ASSESSING ORGANISATIONAL TRUST AND PERSONALITY IN A PUBLIC ORGANISATION

by

MMAMOKUPI NANCY RADIOKANA

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

Master of Commerce

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR NICO MARTINS

APRIL 2022

Student Number: 58559167

DECLARATION

I MMAMOKUPI NANCY RADIOKANA, student number 58559167 declare that this dissertation entitled, assessing organisational trust and personality in a public organisation, is my work and that all the sources that I used, have been quoted in- text and acknowledged by means of complete references. This research project has not been submitted to any other university for degree or examination purposes.

SIGNATURE

01 APRIL 2022

DATE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to wholeheartedly thank and express my gratitude to the following people who helped me to make this dissertation possible and who believed in me:

- The Lord, my God for this opportunity, His grace and mercy bestowed upon me
- My partner, George who encouraged, supported and believed in me
- My three beautiful sons Kamogelo, Katlego, and Kananelo for their faith in me and their unconditional love
- My Supervisor Prof Nico Martins who provided me with his expert guidance, whose patience, support, insight and continuous prompting kept me inspired, motivated, and working.
- All the employees of the Auditor General of South Africa who dedicated and sacrificed their valuable time to complete the questionnaires.
- The Auditor General of South Africa for granting me the opportunity to use their organisation for data collection purposes

SUMMARY

ASSESSING ORGANISATIONAL TRUST AND PERSONALITY IN A PUBLIC ORGANISATION

By

MMAMOKUPI NANCY RADIOKANA

SUPERVISOR: Prof N Martins

DEPARTMENT: Industrial and Organisational Psychology

DEGREE: MCom (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

This dissertation focuses on assessing organisational trust and personality in a public organisation. In this quantitative study, conducted in a South African public organisation (Gauteng province), dimensions of organisational trust were correlated with the personality dimensions (measured by combined trust and personality instrument). A cross–sectional quantitative research design was conducted on a selected sample of permanent employees from auditing and support business units (N = 350) at a public organisation. The data was collected through a web-based survey. The results revealed significant relationships between the variables. Specifically, the results revealed that credibility and work support were stronger correlated to agreeableness than the five dimensions of personality. For instance, a Pearson correlation analysis revealed that agreeableness correlated

significantly and positively with credibility (*r* = 0.652) and work support (*r* = 0.626). In the same vein, conscientiousness correlated significantly and positively with trust relationship (*r*=0.695) and credibility (*r*=0.622). Additionally, a positive and substantial significant relationship was observed with the dimension openness to experience which correlated significantly and positively with trust relationship (*r*=0.505) and work support (*r*=0.503). Furthermore, the results showed that neuroticism correlated significantly and positively with credibility (*r*=0.590) and trust relationship (*r*=0.567).

The results of the regression analysis further confirmed that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience would predict organisational trust. The agreeableness dimension made the most significant predictor of organisational trust. Neuroticism dimension did not make a significant contribution to predicting organisational trust. This indicates that personality dimensions are likely to be related to higher levels of organisational trust.

Subsequently, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was executed on the measurement models of the instruments used via SPSS AMOS version 27. As the result of confirmatory factor analysis, it was found that the personality and organisational trust dimensions factor structure showed the good fit to the data ($\chi 2$= 0.379, df = 2, p = 0.685, CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.02, NFI= 0.99, RFI= 0.98, IFI= 1.00 RMSEA = 0.00); ($\chi 2$= 1.195, df = 7, p = 0.302, CFI = 0.999, TLI = 0.998, NFI= 0.995, RFI= 0.989, IFI= 0.999 RMSEA = 0.29), eliminating the need of any modifications. All factor loadings were statistically significant, with highest loading on neuroticism (β = 0.86), followed by conscientiousness (β = 0.80), agreeableness (β = 0.78), openness to experience (β =0.68), credibility (β = 0.98), followed by work support (β = 0.93), team management (β = 0.93), information sharing (β = 0.91), trust relationship (β = 0.86) and interpersonal trust (β = 0.63) respectively.

Key words: Organisational Trust, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Big Five Personality, Five-Factor Model, Managerial Practices

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This study focuses on organisational trust, more specifically on the global growing concern about a lack of trust in different contexts; therefore, Bencsik and Machova (2016) construe that organisational trust is an important topic in the work of many researchers. Trust in the organisation is what people rely on, leading to cooperation in the use of resources for maximum efficiency. Organisational trust is related to the behaviour of personnel in corporate relationships(Fard & Karimi, 2015).Trust in management, assurance about their actions, honesty and positive expectations form some of the components that form the basis of trust for employees. This is the result of a social exchange process in which employees interpret and reciprocate actions and constantly check the work environment to assess whether they should trust top management. Companies with an elevated level of organisational trust are more successful because the behaviour of their employees shows an attitude as social beings and they are willing to help in other jobs outside of their main job (Firaz, 2015).

Furthermore, the study investigates the relationship between trust and the big five personality dimensions within an organisation.It assesses trust relationships and personality dimensions between employees and their direct supervisors, and *vice versa*, examining the degree to which leaders or supervisors within an organisation trust and are trustworthy to their subordinates. It should however be kept in mind that the focus is on employee trust within the context of work organisation (Von der Ohe,2014).

Seemingly, current organisations are less trusted nowadays than in the past, specifically within South Africa.Van der Berg and Martins (2013) found a significant trust gap between employees and employers, thus showing the importance for managers to understand organisational trust, its organisational influence and how to develop it as a culture. Significant findings from this study have potential implications for finding whether there are certain personality styles or combinations of styles that are perceived to be more trustworthy than others, and whether there are personality styles that are not perceived as trustworthy(Sicora, 2015).These findings conscientise organisational leaders in learning, implementing and prioritising adaptive strategies that enhance organisational trust relations within organisations.Chapter 1 discusses the topic, background and motivation for this

research, the research problem and aims and the contextual paradigm. Concluding this introductory chapter is a brief overview of the research design and a chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

Organisational trust is an essential part of the effectiveness and performance of an organisation (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013).Trust can be a powerful social resource in the workplace if we understand how to unlock its benefits. Trust is vital for effective organisational relationships and the achievement of positive workplace outcomes(Choi & Resick,2017; De Jong et al., 2016; Van der Werff & Buckley, 2017).Studies have also shown that organisational trust in higher reports advances followers' work performance (Bligh,2017;Choi & Resick, 2017; Nienaber et al., 2015). However, due to the intricate nature of this multidimensional, complex construct, several basic organisational trust processes still need further clarification (De Jong et al., 2016).

Ndlovu et al. (2021) conceptualises organisational trust as a multidimensional construct composed of affective and cognitive attributes. Affective trust describes the relationships between two exchange parties, while cognitive trust describes the attributions about positive workplace behaviours (Fischer et al., 2020). Reliance- and disclosure-based trust in leaders also characterises the multiplicity of the organisational trust concept (Heyns & Rothmann, 2018). However, others take a unidimensional approach to employee trust, describing it as a generalised belief about the positive expectations about the motives and intentions of organisational actors (Kang & Sung, 2017; Wong & Wong, 2017). For this study, the researcher use the global conceptualisation of organisational trust to express trust as an aggregation of employees' opinions about the trustworthiness of different organisational role incumbents (Ndlovu et al., 2021). Thus, employees' overall positive expectations of organisational actors' motives and behaviour express their trust in the organisation (Kang & Sung, 2017; Yao et al., 2019; Zeffane & Melhem, 2017). Earlier studies confirm that employees' trust in their employing organisation and top management influences affective organisational commitment (Wong & Wong, 2017; Yao et al., 2019)

Economic hardship, business process reengineering and increased global market competition have created 'lean and mean' organisational models that expect employees to do more with less. The sudden constraint on resources has the potential to become a significant issue and may cause employees to experience decreased levels of trust in the

organisation. This problem must be addressed, because organisational trust is a critical element to organisational effectiveness (Tirelli & Goh, 2015). Indeed, many researchers have identified organisational trust as a key element to the success and continuity of an organisation because the ability to remain competitive in an increasingly global and turbulent market may hinge on an organisation's ability to build trusting relationships (Tirelli & Goh, 2015).Organisational trust research has increasingly become significant in the current socio-economic environment. Many public scandals tainted the 20th century, in the process destroying or seriously eroding organisational trust in institutions and bankers, more specifically financial advisors (Von der Ohe, 2014).

Organisational trust among co-workers and workplace leaders is related to key outcomes such as helping behaviour, relationship building and team effectiveness. Personality styles help to influence both, one's propensity to trust and one's trustworthiness. It is the combination of those two elements that help to create overall organisational trust, which affects outcomes(Sicora, 2015).Personality traits are psychological, relatively stable over time and provide the reasons for behaviour, and seem to be interrelated with organisational trust(Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). Apart from the positive relationships with various dimensions of the Quality of Work Life construct, as well as findings relating to the construct, the personality aspects are also significant indicators of organisational trust (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).

In the development of a trust model, Martins (2000) and Martins and Von der Ohe (2002) also found the personality aspects as significant indicators of organisational trust and their results provided support for the claim that personality characteristics together with managerial practices which are information-sharing, work support, credibility and team management have an influence on the organisational trust relationships between managers,employees and the organisation.This overview links to the notion that organisational trust is not necessarily an interpersonal form of trust, but rather systems form of organisational trust deriving from structures and processes within an organisation such as fairness and perceived organisational support which, in turn, relates to employee experiences within the organisation(Van der Berg & Martins, 2013).

Looking more closely at the link between organisational trust and personality,Freitag and Bauer (2016) summarised several studies on personality traits and social trust, which supply inconclusive findings. One study showed a relationship between agreeableness (but no other traits) and organisational trust (Mondak & Halperin, 2008) whereas another study showed a link between all personality traits and organisational trust (Dinesen et al., 2014). Other studies showed that organisational trust is associated with extraversion, personal control, intelligence (Oskarsson et al., 2012) optimism and a sense of control (Uslaner, 2002). Evans and Revelle (2008) showed that interpersonal trust was related to extraversion and negative neuroticism (emotional stability), and trustworthiness was related to agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Personality traits have been shown to predict critical work behaviours (Gaddis & Foster, 2015; Kaiser et al., 2015). It has therefore been suggested, that the characteristics of the trustor and specifically their personality traits may influence organisational trust (Terblanche et al., 2020). It is however not clear how the trustor personality traits may influence organisational trust, which is not surprising given that in the broader field of trust research studies that focus on the follower's perspective on organisational trust in a dyadic relationship are sparse (Lu et al., 2016). There are two perspectives on the formation of organisational trust (Terblanche et al., 2020). The first holds that individuals draw on past experiences to decide how much they will trust another person in similar organisational situations.The second challenges this notion of experienced-based trust and states that organisational trust is a product of personality traits (Terblanche et al., 2020). Put differently, a person's personality traits predict his or her propensity to trust, their perception of another's trustworthiness and ultimately his or her level of trust behaviour.

Although researchers have looked at the correlations between personality and organisational trust, this research has typically relied on only a small number of respondents from a single organisation.While, societal and organisational contingencies also influence organisational trust decisions, this research does not focus on the macro- and meso level factors that influence organisational trust but instead focuses only on an individual (micro) level of analysis (Heyns, 2015).The study is confined to employee organisational trust in direct leaders within a public organisation in a South African workplace context. It seeks to understand how specific antecedents of organisational trust influence follower decisions to

place trust in their leaders, explicitly in terms of their willingness to accept vulnerability and to take risks within the relationship (Heyns,2015).

The conclusion drawn from the cited studies on personality, workplace aspects and organisational trust is that although associations do seem to exist, the contextual and cultural dimensions play a significant role, making it difficult to predict which of the personality traits may be associated with organisational trust. In this study, I therefore expect all the personality traits to have a significant association (directly and indirectly) with the organisational trust constructs, especially as the sample is culturally diverse.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Organisational trust is an evasive, multifaceted, and complex concept, thus the proliferation of different angles in an effort to conceptualise organisational trust. Diverse scholarly perspectives on organisational trust do not only imply how organisational trust is defined, but also the conditions, building blocks, and outcomes of organisational trust (Heyns, 2015).Dissimilar methodological approaches are likely to compromise the comparability of findings.The resulting lack of information about organisational trust levels, norms, and trends in businesses or organisations, points to an important gap that should be addressed (Heyns, 2015).

Different conceptualisations of organisational trust have hindered earlier research on organisational trust, particularly due to a lack of clear differentiation between factors that contribute to organisational trust, organisational trust itself, and the outcomes of organisational trust. Heyns (2015) highlighted problems specifically with (1) the definition of the organisational trust itself and the associated lack of clarity in the relationship between risk and organisational trust,(2) confusion between organisational trust, its antecedents and its outcomes, (3) lack of specificity to organisational trust referents as the foci of organisational trust thereby leading to confusion in the level of analysis (4) failure to consider both the trusting party and the party to be trusted.

Von der Ohe (2014) warns that researchers should not confuse the term the functional consequences of organisational trust with trust itself. In other words, he suggests that organisational trust must not be interpreted, assumed or confused to be risk-taking, co-operation, relationships or social capital. The lack of a universally accepted definition of

organisational trust as each discipline from psychology, economics and sociology tries to figure out what is important to it, shows the possibility that researchers are dealing with a meso concept, integrating micro-level psychological processes and group dynamics with macro-level institutional arrangements.

Scholarly literature reveals that inconsistencies between a leader's words and actions lead to decreased levels of organisational trust (Sicora,2015).The fragility of organisational trust and the movement into distrust is also a concern,once organisational trust has been betrayed, or a previous trustor has shifted onto the distrust continuum, reforming a trusting relationship may not be possible. In such relationships, any ensuing interaction may only result in lower or higher levels of distrust (McMurphy, 2013). Once organisational trust is lost, further disintegration within the relationship, social structures, political and organisational system, continues until a final dissolution occurs resulting in terminated relationships, organisational and institutional upheaval changes and political revolutions (McMurphy, 2013). Conceptualisations of organisational trust differ to a great extent and no single psychological or social element besides the notion that organisational trust emerges under conditions of unknown outcomes. Organisational trust is also sometimes confused with acts of risk taking or what others call a leap of faith or to lower one's guard' (Robbin, 2016).

In the context of organisational trust exchanges, there is a need to better understand the rules that individuals and social groups operate in, whether consciously or unconsciously (Skinner et al., 2014).The power balance within the employment relationship is another important contextual factor that has received limited consideration concerning organisational trust, but is one which is of particular interest not only in the exploration of the factors which lead to an assessment of trustworthiness but also the potential to contribute to the creation of a poison chalice experience (Skinner et al., 2014).

An over-arching goal of this study is to better understand the relationship between personality and trust across an organisation, different job levels, gender, age and culture. The limited available literature on personality and organisational trust examines personality through a trait model, most typically the five-factor model of personality (Sicora, 2015). Earlier research shows that the criteria for evaluating leaders is most likely to be susceptible to gender bias (Heyns, 2015).South African organisations have traditionally been male-

dominated workplaces where stereotyping became a vicious cycle of self-enforcement to keep the status quo (Swanepoel et al., 2014).

Despite legal, political, social and socio-economic efforts to advance gender equality in the South African workplace, gender discrimination continues to occur (Heyns, 2015) and women still are subject to male dominance in the workplace (Swanepoel et al., 2014). Thus, it is a reasonable assumption that gender may also be an influential factor within South African organisations when beliefs or decisions are made to trust or mistrust a leader (Heyns, 2015). Dimensions of organisational trust constructs (ability, benevolence, and integrity) are strongly interrelated and stem from relationship expectations and exchanges, which occur in the formal and psychological dimensions of labour contracting (Von der Ohe, 2014).

Demographic variables (such as gender) may affect one's conceptualisation of organisational trust and influence the criteria employed in organisational trust decisions (Ding et al., 2014). It is thus clear that research is necessary to understand the differences and similarities between trusting behaviours of males and females in an organisational context. There is also a gap in knowledge about understanding of gender differences in relation to organisational trust (Heyns, 2015) and specifically on evidence of measurement invariance of different organisational trust scales across gender. This is necessary because gender diversity is gaining prominence worldwide due to record numbers of females entering the workforce so females have an increasingly powerful impact on organisational performance (Heyns, 2015).

In the South African context, the issue of race is particularly a sensitive one due to the country's history of apartheid. Additionally South African organisations have to work with the legacy and effects of the apartheid system,unskilled workforce, new legislation aiming to redress injustices of the past, changing power structures in race groups and the management of these relationships in a diverse workplace (Moodaly, 2008). South Africa's unique history has produced an organisational climate where race groups forcibly separated in the past, have to now work together in harmony. Limited interaction between the ethnic groups creates a culturally uninformed society where organisational trust between groups is lacking (Moodaly, 2008).

During the apartheid regime, blacks and whites were segregated at the workplace, had separate schooling and living areas. Their interactions were therefore limited and those relationships that did develop were strained by apartheid-enforced practises. It was an anomaly to understand the norms and values of an individual from another race group. Furthermore, perceptions and stereotypes of racial groups were developed. It is to be expected that the different ethnic groups developed distinctly in separate cultures (Hofmeyr, 2006).Culture is developed from the common experiences of a group of people and is inherent in their behaviour, actions and thinking at an unconscious level. These cultural issues cannot be separated from the individuals at the workplace. Employees at all levels in the organisation bring with them to work their emotions, values and underlying culture.Their behaviour at work is linked to their individual culture, including their perceptions and preferences about leadership and organisational trust(Thomas & Bendixen, 2000).

Leadership and organisational challenges posed by racial diversity are even more acute for South African organisations considering the plethora of mostly race based cultures and considering the effects that past discrimination and inequalities still have on organisations. The changing position of power in society and within organisations creates further complexity for organisations(Moodaly,2008)

Given the prevalence of a multitude of cultures and the significance of organisational trust in building trust relationships, it would be helpful to investigate the influence of cultural context on organisational trust. In the South African workplace particularly, considering the variety of cultural backgrounds within society, the organisation, political, social and economic imbalances that pose major challenges at the workplace (Moodaly, 2008).

Thomas and Bendixen (2000) claim that difficulties and tensions may be expected when individuals of different racial groups are required to work together. The situation is much more complex in South Africa where people who were oppressed and victimised are now expected to work side by side with the very race group that killed and tortured their families and ancestors. One would expect the levels of organisational trust between race groups to be lower in South Africa than in other countries. With changing of legislation, organisations are expected to have a representation similar to the country demographics at all levels of the organisation.

In organisational settings, employees' willingness to remain in their organisations and address organisational aims and goals is a crucial factor in influencing organisational effectiveness(Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016).The world of work today has evolved considerably, leading to high levels of talent mobility with employees seeking best job alternatives to satisfy their work aspirations, thus fuelling increasing concerns about how organisations can keep their best talent (Jung & Westerman, 2017; Yao et al., 2019). Work place demographics are described; however, the distribution of positions is much skewed with white individuals filling more high-level positions and blacks at the lower positions. This is due to the history of the country where black individuals were not allowed into management and professional positions (Moodaly, 2008). Since 1994, the South African government has provided revised legislative frameworks for organisations (Oosthuizen et al., 2019). One of the major strategic objectives is to ensure that organisations actively participate in eradicating discriminatory policies and practices that have been transferred from the past societal system (Oosthuizen et al.,2019). Remarkable progress has been made in raising the voice of women through the creation of participatory spaces and structures.However, critics have highlighted the slow progress as a matter of concern. Failure to implement policies and the absence of broad partnerships are the main reasons for the country's overall slow progress. 23 years of democracy have indeed been insufficient to overcome the ruinous legacy of 340 years of legislated racism(Waterloos & Cockburn, 2018)

White-collar positions were segregated into managerial roles for men and clerical roles for women. This situation has perpetuated a number of gender and position stereotypes in the workplace. One of the major position stereotypes relates to management.The world of work may be changing, but the world of management has been and continues to be male dominated (Ndlovu et al., 2021).

The prevailing stereotypes disadvantage women at all levels of management. When decision makers believe that masculine characteristics are best suited for managerial roles and that men possess these characteristics in greater abundance than women do, they are more likely to select men for available management positions than equally qualified women (Ndlovu et al., 2021). Male managers are also likely to be evaluated more favourably than female managers who have showed equivalent performance. This might in turn influence promotion decisions. Furthermore, women who hold these beliefs may hold back from

seeking management positions thereby perpetuating this cycle of beliefs (Ndlovu et al., 2021). Wright (2011) proved that young non-managerial employees with shorter tenures tend to be more trusting towards management. Cho and Park (2011) stated that developing trust relationships between different parties, takes time and in many cases five or more years to show. This situation is changing in recent years, and women have gained entry to business careers in significant numbers, however, the reality is that while women have achieved parity with men in the entry and mid-level ranks of the management pipeline, there is still a paucity of women at the upper levels of corporate leadership (Ndlovu et al., 2021).

Personality plays a key role in socialisation and collaboration, and people can form exact impressions of other's personality from face-to-face interaction. Personality is an interesting and important concept that influences behaviour, interaction, and interpersonal, intra-personal and organisational trust relationships (Gill, 2003). According to (Grobler, 2014, p. 77) "South Africa is a unique playground where the complexities of globalisation, colonialism and racism continue to be played out in the rich diversity of languages and cultures".

The 11 official languages of South Africa are unevenly distributed across diverse cultural groups. English is widely spoken by most South Africans (especially as a second language), and is the preferred language medium in the world of education, business, politics, and overall, in the daily exchange between people who do not share the same home language (Moodaly,2008). English was viewed in the pre-apartheid era as the language of the enemy (Grobler, 2014). It was seen as a threat to the Afrikaner identity and an instrument of domination, because it was the language of the British troops who had invaded what was then the Cape of Good Hope, now Cape Town (Grobler, 2014).

There has not been a great deal of work in this area, and that which has been done tends to use incommensurable approaches and is spread across different disciplines. Indeed, the reason why little work in this area may be that from a personality perspective, language is regarded as not important, interesting, or not being high-enough level behaviour (indeed the relative value of verbal or non-verbal behaviour is not always clear (Gill, 2003).

With more diversity in terms of age workforce and an increasingly ageing workforce, organisations will face challenges in terms of leadership, management and organisational trust relationship between employees. The structures and processes of the organisation and

the inter-organisational culture are the elements that may be the most impacted (Millar & Culpin, 2014).According to a survey conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management, (2011), 66 per cent of HR (Human Resources) professionals reported that their organisation suffers, at some level, intergenerational conflict. Indeed, an ageing workforce in an organisation may affect hierarchy norms where managers would be younger than their subordinates.This situation may lead to discomfort and conflict (Munneke & Cornu, 2017).If there are no changes to the current retirement plans the normal retirement, age has to be raised to well above 68% by 2050 to keep up with the costs of the retirees (Sanderson & Scherbov, 2014). This causes pressure on hiring and retaining older workers which in turn creates an urgency for management scholars to start understanding the age stereotypes and discrimination involved (Kulik et al., 2014).

Ferres and Travaglione (2003) discovered no significant correlations between the organisational trust variables and the following demographical variables, namely age, gender, position level and tenure.Wright's (2011) study also found no significant correlations between gender and organisational trust variables. Schoeman (2012) and Damane's (2016) studies confirm the aforementioned and in addition to this, could not show any significant relationship between organisational trust, race and qualification. Thorsen et al. (2016) on the other hand, discovered low levels of organisational trust in management in employees close to retirement. They found no relationship between organisational trust and age. Wright (2011) proved that young non-managerial employees with shorter tenures tend to be more trusting towards management. Cho and Park (2011) stated that developing trust relationships between different parties, takes time and in many cases five or more years to show.

Dissatisfaction with working life is a problem affecting almost all employees during their working career, regardless of position or status. The boredom, frustration and anger experienced by employees disenchanted with their work life can be costly to both the individual and the organisation (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). Today, global economic crisis and frequent organisational restructuring pose greater challenges for employees in establishing their career. The employees in their organisation no longer expect life-long job security. Job security is a complete myth, as is long-term employment (Seok et al., 2018).

Study on the effect of job tenure on organisational trust itself and organisational behaviour had been paid less attention. The question of whether staying on a job for a prolonged period enhances or decreases employees' productivity and its effects on organisational behaviour remain inconclusive (Seok et al.,2018). Personality pervades in everyday life, influencing individuals' career choices, working styles, engagement levels and their ability to react to and interact with others (Peral & Geldenhys, 2020). Oldham and Fried (2016) recently came to the consensus that employees respond differently to their job characteristics and environment as a function of their underlying personality traits. Personality research further shows that one's personality can affect attitudes towards work, experienced levels of fit to the job and, most importantly, job performance (Palaiou et al., 2016).

Employees' tenure refers to the number years of service they have attained at their respective organisations. Employees generally display higher levels of performance as they gain organisational tenure(Raghavan & Janardhanan, 2019). This could be because longer tenured employees are more familiar with their job roles and may have reached higher levels of career attainment than newer employees may; therefore, they are able to perform better (Raghavan & Janardhanan, 2019). Similarly, Suliman (2002) noted that longer tenured employees perform better than shorter tenured ones as they may have ascended to better positions or they have enjoyed working in their respective organisations.This shows that employee organisational trust improved with their experience on the job. However, some studies have also shown that tenure does not necessarily improve organisational trust (Raghavan & Janardhanan, 2019).

Trust in organisation is a prerequisite bottom line in organisation's strategy. Trust between the employer would reinforce good behaviour of employees.Employees' ethical behaviour is the best policy for an organisation to earn good reputation(Seok et al., 2018).Employees who have longer working experience will have higher positive feeling towards their employer, which will lead to good behaviour and organisational trust (Seok et al., 2018).This may be because employees who have longer working experience tend to value and appreciate their organisation more and are more committed to pay back the organisation. Experienced employees in the organisation are more likely to engage in organisational trust behaviour because they trust their employer, which leads to higher level of job satisfaction

and job commitment. Hence, working experience may strengthen or weaken the relationship between employees' trust and their organisation (Seok et al., 2018).

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Flowing from the problem statement and literature review, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How is organisational trust conceptualised from a theoretical perspective?

2. How is personality dimension conceptualised in the literature?

3. How can the relationship between personality dimensions and organisational trust be conceptualised and integrated from the theoretical perspective?

4. How do the biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position and years of service) influence/moderate the relationship among the independent construct personality dimensions (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) and the dependent construct organisational trust?

