The relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life

by

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DECLARATION

I, Yolandi van der Berg, declare **"The relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life"** is my own work and all the sources I have utilised or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of full reference.

_____   _____
Signature   Date
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SUMMARY

SUMMARY

Recent organisational changes have refocused attention on the productivity and performance of sales representatives and consequently brought about a re-evaluation of the QWL these employees experience, as well as their trust in the organisation to support them.

Responses to an internet-based survey methodology were analysed using quantitative techniques and structural equation modelling. Results confirm a positive relationship between Managerial Practices and Organisational Trust, and a lower relationship between the dimensions of Personality and Organisational Trust. A positive relationship was noted between QWL and Managerial Practices, and a lower relationship between QWL and the Personality constructs.

This study accentuates the importance of management to be aware of the trust employees have in the organisation as well as their experience of QWL, as it seems as though the Personality traits and Managerial Practices of managers influences both the trust relationship and QWL experienced by employees.

KEYWORDS

Organisational Trust, Quality of Work Life, Structural Equation Modelling, The Big Five Personality, Managerial Practices, Trust relationship

CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This dissertation describes a quantitative study aimed at exploring a relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life.

Chapter 1 serves to introduce the study by highlighting important background information, the purpose of the study, the central research questions and problem statement, the aims, paradigm perspective, research design and method, the motivation or rationale for conducting the research as well as the chapter layout.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

In this constantly changing and time-determined life we are living in today, the quality of everyday existence is influenced by various factors, including work, family, safety and leisure (Ballou & Godwin, 2007; Ellinger & Nissen, 1987; Huang, Lawler & Lei, 2007).

Dissatisfaction with working life is a problem affecting almost all employees during their working career, regardless of position or status. The frustration, tediousness and anger experienced by employees disenchanted with their work life can be costly to both the individual and organisation. Although many managers seek to reduce job dissatisfaction at all organisational levels, including their own, they sometimes find it difficult to isolate and identify all of the attributes, which affect and influence the Quality of Work Life (Huang et al., 2007; May & Lau, 1999; Walton, 1973).

Past research (Kotzé, 2005; Reid, 1992; Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel & Lee, 2001; Skrovan, 1983) indicate Quality of Work Life is not a recent phenomenon, but a broad concept with early origins. It is a term used in virtually every area of organisational activity – in academia, government, labour, and management circles and encompasses not only improvements for employees in modern organisations, but also broader struggles within society.

Cascio (1998), Ellinger and Nissen (1987) and Singhapakdi and Vitell (2007) define Quality of Work Life as the perceptions to which an environment based on mutual respect, supports and encourages individual participation and open communication in matters which affect employees' jobs, business, futures, and their feelings of self-worth. A working career takes up

more than half of daily life, and it is therefore necessary to find new ways to improve, not only the quality of it, but also the factors relating to an employee's perceived Quality of Work Life.

Haung et al. (2007, p. 736) and May and Lau (1999) mention the importance employees have attached to earnings has given way to an increased interest in ways to enrich their Quality of Work Life and that employees expect to gain benefits from their jobs such as "challenge and achievement, career development and growth, balance between work and family life, a harmonious organisational climate and a supportive managerial style".

According to Kaushik and Tonk (2008) and Koonmee, Sanghapakdi, Virakul and Lee (2010), an employee's Quality of Work Life is determined by the interaction of personal and situational factors involving both personal (subjective) and external (objective) aspects of work-related rewards and experiences.

It can thus be derived that one's awareness and evaluation of a situation can also have an influence on the perspective one holds towards that situation. The changes in the ethnic composition of the South African workforce and specifically with regard to changes in beliefs and value systems as well as greater importance placed on knowledgeable workers are according to Kotzé (2005) factors which may influence the Quality of Work Life. Affirmed and emphasised by Martins (2000) and Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) this change in workforce may also lead to an increase in the importance of trust in organisations as perceptions about an individual's ability, benevolence and integrity will have an impact on how much trust the individual can acquire, and will also affect to what extent an organisation will be trusted. Shaw (2005) also affirms the success of Quality of Work Life programmes will depend on the ability of the organisation to reinforce high levels of trust.

According to Lewis, Brazil, Krueger, Lohfield and Tjam (2001) and Nooteboom (2002) trust can have extrinsic value (as basis for achieving social or economic goals) as well as intrinsic value as part of a broader notion of wellbeing or the Quality of Work Life.

As Quality of Work Life is assumed to affect various organisational factors (job effort and performance, organisational identification, job satisfaction, and job involvement) (Ballou & Godwin, 2007) and Organisational Trust is the employee's expectancy in the reliability of the promise and actions of the organisation (Carmeli, 2005; Politis, 2003), the more the job and the organisation can gratify the needs of workers, the more effort workers may invest at work, with commensurate improvements in productivity (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Huang et al., 2007; May & Lau, 1999).

The first part of this dissertation will provide an overview and clarification of Organisational Trust (independent variable) as well as the Quality of Work Life construct (dependant variable) as well as Organisational Trust.

The case organisation can be described as a soft drink or beverage manufacturing, sales and distribution organisation within the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry employing approximately 4 000 staff. The main characteristics of FMCGs are high volume, low margin, extensive distribution networks and high stock turnover (Bala, Prakash & Kumar, 2010; Herbst & Forrest, 2008). Sales representatives are employees within this organisation whose primary goal it is to market and sell the products while maintaining good customer relationships. They are the direct link with the customer, giving out product information, making recommendations for orders, collecting expired and faulty stock and communicating company promotions and are therefore primarily responsible for driving volume and sales.

Recent organisational changes have refocused on the productivity and performance of the sales representatives, specifically with regard to their time spent between the office and the customer. These changes consequently brought about a re-evaluation of the Quality of Work Life these employees experience as well as the trust they can place within the organisation for support.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

It is evident from the above that Quality of Work Life is becoming increasingly important for employees. As Organisational Trust creates meaning in individuals' work environment, it is important to determine the relationship between these two constructs.

To address the above issues, this research was designed to answer the following literature and empirical questions:

- What is the literature underlying the construct of Organisational Trust?

- What is the literature underlying the construct Quality of Work Life?

- Is there a significant relationship between the dimensions of Organisational Trust (Big Five Personality dimensions and Managerial Practices) and Quality of Work Life?

- What are possible recommendations as well as limitations to the study?

1.3   AIM OF THE STUDY

1.3.1   General aim

The general aim of this research was to determine the relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life.

1.3.2   Specific aims

The specific aims relating to the literature review were:

- Conceptualise Organisational Trust

- Conceptualise Quality of Work Life

- Theoretically integrate Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life

In terms of the empirical study the specific aims were to:

- Determine whether or not there is a significant relationship between Organisational Trust (Big Five Personality dimensions and Managerial Practices) and Quality of Work Life within a South African beverage manufacturing, sales and distribution organisation.

- Determine if there is a significant relationship between the Big Five Personality dimensions and trust.

- Integrate the results of the various questionnaires used.

- Formulate and compile recommendations and conclusions based on the results of the study.

1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

A certain paradigm perspective which includes the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources (Lundin, 1996; Mouton & Marais, 1992) directs the research. Pearsall (1999, p. 1033) defines a paradigm as: "A world view underlying the theories and methodology of a scientific subject".

Mouton and Marais (1992) describe a paradigm as scientific achievements which is accepted and recognised by a specific scientific community. They further on view a paradigm as a primary model for the normal practice of science and according to them it includes the following components: (i) Theories or laws of sciences as the core of a paradigm, (ii) methodologies and specific research techniques which need to be accepted by the scientist, (iii) commitments of researchers to quasi-metaphysical assumptions and finally (iv) scientific assumptions.

This research falls within the boundaries of the behavioural sciences and more specifically within the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology. Industrial psychology is based on the "scientific rigour in a quest for understanding human behaviour in industry" (Watkins, 2001, p. 8) as well as an exploration into organisational dynamics and its effect on employee functioning and wellness (Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007).

This study is furthermore part of the humanistic (third force) psychological paradigm, emphasising subjective meaning, rejects determinism and is concerned for positive growth rather than pathology. Humanists believe in the subjectivity of experiences. Any individual would react to their physical perceived realities and to their subjective interpretation of their environment and no two persons would react entirely similar. Each individual is unique and their experiences will subsequently also be unique and subjective. The humanist paradigm also assumes the person and his/her behaviour are regarded as an entity and not divided as many other theorists argue. Personality is the sum of and integration of the physical, mental, psychological and social characteristics including all their attributes and relationships causing the person to function coherently. Furthermore, the humanists believe in the intrinsic goodness (potential) of people and in self-actualisation. They build the paradigm on the belief that people possess the intrinsic ability to grow toward healthy adjustment and maturity while achieving goals through the optimisation of potential. Lastly, the assumption of free will or self-determination holds. It is believed people have a free will and control over what happens to them and should therefore take responsibility for their own lives (Corey, 2005; Lundin, 1996; Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2003).

The market of intellectual resources includes the constructs Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Mouton (2002) and Struwig and Stead (2001) a research design is a blueprint, framework or plan for collecting and using data in order to obtain the desired information with sufficient precision.

This research study made use of descriptive quantitative research and used a cross-sectional research design to answer the research questions. Struwig and Stead (2001) state descriptive research attempts to describe certain researchable phenomena in already defined subject related paradigms whereas exploratory research attempt to develop these paradigms in areas which have not previously been researched.

According to Shaughnessy, Zechmeister and Zechmeister (2003) this design allows for multiple samples to be drawn from the population at one point in time. The findings of this design will help researchers to make predictions as it allows the researcher to describe the differences and characteristics of two or more populations. The challenge with descriptive statistics will be to provide an absolute and truthful description of a situation since exploratory research focuses on using flexible characteristic (Struwig & Stead, 2001).

Fife-Schaw (2002) further describes cross-sectional research as the comparison between subgroups and the discovery of relationships between variables. The cross-sectional research design was most suited for this specific study since the response rates are generally high, it involves eliciting information at a single time from individuals in different conditions and conclusions can be drawn in a short period of time.

Validity represents the quality of a questionnaire in such that it measures what it says it does and reliability represents the consistency of a measurement (Salkind, 2008). In terms of validity and reliability of the research project, specific efforts were made to ensure both questionnaires adhere to content validity (measuring the dimensions it was designed to measure) (Salkind, 2008). The overall reliability of the two questionnaires is provided and internal consistency reliability was estimated by means of the Cronbach alpha, which is a coefficient of reliability.

As far as the approach, an Internet-based survey methodology was used to collect primary data from a probability sample of respondents.

For the purpose of this study, the unit of analysis were individuals within the beverage, manufacturing, sales and distribution organisation and more specific the sales representatives within four regions. Descriptive statistics regarding the demographic sample were generated.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to test the relationship between the various factors or dimensions of Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Amos 18 was furthermore used to determine the relationship between Quality of Work Life and Organisational Trust by means of the following:

- Frequency distributions
- Multiple linear regression
- Path estimates and goodness-of-fit as part of the SEM process

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The research was presented in two phases. Firstly the literature review, followed by the empirical study.

1.6.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review contained the following steps:

Step 1   Background and motivation for this study

Step 2   The conceptualisation of Organisational Trust as an independent variable and construct within this study

Step 3   The conceptualisation of Quality of Work Life as a dependent variable and construct within this study

Step 4   The theoretical integration of Quality of Work Life and Organisational Trust

1.6.2   Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study contained the following steps:

Step 1:   Selection and description of population, sample and participants

Step 2:   Selection, adaptation and rationale of the measuring instruments

Step 3:   Data collection method

Step 4:   Statistical analysis of the data and formulation of hypothesis

Step 5:   Reporting and interpretation of results

Step 6:   Integration and discussion of results

Step 7:   Conclusions

Step 8:   Limitations and recommendations

1.7   CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 2   Organisational Trust

Chapter 3   Quality of Work Life

                The theoretical integration of constructs: Trust and Quality of Work Life

Chapter 4   Research methodology

Chapter 5   Results

Chapter 6   Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 1 the scientific background to the research was discussed. This contained the background and motivation, the research problem, aims, the paradigm perspective, the research design and method. The chapter ended with the chapter layout.

Chapter 2 will provide the background and conceptualisation of Organisational Trust as independent variable.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANISATIONAL TRUST

Chapter 2 contains the definition and dimensions of Organisational Trust as well as its role within the organisational context.

2.1 DEFINING TRUST

When reviewing literature on trust it is clear there has been a resurgence in the study of trust and vast amounts have been written on this topic.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) reviewed articles on trust which were written over four decades before the turn of the millennium. They came to the conclusion trust was a difficult concept to define as it was complex and multifaceted and had different bases and degrees depending on the context of the trust relationship. Büssing (2002, p. 36) supports this view by stating trust is "not at all a straightforward and clearly defined concept".

Recent research however, has refocused attention on defining and clarifying the trust concept on both international and national level (Bachman & Zaheer, 2006; Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Bews & Martins, 2002; Holtzhausen, 2009; Kaushik & Tonk, 2008; Thaver, 2010; Von der Ohe, Martins & Roode, 2004; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).

From the various literature reviews, the definitions on trust can be divided into four groups. The first one involves personality theorists, concerned with individual difference, emphasising the nature of trust as a personality trait which is developed as a response dependent on personal experiences and previous socialisation – i.e. it is socially learned in various institutions and an integral part of human lives (Luhmann, 1979; Rotter, 1971; Wrightsman, 1966). The second group involves research conducted on the actual act of trusting (experimental research) (Riker, 1971; Zand, 1997). The third theoretical overview emphasises trust as a social reality with the focus on the conceptualisation of trust as collective unit (Coleman, 1990; Luhmann, 1979) and the last research group focuses on trust within an organisational context and has sparked a lot of interest within recent years (Bachmann & Zaheer, 2006; Currall & Epstein, 2003; Martins & Von der Ohe, 2002; Shaw 2005).

Definitions of trust have furthermore been proposed from various contexts, such as individual expectations, interpersonal relationships, economic exchanges, social structures and ethical principles (Den Hartog, Shippers & Koopman, 2002) and most commonly focuses on trust as a psychological phenomenon (Clark & Payne, 1997).

From a personality theorist's perspective, Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2004) describe trust as a social phenomenon, based on a history of interaction which can either be tentative or enduring but always representing a risk to the person trusting, of which its propensity differs from person to person.

Shaw (1997, p. 21) in turn defines trust as the "belief that the people in whom you trust will measure up to your expectations" and is built on the "degree to which those expectations are actualised and the degree of integrity within a relationship".

In relation to this, but contributing more to the third group of definitions on trust (social reality) trust is described by Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998, p. 395) and supported by Büssing (2002) as "a psychological state comprising the intentions or behaviour of another".

From a more organisational perspective, Zand (1997, p. 91) defines trust as the "willingness to increase your vulnerability to another person whose behaviour you cannot control, in a situation in which your potential benefits are much less than your potential loss if the other person abuses your vulnerability". Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995), Nooteboom (2002), Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2004) as well as Kreitner and Kinicki (1995, p. 342) support this definition and add to this, stating it is a "reciprocal faith in another person's intentions and behaviour". Bäckström's (2008, p. 21) definition of trust is similar and defines it as follows: "trust concerns one party's confidence in an exchange partner". It thus implies a willingness to choose to trust another person, even when there are calculated risks involved.

Lämsä and Pučėtaitė (2006, p. 131) describe Organisational Trust as "the degree to which managers hold a positive attitude towards employees' reliability and goodwill in a risky situation and vice versa".

Reina and Reina (1999, p. 11) in turn, describes trust as "a relationship of mutual confidence in contractual performance, honest communication, expected competence and a capacity for unguarded satisfaction".

Martins (2000, p. 28) and Von der Ohe and Martins (2010) coalesced all the above but define trust as a "process where a trustor relies on a trustee (person or group of people) to act according to specific expectations that are important to the trustor without taking advantage of the vulnerability of the trustor".

Certain characteristics such as integrity, benevolence, competence, openness, vulnerability, reliability, consistency in behaviour and expectations have emerged from the various models and definitions of the trust concept (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Clark & Payne, 1997; Martins, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995).

Trust can therefore be regarded as a multidimensional construct, consisting of a cognitive (belief about another's trustworthiness), affective (role of emotions in the trust process) and behavioural (relying on another and disclosing sensitive information) base (Büssing, 2002;

Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Rousseau et al., 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). The adapted Table 1 was originally compiled by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) and summarises the range of definitions of trust as well as their recurring themes and facets from as early as 1958. This table also led Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000, p. 556) to a multidimensional definition of trust namely: "Trust is one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open".

Table 2.1

Definitions of trust

Definition	Willing vulnerability	Benevolence	Reliability	Competence	Honesty	Openness
Trust is an expectation by an individual in the occurrence of an event such that that expectation leads to behaviour which the individual perceived would have greater negative consequences if the expectation was not confirmed than positive consequences off it was confirmed (Deutsch, 1958, p. 266).	x	x				
Interpersonal trust is an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon (Rotter, 1967, p. 651).			x		x	
Trust consists of actions that increase one's vulnerability to another whose behaviour is not under one's control 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 (Zand, 1971, p. 230).	x	x				
Trust is the placing of a person's outcomes under the partial or complete control of another, with the expectation that the other will respond so as to maximise goal attainment or minimise negative outcomes (Ellison & Firestone, 1974, p. 655). Operationally defined as the willingness to disclose highly intimate information about oneself to a prospective interviewer.	x	x				x
Trust is an expectancy held by an individual that the behaviour of another person or a group will be altruistic and personally beneficial (Frost, Stimpson, & Maughan, 1978, p. 103).		x				
The multidimensionality of trust.., include[s] (a) integrity, honesty and truthfulness; (b) competence, technical and interpersonal knowledge and skills required to do one's job; (c) consistency, reliability, predictability, and good judgment in handling situations; (d) loyalty or benevolent motives, willingness to protect and save face for a person; (e) openness or mental accessibility, willingness to share ideas and information freely (Butler & Cantrell, 1984, p. 19).		x	x	x	x	x
Trust is a work group's generalised expectancy that the words, actions and promises of another individual, group or organisation can be relied upon.., and that the trusted person will act in one's best interest (Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985).		x	x		x	
Trust is the reliance on other's competence and willingness to look after, rather than harm, things one care about which are entrusted to their care. Trust is accepted vulnerability to another's possible but not expected ill will toward one (Baier, 1986, pp. 259, 236).	x	x		x		
Trust... is a particular level of the subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action... When we say we trust someone or that someone is trustworthy, we implicitly mean that the probability that he will	x	x				

Definition	1	2	3	4	5	6
perform an action that is beneficial or at least not detrimental to us is high enough for us to consider engaging in some form of cooperation with him (Gambetta, 1988, p. 217).						
Trust is defined as a type of expectation that alleviates the fear that one's exchange partners will act opportunistically. It is characterized by a cognitive 'leap' beyond the expectations that reason and experience alone would warrant: where opportunism might be rationally expected, trust prevails (Bradach & Eccles, 1989, p. 104).	x	x				
A rational actor will place trust if the ratio of p (the probability that the trustee is trustworthy) to 1-p is greater than the ratio of potential loss if the trustee is untrustworthy to potential gain if the trustee is trustworthy (Coleman, 1990, p. 99).	x					
Trust is the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest, and cooperative behaviour, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of that community (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 26).		x	x		x	
Trust is the expectation by one person, group, or firm of ethically justifiable behaviour--that is, morally correct decisions and actions based upon ethical principles of analysis--on the part of the other person, group, or firm in a joint endeavour or economic exchange (Hosmer, 1995, p. 399).		x			x	
Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712).	x		x	x		
Trust is an individual's belief or a common belief among a group of individuals that another individual or group (a) makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit or implicit, (b) is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments, and (c) does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available (Cummings & Bromily, 1996, p. 4).		x	x		x	
Trust is one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the belief that the latter party is (a) competent, (b) reliable, (c) open, and (d) concerned (Mishra, 1996, p. 265).	x	x	x	x		x
Trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burr, & Camerer, 1998, p. 395).	x	x	x		x	
Trust is the process where a trustor relies on a trustee (person or group of people) to act according to specific expectations that are important to the trustor without taking advantage of the vulnerability of the trustor (Martins, 2000, p. 22).	x	x	x		x	x
Trust is the choice to make oneself vulnerable with the express belief in the positive intent and commitment to the mutual gain of all parties involved in the relationship (Von der Ohe et al., 2004, p. 6).	x	x	x		x	x

Adapted from "A Multidisciplinary Analysis of the Nature, Meaning, and Measurement of Trust", by M Tschannen-Moran and W.K Hoy, 2000, Review of Educational Research, *70* (4), 547-593.

From the above table, *benevolence* emerges as the strongest recurring theme, followed by *willing vulnerability* and *reliability.* This indicates that trust not only involves a disposition to perform kind acts but also involves an openness to rely on others. From these definitions, trust furthermore emerges as a dynamic phenomenon which depends on the interchange of various factors.

At this point it is also noteworthy to distinguish between trust (on the part of the trustor) and trustworthiness (on the side of the trustee). Although these concepts are related, trust entails an action i.e. it is an evaluation of the quality of a person or organisation as a trustee, whereas trustworthiness suggests an evaluative process governing the degree of trust i.e. evaluating how much trust to put in the trustee (Bews & Uys, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995; Nooteboom, 2002; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2004).

Adding to this, Ferres and Travaglione (2003, p. 4) noted trust involves more than just the formation of another's trustworthiness – it also involves a "willingness to act under uncertain conditions".

From the above it can thus be construed that a wide variety of definitions exist to define trust and specifically Organisational Trust. Despite the differentiations in conceptualisations, there are a number of common elements unifying the many different definitions of trust. In particular there seems to be an agreement that trust is "the willingness to be vulnerable based on the positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of others" (Mayer et al. 1995, p. 712). Secondly, it seems that for trust to develop, interdependence and uncertainty are necessary conditions. McEvily, Weber, Bicchieri and Ho (2006, p. 54) conceptualised trust as a "choice to make oneself vulnerable under the conditions of interdependence and uncertainty".

In line with the above and taking into account this research study is done within an organisational context, the definition provided by Von der Ohe et al. (2004, p. 6) restricted specifically to the field of industrial psychology and the employer-employee relationship will be used by the author in combination with the above. Organisational Trust for the purpose of this research study is therefore defined as "the choice to make oneself vulnerable with the express belief in the positive intent and commitment to the mutual gain of all parties involved in the relationship".

Further exploration of trust will include its dimensions, elements and influence on the working relationship.

2.2 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST

Mayer et al. (1995, p. 711) states "one of the difficulties that has hindered previous research on trust has been a lack of clear differentiation among factors that contribute to trust, trust itself (the act of trusting), and outcomes of trust".

Brenkert (1998), Lämsä and Pučėtaitė (2006) and Schoorman et al. (2007) argue trust is an aspect of a relationship (an attitude) and not a trait-like disposition, meaning it varies within a person and across relationships.

Clark and Payne (1997) proposed a conceptual model resting on the distinctions between individuals' specific orientations, and generalised attitudes to trust. Mayer et al. (1995 p. 712) in turn proposed a model of trust which addressed the antecedents and outcomes of trust. Both these models however highlight the distinction between trust as a "state of mind that influences the wellbeing of employees" and trust as "an action or overt behaviour".

Trust has several dimensions, entailing a complex of meanings and conditions (Nooteboom, 2002).

Thaver (2010, p. 149) argues trust involves and applies to two levels, namely it relates to individuals and secondly it is "vested in 'abstract capacities' (institutional processes and knowledge)" – in other words, the trust placed in systems, processes, institutions and immediate surroundings.

According to various literatures (Bews & Martins, 2002; Hay, 2002; Lämsä & Pučėtaitė, 2006, Martins, 2000; Nooteboom, 2002; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2004; Schoorman et al., 2007; Whitener, 1997), three common characteristics of trust can be distinguished, namely:

- Trust in another party reflects a belief the other party will act benevolently.
- Trust involves a willingness to be vulnerable and a risk that the other party may not fulfil the expectation of benevolent behaviour.
- Trust involves dependence between the parties, meaning their performance is influenced by each other.

Focusing on identifying the elements used by a trustor to evaluate the trustworthiness of a trustee when deciding how much trust to put in the trustee, Bews and Uys (2002) identified the following five facilitators of trustworthiness:

- Benevolence
- Competency
- Integrity
- Personality factors
- Openness

Shaw (1997) furthermore postulates trust influences performance on four levels namely:

- Organisational success: Trust is required to empower employees and groups to act on various objectives.

