database before the research survey began.

3.3.3.3 RESEARCH SURVEY

The company's usual internal communication process was followed to invite staff to participate in the research survey. The first communication targeted managerial staff whose

assistance was then solicited to send on the survey to their staff. It was hoped that if the survey participation request came from someone known to potential participants, namely their immediate manager, it would result in a high response rate. However, it is possible that some employees may have questioned the confidentiality of the survey because of this process.

All the managerial staff had access to email and the internet. The Marketing Manager sent all managerial staff an email explaining (a) who the researcher was, (b) the nature and rationale of the research, (c) how to participate in the research, (d) that participation was completely voluntary and answers would be kept anonymous, and (e) that all employees at the research organisation would be asked to participate. The email contained a hyperlink to complete the online questionnaire. It also requested that they contact the Marketing Manager if they wanted to complete a paper-based survey. If this was requested, the Marketing Manager emailed a non-editable version for the employee to print out and return in an unmarked, sealed envelope via the company's internal mail system.

The managerial staff had two weeks to complete either the online or paper-based version of the questionnaire.

In the next phase of the survey distribution, the Marketing Manager asked the managerial staff, via email, to roll out the survey. The managers did this by emailing the research information, instructions and online questionnaire hyperlink to their direct reports.

A small number of non-managerial staff did not have access to email or the internet. The manual (as opposed to knowledge-based) nature of these employees' jobs meant that they represented a significant sub-group of the study population. As a result, a paper-based methodology was adopted for this group. The usual business communication method to this group is for the immediate manager to print out and distribute any emailed communication to them. Therefore, these managers were emailed the questionnaire as a non-editable document

attachment. They were asked to print out copies of the questionnaire and covering letter for their staff to complete voluntarily and return in an unmarked, sealed envelope via the company's internal mail system

Non-managerial staff had two weeks to complete the survey. After this time, the CEO sent a company-wide email requesting further participation. This email had both the hyperlink to the online survey and the non-editable version of the survey attached. An additional week was given to complete the survey.

3.3.3.4 DATA COLLECTION

The data from the surveys were collected in two ways. First, data came from respondents who accessed the online questionnaire by clicking on a hyperlink in the email sent to them. The data were then exported from the online database to an Excel spreadsheet and then into SPSS, a computerised statistical package used for the analysis. The data were verified as far as possible by checking for contradictions and obvious misinformation. One hundred and sixty-four online responses were received.

Second, data came from respondents who completed a hard-copy (paper) version of the consolidated survey. All paper-based copies were sent to the researcher, care of the research organisation's Marketing Manager, in sealed envelopes that did not indicate the origin of the survey. The researcher captured these responses on to SPSS. Forty-eight paper-based useable responses were received.

3.3.4 SURVEY METHODOLOGY

The research data came from a consolidated survey consisting of three questionnaires. These questionnaires were a Biographical Survey, the WTS and the SPOS. The pre-formulated written set of questions allowed respondents to record their answers within closely defined

alternatives. Further description of the survey instruments is contained in sections 3.5 and 3.6.

3.3.4.1 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF SURVEY METHODOLOGY

Surveys are more useful than any other method of observation for descriptive, explanatory and exploratory purposes (Babbie & Mouton, 2009), as was the case in this study. Surveys are ideal when individual people serve as respondents (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). In this research, surveys were appropriate as employees' biographical information and individual perceptions were sought.

The self-administered nature of the online and paper-based surveys makes large samples feasible (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The descriptive and exploratory analysis required for this study needed a large number of responses, because two variables and several dimensions would be examined simultaneously.

A final benefit of the survey methodology is that the reliability of the survey is assured because of the standardised nature of the questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2009).

However, there are several disadvantages to the survey methodology. Despite the standardised questionnaire items' reliability, Babbie and Mouton (2009, p. 263) argue that it is possible that their consistency requires them to be "at least minimally appropriate to all respondents ... [and therefore] may miss what is most appropriate to many respondents". As a result, the surveys may be superficial in their coverage of the complex topics of workplace trust and POS.

Surveys are inflexible and cannot be modified, which reduces their usefulness if respondents do not understand the questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2009; Sekaran, 2002). The use of a pilot survey, described earlier, helped to reduce any issues of clarity. However, any ambiguity in

the measures of workplace trust or POS could not be amended in order to maintain previously-identified levels of reliability and validity of these measuring instruments.

Both the paper-based and web-based survey methodologies offer advantages and have some disadvantages. The use of both sought to capitalise on the advantages and mitigate the disadvantages of each, as discussed in the following sections.

3.3.4.2 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF WEB-BASED SURVEY METHODOLOGY

The web-based survey methodology has a number of practical and methodological advantages (Mikulsky, 2005; Solomon, 2001).

From a practical perspective, web-based surveys offer several advantages with regards to survey distribution. Web-based surveys enable quick, easy and inexpensive distribution of the survey to a large group of widely-distributed employees (Mikulsky, 2005). In this research, the vast majority of the study population of 2,271 employees were able to access the survey via a hyperlink in an email sent to them. Because of the high number of questionnaires to be distributed, the relatively low expense associated with this method of data collection was important to the study's viability.

For many participants, a web-based survey is easy to use (Mikulsky, 2005). This is because it is less cumbersome to complete than a paper-based survey and does not need to be sent back to the researcher (Mikulsky, 2005).

Data capture of web-based surveys is immediate and data-cleaning is efficient, which has subsequent positive implications for data analysis. In addition, the electronic collection of participants' responses allows quantitative data to be pre-coded and exported to the relevant analysis software application with ease. This helps to reduce researcher error in entering participants' survey responses by hand (Mikulsky, 2005).

The web-based approach also has a very limited impact on the environment, unlike a paper-based approach.

There are several methodological benefits to the web-based approach, which also made it useful in this study. Anonymity in this research is particularly important because of the emotive nature of the content matter. The web-based survey ensured participant anonymity by allowing accessibility to anyone in the survey population who had email and internet access. In addition, only limited identifying questions in the Biographical Survey (such as geographical region and job level) were included.

Computerised surveys can also create a sense of greater social distance, increasing the likelihood that people will be more candid in their responses (Mikulsky, 2005). In this study, twelve questions asked about the respondent's trust in their immediate manager. High anonymity is likely to have elicited those honest responses that were unfavourable about the immediate manager, where a paper-based survey may not have.

A final benefit is that previous survey research has found that there were no patterns in failure-to-complete rates due to gender, age or education level variables (Jeavons 1998, in Solomon, 2001). Therefore, use of the survey methodology would not lead to incomplete data on the basis of these demographic factors.

However, there are both practical and methodological problems with web-based surveys.

Slow internet connections may negatively impact on response rates and possibly how respondents answer online surveys (Solomon, 2001). However, in the pilot survey there were no difficulties associated with the speed of connection and only one person complained to the researcher about internet connection. (He subsequently requested a paper-based survey.)

Another concern about web-based surveys is that there is a risk that the same respondent could complete the survey more than once and skew the response data (Mikulsky, 2005). The researcher decided not to limit each employee to a single response, as this would have required connecting staff identifiers (such as each person's employee number) to each response. This would have compromised perceived confidentiality and was likely to have reduced the number of responses received (Jeavons, 1998, in Solomon, 2001). The time taken to complete the survey (twenty to thirty minutes) together with the fact that there were no immediate benefits to employees in submitting more than one response were considered sufficient deterrents to multiple responses.

As previously discussed, an advantage of this methodology is that confidentiality is ensured. However, potential participants may fear that information they provide via the internet may be traced back to them, thus breaching confidentiality (Mikulsky, 2005). The option to complete a paper-based survey was offered as an alternative to alleviate this concern.

Finally, several studies have found that response rates for web-based surveys are lower than equivalent paper-based surveys (Mikulsky, 2005; Solomon, 2001). This appeared to hold true for the sample in this study. Approximately 1,900 of the employees in the research organisation were emailed the survey and 164 web-based responses were received, representing 8.6% of the study sample. Comparative response rates from paper-based surveys are substantially higher and Babbie and Mouton's (2009) literature review suggest between 50% and 70% as a "rough guide" to an acceptable response rate.

There are two methodological concerns related to the web-based methodology. The first concerns coverage bias. This occurs when the study population does not correspond to the intended population (in this case, the research organisation) to which the researcher wishes to generalise the results (Thiétart, 2001). Concerns about coverage bias may be due to the

sample not having or not choosing to access the internet (Mikulsky, 2005; Solomon, 2001). However, in this study the paper-based survey was offered as an alternative, circumventing this potential bias.

The non-response rate for the web-based survey is difficult to calculate (Mikulsky, 2005). In this survey, it was not possible to tell how many people were absent from work, had viewed the email requesting participation in survey and ignored it or had begun completing the survey and then not completed it. It was assumed that all of those who had been sent the email had the opportunity to complete the online questionnaire.

3.3.4.3 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PAPER-BASED SURVEY METHODOLOGY

The paper-based survey sought to overcome the difficulties of the web-based survey and offer an opportunity to those who did not have internet access to participate in the research.

Sekaran (2002) suggests paper-based questionnaires are advantageous because anonymity is high and respondents can answer the questionnaire at their convenience. The concern about coverage bias associated with the web-based data collection process was solved to some extent with the paper-based surveys. However, surveys were not posted to employees directly but instead emailed to their managers to print out for their employees. The risk remained that managers did not follow the requested instruction. Managers who were concerned that negative responses may have reflected on them may have been reluctant to print out the survey for their reporting staff. However, this direct defiance of a request from the Marketing Manager and, later the CEO, was considered unlikely.

3.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.4.1 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Voluntary participation was critical to this study because of the time and energy required from participants and because participants were asked to reveal personal information to the researcher, who is a stranger to them (Babbie & Mouton, 2009).

The covering email accompanying the web-based survey was mirrored by the covering page of the paper-based survey. Each conformed to the Health Professions Council of South Africa's (HPCSA's) Ethical Code of Professional Conduct (2004) by ensuring that participants gave their informed consent in several ways. First, it explained the nature and rationale for the research. Second, it informed participants that participation in the research was voluntary, that they may withdraw from participation at any time prior to submission of their responses and that there were no consequences to not participating. Third, the covering email and cover letter explained that responses were anonymous and could not in any way be traced back to individuals. In the event that participants wished to discuss any aspect related to the research, the researcher's and the research supervisor's contact details were given. Finally, the covering email and cover page indicated that a summary of the research results would be made available to everyone in the research organisation. Appendix 1 contains the covering email of the online survey and the cover page of the paper-based survey.

The first page of the online questionnaire contained the question, "Do you consent to participate in this survey?" If participants gave consent and clicked on "yes", they were taken to the first page of the survey. If participants did not give consent and clicked on "no", they were taken to a web-page thanking them for their interest and inviting them to complete the survey at a later time should they change their mind.

The first page of the paper-based survey contained the same information as the web-based survey. However, voluntary participation was obtained by including, on the first page, the sentence “Please note: By choosing to complete this survey, you are providing consent for the information supplied to be used for the purpose as stated in this document”.

It is recognised that voluntary participation may hamper the generalisability of the results (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Those who willingly participate may reflect a particular sub-set of the sample (for example, those who have high trust relationships with all three organisational referents). However, the ethical requirement for willing respondents trumped the scientific need for greater generalisability.

3.4.2 NO HARM TO PARTICIPANTS

No physical harm was possible as a result of participants answering the questionnaire. However, the nature of the questions may have encouraged participants to consider aspects of organisational life (workplace trust, organisational support) that they had not previously considered (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The survey may have made participants aware of their unhappiness with aspects of their working lives, unintentionally diminishing work satisfaction.

The HR Executive expressed his wish to use the information from the survey to inform the organisation’s people management and development processes. This may go some way to combatting the unintended consequence of focussing participants’ attention on negative aspects of their working lives.

In this study, the most critical way in which participants’ interests were protected was by ensuring anonymity. The web-based and paper-based surveys contained identical information and questions, and each methodology had an almost identical layout. The web-based

responses were immediately captured by the online database and the paper-based surveys were sent to the researcher via the Marketing Manager in unmarked envelopes. For these reasons, it was impossible for the researcher (or anyone in the organisation) to identify respondents by their answers. While anonymity hampered keeping track of which respondents had answered, it was necessary for participant well-being. Anonymity may also have increased the possibility of a more representative sample participating in the research, which has positive implications for the research's generalisability.

3.5 SAMPLE PARTICIPANTS

Two hundred and twelve participants ($n = 212$) out of a potential sample of 2,271 employees completed the questionnaire. The response rate was therefore 9.34%. Information about the sample participants was obtained from the first of the three questionnaires contained in the consolidated survey, namely the Biographical Survey.