1.3.1 Specific research questions

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions were posed in this research:

1. What is the empirical relationship in assessing organisational trust and the personality dimensions in a public organisation?

2. Do the biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position and years of service) significantly moderate the relationship among the construct personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) and the dependent construct organisational trust?

3. Assess whether or not the personality dimensions, conceptualised as openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness positively and significantly, predict organisational trust as conceptualised as credibility, team

management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship and interpersonal trust.

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The specific literature aims relating to the literature review were as follows:

1. To conceptualise organisational trust from a theoretical perspective.

2. To conceptualise the personality dimensions from a theoretical perspective.

3. To conceptualise the theoretical relationship and integration between the personality dimensions and organisational trust.

1.4.1 Specific Empirical Aims

The specific aims relating to the empirical study were as follows:

1. To assess the empirical relationship between organisational trust and personality dimensions

2. To ascertain whether biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race,position and years of service) significantly moderate the relationship among the construct personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience) and the dependent construct organisational trust.

3. To empirically assess whether or not the personality dimensions conceptualised as openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness and agreeableness positively and significantly predict organisational trust conceptualised as credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship and interpersonal trust.

1.5 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES

A paradigm is a viewpoint or a perception held by the researcher that is grounded on a set of shared assumptions, ideas, theories or models. A paradigm denotes an implicit or explicit view of reality. It uncovers the core assumptions that characterise a specific worldview. A

paradigm exists within a discipline (Naidoo, 2016). A paradigm has its origin in Greek, where it means pattern; it is defined as a basic set of beliefs or worldview that guides research action (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Similarly, a paradigm may be defined as a model or meta-theoretical conceptual framework within which theories in a particular area of research are constructed (Colman, 2015).

It includes the accepted theories, traditions, approaches, models, frames of reference, the body of research and methodologies, and be seen as a model or framework for observation and understanding (Vosloo, 2014). Mohammed et al. (2016) define a paradigm as a set of laws, theories, methods, applications and a whole system of thinking that forms a scientific research tradition. It includes basic assumptions, questions to be answered and problems to be solved.Essentially, a paradigm is a lens through which the researcher interprets the obvious and the not so obvious principles of reality and shapes the way in which the researcher sees the entire world (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). More specifically, a paradigm includes the accepted theories, traditions, approaches, models, frames of reference, bodies of research 19 and methodologies. It may be seen as a model or framework for observation and understanding, allowing the social world to be understood in an objective way (Zukauskas & Veinhardt, 2018).

Various approaches try to define personality and each approach as valid and useful, provided that a proper fit is found between theory, conceptual scope and practical application requirements (Grobler, 2014).Thus, paradigms play a fundamental role in science(Vosloo, 2014).In the empirical section, a quantitative research design was implemented. Quantitative designs are aligned to deductive reasoning and thus, fall within the positivistic paradigm (Von der Ohe, 2014).The empirical review is presented from the positivist research paradigm. The positivist approach is more objective and aims at describing the laws and mechanisms operating in society (Tebele, 2013).This paradigm perspective impresses the validity, reliability and replication of the study before generalisations can be made (Tebele, 2013).The literature review on assessing organisational trust and personality in a public organisation will be presented from the open system, humanistic, psychoanalytic and behavioural paradigms.

1.5.1 **Open system theory**

Accordingly, Cilliers and Koortzen(2002) describe open systems theory as a field that examines the relationships and connections between systems, that is, the relationships and relatedness between, say, the individual and the group, the individual and the institution or the group and other groups. The open systems paradigm views the individual as a part of an organisation that interacts with the outside environment.

Systems theory made an important contribution to the study of behaviour in organisations.It focused on interdependence as well as the interaction and interconnection between parts of organisations and between organisations, the importance of boundaries between parts of organisations and between different organisations, the role of people within and across boundaries and the nature of leadership in managing these boundaries (Geldenhuys, 2012).Deas (2017) contend that an organisation constitutes parts that work together as an integrated whole in order to reach the objectives of that organisation. Cunliffe (2008) finds the following assumptions of an open system paradigm:

1. an open system constantly adjusts to changes in the environment.
2. it is a composite of various interdependent subsystems that work together to form a whole.
3. it endeavours to reach equilibrium, to balance its inputs and outputs to uphold a stable flow of activity.
4. it develops mechanisms to supply feedback to ensure that this process occurs.

Thematically, the open systems paradigm relates to the constructs of organisational trust conceptualised as credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship and interpersonal trust as these constructs focus on the individual as part of an organisation that interacts with the outside environment.

1.5.2 **Humanistic Paradigm**

In psychology, humanism is a theoretical orientation that emphasises the unique qualities of humans, especially their freedom and their potential for personal growth (Weiten, 2016).The humanistic approach to personality is consistent with the way many people view themselves.It focuses on immediate experience and emphasises each person’s uniqueness

(Bernstein, 2013). Analysing the humanistic approach, Kotze (2013) says it centres on the actualisation of the individual and the achievement of one's potential and thus, the humanistic paradigm focuses on the positive.

This paradigm advocates the idea that humans have free will and may be described as pathology of consciousness.The approach argues that people have the freedom and autonomy to make significant personal choices, and they have the potential for creativity and growth (Kotze, 2013). The principles underlying humanism are:

1. human nature is inherently good:
2. individuals are free and autonomous; thus, they can make major personal choices;
3. self-concept plays a vital role in growth and development;
4. individuals have an urge toward self – actualisation;
5. reality is defined by each person; and
6. individuals have a responsibility to both themselves and others (Tebele, 2013).

Humanistic theorists also support that a person's subjective view of the world is more important than objective reality. Humanism conceptualises human nature as positive and acknowledges subjective experiences and conscious processes as they play an active role in determining behaviour (Weiten, 2016).The humanistic paradigm is relevant for this study as the assumption is that individuals have the ability and autonomy to decide whether they want to leave the organisation or remain citizens of the organisation. Therefore, beyond the physiological needs it also includes growth and development because individuals recognise their ability to choose their future and can take full advantage of opportunities to find meaning to their existence(Weiten, 2016).

3.5.3 **The Behavioural Paradigm**

The basic premise of the behavioural paradigm is that human beings are best understood as behaving organisms; creatures who are complex in nature and mental ability, but who are best understood through an analysis of response to stimuli. Whereas the biological paradigm interprets human behaviour in terms of genetics and physiology, behaviourists understand personality traits to be a product of causal factors within a person's experience(McDaniel, 2015).The study of behaviour can be viewed in three main disciplines: psychology, sociology, and anthropology.In psychology, the psychologist is concerned with the study of human behaviour. The focus of attention is on the individual as

a whole or what can be termed the personality system (Kotze, 2013). According to Kotze (2013) behaviour can be related to learning and influence from the environment. According to behaviourists, people behave in a certain way because of their history of conditioning and this is because personality is made up of behaviours that can be learned (Masoga, 2013). Behaviourism works with stimulus and response, which can be conditioned or unconditioned.This view argues that there is a stimulus that triggers behaviour, resulting in positive or negative consequences (Masoga,2013). As individuals age, they learn new behaviour and personality patterns by modelling others, the cumulative result of these experiences is a predictable behaviour and personality of an individual (Shields & Bredfeldt, 2001).

The behavioural paradigm relevantly suits this study based on the assumption that individuals develop cognitive functioning and learning by acting on their environment, thus behaviour can be a product of learning and environmental influences.However, the alignment of employee behaviour and actions with the vision and goals of the organisation has proven to be a major challenge facing organisations.

3.5.4 **The Psychoanalytic Paradigm**

Sigmund Freud and Erik Erikson are the primary contributors to this paradigm. Freud theorized that three systems work together to form an individuals' personality. The dynamic system (one's instincts and drives) motivates behaviour.He believed that the basic needs for food, water, comfort, sleep, pleasure and sex were the ultimate source of all behaviour, all stemming from the dynamic system.One of the most well-known constructs of psychoanalytic theory is that of an interactive system constituting the human personality (Capuzzi & Stauffer, 2016).

The psychodynamic theory focuses on personality development and emotional problems, internal drives and unconscious issues, which influence and alter human thinking, behaviour and the challenges which employees within an organisation face (Stretch, 2013). The psychoanalytic paradigm argues that mental activity occurs outside of mental awareness.Thus, the psychoanalytic paradigm alludes to basic principles that can account for a variety of behaviour in which people can engage (Kotze,2013). Psychoanalytic is the collective behaviour within and between groups, organisations and communities (Neumann, 1999). It is an interdisciplinary field that integrates perspectives from open systems theory,

the practice of psychoanalysis as well as group relations theory and methods (Geldenhuys, 2012).

Therefore, psychoanalytic perspective studies the ways in which unconscious dynamics could negatively affect the rational functioning of organisations. The focus is on surfacing, assessing and interpreting defensive processes in organisations. Awareness of these dynamics could help members of organisations to provide alternative possibilities of behaviour (Geldenhuys, 2012).

The psychoanalytic paradigm is relevant and fits well for this study because this approach touches on the understanding of human behaviour based on different developmental stages and experiences that can determine how personality and personality types can change over time and the view that personality tends towards constructive development and growth.

1.6 **RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is a blueprint that details how a researcher intends to collect, analyse and present the findings for his or her research (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Vosloo (2014) defines it as a plan or blueprint for conducting research. It is a framework that sets out a plan on how the researcher is going to sample participants as well as collect and analyse data to address the problems under investigation (Kotze, 2013).

The research design entails a detailed plan of how research will be conducted to enable the researcher to expect what proper research decisions are likely to be, and to maximise the validity of the eventual results (Vosloo, 2014).Other authors define research design as a procedure for collecting, analysing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies (Creswell & Clark, 2011).They further show that design helps guide the decision of the method that the researcher must make during the study and set the logic by which researchers make interpretations at the end of the study.A cross-sectional quantitative research design will be applied in this study.

1.6.1 **Research Approach**

A research approach is a plan and procedure that entails the process of gathering knowledge about phenomena from forming broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. It is therefore, based on the nature of the research problem being addressed (Sudeshna & Datt, 2016). This study followed a quantitative

research approach to describe, quantify and determine the strength of relationships between constructs(Heyns, 2015). For this reason, non-probability sampling was employed in this study because this method of sampling enables the use of already existing research and for respondents who are readily available and prepared to take part in the study (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

Non-probability convenience sampling methods are commonly used sampling techniques in personality research (Hill et al., 2013; Valchev et al., 2013). A cross-sectional survey design with a trust questionnaire and the Big Five personality questionnaire was used to collect data from the target population (Heyns & Rothman, 2015). The data was examined using confirmatory factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha, descriptive statistics, correlation, multiple regression analysis, and hierarchical moderated regression analysis.

1.6.2 **Research Method**

The following research methods will be discussed in more detail: research participants, measuring instruments, research procedure, and statistical analysis

1.6.2.1 Research Participants

The population of this study includes all permanent employees who work in different business units in a public institution.These employees will consist of individuals from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds, different occupations, different job levels, races, ages, home languages, and gender. The main ethnic groups (Black, White, Coloured, and Indian) representing South African society will be included in a sample that is representative of both gender groups.Permission for participation was granted on condition that the identifying particulars of the company (due to the competitive environment) and the participants (due to ethical considerations) were not to be made public.The sample size for this study was 350 participants enthused from various business units of the organisation from auditing to support business units. In view of the fact that, the population was small, 100% of the population was invited to participate voluntarily.The final sample of 226 respondents (n = 226) completed the questionnaires, yielding a response rate of 71.7%.

1.6.3 **Measuring Instruments**

Two measuring instruments combined into one instrument was used in this study, namely, the organisational trust and personality questionnaire.The next section will discuss measuring instrument, reliability, and validity for its inclusion in the study.

1.6.3.1 Adapted Organisational Trust and Personality Questionnaire

The adapted organisational trust and personality questionnaire confirmed by Von der Ohe and Martins (2010) was used to measure overall organisational trust within an organisation.The goal of organisational trust questionnaire was to gather views on the existence of organisational trust relationship, correlated with personality and behaviour within organisational context. The focus was not on the personality constructs *per se* but rather on organisational trust (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).

The first section of the questionnaire collected biographical information such as age, gender, race, home language, years of service and different job levels or position.The biographical questionnaire supplied valuable biographical data for the analysis of assessing organisational trust and personality traits amongst the various biographical groups (Naidoo, 2016).The second part of the questionnaire centred on the organisational trust construct, including both the individual employee's (participant) trust of specific other organisational members (e.g., trust in a specific colleague or trust in the leader) and their trust in generalised organisational entities (e.g., trust in management or the organisation (Von Der Ohe, 2014).

The five-point Likert scale required respondents to rate how much they trust their direct supervisor, manager, top management and lastly their co-workers or team members. On the other hand, participants rated the extent to which they perceive the same organisation to trust them. The five-point Likert scale will be rated on a 5 point scale ranging from; 1 'strongly agree'; 2= 'agree'; 3= 'in between'; 4= 'disagree' and 5= 'strongly disagree'.All the dimensions were scored in such a way that a low score indicated non-acceptance or distrust of the specific dimension, whilst a high score indicated acceptance of the organisational trust dimension or high levels of organisational trust.The biographical variables age, gender, race, home language, years of experience and position,will be analysed as moderator variables and organisational trust as independent construct.

The organisational trust variable and was measured by eight dimensions dealing with various aspects of organisational trust between employees and their immediate supervisors. The organisational trust dimensions measured with this instrument are:

- **The trust relationship dimension:** reflects the relationship with the immediate supervisors in terms of openness, honesty, fairness and intention to motivate employees.
- **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 goals.
- **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. This dimension measures the impact of trust on all organisational levels, as well as felt trust. It is a sign of how much employees trust others and how well they think they are trusted
- **Changes that have occurred:** Measures participants" satisfaction with changes that had occurred within their organisations and the way changes were implemented.
- **Sources of information:** this dimension measures the reliability and sufficiency of information sources.

The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be highly satisfactory, with alpha coefficients ranging between 0.82 and 0.94 for the various dimensions (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).In addition, 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 (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).The goodness-of-fit test was performed to determine whether a set of observed data corresponds to some theoretical distribution.

A GFI with a value of close to 0.90 reflects a good fit, and AGFI with a value of 0.90 reflects a good model fit and a PGFI varies between 0 (no fit) and 1 (perfect fit). It could therefore

be deduced that a good model fit was proved (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). The personality dimension was measured using the adapted big five personality questionnaire confirmed by Von der Ohe (2014). The scale consists of 35 items and participants indicated their answers on a seven-point Likert scale. It is widely used to measure five dimensions of personality traits, namely openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism that were also used and verified in a recent longitudinal study of trust by Von der Ohe and Martins (2010).

Validity questions whether the quality of a questionnaire suitably measures what is supposed to measure.The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be highly satisfied with alpha coefficients ranging between 0.82 and 0.95 for the five-factor model of personality characteristics (Martins,2000).Another study by Van der Berg (2011) found the Cronbach alpha reliability ranged between 0.85 and 0.95 for the five-factor model of personality dimensions.

1.6.4 Reliability

Reliability is defined as the degree to which the research findings are repeatable and consistent, which applies to both the subjects' scores on the measures and the outcomes of the study (Moshoeu, 2017). Reliability refers to the overall consistency of a measure such that any score changes measured by a completely reliable instrument would reflect true change in the construct that is being measured (Sakashita, 2013). Reliability refers to the quality of a measuring method that proposes that the same results would be yielded each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2013). It is the extent to which a test is repeatable and yields consistent results showed by what is measured (Kumar, 2014).Regarding quantitative studies, reliability refers to the ability to conduct a similar study and obtain the same outcome on both studies, thus indicative of the study's replicability (Leung, 2015).

Nyathi (2020) assert that to ensure reliability, existing literature sources and models should be reviewed. Accordingly, and to ensure reliability, a standardised instrument was used to collect data.The sampling method and the reliability of the measuring instrument were based on the Cronbach alpha coefficient.Again, to ensure validity, the measuring instruments used in the empirical study were appropriate for the data analysis methods, and the theoretical

models appropriate for the research topic.An appropriately considered sample size was used to ensure internal validity (Nyathi, 2020).

1.6.5 Validity

Validity refers to the correctness of the process followed, and the relevance of the assessment instruments used (Leung, 2015).Logical reasoning to select the right question, research design and tools to interpret the results is needed (Leung, 2015).

Validity is the extent to which the measuring instrument adequately reflects the real meaning of the concepts being investigated. Internal and external validity is imperative for a good research design (Tebele, 2013).Validity in research refers to internal and external validity. In order, for the research to be internally valid, the constructs should be measured in a valid manner (Hair et al., 2016). For increased validity of the study, the researcher clearly stated the purpose of the study and its theoretical paradigms while taking into cognisance the context within which the research will take place as well as the research technique. The representativeness of the sample and the instrument to be used are also critical in ensuring the validity of the study (Tebele, 2013). To ensure validity, a series of informed decisions are required regarding the purpose of the research, theoretical paradigms to be used, the context within which the research will take place as well as the techniques that will be used to collect and analyse the data (Cohen et al., 2013).

In this study, the validity of the literature review was ensured by making use of literature that was relevant and up to date in terms of the nature, problems and aims of the research. An effort was made to ensure that the most recent literature sources were consulted, although several classical and contemporary mainstream studies were also referred to because of their relevance to the conceptualisation of the constructs that underlie this research study (Deas, 2017).

1.7 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

1.7.1 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Before commencing with the research, ethical clearance and permission was obtained in writing from the Chief Information Officer of the organisation and the supervisory academic institution, the College of Economic and Management Sciences (CEMS) Research Ethics Review Committee (RERC) of the University of South Africa. All the participants willing to

partake in the study were contacted via email that provided them with a link to the survey page. Instructions on how to complete the survey were included in the link. Participants were apprised about the purpose of the study, what information was needed from them, the benefits of their participation and the potential harm they may meet during data collection.The assurance of confidentiality was provided, and respondents' responses were kept completely confidential.

The data was collected over a two-month period. To ensure anonymity, the survey did not request any identifiable information from participants, more than was needed for the research, including any signed documents; instead it was accepted that completing and returning the survey constituted as full consent for the researcher to use the data provided for research purposes.

1.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data collected from the questionnaires was captured electronically and transformed into a meaningful and useable format to conduct the statistical analysis. The responses collected were in a layout that was friendly for statistical analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Science Software program (SPSS) version 27.0 was used to analyse the data.Inferential and descriptive statistics were computed using the SPSS program. Descriptive statistics were computed to depict the data according to the sample composition and average scores on both the organisational trust as well as personality questionnaire using frequencies, means, and standard deviations.Confirmatory factor analysis and correlational analysis (as part of inferential statistics) was computed. Pearson Correlation (*r*) was used to assess if the relationship between organisational trust and personality is statistically significant among employees in a public organisation.

1.8.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistical analysis refers to the use of statistical techniques to summarise random variables obtained from a sample (Deas, 2017). The objective of descriptive statistics is to summarise and present data in a significant manner (Nestor & Schutt, 2014). This research study applied descriptive statistics in order to explain those aspects of the data, which related to the research constructs, namely organisational trust and personality dimensions. This stage consisted of the following two steps:

1. determining the means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness of the categorical and frequency data; and
2. testing assumptions (correlational analysis, multiple regression analysis and hierarchical moderated regression analysis).

The means and standard deviations for all the dimensions of the organisational trust construct variables (credibility, team management, work support, trust relationship, information sharing, sources of information, interpersonal trust and changes occurred) and the personality traits construct variables (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion and neuroticism were calculated. The mean score is determined through the calculation of the sum of the tested values divided by the total number of values in a group (Flick, 2015). The main objective of calculating the mean score is to determine the central tendency of the sample (Flick, 2015). In order to calculate the variability of the sample responses, the standard deviation is calculated (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). The standard deviation indicates the variability through the measurement of the distance from the mean score (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). A higher standard deviation indicates that there are more differences in opinion within the sample (Jex & Britt, 2014).

1.8.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Instead of being driven entirely by data, confirmatory factor analysis is a particular form of factor analysis that allows the researcher to impose a prior factor model on the data to determine the model's capacity to account for the participant responses to the variables (Brown, 2016). As a precursor to fitting the current data to the conceptual model by, the model of Martins (2000) will first need to be replicated by way of a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the factor structure (Von der Ohe, 2014).

A confirmatory analysis was conducted to determine whether the data confirmed the supposition that each of the proposed latent variables represents separate constructs (Martins, 2000). CFA was used for the purpose of this study, since it allowed the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent constructs do exist (Botha, 2019). Further detail about CFA will be given and discussed within this chapter.

1.8.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

A standard multiple-regression analysis was used to determine the size and the direction of the overall relationship between the predicted variables (dependent variables such as organisational trust) and the independent variables (such as personality) (Louw, 2014). Furthermore, the regression analysis was used to determine how much each independent variable uniquely contributed to the overall relationship between predicted variables (Louw, 2014). A separate analysis was conducted for each dependent variable. All predictor (independent) variables will be entered into the regression equation at once. Regression analysis was interpreted in terms of explained variance (Louw, 2014).

1.8.4 Correlation coefficient

Correlation analysis can be referred to as statistical methods used to measure and describe the relationship that exists between variables (Rovai et al., 2013). A relationship exists between variables when a change in one variable accompanied by a constant and foreseeable change in another variable. In this study, correlation analysis methods were used to test the strength and direction of the relationship between the organisational trust related construct variables (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship and interpersonal trust) and the personality dimension construct variables (agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, neuroticism).

Akoglu (2018) states that the direction of the strength of a relationship between variables is tested by a correlation coefficient.The relationship between variables of the organisational trust and personality dimensions were determined by the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. The normal range of the Pearson correlation (r) is -1.00 to +1.00 where “r” denotes the direction of association of variables and the statistical significance level was $p \leq .05$. The dependent variable in the study was personality while the independent variable was organisational trust. A positive correlation of +1.00 shows that when scores for the dependent variable go up, the scores of the independent variable also increase. A negative correlation of -1.00 denotes that when scores for the dependent variable go down so does the scores of the independent variable (Cohen et al., 2013). When “r” is between .0 and .3, it denotes a weak linear relationship, however, when the r-value is between .3 and .7 it shows a moderate linear relationship, while an r-value of .7 to 1.0 shows a strong linear relationship (McGrath, 2014). Correlations between values of r (n) =0.1 and 0.3 represent a

small effect, r (n)>0.3 to 0.5 represent a moderate effect and those greater than r (n)>0.5 pose a large effect (Ndoro, 2017).

1.8.5 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis

Hair et al. (2013) present hierarchical regression as a way to empirically gauge if other variables curb the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Therefore, the current study also examined whether biographical variables (age, gender, race, home language, years of experience and position moderated the relationship between organisational trust and personality.To check the influence of a third variable on two variables, a moderator analysis needs to be conducted. A moderating effect occurs when a third variable has an influence or impact on the strength of the relationship between two variables (Gaol et al., 2014).Hierarchical multiple regressions are the recommended approach to use to test for moderated multiple regressions(Cave & Jolliffe, 2013).Hierarchical regression analysis is performed to examine whether another predictor (the moderator or moderating variable) will moderate the relationship between a predictor and a criterion (Cramer & Howitt, 2004). Hierarchical multiple regression is valuable when the order of entry of the predictor is guided by the theory and when there is a need to determine how much a variable(s) contributes to a predictor (Harlow, 2014).

In the context of this study, hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used empirically to assess whether or not biographical variables (age, gender, race, home language, years of experience and position) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent construct organisational trust and the dependent construct personality. Moderating relationships was identified when the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (organisational trust and personality) is strengthened or weakened by a third variable, the moderator (i.e., age, gender, race, home language, years of experience and position)(Brown, 2016). The moderating variable defines a boundary condition of the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (Brown, 2016).

1.9 **CHAPTER LAYOUT**

This study was carried out and presented according to the structure below:

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research

This chapter aims to discuss and introduce the topic and constructs to be investigated. This chapter motivates the study, as well as defining the problem statement and scientific orientation of the study.

Chapter 2: Organisational Trust

The literature review conceptualises the construct of organisational trust and the focus will be on the concept of organisational trust and its importance. This chapter will provide the background and conceptualisation of organisational trust as the independent variable. The literature on organisational trust will also be discussed, specifically, the different definitions of organisational trust, nature, and extent of organisational trust, the importance of organisational trust, outcomes of organisational trust, the distinct types or classification of organisational trust, and the models that have been proposed to clarify organisational trust are explored in this chapter.

Chapter 3: Personality

The literature review conceptualises the construct of personality and the focus will be on the concept of personality and its definition as well as the trait approach leading to the Five-Factor Model of personality.The background and conceptualisation of personality as a dependent variable will be provided.The Five-Factor Model of personality, measurement of personality will also be discussed.The literature reviews specifically looking at the integration of personality and organisational trust will also be discussed to clarify the relationship between personality and organisational trust.

Chapter 4: Research Design

This chapter presents the research method, measuring instrument and justification for use, data collection, and analysis. The hypothesis of the study is discussed together with the relevant statistical results from the data analysis.Comparisons were made to reach empirically based conclusions that include a description of the target population and procedures used.This chapter will furthermore outline the statistical techniques used to analyse the data as well as the hypotheses formulation.

Chapter 5: Research Results

This chapter presents the results and findings of the research study.This chapter follows the analysis of data collected from the study sample and presents the results and findings on

the study objectives.The chapter will also test the research hypotheses and present the results of the empirical study.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

The concluding chapter will have an integrated discussion and conclusion of the results. Recommendations for the organisation will be presented as well. Limitations experienced during the study will be noted, and recommendations made for future research and the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this research was to assess organisational trust and personality in a public organisation.This chapter began by describing the background, and motivation for the research as well as the research problem. An outline of the aims of the research and the paradigm perspectives within which it is contextualised was also covered.A brief overview of the research design, research methods, and the logical flow of the research was then explained and a chapter summary will conclude this chapter. The chapter concluded by providing an outline of the chapters to follow.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 ORGANISATIONAL TRUST

Chapter 2 conceptualises the construct of organisational trust, precisely its background and conceptualisation as the independent variable. Literature on organisational trust is discussed, specifically the different definitions of organisatinal trust, the nature and extent of organisational trust, the importance of organisational trust, outcomes of organisational trust, the various types or classification of organisational trust as well as the models that have been proposed to clarify organisational trust.