- Group effectiveness: In order to realise a common goal, groups depend on the interdependency of people to work together. High levels of trust are needed for advanced performance.

- One-on-one collaboration: People need to trust one another when working directly with others. This will enable information sharing, taking necessary risks and dealing effectively with adversity.

- Individual credibility: Trust in employees is required for people to perform their jobs and will influence the degree to which people are given autonomy, resources and support. Support is usually given to people believed to be trustworthy.

Bell (2001) identified the following factors as elements of trust:

- Authenticity (Genuine intent, credible motives).

- Credibility disposition belief (Competence, right credential, correct conduct. Other party is able and willing).

- Communication (Task information and personal, empathy focus).

- Information (Disclosing timely, accurate information).

- Influence dependence belief; fulfilment belief (Exposure to being influenced in decision-making. Goal to be achieved, due to added input from other party and necessity of other party's input.

- Control competence belief (Dependence and vulnerability in belief. Evaluation that the other party's input is necessary.

A distinction can also be made between cognition-based and affect-based Organisational Trust, where the cognitive component of trust refers to an evaluative belief, founded on evaluative predictions and calculations as well as knowledge about the other actor – meaning it is a rational appraisal based on the perception that managers trust their employees because they acted in a trustworthy way in the past and can be expected to do so in the future. Affective component is related to the emotional or sentimental side of trust, referring to more proactive behaviour from both parties. Affect-based trust may result in organisational citizenship behaviour, which means a stronger identification with the organisation and a

feeling of being valued. Affect-based trust is consequently needed to achieve sustainable organisational development (Lämsä & Pučėtaitė, 2006; Schoorman et al., 2007).

Interesting enough, various researchers has indicated an overlap in the functioning between trust and organisational commitment (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler & Martin, 1997; Büssing, 2002; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamain, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997) identifying two approaches to commitment, namely affective commitment (attachment to the organisation and level of additional effort put into work) and instrumental commitment (focus on the idea of exchange and continuance).

Moving from the dimensions of trust to the development of Organisational Trust it is important to take into account whether or not the perceived intentions of employees are endorsed by the organisation, whether or not the necessary means and organisational conditions are available to perform according to expectations and whether external conditions allow for trust.

2.3   THE DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST

According to Shaw (1997) trust is the key constituent of any relationship and an understanding is formed when both parties decide to take the risk to become directly involved with each other in influencing the personal outcomes of this understanding.

This understanding or trust relationship develops over a period of time and through a succession of stages (Binikos, 2006; Holtzhauzen, 2009).

Currall and Epstein (2003) proposed the "evolutionary phases of trust" (Figure 2.1), to depict the development of trust. As indicated in Figure 2.1, when any relationship is initiated, trust starts at the zero mark. Since the parties to the relationship do not have enough information about their counterpart's trustworthiness, there is "neither trust nor distrust". McKnight and Chervany (2006) however note this initial trust phase is very important as many critical tasks or transactions are done in this phase which may have a direct impact on the level of trust being developed. This first phase trust or initial trust is an important indicator as to what the parties in the relationship can accomplish together. As the relationship evolves through the first phase, the "Building trust phase", work is done to secure the relationship and make it stronger through trust-building actions. Long, Sitkin and Cardinal (2003, p. 13) define trust-building activities as "mechanisms that individuals use to assure others of their capabilities, their interest in accommodating others' needs and their willingness to fulfil promises made to others" and indicates these activities should be used to promote positive subordinate evaluations.

Trust grows steadily until it reaches the "maintaining trust phase". During this phase the trust relationship is kept fairly constant with minor variation. If either one of the parties

compromises the relationship by eroding the trust, the relationship moves immediately into the "destroyed trust phase". During this phase the trust level falls quickly to below the zero mark to the level of distrust and it will take huge efforts from the party who broke the trust to get the level back to the zero mark of starting point again (Curall & Epstein, 2003).
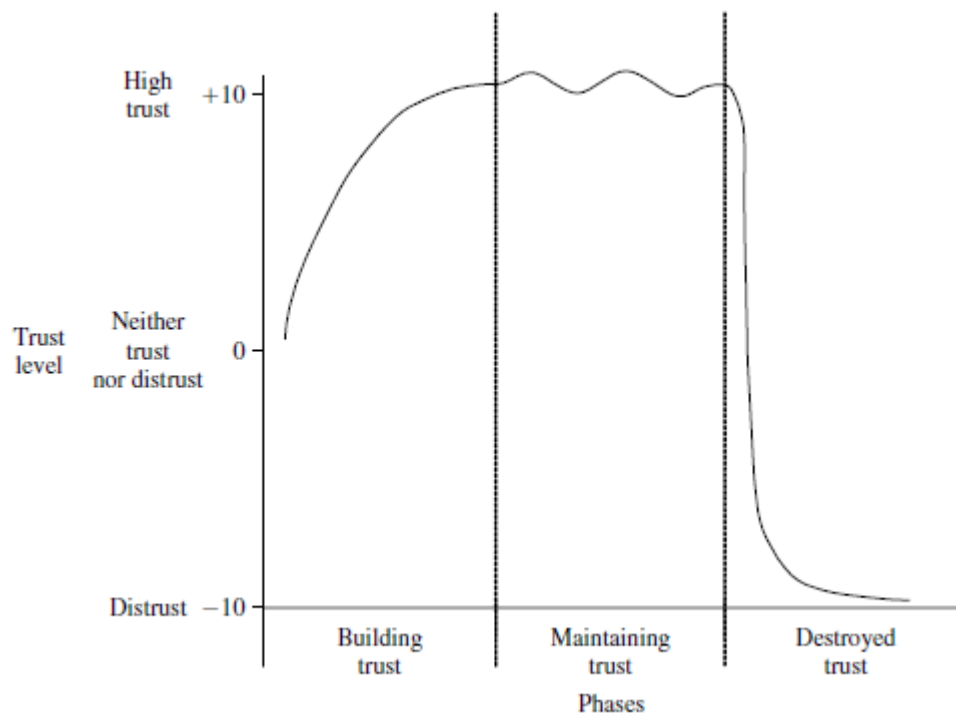
Figure 2.1: Evolutionary phases of trust (Currall & Epstein, 2003)

Currall and Inkpen (2006) furthermore propose there is interchange of interpersonal, intergroup and inter-Organisational Trust, especially during the developing trust phase and trust at the interpersonal level can impact trust at the intergroup level which in turn can influence trust at an inter-organisational level.

Evaluating the risk of Organisational Trust is based on characteristics within the organisation which promotes its level of trustworthiness (Binikos, 2006).

People build up reliance with the organisations they work for. In employee-organisation relationships where trust is high, the employees trust the organisation to look after their interests and they remain willing to be vulnerable to treatment by the organisation (Bordia, Restubog, Jimmieson & Irmer, 2007). Any violation of this trust could be harmful to the existence of the organisation. Employees who feel they have been betrayed will often look for opportunities for revenge and in this instance they can no longer be relied upon to act in the interests of the organisation (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2004).

According to Dirks (2006), there are two challenges to repairing broken trust. Firstly there is the extent of the effort necessary to rebuild the trust, which may be more than the initial development of trust, given the violation causes trust to plunge below its initial level (refer to Figure 2.1). Secondly, the mistrusted parties must not only re-establish positive expectations, but also overcome negative expectations from events which may remain significant over time.

Nooteboom (2002) is also of the opinion that most people would rather have trust-based relations than relations based on doubt and opportunism. Ideally the expectation is that the relationships people have continue in the maintenance of trust phase, as suggested by Currall and Epstein (2003) and avoids broken or destroyed trust. According to Neves and Caetano (2006), trust evolves from the successive exchange of benefits between individuals. They state further this exchange involves unspecified responsibilities for which no binding agreement can be written.

Holtzhausen (2009) explored a number of important factors that are critical to the development of trust in an organisational context - the first one being trust will only develop in a specific social organisation which is conducive to its development. Elements that make up the social environment and which will have an influence on its development includes communication systems and structures, relationships and hierarchies and the way tasks are achieved.

As already clarified, trustworthiness will have an impact on the development of trust within an organisation as it refers to a concept that can be developed and enhanced. Factors promoting trustworthiness within an organisation includes reliability, integrity, honesty, openness and competence, a concern for employees and identification (Binikos, 2006; Paine, 2003).

Another explanation of the development of trust can be found in the developmental model of three sequentially linked types of trust (three-stage framework) devised by Lewicki and Bunker (1996) namely, calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust and identification-based trust. Calculus-based trust refers to "a calculation of the benefits of or rewards for preserving trust, or the avoidance of punishment or detriment as a result of the violation of trust" (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996, p. 119) and is based on the belief that people will do what they say they will do. They are of the opinion the prevention-seeking elements are stronger motivators than the benefit-seeking elements and argues trust in its development is most sensitive at this stage as there is little prior knowledge of behaviour on both sides should the relationship become threatening and a party would be less willing to pursue the risks of engagement. Binikos (2006) adds to this by stating calculus-based trust is the first stage in the development of trust within an organisation and trust during this stage is particularly partial and fragile.

Knowledge-based trust (always preceded by calculus-based trust) is based on an established relationship that has grown out of calculus-based trust where more knowledge is available to both parties regarding the relationship and its trustworthiness. It is therefore based on the

availability of more information (knowledge) regarding the relationship which in turn contributes to the predictability of behaviour, intentions and actions of parties involved in the trust relationship. Knowledge-based trust is sustained by ongoing communication (ensuring relationship building) as well as comprehension of the various elements of trust i.e. when it will be violated or enhanced (Binikos, 2006; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

The third stage, identification-based trust, is based on the identification with the other party's desires and intentions and appreciation of each other's wants – resulting in a general understanding between both parties. According to Binikos (2006) trust at this level is strong enough to allow one party to represent the other in its absence. According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996, p. 123) it enables both parties to "think like, feel like and respond like" the other.

According to Binikos (2006) trusts develops chronological and moves from calculus-based trust to knowledge-based trust, and then to identification-based trust. During this development it is important to note not all relationships of trust will reach maturity as it is dependent on how various forces will impact them. There is also an overlap between these stages of development as each one develops into the next. This change-over from one stage to the next is characterised by a paradigm shift and may be facilitated by an interface between individuals and the factors of trustworthiness (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

The comprehension of how trust develops will support the understanding of how trust relationships in an organisation develop and how they are broken down.

2.4   TRUST WITHIN THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

Various literature emphasise the increasing importance of trust in organisations (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Bews & Rossouw, 2002; Büssing, 2002; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Salamon & Robinson, 2008) and agree trust is highly beneficial to the functioning of organisations.

In our current organisational world of rapid change, loss of confidence, increasing risks and decreasing certainties, trust is an important phenomenon within an organisation and "a vital component of effective working relationships" (Büssing, 2002; Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007, p. 918). Bachmann and Zaheer (2006, p. 1) term trust a "core theme of organisational analysis and management as a whole".

According to Hay (2002) and Lämsä and Pučėtaitė (2006) the importance of trust in organisations is likely to increase over the next few years and reiterated by Bews and Rossouw (2002) and Martins (2000) specifically in South Africa, due to the changing workforce composition and focus on employment equity. A study conducted by Klein (2008) indicated trust in the South African government dropped by 7,91% since April 2006 and

dropped 20% on the approval of government issues such as transparency and accountability, correct appointments, crime, inflation, narrowing the income gap and fighting corruption. Organisations often do not realise the consequences their actions has on the trust relationship between the employee and employer (Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

Trust has been implicated in various organisational initiatives and benefits, such as management of change (Drucker, 1999; Harvey & Brown, 2001), job satisfaction (Bhattacharya & Divinney, 1998), teamwork (Bews & Martins, 2002; Schlechter & Strauss, 2008), diversity (Büssing, 2002), procedural fairness (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005), improved organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, team performance and overall increased organisational performance and effectiveness (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Kraft, Engelbrecht & Theron, 2004; Lau, Lam & Salamon, 2008; Salamon & Robinson, 2008; Schlechter & Strauss, 2008).

Charlton (2000), Martins (2000) and Shaw (1997) identified the impact of trust to be most relevant in organisational elements such as leadership, relationships, conflict, change, communication and diversity management. This is confirmed in research done by Martins and Von der Ohe (2002) in South African organisations, indicating high relationships between trust and job satisfaction, relationships and leadership which furthermore indicate trust is created by leadership which in turn influences relationships and job satisfaction.

According to Long and Sitkin (2006), research have shown key elements for enhancing organisational effectiveness are dependent on managers' efforts to build trust between employees and the organisation.

Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2004) and Flores and Solomon (1998) state trust normally only becomes an issue once it has been abused. Nooteboom (2002) argues in order to trust an organisation, employees must look at its interests and intentions and how they are imbedded in culture and implemented in organisational roles, motivation and control.

Within South Africa numerous researchers have stressed the importance of trust in work relationships. According to Martins (2000) and Engelbrecht and Cloete (2000) the socio-political history of South Africa has created a social environment characterised by extreme mistrust between people. Martins (2000) and Esterhuizen and Martins (2008) reiterate this by stating there is a comprehensible trust gap between employees and employers, especially when considering the impact and response of employees on employment equity, organisational justice, culture, work ethics, language, time management and all the other prejudices influencing the relationship between employee and employer.

Confirming the above, Cyster (2005) found significant differences with regard to the level of trust between the results of some biographical groups within a South African organisation:

- In some business units the personal trust between supervisors and subordinates were much higher than in other.
- With regard to job grades, significant differences were found between all five of the trust dimensions with management being the most positive group and the more skilled and qualified employees the most negative group.

However, in a longitudinal study from 2008 to 2009 regarding the role of trust during change, Von der Ohe and Martins (2010, p. 7) explored the significance between two sample time periods for the various dimensions of trust within South African organisations in different economic sectors and found no significant differences between these time periods. According to the authors these findings could be a result of the increased economic and financial pressure on companies during the second half of 2008 which might have compelled management to focus more on "the measured dimensions in order to maintain a positive relationship and profitability" and concluded that this might be an indication of the stability of trust during change.

There are a number of compelling reasons why organisations need to attend to trust. Firstly, trust is expensive. An organisation depends on its employees to care for its assets. When an employee no longer trusts the business, this can lead to feelings of betrayal leading to opportunities where the employee no longer acts in the best interest of the business. A second reason is the fact that trust facilitates co-operation. Flatter structures demand more interaction and cooperation within teams and as research has shown trust is a condition for teamwork. Thirdly, trust promotes loyalty and credibility within an organisation as it entails a relationship between at least two people (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2004; Nooteboom, 2002; Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2004) indicates a state of distrust within organisations can lead to a disturbing condition which can threaten existing relationships and practices and argues that in recent years, a number of factors have served to undermine trust within an organisation i.e.:

- Globalisation: As organisations had to expand their activities, employees had to deal with an increasing number of colleagues, suppliers and customers from other cultures. Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2004) believe although this diversity has had huge benefits for the business, Organisational Trust has not benefited as much from this.
- Less job security: Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2004) found the decline in job security over the last few decades has contributed greatly to the loss of trust within an organisation as employees experience a sense of betrayal when losing their jobs and become less willing to trust a new employer who might treat them in the same way.

- Flatter company structures: To adapt to the changing environment, organisations had to become more flat indicating fewer layers of authority with more flexible job descriptions. The nature of these volatile working conditions can jeopardise trust offered by long term stable working conditions.

In a work USA survey conducted by Watson Wyatt Worldwide Research in 2002 it was found the trust levels between the employees and senior management were falling, resulting in only 30% of employees trusting their senior managers (Von der Ohe et al., 2004). Although the findings of this survey was confined to North America, Von der Ohe et al. (2004, p. 5) argues that due to South Africa's volatile political and economic environment as well as the challenges facing organisations after the 1994 election i.e. "increasing shareholder value, increasing productivity and managing diversity while competing in an aggressive global market", assisted in establishing a culture of mistrust within South African organisations.

According to Von der Ohe et al. (2004) the symptoms of a disrupted trust relationship include an increase in labour turnover, unmotivated workers, strikes, sabotage as well as the loss of production.

In examining the impact of demographics on the trust relationship, Bews and Uys (2002), Den Hartog et al. (2002), Hay (2002) and Lau et al. (2008) found lower level employees have less trust in their supervisors than those at higher job levels. An interesting finding by Bews and Uys (2002) was that employees over the age of 52 were more positively inclined towards management than younger employees. Von der Ohe and Martins (2010), however, found no significant differences between job levels, although they concluded these findings may be a result of their longitudinal study being done across sectors and not just within one organisation.

Shaw (1997, p. 7) suggests trust is a key competitive issue for organisations, playing a critical role in the organisational responses such as: "empowering individuals and teams; horizontal business processes; business-unit autonomy and power; cross-group collaboration; alliances and joint ventures; real-time organisational learning".

Kroukamp (2008) also reiterates the importance of trust within South African institutions, specifically within government, as vital in achieving stability and development in every nation as it enhances confidence and cooperation within institutions.

In the development of a model of trust within an organisation, various researchers have focused on different aspects and dimensions of trust. Mayer et al. (1995) considered and proposed the inclusion of the characteristics of both the trustee and trustor. Shaw (1997) in turn identified organisational culture, organisational architecture and leadership practices, as key leverage points in building high-trust organisations and teams, and argued the key imperatives needed to build trust are achieving results, acting with integrity, and demonstrating concern. Lämsä and Pučėtaitė (2006) also emphasise the importance in

understanding the cultural context, and particularly the work morale when investigating Organisational Trust.

Research investigating the possible antecedents by the Centre of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa during 1995/1996 led to the assumption that trust within organisations is most probably created by Personality factors and Managerial Practices. The Personality factors are agreeableness, conscientiousness, resourcefulness, emotional stability and extraversion; the Managerial Practices are information sharing, work support, credibility and team management (Martins, Watkins, Von der Ohe & De Beer, 1997).

Personality refers to a set pattern of characteristics, thoughts, feelings and behaviours which differentiates one person from another and persists over time and situations (Phares, 1991) and the five-factor model of Personality (Big Five) is a generic template which can be used for understanding the structure of Personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Kaushik & Tonk, 2008).

In a study investigating the relation of the Big Five Personality dimensions on job performance, Barrick and Mount (1991) and Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001, p. 11) confirmed the five Personality characteristics i.e. agreeableness, conscientiousness, extroversion, resourcefulness and stability, explain a significant proportion of work performance within a work environment and has "provided a comprehensive yet parsimonious theoretical framework to systematically examine the relationship between specific personality traits and job performance".

Meta-analyses have found conscientiousness and emotional stability are related to supervisory ratings of job performance and training success across occupational groups (Salgado, 2002).

In the development of a trust model, Martins (2000) and Martins and Martins (2002) also identified the Big Five Personality aspects (Robbins, 1996) as significant indicators of trust - and results provided support that the Personality characteristics, together with the Managerial Practices – information sharing, work support, credibility and team management – have an influence on the trust relationships between managers and employees.

Martins (2000, p. 29), defined the five factors as follow:

- Conscientiousness (C): Conscientiousness is described as the degree to which an individual is persevering, responsible and organised (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2001). It is also associated with dependability, achievement striving, and planfulness (Barrick et al., 2001). Within the working context, conscientiousness refers to being alert, responsible, thorough and industrious. These are typical of behaviour in an environment with high trust levels (Martins, 2000, p. 29).

- Agreeableness (A): This is described by Martins (2000, p. 29) as "being liked, courteous, good natured, cooperative, forgiving and soft-hearted". It consists of cooperation, trustfulness, compliance and affability (Barrick et al., 2001). Agreeableness differentiates itself from the other Big Five Personality factors with its involvement in maintaining harmonious social relations (Kaushik & Tonk, 2008).

- Emotional stability (N): Emotional stability is described by Martins (2000, p. 29) as an "absence of anxiety, depression, anger, worry and insecurity. Also known as neuroticism, a study by Birch and Kamali (2001) has shown a positive relationship between emotional stability and job stress.

- Resourcefulness (O): Also known as "openness to experience", it is defined as "imaginativeness, creativeness, broad-mindedness and intelligence" (Martins, 2000, p. 29). Kaushik and Tonk (2008) relate resourcefulness to certain aspects of intelligence such as divergent thinking which contributes to creativity.

- Extraversion (E): Martins (2000, p. 29) terms extraversion as "sociability, friendliness, talkativeness and activity". According to Barrick et al. (2001) it consists of sociability, dominance, ambition, positive emotionality and excitement-seeking.

The Managerial Practices included (Von der Ohe et al., 2004, p. 17):

- Information sharing: The willingness to give individual feedback on performance and to reveal company related information in an honest manner.

- Work support: The willingness to support employees when needed and to provide job-related information for the accomplishment of objectives.

- Credibility: Willingness to listen, consider proposals, allow others the freedom to express feelings, tolerate mistakes and ensure employees enjoy prestige and credibility in the organisation.

- Team management: The effective management of team and individual goal accomplishments and the handling of conflict within groups.

In a recent longitudinal study of trust, Von der Ohe and Martins (2010) included two additional dimensions within the Managerial Practices, namely:

- Organisational trust (interpersonal trust) which focuses on the trust relationship between top management, the immediate manager and colleagues.

- Changes that have occurred, which measures participants' satisfaction with changes which had occurred within their organisations.

From the above literature overview, the importance of trust within an organisation cannot be argued. However, an interesting study published in the Handbook of Trust, conducted by Gargiulo and Ertug (2006, p. 165) in what they name "The dark side of trust" explores the consequences of excessive trust. They argue excessive trust is detrimental in the following ways:

- Although trust reduces gathering and processing costs by reducing the need for monitoring and vigilance, they believe it can lead to "blind faith" which will increase the risk of misconduct.
- Trust leads to greater satisfaction with and commitment to a relationship, but Gargiulo and Ertug (2006) believe this can also lead to complacency and the acceptance of "less than satisfactory outcomes" from the relationship.
- Although trust leads to increased communication and information, Gargiulo and Ertug (2006) believe it can also guide the way to "over-embedded relationships which create unnecessary obligations between parties".

This relates directly to the importance of maintaining a balance within an organisation and becomes significant, especially when looking at the Quality of Work Life an employee experiences within an organisation.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 2, Organisational Trust as a construct was discussed. This chapter contained the definition and dimensions of Organisational trust as well as an elaborate discussion of the trust concept within an organisational context.

This literature overview links to the notion that Organisational Trust is not necessarily an interpersonal form of trust but rather a systems form of trust deriving from structures and processes within an organisation such as fairness and perceived organisational support (Bagraim & Hime, 2007) which relates back to the Quality of Work Life an employee experiences within the organisation.

The concept and importance of Quality of Work Life as a construct within an organisation will be explored in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a construct which deals with the wellbeing of employees – it is a people-orientated process which places great emphasis on the human relations within a work environment (Reid, 1992; Sirgy et al., 2001; Skrovan, 1983).

Chapter 3 examines the nature and importance of QWL within an organisation, attempts to clarify definitions of QWL, elaborates on the dimensions of QWL, explores QWL within the organisational context and finally considers the integration and relationship between QWL and Organisational Trust.

3.1   DEFINING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

The entirety of an individual's life consists of a variety of spheres, within which the individual operates as a role-player – however, the majority of adults spend most of their time in the workplace, making QWL one of the most important components contributing to an individual's overall QWL (Kotzé, 2005; Rathi, 2010).

Although QWL is a term used today in almost every area of organisational activity, definitions of QWL tend to change focus continuously and it has been viewed in various ways i.e. a movement, a set of organisational interventions (approaches to management in organisations) and as a type of working life felt by employees (reflecting the affective evaluation of individuals) (Kotzé, 2005; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

Employment relations within South Africa have changed significantly, altering the type of work employees do, when they work as well as how much they work (Rothmann, 2003). This extent and rate of change within organisations has brought about a renewed interest regarding the quality of employees' work life, and even more so within South Africa where organisations have to deal with cultural diversity, ethnic composition and changes in value systems and beliefs (Kirby & Harter, 2001; Kotzé, 2005; Sekwena, 2007).