3.5.1 BIOGRAPHICAL SURVEY

The Biographical Survey requested information about a number of individual and job-related demographic factors. This was requested to identify the characteristics of the sample. The Biographical Survey contained questions drawn from biographical information of previous studies in the areas of workplace trust and POS.

The Biographical Survey is contained in Appendix 2.

3.5.2 SURVEY SAMPLE INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

3.5.2.1 AGE

Table 3.1: Sample distribution of age

Valid	211	Standard Deviation	9.853
Missing	1	Variance	97.078
Mean	41.45	Range	43
Median	41.00	Minimum	20
Mode	45	Maximum	63

The sample's age ranged from 20 to 63 years old and the mean age was 41.45 years (SD = 9.853 years).

3.5.2.2 GENDER

Table 3.2: Sample distribution of gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	53	25.0	25.1	25.1
	Female	158	74.5	74.9	100.0
	Total	211	99.5	100.0	
Missing		1	.5		
Total		212	100.0		

The vast majority of the sample was female (74.9%, 158 participants). Fifty-three participants (25.1%) were male.

3.5.2.3 ETHNOGRAPHIC CLASSIFICATION

Table 3.3: Sample distribution of ethnographic classification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Asian	1	.5	.5	.5
	Black	11	5.2	5.2	5.7
	Coloured	45	21.2	21.3	27.0
	Indian	5	2.4	2.4	29.4
	White	144	67.9	68.2	97.6
	Prefer not to say	5	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	211	99.5	100.0	
Missing		1	.5		
Total		212	100.0		

The majority (68.2%, 144 participants) of the sample was White. The next largest racial group was Coloured (21.3%, 45 participants), followed by Black (5.2%, 11 participants). Only one participant identified himself/herself as Asian (.5%).

3.5.2.4 HOME LANGUAGE

Table 3.4: Sample distribution of home language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Afrikaans	108	50.9	51.2	51.2
	English	89	42.0	42.2	93.4
	Pedi	1	.5	.5	93.9
	Xhosa	9	4.2	4.3	98.2
	Zulu	2	.9	.9	99.1
	Other	2	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	211	99.5	100.0	
Missing		1	.5		
Total		212	100.0		

The vast majority (93.4%) of the sample indicated either Afrikaans (51.2%, 108 participants) or English (42.2%, 89 participants) as their home language. Two participants (.9%) indicated a home language that is not one of South Africa's eleven official languages.

3.5.2.5 HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Table 3.5: Sample distribution of highest level of education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Some schooling	4	1.9	1.9	1.9
	Matric/Grade 12	43	20.3	20.4	22.3
	Diploma or undergraduate degree	127	59.9	60.2	82.5
	Post-graduate degree	27	12.7	12.8	95.3
	Professional degree	10	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	211	99.5	100.0	
Missing		1	.5		
Total		212	100.0		

In the study sample, the majority's highest level of education was diploma/undergraduate level (60.2%, 127 participants). The next largest group was 20.4% who are educated to

matric/grade 12 level, while only 1.9% of the sample (4 participants) had partly completed their schooling.

3.5.2.6 MARITAL STATUS

Table 3.6: Sample distribution of marital status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	36	17.0	17.1	17.1
	Married or committed relationship	136	64.2	64.5	81.5
	Divorced, never remarried	32	15.1	15.2	96.7
	Divorced and remarried	3	1.4	1.4	98.1
	Widowed	4	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	211	99.5	100.0	
Missing		1	.5		
Total		212	100.0		

Almost two-thirds of the sample (64.5%, 136 participants) were married or in a committed relationship. Thirty-six participants (17.1%) were single, while three participants (1.4%) have divorced and subsequently remarried.

3.5.3 SURVEY SAMPLE JOB-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS

3.5.3.1 JOB ROLE

Table 3.7: Sample distribution of job role

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Administrative	37	17.5	17.7	17.7
	Technical specialist	74	34.9	35.4	53.1
	First-line supervisor	61	28.8	29.2	82.3
	Manager	32	15.1	15.3	97.6
	Executive or more senior	5	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	209	98.6	100.0	
Missing		3	1.4		
Total		212	100.0		

The job-role most represented in the sample was technical specialist (35.4%, 74 participants). The next largest group was first-line supervisors at 29.2% (61 participants). Those at Executive or more senior level made up the smallest group at 2.4% of the sample (5 participants).

3.5.3.2 IMMEDIATE MANAGER JOB ROLE

Table 3.8: Sample distribution of immediate manager job role

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	First-line supervisor	60	28.3	30.0	30.0
	Manager	111	52.4	55.5	85.5
	Executive or more senior	29	13.7	14.5	100.0
	Total	200	94.3	100.0	
Missing		12	5.7		
Total		212	100.0		

More than half of the sample (55.5%, 111 participants) indicated that the job-role of the person they report to is manager. Thirty percent of the sample (60 participants) indicated that their immediate manager was a first-line supervisor and the remaining 14.5% (29 participants) indicated that they reported to someone at Executive or more senior level.

3.5.3.3 LENGTH OF REPORTING RELATIONSHIP

Table 3.9: Sample distribution of reporting relationship

		Reporting relationship in months
N	Valid	204
	Missing	8
Mean		60.24
Median		50.50
Mode		60
Standard Deviation		46.062
Variance		2121.730
Range		248
Minimum		0
Maximum		248

Participants had been reporting to their immediate managers from zero months (one participant) to 248 months (20.67 years). The mean length of time reporting to the current immediate manager is just over five years at 60.24 months (SD = 46.062 months).

3.5.3.4 GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION

Table 3.10: Sample distribution of geographical location

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	North	64	30.2	30.8	30.8
	East	38	17.9	18.3	49.0
	West	106	50.0	51.0	100.0
	Total	208	98.1	100.0	
Missing		4	1.9		
Total		212	100.0		

Just over half of sample (51%, 106 participants) came from the West region of the organisation, which included Cape Town, where the head office is located. The second largest proportion came from the North region (30.8%, 64 participants) and the smallest proportion came from the East region (18.3%, 38 participants).

3.5.3.5 LENGTH OF TENURE

Table 3.11: Sample distribution of tenure

		Tenure in months
N	Valid	207
	Missing	5
Mean		124.34
Median		120.00
Mode		24
Standard Deviation		86.449
Variance		7473.400
Range		359
Minimum		2
Maximum		361

Participant tenure ranged from two months to just over 30 years at 361 months. The mean tenure was slightly over 10 years at 124.34 months (SD = 86.449 months).

3.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

3.6.1 WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

3.6.1.1 COMPOSITION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Ferres's 36-item Workplace Trust Survey (WTS, 2001 in van Staden, 2007) was used to measure the respondents' trust in the three trust referents: the organisation, their immediate manager and their co-workers. There are twelve questions for each referent and answers are scored on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

3.6.1.2 DIMENSIONS OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

The first 12 items of the WTS measure the Trust in Organisation dimension. Examples of items include, "I feel that information can be shared openly within this organisation" and, "I think that processes within this organisation are fair". Throughout the survey, when the words "this organisation" appeared in the original measuring instrument, they were replaced with the name of the research organisation. This is consistent with Ferres and Travaglione's methodology (2003).

The next 12 items measure the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension. Examples include, "I act knowing that my manager will keep his/her word" and, "It is frequently acknowledged by employees at this organisation that their immediate managers/supervisors reward those who perform well".

The final 12 items measure the Trust in Co-Worker dimension. Items include, “I feel that my co-workers are truthful in their dealings with me” and, “I behave on the basis that my co-workers will not disclose personal information”.

3.6.1.3 PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

The external and internal validity of the WTS face the same difficulties of all target-related surveys, as discussed in Chapter 2. That is, external and internal validity of target-related trust questionnaires such as the WTS are difficult because they measure “a snapshot of A’s subjective perception of B’s trustworthiness at a single point in time and in the context of their specific relationship” (Möllering et al., 2004, p. 563).

However, research by Ferres (2001, in Van Staden, 2007) and later by Ferres and Travaglione (2003) demonstrated that the internal reliabilities for the three organisational levels were consistently high. Ferres and Travaglione (2003) found that the reliability coefficients were Trust in Organisation $\alpha = .95$, Trust in Immediate Manager $\alpha = .96$ and Trust in Co-Workers $\alpha = .93$.

Dannhauser’s South African study (2007) of 417 salespeople calculated a Cronbach alpha coefficient of the 36-item WTS instrument at $\alpha = .976$. Dannhauser’s (2007) study did not support a three-factor structure of the WTS. Exploratory factor analysis lead to a two-factor structure that accounted for 54.7% (factor 1) and 13.7% (factor 2) of the variance, with Cronbach coefficients respectively $\alpha = .975$ and $\alpha = .963$. Her analyses of the content of the factors led to the identification of factor 1 as trust in the manager/organisation and factor 2 as trust in colleagues/co-workers (Dannhauser, 2007).

3.6.1.4 RATIONALE FOR USING THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Of a number of trust questionnaires in existence, only the WTS examines trust in all three trust referents in the organisation.

There are a few limitations of the research related to the standardised questionnaires used, as previously discussed. In addition, as the WTS was developed in Australia this may compromise its application in South Africa. However, the WTS has undergone South African validation and demonstrated satisfactory Cronbach alpha coefficients as follows, (a) Trust in Organisation, $\alpha = .97$, (b) Trust in Immediate Manager, $\alpha = .90$ and (c) Trust in Co-Workers, $\alpha = .94$ (van Wyk, 2002, in Schlechter, 2005).

3.6.2 SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

3.6.2.1 COMPOSITION OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

A shortened version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) 36-item SPOS measured employee perceptions of the extent to which the organisation supports them. Organisational support, in this measuring instrument, is defined as the extent to which the organisation values its employees' contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). A literature review revealed no other measuring instrument for POS, necessitating the use of the SPOS. Examples of SPOS items include, "The organisation is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability" and, "Help is available from the organisation when I have a problem".

While several shorter versions of the SPOS exist, this study used the 17-item survey. These items were the 17 highest-loading items on the original 36-item SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). As for the WTS, questions were answered using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). However, unlike the WTS, some of the

items were negatively worded and therefore had to be reverse-scored. Examples of reverse-scored items are, “If the organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, it would do so” and, “The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me”.

According to Fields (2002), the 17-item SPOS consists of eight questions measuring the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and nine questions measuring the degree to which employees believe the organisation cares for their well-being. However, Fields (2002) does not indicate which of the items are intended to measure which dimension.

3.6.2.2 DIMENSIONS OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

As discussed in the Literature Review (chapter 2), there has been some debate around the dimensionality of the SPOS (Hutchinson, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Worley et al., 2009). However, several studies (Hutchinson, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Worley et al., 2009) have found that the SPOS measures a single dimension of employee perceptions of organisational support.

3.6.2.3 PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Factor analysis has found that POS is empirically distinct from developmental experiences, affective commitment, intention to quit (Wayne, Shore & Linden, 1997 in Fields, 2002), leader-member exchange (Wayne et al., 2002) and overall job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1997 in Fields, 2002).

Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have demonstrated the SPOS's high internal reliability (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Cronbach alpha values for all of the versions of the SPOS have been calculated above $\alpha = .70$ (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Fields, 2002; Harris et al., 2007; Ladebo, 2009; Worley et al., 2009), indicating that it has sufficient reliability for

use. However, in Worley et al.'s (2009) analysis of the 36, 16, eight and three-item measures, there was a significant difference between the three-item survey and the others. In order of highest to lowest number of items, the Cronbach alpha values were $\alpha = .96$, $\alpha = .95$, $\alpha = .93$ and $\alpha = .81$ (Worley et al., 2009). This outcome led the researchers to conclude that there would be implications for the validity of the three-item measure and they suggest that the use of this version is not justifiable. Worley et al.'s (2009) analysis of four versions of the SPOS indicated that these versions of the SPOS have significant convergent validity.

Studies of the 17-item version of the SPOS resulted in Cronbach alpha values of between $\alpha = .74$ and $\alpha = .95$ (Fields, 2002). Although the 36-item survey has been shown to have the highest reliability at $\alpha = .96$, the 17-item survey has been demonstrated to have very similar reliability at $\alpha = .95$. Therefore, the 17-item survey was chosen for expediency, with negligible loss of reliability.