2.2 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR STUDYING ORGANISATIONAL TRUST

Organisational trust has been a key sociological concept for many years, although its definition and conceptualisation remains a point of much debate. It has been vastly defined within and beyond sociological types of literature (Ward et al., 2016). Govier states that "Trust seems warm and fuzzy, somehow good, perhaps a little Pollyannish" (Govier,1998,p.3). A key cultural motif of a late modern democratic society is that organisational trust can no longer be simply taken for granted or expected and distrust (or at least healthy scepticism) becomes the norm, indeed a vital ingredient of democracy (Ward et al., 2016). Building or maintaining organisational trust is vital in democratic societies because negative experiences can potentially lead to mistrust of governments or institutions and have greater impact than positive experiences (i.e. potentially maintaining organisational trust) (Ward et al., 2016). Thus, some authors suggest, "trust comes on foot and goes away on horseback" (Ward et al., 2016,p.2).

Organisational trust can also be regarded as the psychological state that provides the feedback of how the organisational members perceive the problems that they are facing (Samadi et al., 2015). This plays an important role in the employee trust as how they view the organisation that they are in will help them act with utmost sincerity or not. If their problems are well heard and taken care of, then their trust will not be a point of concern(Munyoki, 2017).Organisational trust is an important and critical component in the context of organisational effectiveness and survival and organisational excellence often is linked to improved economic performance and the achievement of organisational goals (Al-Shalabi, 2019). Samadi et al. (2015) notes that as a psychological concept, organisational trust influences the intentions and behaviours of individuals within the organisation.

Subsequently, organisational trust has become as an important structure within the wide range of organisational management (Fard & Karimi, 2015).

2.3 **CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

In their qualitative and quantitative analysis of scientific literature on the definition of organisational trust over time, Walterbusch et al. (2014) found that since different scientific disciplines concentrate on different aspects, no single definition is possible.According to Cyster (2009), the loss of employee loyalty and the subsequent widening of the organisational trust gap between employers and their employees, is becoming a major issue for management. The loss of employee loyalty implies that employees will no longer engage in self-sacrificing behaviour to advance organisational interests (Bews & Rossouw, 2002). Cyster (2009) argues that this phenomenon has serious financial effects on many South African organisations. Furthermore, it is important for organisations to evaluate the extent of internal organisational trust relationships and to implement adaptive strategies in an effort to close existing gaps.

Heyns and Rothmann (2015) believe that the modern workplace has experienced dramatic changes that have reduced reliance on the traditional base of power derived from formal positions of authority. Drivers of change such as globalisation, increased diversity and technological innovations brought about an increased emphasis on the interaction and self-directedness of employees, as well as more flexible team-based temporary work structures that are more difficult to exercise control over.These changes have led to an increased reliance on organisational trust as a mechanism to coordinate and control interdependent activities, owing to the realisation that it is impossible to contract everything in such a complex environment.The ability to establish, nurture and restore organisational trust is a vital competency to the success and survival of leadership in the new global economy (Heyns & Rothmann, 2015).

Ndlovu et al. (2021) conceptualises organisational trust as a multidimensional construct composed of affective and cognitive attributes. Affective trust describes the relationships between two exchange parties, whereas cognitive trust describes the attributions about positive workplace behaviours(Fischer et al., 2020). Reliance- and disclosure-based trust in leaders also characterises the multiplicity of the organisational trust concept (Heyns & Rothmann, 2018). However, others take a unidimensional approach to organisational trust,

describing it as a generalised belief about the positive expectations about the motives and intentions of organisational actors(Kang & Sung, 2017; Wong & Wong, 2017). For this study, the researcher use the global conceptualisation of organisational trust to express organisational trust as an aggregation of employees' opinions regarding the trustworthiness of different organisational role incumbents (Perry & Mankin, 2004).

Thus,employees' overall positive expectations of organisational actors' motives and behaviour express their trust in the organisation (Kang & Sung, 2017; Yao et al., 2019; Zeffane & Melhem, 2017).Previous studies confirm that employees' trust in their employing organisation and top management influences affective organisational commitment (Wong & Wong, 2017; Yao et al., 2019).

Demographic variables (such as gender) may impact one's conceptualisation of organisational trust and influence the criteria employed in organisational trust decisions (Ding et al., 2014). It is thus clear that research is necessary to understand the differences and similarities between trusting behaviours of males and females.This is necessary because gender diversity is gaining prominence worldwide due to record numbers of females entering the workforce(Domina 2011),consequently females have an increasingly powerful impact on company performance (Golesorkhi, 2006).

Studies showed that the criteria for evaluating leaders are likely to be susceptible to gender bias (Hmurovic, 2012). Not only were males and females generally brought up in slightly different socio-cultural environments; they were exposed to gender-specific socialisation patterns and were orientated towards different role expectations and culturally conditioned cognitive styles (Hmurovic, 2012; Merchant, 2012).Hmurovic (2012) adds that socialisation processes often generate behavioural expectations of men and women that are based on gender-based stereotypes. Stereotype-based expectations influence what information is noticed and attended to; they act like filters that cause one to focus on expectation-consistent information and away from expectation-inconsistent information.Identification with a particular group with which one shares certain characteristics (such as gender) is powerful, and can also influence trust-related perceptions of others. McAllister (1995) and Mayer et al. (1995) found that people tend to trust those who are perceived to be similar to themselves more than those who are perceived to be dissimilar to them.

Ferres and Travaglione (2003) discovered no significant correlations between organisational trust variables and the following demographical variables, namely age, gender, position level and tenure. Wright's (2011) study also found no significant correlations between gender and organisational trust variables. Schoeman (2012) and Damane's (2016) studies confirm the aforementioned and in addition to this, could not establish any significant relationship between organisational trust, race and qualification. Thorsen et al. (2016) on the other hand, discovered low levels of organisational trust in management in employees close to retirement. They found no relationship between co-worker organisational trust and age.

Wright (2011) established that young non-managerial employees with shorter tenures tend to be more trusting towards management.Cho and Park (2011) stated that developing trust relationships between different parties, takes time and in many cases five or more years to establish. Freeman and Medoff's (1984) theory of exit-voice at the workplace, proposed that employees with longer tenure tend to become more cynical with regard to trust in management. The researcher is of the opinion that demographic variables play a role in organisational trust levels

2.4 **DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

There has been a resurgence of literature on organisational trust owing to increased scholarly interest and studies on the topic (Van der Berg, 2011). Past researchers have proposed several definitions of organisational trust. In their qualitative and quantitative analysis of the scientific literature dealing with the definition of organisational trust over time, Walterbusch et al.(2014) argue that because different scientific disciplines concentrate on different aspects, no single definition is possible.

Furthermore, since organisational trust is considered a social construction, bias is always present, thus making it more important to investigate the differences and similarities in trust definitions (Von der Ohe, 2014).Definitions of trust have been proposed from various contexts,such as individual expectations, interpersonal relationships, economic exchanges, social structures and ethical principles (Van der Berg, 2011). Most of these definitions focus on organisational trust as a psychological phenomenon.One of the widely acknowledged definitions of organisational trust is that propounded by Rousseau et al. (1998) who define trust as the psychological state that embraces the intention to accept vulnerability to positive

expectations based on the behaviour or intention of others. This definition is largely based on two critical perspectives widely acknowledged as the basis through which organisational trust has been conceptualised. Mayer et al. (1995) proposed that one of the basis of organisational trust conceptualisation is an individual's willingness to become vulnerable and the positive expectation of the other parties as propounded by Lewicki and Bunker(1996).

More recently, scholars such as Gillespie (2003) have defined organisational trust as an individuals intention to rely on others and will to disclose sensitive information to them. The Gillespie model of organisational trust is defined as the intention to engage in behaviour that increases vulnerability.In comparison to the definition by Mayer et al.(1995),Gillespie's(2003)definition is much closer to organisational trust as it represents the willingness to take risk instead of the actual behaviour of taking risk (Munyoki, 2017).

James (2011) argues that one of the most-cited researchers on organisational trust literature is Mayer et al. (1995,p.712), who defined it as "the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action that is important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party".This definition of trust emphasised the importance of vulnerability.Vulnerability is assumed as inseparable from organisational trust. In order for organisational trust to exist, vulnerability has to be present (Ferreira, 2014).Being vulnerable implies that there is something of importance to be lost.Making oneself vulnerable is taking risk.So,some researchers have identified trust as taking risk(Al-Shalabi,2019).Trust is not taking risk *per se*, but rather it is a willingness to take risk and the level of trust is an indication of the amount of risk that one is willing to take (Ferreira, 2014).

Building on the Mayer et al. (1995), Rousseau et al. (1998,p.395) define trust as"a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another". Fukuyama (1995) defines trust at societal level as the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest, and cooperative behaviour, based on the commonly shared norms on the part of other members of that community.Organisational trust can be regarded to as the positive expectation of the people in the organisation and their expectations in regards to issues such as reliability, competence and benevolence (Fard and Karimi, 2015). Organsiation trust can be defined

as the organisation's willingness, based upon its culture and communication behaviours in relationships and transactions, to be appropriately vulnerable based on the belief that another individual, group, or organisation is competent, open and honest, concerned, reliable, and identified with common goals, norms and values(Lau & Lau, 2016).

According to Hurwitz (2013) organisational trust means reliance without recourse. This is when an individual relies on another person in a way that exposes them to harm, but does so under circumstances where the person has no recourse available should that harm occur.This meaning falls within a core concept of organisational trust, common to many authors. In the same breadth, Huang et al. (2011) and Sibamba (2017) argue that organisational trust is when an individual is willing to act based on the words, actions and decisions of another individual.On the other hand, Cho and Lee (2011) as well as Ji et al. (2015) define organisational trust as a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviours of another.

Organisational trust is also defined as the willingness of the trustor to be vulnerable to the trustee based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action that is important to the trustor, irrespective of the trustor's ability to monitor or control the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995). Organisational trust may be explained as a multidimensional construct that may evolve with a relationship (Nielsen, 2011). Similarly, Martins (2000, p. 28) defines trust "as the process where a trustor relies on a trustee (a 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". In conclusion, the approach adopted in this study can be summarised as follows,organisational trust is considered a workplace relevant belief or attitude towards another organisational member; it is in other words a psychological state and concurring with Dirks and Ferrin (2001, p. 451) organisational trust is investigated from a micro-organisational and behavioural perspective (Von der Ohe, 2014). Common to all these definitions is a willingness to be vulnerable and hope or expectation of positive outcomes.

Emerging from reviewed literature is that the definitions of organisational trust can be divided into four groups. The first group involves personality theorists who emphasise the nature of organisational trust as a personality trait developed as a response that depends on personal experiences and previous socialisation.Personality theorists consider organisational trust as

socially learned in various institutions and as an integral part of human lives (Van der Berg, 2011).The second group involves research conducted on the actual act of trusting (experimental research).The third theoretical overview emphasises organisational trust as a social reality focusing on the conceptualisation of organisational trust as a collective unit (Van der Berg, 2011).The last research group focuses on trust within an organisational context and has sparked a lot of interest within recent years (Van der Berg, 2011). Moein et al. (2015) argues that trust consists of three elements:

- Trust exists when there is risk present
- The partners must have some interdependence towards each other
- An expectation that the accepted vulnerability will not be exposed

Organisational trust and risk have been closely linked to the extent that where there is risk there is an element and need for trust, and *vice-versa* (Moein et al., 2015).)The risks that necessitate the need for organisational trust, stem from the fact that the trustor is exposed to potential opportunistic behaviour from the trustee or partner (Moein et al., 2015). As argued by authors above, relational risks in an alliance are concerned with the different partners allying with different goals in mind, therefore,exposing the partners to tension in the form of opportunistic behaviour (Moein et al., 2015). From this, it can be concluded that organisational trust exists because there is a risk for opportunistic behaviour, i.e. relational risk, thus organisational trust exists and is needed because of the relational risk that is present in an alliance.

The second factor that makes up the context of organisational trust is that partners must have a degree of interdependence.Collaborating partners must have some dependency on each other, otherwise, expectations, leading to trust, are not relevant and trust is not needed.The final element that organisational trust consists of, is the trustor's expectation that the trustee will not engage in opportunistic behaviour since the trustor accepted the risk of the relationship and has become vulnerable (Moein et al., 2015).

The following table illustrates several reviews that have been conducted within the business, management and organisational science, political science, economics and areas such as cognitive and computer science and risk management as well as from explicitly interdisciplinary perspectives.The table depicts common essence and variables about the

definition and conceptualisation of organisational trust, which includes the actors of trust,the context within which trust occurs,the experience of the trusting relationships and other essences of trust.

Table 2.1

Examples of "essences" of trust within a sampling of reviews of organisational trust definitions and conceptualisations

Review	***Actors:****trustor/trustee interdependence*	***Context:****trustor goals,vulnerability, risk*	***Experience:*** *intrinsic volition/ agency*	***Other essences:*** *forms and bases*
Castelfranchi and Falcone**(2010)**computational cognitive science	Trust is relational and exists between a trustor and trustee	Trustor has a goal; there exists risk that the trustee will act inconsistent with the goal	Behaviours and decisions are intentional	Mental state toward trustee is positive and forms the basis of trust as a decision, which is the basis for trust as action
Castaldo et al.**(2010)** (business relationships	Trustor relies upon trustee	Trustor has objectives and context includes uncertainty, risk, and vulnerability	"…trustor…voluntarily puts himself in a vulnerable situation" (p. 663, emphases added)	Discusses the 'conceptual nature of trust' involving trust as "a reliance, a belief, a willingness, an expectation, a confidence, and an attitude" (p.663)
Dietz and Den Hartog **(2006)** (organizations and management)	Trust has a target, although the precise target and its measurement vary	Vulnerability is evoked while defining trust, and risk is required as part of the definition (p. 563)	"Genuine state" of trust requires intention to act (p. 559)	Forms include trust as belief,decision, and action; the five sources/bases also include trustor dispositions and macro(e.g., institutional) factors
Fink et al. **(2010)** (business,organizations)	Both corridors of trust definitions involve an"interaction partner"	One "corridor" of trust definitions emphasizes risk and uncertainty as conditions for trust	Intrinsic volition is implied rather than explicated	One "corridor" of definitions emphasizes positive confident expectations as a mechanism;review also references actions, attitudes
Levi and Stoker **(2000)** (political science)	Trust is relational and involves a trustor and trustee	Trust involves vulnerability	Intrinsic volition is implied rather than explicated	Trust is a positive judgment that may be graded or dichotomous
Li **(2007)** (management)	Trust involves both a trustor and trustee in relationship; "trust is related only to the trustor	Trustor uncertainty and Vulnerability are two of the quintessential dimensions in trust	"Willingness" includes a desire or intention to place trust, and trust-as-choice is not due to extrinsic controls	Both positive expectation (attitude) and willingness/ intention/choice are involved in trust as a process and are functions of trust
Mayer et al. **(1995)** (organizations)	A trustor trusts a trustee, thus depends upon the trustee	Risk is part of the behavioural manifestation of trust	"Willingness" to be vulnerable implies intrinsic volition	Trust is a psychological state based on positive expectations of the trustee; there also exist Behavioural manifestations;and dispositional trust is a source
McKnight and Chervany **(1996)**(computer science, online transactions)	Dependence is upon trustee,beliefs are about trustee; but trustee varies depending on type of trust(institutional, interpersonal, dispositional trust)	Trust is a general willingness to depend,rather than an action in a specific situation; but trust still acknowledges"negative consequences are possible" (p. 34)	"Willingness" to depend implies intrinsic volition	Trust has been defined as a disposition, structure,belief/expectancy, affect/attitude, intention, and behaviour
Rousseau et al. **(1998)** (economics,psychology,sociology)	Conditions for trust to arise include interdependence of trustor and trustee	Conditions for trust to arise include a context of risk	Critical components of trust include "willingness" to be vulnerable	Critical components of trust include positive confident expectations as well as willingness to be vulnerable

Note. "consensus on conceptualisations and definitions of Trust": Are we there yet?

From these definitions, organisational trust emerges as a dynamic phenomenon that is dependent on the interaction of various factors.In Table 2.1 above, many or most reviews converge on the idea that organisational trust involves a trustor (subject) and trustee (object) who are somehow interdependent; involving a situation that contains risks for the trustor (while implying that the trustor has goals); is experienced by the trustor as voluntary (implying a sense of autonomy, agency, and intrinsic motivation); and includes (or excludes) different types, forms, or sources of organisational trust concepts, some of which may form the basis of others and many of which involve or relate to positive evaluations or expectations (PytlikZillig & Kimbrough, 2016).

From the above table, it can be construed that a wide variety of definitions exists to define trust and specifically organisational trust.Despite different conceptualisations, some common elements unify the many different definitions of organisational trust(Van der Berg, 2011).In particular, there seems to be an agreement that organisational 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 organisational trust to develop,interdependence and uncertainty are necessary conditions.McEvily et al. (2006) conceptualised organisational trust as a choice to make oneself vulnerable under the conditions of interdependence and uncertainty.

This study is located within an organisational context, thus adopted the definition provided by Von der Ohe et al. (2004) that is restricted specifically to the field of industrial psychology. Moreover, the employer-employee relationship was used by the author in combination with the above.Organisational trust for this 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 (Van der Berg, 2011).

Table 2.1 identifies the common essence of organisational trust conceptualisations and common disagreements on the definitional boundaries of organisational trust. Common essences of organisational trust include that organisational trust involves a trustor (subject) and trustee (object) who are somehow interdependent; involves a situation containing risks for the trustor (which also implies the trustor has goals); is experienced by the trustor as voluntary (implying autonomy, agency, and intrinsic motivation); and includes (or excludes) different types, forms or sources of organisational trust concepts, some of which form the

basis of others, and many relating to positive evaluations or expectations (Shockley et al., 2015).

Meanwhile, researchers continue to disagree on numerous considerations, including the types of relationships that must be in place for psychological or behavioural states to be truly considered as organisational trust; the extent to which all organisational trust conceptualisations necessitate risk; conscious consideration of risk, volition, and/or active choice by the trustor and trustee; the inseparability of risk and trust; the psychological versus behavioural nature of organisational trust; the cognitive versus affective nature of organisational trust; and the requirements for organisational trust to stem from some bases but not others.Considering the reasons for such agreements and disagreements, it is safe to conclude that the varied interests of different researchers might be furthered by greater future attention to refining a set of definitions for trusting and trust-relevant constructs that are part of organisational trust-as-process (Shockley et al., 2015).

Furthermore, as can be seen within each of the common themes in Table 2.2 below, there are instances of variability and disagreement over what should represent the boundaries of organisational trust. In the following Table 2.2, each of these themes including their common essences and the variations and disagreements about boundaries around those essences will be discussed. Each column of Table 2.2 will be discussed separately.

Table 2.2

Variations in (sometimes conflicting) proposed "boundaries" on the essential essences of organisational trust

Actors: trustor/trustee interdependence	Context: trustor goals, vulnerability, risk	Experience: intrinsic volition/ agency	Other essences: forms and bases
Reciprocal trust is not required for the phenomenon to be "trust"(Schoorman et al., 2015)	Risk only applies to trust-as behaviour;there is no "risk" in trust-as-belief or even trust-as willingness(Hardin, 2002;Mayer et al., 1995)	Volition and choice apply only to trust-as-behaviour, not to trust-as-belief–you cannot choose how the evidence compels you (Hardin, 2002)	Trust should be conceptualized as an underlying psychological construct (e.g.,willingness,evaluations,expectations, knowledge, beliefs, intentions) (Hardin,2002; Mayer et al.,1995; Rousseau et al., 1998)
Reciprocal trust is inherent to "trust-building" (Li, 2015), or trust is inherently reciprocal (Lewis & Weigert, 1985)	Risk must be consciously perceived and other options considered or the phenomenon is not trusting (it is confidence)(Giddens, 1996; Luhmann,1988; Mayer et al., 1995)	The trustor must experience an internally generated (intrinsic) sense of "willingness" to rely upon the trustee, or it does not trust (see Table 1)	Trust should be conceptualized as an overt choice, action, or behaviour (Hassell, 2005; Li, 2015)
Shallow interdependence that involves "deterrence based"or completely "calculative" trust does not involve trust (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Li, 2015)	Risk must exist in the situation at some minimum level, or reliance on the trustor is not trust. At the very least, risk must be in the situation before or separate from any reductions in risk due to characteristics of the trustee and reliance upon the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995)	The trustee must be perceived by the trustor as acting volitionally; otherwise,the trustor is trusting external constraints, not the so-called trustee (Rousseau et al.,1998; Sitkin & Roth, 1993)	Trust is primarily or solely cognitive (Hardin, 2006)
Evaluation of a target's general characteristics (e.g., ability, integrity) is not relationship-specific and thus not relational enough (Li, 2015)	Decreasing risk is not the same as increasing trust. Decreasing risk simply removes the need for trust (Schoorman et al.,2015)	"Trust should be reframed as a leap of hope to enhance transaction value by taking advantage of the vulnerability," which makes trust an active, two-way,opportunity, rather than a passive, one-way mechanism for reducing vulnerability (Li,2015)	Trust is sometimes or always affective or emotional (McAllister, 1995; Möllering, 2006)
If trust requires knowing the trustee to have character, moral commitment, or to encapsulate one's interests, then institutions like government are not really trusted (Hardin, 2013)			Trust must be conceptualized as more than or "beyond" the outcome of considerations of trustee trustworthiness and calculative considerations of potential risks and benefits. For example, it may be based on opportunities for enhanced relationships or transactions or leap of faith or hope (Li, 2015; Möllering, 2001)
Targets of trust must be specific and consistent. Measures must not mix targets (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006)			Trust must be based on (caused by, stem from) positive expectations of the trusted entity (trustee) (Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998)
			Trust is based on assessments of morality and shared values and expectations about the future, not examination of past performance and assessments of competence (the latter is confidence) (Earle & Siegrist, 2006)
			Trust may also be based on institutional factors (Bachmann, 2011), reputation, and trustor propensities and attitudes (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006)

Note. "consensus on conceptualisations and definitions of Trust": Are we there yet?

2.4.1 **Actors: The Trustor, Trustee, and Their Interdependence**

The first column of Table 2.2 is constituted and comprised of the Actors.The trustor/trustee interdependence in common essence is the subject, object and relationship.In the same way attitudes have an object that is evaluated, it is often explicitly or implicitly noted that organisational trust also requires an object or a set of objects to evaluate, form expectations toward, or to be willing to rely upon.The importance of a trustor having a target to trust is illustrated by the frequency with which most definitions include reference to another, target, somebody, actor, and so on when defining organisational trust (Shockley et al., 2015).

Similarly, many scholarly definitions explain how organisational trust involves one person relying on another entity (Frederiksen, 2012) and/or that evaluations and expectations are directed toward a potential trustee.Even when one is talking about a generalised, dispositional or propensity to trust, it is presumed that others (e.g. other people or institutions) are targets of organisational trust, even if trust in them is generalised across social and relationship-specific information(Frazier et al., 2013).In addition to the requirement that organisational trust has both a trustor and trustee, it is nearly ubiquitous for researchers to argue that organisational trust requires the trustor and trustee to have some form of interdependence or relationship(Rousseau et al.,1998).Dependence or interdependence between the trustor and trustee is usually at least implied or assumed (Li, 2015).

In some cases, the relational aspect of organisational trust is explicated by mentioning dependence; describing the trustor as being willing to rely upon, give control to, support, or otherwise be vulnerable to the trustee (Schoorman et al., 2015); or describing the reciprocal (Li, 2015) or reflexive nature of organisational trust. While there is general agreement that organisational trust involves a trustor and a target who share some form of relationship,different perspectives exist regarding the types of dependence or interdependence forming the basis of trust that may be acceptable when considering something as in the realm of organisational trust. Schoorman et al. (2015) explicitly argue that while organisational trust is relational, it need not be reciprocal. In other words, trustor A’s trust in B can be independent of B’s trust in A. Conversely,Li (2015) argues that reciprocity plays a central role in dynamic organisational trust building processes that involve what he calls organisational trust as choice. Organisational trust building processes

may not be successful if A and B do not reciprocate each other's trust. Others too, argue for an inherently reciprocal or interactive and reflexive nature of organisational trust.

2.4.2 **Context: Risk, Goals, and Vulnerability**

Common essence: Potential negative outcome and uncertainty. In addition to an object that must be evaluated, most conceptualisations of organisational trust require some element of risk to the trustor (e.g. Castaldo et al., 2010; Rousseau et al., 1998). Risk or the probability and severity of adverse effects includes both potentially negative outcomes and some amount of uncertainty inherent in the imperfect probability of its occurrence(Aven, 2011).Furthermore, inherent in the potential negative outcome component of risk is the idea of desired and undesired goal states.The goals of the trustor are not always or even often explicitly labelled as such, but are implied by the potential for a negative outcome from the perspective of the trustor (Castelfranchi & Falcone, 2010).That is, if the trustor has no desires (goals) in the situation, then there could be no risk of a negative outcome.

Along with goals, vulnerability also influences the potential negative outcome and its uncertainty. Here, vulnerability is defined as a state of the trustor that can be exploited to adversely affect (cause harm or damage to) that trustor (Shockley et al, 2015).Thus, vulnerability is a component of risk; it is the combination of the trustor's vulnerability with external threats that could lead to some level of adverse effects that give rise to and comprise risk (i.e. the probability and severity of the adverse effects).While risk is commonly associated with and said to be required for organisational trust to exist, some have proposed more nuanced views. For example, Möllering (2006) notes that organisational trust fits with definitions of risky only generally because, while you can assign a probability to risk, trust situations are uncertain in the sense that neither the alternatives nor the probabilities are known by the actor. It is also common to point out that there is no risk in trusting attitudes, or in the mere willingness to trustingly rely upon another. Rather, some argue that risk only pertains to trusting behaviours and actions (Hardin, 2001; Li, 2015).Consistent with the definition of vulnerability as comprising a component of risk, the idea behind this argument is that the trustor does not truly experience the risk(s) associated with trust until he or she acts upon his/her trusting attitude or willingness and takes on a vulnerable state (Cao, 2015). However, it is important to note that one could also argue that even attitudinal trust(i.e. trust characterised by evaluations of the trustee rather than by action) implies potentially attending to threats and adverse outcomes, and imagining the risks that would occur when

making one's self vulnerable (Cao, 2015). Thus, it could be argued that risk is not irrelevant to organisational trust attitudes and willingness the psychological experience of the perception, imagination or evaluation of risk can be (as discussed below, some say it must be) part of the psychological aspect of organisational trust.