QWL as a construct was first introduced in the 1950s but its foundation as a concept and term was most probably laid at the first international conference on QWL at Arden house in 1972 where significant focus was placed on developing a credible and functional measure of QWL to make working environments more humane for workers (Hannif, Burgess & Connell, 2008; Koonmee & Virakul, 2007; Kotzé, 2005; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

Extensive research on QWL from a range of disciplines regarding its definition and measurement has since emerged and Hannif et al. (2008, p. 274) suggests the literature surrounding the construct can be defined according to three categories whereby QWL is defined as (i) a concept concerned with employees' job satisfaction; (ii) a concept going beyond job satisfaction and encompassing subjective wellbeing; or (iii) a "dynamic, multidimensional construct that incorporates any number of measures – objective and subjective- relating to employment quality".

Early research suggests QWL as a construct was regarded as a variable focusing on individual outcomes such as the effects of job experiences (satisfaction of important personal needs through work experiences such as self-respect, contentment, use of talent and achievement of personal growth), level of job satisfaction and mental health with the focus on the impact of work on the individual and was measured by assessing an individual's reaction to work or the personal consequences of the work experience (Dessler, 1981; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Koonmee & Virakul, 2007; Nadler & Lawler, 1983; Skrovan, 1983; Willcock & Wright, 1991; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

As the construct developed, its definition shifted focus to include both individual needs and organisational effectiveness, specifically referring to methods and approaches which can improve the work environment to make it more productive and satisfying – these methods were focused on enhancing employee's identification, sense of belonging and pride in their work (Brooks & Gawel, 2001; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Nadler & Lawler, 1983). At its centre, QWL was thus seen as having two goals: to humanise the workplace and improve the quality of employees' work experiences, which in turn will lead to an overall improvement in the productivity of the organisation by providing people with the opportunity to use their human capacities, pursue self-improvement and identify with their workplace (Kotzé, 2005; Krim & Arthur, 1989).

Further development in defining QWL saw it regarded as a "movement", and defined by Ellinger & Nissan (1987, p. 198) as "an environment based on mutual respect which supports and encourages individual participation and open communication in matters which affect our jobs, our business, our futures, and our feelings of self-worth".

Bachner and Bentley (1983, p. 67) elaborated on the QWL movement, describing it as a "democratic process in a psychological sense" whereby it invites employee participation at "all levels, allowing workers a say in what they do, which in turn makes for a sense of part ownership in any change which may result and a stake in organisational success" by enhancing self-esteem and reducing "feelings of powerlessness".

Kotzé (2005, p. 97) postulates that where positive QWL was defined in the past as an environment which provided employees with "stable employment, an adequate income and benefits, fair treatment, and a safe and secure place to work", recent findings have shown

workers to "have a lower level of respect for authority and a greater desire for self-expression, personal growth, and self-fulfilment" and expect organisations to provide opportunities to fulfil these needs.

Early researchers agreed, that although QWL was not clearly defined, consensus regarding three common agreements were reached i.e. (1) QWL is a subjective construct; (2) organisational, human and social aspects interact and must be included within the definition of QWL; and (3) there is an link between quality of life and QWL (Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Nadler & Lawler, 1983).

Recent research focused the definition of QWL to include the perspective of employees and the fulfilment of their needs. Within this regard, Sirgy et al. (2001, p. 241) and Lee, Singhapakdi and Sirgy (2007, p. 273) describe QWL as "a construct which deals with the wellbeing of employees" and defines it as "employee satisfaction with a variety of needs through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace". These individual needs are described as health and safety needs, economic and family needs, social needs, esteem needs, actualisation needs, knowledge needs, and aesthetic needs derived from the employee's participation in the workplace. The fundamental principle of this approach to QWL is people seek to fulfil basic needs through work, deriving satisfaction from their jobs to the extent that the job meets these needs (need satisfaction). This definition also includes the spillover approach to QWL, hypothesising that satisfaction in one area of life may influence satisfaction in other domains, such as family, leisure, social health or finance.

Consistently, Cascio (1998) and Koonmee et al. (2010) describe QWL as the perception to which the organisational environment meets the full range of employees' needs regarding their wellbeing at work.

Due to the subjectivity of QWL, Hannif et al. (2008), Hofstede (1984) and Kotzé (2005) suggest QWL may be defined differently by diverse cultures, since some cultures associate QWL with the degree to which people have satisfied their material needs, while others associate it with the degree to which they have succeeded in achieving their needs.

It seems like organisations have become more concerned with a work-life balance and current research specifically in South Africa has been focused on "work wellness" or work-life balance, especially since there has been an increase in the number of working women, dual-career couples and single-parent households (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2003; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006; Sekwana, 2007; Van Schalkwyk & Buitendach, 2004).

Greenhaus et al. (2003, p. 513) define work-life balance as "the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in, and equally satisfied with his work role and family role. Three elements of work-life balance have been identified to promote wellbeing namely, time balance (time devoted equally between family and work), involvement balance (equal involvement in work

and family activities), and satisfaction balance (experience equal satisfaction with work and family). If an employee experiences imbalance within any of these three areas, it will detract from quality of life and the employees' work effectiveness (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Jacobson & Kaye, 1993). Human resource functions, also linked with work-life programmes include employee recruitment, total rewards programmes, job design, diversity and inclusion, approaches to career advancement and leadership development, employee relocation and corporate social responsibility (Harrington & Ladge, 2009).

Although the focus of QWL is employee wellbeing and satisfaction within the work environment, Brooks and Gawel (2001), Danna and Griffin (1999), Huang et al. (2007), Kerce and Booth-Kewley (1993), Orpen (1983), Sirgy et al. (2001) and Van der Doef and Maes (2002) affirm it differs from job satisfaction in that job satisfaction is construed as one of many outcomes of QWL. It therefore goes beyond job satisfaction, in that it involves the effect of the workplace on satisfaction with the job, satisfaction in non-work domains of life and satisfaction with overall life, personal happiness and subjective wellbeing.

The basic premise of the QWL construct and measure is that workers bring a lot of their needs to their employing organisation and are likely to enjoy a sense of QWL to the extent that these needs are satisfied through work in that organisation (Ballou & Godwin, 2007).

Kaushik and Tonk (2008, p. 36) add to the above by stating QWL can be defined by the "quality of the relationship between employees and their total working environment" and is determined by the "interaction of personal and situational factors" involving both personal and external aspects of "work related rewards, work experiences and work environment".

According to Kandasamy and Sreekumar (2009) and Skrovan (1983), QWL is a continuing process, which means utilising all resources, and especially human resources. It means developing among all members of the organisation awareness and understanding of the concerns and needs of others and a willingness to be more responsive to those concerns and needs. QWL also include improving the way things get done to assure the long-term effectiveness and success of the organisation.

Although QWL is a concept which has been examined, discussed and researched, its definition and application remains rather vague and there seems to be a significant lack of clarity on the QWL construct with no reliable instrument to promote consistency in its measurement (Chung, Killingworth & Nolan, 1997; Kandasamy & Sreekumar, 2009; Kotzé, 2005; Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Rathi, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, the following definition, derived by the above literature study will be used to describe the QWL construct: The perception to which the work environment, work experiences and work rewards meet the full range of employees' needs as determined by the interaction of personal and situational factors (Kaushik & Tonk, 2008; Koonmee et al. 2010).

3.2 DIMENSIONS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

According to Kotzé (2005) the diversity with regard to the definitions of QWL generates disagreement about its dimensions, measurement and interpretation – as the view from which the construct is defined will determine which criteria is relevant in its evaluation.

However, this does not seem to have prevented researchers from attempting to measure what they observe empirically as the QWL construct and in doing so endeavour to determine its prediction.

Various organisational factors have been linked to the Quality of Work Life construct such as job satisfaction (Kerce & Booth-Kewly, 1993; Koonmee & Virakul, 2007; Wyatt & Wah, 2001), organisational effectiveness (Brooks & Gawel, 2001; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Nadler & Lawler, 1983), team effectiveness (Cohen, Chang & Ledford, 1997), organisational commitment (Huang et al., 2007; Lee et al. 2007; Lewis et.al., 2001) and a lower level of employee turnover and personal alienation (Donavan, Brown & Mowen, 2004; Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Homburg & Stock, 2004).

As early as 1973, Walton (1973) proposed eight major conceptual categories as criteria for QWL. These include: (a) Adequate and fair compensation; (b) Safe and healthy working conditions; (c) Immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities; (d) Future opportunity for continued growth and security; (e) Social integration in the work organisation; (f) Constitutionalism in the work organisation; (g) Work and total life space; (h) the Social relevance of work life.

Carayon (1997) based his research regarding QWL on the balance theory of Smith and Carayon-Sainfort (1989) which conceptualises the work system into five subsystems: the individual, tasks, organisational factors, physical environment, and tools and technologies. These five subsystems are related and influence one another with the outcomes being employee reactions such as stress. According to the balance theory, the relationship between QWL, stress and work might not be direct, simple, or linear due to a variety of factors interacting or influencing one another in complex ways which will affect worker stress.

In a research study by Cohen et al. (1997) regarding self-management leadership and its relationship to QWL and work group effectiveness, a combination of the following dimensions was used to measure QWL: Organisational commitment, group satisfaction, growth satisfaction, social satisfaction and job satisfaction.

In relation, Donaldson, Sussman, Dent, Severson and Stoddard (1999), identified and studied the following dimensions of QWL and found them to be important predictors of overall

organisational effectiveness: Work environment, job satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction, quality of supervision and job security.

Danna and Griffen (1999) in turn view QWL as a hierarchy of constructs that includes life satisfaction (top of the hierarchy), job satisfaction (middle of the hierarchy), and work-specific facet satisfaction (satisfaction with pay, co-workers and supervisors).

In the development of the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire, Van der Doef and Maes (1999) included the following twelve dimensions for measuring QWL:

- Skill discretion (Task variety and the extent to which the job challenges an employees' skills)
- Decision Authority (Freedom of decision making regarding work related activities)
- Task Control (Control over time management and work execution)
- Work and Time Pressure (Workload and time strains experienced by employees)
- Role Ambiguity (Clear understanding regarding role and responsibility within organisation)
- Physical Exertion (Physical burden of work)
- Hazardous Exposure (Physical exposure to dangerous objects or situations)
- Job Insecurity
- Lack of Meaningfulness (Perception that an employees' work is important and valued)
- Social Support Supervisor (Support provided by line manager)
- Social Support Co-workers (Instrumental and emotional support provided by colleagues)
- Job Satisfaction

A meta-analysis done by Lewis et al. (2001), suggests QWL factors include reduced work stress; organisational commitment and belonging ; positive communication; autonomy; recognition; predictability of work activities; fairness; clear locus of control and organisational decisions.

Wyatt and Wah (2001) examined four dimensions, which according to them constitute the QWL of employees. These include: (i) a favourable working environment, (ii) personal growth and autonomy, (iii) rewarding nature of the job, and (iv) perception of stimulating opportunities and co-workers.

As already mentioned, Sirgy et al. (2001) developed a new measure of QWL based on the notion of need satisfaction and bottom-up spillover theory proposing that QWL can be measured in terms of satisfaction of employees' needs (need-based) and suggested seven dimensions which he categorised as lower- and higher-order needs. Lower-order QWL needs comprised of: (1) Health and safety needs (protection from ill health and injury in and outside

of work and enhancement of good health); (2) economic and family needs (pay, job security etc.) – and higher-order QWL comprised of: (3) social needs (collegiality at work and time off work); (4) esteem needs (recognition and appreciation of work within and outside of work); (5) actualisation needs (the self realisation of one's own potential within the organisation); (6) knowledge needs (learning to enhance job and professional skills); and (7) aesthetic needs (creativity at work and in personal life).

This need-satisfaction approach is based on need-satisfaction models developed by Alderfer (1972), Herzberg (1966), Maslow (1954), McClelland (1961), and. The basic precept of this approach is that people have basic needs they seek to fulfil through work. Employees thus derive satisfaction from their jobs to the extent that their jobs meet these needs (Sirgy et al., 2001).

The foundation of the spillover approach to QWL is the assumption that satisfaction in one area of life, might influence satisfaction in another i.e. satisfaction with one's job may influence satisfaction in other life domains, such as family leisure, social health, financial etc. Sirgy et al. (2001) furthermore describes two types of spillover:

- Horizontal spillover which according to Sirgy et al. (2001, p. 244) is the "influence of affect in one life domain on a neighbouring domain" i.e. job satisfaction may influence feelings of satisfaction in the family life domain and vice versa.

- Vertical spillover has to do with the domain of hierarchy. Sirgy et al. (2001, p. 244) explains life domains such as job, family, leisure, etc. are "organised hierarchically in people's minds". Overall life, described as the "superordinate" domain are at the top of the hierarchy and subordinate to this are the "major life domains such as family, job, leisure, community, etc.". Satisfaction or dissatisfaction within each of these major life domains "spills over" to the most superordinate domain, affecting overall life satisfaction.

Moreover, Sirgy et al. (2001) emphasised that many of these employees' needs are satisfied by four organisational sources, namely: work environment, job requirements, supervisory behaviour and ancillary programmes.

Within South Africa a strong research emphasis seems to be on the "work wellness" construct as opposed to QWL, as could be seen by presentations at the second South African Work Wellness Conference where the concept of "work wellness" seemed to include individual outcomes in the workplace such as burnout (Cloete & Stuart, 2004; Mostert, Jackson & Montgomery, 2004; Naudé & Rothmann, 2004; Van Zyl & Buitendach, 2004), occupational stress (Olivier, Holderness & Venter, 2004), employee happiness (Oswald, 2004) and employee wellbeing (Theron, 2004).

Martel and Dupuis (2006) suggested QWL can be measured within four contexts: (a) the nature of the job; (b) the physical environment of the work place; (c) the psychosocial conditions of the employees; and (d) the organisational management and policies.

QWL in Huang et al. (2007) was measured within four dimensions: (a) work-life balance; (b) job characteristics (which included factors such as scope of work, job challenge, degree of autonomy, variety of skills, participation in decision making, communication with supervisors, income and recognition fairness); (c) supervisory behaviour; and (d) compensation and benefits. Their findings showed the significant impact of QWL on organisational commitment.

In a recent study Pranee (2010, p. 126-127) includes issues such as "occupational hazards and safety, human resource development through welfare measures, professional training, working conditions and consultative work as well as participative mechanisms" in the QWL construct and suggests it also involves "schemes for sharing the results from the gains of productivity" and is furthermore equally concerned with the "quality of products and improvements". He also grouped the factors impacting employees' QWL into three dimensions namely:

- Physical aspects of QWL which includes working conditions and managerial attitudes towards safety issues.
- Economic aspects of QWL such as wages, salary administration and standard of living which an employee needs and enjoys.
- Psychological aspects of QWL such as the "how and what" of the work, work methodology and the kind of work an employee does.

Findings by Saklani (2010) regarding various QWL components and their importance to non-managerial employees in India indicated employees regarded job security, fringe benefits and welfare measures, adequate and fair compensation and opportunity for continued growth in their careers as the most important components of QWL.

A summary of the dimensions of QWL, as viewed and identified by various researchers, is provided in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Summary of the Dimensions of Quality of Work Life

Dimensions	Walton (1973)	Carayon (1997)	Cohen, Chang & Ledford (1997)	Donaldson et al. (1999)	Van der Doef & Maes (1999)	Wyatt & Wah (2001)	Sirgy et al. (2001)	Martel & Dupuis (2006)	Huang et al. (2007)	Pranee (2010)	Saklani (2010)
Fair compensation (Rewarding nature of job)	✓					✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Physical work environment (Health and safety)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Personal development	✓					✓	✓	✓			✓
Opportunity for growth and development	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓			✓
Social support	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Supervisory support				✓	✓			✓	✓		
Relevance of work	✓				✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Work-life integration/balance	✓		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
Organisational commitment			✓								
Job satisfaction			✓	✓	✓		✓				
Job security				✓	✓		✓				✓
Autonomy					✓	✓			✓	✓	
Recognition					✓		✓	✓	✓		
Job challenge		✓			✓	✓			✓		
Skills discretion					✓				✓	✓	
Participation in decision making					✓				✓		✓
Role clarity					✓						

From the above table, the following three dimensions showed the highest prevalence among the various researchers:

- Physical work environment (Health and safety)
- Social support
- Work-life integration/balance

It can also be seen from the research as if there might be a time-honoured debate regarding whether personal factors (dispositional tendencies) or organisational factors (job characteristics) are the main determinants of perceived QWL (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Kotzé, 2005).

In summary, the QWL construct can thus be seen as construed of various constructs and dimensions, all relevant to and within the organisational environment.

3.3 QUALITY OF WORK LIFE WITHIN THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

There is no denying the importance of QWL as most employees' lives are tied to and organised according to the actions of their organisations and most individuals spend a great deal of their time participating in job or work related activities and even plan their days, living standards and social interaction around the demands of their work – and to a large extent, people define themselves and others in terms of their work, making QWL in organisations a major component of quality of life in general.

Research has shown that QWL is a significant determinant of various enviable organisational outcomes such as increased task performance, lower absenteeism and turnover rate, lower tardiness frequency and has a significant impact on employee behavioural responses such as organisational identification, organisation and career commitment, turnover intention, job satisfaction, job involvement, job effort, job performance, intention to quit, organisational turnover and personal alienation (Ballou & Godwin, 2007; Donaldson et al., 1999; Huang et al., 2007; Kaushik & Tonk, 2008; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Koonmee et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2007; Sirgy et al., 2001; Srivastava, 2008; Wilson, DeJoy, Vandenberg, Richardson & McGrath, 2004; Wright & Bonett, 2007; Wright & Cropanzano, 2004).

Apart from predicting important organisational variables, research also indicates QWL significantly influences the non-working life of an individual and is an important predicator of life satisfaction, health and psychological wellbeing of employees (Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Sirgy et al., 2001; Srivastava, 2008; Wilson et al., 2004).

Saklani (2010, p. 88) states the "new-found concern for QWL in corporate life" is due to the "realisation that human resource is the most important asset which must be released and developed".

Kotzé (2005) highlights the greater importance of knowledge workers and the different ethnic composition of the memberships of organisations, as well as the changes in value systems and beliefs, are factors that may influence the QWL of employees.

On this note, it is also worth mentioning the probable influence of demographic variables as possible predictors of QWL and past research has seen various authors placing emphasis on different demographic aspects.

As early as 1930, Robert Hoppock found different levels of job satisfaction were related to different occupational levels, with the highest occupational level (professionals, managerial and executive) accompanied by the highest satisfaction. In their research regarding the antecedents and outcomes of empowerment, Koberg, Boss, Senjem and Goodman (1999) reported findings that employees higher up within the organisational hierarchy (more power, more seniority etc) felt more empowered. Their findings also suggest employees who feel empowered tend to have increased job satisfaction.

Hochwater, Ferris, Perrewé, Witt and Kiewitz (2001) assessed the relationship between age and job satisfaction as according to them, previous research provided mixed results. Within their research they statistically controlled variables, such as gender, supervisor and position status and affective disposition. Results indicated a U-shape relationship between age and job satisfaction and the authors proposed the reason for this is that younger employees have high expectations, a limited understanding of what makes a satisfying job and earning money is enough, whereas later on they might realise their expectations are not met, and the incentives may not be as enticing any more. Their research also suggests the power and prestige inherent in senior positions contribute to higher levels of satisfaction among older people.

With regard to QWL and gender differences, Moen (2000) found that characteristics of the work environment predict QWL differently for men and women, namely autonomy is positively related to coping for men and negatively related to their experience of overload, whereas having the option to negotiate work hours is related to lower overload for women.

From the literature, it can be surmised that no single demographic variable can be emphasised as a predictor of QWL, but it may seem as though some of them might have a moderating effect on QWL.

In the identification of dimensions relating to QWL, it can be seen from the previous section that there is a lot of diversity among researchers, especially with regard to intrinsic and extrinsic job factors. Extrinsic job factors concern aspects of a job which form the background

or context to the task itself and consist of activities that are externally motivated by rewards and carried out only because of its effects such as pay, working conditions, working hours procedures and job security (Lewis et al., 2001; Maharaj & Schlechter, 2007; Wyatt & Wah, 2001). Intrinsic factors consist of aspects inherent in the conduct of the job itself and are intrinsically motivating, meaning they are rewarded by themselves, such as autonomy, responsibility initiative allowed skill requirements and so on which will lead to feelings of competence and self-determination and in turn will lead to enjoyment of the work itself and a feeling of meaningfulness (Lewis et al., 2001; Lowe, Schellenburg & Shannon, 2003; Maharaj & Schlechter, 2007).

Various researchers indentified some extrinsic factors to be significant in relation to an employee's perceived QWL:

- Adequate and fair compensation. Employees perceive high QWL jobs to have good benefits, pay well, provide assistance for planning their career and exist in a work environment and context that they perceive as fair (Huang et al., 2007; Pranee, 2010; Walton, 1973; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

- Physical work conditions refers to the physical work environment of an employee as well as the hours worked, sufficient time to complete assignments and so forth. (Carayon, 1997; Jagannathan & Akhila, 2009; Pranee, 2010; Sekwena, 2007; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Work-hour preferences were found to be a significant predictor of QWL (Moen, 2000).

- Job security can be described as a feeling of security regarding an employees' future employment (Moen, 2000; Sirgy et al., 2001; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Job insecurity was found to give rise to stress symptoms and overload, as well as higher levels of intrapersonal conflict concerning work and personal life (Moen, 2000).

- Job challenge/demand. Research regarding the employees' perceptions about QWL indicated that employees view a high QWL as one where there is an absence of inappropriate work demands and where there are no negative impacts on their personal lives (Sekwena, 2007; Wyatt & Wah, 2001). According to literature, job challenges or demands can be described as psychological stressors (Carayon, 1997; Sekwena, 2007). Research by Ducharme and Martin (2000) and Moen (2000) found employees in challenging jobs are especially vulnerable to overload and stress and high job pressure is inversely and significantly related to job satisfaction.

- Fellow work colleagues: Emphasis on the extent to which a team spirit prevails in the organisation i.e. esprit de corps (morale of a group) seems to play an important role in the nature and QWL which employees experience (Lee et al., 2007). Oliver, Jose and Brough (2006) found that support from colleagues and job satisfaction enhances employees' psychological wellbeing.

- Supervisors: Findings by Wyatt & Wah (2001) regarding employees' perception of QWL indicated employees prefer management who is concerned with and actively assists in problem solving.

Research also indicated the job aspects workers express the least satisfaction and frustration with are career aspiration and the desire for interesting, fulfilling work (Kaushik & Tonk, 2007; Lee et al., 2007; Pranee, 2010; Saklani, 2010; Sirgy et al., 2001). These are all intrinsic facets of work as they are embedded in the work itself. Other intrinsic factors include:

- Opportunity for growth and development: Employees prefer their working career to have a positive impact on their personal life as well as an opportunity to develop close personal relations while they endeavour to achieve their career goals (Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

- Decision making control and autonomy can be described as the degree to which an organisation permits an employee to control activities and events by freedom of action, discretion, influence and power and is inseparable from a high Quality of Work Life (Huang et al., 2007; Pranee, 2010; Sirgy et al., 2001; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Wyatt & Wah's (2001) research indicates employees prefer a degree of autonomy of decision making and Ducharme and Martin (2000) found autonomy to be the strongest predictor of overall job satisfaction compared to complexity, pressure and income.

- Meaningfulness: A meaningful job has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment and job satisfaction and as part of experiencing high QWL, employees seem to prefer meaningful jobs, providing adequate challenge but without them having to compromise on their values (Maharaj & Schlechter, 2007; Wyatt & Wah, 2001). Pranee (2010 p. 128) also mentions employees who possess worthwhile and meaningful work "can create a total quality situation".

In a study exploring the relationship between work-life experiences and personal life of employees, Lowe et al. (2003) observed employees are likely to perceive their workplace in a positive way if certain conditions such as high intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, good social support, influence over workplace decisions and available resources exist.

Regardless of the above, common beliefs support the notion that QWL will positively cultivate a more flexible, loyal and motivated workforce which are vital in determining an organisation's competitiveness (Donaldson et al., 1999; May & Lau, 1999).

Huang et al. (2007) and Rathi (2010) suggest current employees are no longer only focused on monetary growth but are more interested in enriching their QWL and expect to gain more benefits from their work such as challenge and achievement, career development and growth, work-family balance, a supportive working environment (organisational climate) and more managerial support.