3.6.2.4 RATIONALE FOR USING THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

There are limited measures for measuring POS. The use of the SPOS in many studies of POS indicated its usefulness in the current study. Although the SPOS was developed in the U.S.A. (Eisenberger et al., 1986) the eight-item measure has been used in research in African countries, including Nigeria ($\alpha = .93$; Ladebo, 2009) and Ghana ($\alpha = .97$; Gyekye & Salminen, 2009). In South Africa, the 8-item SPOS has been combined with six items measuring Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) to create a measure called Perceived Leadership Support (PLS; Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008). The Cronbach alpha for the PLS was computed at $\alpha = .895$. However the Cronbach alpha coefficients for each sub-dimension of PLS, namely POS and PSS, were not given (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008).

3.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The SPSS and EQS statistical computer packages were used to analyse the research data. Data analyses involved both descriptive and inferential statistics and reliability measures of the WTS and SPOS.

3.7.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics describe what the data shows through summary or display (Trochim, 2006). According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), data analysis should start with visual inspection of data to ensure that assumptions are not flawed. The characteristics of each variable and its dimensions will be described by analysing the central tendency and data dispersion of each measuring instrument.

Central tendency measures include the mean or average, the median which is the mid-point and the mode which is the most frequently occurring score (Trochim, 2006). In the WTS and the SPOS, the the mean score will be examined as this is the most useful of the three measures.

Data dispersion includes the data range and standard deviation (SD) of scores, showing the relation that the set of scores have to the mean. The data dispersion for the WTS and SPOS will be the two ends of the Likert-scale continuum, namely, 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*). Therefore, only the standard deviation of the scores will be examined.

3.7.2 RELIABILITY MEASURES

Reliability has to do with the quality of measurement. It is the extent to which measures are internally consistent and yield the same results under repeated circumstances (Trochim, 2006). Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α), a measure of internal consistency, is computed for

(a) the composite WTS and SPOS measures (b) the three workplace trust dimensions and the two POS dimensions and (c) each item within the WTS and SPOS. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the composite instruments and dimensions will indicate the internal consistency of each. Item analysis will establish whether any items should be removed as a result of contributing to a greater composite reliability score.

Once reliability is established, factor analysis can be used to confirm whether or not the items contained in each measure lead to the emergence of the theorised dimensions.

3.7.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Inferential statistics investigate questions, models and hypotheses (Trochim, 2006). They provide an indication of how justified the researcher is in drawing conclusions about the population, based on the sample data (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Three inferential statistical methods will be used in this study, namely factor analysis, correlation coefficients and regression analysis.

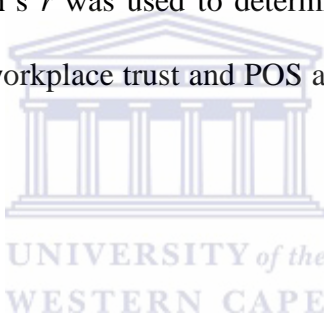
3.7.3.1 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique used to confirm whether or not the items contained in the measure lead to the emergence of the measure's theorised dimensions (Wolfaardt, 2001). Indicator variables are selected on the basis of prior theory and factor analysis is used to see if they load as predicted on the expected number of factors. In Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) the number of factors in the model is hypothesised beforehand. However, the researcher may posit expectations about which variables will load on which factors. In this study, factor analysis will identify whether the factor structures of the original WTS research instrument are the same for this sample group. That is, it will identify if the items in the WTS load onto the three factors of Trust in Organisation, Trust in

Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-Workers. It will also identify whether the items in the SPOS load onto two dimensions, namely perceptions of the extent to which the organisation values employee contribution (“Contribution”) and perceptions of the extent to which the organisation cares for the employee well-being (“Well-being”). The EQS statistical package will be used for this analysis.

3.7.3.2 CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Correlation coefficients reveal the strength of relationships between two variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, sometimes called Pearson’s r , is the most common of all correlation techniques. In this study, Pearson’s r was used to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between workplace trust and POS and, if so, to determine the strength of this relationship.



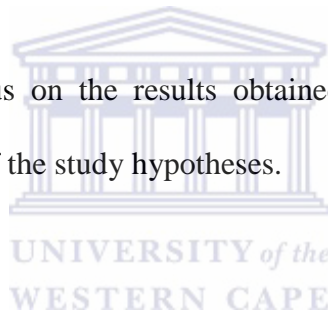
3.7.3.3 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is used to establish the direction of relationships and identifies the significance of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Multiple regressions are commonly used in data analysis to measure linear relationships between two or more variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Specifically, multiple regression indicates how well a set of variables explains a dependent variable and the direction and size of the effect of each variable on a dependent variable (Neuman, 2003). In this study, multiple regression analysis is used to predict the extent to which the independent variables (the two dimensions of POS, measured by the SPOS) contribute to predicting the dependent variables (namely, the three dimensions of workplace trust, as measured by the WTS).

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter gave an overview of the quantitative research paradigm. It explored the benefits and drawbacks of the quantitative design methodology in light of the objectives of this study. The research design was discussed, including the population; sampling procedure and participants; procedure followed; and the survey methodology used. The two significant ethical considerations, voluntary participation and no harm to participants, were explored. The three measuring instruments were discussed in terms of their content, dimensions, psychometric properties and their applicability for this research. The survey sample's characteristics were discussed and the chapter concluded with an overview of the statistical analyses to be applied in the research.

The following chapter will focus on the results obtained in the empirical analysis, with specific reference to the testing of the study hypotheses.



4. RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER

This chapter presents the results of the research study based on the empirical analysis of the data. Chapters two and three (the literature review and methodology process respectively) gave the background and impetus for the research, research hypotheses, research objectives and an overview of the research sample characteristics. This chapter will present the analysis of the data, according to the hypotheses originally proposed.

The data was analysed using EQS for Confirmatory Factor Analysis and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for all other analyses.

This chapter begins with the descriptive statistics for the two variables, as measured by the WTS and the SPOS. It then examines the instruments' reliability by analysing the Cronbach alpha coefficients for each dimension as well as each variable of the WTS and the SPOS. Once reliability of the measures is established, CFA is used to analyse the quality of the measuring instruments. Correlation is then used to establish if there is a relationship between the variables. Regression analysis follows to indicate the direction of the relationship, if any, between the dependent and independent variables. Finally, the correlation and multiple regression results are compared. The results will be discussed in Chapter 5 following the same sequence.

The upper level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 1%. All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2002).

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics for the two measuring instruments, the WTS and the SPOS, give an indication of the sample's responses to the surveys. Participants were required to respond to an itemised rating scale, ranging from a high score of 7 (*strongly agree*) to a low score of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to indicate their perceptions of the items on the WTS and the SPOS.

4.2.1 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION FOR THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated for workplace trust, as measured by the WTS in the research sample.

4.2.1.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TRUST IN ORGANISATION DIMENSION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Table 4.1: Item statistics for the Trust in Organisation dimension of the Workplace Trust Survey

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of items
Item 1	4.05	1.988	212
Item 2	4.67	1.843	212
Item 3	4.89	1.691	212
Item 4	4.17	1.857	212
Item 5	4.64	1.662	212
Item 6	4.18	1.794	212
Item 7	3.93	1.897	212
Item 8	4.52	1.682	212
Item 9	4.31	1.917	212
Item 10	4.83	1.670	212
Item 11	3.86	1.812	212
Item 12	4.00	1.830	212

The sample scored item 3, “I have positive feelings about the future direction of this organisation” the highest in this dimension at a mean score of 4.89 (SD = 1.691). The second highest mean score was for item 10, “There is a widely held belief that this organisation is moving forward for the better” at 4.83 (SD = 1.670). The lowest mean score was given for item 11, at 3.86 (SD = 1.812), “Employees commonly believe that they are treated fairly at this organisation”.

4.2.1.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER DIMENSION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Table 4.2: Item statistics for the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension of the Workplace Trust Survey

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of items
Item 13	5.61	1.531	212
Item 14	5.39	1.664	212
Item 15	5.18	1.829	212
Item 16	5.25	1.710	212
Item 17	5.16	1.759	212
Item 18	5.29	1.643	212
Item 19	5.24	1.772	212
Item 20	5.26	1.660	212
Item 21	4.94	1.802	212
Item 22	4.28	1.812	212
Item 23	3.85	1.853	212
Item 24	4.39	1.690	212

Table 4.2 indicates that item 13, “I feel that my manager trusts his/her employees to work without excessive supervision” scored the highest in this dimension at a mean score of 5.61 (SD = 1.531). The second highest mean score was for item 14, “I feel that my manager is available when needed” at 5.39 (SD = 1.664). Managerial reward (item 23) was the only item to fall below the neutral rating of 4 and had the lowest mean score, at 3.85 (SD = 1.853). This

item was, “It is frequently acknowledged by employees at this organisation that their immediate managers/ supervisors reward those who perform well”.

4.2.1.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TRUST IN CO-WORKERS DIMENSION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Table 4.3: Item statistics for the Trust in Co-workers dimension of the Workplace Trust Survey

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of items
Item 25	4.92	1.580	212
Item 26	5.08	1.531	212
Item 27	5.12	1.531	212
Item 28	4.81	1.693	212
Item 29	4.89	1.563	212
Item 30	5.33	1.543	212
Item 31	5.15	1.547	212
Item 32	5.38	1.418	212
Item 33	5.34	1.434	212
Item 34	4.84	1.385	212
Item 35	5.00	1.414	212
Item 36	4.76	1.481	212

The sample scored item 32, “I believe that my co-workers support me if I have problems” the highest in the Trust in Co-worker dimension at a mean score of 5.38 (SD = 1.418), followed by item 33, “I believe that my co-workers give me all necessary information to assist me at work” at 5.34 (SD = 1.434). The lowest score was given for item 36, at a mean of 4.76 (SD = 1.481), “Most employees at this organisation believe that co-workers are reliable”. All of the mean scores in this dimension fell above the neutral rating of 4.

4.2.1.4 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Table 4.4: Scale statistics for the dimensions of the Workplace Trust Survey

Dimension	Number of items	Mean	Standard Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Trust in Organisation	12	52.03	17.390
Trust in Immediate Manager	12	59.86	16.772
Trust in Co-workers	12	60.62	14.571

The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the three referents of trust that form the WTS dimensions are shown in Table 4.4. Each dimension, namely Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-workers, respectively was measured by twelve questions. Therefore, the composite scores of the relevant twelve questions are indicated.

As the table above indicates, the study sample scored Trust in Organisation the lowest of the three referents, at a composite mean score of 52.03 (SD = 17.390). This equates to a mean score for each Trust in the Organisation item of 4.34.

The sample's composite score for Trust in Immediate Manager was 59.86 (SD = 16.772), which equated to a mean score of 4.99 for each of the twelve items. The sample thus scored Trust in Immediate Manager higher than Trust in Organisation.

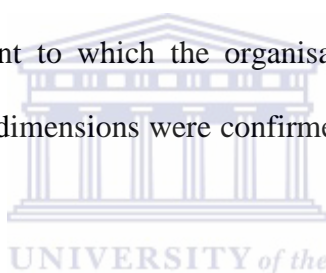
The sample's score for Trust in Co-workers was the highest of all three dimensions, with a composite score of 60.62 (SD = 14.571). This equates to a mean score for each Trust in Co-workers item as 5.05.

Based on the Likert scale rating used, the mean score for each dimension fell slightly more towards the “agree” side of the rating scale. The sample reflected the greatest level of trust in co-workers and the least in the organisation.

4.2.2 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION FOR THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

This section gives an overview of the descriptive statistics calculated for POS, as measured by the SPOS questionnaire in the research sample.

A conceptual distinction was made regarding which of the SPOS items referred to the dimension, “the extent to which the organisation values my contribution” (“Contribution”), and which referred to “the extent to which the organisation cares about my well-being” (“Well-being”). These proposed dimensions were confirmed by CFA, as described in section 4.4.2 of this chapter.



4.2.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE CONTRIBUTION DIMENSION OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Table 4.5: Item statistics for the Contribution dimension of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of items
Item 1	4.83	1.688	212
Item 3*	3.99	2.002	212
Item 4	4.22	1.734	212
Item 5*	4.77	1.797	212
Item 10*	4.46	1.853	212
Item 14*	4.58	1.834	212
Item 15	4.32	1.792	212
Item 16	4.45	1.709	212

* These items were negatively worded and reverse-scored

The sample scored item 1, “The organisation values my contribution to its well-being” the highest in the Contribution dimension at a mean score of 4.83 (SD = 1.688). The second highest mean score was for item 5 at 4.77 (SD = 1.797). This item is reverse-scored as it is negatively worded as, “The organisation would ignore any complaint from me”. The lowest score was given for item 3, which is also reverse-scored, at a mean of 3.99 (SD = 2.002). Item 3, the only item in this dimension to fall below the “neutral” rating of 4, is, “The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me”.