2.4.3 **Experience: Intrinsic Volition/Agency**

Common essence: Intrinsic, un-coerced /voluntary, agency, willingness. For most trust scholars, another key aspect of organisational trust is that it is not externally coerced or inconsistent with the intrinsic will, desires and agency of the trustor (Shockely et al., 2015). Terms such as willingness,intention, and choice are present in virtually all analysis of organisational trust and implies that the trustor (and sometimes the trustee too) is in a mode characterised by a sense of intrinsically generated volition and/or lack of reluctance.According to Shockely et al. (2015) intrinsic requires that the source of trust is from within, stemming from internal desires and self-determined autonomous evaluations.

Thus, intrinsic motivation comes from internal states and still can be affected by external forces, but is not perceived as coercive or as against one's will or being.Subjectively, this may feel like one is willing or wants to but does not feel like one should or must do something as these latter terms describe more extrinsic motivational states.Thus, willingness implies an intrinsic motivational state and agency. It ceases to be if coercion is required (Shockely et al., 2015). Willingness may at times reflect a more passive form of agency, which does include passive and active components.Further, a theoretical analysis of the meaning of agency suggests that organisational trust may represent just one way of demonstrating agency.That is, the agency has been described as a construct comprising of past (habitual and iterative), future(imaginative and projective), and present (deliberative and evaluative) elements. The present element of the agency includes judgments (which incorporate both past and future), decisions and enactments.These concepts have been used with the adjective 'trusting' (e.g. trusting judgments, choices, acts) (Möllering, 2013a).

2.4.4 **Other Essences: Forms and Sources of Trust**

Other essences: Many forms, many sources. A final theme within the review of reviews was a wide-ranging discussion of forms and sources of organisational trust. Within the forms and sources of organisational trust theme, the primary agreement is that organisational trust refers to many different things, forms, or concepts, including beliefs, attitudes, intentions,

behaviours and so on (Shockley et. al., 2015). One example of different perspectives about the necessary, appropriate, and possible bases of organisational trust is Li's (2015) perspective that organisational trust as choice can (and trust, in general, should) go beyond both affective propensities to trust and cognitive assessments of trustworthiness. Many typologies have been constructed around potentially different sources of organisational trust, resulting in terms such as process-based, characteristic based, and institutional-based trust; calculus-based, knowledge-based and identification-based trust; affective and cognitive trust;history-based, category-based, role-based, rule-based trust and more (Shockely et al.,2015). As Schoorman et al. (2015) note these distinctions between the sources of organisational trust, do not necessarily mean that organisational trust itself (which they define as willingness to be vulnerable) differs.

Still source does seem to matter and their preferred bases can distinguish certain theories. Just as not all cooperation is reflective of behavioural trust, most definitions place boundaries around appropriate and inappropriate sources of psychological trust.A long standing argument in the trust literature is whether organisational trust can be based on calculation or must be entirely non-calculative (McEvily, 2011; Möllering, 2014). Li (2015) argues that appropriate bases of or reasons for the trust should go beyond both dispositional sources and trustworthiness assessments, he suggests that desires for enhanced relationships or trusting someone to inspire reciprocal organisational trust comprise additional sources. Meanwhile, other researchers allow organisational trust to be based on institutional arrangements and other contextual factors (Bachmann, 2011).

Dietz and Hartog (2006) review several sources of evidence upon which the beliefs about the other party's trustworthiness, and the decision to trust them, can properly be based, including characteristics of the trustor (e.g. the trustor's predispositions and prior attitudes), of the trustee (e.g. the trustee's traits and prior behaviours), the relationship between the trustor and trustee (e.g. relationship stability, stage and closeness), and macro-level factors such as reputation or institutional frameworks that can influence trust in a trustor.Dozens of definitions of organisational trust coexist today. Some of these definitions overlap, but more often every single definition asserts a different aspect of organisational trust.However,in organisational trust literature most conceptualisations of organisational trust refer to the concept as representing a belief or expectation about the other (trusted) party (similarly to the concept described above), or as a behavioural intention or willingness to depend or rely

on another party, coupled with a sense of vulnerability or risk if the trust is violated (Weitzl, 2017).

In this vein, two articles published in the mid-to-late 1990s attempted to clarify some of the confusion in the definition of organisational trust as a construct (Mayer et al.,1995; Rousseau et al.,1998). Mayer et al.(1995) in their integrative model defined organisational trust as the willingness of a trustor to be vulnerable to the actions of a trustee based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action. Similarly, Rousseau et al.(1998) cross-discipline review defined organisational trust as a psychological state comprising the intentions to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the actions of the trustee. Both definitions have two primary components.One component is the intention to accept vulnerability and the other component is positive expectations that are rooted in several earlier conceptualisations of organisational trust (Colquitt et al., 2007). According to the integrative model of trust by Mayer et al. (1995) organisational trust is separated from perceived trustworthiness, with three characteristics of the trustee (ability, benevolence and integrity) appearing as antecedents of organisational trust.In addition, Gabarro (1978) suggested that perceived trustworthiness is a multifaceted construct that captures the competence and character of the trustee. In addition, this integrative model distinguished organisational trust as a situational state and as a personality variable, with trust propensity defined as a stable individual difference that affects the likelihood that a person will trust (Rotter, 1967).

Given its role within organisations, it is not surprising that researchers and practitioners alike are interested in identifying the mechanisms through which organisational trust and its components can be developed as well as those factors that moderate their relationships (Burke et al., 2007). Several studies showed that organisational trust has influences on processes such as communication,cooperation,information sharing,job satisfaction, perceived effectiveness of the manager,increased discretionary behaviours(organsiational citizenship behaviours),increase upward communication, decreased turnover and improved job performance/stability (Burke et al., 2007).Trust researchers argue that employees see managers as trustworthy when they judge their managers as deserving positive expectations, which is a function of three dimensions; benevolence,integrity and ability. Thus, this definition appropriately captures the essence of organisational trust without conflating it with either the causes or consequences of organisational trust (Korsgaard et

al., 2015).Further exploration of organisational trust will include its nature and extent, importance, and outcomes on the working relationship within an organisation.

2.5 **NATURE AND EXTENT OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

Like other human traits, organisational trust can be innate (i.e. shaped by genetic differences),acquired (formed by environmental conditioning), or shaped in an interplay between genes and environment (Oskarsson et al., 2012; Van Lange, et al.,2014). The literature outlines two broad perspectives on the roots of organisational trust: the dispositional and the experiential perspective.While not mutually exclusive,the two perspectives provide a stylized conception of how organisational trust is formed and developed in the course of life (Dinesen & Bekkers, 2015).

In the dispositional perspective, organisational trust is considered a deep-seated disposition or belief that varies between individuals.After the formative years, the rank order of individuals from low to high organisational changes little.In parts of the literature, organisational trust is considered a downstream consequence of proximate dispositions such as personality traits, while in others; it is regarded as a facet of personality in its own right. Both, however, stress the dispositional nature of organisational trust (Dinesen & Bekker,2015). From this perspective, organisational trust (or anteceding dispositions) may be formed by either genetic transmission or early-life socialisation, but the key point is that trust in adult life is a stable individual level disposition, which is not modified much by experience (Dinesen & Bekker,2015). From this perspective, organisational trust is considered a moral value (Uslaner,2002), largely independent of environmental conditioning.

The experiential perspective, in contrast, considers organisational trust malleable through experiences. More specifically, individuals are expected to continuously update their trust in others based on their experiences good or bad throughout life (Dinesen,2012b; Dinesen & Bekker,2015).Experiences may be understood in both a narrower (i.e. concrete experiences with others) and a broader (i.e. environmental conditioning more generally) sense.Here experiences are conceptualised closer to the latter mainly to provide a meaningful category contrasting with that of the dispositional perspective.Woldearegay(2013)broadly summarises three approaches that reflect differing conceptual orientations relevant to the peculiar nature of the field studying the construct of organisational trust in its ways.

First is the view of personality theorists, who focus on individual personality differences in the readiness to trust and on the specific developmental and social contextual factors that shape this readiness. At this level, trust is conceptualised as a belief, expectancy, or feeling that is deeply rooted in the personality and has its origins in the individual's early psychological development. Second is the view of sociologists and economists who focus on organisational trust as an institutional phenomenon. At this level organisational trust can be conceptualised as both a phenomenon within and between institutions and the trust individuals put in those institutions (Woldearegay,2013).The third is the view of social psychologists that have focused on the interpersonal transactions between individuals that create or destroy organisational trust at interpersonal and group levels. From this angle, organisational trust can be defined as the expectation of the other party in a transaction, and the contextual factors that serve to either enhance or inhibit the development and maintenance of that trust. These conceptual approaches have difficult divergence and can lead to conceptual confusion and a confusing potpourri (Woldearegay,2013)

People have different organisational trust thresholds depending on the situation, attitude and the disposition of the trusting person or organisation and on the perceived trustworthiness of others; therefore, the radius of organisational trust varies (Cyster, 2009). Shaw (1997) claims that organisations can provide three basic factors to expand the radius of organisational trust.They have to achieve results (to prove they can meet the expectations), they have to act with integrity and they have to demonstrate concern (to show they want to meet the expectations).Organisational trust in the employment relationship can be regarded as a reciprocal activity that requires any person to first demonstrate trust and then receive trust in return(Sibamba,2017).Reciprocity in the trust relationship refers to positive expectations of people, and positive expectations of the organisation regarding competence,reliability,and goodwill (Sibamba,2017).Numerous value based leadership styles such as transformational,authentic, servant and ethical leadership are linked with organisational trust (Engelbrecht et al.,2014).Arguably, control substitutes organisational trust since risk decreases as control increases.Moreover, that organisational trust accordingly is regarded as a substitute for control when facing risk.The point made here is that the actions of others are never fully predetermined if they were, control would indeed substitute organisational trust since full control reduces all risk and as such renders organisational trust irrelevant. (Svensson, 2015).

Role expectations are however constantly reconstructed in social interaction and therefore, to estimate others' future behaviour, there is a need for some sort of resource that makes the risk inherent in social interaction acceptable to bear. Thus, organisational rust and control could be argued as complementary (Svensson, 2015). Having reviewed the nature and extent of organisational trust, it is important to review the importance of organisational trust in maintaining a balance in organisations.

2.6 **IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

Despite the importance of trust in organisations and team relationships, there is a need to manage organisational trust balances, i.e. too high or low is detrimental and organisations should aim to strike the right balance(Bachmann et al., 2015).Organisational trust is a vital component of modern society.Questions to do with organisational trust are prevalent in academic inquiry(Withers, 2017).Trust is specifically important in organisations as it encourages and strengthens employee relationships with the organisation (Sibamba ,2017) .Organisational trust is foundational in management as the basis for the development of the manager-employee relationship. Without a strong foundation, a relationship is unsteady (Munyoki, 2017). Hsieh and Wang (2015) highlighted that in today's fast-paced and complex business environments, organisational trust is an important factor that affects the efficiency and quality of the cooperation between organisational members. Organisational trust is a resource that makes it possible to frame risk and engage in interaction with the unknown(Svensson,2015).Chao et al. (2013) pointed out that organisational trust is essentially about a person expressing confidence in the integrity of another party.

Organisational trust is the belief of an individual or a group that the organisation will make every effort, whether explicit or implied, to act in accordance with their commitments. Thus, organisational trust serves as one of the instruments in facilitating organisational relationships both among its members and between the organisation and its members(Gider et al.,2019).Organisational trust is vital in today's competitive economy because successful changes require a new form of co-operational glue. At the same time, organisational trust is also becoming more elusive as the need for constant change erodes the fundamentals on which organisational trust is built. In addition, most of the new organisational responses to the increasing competition such as empowerment, decentralisation, and organisational

learning ask for organisational trust as a prime enabler.On the other hand, in change situations, certain measures have to be taken,such as layoffs, which eventually erode the fundamentals of organisational trust (Cyster, 2009).Schoeman (2012) believes that organisational trust has now become more crucial than ever before for organisations facing globalisation and technological challenges, as organisational trust binds employees.

Organisational trust is an essential prerequisite for the effective functioning of individuals as well as organisations because it is an important form of social capital that shapes organisational excellence through effective relationships and attitudes that improve individual job performance, organisational processes, and corporate performance (Burke et al., 2007; Colquitt et al., 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Golesorkhi, 2006). Furthermore, a culture that encourages job challenges and career development, enhances organisational trust and creates an atmosphere characterised by shared values and co-operation (Trapp, 2014).

Von der Ohe (2014) explores the importance of trust as a resource in any social system. He argues that each person's behaviour is a result of genetics and environment (nature and nurture) as upbringing, cultural background and heritage influence how people trust or not. On the other hand, mistrust reduces productivity as people who mistrust each other often feel they cannot depend on others and thus pursue their interests, hence choose not to cooperate to achieve common goals. Chao et al. (2013) highlighted that organisational trust is essentially about a person expressing confidence in the integrity of another party. Organisational trust lubricates the smooth and harmonious functions of the organisation by eliminating friction and minimising the need for bureaucratic structures that specify the behaviour of participants who do not trust one another. Nevertheless, organisational trust does not come naturally. It has to be carefully structured and managed (Woldearegay, 2013).

Organisational trust is an essential ingredient in constructive employee/employer relationships, and there is a reciprocal relationship between communication and trust. A trusting climate is one in which people feel free to share ideas, disclose feelings, and work for common goals in a participative manner. Without organisational trust, relationships deteriorate into destructive conflict and communication breakdown occurs (Mishra & Morrisey, 2000). Mayer et al. (1995) state that one of the difficulties hindered previous

research on organisational trust has been a lack of clear differentiation among factors that contribute to organisational trust, trust itself (the act of trusting) and outcomes of organisational trust. The next section will briefly look at the outcomes of organisational trust.

2.7 **OUTCOMES OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

Organisational trust is an emerging intangible asset that forms the foundation for collaboration, change, improved performance and cooperation to achieve strategic goals (Ikonen et al.,2016).Positive workplace behaviours develop through trusting relationships(Sibamba,2017).Smith and Diedericks (2016) concluded that organisational trust has the ability to improve working relationships between the organisation and employees. Organisational trust creates positive work attitudes, increased job performance and citizenship behaviour (Gouws,2020). Increased levels of organisational effectiveness in terms of organisational loyalty, commitment and goal attainment, belief in leader information, lower turnover intentions, increased commitment towards decisions and higher levels of job satisfaction, are all implications of trust in the organisation(Gouws, 2020). Increased team effectiveness, elevated overall organisational success, elevated individual credibility and one-to-one collaborative efforts, are also all swayed by organisational trust (Morgan, 2014).

Chitsaz-Isfahani and Boustani (2014) and Enguene (2015) believe that workplace talent retention strategies are hugely affected by the behavioural aspect of organisational trust and should therefore not be overlooked. Organisational trust has the capacity to support change events (Six et al., 2010).The same authors argued that organisational behaviour and functioning can be significantly influenced by the potential and dynamics of organisational trust.It has been speculated that high degrees of organisational trust have a significant impact on employee commitments towards company goals and values, whilst instilling diligence and high degrees of innovation and productivity (Costa et al.,2016).

Engagement and turnover intention (also referred to as intention to quit) represent two key challenges that confront business leaders worldwide today and are therefore of interest to this study(Bersin et al., 2015).The loss of skilled workers due to global competition presents a primary challenge for South African managers as well not only because of the considerable tangible and intangible cost associated with lost productivity but also because it is difficult to find suitable replacements (Rothmann et al., 2013; Bothma & Roodt, 2013).In

addition to retaining talented workers, organisations today require that employees should not only be physically productive but also demonstrate higher levels of psychological involvement and psychological agility far beyond what had ever been the case before (Schaufeli, 2014). These requirements highlight the need for an engaged workforce. It is furthermore abundantly clear from previous research findings that engagement is important due to its established links to a range of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, as well as performance and financial outcomes (Albrecht et al., 2015). It can therefore be concluded that an adequate understanding of organisational trust building processes is strategically important to organisations, firstly because it helps to sustain organisational competitiveness in an increasingly global economy and secondly because it enhances leader effectiveness (Heyns, 2015).

Modern organisations are more reliant on organisational trust than ever before since changes in major workplace trends have diluted the power of traditional surveillance and control measures.Both retention and engagement of valued employees are critical to organisational competitiveness.High organisational trust relationships promote engagement, while low organisational trust relationships are associated with intentions to leave (Heyns, 2015). High organisational trust involves an acceptance that a trusted party has some influence over a person's life, for instance the willingness to accept vulnerability leads to a broad zone of acceptance where others are deliberately given the benefit of the doubt.In contrast, low organisational trust is associated with scepticism, suspicion and a reticence to accept another's behaviour at face value (Holtz, 2013). The next section will briefly look at the different types of trust within an organisational context.

2.8 **TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

Organisational trust is generally accepted by scholars as a multi-dimensional construct. Various forms and degrees of organisational trust, from complete trust to complete distrust, are described and summarised in this section of reviewed literature(James, 2011).

2.8.1 **Deterrence Based Trust**

Detterence based trust occurs when a party trusts another because the cost of a breach of that trust would outweigh any of the benefits from that breach(James ,2011).This is the first level of trust. This type of trust is based on being consistent in one's behaviour.Doing that which is expected(Damane,2016).When an individual is trusted to fulfill actions agreed

upon, doubt and uncertainty is reduced, and the need to oversee or monitor behaviour is minimised(Damane,2016). The main motivation for deterrence-based trust is the willingness to prevent hostile actions. It is motivated on the fear of the consequences that will follow if they do not act in the expected way (Arnason & Johnsen, 2012). It exists when value placed on the relationship is considered more important, and outweighs the short-term advantage of acting in a distrustful way(Shapiro et al.,1992).Rousseau et al. (1998) argue that deterrence based trust is an absence of mistrust, or a low level of distrust, rather than a form of trust.

2.8.2 **Cognition Based Trust**

Cognition based trust refers to the intention to trust the other party after understanding the evidence of the person being trustable. Such evidence contains personality, background, intention, capability, and deeds according to words(Zhao et al., 2012).The process to consider such evidence is a cognitive process that trust generated through such a process is called cognition-based trust (Zhao et al., 2012). This form of trust is based on rational choice when credible information about the other's competence is available (James, 2011).Followers' confidence in the leader's capabilities is seen as the primary element of cognition-based trust (Jacoub, 2014). Cognitive trust depends on the follower's appraisal of the leader i.e. whether or not the leader has shown competence, reliability,and integrity in the past (Zhu et al., 2013). Followers adjust their behaviour based on the leader' s track record; they assess the leader' s capacity to guide their performance and his willingness to defend their interests (Colquitt et al., 2012; Dirks & Ferrin,2002; McAllister, 1995).

Cognition based trust can be described as a measure of peer reliability and dependability and is built on the items such as the experience of the relevant peer and their qualification(Kim et al.,2018). It is also linked to the position the individual holds within the organisation(Kim et al.,2018) and is therefore important in the leader-follower dyad as typically the follower will report to the leader(Visser, 2021). Cognitive based trust in the organisational context can be assumed in the view of a confident expectation that all persons involved in the action will act competently and dutifully, or that another's future actions will be beneficial, favourable or at least not detrimental to one's interests(Damane,2016).

A high level of cognitive based trust enables the trustor to engage actively in collaborative works and also seek knowledge from the members that they trust. In this case, both the affect based trust and the cognitive based trust affects knowledge sharing in the organization(Guinot et al., 2014).A distinction can also be made 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. The source of cognition based trust is a rational assessment of a colleague covering their competency, attitude and character that enables an evidence-based judgment that trust invested will not be misplaced under any foreseeable circumstances (Van den Berg, 2011).

2.8.3 **Calculus-Based Trust**

Calculus based trust refers to a calculation of the benefits of or rewards for preserving organisational trust, or the avoidance of punishment or detriment as a result of the violation of trust(Lewicki & Bunker, 1996) and is based on the belief that people will do what they say they will do.Calculus-based trust is an ongoing process where the individual assesses the risk (i.e. the consequences) of doing or not doing something (Durand, 2017). It is based on rational choice and emerges when the trustor perceives that the trustee intends to perform a beneficial action. As Rousseau remarks,this form of organisational trust may be limited to situations where evidence of failure to perform can be obtained in the short term (Konrad, 2016).

It is also based on rational choice and this form of organisational trust emerges when credible information about the trustor (from outside of the trustor-trustee relationship,in the form of reputation or certification) is available (James, 2011).However, the range of calculus-based trust is often limited to situations where failure to perform can be verified in the short term (James, 2011). Lewicki and Bunker (1996) argue that this form is not trust, but rather a strategic decision or action based on a cost-benefit analysis.

2.8.4 **Relational Trust**

Relational trust derives from the relationship based on repeated interaction. With these repeated cycles of exchange, risk-taking and successful fulfilment of expectations, strengthen the willingness of trusting parties to rely upon each other and expand the

resources brought into the exchange (Konrad, 2016). Based on the confidence that reputation matters, institutional factors can act as broad supports for the critical mass of trust that sustains further risk-taking and organisational trust behaviour. Eberl (2004) mentions that different types of organisational trust do not suspend themselves, but might complement each other and symbolise different qualities of organisational trust. He states that organisational trust incompetence becomes trust in the integrity, which then develops into organisational trust in goodwill. Based on this view, he argues that the reflection on specific information moves from the characteristics of the interaction partner(characteristic based-trust) to the institutional frameworks (institution-based-trust) and finally to the transaction history(process-based-trust).Relational trust is, for instance, dependent on contextual factors such as the characteristics of the trustor (the person who trusts) and the trustee (the person to be trusted), rather than as an individual characteristic, that remains constant regardless of context (Heyns, 2015).

2.8.5 **Institutional Based Trust**

Institutional trust is described as the feeling of respect that employees have for their managers and organisation (Robinson, 2014). Employees are happier with management that has personally attractive attributes,expertise and uses encouragement rather than coercion (Samadi et al., 2015). This is the sense of respect that the organisational members have towards their managers.For an organisation to establish organisational trust the employees need to be made to acknowledge that the management is actually deserving to be in the position of leadership.The employees are easy to trust the management that has the expertise and employs motivation rather than coercion to achieve organisational goals (Fard & Karimi, 2015).

The trust that employees have towards their organisation as a whole is rather institutional and addresses general targets like the employer or rather the managerial team. This particular type of organisational trust is based on the employees' perception of the norms and procedures of their institution instead of the one-on-one experience that they have with one another (Gillespie et al., 2012) .It is essential that the top management provide their employee with psychological wellbeing so that they may have a sense of a psychologically safe climate. Managers have a significant role to play towards achieving such an environment through the provision of practical and emotional support to their employees to disclose without making themselves vulnerable in any way(Munyoki,2017).

Institution-based trust can act as a broad support for the development of calculative (calculus) or relational-based trust. The institutional trust may promote the formation of organisational trust despite other deterrents because of the reputation of the institution (Rousseau et al., 1998). At the organisational level, it includes teamwork culture (Miles & Creed,1995) and at the societal level, it includes cultural support such as legal systems (Fukuyama, 1995). However, there is debate on whether this form of organisational trust is more akin to control than support (Shapiro, 1987).

2.8.6 **Knowledge-Based Trust**

Knowledge-based trust focusses on the access to information, and not the ability to predict or control behaviour (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Knowledge-based trust is centred on a prediction of another person's behaviour relying on information and specifically historical interaction. It simply means having enough knowledge of other people to understand them and predict their behaviour(Durand, 2017).It is based on one's ability to predict behaviour. A judgement is made regarding the likelihood of obtaining a certain behavioural outcome. It is considered as the second level of trust which is based on having sufficient information about the party in question, often as a result of several encounters over time, which then fosters understanding regarding their likely behaviour (Arnason & Johnsen, 2012).

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 organisational trust i.e. when it will be violated or enhanced (Van den Berg, 2011).

2.8.7 **Identification Based Trust**

Identification-based trust is a trust where the individual internalises the preferences of another person and builds his or her organisational trust on such preference. Identification-based means complete empathy with the other party's desires and intentions(Durand, 2017). This type of organisational trust is based on the identification with the other party's

desires, intentions and appreciation of each other's wants resulting in a general understanding between both parties. According to Van der Berg (2011), trust at this level is strong enough to allow one party to represent the other in its absence.According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996) it enables both parties to think like, feel like and respond like the other.Identification-based trust takes it a step further where the actors do not only know and predict the behaviour of the other actors but also shares the same needs, choices and preferences.

This type of trust is based on strong feelings of empathy towards the other party‘s desires and intentions. At this level of trust the relationship has grown stronger and the parties can relate with each other‘s values due to the strong emotional connection between them and can act on each other‘s behalf in interpersonal transactions (Damane,2016).In addition, parties know the kind of behaviour that is expected from them in order to preserve the level of trust the other has for them (Arnason & Johnsen, 2012).

2.8.8 **Affect Based Trust**

Affect-based trust refers to being willing to trust a person based on the emotional attachment to the person. Emotional exchange in interpersonal trust would deepen the trust between both parties, but such trust is developed by getting along and bonding with each other that it would not appear in the beginning of interpersonal relationship. When thoroughly understanding the goodwill, reliability, and dependability of the other party in the continuous cooperation, certain dependence would be gradually generated.Such dependence is interactive; that is, one-sided trust would challenge the flexibility of trust (Lee et al., 2013).

Affect based trust is found and built on reciprocated interpersonal care between individuals(Volgelgesang et al.,2020).This can also be described as mutual trust between persons defined as the combination of felt trust (the measurement of trust felt by the follower and offered by the leader) and trust in the leader(a measurement of follower trust in the leader)(Kim et al.,2018).It is also important to note that cognition based trust is needed for affect based trust to be built between individuals(Visser,2021).Further exploration of organisational trust will include its dimensions on the working relationship, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.9 **DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

Different researchers have identified what constitutes organisational trust and what it is defined as, thus the need to divert towards the different dimensions of organisational trust (Moein et al.,2015).There have been several dimensions related to organisational trust, although most have not been replicated or operationalised multiple times, thus their generalizability is not assured(McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011).However, the authors acknowledge that organisational trust is multidimensional, i.e. containing more than one dimension, which according to McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) should be taken into consideration and further explored.