The overall focus of research regarding QWL have been to connect it to employees' job outcomes such as productivity, job satisfaction, and employees' commitment i.e. Lau and May (1998) suggest organisations with a high QWL will have high customer satisfaction, which in turn, will provide higher growth and profitability; Huang (2007), Koonmee et al. (2010) and Lee et al. (2007) found a positive relation between QWL and work commitment.

A longitudinal study of QWL by May and Lau (1999) also confirmed a positive association between QWL and business performance.

In the validation of their need-based measure of QWL, Lee et al. (2007) found QWL increases job satisfaction, organisational commitment and esprit de corps and noted that satisfaction of higher-order needs (social, esteem, self-actualisation, aesthetic and knowledge needs) has a greater influence on positive organisational commitment and esprit de corps than lower-order needs (health and safety and economic and family-related needs).

In a research study regarding the predictors of QWL of sales employees, Jagannathan and Akhila (2009) identified goal attainment, supportive dynamic organisational structures and holistic job factors to positively influence the QWL.

Research by Koonmee and Virakul (2007) suggests ethical behaviour has an impact on QWL and can lead, both directly and indirectly to positive impacts on job-related outcomes.

According to Wyatt and Wah (2001, p. 65) the "existence of most factors comprising QWL are largely under the control of management". Ferrell, Fraedrich and Ferrell (2008) and Kotzé (2005), in turn argues that it is the responsibility of management to ensure that employees committing themselves to achieving organisational objectives, also experience a high QWL as research conducted by Lau and May (1998) has shown companies with a high QWL enjoy outstanding growth and profitability.

Pranee (2010) identified four organisational factors affecting QWL for sustainable development within an organisation and noted the importance of organisations to focus on improving these factors to ensure employees experience a total QWL: (1) Competence; (2) Operational climate (working environment); (3) Managing Systems (i.e. procedural controls over the production processes); and (4) Technology.

Gröpel and Kuhl (2009), Pranee (2010) and Rathi (2010) believe employees who possess worthwhile and meaningful work and experience good working conditions can experience quality in working life and personal life and state that in order to improve QWL, managers within an organisation should consider changes to the organisational climate and create an environment where workers gain psychological satisfaction. This will in turn increase the economic benefits to both the organisation and the employees.

3.4   THEORETICAL INTEGRATION OF CONSTRUCTS: TRUST AND QWL

QWL reflects the quality of relationships between employees and their total working environment and can be seen as creating conditions within the work environment promoting individual learning and development, providing employees with influence and control over their work decisions as well as creating meaningfulness for employees leading to greater personal satisfaction (Kaushik & Tonk, 2008).

An employee's QWL is determined by the interaction of personal and situational factors involving both personal (subjective) and external (objective) aspects of work related rewards and experiences (Kaushik & Tonk, 2008; Koonmee et al., 2010).

Schneider and Dachler (1978) in Kaushik and Tonk (2008, p. 36) found the feelings employees have about their job "tend to be stable over time and might be a product of specific personality traits".

As already mentioned during Chapter 2, Personality traits are psychological in nature, relative stable over time, and provide the reasons for behaviour (Church, 2000) and seems to be interrelated with regard to trust and QWL by means of the Big Five Personality factors.

Various research have found a link between the Big Five Personality factors (i.e. conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, resourcefulness and extraversion) and dimensions relating to QWL such as job performance (Barrick et al., 2001; Bozionelos, 2004; Gellatly & Irving, 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003), job satisfaction (Goodstein & Lanyon, 1999; Judge, Higgins & Cable, 2000; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren & De Chermont, 2003), emotional intelligence (Salgado, 2002), organisational engagement (Bozionelos, 2004), job proficiency (Salgado, 2002), organisational commitment (Thoresen et al., 2003), work and time pressures (Dijkstra & Fred, 2005; Morgan & de Bruin, 2010; Pienaar, Rothmann & Van de Vijver, 2007) work-life balance (Thomson & de Bruin, 2007; Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004) and reaction to change (Vacola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004). Table 3.2 indicates an overview of positive relations found by various researchers between dimensions of QWL and the Big Five Personality traits.

Table 3.2

Research overview of positive relations between dimensions of QWL and the Big Five Personality aspects

	Conscientiousness	Agreeableness	Emotional stability	Resourcefulness	Extraversion
Job performance	X • Barrick et al. (2001) • Bozionelos (2004) • Gellatly & Irving (2001) • Rothmann & Coetzer (2003)		X • Barrick et al. (2001) • Rothman & Coetzer (2003)	X • Rothman & Coetzer (2003)	
Job satisfaction			X • Thoresen et al. (2003)		X • Thoresen et al. (2003)
Organisational Commitment			X • Thoresen et al. (2003)		X • Thoresen et al. (2003)
Job proficiency			X • Salgado (2002)		
Organisational Engagement		X • Bozionelos (2004)			
Work-life balance	X • Thomson & de Bruin (2007)	X • Kaushik & Tonk (2008)		X • Thomson & de Bruin (2007) • Kaushik & Tonk (2008)	X • Wayne et al. (2004)
Personal Accomplishment		X • Bakker, Van der Zee, Lewig & Dollard (2006)			
Reaction to change		X • Vacola et al. (2004)		X • Vacola et al. (2004)	

Research conducted by Kaushik and Tonk (2008) found a positive correlation between the construct QWL and three of the Big Five dimensions of Personality namely: extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness.

In addition, research by Rothmann and Coetzer (2003) indicated Personality dimensions were related to management performance and identified emotional stability, resourcefulness and agreeableness as significantly related to management performance.

Shaw (2005, p. 249) proposes the success of QWL programmes will depend on the ability of the organisation to "reinforce high levels of trust" which in turn will improve organisational performance.

Apart from its positive relations with various dimensions of the QWL construct (see Table 3.2) as well as findings directly relating it with the QWL construct (Kaushik & Tonk, 2008), the Big Five Personality aspects are also significant indicators of trust (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). It seems however as if there is a lack of research regarding the relationship between QWL and Organisational Trust.

Based on the theories and discussions in this and the previous chapter, a relationship is considered between Organisational Trust, which includes the Big Five Personality aspects (agreeableness, conscientiousness, resourcefulness, emotional stability and extraversion) and Managerial Practices (information sharing, work support, credibility, team management, interpersonal trust and change that have occurred) (Martins & Martins, 2002; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010) and QWL (consisting of the following dimensions: Skill Discretion, Decision Authority, Task Control, Work and Time Pressure, Role Ambiguity, Physical Exertion, Hazardous Exposure, Job Insecurity, Lack of Meaningfulness, Social Support Supervisor, Social Support Co-workers and Job Satisfaction) (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The study of QWL is not a recent phenomenon but a broad concept with early origins as can be seen from the above literature overview. The construct includes sociological and psychological notions and research aimed at uncovering experiences at work.

In Chapter 3, Quality of Work Life (QWL) as a construct was discussed. This chapter contained the definition and dimensions of QWL as well as an elaborate discussion of the construct concept within an organisational context.

The possible relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL was also considered and discussed as well as related research findings.

The empirical study will be introduced in Chapter 4. The objective of this study, the population and sample, the measuring instruments as well as its validity and reliability, the data collection method and statistical methods used to analyse the data will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the preceding chapters, literature regarding Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life (QWL) was reviewed. These constructs were defined and clarified and their role within the organisational context discussed.

Chapter 4 represents the research methodology and will explore the methods by means of which Organisational Trust and QWL can be measured and compared to reach empirically based conclusions and will include a description of the target population and procedures used as well an explanation of the measuring instruments and justification for using. This chapter will furthermore outline the statistical techniques used to analyse the data as well as the hypotheses formulation.

Apart from the above, the chapter deals with the first four steps of the empirical objectives as described in Chapter 1.

4.1   DESIGN

As explained in Chapter 1, the empirical research is quantitative in nature and a cross-sectional research design is used to answer the research questions and achieve the empirical objectives.

The cross-sectional research design was most suited for this specific study since the response rates are generally high, it involves eliciting information at a single time from individuals in different conditions and conclusions can be drawn in a short period of time

An Internet-based survey methodology was used to collect data from the target audience and the data was analysed using appropriate parametric methods.

4.2   TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGY

Sampling refers to the process of selecting a portion or unit from a population or universe as representative of that population or universe (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

The main criteria of sample selection according to Brewerton and Millward (2001, p. 114) are:

- Ensuring a sample provides a faithful representation of the total population from which it is selected.
- Knowing as precisely as possible the probability that a sample is reliable in this way.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, this research project was conducted in a soft drink or beverage manufacturing, sales and distribution organisation with the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry employing approximately 4 000 staff. The main characteristics of FMCGs are high volume, low margin, extensive distribution networks and high stock turnover (Bala et al., 2010; Herbst & Forrest, 2008).

The unit of analysis used for this research was employees within this organisation and more specifically, the sales representatives within four regions of the business spread over three provinces within South Africa (Gauteng, Free State and KwaZulu-Natal). Sales representatives are employees within this organisation whose primary goal it is to market and sell the products while maintaining good customer relationships. They are the direct link with the customer, giving out product information, making recommendations for orders, collecting expired and faulty stock and communicating company promotions and are therefore primarily responsible for driving volume and sales.

The organisation encourages employees to be accountable, hardworking and loyal and expects employees to set and reach higher targets each year. Despite the fact that the levels of complexity and decision-making experienced by the sales representatives are not that high, they are a very important population to study due to the fact their daily tasks have a significant influence on their personal life. Sales representatives in this particular organisation work long hours and are subjected to many deadlines and sales goals they have to achieve. The interaction of work and home are also a reality in their lives as they often use personal time to complete work tasks and handle work-related issues.

Recent organisational changes have refocused on the productivity and performance of the sales representatives, specifically with regard to their time spent between the office and the customer. These changes consequently brought about a re-evaluation of the QWL these employees experience as well as the trust they can place within the organisation for support.

The sampling technique used in this study was probability sampling. A probability sampling method is any method of sampling that utilises some form of random selection (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). According to Brewerton and Millward (2001) a probability or random sample describes a sample selected in such a way that all members in the population have an equal chance of selection.

The type of probability sampling followed was simple random sampling (SRS) as all sales representatives across the organisation were invited to participate in the research. Following a SRS minimises bias and simplifies analysis of the results as all participants have an equal probability of selection (Salkind, 2008).

As mentioned before, an Internet-based survey was used to collect the data. In a recent research study in South Africa regarding the equivalence of paper-based and web-based surveys, Martins (2010) found these two types of surveys can be considered equivalent.

There were various reasons for using a web-based survey as opposed to a paper-based survey:

- With the assurance of the respondent's anonymity it was hoped they would feel more willing to participate and give honest, unbiased responses. Using an external survey company's website reassured anonymity and ensured independence from the company itself.
- All sales representatives have access to the Internet and email via their mobile phones, which the author hoped would increase participation as according to Martins (2010) online surveys have the flexibility that as long as respondents have Internet access, they can answer questions at any time and in any place.
- With regard to the geographical distribution of the respondents (three provinces) making use of an online-survey made more economical sense and provided easy follow-up.
- The response rate could be tracked on a regular basis and reminder emails could be sent out to attract participation.

All respondents completed the web-based survey voluntarily and no restrictions were placed on participation or any variables of gender, race, educational qualifications, tenure and levels of experience.

The following procedure describes the approach followed in collecting the data:

- Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the organisation by means of a presentation to management regarding the research procedure and possible outcomes.
- The questionnaire was posted on an external survey company's website and consisted of five sections i.e.:

- Section 1: Biographical questions (6 questions)
- Section 2 – 4: Organisational Trust questions (92 questions)
- Section 5: Quality of Work Life questions (59 questions)

- Participants were informed of the research via internal organisation communication (email) explaining the objectives and importance of the study, what is being measured and what will happen to the results. Pre-empted questions participants might have had were also included in the electronic communication as well as an invitation to pose any enquiries or questions to the author. Participants were also informed and assured of the confidentiality of their responses (See Annexure A).
- The participants were able to complete the questionnaire in their own time and submit their answers when done.
- Data was consequently collected from respondents following the hyperlink to the measuring instrument. As this was a web-based application, the data was anonymously stored on the survey company's server as soon as the respondents had completed the questionnaire.

The invitation to partake in the research study was sent out to 282 sales representatives across the business sector in three provinces: Gauteng, Free State and KwaZulu-Natal. In total, 203 participants completed the online questionnaire.

4.3   MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

As already mentioned in the previous section, a combined Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life questionnaire consisting of 6 biographical questions, 92 Organisational Trust questions and 59 QWL questions were posted on a survey company's website with an open invitation for sales employees to participate.

The web-based questionnaire is in a structured format and all data was recorded in English. Section 1 of the questionnaire included six biographical questions on the participants – collecting information relevant to age, gender, ethnicity or race (e.g. African, Indian, Coloured and White), tenure within the organisation, geographical area and customer base.

Two measuring instruments were used in this study representing the two constructs. To measure Organisational Trust the Trust audit survey was used (Martins, 2000), comprising section one to four of the questionnaire. Section five encompassed the QWL construct and was measured by means of the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

All instruments used in this research have been used before in other studies (Cyster, 2005; Gelsema, Van der Doef, Maes, Janssen, Akerboom & Verhoeven, 2006; Martins, 2000; Martins & Von der Ohe, 2002; Pomaki & Anagnostouplou, 2003; Van der Doef & Maes, 2002; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

This section discusses the measuring instruments used to conduct this research. The instruments are explained in terms of its nature and composition, validity and reliability as well as the justification for its use.

Although validity and reliability information for each instrument is reported in this chapter, all instruments were subjected to a Confirmatory Factor Analysis in order to confirm the respective factor structures. Internal consistency is also analysed via Cronbach's alpha in order to confirm the instruments' reliability.

4.3.1   Organisational Trust

The primary focus of the Organisational Trust survey is to explore the role of trust in the workplace. The goal is to gain information regarding levels of trust and an indication of trust-building and trust-reducing behaviours. The questionnaire was constructed by Martins (2000).

The Trust Audit comprised Section 2 – 4 of the questionnaire (item 7 to item 98) and consisted of a total of 92 questions.

4.3.1.1   Nature and composition

Research investigating the possible antecedents of trust by the Centre of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa during 1995/1996 led to the assumption that trust within organisations is most probably created by Personality factors and Managerial Practices (Martins et al., 1997).

In the development of the Trust Audit, Martins (2000) identified the Big Five Personality aspects, together with the Managerial Practices, as significant indicators of trust. The object of this questionnaire is thus to gather views on the existence of a trust relationship, correlated with Personality and Managerial Practices and behaviour. According to Von der Ohe et al. (2004) the questionnaire includes the following 10 dimensions: Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Emotional stability, Resourcefulness, Extraversion (Personality dimensions); Credibility, Team management, Information sharing, Work support (Managerial Practices constructs) and Trust relationship.

In a later study, Martins and Von der Ohe (2002) included two additional dimensions within the Managerial Practices of the questionnaire, namely: Interpersonal trust and Change which has occurred.

This final questionnaire thus consists of 12 dimensions which was also used and verified in a recent longitudinal study of trust by Von der Ohe and Martins (2010).

The trust segment of the questionnaire furthermore consists of three sections:

- Section 2: Included 35 questions relating to the Personality characteristics of the manager as perceived by the participant. The participant had to rate the manager on a scale of one to nine, where 1 is a strong follower, 5 is unsure and 9 is a strong leader.

- Section 3: Included 35 questions on management practices linked to the trust relationship as perceived by the participant. The participants had to indicate the extent to which they agree/disagree with five statements, followed by 30 statements on aspects line managers do to be effected, rating them on a five-point scale where 1 is never/strongly disagree and 5 is always/strongly agree.

- Section 4: Included 22 questions. The first 13 measure the changes implemented by management and how the participant perceives them i.e. interpersonal trust. The participants have to rate the line manager as generally highly efficient or very efficient, above average, moderately efficient, somewhat efficient or very inefficient. The final nine questions of the trust section include changes that have occurred in the organisation over the past year and the manner in which they were implemented. Participants had to rate these changes on a four-point scale where 4 is very satisfied and 1 is very dissatisfied.

The object of the Organisational Trust questionnaire is to gather views on the existence of a trust relationship, correlated with Personality and Managerial Practices and behaviour as a whole (Martins & Martins, 2002). As mentioned the questionnaire consisted of 12 dimensions consisting of five Big Five Personality aspects and six Managerial Practices and the Trust Relationship (Martins, 2000; Martins & Von der Ohe, 2002; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010, Von der Ohe et al., 2004):

- The Big Five Personality aspects can be described as follows:

Conscientiousness: Includes traits such as being persistent, determined, hardworking, and dependable, thorough and responsible.

Agreeableness: This reflects being liked, courteous, good natured, cooperative, forgiving and soft-hearted.

Emotional stability: Emotional stability reflects an absence of anxiety, depression, anger, worry and insecurity.

Resourcefulness: This can be defined as imaginativeness, creative, broad-mindedness and intelligence.

Extraversion: Extraversion is termed as sociability, friendliness, talkativeness and activity.

- The Managerial Practices include:

Information sharing: The willingness to give individual feedback on performance and to reveal company related information in an honest manner.

Work support: The willingness to support employees when needed and to provide job-related information for the accomplishment of objectives.

Credibility: Willingness to listen, consider proposals, allow others the freedom to express feelings, tolerate mistakes and ensure employees enjoy prestige and credibility in the organisation.

Team management: The effective management of team and individual goal accomplishments and the handling of conflict within groups.

Interpersonal trust: Focuses on the trust relationship between top management, the immediate manager and colleagues.

Changes that have occurred: Measures participants' satisfaction with changes that had occurred within their organisations.

- The trust relationship dimension:

The trust relationship dimension in the questionnaire was directly related to the trust dimension and measured by five questions dealing with various aspects of trust between employees and their immediate supervisors. The trust relationship dimension reflects the relationship with the immediate supervisors in terms of openness, honesty, fairness and intention to motivate employees.

4.3.1.2   Validity

Validity represents the quality of a questionnaire in such that it measures what it says it does (Salkind, 2008).

Martins (2000) made use of the structural equation modelling (SEM) to assess the content validity of the questionnaire. The results revealed a chi-square of 4404,511 based on 33 degrees of freedom with a probability value of less than 0,0001. The score on the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was 0.890 and on the Bentler and Bonet Non-Normed Fit Index 0,850 – which were all very close to the recommended perfect fit (Martins, 2000; Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) was 0.95, the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) was 0.91 and the Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI) was 0.50 (Martins, 2000). The goodness-of-fit test is a test performed to compare observed data with theoretically predicted distribution (Howell, 2004). A GFI with a value of close to 0.90 reflects a good fit, an AGFI with a value of 0.90 reflects a good model fit and PGFI varies between 0 (no fit) and 1 (perfect fit). It could therefore be deduced that a good model fit was established (Martins, 2000).

4.3.1.3   Reliability

Reliability represents the consistency of a measurement (Salkind, 2008).

The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be highly satisfactory with alpha coefficients ranging between 0.82 and 0.95 for the five-factor model of Personality characteristics as well as Managerial Practices (Martins, 2000). Table 4.1 represents these results.

The reliability was based on a total sample of 6 528 employees from 22 South African companies (Martins, 2000).The Cronbach alpha ranged between 0.85 and 0.95 for the five-factor model of Personality characteristics as well as Managerial Practices (Martins, 2000; Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

Table 4.1

Results of the item analysis (reliability) of the Organisational Trust Audit Survey

Dimensions	No of Questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Personality Aspects (Martins, 2000)		
Conscientiousness	8	0.94
Agreeableness	8	0.95
Emotional Stability	5	0.91
Resourcefulness	7	0.90
Extraversion	7	0.91
Management Practices (Martins, 2010)		
Trust Relationship	5	0.93
Team Management	9	0.93
Work Support	3	0.90
Credibility	13	0.96
Interpersonal Trust (Organisational Trust)	9	0.88
Information sharing	4	0.85
Change	11	0.90

Source: Martins (2000, p. 29) and Von der Ohe & Martins (2010, p. 4)

4.3.1.4   Validity of the Trust Model

Structural equation modelling (SEM) has been used to assess validity of the conceptual model of the manifestation of trust. SEM is a linear cross-sectional statistical modelling technique which includes Confirmatory Factor Analysis, path analysis and regression analysis. The EQS software program was utilised to test the trust model using structural equation modelling (Martins, 2000, 2002).

Martins (2000) conducted a confirmatory analysis to determine whether or not the data confirmed the supposition that each of the proposed latent variables represents separate constructs.

The statistically significant standardised parameter estimates for the revised theoretical model are presented in Figure 4.1.
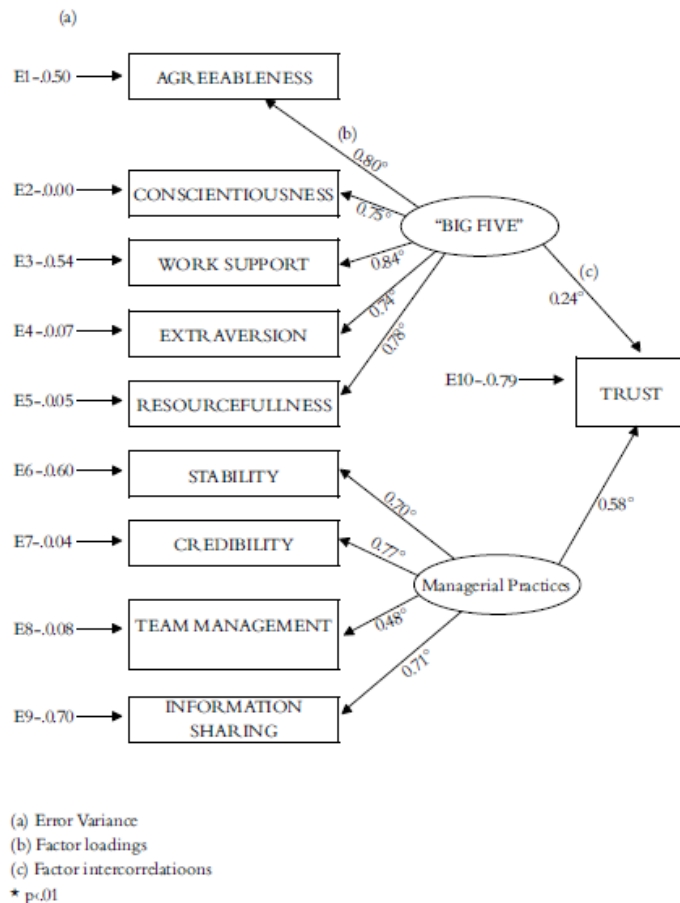
Figure 4.1: Empirical evaluation of the trust relationship model (Martins, 2000)

4.3.1.5   Rationale for inclusion

The Trust audit compiled by Martins (2000) have been used to construe a conceptual model for the manifestation of trust and have been used as a valid and reliable measurement of Organisational Trust in research studies over the past few years (Cyster, 2005; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

Although there are other trust measurements, most of them are solely grounded in Personality theory with only a few focusing on aspects relating to organisations (Büssing, 2002). The trust questionnaire focuses on six dimensions which have been found to correlate high with management practices. These management practices have also correlated significantly with trust (factor intercorrelation – 0,58) (Martins, 2000).

The survey of trust in the workplace was furthermore conducted within the South African environment and results found encompass a database (6 528) of employees within South African organisations, similar to the organisation in which this research study was conducted.

4.3.2 Quality of Work Life

The Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire will be used as a measure for QWL. The questionnaire was constructed by Van der Doef and Maes (1999).

4.3.2.1   Nature and composition

According to Van der Doef and Maes (1999), the aim of the development of the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire was to create a reliable measure of work characteristics considered relevant from a theoretical perspective. The questionnaire was constructed to assess work characteristics from two occupational stress models, namely the Job Demand-Control-Support models (i.e. psychological demands, skill discretion, decision authority, and social support from supervisor and employee) and the Michigan model (job stressors such as overload, role ambiguity, responsibility role conflict etc). The Job-Demand-Control-Support models state job demands and job control are two job characteristics crucial to employee health and wellbeing (Van der Doef & Maes, 2002).

An item pool was compiled based on three questionnaires, namely the Job Content Instrument, the Questionnaire for Organisational Stress and the Wellness at work-interview. Each of these questionnaires measures a wide variety of work related factors e.g. psychological demands, decision authority, social support, overload, role ambiguity, responsibility, lack of meaningfulness of the job, completeness of the job, organisational tasks etc (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

The model includes 59 items, measuring 11 work characteristics and one outcome variable namely job satisfaction.