4.2.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE WELL-BEING DIMENSION OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Table 4.6: Item statistics for the Well-being dimension of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of items
Item 2*	3.17	1.944	212
Item 6*	4.18	1.922	212
Item 7	5.17	1.499	212
Item 8	4.50	1.764	212
Item 9	4.57	1.734	212
Item 11	4.60	1.735	212
Item 12	4.28	1.833	212
Item 13*	3.75	1.970	212
Item 17	4.06	1.762	212

* These items were negatively worded and reverse-scored

The highest item was item 7, “Help is available from the organisation when I have a problem” which the sample gave a mean score of 5.17 (SD = 1.499). The next highest mean score was for item 11 at 4.60 (SD = 1.735) which was, “The organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour”. The lowest score was given for item 2, which is reverse-scored, at a

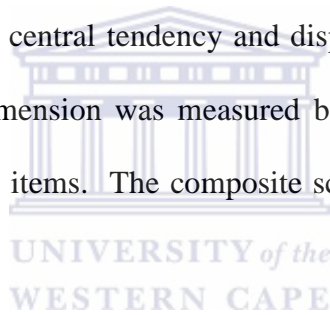
mean of 3.17 (SD = 1.944). Item 2, which is, “If the organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so”, was the lowest scoring item in both dimensions.

4.2.2.3 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Table 4.7: Scale statistics for the dimensions of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Dimension	Number of items	Mean	Standard Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Contribution	8	35.61	11.950
Well-being	9	38.20	12.204

Table 4.7 shows the measures of central tendency and dispersion for the two dimensions of the SPOS. The Contribution dimension was measured by eight items and the Well-being dimension was measured by nine items. The composite scores of the relevant questions are indicated.



The sample’s composite score for Contribution was 35.61 (SD = 11.950), which equated to a mean score of 4.45 for each of the eight items. The Well-being dimension of POS had a composite score of 38.20 (SD = 12.204). As there were nine items in this dimension, this equates to a mean score for each Well-being item of 4.24. Therefore, based on the Likert rating scale used, the sample scored the Contribution dimension slightly more favourably than the Well-being dimension.

As for the WTS dimension, both SPOS dimensions scored slightly more towards the “agree” side of the Likert scale.

4.3. RELIABILITY OF DIMENSIONS

Reliability concerns the quality of a measurement instrument. An instrument is reliable to the extent that it collects the same data from repeated observations of the same phenomenon (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The reliability for the WTS and SPOS is measured by computing the Cronbach alpha coefficients (α) for each dimension and variable. Cronbach's alpha is an index of reliability that tells what degree of the total variance can be accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Alpha coefficients range 0 to 1. There is no lower limit to the coefficient. However, the closer the Cronbach alpha coefficient is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The conventionally agreed cut-off reliability score of acceptability is $\alpha = .7$ (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

4.3.1 RELIABILITY MEASURES OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SCALE

An item analysis was done on each of the WTS dimensions, to determine the Cronbach alpha coefficient if an item was deleted. Each item in the dimension was tested. The Cronbach alpha coefficient with the missing item was then compared to the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the dimension. This determined each item's contribution to the reliability of the measure in the dimension in question.

4.3.1.1 RELIABILITY MEASURE OF THE TRUST IN ORGANISATION DIMENSION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SCALE

Table 4.8: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Trust in Organisation dimension of the Workplace Trust Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.950	12

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the Trust in Organisation dimension of the WTS was $\alpha = .950$. This indicates that the internal consistency for this dimension is high, as it substantially exceeds the conventionally agreed cut-off reliability score of acceptability (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). This reliability score is identical to the one found for this dimension by the originator of the WTS, Ferres and her colleague Travaglione (2003).

Table 4.9: Item-total statistics for the Trust in Organisation dimension of the Workplace Trust Scale

Item	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Item 1	47.99	267.871	.470	.955
Item 2	47.36	252.444	.795	.944
Item 3	47.15	257.746	.770	.945
Item 4	47.86	250.798	.818	.943
Item 5	47.39	260.191	.736	.946
Item 6	47.85	253.037	.808	.944
Item 7	48.10	250.520	.804	.944
Item 8	47.51	255.976	.810	.944
Item 9	47.73	248.172	.837	.943
Item 10	47.21	260.651	.722	.947
Item 11	48.17	254.300	.775	.945
Item 12	48.04	251.421	.820	.943

As Table 4.9 shows, none of the items made a significant contribution to a higher reliability score than that of the dimension ($\alpha = .950$). Therefore, none of the items were removed from the Trust in Organisation dimension of the WTS.

4.3.1.2 RELIABILITY MEASURE OF THE TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER DIMENSION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SCALE

Table 4.10: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension of the Workplace Trust Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.952	12

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension of the WTS was $\alpha = .952$, again indicating that the internal consistency for this dimension was high as it is well above the acceptable level (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). This reliability score is very similar to Ferres and Travaglione's research (2003) that found the reliability coefficient for Trust in Manager to be $\alpha = .96$.

Table 4.11: Item-total statistics for the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension of the Workplace Trust Scale

Item	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Item 13	54.24	251.814	.559	.953
Item 14	54.46	237.010	.810	.946
Item 15	54.67	230.777	.849	.945
Item 16	54.61	231.524	.900	.943
Item 17	54.69	231.438	.874	.944
Item 18	54.57	235.299	.860	.945
Item 19	54.61	235.072	.793	.947
Item 20	54.59	239.965	.751	.948
Item 21	54.91	231.462	.850	.945
Item 22	55.58	237.993	.716	.949
Item 23	56.00	241.119	.639	.952
Item 24	55.46	245.545	.621	.952

As for the Trust in Organisation dimension, none of the items were deleted from the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension as none of them made a significant contribution to a higher reliability than that of the dimension ($\alpha = .952$). This is indicated in Table 4.11.

4.3.1.3 RELIABILITY MEASURE OF THE TRUST IN CO-WORKERS DIMENSION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SCALE

Table 4.12: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Trust in Co-workers dimension of the Workplace Trust Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.950	12

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the Trust in Co-workers dimension of the WTS was $\alpha = .950$. As for the previous WTS dimensions, the internal consistency for this dimension is well above an acceptable score (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) and is therefore high. This score is slightly higher than Ferres and Travaglione's (2003) finding of a Trust in Co-Workers reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .93$.

Table 4.13: Item-total statistics for the Trust in Co-workers dimension of the Workplace Trust Scale

Item	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Item 25	55.71	176.587	.791	.945
Item 26	55.54	177.719	.790	.945
Item 27	55.50	179.834	.733	.946
Item 28	55.81	177.083	.718	.947
Item 29	55.74	176.773	.796	.944
Item 30	55.30	175.954	.830	.943
Item 31	55.47	176.971	.800	.944
Item 32	55.24	182.449	.727	.947
Item 33	55.28	181.652	.740	.946

Item 34	55.78	181.232	.782	.945
Item 35	55.62	181.753	.749	.946
Item 36	55.86	182.460	.691	.948

As for the previous WTS dimensions, none of the items were deleted from Trust in Co-worker dimension, as none of them contributed to a higher reliability than that of the dimension ($\alpha = .950$). This is indicated in Table 4.13.

4.3.1.4 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM THE RELIABILITY OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

Each of the WTS dimensions shows a greater than acceptable level of reliability, therefore it can be concluded that the WTS is consistent in its measurement within this sample. The reliability of the full WTS construct was subsequently also tested.

Table 4.14: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Workplace Trust Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.97	36

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the WTS was $\alpha = .97$ indicating that the internal consistency for this measure was high. This result is similar to Dannhauser's study (2007), also using a South African sample, that computed a Cronbach alpha coefficient for the 36-item WTS as .976.

4.3.2 RELIABILITY MEASURES OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Similar to the WTS analysis, each of the SPOS items were analysed to determine the Cronbach alpha coefficient if an item was deleted. Each item in the two SPOS dimensions was tested. The Cronbach alpha coefficient with the missing item was then compared to the

Cronbach alpha coefficient for the dimension. This determined each item's contribution to the reliability of the measure in the dimension in question.

4.3.2.1 RELIABILITY MEASURE OF THE CONTRIBUTION DIMENSION OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Table 4.15: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Contribution dimension of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.935	8

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the Contribution dimension of the SPOS was $\alpha = .935$ as can be seen in table 4.15. As for the WTS dimensions, this is well above the acceptable level (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000), indicating that the internal consistency for this dimension was high.

Table 4.16: Item-total statistics for the Contribution dimension of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Item	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Item 1	30.78	114.277	.711	.930
Item 3	31.62	107.190	.762	.927
Item 4	31.39	111.943	.759	.927
Item 5	30.85	111.626	.736	.928
Item 10	31.16	108.259	.807	.923
Item 14	31.04	107.586	.837	.921
Item 15	31.30	109.611	.799	.924
Item 16	31.16	112.323	.760	.927

As can be seen in Table 4.16, none of the items contributed to a higher reliability score than that of the dimension ($\alpha = .935$). Therefore, none of the items were removed from the Contribution dimension of the SPOS.

4.3.2.2 RELIABILITY MEASURE OF THE WELLBEING DIMENSION OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Table 4.17: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Wellbeing Dimension of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.905	9

Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the Wellbeing dimension of the SPOS was $\alpha = .905$. Although this score is slightly lower than the reliability score for Contribution, it is nevertheless greater than the generally accepted level (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Therefore, the internal consistency for this dimension was high.

Table 4.18: Item-total statistics for the Well-being dimension of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Item	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Item 2	35.10	122.130	.536	.905
Item 6	34.09	116.771	.686	.893
Item 7	33.09	125.958	.617	.898
Item 8	33.77	114.484	.830	.883
Item 9	33.70	121.425	.642	.896
Item 11	33.67	122.767	.603	.899
Item 12	33.99	114.161	.803	.884
Item 13	34.51	117.239	.652	.896
Item 17	34.21	116.891	.760	.888

As for the Contribution dimension of the SPOS, none of the items were removed as none of them contributed to a higher reliability score than that of the Well-being dimension ($\alpha = .905$) of the SPOS.

4.3.2.3 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM THE RELIABILITY OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Table 4.19: Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.956	17

As with each of the dimensions of the SPOS, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for SPOS was greater than the acceptable level of $\alpha = .7$ at $\alpha = .956$. This indicates that the internal consistency for the SPOS was high. Previous studies of the 17-item version of the SPOS have indicated Cronbach alpha values of between $\alpha = .74$ and $\alpha = .95$ (Fields, 2002). Therefore, the reliability score of the SPOS in this study is consistent with previous research using the identical measure.

4.3.3 SUMMARY OF VARIABLE AND DIMENSION RELIABILITY SCORES

Table 4.20: Summary of Cronbach alpha coefficients for the Workplace Trust Survey, the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support and their dimensions

Variable/Dimension	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Workplace Trust Survey	36	$\alpha = .970$
Workplace Trust Survey – Trust in Organisation	12	$\alpha = .950$
Workplace Trust Survey – Trust in Immediate Manager	12	$\alpha = .952$
Workplace Trust Survey – Trust in Co-workers	12	$\alpha = .950$
Survey of Perceived Organisational Support	17	$\alpha = .956$
Survey of Perceived Organisational Support – Contribution	8	$\alpha = .935$
Survey of Perceived Organisational Support – Well-being	9	$\alpha = .905$

As Table 4.20 indicates, each of the measures of the variables and the dimensions was found to be reliable in this study's sample.

As the variables and their dimensions proved to be reliable, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) could be used to confirm whether or not the items contained in the measures lead to the emergence of each measure's theorised dimensions.

4.4 RESULTS FROM CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

The results from the CFA are discussed as they related to the first two hypotheses.

4.4.1 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SCALE

Hypothesis 1 concerned the WTS construct, as follows:

H1 The manifestations of the workplace trust construct exist in the same form within a South African sample as was identified by the original authors of the Workplace Trust Survey.

Because the WTS measurement model deviates from multivariate normality, a robust method of estimation is required for factor analysis. For the purposes of the current analysis, the robust maximum likelihood method of estimating is used. As a consequence, the traditional χ^2 value cannot be used (Hu & Bentler, 1998). A correction is made to this and the χ^2 value in the form of the Satorra-Bentler χ^2 is used.

Table 4.21: Goodness of Fit Statistics for the Workplace Trust Survey

Satorra-Bentler Scaled χ^2	1070.6510
Degrees of Freedom (df)	591
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.907
Root Mean-square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.062
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.056, 0.068

CFA of the WTS seems to support the theory that suggests three separate dimensions: Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-Workers. Ferres' (2001, in van Staden, 2007) theory of a three-factor model of trust is therefore supported. In addition, Hu and Bentler (1998) suggest that a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) of above .9 is good. Therefore, the CFI result of .907 indicates that the quality of the WTS measurement instrument is good. Hypothesis 1 is thus accepted.