Due to various limitations this study focuses on three dimensions, which in itself is not negative as the understanding for these dimensions could be pushed further.The three dimensions discussed in this literature are ability, benevolence and integrity (ABI). Although there is some debate over the exact dimensions underlying trustworthiness, most scholars agree that trustworthiness is characterised by three factors: ability, benevolence and integrity (Rekabdar, 2015).

2.9.1 **Ability**

As dimension of organisational trust, employee-related ability is the potential competence of a particular entity to carry out a particular task and in this case, an essential trustworthiness dimension(Fard & Karimi, 2015).In other words, ability is the set of competencies, characteristics and skills, which enable an organisational member to have influence in some specific domain (Partonia, 2013).

The trustor takes into account the qualities of the trustees to make them able to undertake the task due to their skill, expertise, knowledge, self-confidence, self-esteem and leadership. Ability is mainly a cognitive process and it is less based on emotion (Fard & Karimi, 2015). In this case, the trustor can be the employee in an organisation who entrust the management to provide leadership due to their expertise, knowledge and skills, thereby facilitating productivity and profitability of the organisation.The trustor can also be the management who entrust the employee to use their knowledge, skills and expertise to develop competitive products and services for the business entity.

Ability can be regarded in various dimensions, including economic, technical and partnering competencies (Mühl, 2014). Ability may be evaluated as the soundness of the strategy and vision of the organisational management. The ability of the management to perform and their reputation for partnering are as well some components of competence. In technological organisations, ability consists of the combination of skills, knowledge, social skills, behaviour and education, which are used in enhancing the performance of the organisation (Komodromos & Halkias, 2016).Therefore, ability or competence is the quality or state of being adequately qualified to perform the roles specific to a particular organisation. It is important to take note of the fact that social skills and empathy are also components of competence as some studies have pointed out(Munyoki,2017). In circumstances in which competence is needed the trustor might be less likely to grant the trustee if they are incompetent and therefore, technically incapable of performing the necessary actions that are required of them (Mühl, 2014).

On the other hand, the measure of openness involves the open mindedness of organisational members or the flexibility of their thoughts.It includes the ability of the members to perceive problem through various angles and being able to be empathetic with others situations.This measure overlaps with empathy and is not easily distinguished from integrity(Elgoibar et al., 2016). Poon et al. (2006) regards ability as the group of competencies and skills, which enable one to gain influence within some particular domain. For the employees to develop trust in their organisation they must perceive their organisation as having the ability to succeed in its duties.When employees perceive the organisation as being incompetent they invariably become cynical to their organisation. As an antecedent of organisational trust, ability is determined by context. As previously highlighted by Partonia (2013) ability is context specific, implying that high ability at a particular organisational task does not translate into high ability at another organisational task.Apart from that ability is influenced by the dynamics of the context in which the organisational task is undertaken. For instance, a new employee may be led to believe that their supervisor holds the key to advancing their career; however, this may change with the changes of the organisation’s top philosophy. Even though the skills of the employee are constant, the context within which those skills will be put into use has changed. In this case, the change in the leadership of the organisation has invariably decreased the employee’s perception of the ability of their supervisor (Munyoki,2017).

2.9.2 **Benevolence**

Zhang and Chelladurai, (2012) explains benevolence as the extent to which a party believes that the benevolent party has intentions and motives that are beneficial to the party. In the same way, Johnson et al. (1996) describe benevolence as the degree to which an organisation in the relationship believes that its partner has intentions of goodwill and will behave in a fashion beneficial to both.

Apart from ability and integrity is benevolence which is the other crucial antecedent of organisational trust.Benevolence is regarded as the willingness for the organisational members to support the management and *vice versa* (Komodromos & Halkias, 2016). Benevolence implies that the trustees have a special attachment to the trustors. It involves the positive orientation of the trustees towards the trustors.Perceived benevolence plays a crucial role in assessing trustworthiness in the sense that when there is a high degree of benevolence in a relationship it tends to inversely relate to the motivation to lie(Mayer, et al., 1995; Partonia, 2013).

Munyoki (2017) argues that benevolence is the expected motivation of the trustee to support or help the trustor. In that case, benevolence on the part of the employees as the trustees in an organisation would entail the effort that they put in to ensure that the organisation realised its business objectives.It means doing more than what the employee is paid to do, for instance putting in long hours, coming up with innovative solutions to organisational problems.On the other hand, benevolence on the part of the management as the trustee would entail protecting the financial and social interests of the employees at all costs, even if that may undercut the profit margins of the organisation (Munyoki,2017). As a measure of organisational trust, benevolence is characterised by love or altruism and it is thus considered as the most essential basis for organisational relationships.Whenever benevolence is not provided there is a likelihood of all the other values to become harmful for organisational relationship (Heyns & Rothmann, 2015; Mühl, 2014). Komodromos and Halkias (2016) has defined benevolence as goodwill or rather the understanding and acceptance of the interests of other organisation members as being legitimate and which demand the sacrifice of all in order for the organisation to achieve them.

Fard and Karimi (2015) argue that benevolence is a key component of close relationship and therefore, an antecedent of trustworthiness.It involves the disposition to act in a kind

manner or to do good deeds. In this case, the trustee portrays goodwill in interacting with their partners, excluding the possibility of causing any harm even when the opportunity for doing so arises. This means that the trustor is specifically attached to the trustee, excluding the possibility of the trustor harboring any selfish motives that may injure the interests of the trustee. Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) argue that a trusting experience is the product of the interplay between people's values, principles and also their moods, attitudes and emotions or generally how they feel about each other.These particular feelings are based on the expectation of how the trustee will behave and if the resulting behavior reflects the needs and desires of the other trustor. In many instances, expectation is perceived as the fulcrum of organisational trust.

2.9.3 **Integrity**

Integrity states the degree to which the trustee sticks to principles that satisfy the trustor.This element leads to organisational trust, under the constancy of precedent actions, communication trustworthiness, dedication to standards of fairness, and the correspondence of the trustee's word and deed (Colquitt et al., 2007). Blakey(2016) points out integrity as an important antecedent to organisational trust. Komodromos and Halkias(2016) notes that integrity is considered as a crucial feature of organisational trust whereas others have equated it to organisational honesty and openness. According to (Mühl, 2014) integrity is considered to incorporate a degree of fairness within an organisation. Bews and Rossouw (2002) define integrity as the application of a set of moral and ethical principles,acceptable to both trustor and trustee, which are predictable, reliable and lead to equity.Trustee integrity requires that they provide a consistent approach to dealing with the trustor.

In a broader sense, integrity involves the compatibility of the beliefs of the employees to the values of the organisation. In this case, the trustees' values are compared to those of the organisation instead of considering the perception of the trustors' acceptability of the trustees' values (Komodromos & Halkias, 2016). According to Mansour (2014) employees count on their organisation and superiors not just because they are competent and benevolent but also because they demonstrate a sense of integrity. In this case, integrity is the loyalty directed to one's rational convictions in terms of action. A trusting relationship between the organisational members and their leaders is founded upon integrity. It is a

function of how the employees perceive their managers regarding how they align their words to their deeds (Mansour,2014).

Bachmann and Zaheer (2006) argues that perception of the organisational members is key in determining the relationship between integrity and organisational trust. For the trustor's perception to be positive the trustee needs to adhere to a set of principle, which the trustor finds acceptable. In this case, both the adherence to the principles and their acceptability is essential. There are a set of principles that are deemed acceptable to the trustor and if the trustee does not come out as having integrity if they do not adhere to them. In the South African context, it was found that ABI explain more than 85% of the variance in organisational trust; 86% in the case of upward trust of subordinate to supervisor (Engelbrecht & Cloete, 2000) and 87,2% in the case of the study by Bews and Martins (2002). This might indicate that the ABI framework is also applicable to the South African context, as the majority of the South African population is considered a collectivist culture (Von der Ohe, 2014).

Van der Berg and Martins (2013) also concluded that organisational trust is an essential part of the effectiveness and performance of an organisation. These authors considered the relationship between organisational trust in the context of changes in beliefs and value systems when they focused on knowledgeable workers and the quality of work-life in the South African (SA) context. Based on this research, it is believed that the perceptions of an employee's ability, benevolence and integrity will affect the levels of organisational trust both ways, i.e. by the organisation in the employee and the employee in the organisation (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). The next section will look at some other models that will endeavour to explain the development and maintenance of organisational trust.

2.10 **MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

A model is a representation or abstraction of an actual object or situation. It shows the interrelationships (direct or indirect) and interrelationship of an action and reaction in terms of a cause and effect. Since a model is an abstraction of reality, it may appear less complex than reality itself. The model to be completed must be representative of those aspects of reality that is being investigated(Shafique & Mahmood, 2010). Maxwell (2012) notes that models present a logical progression of stages or tasks from problem formulation to the generation of conclusions or theories that are necessary for planning or carrying out a study.

Models usually resemble a flowchart with a clear starting point, a goal and a specified order for doing the intermediate tasks. Models consist of the components of a research study and how these components may affect and be affected by one another. It does not presuppose any particular order for these components or any necessary directionality of influence (Maxwell, 2012).

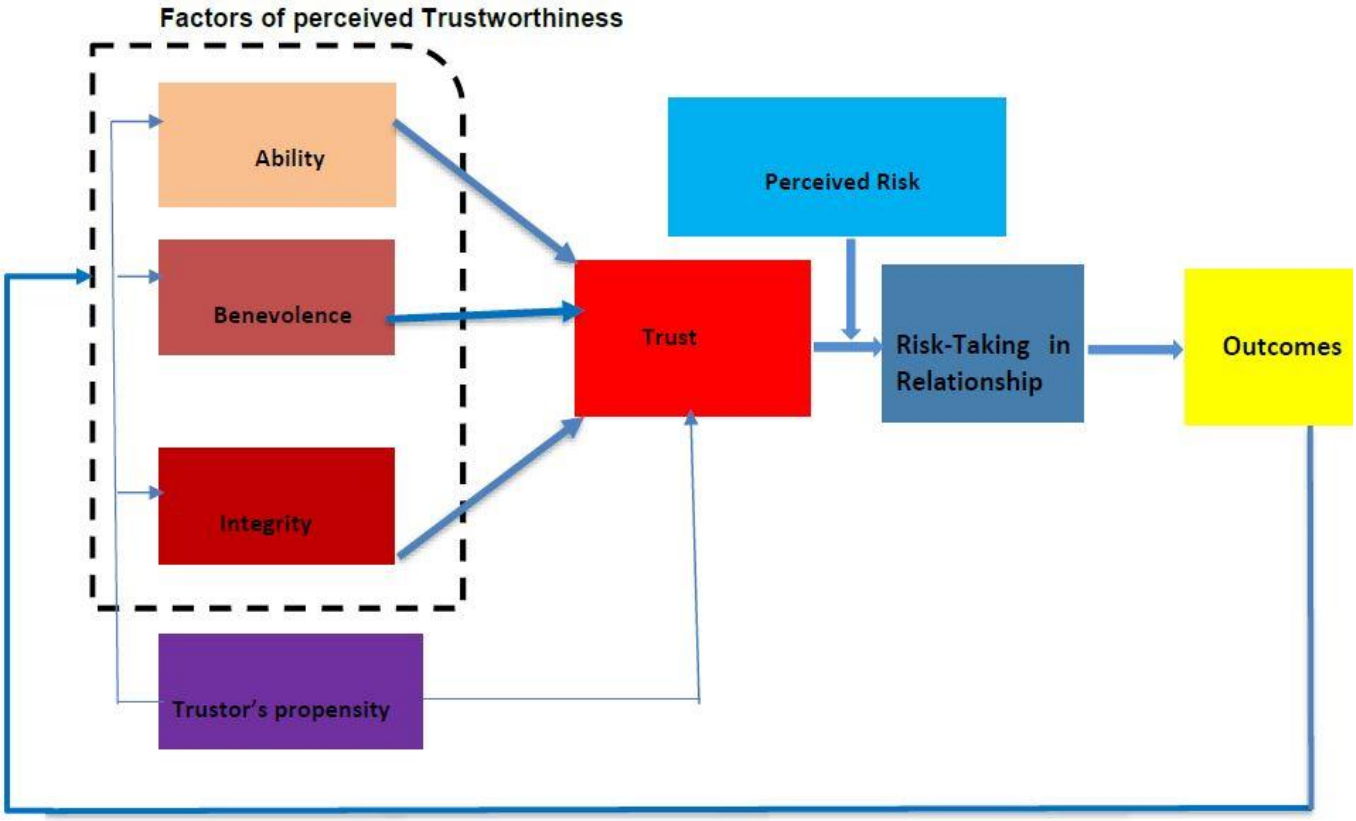
Following the discussion of the definition of organisational trust, nature, the extent of organisational trust, the importance and outcomes of organisational trust as well as the types of organisational trust, the next step considers the relevant models that have been proposed to explain organisational trust within the paradigm of this study. As can be expected from the plethora of definitions and the near impossibility of finding one that is commonly agreed-upon, diverse models are expected.Nonetheless, the applicable models will be discussed in chronological order and not in the order of importance, although the first model by Mayer et al. (1995) seems to have gained the largest following in the community of trust researchers internationally (Von der Ohe, 2014).

2.10.1 **The Integrated Model of Organisational Trust**

The Integrated Model of organisational Trust is discussed below. In 1995, Mayer and colleagues introduced their Integrative Model of Organizational Trust. The Mayer et al. model perceive trust as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Mayer et al., 1995). Mayer et al. (1995) propose an integrated model of organisational trust, as depicted in Figure 2.1. Furthermore, Mayer et al. (1995), Heyns and Rothmann (2015) and Schoorman et al. (2007) developed an extensive and integrated model of organisational trust that provided a turning point for trust research.

Figure 2.1

Integrated Model of Organisational Trust: Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995)



This model considers the characteristics of the leader, the followers' propensity to trust, and the risk-taking relationships.Unlike Bews'(2000) model of trustworthiness, Mayer et al. (1995) focus on three antecedents of trustworthiness. The authors argue that organisational trust leads to risk taking in relationships.The lower the perceived risk and the greater the trust within a specific context (the context in which the risk is to be taken is important), the more likely it is that risk taking will occur within the organisational trust relationship.The outcomes of the risk taking can vary from extremely positive to extremely negative.These outcomes then feed back to the trustee and increase or decrease his or her level of trustworthiness (Aucamp, 2014). Propensity to trust is rooted in individual characteristics such as personality and cultural background (Bews, 2000).

Organisational trust is obtained when followers believe that their leaders will engage in fair exchanges, and that their citizenship behaviour will be appropriately recognised and rewarded. In contrast, Hamad (2015) argues that transactional leadership does not permit

good relationships between subordinate and leadership.As a result, there is a lack of organisational trust, and the relationship between the subordinate and the leader ends once the task has been completed.

It is clear that researchers have different views regarding the relationship between transactional leadership and organisational trust. Admittedly, followers will follow a leader whom they trust and will be willing to engage in behaviours that might put them at risk (Mayer et al., 1995). It can be concluded based on the two perspectives that were discussed that organisational trust in a leader depends on the followers' perceptions of their leader as a competent, benevolent, open, and a fair individual. Because followers constantly monitor leadership, it is the leaders' responsibility to create and foster an environment of trust before organisational operations. This will serve to reinforce confidence in the followers that the leader will be able to successfully execute the mission (Aucamp, 2014).Shinga (2015) reaffirms that organisational trust allows team members to interact and engage more freely with one another, which will enhance teamwork processes and performance.In addition, trust in the leadership and organisation elicits followers to put the needs of the organisation before their own, which is what each and every organisation requires from its members.

The fact that Mayer et al. (1995) consider both intra- and inter-organisational trust in their model makes it applicable across various levels of analysis: The fact that the initial goal was to develop a multilevel theory is probably why the model works as well as it does across levels, but I do agree with those who argue that one of the weaknesses in much of the current trust research is that it is limited to relationships at a single level of analysis, considering either dyadic trust relationships within organisations or trust between organizations (Schoorman et al., 2007). According to other researchers, several limitations of the proposed model should be recognised:

- Mayer et al. (1995) limited their model of trust to a dyad of trustor and trustee. The broader social context (groups and organisations) in which such dyadic relationships exist is left out (Cyster, 2009).
- The model only deals with the psychological processes of trustors and neglects the social processes (Wekselberg, 1996).
- Furthermore, the proposed model only includes the psychological processes and characteristics of trustors (perceived trustworthiness of trustees, trustor's propensity,

perceived risk, and trust), risk-taking behaviours of the trustor, and outcomes (Wekselberg,1996). Mayer et al. (1995) point out that their consideration of trust in this model is unidirectional

- This model is focusing on trust in an organisational relationship, and its propositions may not generalise to relationships in other contexts (Mayer et. al.,1995).

According to Fricker et al. (2014) the Mayer et al. model is a feedback loop, where organisational trust is tested in a risk-taking situation, an outcome is observed, and then the trustor's assessment of the trustee is subsequently updated.Nielsen (2011) found this model as limiting as in the context of research on the effect of trust on strategic alliances between partners, this model has three shortcomings.At the outset, it assumes trust is one dimensional and has universal properties, and secondly, it neglects the interaction between management processes and organisational trust(e.g. how do monitoring and control influence organisational trust, and *vice versa:* if there is high organisational trust, is there less monitoring and control?). Lastly, the model does not make provision for various stages in the relationship over time as proposed by Lewicki and Bunker (1996). The latter sees organisational trust as a dynamic phenomenon and not as a static entity (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). The second model of organisational trust to discuss is Rousseau et al. model of trust.

2.10.2 **Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer's Model of Trust**

This model of organisational trust is based on three different organisational trust constructs: institutional, calculative, and relational. Concerning the relative importance of calculative and relational trust,Rousseau et al. (1998) and Ratnasingham (1998) proposed that with increased time of relationship, calculative trust becomes less and relational trust more important.This indicates that people only use calculative trust when they do not have sufficient information about the other party to build relational trust and tend to replace calculative with relational trust as soon as there is a sufficient history of transactions between the two parties. Where relational trust is concerned, it is a consequence of repeat interactions between the two parties, based on the premise that through ongoing interaction, organisations learn about each other and develop organisational trust.

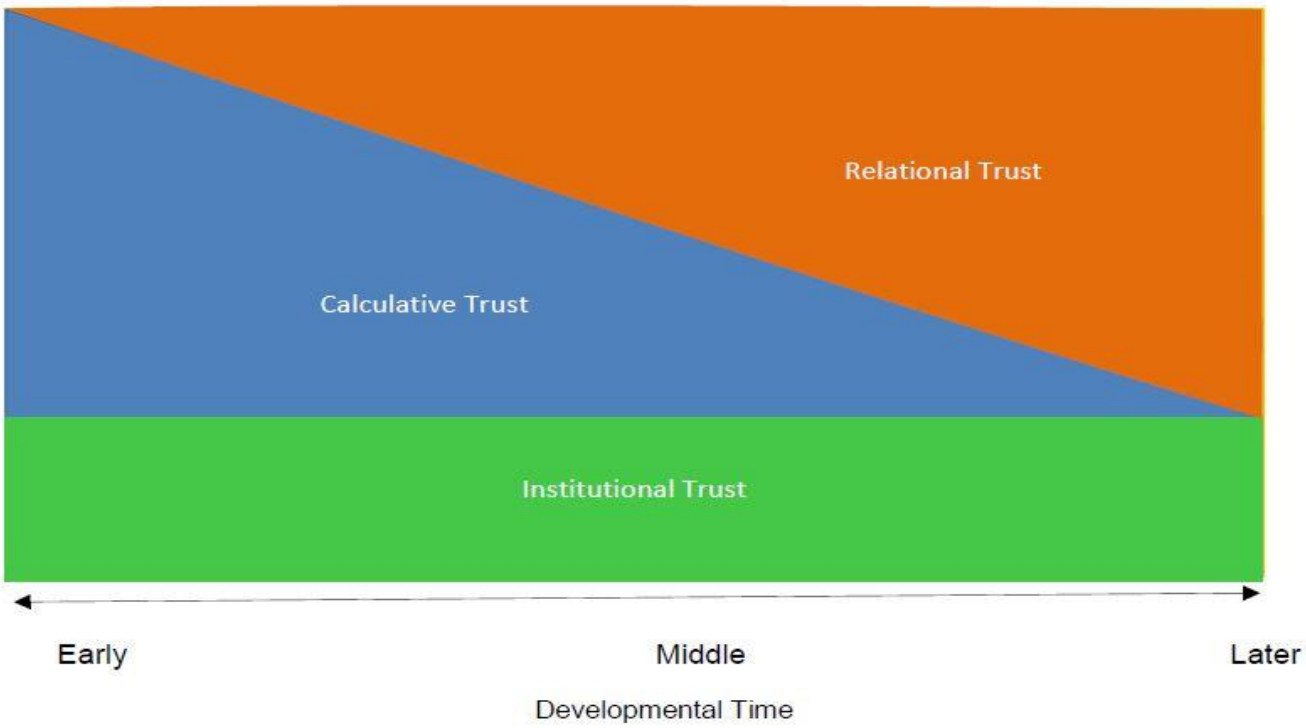
Rousseau et al. (1998) found that organisational trust can be split into three different components: institutional, calculative, and relational trust. Institutional trust is confidence in regulatory factors, which promote the creation of the trust, e.g. a legal system that protects

individuals ‘rights and property. Calculative trust is based on a rational choice (risk-return calculation) and emerges when the trustor perceives that the trustee intends to perform an action where the expected outcome is beneficial for the trustor. It is based on the assumption that while other people may not be necessarily good, they are rational, calculative, act in their own best self-interest, and, as such, will refrain from inflicting harm upon themselves (Schoder & Haenlein, 2010). Finally, relational trust is derived over time from repeated interactions between trustor and trustee and covers such factors as familiarity and experience with each other. McKnight and Chervany (2002) also confirmed this view.

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

Figure 2.2

Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer’s Model of Trust



There are two potential criticisms of this operationalisation. Firstly,it does not allow problems that may arise from long-term relationships for example, perceived opportunism and rising expectations (Grayson & Ambler 1999; Moorman et al.,1993). Secondly, familiarity only breeds trust if the other party is indeed trustworthy,i.e. if it is based on positive experience (Gefen et al., 2003).Concerning the first point, it is argued that the exact nature of these relational dynamics remains elusive which means there is insufficient knowledge about this relationship to date, which can be reflected in construct operationalisation(Grayson & Ambler,1999).

Rosseau et al. (1998) embrace the idea of a more complex, multifaceted view of organisational trust and underscore the perspective advocated by Lewicki et al. (1998) that organisational trust has a bandwidth, where it can vary in scope as well as degree. Organisational trust takes different forms in different relationships from a calculated weighting of gains and losses to an emotional response based on interpersonal attachment and identification(Rousseau et al., 1998).They thus support the idea of organisational trust having scope and bandwidth in complex relationships, where that scope could subsume independent constructs of organisational trust and distrust (Lewicki et al., 1998) and/or different bases/types of trust, such as calculative trust and people trust (Lewicki et al.,2006).

These authors argue that the core elements of the scope of organisational trust are calculative based trust and relational trust(derived from repeated interactions between trustor and trustee in which caring, concern, and emotional attachment have developed).They state that this relational trust is similar to affective trust (McAllister, 1995; McAllister et al., 2006) and Institutional based trust(McAllister, 1995; McAllister et al., 2006). A parallel distinction is drawn by Kramer (1999b) distinguishing between a rational-choice approach and a relational approach to organisational trust.They also specify a third construct, institution-based trust which comprises the broad institutional supports that facilitate the development of calculative based trust and relational in an organisation context. These may include processes for assuring fair and consistent employee treatment and providing legal/organisational protections from unreliable public organisation leaders and agencies.

Since, the literature review had already assumed that institutional trust is more important than the other two constructs, preference is to underestimate rather than overestimate its

importance. Finally, the part worth of institutional trust may have been overestimated and that of calculative and relational trust underestimated since institutional trust turned out to be a dominant attribute (Müller-Hagedorn et al., 1993). In this model, the only trust towards direct supervisors or managers is investigated in other words, only the vertical, upward and dyadic trust between a trustor and a trustee.This approach can be classified as a social influence perspective since it does not address social processes as would have been the case from a social interaction perspective (Von der Ohe, 2014).