The 11 work characteristics are (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999):

- **Skill Discretion** (Task variety and the extent to which the job challenges an employee's skills).
- **Decision Authority** (Freedom of decision making regarding work related activities).
- **Task Control** (Control over time management and work execution).
- **Work and Time Pressure** (Workload and time strains experienced by employees).
- **Role Ambiguity** (Clear understanding regarding role and responsibility within an organisation).
- **Physical Exertion** (Physical burden of work).
- **Hazardous Exposure** (Physical exposure to dangerous objects or situations).
- **Job Insecurity**.

- **Lack of Meaningfulness** (Perception that an employee's work is important and valued).
- **Social Support Supervisor** (Support provided by line manager).
- **Social Support Co-workers** (Instrumental and emotional support provided by colleagues).

All items were phrased as statements with four answer categories (disagree completely, disagree, agree and agree completely), which resulted in a 59-item pool with a standard format.

As a general quality of work measure, the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire is suitable for all occupational groups.

4.3.2.2   Validity

Confirmatory analysis by means of linear structural equation modelling was used to examine the factor structure of the questionnaire (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

The correlation between the scales indicated some scales were very strongly related i.e. skill discretion, decision authority, and task control were related concepts. The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis, however, and the different correlations of the control concepts with the other work characteristics, gave reason to view them as separate, though related concepts. The factor correlations were 0.87 to 0.88. The construct validity of the questionnaire can thus be seen as satisfactory (Van der Doef & Maes, 2002).

4.3.2.3   Reliability

The reliability was based on the total sample of 10,112 respondents (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

Although the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) were still somewhat below the recommended criterion (.90), the RMSEA indicates a good fit of the model. The results indicate thus that the 12 scales of the questionnaire had satisfactory internal reliability (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999; 2002).

The Cronbach alpha for these scales ranged from 0.73 to 0.93 (Van der Doef & Maes, 2002).

4.3.2.4   Rationale for inclusion

As indicated in the literature overview regarding the QWL construct, there seems to be no clear definition of the construct, generating disagreement about how to measure and interpret it. According to Kotzé (2005) the point of view from which QWL is defined will determine the criteria relevant in its evaluation.

According to research, some QWL measurements only evaluate employees' experiences of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, or look at job-related perceptions and attitudes of individuals, or some measure only job characteristics (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Wilcock & Wright, 1991).

An employee's QWL is determined by the interaction of personal and situational factors involving both personal (subjective) and external (objective) aspects of work related rewards and experiences (Kaushik & Tonk, 2008; Koonmee et al., 2010).

A more integrated approach to the measurement of QWL is therefore important. The Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire includes 12 dimensions consisting of both personal and structural factors enabling a more comprehensive view of the work situation. Van der Doef and Maes (2002) also mentions the wording of the items was chosen to reflect the work situation itself and not the employee's satisfaction with the situation (Van der Doef & Maes, 2002).

4.4   PROCEDURE FOR DATA GATHERING

As already mentioned, the selected target group (sales representatives) received an email with the link to the online questionnaire posted on a survey company's website. Instructions on how to complete and submit the questionnaire was explained on the opening page of the webpage.

The purpose and intent of the research was explained to the participants in the email and possible anticipated questions were also included. Participants were also informed and assured of the confidentiality of their responses (See Annexure A).

The participants were able to complete the questionnaire in their own time and submit their answers when done. As this was a web-based application, the data was anonymously stored on the survey company's server as soon as the respondents had completed the questionnaire. The data was then verified as far as possible by checking for contradictions and obvious misinformation.

A start-off period of two weeks was allowed for participation, but this timeframe was extended to two months to ensure adequate partaking.

Results are reported in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics. The quantitative procedures and statistical techniques used in this research are discussed in the next sections.

4.5   STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF DATA

The statistical processing of data is presented in terms of quantitative procedures and statistical techniques. The SPSS statistical programme was utilised for this purpose. The quantitative procedures included the following processes:

4.5.1   Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study and provides simple summaries about the sample and the measures (Huysamen, 2001a). The following descriptive statistical methods will be used in this research study.

- Means are used to describe the results. The mean is the sum of scores divided by the number of scores across the distribution (Howell, 2004).The calculated mean is used to compute the average scores that are obtained for the different components of the questionnaires (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The formula to calculate the mean is:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

- Standard deviation (SD) as well as the minimum and maximum values is used to describe the results. Standard deviation is described as the positive square root of the variance and basically measures the average of the deviations of each score from the mean (Howell, 2004). The following formula defines the sample standard deviation:

$$s_x = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(X - \bar{\bar{X}})^2}{N-1}}$$

- Correlation describes the degree of relationship between two variables – the strength of this relationship is represented by a correlation coefficient. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation is used to determine the strength of a relationship between the two variables within this study and is calculated using the following formula:

$$r = \frac{N\sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[N\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][N\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

4.5.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used to reach conclusions which extend beyond the immediate data alone i.e. to make inferences from the data obtained to more general conditions (Huysamen, 2001b).

4.5.2.1 Reliability of instruments

The reliability of the instruments is determined by computation of the Cronbach alpha and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). According to Murphy and Davidshofer (2005), the Cronbach alpha measure estimates the reliability based on the number of the items in the test and the average intercorrelation among test items. Although, the construct validity of the Managerial Practices and trust relationship dimensions of the trust questionnaire were accepted as was reported on in Table 4.1, the Cronbach alphas were computed again to confirm these internal consistency estimates.

With regard to the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire, this was particularly important as reliability within the South African population have not been confirmed.

4.5.2.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) multivariate analysis technique was used to determine the relationship between the various constructs (Organisational Trust and QWL) and the independent dimension of trust to test the theoretical model. Confirmatory Factor Analysis, path analysis and regression analysis within SEM was used to test the three hypotheses. Various indices (goodness-of- fit tests) such as NFI, RFI, RMSEA and CFI were used to test for model adequacy/fit and determine if the pattern of variances and covariances in the data

is consistent with the theoretical (paths) model specified by the researcher (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The concept of structural equation modelling as well as the reasons for using SEM will be discussed in more detail within this section.

4.5.2.2.1 Overview of Structural Equation Modelling

Structural Equation Modelling is a family of statistical techniques which incorporates and integrates path analysis and factor analysis (Garson, 2004) and uses "various types of models to depict relationships among observed variables, with the same basic goal of providing a quantitative test of a theoretical model hypothesised by a researcher" (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 2).

The goal of SEM analysis is to determine the extent to which the theoretical model is supported by sample data (Fan, Thompson & Wang, 1999; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) and according to Garson (2004) it is important to note SEM is usually viewed as a confirmatory rather than exploratory procedure.

To conduct SEM an adequate sample size should be larger than 200 (N=200).

A SEM model thus consists of two components, the "measurement model" in which latent variables are proposed and tested through CFA and the "structural model" in which the latent variables and observed variables which are not indicators of latent variables are overall linked together in a relational way.

The SEM process mainly centres around two steps: validating the measurement model (primarily using Confirmatory Factor Analysis) and fitting the structural model (accomplished through path analysis with latent variables) (Garson, 2004).

4.5.2.2.2 Characteristics of Structural Equation Modelling

SEM can test various types of theoretical models including regressions, path and confirmatory factor models. Within SEM there are two major types of variables namely, latent variables (variables not directly observable of measured i.e. indirectly observed and measured by means of tests and surveys) and observed variables or indicator variables (set of variables which define or infer the latent variable or construct i.e. each observed or indicator variable represents one definition of the latent variable) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The main components of SEM are briefly summarised as follows:

- Regression Model

  Consists solely of observed variables where a single dependent observed variable is predicted or explained by one or more independent observed variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

- Path model

  A path model is also specified with observed variables, but the flexibility allows for multiple independent observed variables and multiple dependent observed variables. A path model tests more complex models than regression models (Garson, 2004).

- Confirmatory factor models

  Consist of observed variables which are hypothesised to measure one or more latent variables (independent or dependent) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

  Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) plays an important role in SEM as it may be used to confirm the indicators sort themselves into factors corresponding to how the researcher has linked the indicators to the latent variables (Garson, 2004). CFA models are used to assess the role of measurement error in the model, to validate a multifactorial model and to determine group effects on the factors (Suhr, 2006)

- Reliability in SEM

  Cronbach's alpha is a commonly used coefficient testing the extent to which multiple indicators for latent variables belong together. It varies from 0 to 1.0. According to Garson (2004) a common rule is that the indicators should have a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 to judge the set reliable.

- Correlation Analysis

  The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient measures the degree of linear relationship between two variables. The emphasis in correlation is on the degree to which a linear model may describe the relationship between two variables in terms of direction and strength. The correlation coefficient may take on any value between 1 and -1 and the closer the coefficient is to either of these points, the stronger the relationship is between two variables (Howell, 2004). A correlation of +1.00 is indicative of a perfect positive relationship, a correlation of 0.00 indicates no relationship, and a correlation of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative relationship between variables (Salkind, 2008). Taken as a rule of

thumb, the following scales are used for interpreting the correlations (Howell, 2004):

- Values between 0 and 0.3 indicate a weak linear relationship
- Values between 0.3 and 0.7 indicate a moderate linear relationship
- Values between 0.7 and 1.0 indicate a strong linear relationship

4.5.2.2.3   Advantages of SEM

SEM has become a popular, important and widely used analysis approach in psychology over the past couple of years (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; MacCallum & Austin, 2000; Ryu & West, 2009). There are various advantages to using SEM, namely:

- SEM allows researchers to conduct systematic and simultaneous evaluation of variables used in the model from which causal inference might be approximated (Back, 2001).
- The need to use multiple observed variables to better understand the area of scientific inquiry. Basic methods only utilise a limited number of variables, which are not capable of dealing with the complicated theories. SEM permits complex phenomena to be statistically modelled and tested (Garson, 2004; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).
- Greater recognition of the validity and reliability of observed scores from measurement instruments. Measurement error has become a huge issue in many disciplines. SEM techniques take the measurement error into account when statistically analysing data (Garson, 2004; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).
- SEM has the ability to analyse more advanced theoretical models which increases the capability to analyse complicated theoretical models of complex phenomena. It also allows researchers to measure mediating effects by easily creating additional paths in the hypothesised model (Back, 2001; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).
- SEM allows for more flexible assumptions (even in the face of multicollinearity) as well as the attraction of SEM's graphical modelling interface, the ability to test models with multiple dependents and the SEM strategy of comparing alternative models to assess relative model fit (Garson, 2004).
- SEM software programs have become increasingly user-friendly (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

4.5.2.2.4   SEM models

Various theoretical models can be tested in SEM which hypothesises how variables define constructs and how these constructs are related to each other (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

(i)   *Steps to build SEM models*

Five steps or processes can be described as the "building blocks" of all SEM analysis (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). They are:

- Model specification

  Model specification can be defined as the exercise of formally stating a model i.e. the explicit translation of theory into mathematical equations and involves using all the available relevant theory research and information and developing a theoretical model. This means prior to any data collection or analysis, a model is specified which should be confirmed with variance-covariance data. In other words, available information is used to decide which variables to include in the theoretical model and how they are related.

- Model identification

  During SEM it is crucial that the identification problem is resolved prior to the estimation of parameters and each potential parameter in a model must be specified to be either a free parameter (unknown parameter that needs to be estimated), a fixed parameter (a parameter that is not free but fixed to a specified value), or a constrained parameter (an unknown parameter, equal to one or more other parameter).

  Model identification depends on the designation of parameters as fixed, free, or constrained. If two or more parameter values generates the same covariance matrix, then they are equivalent and if a parameter has the same value in all equivalent sets, then the parameter is identified

- Model estimation

  Model estimation examines the different methods for estimating the population parameters within a SEM. The estimation process involves the use of a particular fitting function to minimise the difference between the implied matrix and the sample covariance matrix of the observed or indicator variables.

The model estimation includes several fitting functions namely unweighted or ordinary least squares (ULS or OLS), generalised least squares (GLS) and maximum likelihood (ML).

ULS estimates are consistent, have no distributional assumptions or associated statistical tests and are scale dependent i.e. changes in observed variables scale yield different solutions or sets of estimates. GLS and ML methods are scale free which means that if the scale of one or more of the observed variables are transformed, the untransformed and transformed variables will yield estimates which are properly related i.e. differs by transformation.

Both GLS and ML estimation methods have large sample properties, such as minimum variance and unbiasedness as well as assume multivariate normality of the observed variables (Fan et al., 1999).

- Model testing

After obtaining the parameter estimates, it should be determined how well the data fit the model i.e. to what extent the theoretical model is supported by the obtained sample data.

- Model modification

Model modification is applied if the fit of the implied theoretical model is not as strong. This is done by using various approaches, such as considering the statistical significance of each parameter and fixing parameters that are not statistically significant, or examining the residual matrix for misspecification.

(ii)   *SEM Model Approaches*

These five steps furthermore fall into three main approaches when going from theory to a SEM model. As already mentioned, SEM is viewed as a confirmatory rather than exploratory procedure, using one of the following three approaches (Garson, 2004):

- Strictly confirmatory approach

This entails the testing of a model using SEM goodness-of-fit tests to determine if the pattern of variances and covariances in the data is consistent with a structural model specified by the researcher (Garson, 2004).

Within this approach a theoretical model is either accepted or rejected based on a chi-square statistical test of significance (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

- Alternative models approach

Following this approach means testing two or more causal models to determine which has the best fit. There are usually many goodness-of-fit measures reflecting different consideration and usually three or four are reported on (Garson, 2004).

- Model development approach

The goal of the model development approach is to find a model which the data fit well statistically, but also has practical and substantive theoretical meaning as it entails specifying a model in which the initial data do not fit at an acceptable model fit criterion level (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

According to Garson (2004) the problem with the model development approach is models confirmed in this manner is post-hoc ones which may not be stable.

Within this research study two approaches will be followed, namely the Strictly confirmatory approach (to confirm a structural model specified by another researcher) and the Model development approach (to find model that the data fit well statistically).

(iii) *Model Fit*

The primary goal of SEM to test theories is to find a statistically significant theoretical model which also has practical and substantive meaning.

According to Schumacker and Lomax (2004) three criteria is used when judging the statistical significance and substantive meaning of a theoretical model:

- The first criterion can be described as the non-statistical significance of the chi-square test and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) values, which can also be referred to as global fit measures. A non-statistically significant chi-square value indicates the sample covariance matrix and the reproduced model-implied covariance matrix are similar. A RMSEA value less than or equal to 0.05 is considered acceptable.
- The second criteria is the statistical significance of individual parameter estimates for the paths in the model, which are critical values computed by dividing the parameter estimates by their respective standard errors. This is referred to as a *t* value or a

critical value and is normally compared to a tabled *t* value of 1.96 at the 0.05 level of significance.

- The third criterion considers the magnitude and the direction of the parameter estimates, focusing on whether a positive or a negative coefficient makes sense for the parameter estimate.

Schumacker and Lomax (2004, p. 81) furthermore claim determining a model fit is complicated because several model fit criteria have been developed to assist in interpreting SEM under different model-building assumptions. Furthermore, SEM fit indices "has no single statistical test of significance which identifies a correct model given the sample data, especially since equivalent models or alternative models can exist which yield exactly the same data-to-model fit".

Model fit determines the degree to which the sample variance-covariance data fit the SEM and criteria most commonly used (also called measures of absolute fit) are chi-square (x^2), the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). (See Table 4.2 for fit indices and their interpretation)

- Chi Square (x^2)

Chi-square is the only statistical test of significance for testing the theoretical model and value ranges from zero for a saturated model with all paths included to a maximum for the independence model with no paths included. A x^2 value of 0 indicates a perfect fit.

A significant x^2 value relative to the degrees of freedom indicates the observed and implied variance-covariance matrices differ. Statistical significance indicates the probability that this difference is due to sampling variation.

It is important to note the x^2 model fit criterion is affected by sample size and as sample size increases, the x^2 statistic has a tendency to indicate a significant probability level (Fan et al., 1999).

The x^2 value should furthermore not be significant if there is a good model fit (Garson, 2004).

- Goodness-of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)

GFI determine if the model being tested should be accepted or rejected and can be used to compare the fit of two different models with the same data or compare the fit of a single model using different data (Garson, 2004).

Goodness of fit is the extent to which the hypothesised model reproduces the covariance structure among the variables in the data. The closer the reproduced covariance structure is to the observed covariance structure, the better the model fits the data. (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Ryu & West, 2009).

The GFI measures the level of variance and covariance in S that is predicted by the produced matrix $\sum$ and is based on the ration of the sum of the squared differences between the observed and reproduced matrices to the observed variances (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

According to Fan et al. (1999) it is important to note a "good fit" is not the same as the strength of a relationship and a perfect fit can be achieved even when all variables in the model were totally uncorrelated.

The adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) is a variant of GFI which adjusts GFI for degrees of freedom (Garson, 2004). Schumacker and Lomax (2004) recommend using 0.95 as the cut-off.

- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

The RMSEA provides a measure of discrepancy between the covariance matrix and the reproduced covariance matrix in the population. RMSEA attempts to measure the error of approximation in the population apart from the error of estimation due to sampling errors. RMSEA includes an adjustment for parsimony of the model by penalising for number of estimated parameters. Overall, RMSEA is a measure of the lack of fit per degree of freedom within the population (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Ryu & West, 2009).

The RMSEA is thus a standardised measure of error of approximation. An RMSEA value of 0.05 or less indicates a close approximation and values of up to 0.08 suggests a reasonable fit of the model in the population (Garson, 2004).

Incremental fit indices, measure the proportionate improvement in fit by comparing a target model with a more restricted, nested baseline model and the criteria most commonly used are the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and the Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI) (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Fan et al., 1999).

- Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990) provides a measure of goodness-of-fit of the hypothesised model compared to an independence model.

The general rule of thumb for acceptance of a model fit is the CFI should at least be 0.90 (Bollen, 1989).

- Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The NFI, also known as the Bentler Bonett normed fit index was developed as an alternative to CFI as it does not require making chi-square assumptions. Its values range between 0 and 1 (perfect fit). Values above 0.95 are regarded as good, between 0.90 and 0.95 as acceptable and below 0.90 indicate a need to respecify the model (Garson, 2004).

- Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)

The NNFI, also called the Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index or the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) is similar to the NFI, but penalizes for model complexity. It is less affected by sample size than the NFI. NNFI close to 1 indicates a good fit, equal to 0.90 indicates acceptable model fit and a NNFI below 0.90 indicates a need to respecify the model. Hu and Bentler (1999) proposes a NNFI >0.95 as the cut-off point for a good model fit.

Table 4.2

Model Fit Criteria and Acceptable Fit Interpretation

Model Fit Criterion	Acceptable Level	Interpretation
Chi-square	Tabled x^2 value	Compares obtained x^2 value with tabled value for given *df*
Goodness-of-fit (GFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to 0.95 reflects a good fit
Adjusted GFI (AGFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value adjusted for *df*, with 0.95 a good model fit
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	Researcher defines level	Indicates the closeness of $\sum$ to *S* matrix
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.05	Value less than 0.05 indicates a good model fit
Tucker-Lewis index	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to 0.95 reflects a good model fit
Normed Fit Index	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to 0.95 reflects a good model fit
Normed chi-square	1.0 - 5.0	Less than 1.0 is a poor model fit; more than 5.0 reflects a need for improvement
Parsimonious fit index	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Compares values in alternative models
Akaike information criterion	0 (perfect fit) to negative value (poor fit)	Compares values in alternative models

From A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modelling by R.E. Schumacker and R.G. Lomax (2004, p.82), New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

4.5.2.3   Statistical programme

The statistical programme used to determine the above was the SPSS statistical package Amos 18 (SPSS, 2009). Statistics reported in Chapter 5 are rounded off to two decimal places, however for the purpose of decision-making, statistical displays, p-values confidence levels and t-statistics are rounded off to three decimal places. A 95% confidence interval with p–value smaller or equal to 0.05 will be used to determine statistical significance. Effect sizes (Steyn, 2002) will be used to decide on the practical significance of the findings. The suggestion of Cohen (1998) that a medium effect cut-off point of 0.30 should be set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients, will be incorporated.

4.6   STATISTICAL HYPOTHESES

According to Brewerton and Millward (2001, p. 195) a hypothesis is "a tentative proposition made as a basis for further exploration, often based on limited evidence. A null hypothesis (i.e. the assumption that the hypothesis is unfounded) may only be rejected in light of sufficient evidence that the hypothesis is supported".

The following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1:   There is a positive relationship between the Big Five Personality dimensions and trust.

Hypothesis 2:   There is a positive relationship between Managerial Practices dimensions and trust.

Hypothesis 3:   There is a positive relationship between Quality of Work Life dimensions and Organisational Trust (The Big Five Personality and Managerial Practices dimensions).

4.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 4, the research methodology was discussed, describing the empirical research by commencing with the research design. Other sections focused on the target population and sampling strategy, measuring instruments, data processing and hypotheses formulation.

With regard to measuring instruments, special attention was given to the rationale of and the motivation for using the selected measurement instrument, as well as the reliability and validity of each instrument. Further discussion included the nature and composition of each questionnaire as well as its administration. Further elaboration was provided on the data collection procedure as well as the statistical processing and interpretation of raw and converted data was provided with the focus on Structural Equation Modelling. A detailed discussion was also provided to further explain the Structural Equation Modelling research approach.

Specific hypotheses were formulated to test the dependent relationships of the empirical data. Within Chapter 5 the results of the research will be discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

In the previous chapter the methods, techniques and procedures to be followed in order to obtain quantitative date were discussed. The aim of Chapter 5 is to present and discuss the results of various analyses which were performed in order to test the hypotheses that were set for the research.

The results of the empirical research will be presented in tables as well as in graphs. Descriptive as well as inferential statistics were applied to do the interpretation. This chapter commences with descriptive statistics, followed by inferential techniques.

5.1   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study and provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures (Huysamen, 2001a).

The descriptive statistics will give an overview of the study and sample, and will be presented and illustrated by means of tables and graphs.

5.1.1   Biographical profile of the sample

As mentioned in Chapter 4, Section 1 of the questionnaire included six biographical questions on the participants – collecting information relevant to age, gender, ethnicity or race (e.g. African, Indian, Coloured and White), tenure within the organisation, geographical area and customer base. For the purpose of this research study, the biographical question regarding geographical area was not reported on, as the research study was extended to include the whole geographical area of the business and not just one region as was originally planned.

Table 5.1 depicts a numerical dispersion of the sample which consisted of 203 participants. Illustrations in the form of graphs and discussions will follow the summarised table.