4.4.2 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

Hypothesis 2 concerned the dimensionality of the POS construct, as follows:

H2 The manifestation of the Perceived Organisational Support construct can be interpreted as two-dimensional within a South African sample.

As for the WTS, because the SPOS measurement model deviates from multivariate normality, a robust method of estimation is required for factor analysis. Again, in the current analysis the robust maximum likelihood method of estimating is used. The χ^2 value in the form of the Satorra-Bentler χ^2 is also used for this analysis.

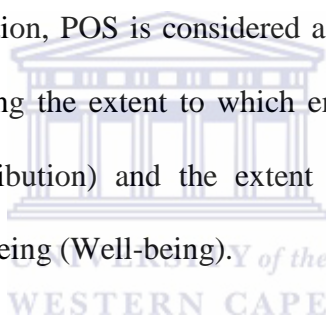
Table 4.22: Goodness of Fit Statistics for the Survey of Perceived Support

Satorra-Bentler Scaled χ^2	229.0331
Degrees of Freedom (df)	118
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.955
Root Mean-square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.067
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.054, 0.079

Confirmatory factor analysis of the SPOS indicated that two dimensions emerged, namely Contribution and Well-being. Therefore, it is possible to consider POS as a two-dimensional construct. Hu and Bentler (1998) suggest that a CFI of above .95 is very good. The CFI result of .955 thus indicates that the quality of the SPOS measurement instrument is very good. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is accepted.

4.4.3 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

The results of the CFA analysis, combined with the CFI results, indicate that for the present study's sample, workplace trust is a three-dimensional construct with the dimensions loading on Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-workers, as in the original WTS construct. In addition, POS is considered a two-dimensional construct by the sample, with the dimensions being the extent to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution (Contribution) and the extent to which employees believe the organisation cares for their well-being (Well-being).



4.5. RESULTS OF PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis (also called Pearson's r) was computed to determine the extent of the relationship, if any, between the three dimensions of workplace trust and the two dimensions of POS. Pearson's r was also computed to determine the extent of the relationship between the two variables in the study, namely workplace trust and POS.

4.5.1 RELATIONSHIPS OF WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY AND SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT DIMENSIONS

Table 4.23: Inter-correlation matrix for the relationship between workplace trust, Perceived Organisational Support and their dimensions (N = 212)

		Trust in Organisation	Trust in Immediate Manager	Trust in Co-workers	POS - Contribution	POS - Well-being
Trust in Organisation	Pearson Correlation	1	.695**	.469**	.829**	.846**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
Trust in Immediate Manager	Pearson Correlation	.695**	1	.537**	.700**	.698**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
Trust in Co-workers	Pearson Correlation	.469**	.537**	1	.415**	.440**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
POS - Contribution	Pearson Correlation	.829**	.700**	.415**	1	.887**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
POS - Well-being	Pearson Correlation	.846**	.698**	.440**	.887**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.23 is the inter-correlation matrix representing the relationships between the three dimensions of workplace trust and the two dimensions of POS. These results are discussed as they relate to each hypothesis.

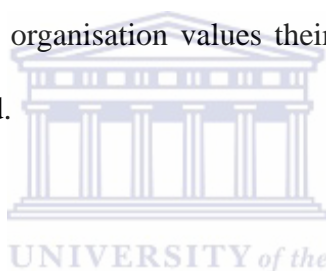
Hypotheses 3 to 5 concerned the relationship between the Contribution dimension of POS and Trust in the Organisation, the Immediate Manager and Co-workers respectively.

H3 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in the organisation and employee perception that the organisation values their contribution.

The results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between employee trust in the organisation and their perceptions that the organisation values their contribution ($r = .829$, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is accepted.

H4 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their immediate manager and employee perception that the organisation values their contribution.

A significant, positive relationship was formed between employee trust in their immediate manager and their belief that the organisation values their contribution ($r = .700$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 4 is therefore accepted.



H5 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their co-workers and employee perception that the organisation values their contribution.

The research results show a significant positive relationship between employee trust in their co-workers and their perceptions that the organisation values their contribution ($r = .415$, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 5 is accepted.

In summary, the results indicate that the Contribution dimension of POS is significantly and positively related to each dimension of workplace trust, as measured by the WTS. Contribution has the strongest relationship with Trust in the Organisation and the weakest with Trust in Co-workers.

Hypotheses 6 to 8 concerned the relationship between the Well-being dimension of POS and Trust in the Organisation, the Immediate Manager and Co-workers respectively.

H6 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in the organisation and employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being.

The results indicate that there is a significant, positive relationship between employee trust in the organisation and their perceptions that the organisation cares for their well-being ($r = .846, p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 is accepted.

H7 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their immediate manager and employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being.

The results show a significant, positive relationship between employee trust in their immediate manager and their belief that the organisation cares for their well-being ($r = .698, p < .01$). Hypothesis 7 is therefore accepted.

H8 There is a significant relationship between employee trust in their co-workers and employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being.

A significant, positive relationship was found between employees' trust in their co-workers and their perception that the organisation cares for their well-being ($r = .415, p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 8 is accepted.

As for the Contribution dimension of POS, the results show that the Well-being dimension of POS is significantly and positively related to each dimension of workplace trust, as measured by the WTS. In this sample, Well-being had the strongest relationship with Trust in the Organisation and the weakest relationship with Trust in Co-workers.

As the matrix in Table 4.23 indicates, the strongest correlations between all dimensions are between Trust in Organisation and Well-being, as well as Trust in Organisation and Contribution. There is a significant correlation between Trust in Immediate Manager and Contribution, and Trust in Immediate Manager and Well-being. However, these correlations are not as strong as those between the two POS dimensions and Trust in Organisation. The weakest correlations within this analysis are between Trust in Co-workers and the Well-being and Contribution dimensions of POS, respectively.

4.5.2 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Hypothesis 9 concerned the relationship between the two constructs of the study, workplace trust and POS.

H9 There is a significant relationship between workplace trust and Perceived Organisational Support.

Table 4.24: Correlation analysis (N = 212)

Variable		Perceived Organisational Support	Workplace Trust
Perceived Organisational Support	Pearson Correlation	1	.812**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Workplace Trust	Pearson Correlation	.812**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen in table 4.24, the results indicate that there is a significant, positive relationship between workplace trust and Perceived Organisational Support ($r = .812$, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 9 is accepted.

4.6 RESULTS FROM MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is used to identify the significance of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). As this study seeks to identify if POS has an impact on workplace trust, the three dimensions of trust are treated as dependent variables. The two dimensions of POS – Contribution and Well-being – are the independent variables.

4.6.1 TRUST IN ORGANISATION AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Table 4.25: Model summary of the total sample (Trust in Organisation as dependent variable)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of the Estimate
1	.863 ^a	0.744	0.742	8.83188
a. Predictors: (Constant), POS_Wellbeing, POS_Contribution				

Regression analysis was performed where the dependent variable was Trust in the Organisation and the independent variables were the Contribution and the Well-being dimensions of POS. These two variables, when entered into the model, explained 74% of the variance in Trust in Organisation.

Table 4.26: ANOVA results for the total sample (Trust in Organisation as dependent variable)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	47503.232	2	23751.616	304.500	.000 ^a
	Residual	16302.444	209	78.002		
	Total	63805.677	211			
a. Predictors: (Constant), POS_Wellbeing, POS_Contribution						
b. Dependent Variable: Trust_Organisation						

As the ANOVA table (4.26) above indicates, the significance (0.000) is smaller than .05. The 74% of variance can therefore be concluded as meaningful and significant.

Table 4.27: Beta coefficients for the total sample (Trust in Organisation as dependent variable)

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Standard Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.634	2.018		2.297	.023
	POS_Contribution	.536	.110	.369	4.872	.000
	POS_Wellbeing	.739	.108	.519	6.858	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Trust_Organisation						

As Table 4.27 indicates, each dimension of POS contributes significantly to the variance in Trust in Organisation, as they are both smaller than .05.

4.6.2 TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Table 4.28: Model summary of the total sample (Trust in Immediate Manager as dependent variable)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of the Estimate
1	.720 ^a	0.518	0.513	11.70325
a. Predictors: (Constant), POS_Wellbeing, POS_Contribution				

Regression analysis was performed where the dependent variable was Trust in Immediate Manager and the independent variables were the Contribution and Well-being dimensions of POS. These two variables, when entered into the model, explained 52% of the variance in Trust in Immediate Manager.

Table 4.29: ANOVA results for the total sample (Trust in Immediate Manager as dependent variable)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	30731.127	2	15365.563	112.185	.000 ^a
	Residual	28625.897	209	136.966		
	Total	59357.023	211			
a. Predictors: (Constant), POS_Wellbeing, POS_Contribution						
b. Dependent Variable: Trust_Manager						

The significance is smaller than .05, as the ANOVA table above indicates. The 52% of variance can therefore be concluded as meaningful and significant.

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Table 4.30: Beta coefficients for the total sample (Trust in Immediate Manager as dependent variable)

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Standard Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	21.883	2.674		8.185	.000
	POS_Contribution	.531	.146	.378	3.639	.000
	POS_Wellbeing	.498	.143	.363	3.487	.001
a. Dependent Variable: Trust_Manager						

Each dimension of POS contributes significantly to the variance in Trust in Immediate Manager, as they are both smaller than .05. This is indicated in Table 4.30, above.

4.6.3 TRUST IN CO-WORKERS AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Table 4.31: Model summary of the total sample (Trust in Co-workers as dependent variable)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of the Estimate
1	.443 ^a	0.196	0.189	13.12458
a. Predictors: (Constant), POS_Wellbeing, POS_Contribution				

Regression analysis was performed where the dependent variable was Trust in Co-workers and the independent variables were the two dimensions of POS, Contribution and Well-being. When entered into the model, these two variables explained 20% of the variance in Trust in Co-workers.

Table 4.32: ANOVA results for the total sample (Trust in Co-workers as dependent variable)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8794.590	2	4397.295	25.528	.000 ^a
	Residual	36001.221	209	172.255		
	Total	44795.811	211			
a. Predictors: (Constant), POS_Wellbeing, POS_Contribution						
b. Dependent Variable: Trust_Coworkers						

As ANOVA table 4.32, above, indicates the significance is smaller than .05. The 20% of variance can thus be concluded as meaningful and significant.

Table 4.33: Beta coefficients for the total sample (Trust in Co-workers as dependent variable)

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Standard Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	40.191	2.998		13.404	.000
	POS_Contribution	.146	.164	.119	.889	.375
	POS_Wellbeing	.399	.160	.334	2.487	.014
a. Dependent Variable: Trust_Coworkers						

As Table 4.33 indicates, the Well-being dimension of POS is contributes significantly and meaningfully to the variance in Trust in Co-workers, as it is smaller than .05 at .014. However, the Contribution dimension of POS does not contribute significantly to the variance in Trust in Co-workers, as it is greater than .05 at .375.

4.6.4 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Hypothesis 10 concerned the directionality of the relationship between workplace trust and POS.

H10 Perceived Organisational Support contributes to a significant proportion of variance in the dimensions of workplace trust.

Regression analysis found that POS contributed 74% of the variance in Trust in Organisation and that this result was both meaningful and significant. Both POS dimensions – Contribution and Well-being – contributed significantly to the 74% of variance in Trust in Organisation.

Fifty-two per cent of the variance in Trust in Immediate Manager was contributed by POS, according to the regression analysis. As for Trust in Organisation, this result was significant and meaningful and both POS dimensions contributed significantly to the 52% of variance in Trust in Immediate Manager.

Finally, regression analysis found that POS contributed just 20% of the variance in Trust in Co-workers. While this result was both meaningful and significant, the two dimensions of POS did not both contribute significantly. The contribution by the Well-being dimension was significant in explaining the 20% variance in Trust in Co-workers. However, the contribution by the Contribution dimension was not found to be significant in explaining the 20% variance in Trust in Co-workers.

Therefore, hypothesis 10 is accepted.

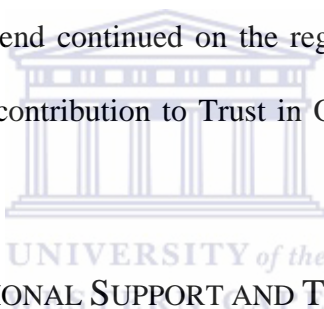
4.7 INTEGRATION ACROSS THE RESULTS

4.7.1 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND TRUST IN ORGANISATION

There is a significant correlation between Trust in the Organisation and Contribution ($r = .829$). This correlation also seems to be supported by the regression weight of Contribution in terms of predicting Trust in Organisation ($\beta = .369$).