2.10.3 **Dietz and Den Hartog's Model of Trust Process**

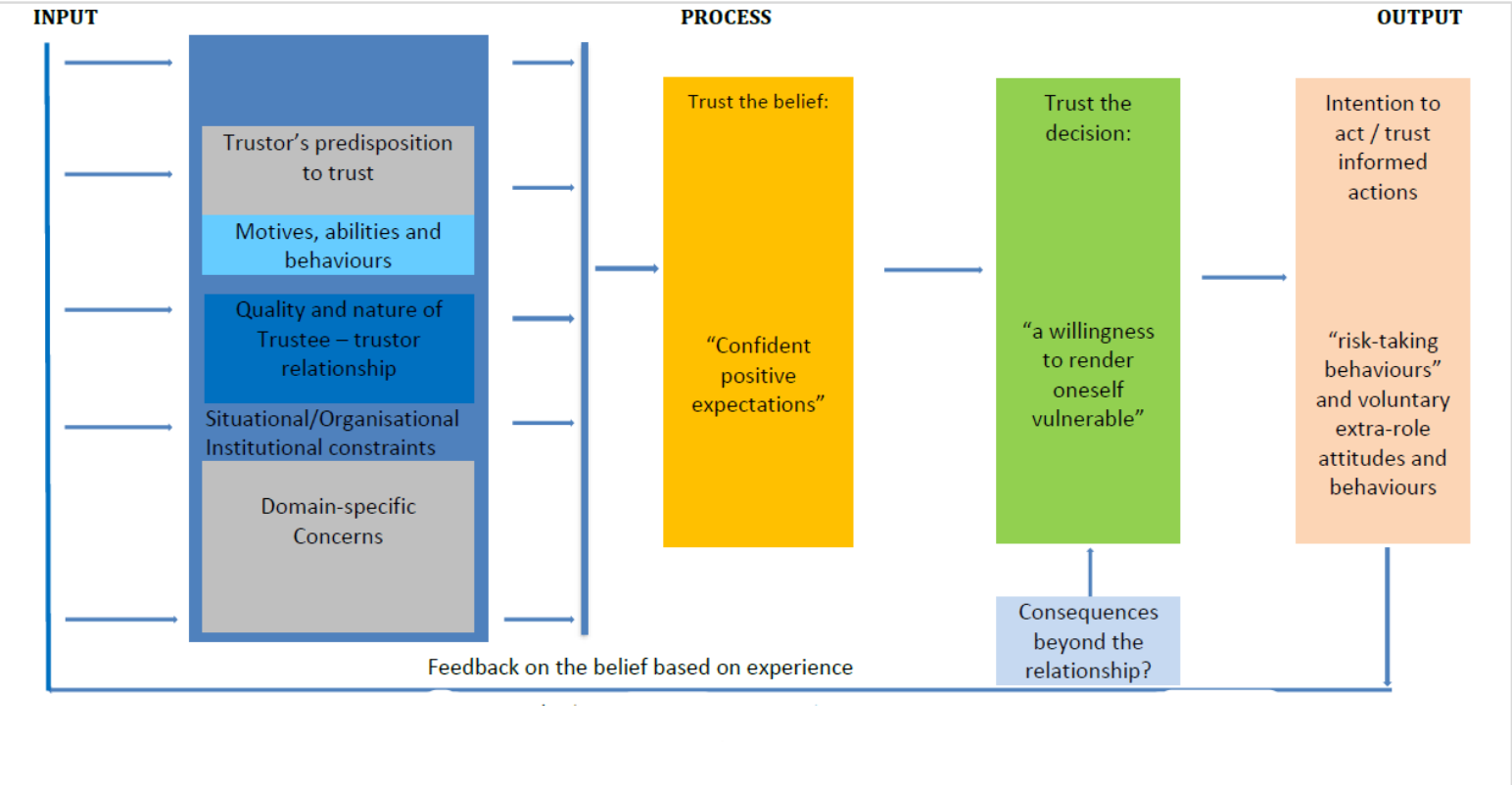
Figure 2.3 summarises a multi-dimensional, integrated framework for looking at the process of intra-organisational trust. It adopts elements of existing models by Mayer et al. (1995) and Ross & LaCroix (1996). Dietz and Hartog(2006) use an open systems model (input-process-output). From left to right, it depicts the input or antecedents of organisational trust,the different components of the organisational trust process itself in the central panels and finally the different organisational trust-informed behavioural outcomes.Organisational trust is therefore typified to be a process, it is not simply a psychological state, or a cognitive, calculative orientation toward risk (Kramer, 1999; Rousseau et al., 1998).The organisational trust process consists of three stages (Skinner et al., 2014) beginning with a set of beliefs about the other party's trustworthiness, commonly understood to comprise assessments of their ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995; Skinner et al., 2014). A decision to trust is taken based on those beliefs. The final stage, arising from the decision, is a risk-taking act,undertaken to demonstrate one's trust (Mayer et al., 1995). Such acts include increased collaboration and reliance, sharing scarce or valuable resources and sensitive information, and deliberately reduced monitoring (Skinner et al.,2014).

Previous research indicates that more trusting employees show greater cooperation and commitment, engage in more knowledge sharing, and carry out less counterproductive work behaviors(Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012).As a consequence, organisational trust is an important mechanism through which management practices can affect important workplace outcomes (Zhang et al., 2008). Two reasons have been offered as to why organisational control may help foster employees' trust in their employing organisations (Weibel et al., 2016). First, control practices may signal the organisation's predictability, fairness, and reliability. In other words, controls may lead to perceived organisational goodwill and as such enable employees to have more trust in their employing organisation. Second, control practices

may also signal organisational ability (Maguire & Phillips, 2008) and thus may enhance the belief that an organisation is capable of delivering on its promises to both employees and external stakeholders(Bridoux et al., 2016).Weibel et al. (2016) provided both qualitative and quantitative evidence that three types of organisational control (i.e. input,process and output) enhance employees' organisational trust.

Figure 2.3

Dietz and Den Hartog's Model of Trust Process



Based on the model, it is proposed that process controls, as long as they are perceived to be professional and beneficial, can help employees see the organisation as trustworthy as these process controls provide support to employees in their daily work. For instance, such controls enable coordination between different employees, and hence strengthen the reliability of cooperation in and between teams. This is likely to enable both task performance and foster citizenship toward other team members(Verburg et al., 2018). Process controls also contribute to more transparency by clarifying expectations and discriminating between acceptable and unacceptable behaviours, reassuring employees of

the organisation's integrity. As noted, not having to spend time scanning what is right and wrong and engaging in self-protection frees up resources to focus on contributing to the organisation in different ways (Verburg et al., 2018).

On a more practical level, if employees perceive process controls that are helpful in reducing errors, this not only can help them do their job better (and thus directly affect task performance) but also assures them of the competence of the organisation, enacting trust, which further motivates work effectiveness and citizenship. Thus, well-implemented process controls should strengthen employees' trust in the organisation and, in turn, enhance their willingness to contribute through task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours(Verburg et al., 2018).

The proper exploration of the relation between propensity, trustworthiness and trust implies that a more complete understanding of trust should ideally involve a comprehensive measure that includes an assessment of both the decision to trust as well as its antecedents within the same study. McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) support this view by emphasising the necessity of further research to (1) operationalise organisational trust as a multidimensional construct, (2) empirically assess the extent to which distinct dimensions exist and (3) assess the nature and degree of their relationships with each other. Dietz and Hartog (2006) recommend that a comprehensive measure of trust should capture both the respondent's beliefs about the trustee as well as the intention to act on such beliefs. This approach is advisable because, as Dietz and Hartog correctly point out, the mere knowledge that someone is considered trustworthy does not necessarily imply that the trustor intends to act on such beliefs. Therefore, the inclusion of a measure to assess the decision to organisational trust, in addition to measures of trustworthiness, would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the trust process(Heyns & Rothmann, 2015).

Understanding organisational trust as the three-stage process, Skinner et al. (2014) believe that it is required that the risk-taking act receives more attention. This has major implications for the design of empirical studies. Measures of organisational trust should incorporate risk-taking acts whether by proxy (e.g. manifest in a decision) or from the creation of a new measure of trust as a behaviour, similar to that for organisational citizenship behaviour(Skinner et al., 2014). Problems encountered in existing organisational trust-related research, stem from the complexity of the construct (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Gillespie, 2012; Mayer et al.,1995) and a lack of clarity concerning the various bases used

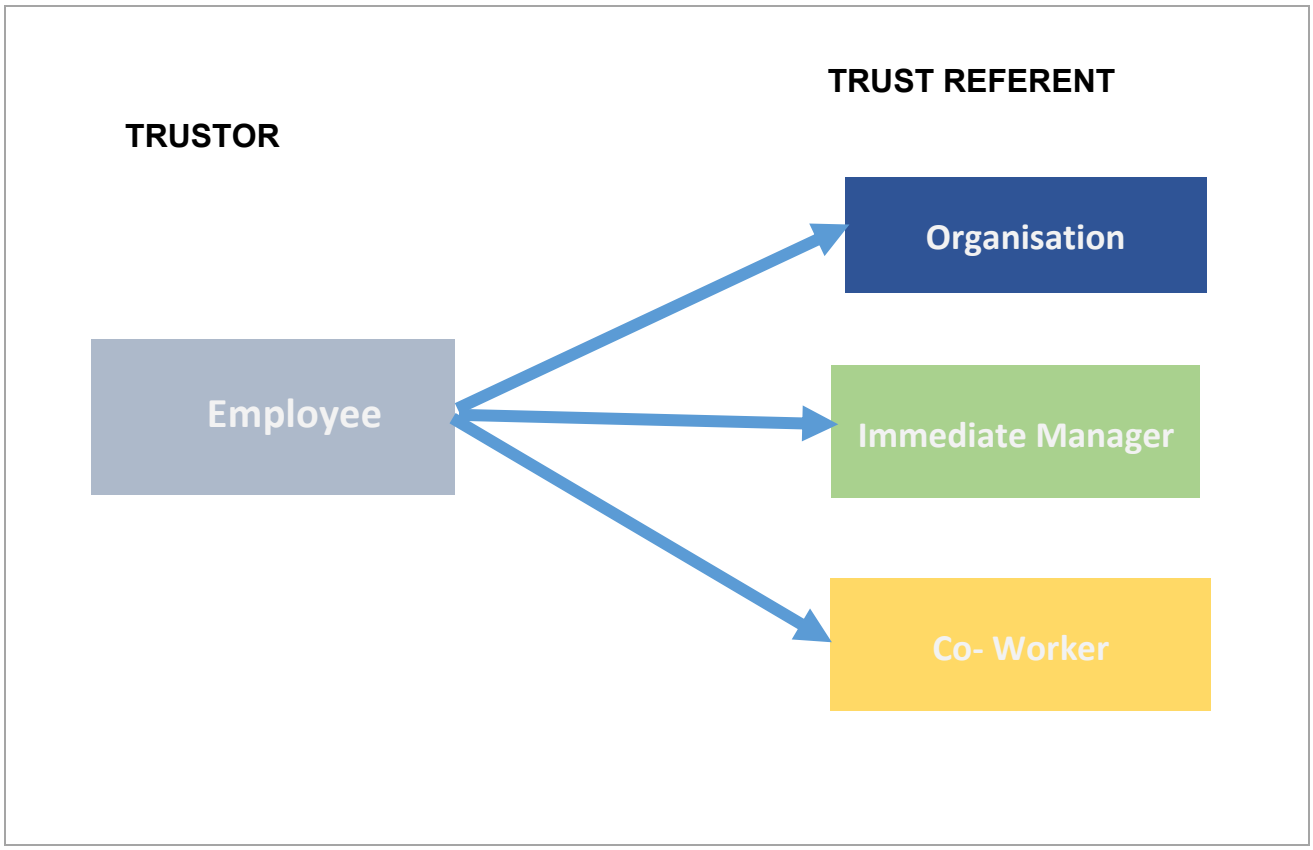
as a proxy for organisational trust, which complicates the comparison of findings (Gillespie, 2012). Researchers for instance often fail to differentiate organisational trust (which is something that the trust agent does) from both its antecedents (such as trust beliefs concerning the perceived trustworthiness of the other person within the relationship) and its outcomes (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Gillespie, 2012; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007).

2.10.4 **Workplace Trust Referent Model**

The fourth model to discuss is the Workplace Trust Referent Model. This model illustrates that within an organisational setting, organisational trust can involve a variety of referents,including individuals (trust in one's supervisor or a colleague), specific groups (management, co-workers, team/workgroup), or the organisation as a whole. Trust in these different target groups is conceptually and empirically distinct, and consequently has at least partially different antecedents and consequences (Verburg et al., 2018).

Figure 2.4

Ferres and Travaglione's Workplace Trust Referent Model



Ferres and Travaglione (2003) proposed a model of workplace trust that included three levels of trust, or trust referents, namely organisational trust, manager trust and co-worker trust.Workplace trust is conceptualised as the consistency between the perceptions of an individual about a trust referent (organisation, immediate supervisor, and co-worker) and the individual's subsequent actions.These actions can include being supportive,competent, and mindful of others' performance. The focus is on organisational trust in its three referents, namely organisation, immediate supervisor, and co-worker (Coxen et al., 2016). These trust referents are discussed in more detail below.

Ferres (2003) operationalises trust in the organisation as openness when sharing information, fair organisational processes, and a supportive work environment. Organisational trust is the trust that employees have in the organisation itself, influenced by their perceptions of the effectiveness of organisational processes(James, 2011). Another foundation of workplace trust is whether the organisation is perceived to be reliable and honest (Galford & Drapeau, 2003). As leaders are seen as higher organisational authorities (Treviño & Brown, 2004) they are regarded as representatives of the organisation and may influence the perceived trust that employees have in the organisation(O'Reilly et al., 2010).

Ferres(2003) identified perceived organisational support, the openness of communication and justice, as aspects related to trust in the organisation. The levels of trust employees have in the organisation is affected by perceived organisational support, which alludes to the concern an organisation has for its employees (Gouws, 2020). Ultimately, this would lead to confidence in the honesty of the organisation's leaders and/or associates. Trust in the organisation is positively influenced by open and honest communication that ultimately leads to realistic expectations and outcomes (Gouws, 2020). Perceived justice that ultimately provides fairness and protection in terms of arbitrary action within an organisation, also has a major influence on organisational trust levels (Gouws,2020). Moreover, this implies that employees who perceive their organisation to be fair, open and honest, have higher levels of trust in the organisation (Engelbrecht et al., 2014). Victor and Hoole (2017) stipulated that trust in the organisation constitutes a system's form of trust. Organisational trust thus entails the confidence that an individual has in the company itself, rather than in a particular person or group of people. Trust in the organisation relates to the confidence employees have in the company's processes, procedures and policies as a whole

(Paliszkiewicz, 2012).A trust culture within an organisation should be characterised by direction and vision, clarity on shared purpose, competence, honour in following through with promises and commitments, frequent communication, role and responsibility clarity and quality interpersonal relationships (Gouws, 2020). Furthermore, a culture that encourages job challenges and career development, enhances organisational trust and creates an atmosphere characterised by shared values and co-operation (Trapp, 2014).

Trust in the immediate supervisor is operationalised as supervisors who listen when employees share information and who appreciate employees' additional efforts (Coxen et al.,2016; Ferres & Travaglione, 2003). Consequently, James (2011) denotes that trust in the immediate supervisor transpires from fair considered during decision-making. As authentic leaders are considered to act with integrity with a sense of purpose while being cognisant of their core values (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011), they are likely to gain their subordinates trust as a result of their genuine and consistent in terms of words and actions (Hsieh & Wang, 2015; Xiong & Fang, 2014).

Mayer et al.(1995) stated that the managerial trust relationship is based on the integrity, ability and benevolence of both the immediate manager and the employees. Integrity refers to the party's consistency in past behaviours, consistency in the party's actions and words and the perception of the party by other individuals (Huang, 2012; Krot & Lewicka,2012; Mayer et al., 1995). When employees perceive their immediate managers in relation to the organisation to be more just and fair, they will be more trusting towards them (Tan & Tan, 2000).This indicates that trust in the immediate manager does not automatically lead to trust in the organisation and that each employee's individual experience with both parties, will determine how trustworthy each party will be perceived (Gouws,2020).

It is important for manager and subordinate trust relationships to allow for error and correction, for the manager to provide the subordinate with the necessary support to make mistakes and to learn from them (Schoeman, 2012).This supportive relationship, therefore, appears to enhance the trust relationship.Employees who perceive their managers to be fair, open and honest, have higher levels of trust in their manager (Engelbrecht et al.,2014). Tan and Tan (2000, p.243) are of the opinion that "when subordinates trust the supervisor, they may generalise such trust to the whole organisation because they may perceive the supervisor as representing the organisation".Leaders set the stage for creating trust

climates within organisations (Gouws, 2020). They do this by being consistent and ethical (Eisenbeiss and Giessner, 2012) in their communication and behaviour and by obtaining credibility for following through on promises (Blommaert et al., 2014). The same authors believe that leadership's behavioural aspects have a significant impact on employees' perceived level of trust in their organisation and/or team. Transformational leaders have the capacity to create environments characterised by motivation, energy, and individual growth and development, as a result of their realistic visions and missions (Gouws, 2020).

Trust in co-workers and immediate management represents an interpersonal form of trust. Interpersonal trust is often regarded as the hallmark of effective relationships or the social glue of affiliations within an organisation (Victor & Hoole, 2017). It further refers to the perception that an individual has on whether another person can be trusted under particular circumstances, either personally in their intentions, or their attributes (Brown et al., 2015).

Trust in the co-worker is operationalised as collegial support, truthful interactions and appreciation for each other's work(Coxen et al.,2016). Furthermore, it can be demarcated as having confidence in colleagues to be competent and act fairly and ethically (James, 2011). Cooperative human behaviour in terms of group processes and dynamics are established through co-worker trust(Schoeman,2012).Gouws (2020) stated that teamwork, competence, information sharing and collaborative efforts between employees increase co-worker trust.

Although Schoeman (2012) studied the role of organisational trust in its three referents, there are still limited studies that emphasise all three referents in the South African context, specifically with authentic leadership as antecedent and organisational citizenship behaviour as the outcome. Schoeman (2012) focused on determining whether organisational trust in its three referents correlates with psychological capital (PsyCap) and workplace wellbeing.Other South African studies included organisational trust as a construct, focused on organisational trust in only one or two referents and not in all three referents (Du Plessis et al., 2015; Stander et al., 2015). Du Plessis et al.(2015) focused only on organisational trust in the immediate supervisor whereas Stander et al.(2015) emphasised trust in the organisation. The focus on all three-trust referents is important as it guides future interventions and provides the organisation with an indication on how to

structure and prioritise interventions if they understand which referent mostly affects employees (Coxen et al., 2016).

Most authors focused on organisational trust in the immediate supervisor and/or leader (Du Plessis et al., 2015; Engelbrecht et al., 2014). Stander et al. (2015) specifically focused on trust in the organisation, whereas Coxen et al. (2016) studied both organisational trust in the immediate supervisor and in co-workers. Recent studies on organisational trust either focused on one referent of organisational trust which is supervisor trust (Hsieh & Wang, 2015), two referents of organisational trust which is organisational and supervisor trust (Paliszkiewicz et al., 2014), or three referents on trust; trust in the organisation, trust in the immediate supervisor and trust in co-workers (Cho & Park, 2011).

These studies, except for the study of Cho and Park (2011), did not attempt to determine the strength of the indirect effects of the different organisational trust referents.The study by Cho and Park (2011) aimed to determine whether organisational trust in its three referents mediates the relationship between managerial practices and employee attitudes of commitment and satisfaction. In this study, it is vital to determine how employees' perceptions of organisational trust are influenced through the three referents of trust, as this relationship has not been empirically tested to date. Wong et al. (2012) mentioned that organisational trust emerges through continued exchange of benefits between parties, which in turn influences the work outcomes of employees. Many studies have used organisational trust as a mediator, but not in all three of its referents(Du Plessis et al., 2015; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2012).

Research on organisational trust at this level has covered multiple referents, some reviews found that the referent is not always clearly identified in that some research does not specify the organisational trust referent or use different referents interchangeably. Mayer et al. (1995) warned that failure to specify referents could lead to confusion in levels of analysis (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). The last model to discuss is Robbins' Structural Cognitive Model.

2.10.5 **Robbins' Structural Cognitive Model**

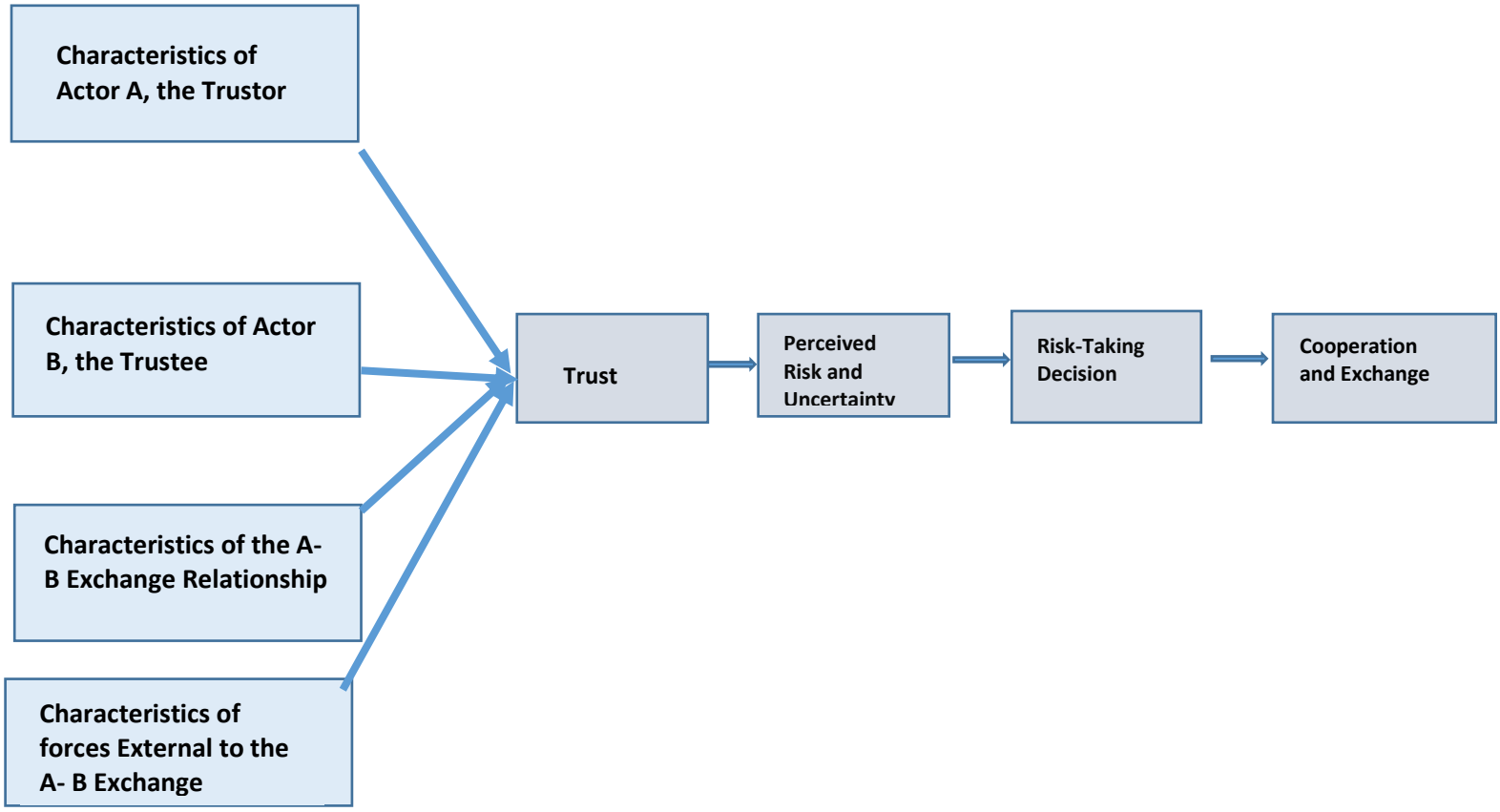
Figure 2.5 is an illustration of Robbins' Structural Cognitive Model of Trust. In this model, Robbins(2016) draw on Dietz (2011) and decompose the sources of organisational trust into four analytical elements:

- those about characteristics of actor A, the trustor (e.g. preferences, emotions, genetics);
- those of characteristics of actor B, the trustee (e.g. perceived benevolence, status, reputation);
- those about characteristics of the A–B exchange relationship (e.g. social identity, power and dependence, generalised exchange); and
- those of characteristics of social forces external to, or beyond, the A–B exchange relationship (e.g. geographic constraints, physical constraints, social constraints).

Each of these elements can and do influence organisational trust, and there is a much literature investigating the influence of each element either alone or in concert on organisational trust (Robbins, 2016; Campos-Castillo & Ewoodzie 2014; Sapienza et al., 2013).

Figure 2.5

Structural Cognitive Model of Trust



Note:What is trust:Amutidisciplinary Review,Critique and synthesis

The contribution of this model, however, is not necessarily with the exogenous elements, it is with the endogenous cognitive components that spring from and are influenced by organisational trust. As previously noted, organisational trust should not be confused with perceived risk and uncertainty of an exchange, a risk-taking decision, or cooperation itself. What is been argued, and what Figure 2.5 illustrates, is that each of these psychological processes are influenced byorganisational trust and that each are influenced by the other (Robbins, 2016). In other words, perceptions of risk and uncertainty spring from organisational trust albeit not exclusively and these perceptions, in turn, influence one's decision about whether to take the proverbial leap of faith and cooperate with another individual. A person will act, then, under this decision. All of these discrete cognitive elements are influenced by organisational trust but should not be confused or conflated with trust, which is often done in literature (Robbins, 2016).

In his proposed structural-cognitive model of trust, Robbins(2016) argued that organisational trust is recast as a relational concept consisting of a belief (how) about another person's trustworthiness (who) concerning a particular matter at hand (what) that emerges under conditions of unknown outcomes. Thus, trust is not the perception or calculation of risk and uncertainty, the proverbial leap of faith or risk-taking decision, or the behaviour or action that leads to exchange itself. These cognitions and actions, instead, result from organisational trust and influence each other through a causal, processual chain.

Robbins (2016) developed this framework by showing how the varieties of trust can be identified according to specific cognitive processes that serve as sources of organisational trust.As such, organisational trust is not a stereotype about others, faith in another person, where such treatments of trust are viewed as one- or two-part relations without any restrictions on who one trusts, or what one trusts another to do.The Structural Cognitive Model excludes common ill conceptualisations such as perceptions of risk and uncertainty, risk-taking decisions, and behaviour, instead integrate each of these cognitions and actions into the structural-cognitive model as consequences rather than properties of organisational trust. Robbins (2016) argues that the supposed varieties of organisational trust are, in fact, not organisational trust but alternative cognitive processes that serve as sources of organisational trust. Given this review, critique, and synthesis, Robins (2016) contends that scholars should adopt relational conceptions of organisational trust and abandon varieties

of organisational trust for the accumulation of knowledge about organisational trust to move forward.

In South Africa, a special edition of the Journal of Industrial Psychology focusing on trust was published in 2002 (Bews & Rossouw, 2002).The Martins (2000) model for managing trust and the Trust Relationship Audit (Martins & Von der Ohe, 2005) have been developed and used widely in the South African context and have even been published internationally (Martins, 2002). However, the model by Mayer et al. (1995) is the most widely accepted model of organisational trust, and there have been calls that all trust research and instruments should at least refer to the Mayer et al. terminology.(Von der Ohe, 2014).Bews and Martins (2002) propose that organisational trust is a dynamic phenomenon unfolding over two stages, both of which depend on the interplay of various factors. The authors see the first stage as directional, depending on certain pre-trust conditions namely contextual factors, perceived risk, the propensity to trust, and reputation.