Table 5.1

Summary of demographic profile of sample

Demographical variable	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Gender			
Male	133	65.5	65.5
Female	70	34.5	100.0
TOTAL	203	100.0	
Age			
Under 25 years	17	8.4	8.4
26 to 36 years	105	51.7	60.1
37 to 46 years	53	26.1	86.2
47 to 56 years	23	11.3	97.5
57 years and older	5	2.5	100.0
TOTAL	203	100.0	
Ethnicity			
African	124	61.1	61.4
Indian	23	11.3	72.8
Coloured	9	4.4	77.2
White	46	22.7	100.0
Unknown	1	0.5	
TOTAL	203	100.0	
Tenure			
Less than 1 year	33	16.3	16.3
2 to 5 years	80	39.4	55.7
6 to 10 years	22	10.8	66.5
11 to 15 years	27	13.3	79.8
16 to 20 years	21	10.3	90.1
21 years or more	20	9.9	100.0
TOTAL	203	100.0	
Customer base (Number of clients)			
Less than 5 clients	0	0.0	0.0
6 to 10 clients	2	1.0	1.0
11 to 15 clients	9	4.4	5.4
16 to 20 clients	19	9.4	14.8
21 and more clients	173	85.2	100.0
TOTAL	203	100.0	

Figure 5.1 indicates the gender distribution. The sample consists of 203 participants with 133 males (65.5%) representing the majority of the total group followed by 70 females (34.5%) comprising the minority of the sample.
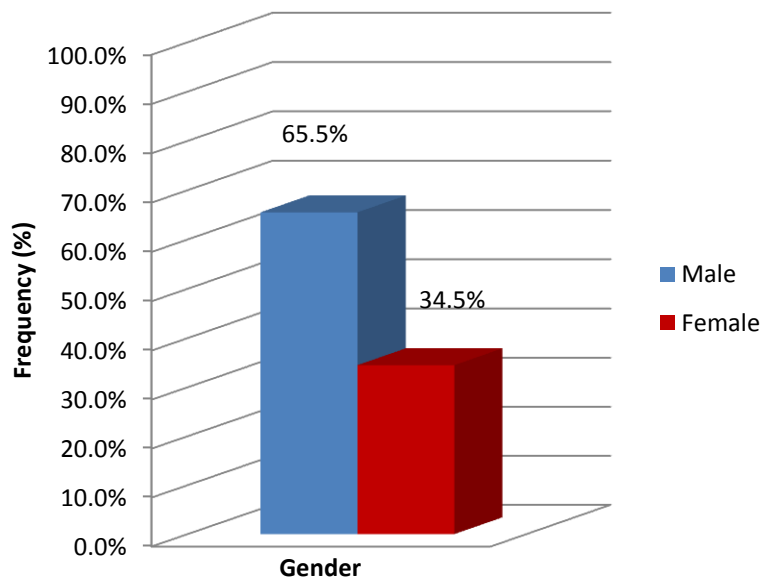
Figure 5.1: Gender distribution

The age distribution is exemplified in Figure 5.2. In this category employees between the age of 26 to 36 years (N=105) represents the largest proportion, 51.7% of the sample, followed by the age group 37 to 46 years (N=53) representing 26.1% of the overall sample. Employees between the ages of 47 to 56 years (N=23) comprise 11.3% of the total sample, followed by 17 participants (8.4%) 25 years and younger. The smallest proportion (2.5%) represents employees 57 years and older (N=5).
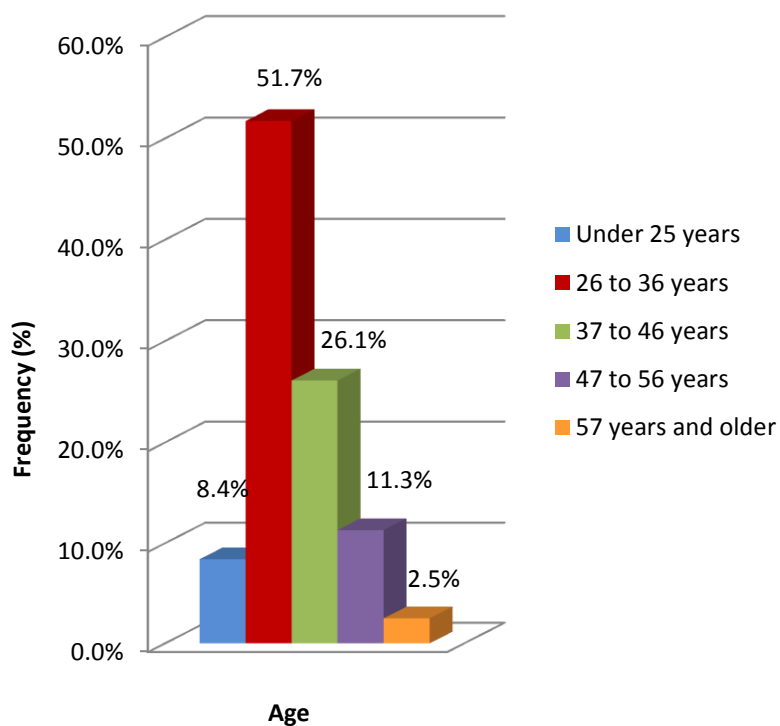
Figure 5.2: Age distribution

Figure 5.3 depicts the ethnicity distribution of the sample. All four ethnical groups representing the South Africa social composition are included in the sample, although not in even numbers. The African group consists of 124 participants, representing 61.1% of the total sample, followed by the 46 Whites (22.7%) representing the second largest group. The Indian group (23 in total) represented 11.3% of the sample followed by the Coloured group (9 employees) representing the smallest proportion (4.4%) of the sample. One respondent (0.5%) did not indicate ethnicity in the answering of the questions.
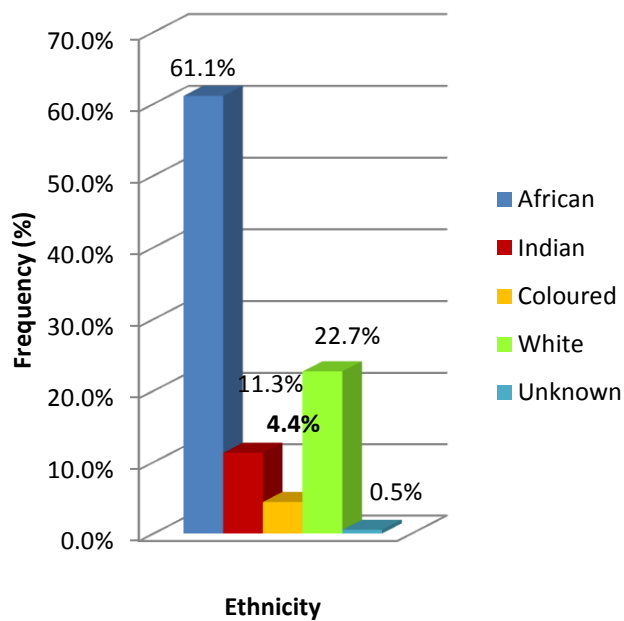
Figure 5.3: Ethnicity

In terms of the tenure of employees within the sample, Figure 5.4 provides an overview. It seems most of the employees fall within the category of 2 to 5 years (N=80) representing 39.4% of the sample. This is followed by a tenure of less than 1 year (N=33) representing 16.3% of the sample. Employees who has been in the organisation for 11 to 15 years (N=27) represents 13.3% of the total group. These are followed by a tenure of 6 to 10 years (N=22), comprising 10.8%, a tenure of 16 to 20 years (N=21) representing 10.3 % of the group and lastly a tenure of 21 years and more (N=20), comprising 9.9% of the sample group.
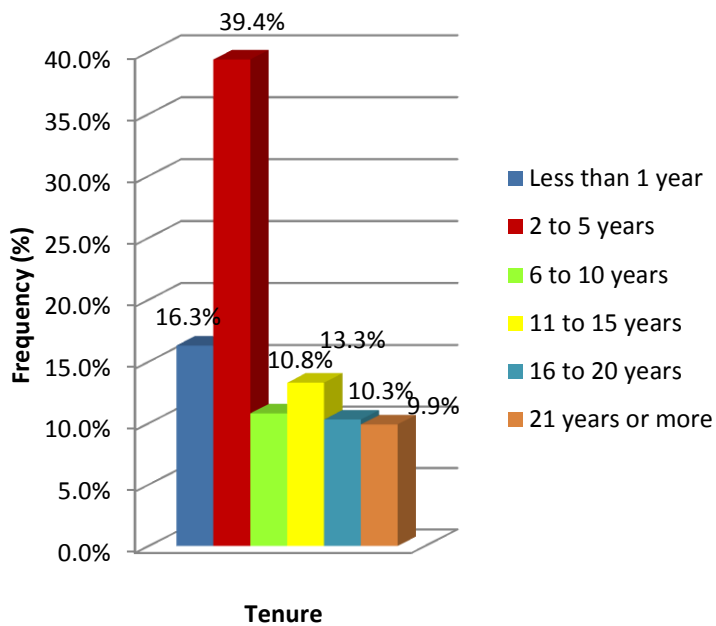
Figure 5.4: Tenure in organisation

The last demographic category deals with the customer base of the participants. As indicated in Figure 5.5 it seems as if most employees (N=173) have a customer base of 21 and more clients comprising 85.2% of the overall sample. In second place there are 19 employees with a client base between 16 and 20 representing 9.4% of the group. Thereafter 9 employees have between 11 and 15 customers representing 4.4% of the sample. Two participants (1%) have between 6 and 10 clients only and from the results no sales representative has less than 5 clients (N=0).
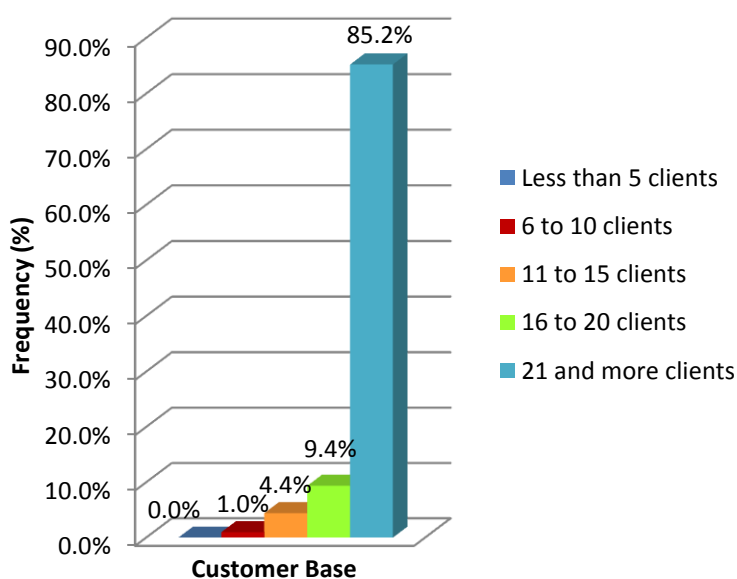
Figure 5.5: Customer base (Number of clients)

5.2 INTERPRETATION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

The results of the means and standard deviations of the dimensions of both the Organisational Trust Audit, as well as the QWL are presented in Table 5.2.

Organisational Trust examines the constructs conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability, resourcefulness, trust relationship, credibility, work support, information sharing, team management, change which has occurred and interpersonal trust.

Table 5.2:

The Means and Standard Deviations of the dimensions of Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life

	Dimension	N	Mean	Std deviation	Scale Min	Scale Max
Organisational Trust						
Personality	Conscientiousness	203	6.8725	1.78531	1	9
Personality	Extraversion	203	7.0113	1.53068	1	9
Personality	Agreeableness	203	6.7204	1.91986	1	9
Personality	Emotional Stability	203	6.5596	1.89552	1	9
Personality	Resourcefulness	203	6.6369	1.45027	1	9
Managerial Practices	Trust Relationship	203	3.9261	0.93250	1	5
Managerial Practices	Credibility	203	3.6608	0.89743	1	5
Managerial Practices	Work Support	203	3.7968	1.12450	1	5
Managerial Practices	Information Sharing	203	3.5554	0.89778	1	5
Managerial Practices	Team Management	203	3.9372	0.97782	1	5
Managerial Practices	Change which has occurred	198	3.0009	1.02827	1	5
Managerial Practices	Interpersonal trust	200	3.6333	0.77020	1	5
Quality of Work Life						
	Skill Discretion	200	3.0000	0.38563	1	4
	Decision Authority	200	2.6675	0.38348	1	4
	Task Control	200	2.8188	0.48400	1	4
	Work and Time pressure	200	2.7100	0.52658	1	4
	Role Ambiguity	200	3.1575	0.50103	1	4
	Physical Exertion	198	2.2407	0.65114	1	4
	Hazardous Exposure	200	1.7981	0.59026	1	4
	Job Insecurity	200	2.0700	0.45031	1	4
	Lack of Meaningfulness	200	3.3283	0.48134	1	4
	Social Support Supervisor	200	3.0117	0.59486	1	4
	Social Support Colleagues	200	3.0882	0.50257	1	4
	Job Satisfaction	200	2.8890	0.64651	1	4

According to Table 5.2 it is apparent *Extraversion* reflects the highest mean of 7.0113 which indicates most line managers are perceived as high in extraversion. With regard to the Personality dimensions the second highest is *Conscientiousness* (6.8725) and generating the lowest mean is *Emotional Stability* with a mean of 6.5596. This indicates employees perceive line managers to reflect less on absence of anxiety, depression, anger, worry and insecurity.

Table 5.2 furthermore depicts with regard to results for the Managerial Practices as part of the Organisational Trust construct, *Team Management* reflects the highest mean of 3.9372 followed by the *Trust Relationship* with a mean of 3.9261. This reflects the employees perceive line managers to effectively manage team and individual goal accomplishments as well as handling conflict within the groups. It furthermore indicates employees perceive the relationship they have with their immediate supervisors as fairly open, honest and fair with the intention to motivate the employees. *Change which has occurred*, scored the lowest mean of 3.009 which shows employees are not always satisfied with changes which has occurred within the business.

Looking at the factors within the Quality of Work Life construct, *Lack of Meaningfulness* has the highest mean (3.3283) indicating employees perceive their jobs to be important and valued. This is followed by *Role Ambiguity* with a mean of 3.1575 and *Social Support from Colleagues* (3.0882). *Hazardous Exposure* had the lowest mean (1.7981). Considering these statistics, it seems as though employees have a clear understanding of their role and responsibility within the organisation and experience and value support from fellow colleagues. The low mean obtained by *Hazardous Exposure* indicates employees within this population are not really exposed to dangerous objects and situations.

5.3   RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

The Cronbach alpha was used to determine the internal reliability of items within each factor. These results are presented in Table 5.3.

Although reliability of both questionnaires were already reported on in Chapter 4, it was important to verify reliability especially as the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire reliability scores are not based on the South African population.

An acceptable value for Cronbach's alpha is between 0.70 and 0.80 and values substantially lower indicate an unreliable scale (Field, 2005). However, Kline (1999) notes that although the generally accepted value for reliability is 0.8, when dealing with psychological constructs, values below 0.7 can be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

Cronbach's alpha is furthermore influenced by reverse scored items and although these scores are important for reducing bias, in reliability analysis these reverse scored items make a difference and in the extreme can lead to a negative Cronbach's alpha (Field, 2005). According to Nichols (1999) a Cronbach alpha will be negative whenever the average covariance among the items is negative. These items should be recoded.

Nichols (1999) further mentions three reasons for obtaining negative alphas:

- The scale consists of items that are worded in opposite directions to alleviate response biases.
- While true population covariances among items are positive, it is likely that when working within small sample sizes and small numbers of items, sampling errors have produced a negative average covariance in a given sample of cases.
- The items do not truly have positive covariances and therefore may not form a useful single scale as they are not measuring the same thing.

For the purpose of this research study, a reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher was considered as an acceptable score of internal consistency.

Table 5.3

Results of Reliability Analysis

	Dimension	Cronbach Alpha	N of items	Comments
	Organisational Trust			
Personality	Conscientiousness	0.954	8	
	Extraversion	0.940	7	
	Agreeableness	0.980	8	
	Emotional Stability	0.952	5	
	Resourcefulness	0.852	7	
Managerial Practices	Trust Relationship	0.941	5	
	Credibility	0.944	15	
	Work Support	0.945	4	
	Information Sharing	0.602	4	
	Team Management	0.947	8	
	Change which has occurred	0.940	11	
	Interpersonal Trust	0.874	9	
	Quality of Work Life			
	Skill Discretion	0.598	8	
	Decision Authority	-0.179	4	Negative questions were recoded but did not improve reliability.
	Task Control	0.536	4	
	Work and Time pressure	0.354	3	
	Role Ambiguity	0.811	6	
	Physical Exertion	0.596	3	
	Hazardous Exposure	0.852	8	
	Job Insecurity	-0.125	3	
	Lack of Meaningfulness	0.613	3	
	Social Support Supervisor	0.888	6	
	Social Support Colleagues	0.908	11	
	Job Satisfaction	0.843	5	One negative question was recoded

Based on each factor's Cronbach's alpha, it was determined that all factors included within the Organisational Trust dimension had a strong internal reliability with the lowest score being 0.602 obtained for *Information Sharing. Agreeableness* presented with the highest score of 0.980.

These findings are consistent with research conducted by Von der Ohe et al. (2004) in which the internal consistency reliability of all constructs were high. Table 5.4 is a comparison of the Cronbach alphas of the current research study and the research conducted by Von der Ohe et al. (2004)

Table 5.4:

Comparison of Cronbach Alphas between Current Research and Von der Ohe et al (2004)

	Von der Ohe et al. (2004)	Current Research findings
Trust Relationship	0.93	0.94
Credibility	0.95	0.94
Agreeableness	0.95	0.98
Conscientiousness	0.93	0.95
Extraversion	0.89	0.94
Resourcefulness	0.87	0.85
Emotional Stability	0.91	0.95

*Von der Ohe et al. (2004) only included Trust Relationship and Credibility as part of the Managerial Practices

The reliability coefficient of the factors which forms part of the QWL dimension appears to vary between -0.179 and 0.908 with five of these reliability coefficients being above 0.9 – which can be regarded as acceptable internal consistency (Kline, 1999).

The item analysis based on Cronbach's alpha suggests there was a negative relationship among some items after recoding took place, i.e. *Decision Authority* and *Job Insecurity*.

Based on the reliability analysis, *Information Sharing* (0.602) was excluded from SEM Model 1 (Organisational Trust Model) due to its weak Cronbach alpha.

Consequently, *Decision Authority* was also excluded from SEM Model 2 (Relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL) due to its weak Cronbach alpha. There is however no obvious reason for the negative Cronbach alpha obtained for *Job Insecurity*, as there did not appear to be any coding error and it was decided to include it as part of the model.

Overall, it can be concluded the internal consistency (reliability) of the overall Organisational Trust questionnaire and the factors are consistent in what it is intended to measure. With regard to the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire and its factors, internal reliability seems to vary between the various factors and can definitely be improved.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, both questionnaires presented with adequate reliability measures i.e. the cronbach alpha ranged between 0.85 and 0.95 for the Trust audit survey (Martins, 2000) and 0.73 to 0.93 for the Leiden Quality of Work questionnaire (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). It was therefore decided not to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis.

5.4   STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) multivariate analysis technique was used to determine the relationship between the various constructs of QWL and the independent dimension of trust to test the theoretical model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The analysis was carried out with the SPSS, AMOS 18 statistical programme (SPSS, 2009).

Both models were originally tested using the covariance matrix based on SEM procedures. Alternative models were tested on the basis of the theory and changes to the structural and/or measurement models were made as suggested by the SEM modification indices.

Reflecting on the SEM literature, this research study includes two approaches with regard to SEM models. Firstly, Model 1 (Organisational Trust Relationship Model) can be regarded as a *Strictly confirmatory approach*, i.e. this entails the testing of a model using SEM goodness-of-fit tests to determine if the pattern of variances and covariances in the data is consistent with a structural model specified by another researcher (Garson, 2004). Model 1 can thus be seen as an approach to confirm the already established model of Organisational Trust, as proposed by Martins (2000).

The second approach (Model 2: The relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL) followed within this research study is the *Model development approach* whereby the goal is to find a model which the data fit well statistically, but which also has practical and substantive theoretical meaning as it entails specifying a model in which the initial data do not fit at an acceptable model fit criterion level (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

These two models are described in the next section.

5.4.1   Model 1: Organisational Trust Relationship

The Trust relationship model (Figure 4.1) proposed by Martins (2000) was confirmed with Model 1. Within the original model, Martins (2000) found a low relationship between trust and the Personality aspects (0.24) and a positive relationship between trust and Managerial Practices (0.58). The results also indicated credibility, group management and work support are directly associated with Managerial Practices. Information sharing did not appear to be directly associated with Managerial Practices. Results further revealed a non-significant chi-square of 4 404.511 based on 33 degrees of freedom with a probability value of less than 0.001.

Model 1 however, includes two additional factors to Martins's (2000) model, namely Change which has occurred and Interpersonal Trust and excludes the dimension Information Sharing (weak Cronbach alpha).

Table 5.5 is a comparison of the findings from Martins (2000) with the findings within this research indicating the chi-square, degrees of freedom, probability level and Comparative Fit Indexes.

The significant minimum fit chi-square statistic (=90.874, df=40 and p = 0.000) obtained demonstrated imperfect model fit and implied the model might not be adequate and might therefore have to be rejected. The chi-square statistic is sensitive to multivariate normality and sample size (Fan et al., 1999). To overcome this problem, Bollen and Long (1993) and Kelloway (1995) recommend the ratio of chi-square and degrees of freedom (x^2/df) be used instead. A value of between 2 and 5 is believed to incite good fit. A value of 2.272 was obtained for the structural model. When evaluated against this standard, it therefore seemed the model fits the data adequately.

It must be kept in mind however that within SEM, the chi-square is used more as a descriptive fit than statistical test. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the chi-square value should not be significant if there is a good model fit as a non-significant chi-square indicates the model is consistent with observed data.

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is based on the analysis of residuals, with smaller values indicating a better fit with data (Ryu & West, 2009). Garson (2004) contends a value lower than 0.08 indicates acceptable fit. Model 1 achieved an RMSEA value of .079 which falls within what is regarded as acceptable fit.

The goodness-of-fit (GFI) index for Model 1 is 0.922 which indicates an adequate fit. In addition, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) equals 0.980, the Normed Fit Index (NFI) equals 0.965 and the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) equals 0.973, which indicate a good fit as all of the values are very close to the recommended perfect fit, 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit). See Table 4.2 for the model fit criteria and acceptable fit interpretation.

Based on the above, it is therefore believed the structural model, based on these indices, had achieved adequate fit.

Table 5.5

Comparison of Trust results

	Martins (2000)	Model 1: Findings
Chi-square	4404.511	90.874
Degrees of Freedom (DF)	33	40
Probability Level (P)	0.001	0.000
CFI	0.890	0.980
NFI / BDNFI	0.889	0.965
NNFI / BBNNFI	0.850	0.973

*Model 1 includes Interpersonal Trust and Changes which has occurred as additional factors and excludes Information Sharing

The statistically significant standardised parameter estimates for the revised theoretical model and is presented in Table 5.6, indicating all the dimensions of the Big Five Personality aspects and the Managerial Practices are manifestations of the Organisational Trust construct as all the parameter estimations are significant on 5% significance level.

Interpreting the regression coefficients it seems as though Personality aspects have less impact on Trust (estimate of 1.51) than Managerial Practices (estimate of 2.89). Within the Personality dimension, Agreeableness has the highest impact (estimate of 14.79) explaining 93.2% of the variance, thereafter Conscientiousness follows with an estimate of 12.41, explaining 75.9% of the variance.

Change which has occurred (estimate of 4.98) and Interpersonal trust (estimate of 5.18) seems to have the lowest impact on Trust explaining 16% and 41.7% or the variance respectively.

Table 5.6

Squared Multiple Correlations (Organisational Trust Relationship)

	Dimension	Estimate
	Organisational Trust	
Personality	Conscientiousness	0.759
	Extraversion	0.671
	Agreeableness	0.932
	Emotional Stability	0.811
	Resourcefulness	0.711
Managerial Practices	Trust Relationship	0.812
	Credibility	0.953
	Work Support	0.892
	Team Management	0.915
	Change which has occurred	0.160
	Interpersonal Trust	0.417

Focusing on the Managerial Practices, it seems as though Credibility has the highest impact (estimate of 13.11), explaining 95.3% of the variance and Team management explains 91.5% of the variance with an estimate of 7.47.

The regression model which forms part of the SEM process confirmed there are relationships between most dimensions. The results of the SEM regression analysis indicating causal relationships are indicated in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7

Causal Relationships in SEM within Model 1: Organisational Trust

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Conscientiousness	←	Personality	12.411	0.798	15.56	***
Extraversion	←	Personality	8.753	0.621	14.104	***
Agreeableness	←	Personality	14.791	0.794	18.618	***
Emotional Stability	←	Personality	8.514	0.517	16.454	***
Resourcefulness	←	Personality	8.539	0.578	14.774	***
Trust relationship	←	Personality	1.512	0.268	5.652	***
Credibility	←	Managerial Practice	13.110	0.686	19.118	***
Work Support	←	Managerial Practice	4.238	0.236	17.976	***
Team Management	←	Managerial Practice	7.465	0.406	18.402	***
Change which has occurred	←	Managerial Practice	4.904	0.836	5.865	***
Organisational Trust	←	Managerial Practice	5.110	0.5	10.223	***
Trust Relationship	←	Managerial Practice	2.893	0.292	9.917	***

Estimate = estimated path coefficient (prediction) for arrows in the model (Garson, 2004)
S.E. = Standard error
C.R. = Critical ration (estimate divided by the standard error [Garson, 2004]) (>1.96 = significant at the .05 level)
P= Probability value (<0.05 = significant on the 0.001 level *** [Garson, 2004])

The results indicate Personality and Managerial practice have a causal relationship with the trust relationship dimension. According to Garson (2004), all the significant causal relationships are indicated by p values below 0.05 or *** (three asterisks) on the 0.001 significance level. Two asterisks would indicate a p value for the 0.1 significance level (10%), and one asterisk would indicate a p value for the 0.05 significance level (5%)

Results depicted in Table 5.8 furthermore indicate a positive relationship between the Managerial Practices and Personality aspects (0.79). This is consistent with the research findings by Von der Ohe et al. (2004) in which they found a positive relationship between the Big Five Personality aspects and both the trust relationship and credibility dimensions.