Similarly, there is a significant correlation between Trust in the Organisation and Well-being ($r = .846$). This correlation also seems to be supported by the regression weight of Well-being in terms of predicting Trust in Organisation ($\beta = .519$).

The Well-being dimension had a slightly bigger correlation than the Contribution dimension to Trust in Organisation. This trend continued on the regression analysis, where the Well-being dimension made a greater contribution to Trust in Organisation than the Contribution dimension.



4.7.2 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND TRUST IN IMMEDIATE MANAGER

There is a significant correlation between Trust in Immediate Manager and Contribution ($r = .700$). This correlation also seems to be supported by the regression weight of Contribution in terms of predicting Trust in Immediate Manager ($\beta = .378$).

Similarly, there is a significant correlation between Trust in Immediate Manager and Well-being ($r = .698$). Again, this correlation also appears to be supported by the regression weight of Well-being in terms of predicting Trust in Immediate Manager ($\beta = .363$).

The Contribution dimension had a slightly bigger correlation than the Well-being dimension to Trust in Immediate Manager. This trend continued on the regression analysis, where Contribution had a greater influence on Trust in Immediate Manager than Well-being.

4.7.3 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

There is a significant correlation between Trust in the Co-workers and Contribution ($r = .415$). This correlation also appears to be supported by the regression weight of Contribution in terms of predicting Trust in Co-workers ($\beta = .119$).

Similarly, there is a significant correlation between Trust in Co-workers and Well-being ($r = .846$). This correlation is again apparently supported by the regression weight of Well-being in terms of predicting Trust in Co-workers ($\beta = .334$).

The Well-being dimension had a much bigger correlation than the Contribution dimension to Trust in Co-workers. This trend continued on the regression analysis, where Well-being influenced Trust in Co-workers almost three times more than Contribution did.

4.7.4 CONCLUSIONS ARISING FROM INTEGRATED RESULTS

The integrated results appear to support the conclusions drawn from the regression analysis. That is, they indicate that, while both dimensions of POS contribute to Trust in Organisation, the Contribution dimension has a greater impact. Both dimensions of POS contribute to Trust in Immediate Manager and again the Contribution dimension contributes more. Both dimensions of POS contribute to Trust in Co-workers, however in this case the Well-being dimension contributes more.

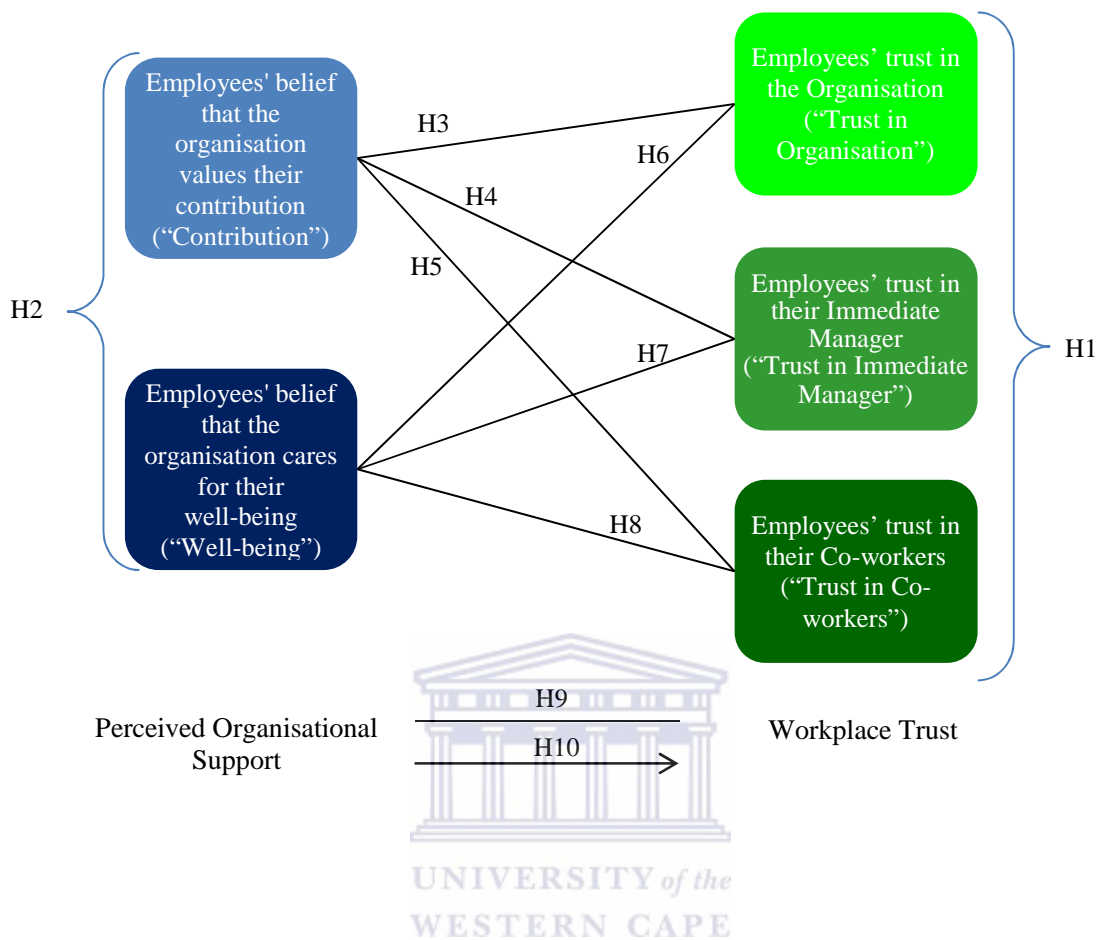


Figure 4.1: Hypothesised model of the relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and workplace trust

4.8 SUMMARY

Chapter 4 described the results of the study and evaluated the study hypotheses. First, the descriptive statistics were given for the two measuring instruments used in the study, namely the WTS and SPOS, and their respective dimensions. The reliability of the WTS and SPOS was calculated and the study found that both measures were internally consistent. Once this was established, CFA was used to assess the quality of the measurement instruments, both of which were found to be of sufficient quality. Correlation, in the form of Pearson's r ,

computed the relationships between workplace trust and POS, as measured by the WTS and the SPOS respectively. A significant relationship was identified between each of the three WTS dimensions and the two SPOS dimensions, as well as between the WTS and the SPOS. Finally, multiple regression analysis identified that there was a significant relationship between each of the dependent variables (Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager, Trust in Co-workers) and the independent variables (Contribution dimension of POS, Well-being dimension of POS), with one exception: the Contribution dimension of POS did not contribute significantly to the variance in Trust in Co-workers in this sample. All of the study hypotheses were accepted.



5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER

This chapter begins with a discussion of the sample's response to the WTS and the SPOS. This describes the sample's perceptions of workplace trust and POS and has implications for workplace trust and POS in a South African context. Next, the measuring instruments are evaluated in terms of how they manifested in the research sample. To contextualise the results, the study refers to previous research in workplace trust and POS, as described in the review of the literature (chapter 2). Conclusions are drawn regarding the directionality of the relationship between the dimensions of POS as the independent variables and the dimensions of workplace trust as the dependent variables. The contributions of these results to the field are discussed next. The study's limitations are then acknowledged and recommendations are made for future research. The chapter concludes with a summary of the research implications.

5.2 DISCUSSION

5.2.1 SAMPLE PERCEPTIONS OF WORKPLACE TRUST AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

This section draws conclusions about the sample's perceptions of workplace trust and POS, based on the descriptive statistics of the WTS and SPOS results.

5.2.1.1 RESPONSE TO THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

The results from chapter 4 indicate that the sample generally perceives their workplace as trustworthy. In addition, the sample perceives all three trust referents to be trustworthy. The

highest degree of trust is in co-workers, closely followed by trust in the immediate manager, with the lowest being the degree of trust in the organisation.

The two lowest scores for the Trust in Organisation dimension concern the organisation's recognition and reward of employee performance, and fairness of treatment. These items describe perceptions of distributive justice (fair work outcomes) and procedural justice (the means through which these outcomes are determined), respectively. Ayree et al.'s study (2002) found distributive and procedural justice were antecedents of trust in the organisation. The results of this study therefore correspond with previous research that perceptions of justice are antecedents of trust in the organisation.

The two highest scores in the Trust in Organisation dimension concern the organisation's strategic direction and progress. These employee perceptions are consistent with a Transformational Leadership style, in which leaders build employee commitment to organisational objectives and empower employees to achieve these objectives (Yukl, 1998 in van Staden, 2007). While Transformational Leadership has been linked to a higher degree of trust in the immediate manager (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff, et al., 1990; van Staden, 2007), future research could consider whether a Transformational Leadership style is an antecedent of trust at the organisational, rather than at the immediate manager, level.

There is a high standard deviation for the Trust in Organisation dimension. This indicates that there may be a wide spread of perceptions of trust in the organisation – from a high degree of trust to a low degree of trust.

As previously discussed, workplace trust is based on the Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). The sample's mean score for the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension indicates their trust in this referent. The highest mean score in the item analysis of this dimension concerned perceptions of immediate managers' trust in

subordinates (that is, to work without excessive supervision). Therefore the reciprocity of the trust relationship between participants and their immediate managers is suggested, consistent with Gouldner's theory (1960 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).

The lowest score for the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension, and the only item in this dimension to be scored below the "neutral" score, concerned the managers' rewarding those who performed well. This may be because immediate managers do not have the responsibility for making reward decisions. It is possible that these decisions are taken at a more senior management level. However, given that recognition and reward also scored below the "neutral" score in the Trust in Organisation dimension, there is an indication that reward is an area of concern for participants in the survey.

The highest-scoring item in the Trust in Co-worker dimension referred to colleague support; the second highest Immediate Manager item also referred to support. This is consistent with McAllister's finding (1995) that high levels of affect-based trust result in concern for colleagues' work-based and personal needs. Therefore, support is an important aspect of workplace trust in this sample.

The lowest score for an item in the Trust in Co-workers dimension concerned co-worker reliability. This is interesting to note, as this dimension scored the highest when compared to the other trust referents and reliability forms part of several definitions of trust (such as Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; McAllister, 1995). However, the item score regarding reliability was still well above the "neutral" score, indicating that colleague reliability does not seem to be a problem in the organisation. This, together with the high score for co-worker support, may indicate an affective tie between colleagues that is not necessarily matched by a regard for each other's competence. These results support McAllister's assertion (1995) that

between colleagues, affect-based trust results from the communal nature of their relationship, rather than from an exchange relationship.

5.2.1.2 RESPONSE TO THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

The results of the SPOS indicate that the sample population perceives their organisation as supportive. This perception stems both from a belief that the organisation values the participants' contribution and from a belief that the organisation cares for the participants' well-being. According to the sample, the organisation seems to focus its attention on recognising contribution, while indirectly enhancing well-being.

The highest scoring item in the Contribution dimension was the organisation's valuation of individual contribution. This could be considered distributive justice, which is perceived fairness of work outcomes, because organisations indicate how much they value individual contribution through employee rewards. This outcome corresponds with Loi et al.'s (2006) research that found distributive justice a predictor of POS.

Another form of justice, procedural justice, is implied in the second-highest Contribution item. This item indicates that the organisation would take action if an employee complained. This could be considered procedural justice, that is, the manner in which work outcomes are achieved as indicated in organisational policies and procedures. This result is consistent with Loi et al.'s (2006) finding of a relationship between POS and procedural justice. According to Ambrose and Schminke (2003), the positive impact of procedural justice on POS is greater than that of other forms of justice in mechanistic organisations. The HR Executive described the research organisation in this study as a mechanistic one. Therefore, if the organisation wishes to increase POS through changing perceptions of justice, one way could be to improve its response to employee complaints through improved HR practices. If these attempts to improve procedural justice are done consistently, according to Shore and Shore (1995, in

Eisenberger et al., 2004) this may result in a cumulative positive effect on POS. Because POS has been found to fully mediate the relationship between procedural justice and extra-role behaviour (Moorman et al., 1998 in Eisenberger et al., 2004), the benefit for the research organisation is likely to be employee performance that goes beyond minimum performance standards.

The lowest-scoring item in the Contribution dimension concerns the organisation recognising extra effort taken by employees. Combined with the highest scored item, this implies that although the organisation recognises and rewards standard employee efforts, any additional work is not given the recognition employees feel it deserves. This outcome may have a negative impact on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). OCB has been found to correlate positively with POS (Shore & Wayne, 1993 in Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). OCB has also been found to be a predictor of trust at the immediate manager level (Aryee et al., 2002; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Korsgaard et al., 2002) and co-worker level (McAllister, 1995). Therefore a suggestion for a future studies is to include OCB as an additional construct when examining workplace trust and POS.