These concepts show congruence with elements of the Mayer et al. (1995) model discussed above. Bews and Martins (2002) include the notion of reputation that refers to the gathering of knowledge against which the trustor can evaluate the trustee's potential to act in a trusting manner. The second stage is considered variable. Bews and Martins (2002) posit that it depends on perceptions in respect of the facilitators of trustworthiness and that it is continuous throughout the relationship.In their conceptualisation, facilitators of trustworthiness include benevolence,competency,integrity,personality,characteristics, a history of interactions, and openness. All of these facilitators of trustworthiness have been discussed previously except for a history of interactions, which refers to a long-term pattern of exchanges or a collection of the trustor's experiences in respect of the trustee (Bews & Martins, 2002).

The Mayer et al.(1995) trust model was used as a basis to discuss how sustainability reporting can enhance trustworthiness in a sustainable development context within South Africa (Fourie & Lubbe, 2012).The Mayer et al.(1995) model was designed to understand the major factors that explain organisational trust from not only the individual level but from the group and organisational perspective as well. The model accommodates the complexity and multiple dimensions of organisational trust, while still being comprehensible and robust.The model can be applied to organisational trust studies in the company stakeholder

context as it recognises the relational and process aspects of organisational trust and provides an adequate explanation for the building of organisational trust once violated (Schoorman et al., 2007).

The Mayer et al. model is relevant to the current study as a foundation due to its relevance to individuals' trusting behaviours, both inside as well as outside the organisational context. As it also covers risk and interdependence as basic conditions necessary to establish organisational trust, it is applicable across most disciplines that study trust (Von der Ohe, 2014). It is widely assumed that sustainability reporting is a mechanism that organisations can use to demonstrate their trustworthiness concerning development in a sustainable manner.

2.11 **CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter began with the rationale for studying organisational trust and an overview of its conceptualisation, how it can be defined as well as the nature and extent of the organisational trust concept.To understand the concept of organisational trust in more detail, the importance of organisational trust was then described, including the outcomes and the types of organisational trust, and the theoretical models that are used to describe its various dimensions.The role that organisational trust plays in an organisation was also described

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 **PERSONALITY**

Chapter 3 conceptualises the construct of personality focusing on the concept of personality, its definition as well as the trait approach leading to the five-factor model of personality. This chapter provides the background and conceptualisation of personality as a dependent variable, further discussing the five-factor model of personality and the measurement of personality. More specifically, this section reviews literature on the integration of personality and organisational trust to assess relationship between organisational trust and personality dimensions in a public organisation.

3.2 **INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR STUDYING PERSONALITY**

The current economic downturn has placed great pressure on employees' appetite for success and growth. The impact on employees is the need to leverage their personality strengths and talents to be able to cope, be resilient and persevere toward success. Given the diversity of personalities prevalent in the workplace, organisations face an even greater challenge to create a work climate that promotes trust amongst all their employees. With this in mind, this study focuses on organisational trust and personality (Moodley, 2010).

Several authors conclude that employees need numerous person-centred constructs (such as proactive behaviours, personal initiative and proactive personalities) in order to manage the challenges of today's world of work effectively (Potgieter & Ferreira, 2018). Employees with proactive personalities tend to demonstrate proactive behaviour, which enhances organisational trust and employee wellbeing (Potgieter & Ferreira, 2018). Fugate et al. (2004) posit that by addressing the "who am I" question, and therefore touching on an employee's personality, managers may assist individuals in achieving their personal goals or aspirations, which in turn may lead to organisational trust. Furthermore, psychologists have found that personality characteristics are predictors of employee wellbeing and organisational performance (Hogan et al., 2013).Potgieter and Ferreira (2018) suggested that variations in people's behaviour could be explained by distinctive differences in the ways they prefer to take in information, make decisions and generally deal with the world. These differences are expressed in people's personality type preferences.

Universally, lay people have recognised and appreciated the important role of personality in the workplace and life in general: Both research and life bear out the fact that many personal characteristics are relatively stable over time and across situations; are cross-culturally relevant, and are not cognitive, yet meaningfully explain behavioural phenomena (Hough et al., 2015). By contrast, the psychological study of personality has had an obscure past and little respect but that has since turned around dramatically. Since the mid-1980s, there has been a surge in personality research largely due to the research approach and findings. Current discourse acknowledges multiple ways to consider the nature and structure of personality traits and facets *vis-à-vis* their multiple roles in various organisational processes (Hough et al., 2015).

Personality is not chemistry, but all of these points about chemistry have useful relevance to personality by analogy. First, the unit of study-the facet or trait-should be basic even if these building blocks naturally combine to form compound traits.Compound personality variables, such as integrity and service orientation, consist of the same basic personality traits but in different concentrations (Hough et al., 2015). Second, although all facets, traits, and compounds may exist across cultures or languages, they should not be expected to be present in the same amounts everywhere.Third, the knowledge about the structure of personality should be stable yet changeable as new information accumulates and in light of the intended purpose of personality measurement.The structure of personality should also be continually open to the type of measures, research designs, data and data analyses that inform it (Hough et al., 2015).

3.3 **CONCEPTUALISATION OF PERSONALITY**

Personality psychologists have long been interested in understanding human nature, which at times is deemed too complex and arguably daunting to accomplish by some personality psychologists.Throughout its relatively long history, the study of personality has accumulated many useful definitions for the taxonomy of personality. Moshoeu (2017) asserts that personality has been constructed from a variety of conceptual, theoretical and empirical perspectives with varying levels of concepts and scales. It has been used with aspects such as emotions, attitudes and behavioural response patterns of an individual in particular settings. Although each of these aspects contributed significantly to the understanding of individual differences in behaviour and experience, they were limited in presenting a universal definition of personality (Moshoeu, 2017).

Seemingly, various acceptable definitions of personality exist, thus researchers and theoreticians often find themselves on opposing sides when efforts are made to elucidate the construct (Sale, 2014). However, trying to conceptualise it as something tangible is a very difficult task. Although initially there were different views, the agreement has been reached among psychologists that personality encapsulates the whole person. (Sale, 2014) postulates that the individual human being is a personality, and that is what makes each one unique, different from other human beings. In trying to depict the personality of another person, characteristics such as thoughts, feelings or actions that are distinctive of that person are often used.

The specific set of traits of that person will then verify his or her consistent behaviour within various situations (Sale, 2014). Sale (2014) argues that the interface between emotional and cognitive traits may determine an individual's behavioural traits, in that psychologists consider that an individual's emotional and cognitive (i.e. inner) traits clarify their behavioural (i.e. outer) traits. According to Sale (2014) a personality trait refers to differences among individuals in a typical tendency to behave, think, or feel in some conceptually related ways, across a variety of relevant situations and across some long time. Dumont (2010) on the other hand, postulates that traits are unobservable and cannot be deemed real entities. Traits are used as descriptors and are the outcome of human reasoning processes and imagination. Traits assist in creating conceptual order in our human world and they can be seen as the way we think about personality.

Even though there are various viewpoints on personality traits, it is agreed that traits can assist in defining personality, which leads to differentiating between individuals, as individuals are different, and also that traits are used differently by different individuals(Carducci, 2009; Friedman & Schustack, 2003).Personality is not only complex due to the enormous range of dynamic elements influencing it, but the uniqueness of individuals also makes it difficult to fully define personality (Grobler, 2014). A common way to describe personality is in terms of the core conceptual orientations such as structure, dynamics involved, development, assessment and changes in personality over time. Although there are many debates on the exact definition of personality, two major themes surface regularly namely human nature and individual differences (Grobler, 2014).

Grobler (2014) indicated that these individual differences are best captured by traits which were defined by McCrae et al. (1993) as consistent patterns of individual differences in thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Personality as a concept was also described by Ryckman (1993) as the scientific analysis and explanation of individual differences that determine how people behave in different situations. Personality has been conceptualised within the framework of evolutionary psychology.

The evolutionary approach to personality focuses on the possibility that behavioural patterns common to all people have a biological root that can be illuminated by considering the evolutionary history of the human race. It suggests that the way people think, feel and behave can be understood by considering which thoughts, feelings, and behaviours increased the relative survival and reproduction of their ancestors (Moshoeu, 2017). Personality is conceived as (a) an individual's unique variation on the general evolutionary design for human nature, expressed as a developing pattern of (b) dispositional traits, (c) characteristic adaptations, and (d) self-defining life narratives, complexly and differentially situated (e) in culture and social context (Mc Adams & Pals, 2006).

3.4 **DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY**

Personality is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon. Despite the myriad of available definitions to date no consensus has been reached toward a specific definition. The vast array of factors affecting it and more so, the uniqueness of individuals increases the difficulty for accepting a single definition of personality (Naidoo, 2016). While the debate on the definition of personality is presumably never ending, it is likely only viewed from one of two perspectives (Grobler, 2014):

(i) Human nature (which encompasses universal characteristics such as shared motives, goals and psychological processes);

(ii) (ii) Individual differences (which encompasses habits and behaviours, which highlights distinctions or differences between individuals).

As individuals, we believe that our personality is unique in some way. The same attributes can be found in different people, but each person owns a specific set of characteristics that differentiates them from others. Therefore, personality can be summarised as a specific set of attributes that is likely to change in reaction to different circumstances (Sale, 2014). The term personality covers the qualities that form a person's character and individuality

(Morallane, 2017). De Raad et al. (2014) identify Africa, South America and Asia in general as societies where very little is known about personality trait structures and therefore more caution is needed when stating personality as a universal phenomenon. Some research has shown that personality instruments are limited for use in South Africa and need continual refinement (Fetvadjiev et al., 2015; Van Zyl, 2014). Cultural and language bias and inequalities seem to be the major problems (Fetvadjiev et al., 2015). This emphasises the need to explore personality in South Africa using the indigenous methodology to overcome these limitations.

Personality has been related with various positive and noteworthy results for both employees and organisations and has been acknowledged as an indicator of employee performance in the work place (Barrick et al., 2013). Recent studies define it as attributes and propensities that decide traits that are unique to an individual, for example, contemplations, sentiments and feelings that continue after some time and manifesting itself through measurable personality traits(Parks-Leduc et al., 2015;). Although personality traits are central constructs in psychology, they are defined in various ways. Blignaut and Ungerer (2014) describe personality traits as intra-individual consistencies and inter-individual uniqueness's in propensities to behave in identifiable ways in light of situational demands.

Personality includes a set of consistent behavioural and unique characteristics that make up an individual and can be conceptualised by means of personality traits. Personality traits are enduring personal characteristics that are revealed in a particular pattern of behaviour in various situations (Naeem, 2021). Personality significantly influences individuals' behaviour and performance in a number of domains (Alansari et al. 2016).Personality traits are constructs that describe why people react to the same situation in different ways (Nhlanhla & Thubelihle, 2014).Researchers have fiercely debated the notion of personality traits in the past. Personality is an individual's unique pattern of thoughts, feelings, and behaviour that persists over time and across situations (Louw, 2014; Van der Berg & Martins, 2013).

Diener and Lucas (2019) produced both a basic and a more complex definition of personality. Their basic definition describes personality as consistent individual differences in behaviour across a variety of contexts or within one context across a variety of situations. Their more complex definition explains the nature of personality as being that (1) individuals'

differences in behaviour should be consistent over time; (2) differences in the same behaviour(s) between individuals should be consistent across different scenarios or contexts;(3) the relationships between behaviours should not vary depending on the situation; and (4) there should be an objective ideally quantitative way to measure all behaviours under consideration (Diener & Lucas, 2019). Anglim and Connor (2018) also describe personality as being an individual's specific configuration of behaviours. According to Schultz and Schultz (2016), the term personality can be defined by three different situations: (1) related behaviours within a given context; (2) related behaviours in different contexts within the same situation; and (3) related behaviours across contexts and situations. Personality tends to be consistent across time. Research on personality profiles has shown that personality characteristics are mostly stable from childhood to adulthood (Roberts et al. 2017). However, there are certain general characteristics that may change in adolescents and young people during their developmental stages as they begin to strengthen their personality characteristics (Nida & Ali, 2017). Personality tends to become more dominant and stable as an individual grows and develops (Nida & Ali, 2017).

Blignaut and Ungerer (2014) describe personality traits as intra-individual consistencies and inter-individual uniqueness's in propensities to behave in identifiable ways in light of situational demands. According to Blignaut and Ungerer (2014), this definition reflects five fundamental ideas underlying personality prediction:

- Since most people show a degree of intra-personal consistency, it is possible to predict their future behaviour based on their past behaviour.
- Human uniqueness reflects consistent inter-personal differences, creating the need to describe particular traits and leading to some people being hired instead of the others
- Personality traits are covert and it is essential to understand what activates them to understand the role of personality in work behaviour.
- Traits are inferred from overt behaviour.
- The expression of traits tends to be context-dependent, and relevant situational features need to be considered in this regard.

According to Bell & Njoli (2016) personality is defined as the constellation of psychological attributes and mechanisms within an employee that are organised and relatively stable, which affects the person's involvement with, and adaptations to the intra-psychic, physical

and social environments. Personality is also described by Oluwatoyin (2016) as the collective perceptions, emotions, cognitions, motivations, and actions of the individual that interact with various environmental situations; the psychological forces that make people uniquely themselves; the various styles of behaviour that different organisms habitually reflect; the visible aspect of one's character as it impresses others and the characteristic manner in which one thinks, feel, behaves and relates to others. Personality can be defined as the way an individual's mental world is organised when such a world is stable and consistent over time, independently of the situation.Thus, based on this definition, researchers attempted to develop a framework that explains individual differences (Castillo, 2017).

Personality refers to the set of invisible characteristics and practices that lie behind a relatively stable pattern of behaviour in response to ideas, objects or people in the environment (Daft, 2011). People who come from different backgrounds will have different attitudes, values and norms. These people have different cultural heritages and are most likely to reflect their cultural heritage.These differences contribute to the different personalities that determine a person's actions and behaviours, thus affect the leader-follower interaction. Some leaders might have stronger or weaker personalities that can influence other employee's performance and determine the way an organisation performs (Alkahtani et al., 2011).

According to Cilliers et al. (2018), personality can be defined as the unique psychological qualities that contribute to the way individuals feel, think and behave. Personality influences how individuals interpret their environment and actively search for self-regulatory strategies or approaches to help them adapt successfully to the various demands (Zecca et al., 2015). Personality can also be viewed as a system defined by various personality traits and dynamic processes, which influence how people function socially and in their work environment (Cilliers et al., 2018; Louw, 2014).

Regardless of the definition of personality used, it is defined in recent studies as a composition of characteristics and tendencies that determine unique traits and those that are most common to an individual such as thoughts, feelings and emotions that persist over time and manifests itself through measurable personality traits (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). In other words, people are to some degree considered similar yet it is the differences and

the between them that spark interest in psychologists to measure personality (Moshoeu, 2017).

There is no universal definition for personality; however, existing definitions agree on certain aspects, that diverse definitions of personality exist. Thus, it seems important that the following criteria be considered to do the construct personality justice. These are (1) the mask of personality (physical appearance, behaviour as well as traits) which refers to those aspects that can be observed and are visible;(2) emotions, thoughts, attitudes and values that are unconscious behaviour and invisible;(3) changeable nature of behaviour as well as enduring patterns (consistencies); (4) every individual's uniqueness;(5) differentiation as well as wholeness in personality; (6) the acceptance that personality refers to a human being (living) who can adapt to his/her circumstances (Mouton, 2017).

Moreover, seemingly most psychologists agree that the interaction between the situation as well as the person's characteristics must first be considered before personality can be adequately explained and while, most theorists deem the notion that personality determines behavioural consistency across different situations as credible, Mouton (2017) is but one of the people that have critically challenged this claim, although his criticism has been frequently misunderstood. Thus, Mouton (2017) suggests that both the characteristics of the situation as well as personality traits are necessary, are fundamental components of personality theory and need to be treated as such. Mouton (2017) and Naidoo (2016) agree with Mayer et al. argument that there are underlying similarities in the existing definitions of personality. The above definitions are aligned in their explanation of personality, with the difference being the words that were used (Naidoo, 2016).

Contrary to the argument of similarities, personality definitions vary under the different approaches to personality (Naidoo, 2016). For example, from the psychoanalytic theory, Freud emphasised the role of the unconscious mind. Though he did not provide a specific definition for personality, he described it as comprising three aspects of the psyche namely the id, the ego and the superego. From the behaviouristic approach, Skinner explained that behaviour is learned through a sequence of rewards and punishment. Bandura complemented the learning theory with the concept of social learning, which expanded that people learn behaviour through their observations of others (Naidoo, 2016).

The researcher adopted Van der Berg and Martins (2013) definition that describes personality as an individual's unique pattern of thoughts, feelings, and behaviour that persist over time and across situations. In this chapter, the construct of personality and more specifically the development of the five-factor model within the trait approach to personality are extensively explored. Attention is paid to important contributors in the trait approach and their contribution to the development of the five-factor model of personality. The following section will discuss the trait approach leading to the development of the five-factor model of personality.

3.5 **THE TRAIT APPROACH**

In recent years, the five-factor model of personality identifies that the big five personality traits has dominated the trait approach to understanding personality. Personality traits have been researched and studied widely. Established as relatively stable, it is expected that behaviour across time and even across situations would likely remain stable (Naidoo, 2016). Traits are stable dispositions within human beings and may be revealed in a person's consistent behaviour across a variety of different situations (Naeem, 2021).Previously, traits were defined in various ways in the field of personality psychology. However, the most important definitions involve the way people's thoughts, feelings and behaviours are explained and why they think, feel and behave in certain ways (Fleeson & Jayawickreme, 2018).They are often described as relatively enduring characteristics and dispositions of how an individual will act, think and feel in particular ways, rather than absolute determinants of human behaviour (Moshoeu, 2017)

Traits are used to describe and summarise behaviour based on information about how someone typically behaves, regarding broad dispositional patterns of behaviours, cognition and emotions across a range of life domains (McCrae & Costa, 2008a).Traits describe regularities in the person's behaviour and are concerned with psychological characteristics by which people differ from one another. They remain the central assumptions of contemporary trait theory (Moshoeu, 2017).A trait refers to a characteristic way in which individuals perceive, feel, believe or act and differ from one another. Trait theorists are primarily interested in the measurement of traits, which can be defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion (Blignaut, 2011).

According to this perspective, traits are relatively stable over time, differ across individuals, and influence behaviour. Psychologists are interested in determining which traits are broad and possibly genetically based, and which are rather peculiar and change easily (Blignaut, 2011). Unlike many other theories of personality, such as psychoanalytic or humanistic theories, the trait approach to personality is focused on differences between individuals, particularly how the combination and interaction of various traits form a personality that is unique to each individual.Trait theory is focused on identifying and measuring these individual personality characteristics. Over the years, several theories attempted to describe the key traits of human beings (Blignaut, 2011).

The trait theory approach to personality is by far the most popular approach in understanding and measuring personality (Dumont, 2010).The focus is on understanding relatively enduring ways in which people differ (traits) which give people a unique position on a continuum based on general laws of behaviour (Masoga, 2013). Traits by their nature are not observable but are descriptors that help to make sense of human behaviour. These descriptors are defined as distinguishing characteristics. When traits are grouped they are called factors that contain dimensions with a negative and a positive pole (Masoga, 2013). Guilford was one of the early scholars who identified personality factors using factor analysis. According to his theory, people have similar structures of personality and the same traits but at varying degrees (Masoga, 2013).

At the same time, Allport and Odbert worked on a project to create a comprehensive taxonomy of human traits, using 4 000 distinguishable psychological traits (Dumont, 2010). This premise constituted the foundation for Cattell's work of studying how people describe others using everyday language and referring to what was consistent or different in the way they behave (Cattell, 1945). Although people can be similar, each person always has a uniqueness, meaning that even people with similar traits may behave differently as there are genetic and environmental influences at play (Masoga, 2013). Although many researchers contributed to the development of the trait theory of personality, Cattell's contribution stands out by far as one that is thorough, intense and systematic (Dumont, 2010).

Personality traits are used in trait theories to answer two fundamental questions, those concerning the determinants of behaviour and the structure of personality and how traits are

related. Thus, to a trait theorist personality is the sum of an individual's traits and these traits explain that person's behaviour.The research questions therefore, in trait psychology involve the number and nature of personality traits and their relations to behaviour (Kline, 2013). The psychometric view of personality or what might be called the psychometric model of personality constitutes the answers to these two questions that have been obtained from the psychometric study of personality. It should not be thought that the psychometric view of personality and the trait view are identical (Kline, 2013).

The trait perspective on personality posits that individuals can be described in terms of relatively stable and enduring characteristics such as those embedded in the lexicon (e.g., one is extraverted). This approach is exemplified by research within the big five tradition which demonstrates that specific traits can be mapped onto the five superordinate dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experiences (Yang et.al, 2014).Genes and environment shape traits show remarkable continuity yet systematically change over the life span and predict a wide range of important individual, interpersonal and social outcomes (Yang et.al, 2014). Despite the wide use of the trait approach in different organisational contexts, no agreement has been reached on how many personality traits exist (Masoga, 2013).

3.5.1 **How many traits 3, 5, 12, 16, or 20?**

Within trait theory, there are different views regarding the number of factors that make up personality. According to Guilford (1936), there is no correct number and the number of factors used is not important, as long as those factors contain fundamental variables that describe personality and behaviour (Masoga, 2013). Personality psychologists differ in their formulations of what traits or dispositions mean, how many traits there are and what the correlations and consequences of these traits on behaviour are. Some personality psychologists view these traits as interior or hidden properties of people that cause their behaviour (Newaye, 2020).

Other personality psychologists utilise these quality terms just to portray the enduring aspects of a person's behaviour without any presumptions about causality. Psychologists who recognize traits as internal characters presume these interior properties of the person as different from overt behaviours and assume causal relationships between them. Advocates of the other alternative define traits just as illustrative outlines of qualities of

people; they make no presumptions about internality or causality (Newaye, 2020).Thurstone (1953) came up with seven factors in the Thurstone Temperament Schedule that were based on the work of Guilford. He used oblique rotation (Goldberg, 1992) which is a specific factor analysis technique where the researcher considers both the structure and pattern of the matrix ((Masoga, 2013). Cattell's model yielded five factors of personality which could be replicated (Cattell, 1945). Peabody's (1984) analysis coined three factors, namely evaluation, assertiveness, and impulse control vs. expressiveness.

Goldberg (1993) found the three-factor model logically more appealing. This was the start of Goldberg's promotion of Peabody's three-factor model. In 1989, Peabody and Goldberg collaborated and published a study to resolve whether there were three or five factors, owing to the growing body of evidence that there were five factors. In their study, Peabody and Goldberg (1989) agreed on a set of bipolar trait scales to be applied to internal and external data. This resulted in the identification of five external dimensions/factors that incorporated the three factors developed by Peabody. Another researcher who proposed three factors was Hans Eysenck (1993) the factors being psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism (P-E-N).Eysenck represented psychoticism as a combination of primary factors II (agreeableness) and III (conscientiousness). He rejected the five-factor model as a valid model of personality because in his view it was not based on any valid theory of personality (Eysenck, 1993).Although Costa and McCrae (1992) started with three factors, namely neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience, they ended up adding agreeableness and conscientiousness to their model to reconstitute a five-factor model. This was after Goldberg presented the results of his study and they subsequently tested 40 of his factors in their longitudinal studies to confirm the new findings (Goldberg, 1993).

3.5.2 **Criticism of the Trait theory**

There has been much confusion, if not controversy, concerning the key ingredients, components, constituencies and proximate mechanisms underlying personality traits (Yang et al., 2014). A valid criticism of many modern personality trait theorists and researchers is that scholars have not provided a deeper analysis of the constituent elements that make up traits, nor the mechanisms that elucidate how they cause things to occur. There are at least three unresolved issues concerning the key ingredients of personality traits. Firstly, researchers disagree on whether behaviours should be treated as the only core component of personality traits. Historically, behaviours have been considered the core element

(Bandura, 2012; Jackson et al., 2012). Secondly, there is no clear consensus on what other psychological constructs, in addition to behaviours, represent key ingredients of personality traits. Some researchers maintain that cognition and effect are also key ingredients of personality traits (Johnson, 1997). Others have highlighted motivational constructs such as goals, plans, resources, and beliefs as principal mechanisms underlying traits (Pervin, 1989; Read et al.1990) yet some have explicitly opposed the inclusion of motivational constructs (Roberts & Jackson, 2008). Thirdly, there are still debates whether situations or contexts should be included as key ingredients of personality traits. Traits have been described as decontextualized since it is the invariance of traits across situations that define them (Cervone et al., 2001).

However, others have argued that theories of traits have never excluded situational influences and that cross-situational variation is an important feature of traits (Roberts, 2009). To date, only a few empirical studies have explicitly examined the key ingredients of traits (PytlikZillig et al., 2002).There appears to be general agreement that people can be described according to their personality traits, but consensus has not been reached on the number of basic traits that make up human personality (Blignaut, 2011). Some common criticisms of trait theory centre on the fact that traits are often poor predictors of behaviour.

One of the biggest strength of trait theory is its objectivity as trait theories are not influenced by personal experiences and concerns classification dimension of individual differences (Hogan & Sherman, 2020).Compared to other theories, trait theory makes three major expectations that all individuals have traits, goal of life to discover and traits can be only discovered by personality assessments (Hogan & Sherman, 2020). By thoroughly understanding personality traits, it is possible to describe, explain and predict organisational trust in various life situations be it social or professional relationships. By so doing, it is possible to guide individuals towards a better future (Salgado & Fruyt, 2017).

Trait theorists focus on understanding behavioural/personality variation across people, while other theories focus on understanding the development of personality traits. The application of trait theories further appears to be limited because they only explain personality and do not provide a means to change human behaviour (Salgado & Fruyt, 2017).

Trait theories do not allow the prediction of future personality change because of a lack of information on the development of traits. Accordingly, the application of trait theories appears to be problematic in most situations since they do not provide information on positive and negative traits and how negative traits can be ameliorated (Naeem, 2021). Finally, trait theories are considered poor predictors of behaviour since they describe persons' behaviour as a trait and trait as a person behaviour predictor. A person may score highly on a particular trait in a personality test but react differently in various situations. Personality trait theories therefore tend not to be reliable across time (Hogan & Sherman, 2020).

Although a person may score highly on a specific trait, his/her behaviour may not constantly reflect this trait in every situation. Another criticism is that since trait theory offers no guidance about the development of these traits, there are no applications for helping someone change. A further issue is that trait theory does not explain how or why individual personality differences develop or emerge (Blignaut, 2011). Despite the different views about the number of factors associated with personality, the research and meta-analysis that were conducted support the validity of five factors over and above the other number of factors proposed by the various researchers ((Masoga,2013).The approach adopted in this research accepts the five-factor model as a valid and reliable model for measuring personality. A discussion about the development of the five-factor model is important at this stage and will follow. (Masoga, 2013).