In order to improve model fit, changes suggested by the SEM modification indexes were taken into consideration. These changes related to moderate correlations found between the unknown variables (error variances).

Table 5.8

SEM Correlations Coefficients within Organisational Trust

Dimension			Correlation	S.E	C.R.	P
Change which has occurred	⟷	Interpersonal Trust	0.480	0.055	8.794	***
e 9	⟷	e 10	0.336	0.069	4.890	***
e 1	⟷	e 2	0.789	0.029	27.261	***

P= Probability value (<0.05 = significant on the 0.001 level *** [Garson, 2004])
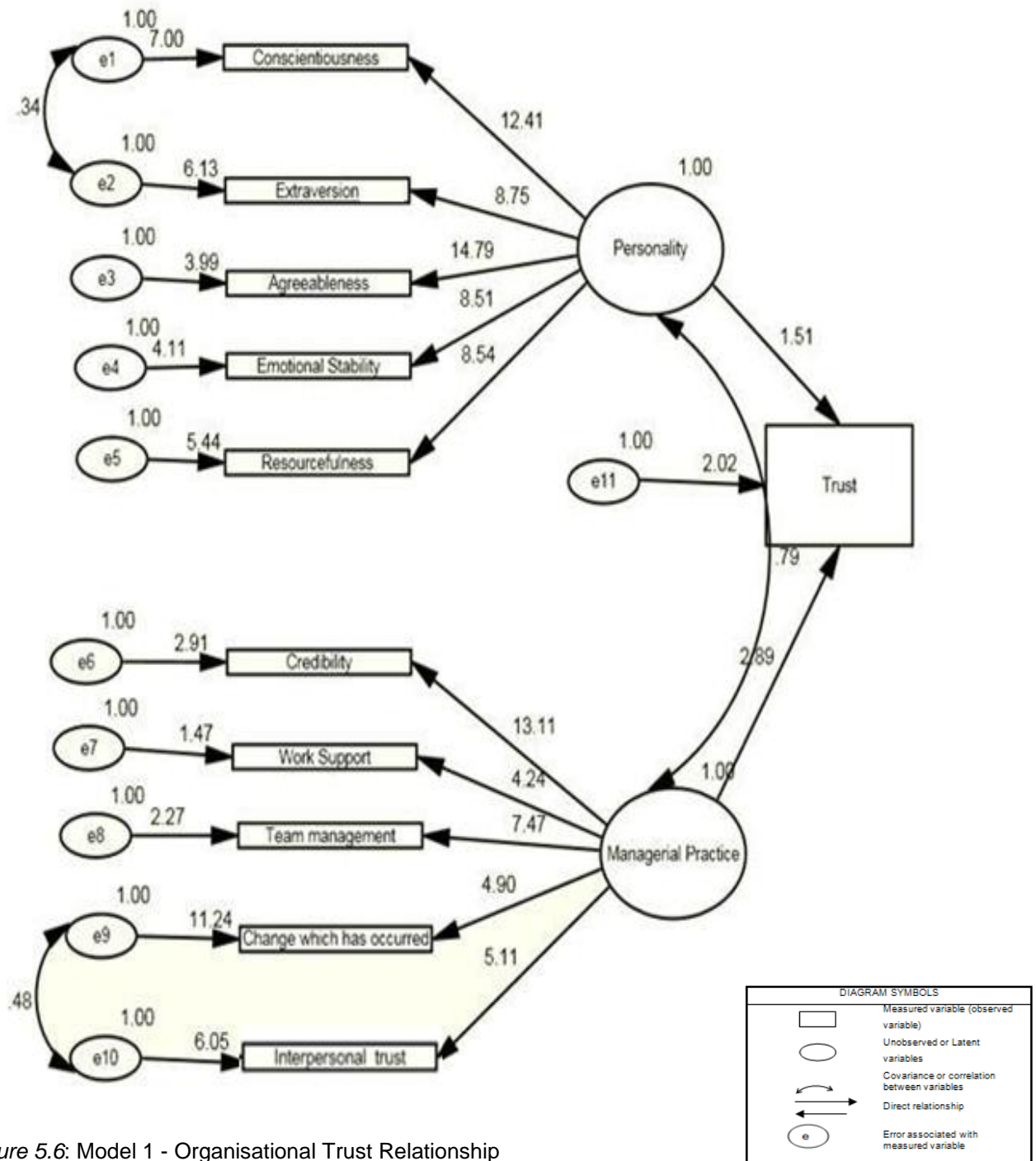
Figure 5.6: Model 1 - Organisational Trust Relationship

5.4.2 Model 2: Relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life

In Model 2, the relationship between the constructs Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life is depicted. The path diagram and parameter estimates are illustrated in Figure 5.7.

Results revealed a non-significant chi-square = 622.252 based on 0.196 degrees of freedom with a probability of 0.000. The ratio of chi-square and degrees of freedom (x^2/df) was equal to 3.175 indicating an adequate fit (a value of between 2 and 5 is believed to be a good fit) (Bollen & Long, 1993).

Contradictory to this, Model 2 achieved an RMSEA value of 0.104. According to Garson (2004) an RMSEA value of 0.05 or less indicates a close approximation and values of up to 0.08 suggests a reasonable fit of the model in the population. A value of 0.104 therefore suggests a moderate fit within the population.

The goodness-of-fit (GFI) index for Model 2 is 0.754, which also indicates a moderate fit. In addition, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) equals 0.910, the Normed Fit Index (NFI) equals 0.875 and the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) which equals 0.894 confirm these findings.

Based on the above, it is therefore believed the structural model, based on these indices, had achieved a moderate fit.

The regression coefficients for the trust dimension are unchanged to those in Model 1. Within the QWL dimension, Social support from colleagues has the highest impact (estimate of 6.75) explaining 97.5% of the variance, thereafter Social support from the supervisor follows with an estimate of 4.01, explaining 93.4% of the variance (see Table 5.9).

Hazardous exposure (estimate of 0.65) and physical exertion (0.49) seems to have the lowest impact and only explains 2% and 5% of the variance respectively. This might be due to the specific sample as it seems sales representatives are not necessarily exposed to hazardous circumstances.

Table 5.9

Squared Multiple Correlations (Relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL)

	Dimension	Estimate
	Organisational Trust	
Personality	Conscientiousness	.759
	Extraversion	.670
	Agreeableness	.932
	Emotional Stability	.811
	Resourcefulness	.711
Managerial Practices	Trust Relationship	.810
	Credibility	.956
	Work Support	.888
	Team Management	.913
	Change which has occurred	.165
	Interpersonal Trust	.429
	Quality of Work Life	
	Skill Discretion	.616
	Task Control	.475
	Work and Time pressure	.391
	Role Ambiguity	.684
	Physical Exertion	.050
	Hazardous Exposure	.021
	Job Insecurity	.131
	Lack of Meaningfulness	.545
	Social Support Supervisor	.934
	Social Support Colleagues	.975
	Job Satisfaction	.528

The regression model confirmed there are causal relationships between most dimensions, which are in line with the theory. The results of the causal relationships are depicted in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

Causal Relationships in SEM within Model 2: Organisational Trust and QWL

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Physical Exertion	←	QWL	0.489	0.153	3.193	0.001
Hazardous Exposure	←	QWL	0.652	0.32	2.039	0.41
Skill Discretion	←	QWL	3.304	0.247	13.355	***
Task Control	←	QWL	1.621	0.145	11.165	***
Work and Time pressure	←	QWL	1.155	0.117	9.858	***
Role Ambiguity	←	QWL	3.077	0.214	14.397	***
Job Insecurity	←	QWL	0.555	0.105	5.282	***
Lack of Meaningfulness	←	QWL	1.381	0.113	12.236	***
Social Support Supervisor	←	QWL	4.012	0.214	18.747	***
Social Support Colleagues	←	QWL	6.752	0.346	19.544	***
Conscientiousness	←	Personality	12.407	0.798	15.552	***
Extraversion	←	Personality	8.749	0.621	14.097	***
Agreeableness	←	Personality	14.797	0.794	18.632	***
Emotional Stability	←	Personality	8.513	0.517	16.451	***
Resourcefulness	←	Personality	8.536	0.578	14.767	***
Credibility	←	Managerial Practice	13.129	0.685	19.175	***
Work Support	←	Managerial Practice	4.228	0.236	17.900	***
Team Management	←	Managerial Practice	7.456	0.406	18.363	***
Change which has occurred	←	Managerial Practice	4.978	0.835	5.963	***
Interpersonal Trust	←	Managerial Practice	5.188	0.498	10.425	***
Trust Relationship	←	Managerial Practice	3.001	0.329	9.121	***
Trust Relationship	←	Personality	1.519	0.268	5.67	***
Trust Relationship	←	QWL	-0.171	0.206	-0.829	0.407

Estimate = estimated path coefficient (prediction) for arrows in the model (Garson, 2004)
S.E. = Standard error
C.R. = critical ration (estimate divided by the standard error [Garson, 2004]) (>1.96 = significant at the 0.05 level)
P= Probability value (<0.05 = significant on the 0.001 level *** [Garson, 2004])

The results indicate Managerial practice and Personality have a significant causal relationship with Trust relationship. In the causal relationship, three dimensions do not have a significant direct impact on QWL, namely Trust relationship, Physical Exertion and Hazardous Exposure. However, these three dimensions are intercorrelated with several other dimensions, which indicate an indirect bearing on QWL.

Analysing the SEM correlation coefficients between the various variables (See Table 5.11), the model indicates moderate correlations between QWL and Managerial Practices (0.68) as well as QWL and Personality aspects (0.54).

In order to improve model fit, changes suggested by the SEM modification indexes were taken into consideration.   These changes related to moderate correlations found between the unknown variables (error variances).

Table 5.11

SEM Correlations Coefficients between Organisational Trust & QWL

	Dimension			Correlation	S.E	P
QWL	↔	Personality		0.541	0.052	***
QWL	↔	Managerial Practices		0.679	0.039	***
Personality	↔	Managerial Practices		0.790	0.029	***
e 22	↔	e 23		0.475	0.055	***
e 6	↔	e 7		0.488	0.049	***
e 4	↔	e 3		0.453	0.056	***
e 5	↔	e 9		0.363	0.063	***
e 7	↔	e 8		0.358	0.052	***
e 13	↔	e 14		0.337	0.069	***
e 5	↔	e10		-0.316	0.085	***

S.E = Standard error
P = probability value (<0.05 = significant on the 0.001 level *** (Garson, 2004).

All correlations indicated above are significant with p values below 0.05 at the 0.001 level.

The Pearson product-moment correlation co-efficient was furthermore used to calculate the correlations between Organisational Trust, QWL, Personality and the Managerial Practices (See Table 5.12). All correlation co-efficients were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.12

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Coefficients

Dimension		Trust Relationship	QWL	Personality	Managerial Practices
Trust Relationship	Pearson Correlation	1	.545**	.793**	.760**
	Sig.(2- tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	203	200	.203	203
QWL	Pearson Correlation	.545**	1	.502**	.613**
	Sig.(2- tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	200	200.	200	200
Personality	Pearson Correlation	.793**	.502**	1	.702**
	Sig.(2- tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	203	200	203	203
Managerial Practices	Pearson Correlation	.760**	.613**	.702**	1
	Sig.(2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	203	200	203	203

** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)
*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

Highly significant positive relationships (at a 0.01 level of significance) are evident between the Trust relationship and Personality dimensions (.793), Managerial Practices and the trust relationship (.760) and Managerial Practices and personality (.702), suggesting that if Managerial Practices are regarded as positive, the trust employees experience will increase accordingly.

Moderate linear relationships are evident between Managerial Practices and QWL (.613), Trust relationship and QWL (.545) and QWL and Personality (.502).
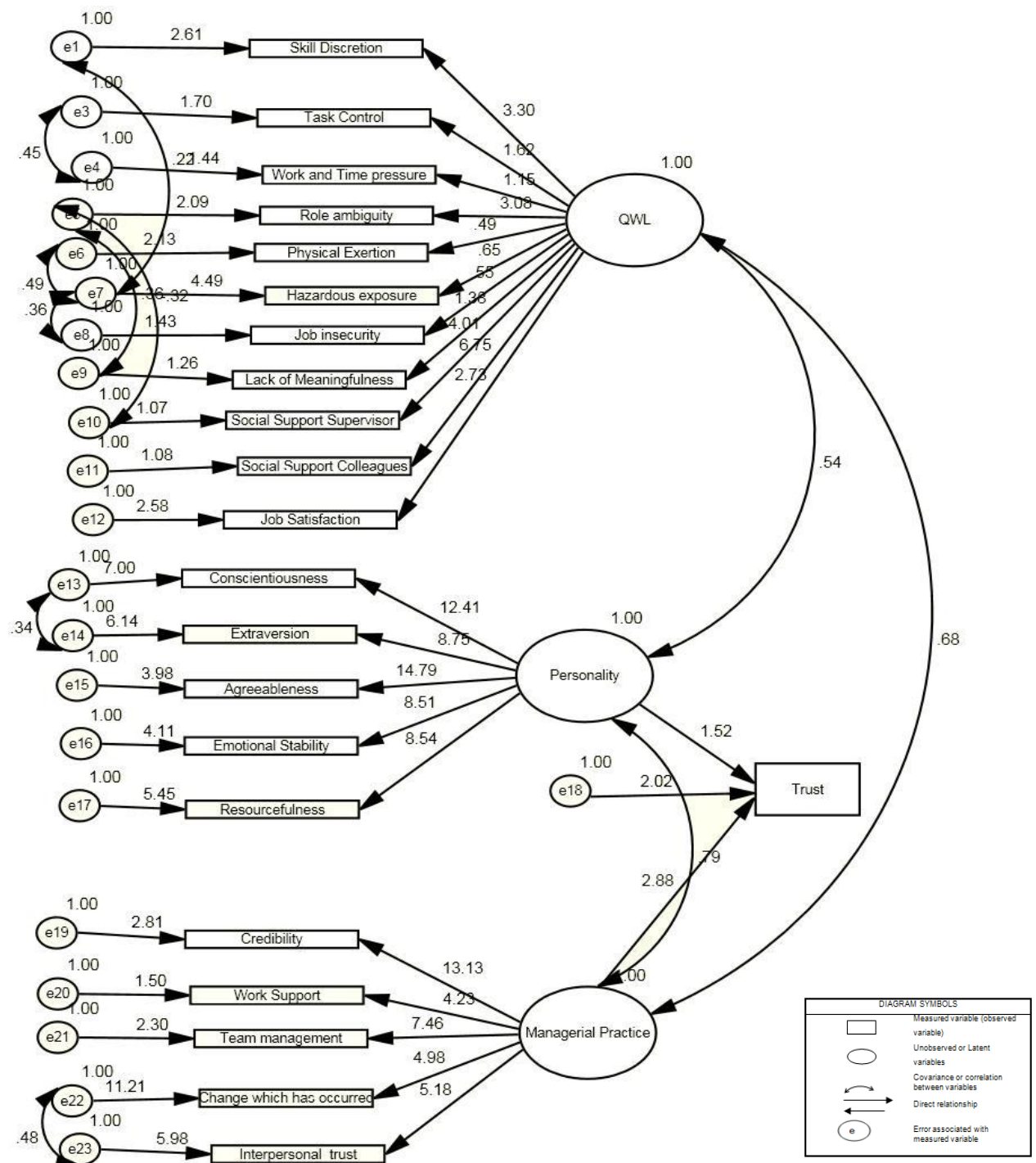
Figure 5.7: Model 2 - Relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life

Consequently, the Goodness-of-fit indices were examined in more detail to determine the acceptability of the models.

5.4.3 Goodness-of-fit indices

Goodness-of-fit tests determine if the models tested should be accepted or rejected and measures are based on fitting the model to sample moments, i.e. comparing the observed covariance matrix to the one estimated on the assumption that the model being tested is true (Garson, 2004).

A model can be considered suitable if the covariance structure implied by the model is similar to the covariance structure of the sample data as indicated by an acceptable value of Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Although a GFI value equal or greater than 0.90 indicates an acceptable fit, various researchers (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Garson, 2004; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) advise using more than one criteria when determining model fit and recommend using GFI in combination with the chi-square, RMSEA and incremental fit measures i.e. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI).

The model chi-square, also called discrepancy or discrepancy function, is the most common fit test. In order to obtain a good model fit, the chi-square value should not be significant (Garson, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The higher the chi-square and p-value associated with the chi-square, the better the fit.

It is important to note the chi-square model fit criterion is affected by sample size and as sample size increases, the chi-square has a tendency to indicate a significant probability level (Fan et al., 1999). According to Fan et al. (1999), Garson (2004) and Schumacker and Lomax (2004) an adequate sample size is larger than 200 (N>200). The sample size for this research study is 203 which is acceptable and adequate for SEM.

In order to make the chi-square less dependent on sample size, Bollen and Long (1993) and Kelloway (1995) recommend using the relative chi-square instead. The relative chi-square can be calculated by dividing the chi-square fit index by degrees of freedom (x^2/df). A value of between 2 and 5 is believed to reflect a good fit (Bollen & Long, 1993; Shumacker & Lomax, 2004).

As indicated in Table 5.13, both Model 1 and 2 revealed a non-significant chi-square (Model 1 = 90.874 and Model 2 = 622.252). In addition, the relative chi-square for both models indicated acceptable model fit, as results obtained falls within the acceptable range of 2 to 5 i.e. Model 1 = 2.272 and Model 2 = 3.175.

Absolute fit indices directly assess how well a model reproduces the sample data and includes among others, the GFI and RMSEA.

The GFI is a nonstatistical measure of the extent to which the hypothesised model reproduces the covariance structure among the variables in the data and represents the overall degree of fit. The closer the reproduced covariance structure is to the observed covariance structure, the better the model fits the data (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Ryu & West, 2009). The GFI should be equal or greater than 0.90 to indicate good fit. A GFI equal to 1 indicates perfect fit. Although GFI gives an indication of absolute fit, it is no longer regarded as a preferred measure of goodness-of-fit, due to problems associated with the measure (Garson, 2004).

However, when evaluating the GFI for both models, Model 1 revealed a good fit (GFI = 0.922) as opposed to Model 2 (GFI = 0.754), indicating a moderate fit.

The RMSEA attempts to measure the error of approximation in the population apart from the error of estimation due to sampling error and in layman's terms can be described as a measure of the lack of fit per degree of freedom within the population (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Ryu & West, 2009). An RMSEA value of 0.05 or less indicates a close approximation and values of up to 0.08 suggests a reasonable fit of the model in the population (Garson, 2004).

Model 1 attained an RMSEA value of 0.79, indicating a good fit and Model 2, a value of 0.104, indicating a moderate fit.

The incremental fix index (Comparative Fit Index) measures the proportionate improvement in fit by comparing a target model with a more restricted, nested baseline model. A null model in which all the observed variables are uncorrelated is the most typically used baseline model (Garson, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Some of these goodness-of-fit tests used are Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI). As indicated in Table 4.2, the conventional cut-off point for all three these measures are 0.90 with acceptable levels ranging between 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Evaluating the results achieved against the acceptable ranges, Model 1 obtained a good fit and Model 2 achieved acceptable fit indices (see Table 5.13).

Table 5.13

Summary of Goodness of fit indices: Model 1 and Model 2

		Model 1	Model 2
		Organisational Trust Relationship	Relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL
Measures of Absolute Fit	Chi-square	90.874	622.252
	Probability Level (P)	0.000	0.000
	Relative chi-square (x^2/df)	2.272	3.175
	GFI	0.922	0.754
	RMSEA	0.79	0.104
Incremental Fit Measures	CFI	0.980	0.910
	NFI / BDNFI	0.965	0.875
	NNFI / BBNNFI	0.973	0.894

Based on the above discussion and results provided in Table 5.13, the overall goodness-of-fit indices can be interpreted as follows:

- Both Model 1 and Model 2 produced acceptable goodness-of-fit indices by means of the non-significant chi-square obtained as well as values attained for the relative chi-square (x^2/df).

- Model 1 attained an acceptable absolute GFI of 0.922, which is above the 0.90 cut-off which reflects a good model fit. Model 2 produced a GFI of 0.754, which falls below the 0.90 cut-off and can therefore be interpreted as a moderate fit.

- Both Model 1 and Model 2 achieved acceptable incremental fit measures for the following:

    - CFI: Model 1 = 0.980 and Model 2 = 0.910 which is above the cut-off, reflecting good model fit.

    - NFI: Model 1 = 0.965 which is above the cut-off point (0.90) reflecting good model fit and Model 2 = 0.875 which is close to the cut-off point and can therefore be interpreted as reflecting adequate fit.

    - NNFI: Model 1 =0.973 which is above the cut-off point (0.90) reflecting good model fit and Model 2 = 0.894 which is close to the cut-off point and can therefore be interpreted as reflecting adequate fit.

Based on these results, Model 1 (Organisational Trust Relationship) can therefore be accepted as a model with a good fit and Model 2 (Relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL) can be accepted as a model with a moderate fit.

5.5   HYPOTHESIS TESTING

In Chapter 4, the following hypotheses were formulated. Consequently, the results described in this chapter tested these hypotheses and the following results were obtained:

Hypothesis 1:   There is a positive relationship between the Big Five Personality dimensions and trust

The results of this research study confirm a positive relationship between the Personality dimensions and Organisational Trust (0.79).

Hypothesis 2:   There is a positive relationship between Managerial Practices dimensions and trust

The results of this analysis confirm a positive relationship between Managerial Practices and Organisational Trust (0.76).

Hypothesis 3:   There is a positive relationship between Quality of Work Life dimensions and Organisational Trust (The Big Five Personality aspects and Managerial Practices dimensions)

Results indicated a moderate positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Managerial Practices (0.68) but a lower relationship with the Personality constructs (0.54) were noted. The assumption can therefore be made that there is an overall positive relationship between QWL and Organisational Trust.

5.6 INTEGRATION OF LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH RESULTS

Martins (2000) and Von der Ohe et al. (2004) found Agreeableness as a significant manifestation of the Big Five Personality aspects. This was confirmed by the results of this research. Also in accordance with Martins's (2000) research, it seems as though the Personality aspects have a lower impact on Organisational Trust than Managerial Practices.

In addition, the correlation between the Managerial Practices and Personality practices shows a positive relationship (0.79). This is consistent with the research findings by Von der Ohe et al. (2004) in which they found a positive relationship between the Big Five Personality aspects and both the trust relationship and credibility dimensions.

Information sharing was furthermore found by Martins (2000) to only contribute 22% of the variance. After analysis of reliability, the Cronbach alpha was found too weak, and information sharing was therefore not part of the confirmatory model.

Results from this research study confirms a positive relationship between the construct QWL (which includes the dimensions Skill Discretion, Task Control, Work and Team Pressure, Role Ambiguity, Physical Exertion, Hazardous Exposure, Job Insecurity, Lack of Meaningfulness, Social Support from Supervisors and Colleagues and Job Satisfaction), and Organisational Trust consisting of both Personality aspects (Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Emotional Stability and Resourcefulness) and Managerial Practices (which includes the constructs Credibility, Work Support, Team Management, Change which has occurred and Interpersonal Trust). These results seem to be in line with research findings linking the Big Five Personality aspects with QWL dimensions i.e. job satisfaction (Goodstein & Lanyon, 1999; Judge et al., 2000; Thoresen et al., 2003), organisational engagement (Bozionelos, 2004), work and time pressures (Dijkstra & Fred, 2005; Pienaar et al., 1999; Morgan & de Bruin, 2010; Pienaar et al., 2007) work-life balance (Thomson & De Bruin, 2007; Wayne et al., 2004) and reaction to change (Vacola et al., 2004).

As reported in Chapter 3, research conducted by Kaushik and Tonk (2008) found a positive correlation between the construct QWL and three of the Big Five dimensions of Personality namely: extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness. The positive relation (0.54) found between QWL and the Big Five Personality aspects support these findings.