The two highest-scoring items for the Well-being dimension concerned the organisation's willingness and ability to help when the employee had a problem. Organisational help can stem from HR policies, such as paid sick leave. This would be consistent with Allen et al.'s research (2003) indicating supportive HR practices as antecedents of POS. Organisational help may also come in the form of discretionary efforts that are non-standard, such as job flexibility for working parents. When the job conditions are seen as discretionary, the impact of POS is up to seven times greater (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Therefore, discretionary efforts made either by individual managers or the HR department (as organisational agents), may be the reason behind the positive evaluation of POS by the sample.

The lowest scoring item in the Well-being dimension was also the lowest-scoring item in the SPOS, and the only item to be scored well below the “neutral” score. This item concerned job insecurity resulting from the organisation employing cheaper labour. Job security is positively correlated with POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This therefore suggests a focal area for the organisation, should it wish to improve POS. However, the HR Executive indicated that employee turnover is very low and the sample’s mean tenure supports this. The result of this SPOS item may be explained by South Africa’s labour legislation which protects employees from unfair dismissal. That is, it may indicate that although the research organisation may not dismiss employees on the basis of a cheaper alternative, employees feel that their jobs would be at risk if they weren’t protected by legislation. The current global economic climate, which has resulted in a worldwide recession and led to many employee retrenchments, may also play a role in contributing to participants’ sense of job insecurity. The consequence of this could be employee performance that meets, but does not exceed, performance requirements. This is supported by the results of item analysis in the Contribution dimension, suggesting rewards for standard efforts exist, but that additional efforts are not recognised.

5.2.2 MANIFESTATION OF MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS IN STUDY SAMPLE

The first two research questions the study aimed to answer were:

- i. Is the factor structure of the Workplace Trust Survey consistent with that of the original measurement instrument?
- ii. Can a two-dimensional factor structure provide a good fit in the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support measurement instrument?

For each of the measurement instruments, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed to establish reliability. Thereafter, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed for each of the

dimensions of the construct and each item was also tested. However, none of the items in the WTS or SPOS was deleted, as none of them made a significant contribution to a higher reliability score. Finally, CFA was used to determine if a three-factor structure for the WTS and a two-factor structure for the SPOS exist in a South African context. A discussion of the results of the reliability and factor analysis follows.

5.2.2.1 MANIFESTATION OF THE WORKPLACE TRUST SURVEY

The Cronbach alpha scores for each of the three workplace trust dimensions – Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-workers – were well above the generally accepted reliability cut-off scores of $\alpha = .7$, at $\alpha = .950$, $\alpha = .952$ and $\alpha = .950$ respectively. The WTS dimensions could therefore be concluded to be internally consistent. Similarly, the Cronbach alpha coefficient computed for the composite WTS was high ($\alpha = .970$) and therefore indicated that the measuring instrument itself is internally consistent.

CFA was computed using a robust maximum likelihood method of estimation, as the WTS measurement model deviates from multivariate normality. The result is supportive of Ferres's (2001, in van Staden, 2007) theory of three separate dimensions of trust along trust referent lines.

This outcome is different to Dannhauser's (2007) study that used the WTS. In that study, no distinction could be made between Trust in Organisation and Trust in Immediate Manager. Dannhauser (2007) noted that the research sample did not have direct contact with those in more senior levels in the organisation and suggested this as a reason for the lack of distinction. However, the research sample in the current study similarly did not have direct contact with those at more senior management levels. This suggests there may be different reasons why a sample may or may not distinguish between Trust in Organisation and Trust in Immediate Manager. One reason may be the nature of the roles performed by the sample.

Dannhauser's sample (2007) comprised sales people only, while the present study was made up of employees in a variety of work roles. Another reason may be the extent to which employees view their managers as organisational agents. Individual organisational policies, practices and culture would influence this perception. Therefore, it may be the research organisation itself that influences whether employees make a distinction between the organisation and their immediate manager as a trust referent. Both Dannhauser's (2007) study and this research took place within a single organisation. Future researchers could consider using a sample drawn from several different organisations.

5.2.2.2 MANIFESTATION OF THE SURVEY OF PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

The Cronbach alpha coefficients computed for the two dimensions of POS – formed by making a conceptual distinction between the items – were $\alpha = .935$ for Contribution and $\alpha = .905$ for Well-being. These are both well above the generally accepted score of $\alpha = .7$, indicating that each dimension is internally consistent. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the SPOS was similarly more than sufficient at $\alpha = .956$, indicating that the SPOS is internally consistent.

Because the SPOS measurement model deviates from multivariate normality, CFA was computed using the robust maximum likelihood method of estimation. The result supports hypothesis 2 that a South African sample can and should consider POS as a two-factor structure, by distinguishing between those actions that indicate the organisation's valuation of employee contribution and those actions that indicate the organisation's care for employee well-being.

Previous research has found that employees perceive organisational support as encompassing both the extent to which their contributions are valued and the extent to which their well-being is cared for (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Worley et al., 2009). A possible

explanation for this study's sample making this distinction can be drawn from the SPOS and WTS item analysis. As discussed in the previous section of this chapter, the sample indicated that, when their work meets performance standards, they are rewarded fairly. However, when this performance goes beyond the minimum requirements, there is little recognition of the extra effort. It may be that in this sample the immediate manager cannot make financial reward decisions to reward discretionary contribution as these are made at more senior levels in the organisation. However, immediate managers may be seen, in this sample, as being able to take action to care for employee well-being.

5.2.3 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORKPLACE TRUST, PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND THEIR DIMENSIONS

The outcomes of this analysis answer the research question:

- iii. Is there a significant, positive relationship between the different dimensions of workplace trust and Perceived Organisational Support?

Correlation, in the form of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (Pearson's r), analysed the relationships between all three referent-based dimensions of workplace trust and both the Contribution and Well-being dimensions of POS. The results support a significant, positive relationship between all of the dimensions.

The strongest relationships were between Well-being and Trust in Organisation ($r = .846$), and Contribution and Trust in Organisation ($r = .829$). Because the sample distinguished between trust referents, it is not surprising that the highest correlation occurred when the target of both measuring instruments was the organisation.

The next strongest relationships were between Contribution and Trust in Immediate Manager ($r = .700$), and Well-being and Trust in Immediate Manager ($r = .698$). This supports the

assertion that immediate managers may be seen as organisational agents, particularly when the immediate manager holds a senior management position.

Finally, the weakest correlations occurred between Well-being and Trust in Co-workers ($r = .440$) and Contribution and Trust in Co-workers ($r = .415$). Therefore, the participants do not see co-workers as having much responsibility for well-being on behalf of the organisation.

The research results found a strong correlation between the composite variables of workplace trust and POS ($r = .812, p < .01$), which supports the findings of the correlations between the two variables.

5.2.4 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AS A PREDICTOR OF WORKPLACE TRUST

The fourth question that the research sought to answer was:

- iv. What is the impact of the independent variables (namely, employee perception that the organisation values their contribution [Contribution], employee perception that the organisation cares for their well-being [Well-being]) on the dependent variables (namely Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager and Trust in Co-Workers)?

The research sought to identify if POS contributes to workplace trust. This question was raised because workplace trust has been found to have a number of organisationally-beneficial outcomes, yet is difficult for organisations to influence directly. POS may be one way in which organisations can influence workplace trust. Therefore, in analysing causal relationships between workplace trust and POS, the two dimensions of POS, namely Contribution and Well-being, were held constant as the independent variables.

5.2.4.1 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AS A PREDICTOR OF TRUST IN THE ORGANISATION

The results of the research showed that, when the trust referent was the Organisation, Contribution and Well-being together accounted for 74% of the variance in workplace trust. This percentage was found to be both meaningful and significant. This result supports arguments (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shore & Shore, 1995 in Eisenberger, 2004) that POS provides the basis for trust in organisations.

The Well-being dimension had a greater correlation with Trust in Organisation ($r = .846$) than Contribution ($r = .829$) did. This was supported by the regression analysis, as the regression weight for Well-being ($\beta = .519$) was greater than the regression weight for Contribution ($\beta = .369$). This suggests that Well-being makes a greater contribution to Trust in Organisation than Contribution. However, the difference between the correlations was very small and the regression analysis indicated that Well-being made only a slightly greater contribution to Trust in Organisation. Because organisational efforts to improve workplace trust may be limited, it is recommended that the organisation focuses its efforts on improving workplace trust by ensuring staff members feel that the organisation cares for their well-being. Communicating organisational commitment to employees may result in an improved sense of job security, as highlighted in the item analysis of the Well-being dimension of POS. This is likely to have the greatest impact on the Well-being dimension of POS and, consequently, on workplace trust.

POS was found to contribute to 74% of the variance in workplace trust. It is suggested that further research be conducted to determine what accounts for the remaining 26% of variance.

5.2.4.2 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AS A PREDICTOR OF TRUST IN THE IMMEDIATE MANAGER

The results of the research showed that Contribution and Well-being together accounted for 52% of the variance in Trust in Immediate Manager. The POS dimensions account for substantially less variance when compared to Trust in Organisation. However, POS still accounts for the majority of the variance in Trust in Immediate Manager. The 52% variance was found to be both meaningful and significant. This confirms Dirks and Ferrin's study (2002) which found POS to be second only to Transformational Leadership in a list of eight leader actions and practices that influence workplace trust. It also supports Connell et al.'s (2003) finding of POS having a strong positive impact on Trust in Immediate Manager.

This study did not examine whether Trust in Immediate Manager was a predictor of POS. This may be a question for future researchers to examine. Therefore, Byrne et al.'s suggestion (2011) that the relationship between POS and Trust in Immediate Manager may be reciprocal may hold true.

The Contribution dimension of POS had a greater correlation with Trust in Immediate Manager ($r = .700$) than it did with Well-being ($r = .698$). This was supported by the regression analysis, as the regression weight for Well-being ($\beta = .363$) was less than the regression weight for Contribution ($\beta = .378$). This suggests that Contribution makes a greater contribution to Trust in Immediate Manager than Well-being. The item analysis revealed that the lowest-scoring item in the Trust in Immediate Manager dimension was related to managerial reward for high performance. Therefore, to improve employee trust at this level, it is recommended that managers are encouraged or given the responsibility of rewarding their high-performing staff.

Other areas for future researchers to consider are what may account for the remaining 48%, if POS accounts for 52% of the variance in Trust in Immediate Manager.

5.2.4.3 PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AS A PREDICTOR OF TRUST IN CO-WORKERS

Contribution and Well-being together accounted for just 20% of the variance in Trust in Co-workers, indicating that POS has a much smaller impact on this trust referent than it has on the other two. The 20% variance was found to be both meaningful and significant. The literature review revealed no other study that found a causal relationship between POS as independent variable and trust in co-workers as dependent variable, indicating the value of this research for the field. Ferres et al. (2004) found a relationship between these two dimensions where POS was the dependent variable. This suggests that the relationship between POS and Trust in Co-workers may be reciprocal.

Analysis indicated that Well-being had a greater correlation with Trust in Co-workers ($r = .440$) than Contribution ($r = .415$). This was supported by the regression weight of Well-being ($\beta = .334$) being almost three times the regression weight of Contribution ($\beta = .119$). Of importance was the finding from regression analysis that only the Well-being dimension of POS contributed both meaningfully and significantly to Trust in Co-workers. Co-workers seldom have the mandate to recognise colleagues for their efforts, which may account for the Contribution dimension not contributing meaningfully and significantly to this trust referent. In the research organisation, which is mechanistic and bureaucratic in structure and culture, co-workers do not have formal processes to recognise their colleagues' achievements.

However, other organisations are increasingly using cross-functional teams to achieve organisational goals. Because of the complexity of team functioning, managers may rely on collegial feedback about team members' technical competence and team process skill in assessing subordinate performance in these organisations. In this way, co-workers may be

important in evaluating colleagues' contributions to the organisation. Therefore, it is recommended that future researchers investigate whether the relationship between both the Well-being and Contribution dimensions of POS are significant contributors to Trust in Co-workers in team-based organisations.

5.3. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH TO THE FIELD

This empirical research offers the following contributions to the fields of workplace trust and POS.

The result of the study indicated that workplace trust can be seen as a multi-dimensional construct in a South African sample. As the literature review indicated, the dimensionality of workplace trust has been debated. The dimensions of trust in this study were based on the trust referent. Therefore workplace trust can be examined at the organisational, immediate manager and co-worker level.