This research study therefore indicates there is a stronger relationship between the Quality of Work Life and Managerial Practices for sales managers, than the influence of their Personality constructs.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results of the empirical investigation were presented and interpreted in Chapter 5. The biographical composition of the sample were described and illustrated. Means and standard deviations were described and discussed as part of descriptive statistics.

A thorough reliability analysis regarding both constructs was presented and consequently Information Sharing (part of Trust construct) and Decision Authority (QWL construct) were excluded from the Structural Equation Models.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to determine the relationship between the various constructs of QWL and the independent dimension of trust in order to test the theoretical model. Two types of SEM models emerged from this research study namely, a Strictly Confirmatory Model, Model 1 (Organisational Trust Relationship) as well as a Development Approach Model, Model 2 (Relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life).

A summary of results identifying the path estimates, model fit and correlation coefficients were presented. Based on these results, Model 1 (Organisational Trust Relationship) was accepted as a model with a good fit and Model 2 (Relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL) was accepted as a model with a moderate fit.

Three hypotheses were formulated for this research and consequently tested. Results suggest acceptance of all three hypotheses.

While this chapter deals with the empirical results and the confirmation of an already existing model as well as proposal of a new model, Chapter 6 addresses the conclusions, limitations and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 1 introduced the research study by means of an explanation regarding its purpose, research questions, aims and overall rationale for conducting the research, which in turn led to the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 4 regarding the relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life.

In order to find answers to these questions, research was conducted and information gathered by means of an online questionnaire. The methods followed were described in Chapter 4 and the results were discussed and presented in Chapter 5.

The overall purpose of this research was to determine if a positive relationship exists between the Quality of Work Life dimensions and Organisational Trust and what variables might have an influence on the Quality of Work Life sales representatives experience within the organisation. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) multivariate analysis technique was used to determine this relationship.

Furthermore it was anticipated that data obtained from this study will enable management within the organisation to improve the Quality of Work Life of the employees by focusing energy and resources on those aspects which could make a significant difference. The relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life was proposed and discussed during Chapter 3.

In this final chapter, the last two steps and objectives of the empirical study will be achieved. Chapter 6 will provide a summary of the main findings in relation to the literature review discussed during Chapters 2 and 3. Thereafter, conclusions of the empirical research are formulated. Recommendations for future research and limitations within the theoretical and empirical research will follow and finally conclusions will be drawn regarding the relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

In the next section conclusions pertaining to the literature and empirical research will be discussed.

6.1.1   Conclusions of literature review

An analysis of both Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life as a construct form the theme of this research and the theoretical review was mainly aimed at addressing the research questions conceptualised in Chapter 1.

In order to address these questions, the literature review had three specific aims i.e.to firstly conceptualise both construct as well as confirm their importance within the organisational context and secondly to focus on a theoretical analysis aimed at confirming a possible relationship between these constructs.

- Specific aim 1: Conceptualise Organisational Trust

From the literature review regarding Organisational Trust it can be concluded trust is an essential and vital part of the effectiveness and performance of an organisation. Long and Sitkin (2003) urges managers to build trust between employees and the organisation in order to enhance organisational effectiveness. Martins and Von der Ohe (2002) also indicated trust is created by leadership which in turn influences relationships and job satisfaction.

What became evident during the literature analysis was that it seems as though current organisations are trusted less than before and specifically within South Africa – Martins (2000) and Esterhuizen and Martins (2008) found a comprehensible trust gap between employees and employers. This reiterates the importance for managers to understand trust, its influence within the organisation and how to build it. When focusing on trust, Martins (2000) and Esterhuizen and Martins (2008) advise managers to consider the impact and response of employees to various organisational interventions such as employment equity, organisational justice, culture, work ethics, language, time management and all the other prejudices influencing the relationship between employee and employer.

There also seems to be a number of compelling reasons why organisations need to attend to trust: It is firstly expensive, as a lack of trust can lead to feelings of betrayal, leading to opportunities where an employee no longer acts in the best interest of the organisation and could also lead to absenteeism and staff turnover (Colquitt et al., 2007). Trust furthermore facilitates co-operation and promotes loyalty and credibility within an organisation as it entails a relationship between at least two people (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2004; Nooteboom, 2002; Von der Ohe et al., 2004).

According to Shaw (1997) and Van der Ohe and Martins (2010) organisations need to have three basic conditions in place to ensure the expansion of trust: They have to achieve results

(to prove that they can meet the expectations), they have to act with integrity, and they have to demonstrate concern (show that they want to meet the expectations).

Von der Ohe et al. (2004) concluded the perceived Personality traits of managers contribute to the trust relationship and stressed the importance for South African managers to recognise the importance of traits such as being organised, hardworking as well as dependable, thorough and responsible, as the opposite can lead to a perception of lack of trust in a manager. Also bearing in mind the high correlation between credibility and the trust relationship, the authors highlighted the importance of listening skills, decision-making and management should allow freedom to employees to express their feelings, tolerate mistakes and ensure employees enjoy prestige and credibility within an organisation.

Research by Martins et al. (1997) and supported by Barrick et al. (2001), Martins (2000), Martins and Von der Ohe (2002), Von der Ohe et al. (2004), Cyster (2005), Salgado (2002) and Thoresen et al. (2003) led to the assumption that trust in organisations is most probably created by the Big Five Personality aspects (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extroversion, resourcefulness and stability).

The acknowledgement that Organisational Trust is equally important for the functioning and performance of organisations, has increased the volume of research on the subject, focusing on generating better understanding regarding the development of trust within an organisation as well as providing recommendations to restore and improve the trust relationship.

- Specific aim 2: Conceptualise Quality of Work Life

Although it seems as though there is a general lack of a clear definition regarding the QWL construct, many researchers have related it to various organisational dimensions, influencing the perception employees have regarding their experience of a Quality of Work Life.

It furthermore seems when analysing the literature regarding QWL, there might be an ongoing debate regarding whether personal factors (dispositional tendencies) or organisational factors (job characteristics) are the main determinants of perceived QWL (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Kotzé, 2005). A summary of QWL dimensions as viewed and identified by various researchers were provided in Table 3.1.

Research has furthermore shown that QWL is not only a significant determinant of various enviable organisational outcomes but also significantly influences the non-working life of an individual and is an important predicator of life satisfaction, health and psychological well-being of employees (Ballou & Godwin, 2007; Kaushik & Tonk, 2008; Koonmee et al., 2010; Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Sirgy et al., 2001; Srivastava, 2008; Wilson et al., 2004; Wright & Bonett, 2007).

From the literature review however, there is no denying the importance of QWL as most employees' lives are tied to and organised according to the actions of their organisations and most individuals spend a great deal of their time participating in job or work related activities and even plan their days, living standards and social interaction around the demands of their work – and to a large extent, people define themselves and others in terms of their work, making QWL in organisations a major component of quality of life in general.

- Specific aim 3: Theoretically integrate Organisational Trust and QWL.

Research by Kaushik and Tonk (2008) found a positive correlation between the construct QWL and three of the Big Five Personality dimensions namely extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness.

These theoretical findings along with other research aimed at confirming a relationship between the Big Five Personality factors and dimensions relating to QWL such as job performance (Barrick et al., 2001; Bozionelos, 2004; Gellatly & Irving, 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003), job satisfaction (Goodstein & Lanyon, 1999; Judge et al., 2000; Thoresen et al., 2003), emotional intelligence (Salgado, 2002), organisational engagement (Bozionelos, 2004), job proficiency (Salgado, 2002), organisational commitment (Thoresen et al., 2003), work and time pressures (Dijkstra & Fred, 2005; Pienaar et al., 1999; Morgan & de Bruin, 2010; Pienaar et al., 2007) work-life balance (Thomson & De Bruin, 2007; Wayne et al. 2004) and reaction to change (Vacola et al., 2004) led to the considered relation being established between QWL and Organisational Trust.

Shaw (2005, p. 249) also supports this by proposing the success of QWL programmes will depend on the ability of the organisation to "reinforce high levels of trust" which in turn will improve organisational performance.

It is the researcher's opinion that the literature overview presented, have answered the above formulated questions to a large extent. In the process an attempt was made to define and elucidate both constructs and to generate a clearer understanding regarding its impact and relationship with and within the organisational environment.

These theoretical findings confirm the nature and importance of trust and QWL within the organisation.

The next section concludes the findings of the empirical research.

6.1.2 Conclusions of empirical research

The empirical findings of this research study confirmed previous research as well as generated a new field of research. The objective was mainly aimed at addressing the following specific empirical aims formulated in Chapter 1:

- Determine whether or not there is a significant relationship between Organisational Trust (Big Five Personality dimensions and Managerial Practices) and Quality of Work Life within a South African beverage manufacturing, sales and distribution organisation

- Determine if there is a significant relationship between the dimensions of organisational trust and quality of work life.

- Integrate the results of the various questionnaires used

Structural equation modelling was used to determine the relationship between the various constructs of QWL and the independent dimension of trust in order to test the theoretical model. Two types of SEM models emerged from this research study namely, a Strictly Confirmatory Model, Model 1 (Organisational Trust Relationship) as well as a Development Approach Model, Model 2 (Relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life).

The results of the analysis of Model 1: Organisational Trust Relationship confirms a positive relationship between the Managerial Practices and the Personality dimensions (0.79).

Similar results were found within the Pearson product moment correlations. Highly significant positive relationships (at a 0.01 level of significance) were found between the Trust relationship and Personality dimensions (.793), Managerial Practices and the trust relationship (.760) and Managerial Practices and personality (.702), suggesting that if Managerial Practices are regarded as positive, the trust employees experience will increase accordingly. This also confirms the research conducted by Martins (2000).

Moderate linear relationships were evident between Managerial Practices and QWL (.613), Trust relationship and QWL (.545) and QWL and Personality (.502).

The relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life (Model 2) also indicated a positive relationship between QWL and Managerial Practices (0.68) but a lower relationship with the Personality constructs (0.54).

This indicates there is a stronger relationship between the Quality of Work Life and Managerial Practices for sales representatives, than the influence of their Personality constructs.

It furthermore seems as though Personality aspects had less impact on trust (estimate of 1.51) than Managerial Practices (estimate of 2.89). Within the Personality dimension, Agreeableness had the highest impact (estimate of 14.79) explaining 93.2% of the variance, thereafter Conscientiousness follows with an estimate of 12.41, explaining 75.9% of the variance.

Focusing on the Managerial Practices, it seemed as though Credibility had the highest impact (estimate of 13.11), explaining 95.3% of the variance and Team Management explained 91.5% of the variance with an estimate of 7.47.

Change which has occurred (estimate of 4.98) and Interpersonal trust (estimate of 5.18) seems to have the lowest impact on Trust explaining 16% and 41.7% or the variance respectively.

Within the QWL dimension, Social support from colleagues has the highest impact (estimate of 6.75) explaining 97.5% of the variance, thereafter Social support from the supervisor follows with an estimate of 4.01, explaining 93.4% of the variance (see Table 5.9).

Hazardous exposure (estimate of 0.65) and physical exertion (0.49) seems to have the lowest impact and only explains 2% and 5% of the variance respectively. This might be due to the specific work environment of a sales representative as it seems as though they are not necessarily exposed to hazardous circumstances and physical exertion.

Evaluating the fit of both models, the following results were obtained:

- Both Model 1 and Model 2 produced acceptable goodness-of-fit indices by means of the non-significant chi-square obtained as well as values attained for the relative chi-square (x^2/df).

- Model 1 attained an acceptable absolute Goodness-of-Fit Index, GFI of 0.922, which is above the 0.90 cut-off that reflects a good model fit. Model 2 produced a GFI of 0.754, which falls below the 0.90 cut-off and can therefore be interpreted as a moderate fit.

Based on these results, Model 1 (Organisational Trust Relationship) was accepted as a model with a good fit and Model 2 (Relationship between Organisational Trust and QWL) as a model with a moderate fit.

The results supported the hypotheses of the research study.

From the empirical results the assumption can be made that if an organisation intends to improve the satisfaction levels of sales representatives, the focus should be on improving the Managerial Practices and Quality of Work Life dimensions. A focus on the "correct" Personality types will in this environment not have a great influence on Organisational Trust or positively influence the Quality of Work Life.

Research results regarding the Organisational Trust construct have been supported by research carried out by Martins (2000), Martins and Von der Ohe (2002), Cyster (2005), Von der Ohe et al., (2004) and Von der Ohe and Martins (2010).

The next section will be addressing the final aim of this study, namely to:

- Formulate and compile recommendation and conclusions based on the results of the study.

6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Like all research, this research study is subject to a number of limitations.

The first obvious limitation is the use of the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire as it was designed for use in a completely different context to the one in which it was used in this study. While it seemed to demonstrate good psychometric properties and had obtained satisfactory reliability and validity scores, the instrument may require further revision and refinement specifically for use within the South African context.

The focus on a specific functional area (sales) within one organisation restricted the study to a relative small sample (N=203). Although it is desirable to have a large sample, the researcher was limited to the number of sales representatives within the soft-drink division of the organisation. Although sufficient to conduct Structural Equation Modelling, the convenience sample means a conservative test of the hypotheses with not a lot of statistical power to reveal potentially significant relationships. The benefit however of conducting the research within one functional area in one organisation was that any alternative explanations for any observed variance could be ruled out, as the circumstances of all the sales representatives are mostly the same.

This research study focused on employees' perception regarding their trust of the organisation rather than on the actual trust in the organisation. As trust is an inherently dynamic construct, it is possible for employees' perception to change as organisational circumstances change. This could prevent testing for causal relationships as this study does not preclude reverse causation and trusting employees may contribute to higher levels of

trustworthiness to their immediate line manager. Also due to the use of cross-sectional data, causal implications should be interpreted cautiously.

Another notable limitation of this study is it is based on single source survey data as manager behaviour, trust and Quality of Work Life experience were measured through the eyes of subordinates completing the questionnaire i.e. self-report measures. Although great care was taken to motivate employees to provide valid information, parameter estimates may be inflated by common-method variance. Future research using multiple methods of measurement and sources of data is needed.

A final limitation concerns the validity of the empirical results and whether or not these results can be generalised to other South African organisations.

While recognising all the above limitations, it is important to note the potential valuable contribution of this research to better understand the Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life constructs within the organisational context.

The next section considers recommendations for practical implication.

6.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of this study seem to emphasise the importance of Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life building processes. The results also suggest several other interesting future studies on Quality of Work Life and Organisational Trust.

The first recommendation relates to the use of the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire and as already mentioned in the limitations, future studies should undertake exploratory factor analysis to investigate the underlying factor structure of the measuring instrument and re-establish reliability and validity based on a South African environment.

As research regarding the violation of trust by line managers and its consequences has not received much attention, a possible future research venture could be to look into the possible consequences of a broken trust relationship on the Quality of Work Life experienced by employees.

Further research in this area should also extend to a larger sample across the business as well as across different professions within South Africa and the influence of a supportive organisational culture which aids in creating a trust relationship and a Quality of Work Life experience for employees could be further investigated

With regard to the further development of the trust construct it, it is recommended the trust construct be expanded to include items focusing on aspects such as loyalty, integrity and congruence between individual and organisational values.

With regard to QWL, future research should include other job-related outcomes that might yield interesting results, such as the performance of the organisation, goal attainment, profitability, turnover rate, tenure, employees' perception of equity and ethics (specifically within South Africa).

A further recommendation might be to use a longitudinal research design to determine the temporal relationship between these variables across levels as different organisational factors such as communication, effectiveness, change and demographic variables can affect the trust relationship.

And lastly, studies sampling more diverse settings can make a significant contribution to further research within this area.

6.4   ORGANISATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The findings of this research study are useful since it not only provides valuable information about, and an understanding of, the relationship between Organisational Trust and Quality of Work Life but also have some practical implications which may be useful for organisations.

Firstly, this study showed managers within organisations should to be more attentive regarding their Managerial Practices than their personality traits, as this might influence the building of trust relationships within the organisation. Managers should therefore pay attention to the job-related needs of employees as well as the influence Managerial Practices may have on the Quality of Work Life experienced by employees.

According to Hay (2002) and Von der Ohe and Martins (2010) trust is a primary attribute associated with leadership and when broken, it could have severe consequences on the organisation such as:

- Concealing of information and acting opportunistically to take advantage of others.

- Lack of co-operation.

- Influencing the whole organisation negatively.

- Reduction in productivity.

- Destructive organisational behaviours such as decreased commitment and sabotage.

The following recommendations should assist in building trust relationships as well as foster and create a better Quality of Work Life experience within the organisation:

- Managers should be aware of and develop Personality traits which could aid in building trust relationships within the organisation such as being organised, hardworking, dependable, thorough and responsible and should avoid being perceived as "cold, rude and unkind" (Von der Ohe et al., p 29, 2004).

- Von der Ohe and Martins (2010) advise managers to focus on trust enhancing behaviours such as:

  - Sharing relevant information relating to the employees' working environment such as decisions made by management.

  - Reducing controls.

  - Allowing for influence from both parties i.e. participative problem solving and goal setting.

  - Clarifying of mutual expectations (clarifying what both parties expect from the other).

  - Meeting clarified expectations.

  - Demonstrating concern.

  - Monitoring trust levels, especially during times of change within the organisation.

- Address issues that could arise from credibility by:

  - Considering team proposals.

  - Implement team decisions.

  - Ensure prestige and credibility for employees and teams (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2002; Schlechter & Strauss, 2008).

- In cases where trust has been broken, management should attempt to rebuild the trust relationship by first recognising the intensity and depth of the loss of trust, examining where the damage was done (credibility, reliability, self-interest) and how it affected Organisational Trust (performance, behaviour) and identifying immediate action plans to rebuild the trust relationship (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2004; Martins & Von der Ohe, 2002; Nooteboom, 2002).

- Have open communication and conduct regular surveys. Management should be sensitive and attentive to the different job-related needs employees have and provide the necessary support (Cheung & Tang, 2009; Kotzé, 2005; Rathi, 2010; Sirgy et al., 2001; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

- Arrange leisure activities to assist in fostering a sense of belonging and to strengthen the social support network among co-workers and between supervisors and employees. Research by Halbesleben (2006) has indicated work-related source of social support plays an important part in reducing burnout experience.

- Treat employees with dignity and respect (Kotzé, 2005; Skrovan, 1983).

- Make use of open and honest communication regarding the functioning of the organisation and how employees contribute towards and fit in the organisation as a whole (Kotzé, 2004).

- Have a proper human resource development programme in place aimed at individual development plans focused on career growth as well as personal growth in order for employees to experience higher levels of meaningfulness (Maharaj & Schlechter, 2007; May & Lau, 1999; Wright & Cropanzano, 2004; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

- Maintain a strong employee orientated culture, providing employees with job security and satisfaction (May & Lau, 1999).

- Employ fair and honest performance evaluation systems and support performance by providing adequate levels of pay and other benefits (Cyster, 2005; Pranee, 2010; Saklani, 2010; Sirgy et al., 2001; Wyatt & Wah, 2001).

From the results, the following recommendations might assist this specific South African beverage manufacturing, sales and distribution organisation to foster a better trust relationship and contributing to the overall quality of work life experience of its sales representatives:

- Social support specifically from the line manager and colleagues seems to play an important role within the QWL experienced by these employees and it is therefore recommended that the company be aware of and focus on positive interaction with its employees.
- Possible coaching and mentoring techniques might be considered to not only aid in the positive interaction with the employees, but also provide the sales representatives with the necessary work support from their managers.
- Listening and considering the employees' proposals and suggestions as well as providing them with recognition will enhance the credibility these employees

experience with regard to their managers. A proper reward and recognition scheme might assist to address this.

- Fair and unbiased team management practices will also foster a better trust relationship and increase the job satisfaction the employees experience within their role.

It is of thus of the utmost importance for the management of an organisation to be constantly aware of the trust employees have in the organisation as this can lead to severe consequence if not managed properly. Furthermore it is essential for an organisation to create an environment where employees experience a Quality of Work Life, as research has indicated this will influence not only the performance, commitment, profitability, job involvement, absenteeism and turnover rate, but also the overall trust relations experienced by employees.

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, several conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study were discussed and explained. Conclusions were made about the theoretical as well as the empirical sections of this research. The outcomes of this research also point to new findings within the work environment and recommendations were made to enhance research specifically within this domain.

This research study could be seen as an exploratory attempt to test an integrated model consisting of Managerial Practices, Personality aspects and QWL. In particular, the aim of this study was to investigate the implied theoretical relationship between the dimensions comprising the Organisational Trust construct and those which form part of the QWL construct.

As far as could be established, such an integrated model had not been tested in this context before. This study therefore makes a valuable contribution in theory building and practice in the field of organisational psychology, especially within the South African context.

The use of SEM allows for the testing of a more complex and integrated model which takes into account interaction effects among the constructs which other statistical techniques cannot do. Investigation of the various relationships among the constructs as they work together provides a more realistic account of the complexity found within the organisational environment.

The results of this research study furthermore make several contributions to research literature. Firstly, it is the finding that this research confirms the original trust model as

proposed by Martins (2000). This should create the path for further exploration regarding the trust concept within organisations together with other possible influencing factors.

Secondly, the finding that the original measurement model for QWL could not be replicated in this sample and differed from the proposed model by the author/s who developed it. This should serve as a caution to other researchers using scales developed elsewhere when conducting research within South Africa as it cannot be presumed the factorial configuration will be the same across continents and cultures.

Using SEM the study confirmed the conceptual model as well as all the hypothesised relationships among the constructs. A positive relationship was found between Managerial Practices and the Big Five Personality aspects (conceptualising the construct Organisational Trust) and both these constructs were found to be positively related to Quality of Work Life.

These results strengthen and focus attention on the importance of building good trust relationships within an organisation, as it seems as though the Personality traits and Managerial Practices of managers cannot only influence the trust relationship experienced by employees, but also their experience of a Quality of Work Life.

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EMAIL SENT TO PARTICIPANTS

From:	Yolandi Van Der Berg - VAL
Subject:	Organisational Survey
Importance:	High
Sensitivity:	Confidential

Dear colleagues,

In our bold action to help the management team gain actionable insights into the pulse of the organisation, we're conducting a comprehensive trust and quality of work life survey. The purpose of this survey is to determine what your views are in terms of these practices within the organisation.

The survey will provide a barometer of your perceptions and will be used to create a benchmark to assess the effectiveness of current and future initiatives. To help us in arriving at this point, we have made available an electronic questionnaire which we would like you to take time to complete.

Please follow the below link, to complete the questionnaire (this is completely anonymous):

http://www.orgdia.co.za/survey/abi/abitrust.htm

Please note that you have to complete the whole questionnaire as you cannot save and return to it again at a later stage (you'll have to start over).

We have anticipated some of your questions and concerns with regard to the need for a survey, and respond accordingly below:

- **Will all employees participate?**

No, at this stage the focus are on you as Account Managers for ABI.

- **Why do I need to complete this questionnaire?**

Your participation is vital in gaining an accurate reflection of the organisational trust and quality of work climate of the organisation. This is an excellent way of being able to honestly and anonymously voice your real feelings and experiences.

- **What will be done with my response?**

The responses of all the participants will be statistically analysed and used as a basis for the improvement and bettering of the organisation. Management would like to identify the areas to focus on and therefore you need to tell them where the successes and the failures are.

- **What does the questionnaire involve?**

Section 1: Biographical information

Section 2: Questions about the way we are doing things in the organisation

- **Can I really be honest without fear of victimisation?**

Yes!! All information supplied will be treated as highly confidential by Dr Nico Martins of Organisational Diagnostics, who has been independently contracted. To ensure this, the questionnaire will be done electronically and all data will be collected in a data file. The survey is anonymous and the focus of the analysis is on overall and group results

- **How long will it take to complete the questionnaire?**

It will take +- 30 minutes to complete the electronic questionnaire

- **Will I get any feedback?**

Feedback will be given as soon as the process is finalised.

- **Who can I contact if I have any queries or concerns?**

Please contact **Yolandi van der Berg (Learning & Development Specialist)** CRO

- **How do I complete the questionnaire?**

Please follow the above link to complete the questionnaire and submit it.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in the survey!

Kindest regards

Yolandi

Yolandi Van Der Berg

Learning and Development Specialist

ABI, the Soft Drink division of SAB

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DRAW THE LINE. DON'T DRINK AND DRIVE