The literature review found that previous studies of POS indicated that a uni-dimensional construct provided the best fit. A conceptual distinction between the two aspects of POS led the researcher to question whether a two-dimensional factor structure could be found in a South African sample. This research found that POS can and should be considered a two-dimensional construct, with the two dimensions being employee perceptions that the organisation values their contribution and employee perceptions that the organisation cares for their well-being. In addition, in this study each dimension made a different contribution to the variance in workplace trust. These findings imply that organisations are offered a more sophisticated analysis into the manner in which POS contributes to workplace trust when using a two-dimensional factor structure of POS. Therefore, the research offers more refined

guidance on improving workplace trust through changing employee perceptions of either aspect of the POS dimensions.

The research results found that the contribution of POS to the variance in workplace trust depends on the trust referent. The analysis found that POS had the strongest influence on Trust in Organisation, followed by that on Trust in Immediate Manager, where these dimensions account for the majority of the variance. It found that POS has a small but significant influence on Trust in Co-workers. Of importance, the two-dimensional factor structure of POS provided the insight that it was the Well-being dimension, not the Contribution dimension, of POS that was significant in contributing to the variance in Trust in Co-workers.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH



While every attempt was made to ensure rigour in this study, there were some limitations. These are discussed in this section, along with additional suggestions for future research that may overcome these limitations.

5.4.1 SAMPLING

The research methodology used assumed that employees answered the surveys willingly and honestly. The researcher has no evidence to suggest that this might be otherwise. However, if there was a low level of trust in the research organisation, employees may have been suspicious about the questionnaire and its intentions. As a result, it is possible that only those employees who have a high degree of workplace trust participated in the research, resulting in a sample that is not representative of the population. Therefore, the generalisability of the study may have been influenced.

However, every attempt was made to ensure participant confidence in the study's confidentiality. These attempts included a pilot study, to confirm whether the necessary sense of confidentiality was imparted in the covering email and in the online process, and a multi-method approach for data collection. Future researchers should consider repeating this approach to reduce the likelihood of sampling bias when researching workplace trust.

5.4.2 CONFIDENTIALITY

Web-based surveys' return rate is usually much lower than paper-based surveys (Mikulsky, 2005; Solomon, 2001). However, for the reasons described in chapter 3, a web-based survey methodology was used for this study using a two-tier process to encourage participation. Potential non-managerial participants were emailed a request to participate in the research by their immediate manager. It was hoped that this would improve the response rate. However, it is possible that some employees may have questioned the confidentiality of the survey because their immediate manager was one of the targets of the WTS. While it is not possible to know the positive or negative impact of the two-tier online data collection process, the low overall response rate of 9.8% suggests that this did not overcome the challenge of obtaining a representative sample. Future researchers using web-based surveys should seek alternative ways to increase the response rate.

5.4.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE AND SAMPLE SIZE

The sample size ($N = 212$) does not allow for the study findings to be generalised to the entire population of the research organisation. In addition, the current research used a non-probability sampling method in the form of convenience sampling and, as a result, certain sub-groups may have been under-presented. Future research should attempt to solicit a larger sample. If a future study seeks to generalise the results it should use a different sampling

procedure. It is suggested that random stratified sampling, using paper-based surveys (which have a higher response rate) (Babbie & Mouton, 2009), may produce a greater per cent return and may be more representative of the organisation.

Although a larger sample would allow for generalisability to the research organisation, the current study nevertheless found comparable reliability scores for the variables and their dimensions when compared with previous research. This research may therefore not be generalisable, but it is consistent with previous studies.

5.4.5 RESEARCH PARADIGM

There were many benefits to using the quantitative approach in this study, as described in chapter 3. However, the limitations of this methodology mean that it is difficult to interpret the sample's experience of workplace trust and POS, lessening the usefulness of the research for the research organisation. Future researchers should consider using triangulation, that is, multiple methods and observers to overcome the deficiencies of each (Denzin, 1989 in Babbie & Mouton, 2009), rather than a purely quantitative methodology. This may help them to understand the sample's experiences of trust and support in the workplace, allowing for interpretation of contextual data.

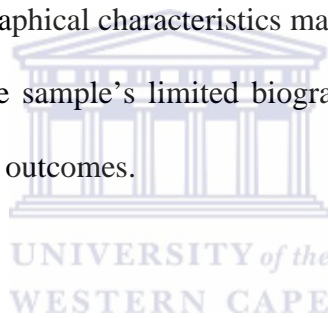
5.4.6 SAMPLE BIOGRAPHICAL VARIANCE

The sample in this study had limited variance in terms of gender, race and home language. A diverse sample would be useful to explore whether workplace trust and POS are evaluated differently by different biographical groups. This research would be particularly useful in the multi-cultural South African context. Future researchers should consider translating the research instruments and covering email into the official South African languages other than

English, to encourage participation from a broader and more diverse sample. In addition, a random stratified sampling process may also allow for a more diverse sample.

It was interesting to note that the predominant language in the sample was Afrikaans, while the research was conducted in English, which is also the business language of the research organisation. Research by van Dyk et al. (2006) suggests that language self-efficacy (non-native speakers' subjective beliefs about their ability to communicate) research impacts positively on POS. Language self-efficacy may therefore have influenced the current research results.

Although this sample had limited diversity, the HR Executive of the research organisation confirmed that the sample's biographical characteristics match the population's characteristics to a large degree. Therefore, the sample's limited biographical variety is unlikely to have significantly affected the research outcomes.



5.5 CONCLUSION

The results of the current research confirmed much of the previous research into the relationship between workplace trust and POS. Using a South African sample, with a three-dimensional construct of workplace trust and a two-dimensional construct of POS, the study found that a positive and significant relationship exists between workplace trust and POS. This is consistent with international research in these areas.

This study made two new contributions. First, it found that in a South African sample, POS can and should be considered as two-dimensional. This is because participants are able to distinguish between those aspects of organisational support that are related to performance-reward expectancies ("Contribution") and those that are related to socio-emotional need

fulfilment (“Well-being”). This two-dimensional model of POS is not prominent in the POS literature.

Second, this study gave new insights into the relationship between co-worker trust and POS. By using the two-dimensional construct for POS, the results of the study indicate that only the Well-being dimension of POS has a significant impact on workplace trust. A literature review did not reveal this finding in previous research, highlighting the value of this study.

In addition, the research results found that POS does not fully mediate co-worker trust. Therefore, an opportunity exists for further research into other antecedents to co-worker trust. These antecedents may be examined at both an organisational and an individual level.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: COVER PAGE FOR CONSOLIDATED QUESTIONNAIRE

EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS SURVEY

INTRODUCTION

Thank you for your interest in completing this survey! This survey will ask for your opinion on a range of issues about:

- your work in general
- your relationship with your boss and
- your relationship with your colleagues.

The information gathered from everyone's answers will be used for my Master's thesis in Industrial/Organisational Psychology Masters at the University of the Western Cape (UWC). My thesis looks at the relationship between people's beliefs about the above-mentioned areas and how much support they believe company gives them. The information will also give [research organisation]'s leadership some insight into how people at [research organisation] experience their working lives. I will give the Executive Committee a summary of the results and you will have access to the results too.

This survey will take you about 15-20 minutes to complete and taking part is entirely voluntary.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please answer every question, following the example below. Note that EACH PART of the survey has DIFFERENT INSTRUCTIONS. Once you have completed it, please send to:

Laura James (Researcher)
 care of [Marketing Manager]
 Client Services
 [research organisation]
 Cape Town

EXAMPLE OF HOW TO ANSWER THE SURVEY

Below is an example of the kind of question the survey asks for, and how you answer it.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Undecided	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
[research organisation] would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions							

- If you are COMPLETELY CERTAIN that [research organisation] WOULD change your working conditions if you had a reasonable request, your answer would be “strongly agree” so you would mark X under “Strongly agree”.
- If you are COMPLETELY CERTAIN that [research organisation] WOULD NOT change your working conditions if you had a reasonable request, so you would mark X under “Strongly disagree”.
- If you are NOT SURE whether [research organisation] would change your working conditions if you had a reasonable request, your answer would be undecided so you would mark X under “Undecided”.
- You can also mark X under “Slightly disagree” or “Slightly agree” if either of these better matches your answer to the statement.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH

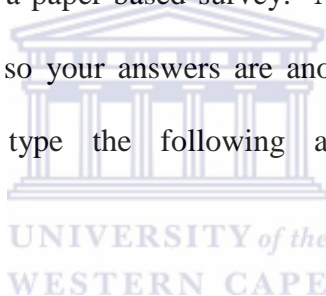
Please note: By choosing to complete this survey, you are providing consent for the information supplied to be used for the purpose as stated in this document.

FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE SURVEY

Below is some further information about the survey. It is a lot to read through! But it should help to answer any questions you have before completing the survey.

PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

All employees at [research organisation] have been requested to volunteer to complete this survey, either online or by using a paper-based survey. Neither the online nor paper-based surveys ask you for your name, so your answers are anonymous. If you would prefer to complete the survey online, type the following address into your web-browser <https://survey.surveymarket.co.za/>



POTENTIAL BENEFITS FOR YOU

[research organisation]'s Executive Committee is interested in what you think about your working life. They understand that this information will help them respond to your needs better and make [research organisation] a better place to work. By participating, you are helping to guide the Executive Committee in making decisions that affect everyone at [research organisation].

TIME

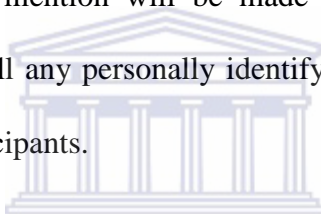
This survey will take about 15 - 20 minutes to complete.

DISCOMFORT AND RISKS

The questions in the survey may ask you to think about aspects of your working life that you hadn't previously considered. I will also ask for some biographical information about you and your job, that will help me to identify if various groups within [research organisation] feel more or less strongly about a particular issue. Because the information is kept anonymous, there are no known negative risks associated with answering this survey.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY MEASURES

I will keep all of the research records, which are anonymous, securely locked in my offices in Wynberg, Cape Town. In my thesis document, as well as any publication or presentation resulting from the research, no mention will be made of [research organisation] as the participating organisation, nor will any personally identifying information be shared, further protecting the privacy of the participants.



COMPENSATION AND VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

There is no compensation for completing the survey. Taking part in this survey is voluntary. You do not have to take part and if you choose to take part, you may stop at any time. If you decide not to participate, or if you stop participating in the research later on, you will not be penalised or lose benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

MY CONTACT INFORMATION FOR QUESTIONS OR CONCERNS

If you have read this far, thank you and I assure you that the rest of the survey will go more quickly! If you have any questions or concerns you would like to discuss with me, in confidence, please contact me via email on laura@parrjames.co.za or call me at my office on (021) 761 6851. You may also contact my thesis supervisor, Ms Marieta van Staden at the University of the Western Cape (UWC), on (021) 959 3175 or mavanstaden@uwc.ac.za.

If you are ready to complete the survey, please turn to the next page...

APPENDIX 2: BIOGRAPHICAL SURVEY

About You

Please answer **all** of the questions.

How old are you (in years)?

_____ years old

Are you male or female?
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Male

Female

Which of the following
ethnographic descriptions best
describes you?
(*For research purposes only.*)
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Asian

Black

Coloured

Indian

White

Prefer not to say

What is your home language?
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Afrikaans

English

Ndebele

Pedi

Southern Sotho

Swazi

Tsonga

Tswana

Venda

Xhosa

Zulu

Other

What is your highest level of education?
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Some schooling
<input type="checkbox"/>	Grade12/Matric
<input type="checkbox"/>	Diploma or undergraduate degree
<input type="checkbox"/>	Post-graduate degree
<input type="checkbox"/>	Professional degree

What is your marital status?
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Single
<input type="checkbox"/>	Married or in a committed partnership
<input type="checkbox"/>	Divorced
<input type="checkbox"/>	Widowed

From the list, please choose which option best describes your job/role.
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Administrative
<input type="checkbox"/>	Technical specialist
<input type="checkbox"/>	First-line supervisor
<input type="checkbox"/>	Manager
<input type="checkbox"/>	Executive or more senior

From the list, please choose which option best describes the job/role of the person you report to (your boss's job).
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Technical specialist
<input type="checkbox"/>	First-line supervisor
<input type="checkbox"/>	Manager
<input type="checkbox"/>	Executive or more senior

How long have you been reporting to your current immediate manager /supervisor?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Months
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Which geographical region do you work in?
(Mark X in the correct box.)

<input type="checkbox"/>	North
<input type="checkbox"/>	East
<input type="checkbox"/>	West

How long have you been working at [the research organisation]?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Months
--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	--------