3.5.3 **Criticism of the Big Five Personality Dimensions**

Although many scholars and practitioners embrace the big five structure of personality, it is believed that it is limiting as an adequate taxonomic structure of personality for organizational research. As mentioned earlier, the big five model (a) is bound by its method of discovery, (b) is missing many personality traits shown to be important in work settings (or may be important in the future), (c) might obscure rather than highlight relationships with criterion constructs, (d) consists of factors with relatively low construct validity (i.e., the distinctiveness of the facets), and thus, (e) is useful but (in some important ways) hinders progress in modelling personality-based determinants of work-related behaviours and outcomes (Hough et al., 2015).

3.5.3.1 Method Bound

An important concern about the big five is that discovery and confirmation of the five factors have been largely dependent upon factor analysis, a highly useful and important method for reducing a set of variables to its common core. Factors are identified by common variance shared between facets and items; common variance by definition ignores unique variance that may or may not be important. What is discovered depends upon the variables included in the correlation matrix (Hough et al., 2015).

Similarly, universal taxonomy of personality traits should not be dependent upon a particular language or culture. Although several studies have found five factors in non-English languages and non-western cultures (Hough et al., 2015), several other studies have found other solutions. Studies that used person-descriptive sentences concluded that the big five are a biologically based human universal (e.g. McCrae et al. 1998) cited in (Hough, et al., 2015), whereas the lexical approach finds poor similarity of factors across culture and language.

De Raad (1998) concluded a study of the various studies participating in the crusade for cross-lingual personality descriptive universals makes it clear that researchers are unlikely to find one and only one canonical cross-culturally valid trait structure. Moreover, big five structure that is discovered through factor analysis of English personal descriptive statements relevant to western culture should not be the only standard to try to fit other languages and cultures; more exploratory investigations are also appropriate. The big five structure is neither universal in English nor western cultures nor universal in other languages or cultures. Declarations that the big five structure is universal or basic were premature.

3.5.3.2 Missing variables

Another important criticism of the big five is that it is not a comprehensive map of the personality domain meaning that important constructs are missing some of which might be considered important in organisational research and others that may become important as it incorporates new constructs as possibilities in theoretical models of performance (Hough et al., 2015). Certainly, the periodic table of chemical elements includes some elements that are of lesser importance than others, depending on the purpose yet the structure would be considered incomplete without them. The same is true for personality. Some of the missing variables are broadly grouped. The list of missing variables could go on for example

vigilance, graciousness, and so forth but the list is convincing enough to make a point that neither the big five nor the FFM with its facets is a comprehensive system of personality variables. For instance, it would not make sense on the face of it for each big five factor to have exactly six facets as some big five inventories do (Hough et al., 2015).

3.5.3.3 Relationships obscured

Hough et al. (2015) provided comprehensive criticism of the five-factor model arguing that a comparison of meta-analytic research summarising the criterion-related validity of personality constructs of different taxonomic models reveals that the five-factor model obscures important predictor-criterion relationships. However, Van Aarde (2016) countered this argument suggesting that if facets were carefully chosen to be relevant to a specific selection situation this would lead to higher criterion-related validities. Van Aarde (2016) also raised concerns that summarised using three contentions. The concerns are as follows; firstly, the methods used to determine and verify the FFM structure are inadequate; secondly, the FFM does not cover all of the important individual differences and finally, the FFM does not sufficiently represent the dynamic processes involved in creating and influencing behaviour and experience. The first contention relates to the first concern and suggests that this concern is outdated as the FFM has proven itself over the years since the publication of Block's article (McCrae, 2010).

Although the FFM first emerged as the result of analysis of English-language trait descriptors administered to highly educated people, the FFM has since been replicated in various languages using different instruments and in broadly representative samples (Van Aarde, 2016). About the concern regarding the models ability to sufficiently represent individual differences, McCrae (2010) argued that the FFM is not and will never be an exhaustive directory of individual differences. The FFM does not claim to be an exhaustive taxonomy of individual differences but a taxonomy of dispositions or personality traits (McCrae, 2010). In the final concern McCrae (2010) supported the position that the FFM is theoretical and is therefore a static and descriptive model of trait structure (Van Aarde, 2016).

3.6 **FIVE-FACTOR MODEL OF PERSONALITY**

The most widely accepted model amongst the several models of personality across multiple studies is the big five model of personality, or the big five. There is an agreement among

researchers that the five-factor model of personality is a standout amongst the most noticeable models in psychology to describe the traits of personality (Mdhluli, 2019). Thus, the FFM provides not only a descriptive taxonomy of personality trait terms represented in language but also an organising framework for systematising a broad array of psychological constructs for studying personality (Boudreaux,2014). The FFM of Costa and McCrae (1992) is a parsimonious taxonomy that classifies all personality traits into five broad dimensions/factors, commonly labelled as openness (O), conscientiousness (C), extraversion (E), agreeableness (A), and neuroticism (N) (Newaye, 2020).

It explains the functioning of a person as the operation of the universal personality system with definite categories of variables and dynamic processes that impact one another. The model/theory assumes that the five personality dimensions or basic tendencies are assumed to form the substantive nucleus of the personality system (Newaye, 2020).The five factor model identify the broad five personality types which are very useful in predicting different kinds of work related attitudes and behaviours. The model depict that personality consists of five relatively independent dimensions that altogether provide a meaningful taxonomy for the study of individual differences (Njoku et al., 2017).

The five-factor model of personality provides a framework and terminology not only to guide personality research, but also a common language between psychologists and laypersons. The five-factor model functions as a common set of concepts, vocabulary, and structure that serve as a foundation for the five-factor theory of personality. This model of personality functions as a set of classifications and concepts much like the periodic table of elements functions for chemists and biologists (Cooper et al., 2014).

The five-factor model (FFM) is an organisation of personality traits. Traits are dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings and actions (Vogt & Laher, 2009). Vogt and Laher (2009) further define traits as endogenous basic tendencies that, within a cultural context, give rise to habits, attitudes, skills, beliefs and other characteristic adaptations. Thus, traits are relatively stable or enduring individual differences in thoughts, feelings and behaviours. The five-factor model of personality is a descriptive representation of the five major dispositional dimensions that encompass human personality. It has been used extensively in industrial psychology as a basis to measure job-

related attitudes, person-organisation fit and other human resource inquiries (Ranwala & Dissanayake, 2016).

Thurstone (1938) developed this model in the 1930s. Based on the trait theory of personality, it is the most common personality model used across different countries. The model is regarded as a broad framework that organises diverse traits (Tett & Christiansen, 2007). Raymond Cattell made a significant contribution to trait theory through his unique method of developing hypotheses to be tested and then following a process of reasoning from the specific to the general and *vice versa* (Cattell, 1945). What makes Cattell's contribution even more significant is how he combined his mathematical and clinical skills to understand personality often conducting complex statistical calculations manually to test his hypotheses (Dumont, 2010).

Cattell defined and measured personality using traits as well as a combination of clinical and mathematical procedures to define traits (Cattell, 1945; Cattell, 1956). In his research, he identified common and unique traits that are influenced by heredity and environmental factors. Instead of looking at current research, he decided to use three approaches to develop his theory of personality and measurement tool (16 PF) (Cattell, 1956).He started by identifying adjectives in the English dictionary that explained behaviour. In addition, he developed behavioural ratings to measure the behaviour of people in his attempt to understand and describe personality (Goldberg,1993).

Cattell's main objectives were to define personality in its broadest sense, identify traits that make up the construct (personality spheres), establish the number of traits that could be used to define personality in different contexts and establish a tool to measure these traits (Cattell, 1945). He started with approximately 4 500-trait descriptions that he narrowed down to 171 personality variables (verbally defined traits). This resulted in 67 clusters that were further reduced to 35. Cattell decided to use Thurstone's multifactor system to analyse the data because of its flexibility (Cattell, 1945). The 35 clusters were analysed to arrive at manageable factors that combined primary and secondary factors and could be used to explain people's behaviour (Cattell, 1945; Cattell, 1956). He ended up identifying 16 primary personality factors and four secondary factors (Cattell, 1956). The four secondary factors are dynamic integration vs. anxiety, extraversion vs. introversion, cyclothymia vs. schizothymic, and unbroken success vs. frustration (Cattell, 1956).

This is probably why Goldberg viewed Cattell as the father of the five-factor model even though the latter was reluctant to acknowledge this and in his view did not quite embrace the model (Goldberg, 1993). However, Cattell (1993) viewed this as a misconception as there are similarities between his original work and that of the five- factor model. Cattell (1993) attributes the differences in models to the techniques used to rotate the factors; hence, different researchers propose different numbers of factors.Other researchers (Digman & Takemoto-Chok, 1981; Fiske, 1949; Tupes & Christel,1961) replicated Cattell's work and came up with five global factors. These global factors cover the same domain covered by the Big Five Method. It was on this research that Cattell based his 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, 1993). The findings were ground breaking for the field of psychology in general and personality research in particular. This work resulted in Cattell's two-tiered theory of personality (Cattell, 1993) which states that personality is made up of primary and secondary factors (Cattell, 1956).

Nowakowska (1973) criticised Cattell′s approach on the following grounds:

- He rejected any prior hypotheses that existed about traits at the time.
- He treated factors as approximations of personality traits (by identifying only 16 factors)
- He partially failed in verifying the hypotheses that he developed, as he was only able to come up with 12 common traits based on observed and self-observed data, yet found 16 traits when he did factor analysis.

The conclusion that Nowakowska draws from this is that although Cattell's findings were important and insightful, using factor analysis and Thurstone's multifactor method (which is explanatory) was limiting. According to Nowakowska (1973), the findings could have been improved if Cattell had used a different approach, e.g. incorporating bivariate controlled experiments to determine the functional variance between variables instead of the multivariate model he chose.Fiske (1949) analysed Cattell's variables and came up with five factors that replicated Cattell's work based on self, peer and observer ratings. The names of the factors were different but he did not consider the difference in the description as important. The factors he came up with are social adaptability, inquiry intellect, confident self-exploration, emotional control, and conformity. Despite his discovery, Fiske unfortunately did not follow up on any of this work (Goldberg, 1993).

Tupes and Christal (1961) conducted studies based on the work of both Cattell and Fiske using respondents from the air force.They came up with five replicable factors. Other scientists expanded on this work by conducting their studies and found five factors that could be replicated. These factors were very similar, even though their labels differed slightly (Borgatta, 1964). Table 3.1 below outlines the different factors that some of the personality researchers conceptualised and how these relate to the five-factor model.

The five-factor model (FFM) of personality provides a useful framework to explore the role of personality characteristics in individual behaviour, as well as work-related performance and behaviour (Korver, 2014).The five factor model (FFM) was selected for this research study, as the personality instrument utilised was developed based on the FFM model with previous research indicating its suitability for environments as culturally and linguistically diverse as South Africa (Naidoo,2016). Taylor (2004) confirmed the FFM as a suitable model for South Africa.

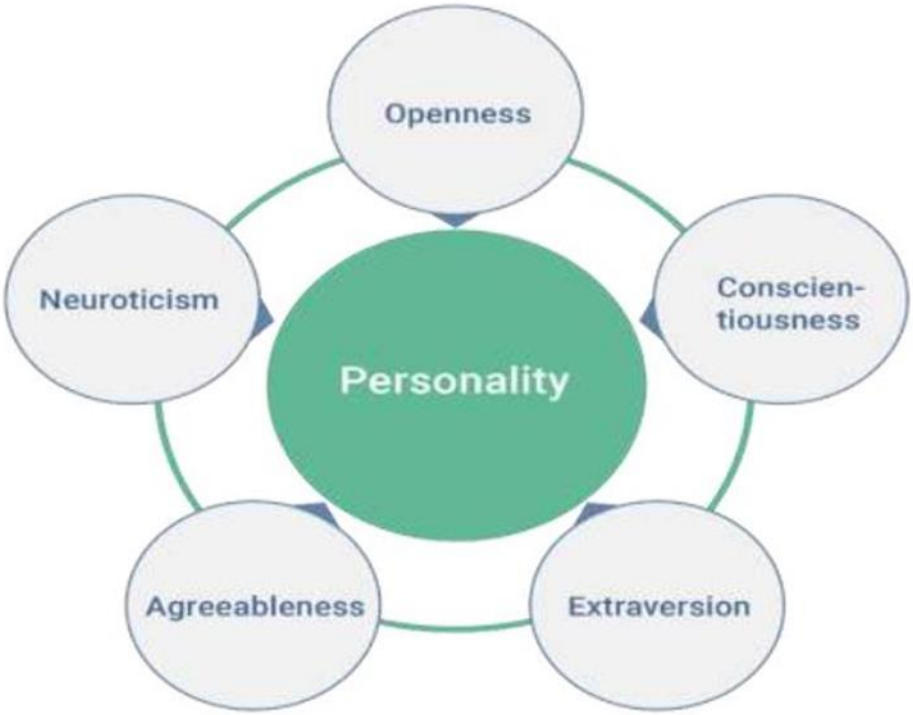
Table 3.1

Personality factors from various researchers

Factors	Description	Fiske (1949)	Cattell (1956)	Tupes & Christal (1961)	Norman (1963)	McCrae & Costa (1999)	Digman (1990)
Extraversion (F I)	Talkativeness,assertiveness, and activity levels vs. being reserved,passive and silent.	Social adaptability	Extraversion-Introversion	Surgency or extraversion	Surgency	Extraversion	Introversion-Extraversion
Agreeableness(FII)	Kindness, trust,and warmth vs. selfishness,hostility, and distrust	Confident,Self expression	Unbroken success vs. frustration		Agreeableness	Agreeable-ness	Agreeableness
Conscientiousness (F III)	Organised,thorough, and reliable vs. careless,negligent, and unreliable	Conformity		Cyclothyne vs. schizothyne	Constitution	Conscientiousness	Will
Emotional stability (F IV) (Neuroticism)	Calm and of even,temperament vs. nervous,moody, and temperamental	Emotional control		Dynamic integration vs. anxiety		Neuroticism	Anxiety
Openness to experience (F V)	Imagination,curiosity, and creativity vs.shallowness and being imperceptive.	Inquiring intellect				Openness to experience	Inquiring Intellect

This model has stimulated a large body of both empirical and theoretical work on the relationships between personality variables and several outcome variables, performance being the most widely studied. The model hierarchically organises personality traits within five distinguishable dimensions, namely neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness(Korver, 2014).

The following graphical illustration in Figure 3.1 below depicts the big five personality dimensions and these dimensions are defined as follows:



Note. Sergey Makarkin (2018)

Neuroticism refers to the general tendency to be emotionally unstable and to experience negative emotions such as fear, sadness, guilt, anger and distrust as well as to expect the worst from situations (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Curtis et al., 2015; Fischer & Boer, 2015; Vogt & Laher, 2009). It is defined as a general tendency to experience negative effects and emotions in response to one's environment and can be referred to as a person's emotional instability (Taylor & De Bruin, 2013). Neuroticism describes individuals who are plagued by insecurity and anxiety, and lack

emotional regulation. The six facets of Neuroticism are anxiety, anger, depression, self- consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability. Individuals who are high in anxiety are fearful, apprehensive and worry a lot (Bolding, 2017). Highly neurotic individuals are generally stressed, anxious, impulsive and vulnerable and as a result display ineffective coping and poor emotional adjustment strategies(Peral & Geldenhys, 2019).

Neuroticism means a person's emotional stability and the general tendency to experience negative affect in response to their environment (Mdhluli, 2019). Individuals measuring high in Neuroticism tend to be easily upset and critical. They often feel guilt, sadness, hopelessness, anxiety and tension and tend to be emotionally volatile (Mdhluli, 2019). Individuals with low Neuroticism levels are emotionally stable, even-tempered, calm, safe, well adjusted, and stress-tolerant (Mdhluli, 2019).

Extraversion refers to the tendency to be assertive and to seek social interaction as well as to experience positive emotion (Bjørkelo et al., 2010; Curtis et al., 2015; Metzer et al., 2014; Parks-Leduc et al., 2014). According to Wolff and Kim (2012), extraversion refers to the general tendency of an individual to approach social situations. Moreover, it is distinguished by traits like the experience of positive emotional states, energy, sociability, and being outgoing (Agyemang et al., 2016; Dant et al.,2013; Lounsbury et al.,2014; Saadullah & Bailey, 2014;Quintelier,2014).

Extraversion includes temperamental as well as interpersonal dimensions: individuals with such a high level of sensitivity to positive emotions and potential rewards are assertive, active and vigorous in their actions and social relations. (Mdhluli, 2019). Extraversion has been associated with a number of positive outcomes including increased psychological health, happiness and perceived attractiveness, together with achieving higher status and job performance in roles that involve social interaction (Cook, 2016).

Openness to experience refers to the tendency to be creative, curious and sensitive to aesthetics variety (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Curtis et al., 2015; eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014). It is the behavioural tendency of being genuinely open to new ideas of doing things. It measures the extent of an individual's imagination and

curiosity, as opposed to being closed-minded and narrow thinking (Metzer et al., 2014). Typical behavioural tendencies associated with openness to experience embodies people who have an active imagination, attentiveness to inner feelings and intellectual, curiosity as opposed to being concrete-minded and narrow-thinking (eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014; Raja & Johns, 2010; Vogt & Laher, 2009).

Openness to experience refers to the number of interests to which one is attracted and the depth to which those interests are pursued. People who like to learn new things and enjoy new experiences usually score high in openness. It indicates how open-minded a person is (Njoku et al., 2017). *Openness* seems to be a double-edged sword that intensifies both the positive and negative experiences encountered by individuals (Mdhluli, 2019).

Agreeableness is defined as pro-social and communal orientation towards others' rivalry and includes components like altruism, trust, tender-mindedness and modesty (John & Srivastava, 1999). Agreeableness makes a human being good-natured, forgiving, cooperative, likable, trustworthy, and understanding. The study highlights three main components of agreeableness that are altruism, trust and compliance (Khan et al., 2016). Highly agreeable individuals tend to be tender-minded, concerned about the welfare of others and be trusting and forgiving. This trait has also been associated with a tendency for cooperation and humility (Cook, 2016).

Agreeableness has been associated with gender differences, with females generally being more agreeable than males. This trait has been related to a number of positive outcomes including psychological health, avoidance of heart disease and increased effectiveness in highly conscientious workers. However, agreeability has also been negatively associated with success in some job roles (Cook, 2016).

Conscientiousness indicates an individual's degree of organization, persistence, hard work and motivation in the pursuit of goal accomplishment. It is a measure of goal-directed behaviour and the amount of control over impulses. Conscientiousness has been linked to educational achievement and particularly, to the will to achieve (Barakat & Othman, 2015). Conscientious individuals appear to be oriented towards

life situations that are beneficial for well-being; they set higher goals for themselves and have high levels of motivation (Morallane, 2017).

Conscientiousness refers to the degree of efficiency and effectiveness with which an individual plan, organizes and performs tasks and includes the degree of discipline, control, order, effort, prudence and achievement needs of the individual(Mdhluli, 2019).For example, the dimension has been linked with descriptions such as persistent ,organised, reliable, thorough ,goal-directed, responsible, hardworking and achievement-oriented(Barrick et al., 2013). Evidence shows that *Conscientiousness* is a health and wellness predictor.Conscientiousness refers to the number of goals on which one is focused (Kumar et al., 2009). It is related to dependability and volition and the typical behaviours associated with it include being hard working, achievement-oriented, persevering, careful, and responsible (Barrick & Mount, 1991). A person scoring high in conscientiousness usually has a high level of self-discipline. These individuals prefer to follow a plan, rather than act spontaneously. Their methodical planning and perseverance usually makes them highly successful in their chosen occupation. Conscientiousness is about how a person controls, regulates, and directs impulses. Individuals with a high level of conscientiousness on a career test are good at formulating long-range goals, organizing and planning routes to these goals, and working consistently to achieve them despite short-term obstacles they may encounter.

Taylor and De Bruin (2006) also define conscientiousness as the degree of effectiveness and efficiency with which an individual plan, organises, and carries out tasks. They identified the facets of conscientiousness as order, self-discipline, effort, dutifulness and prudence. According to Taylor and De Bruin (2006) definition, an individual with a high level of conscientiousness, acts purposefully, is determined, detail-oriented and displays strong-willed behaviour. In contrast, an individual with a low level of conscientiousness displays tendencies of carelessness towards goals is lazy, impulsive and tends to be irresponsible.

Table 3.2 below summarises each trait with the associated descriptive words after a brief definition is provided for each.

Table 3.2

Personality dimensions with associated descriptive words

Personality dimension	Descriptive words
Neuroticism	Anxiety, depression, anger, embarrassment, worry, self-pity, insecurity, moody, emotionally unstable, highly excitable, self-conscious, melancholy, apprehensive, hostile, envious, insecure, impulsive, and prone to stress (Barrick & Mount, 1991;Costa & McCrae,1992; Foulkrod et al., 2009; Llewellyn & Wilson, 2003; Raab et al.,2005; Weiten, 2010)
Extraversion	Sociable, assertive, talkative, active, outgoing, gregarious, optimistic, upbeat, energetic, enthusiastic, adventurous, ambitious, involved, talkative, frank, positive, cheerful, fun-loving, courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, affectionate and tolerant (Barrick et al., 2001; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Llewellyn & Wilson, 2003; John, 1990;Weiten, 2010).
Openness to experience	Original, open-minded, artistic, insightful, imaginative, intelligent, curious, flexible, unconventional, independent, inquiring, perceptive, thoughtful, creative, liberal, innovative, socially poised, polished, tolerant of ambiguity, unconventional, and adaptive (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Foulkrod et al., 2009; John, 1990; Mount & Judge, 2001; Nadkarni & Herrmann, 2010; Weiten, 2010).
Agreeableness	Altruistic, empathetic, kind, cooperative, trusting, gentle, compliant, modest, values affiliation, conflict avoiding, easy going, likable, friendly, helpful, courteous, considerate, flexible, good- natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, tolerant, affectionate, generous, sympathetic, straightforward, easy to get on with, widely liked, eager to help others, compassionate, mild, emotionally mature, self-sufficient and attentive to others (Barrick & Mount, 1991;Barrick et al, 2001; Bono & Judge, 2004; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Foulkrod et al., 2009; John, 1990; Llewellyn & Wilson, 2003; Weiten, 2010).
Conscientiousness	Dependable, responsible, careful, thorough, organized, hardworking, achievement orientated, efficient, deliberate, prudent, fussy, tidy, scrupulous, strong-willed, punctual, goal-directed, holding impulsivity in check, diligent, orderly, self-disciplined, dutiful, and planning (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al, 2001; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Foulkrod et al., 2009; John, 1990; Judge et al., 2002b; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Nadkarni & Herrmann, 2010).

Table 3.2 shows that over the years, many researchers have duplicated research originally conducted by Allport, Eysenck and Cattell and consistently the results-showed the above factors (Korver, 2014). McCrae and Costa seem to be the researchers who have won the most acclaim in this area. These five factors are shown to be differentiating components of personality through consistent demonstration by assorted assessment procedures (Korver, 2014). Although it is possible to criticise the big five model, it remains a useful model for organising personality scales into constructs (Van Aarde, 2016). It has proven itself useful, serves to organise, and summarising functions for the field of personality psychology. Most researchers agree that the FFM is useful in describing human personality.

This study focuses particularly on assessing organisational trust and personality dimensions and aimed to validate the findings of international studies. The FFM has been used in many studies as a predictor in various international studies of personality and trust (Van Aarde, 2016). Even after all these years, despite a general acceptance of the five-factor model as a valid model of personality, criticism, as well as support for the model, has come from various spheres (Goldberg, 1993). The next section briefly describes some of the personality measurement instruments that have been adapted and tested among South African samples.

3.7 **MEASUREMENT OF PERSONALITY**

In the fields of psychological testing and assessment, research has reached many difficult-to-attain goals (Laher & Cockroft, 2014). However, most psychological tests and assessments stemming from research conducted in Western, educated, industrial, rich, democratic (W.E.I.R.D.) countries fail to acknowledge psychological principles in non-W.E.I.R.D. contexts (Henrich et al., 2010). In the South African context, many psychological tests and assessments have been criticised for inadequately capturing and representing cultures outside the countries of origin, mainly in Europe and North America (Blokland, 2016) especially because individuals within a multi-cultural context such as South Africa have traditions and beliefs that are quite distinct from those found in Europe and America (Moletsane, 2016). These cultural differences also influence how individuals perceive personality and exhibit behaviours related to it.

As such, personality assessment within the South African context has shifted from studying universal traits across cultures to also studying personality traits specific or unique within various cultures using an emic-etic approach (Valchev et al., 2011; Valchev et al., 2012; Valchev et al., 2013; Valchev et al., 2014). The emic-etic combined approach outlines universal and culture-specific aspects of personality) to identify critical aspects about personality (in South Africa in this case) and attain a detailed, integrated and balanced view of personality (Cheung, 2012; Cheung et al., 2011).These instruments include among others the NEO-Personality Inventory Revised (NEO-PI-R),Basic Traits Inventory (BTI), and South African Personality Inventory (SAPI). These three instruments will be discussed in detail.

3.7.1 **Neo-Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO-PI-R)**

The NEO-PI-R is a widely used internationally based personality assessment tool that is based on the framework of FFM (Moshoeu, 2017). It is viewed as an inclusive and acceptable taxonomy of normal personality to measure FFM and is invariant across diverse cultures. It measures individual personality in terms of five robust factors, each measured by 48 items, which are then subdivided into six sets of 8 items (Judge et al., 2013). The NEO-PI-R is based on the supposition that personality traits are arranged in a hierarchy from very broad to very narrow, and that both highly general dimensions and relatively specific facets should be assessed (Loehlin & Goldberg, 2014). The NEOPI-R is a self-report questionnaire that consists of 240 items and takes approximately 45 minutes to complete. The items are measured on a five-point Likert scale where participants are required to rate each of the self-reflective statements on a continuum of 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The instrument is available in two different forms, Form S (self-reporting) and Form E (observer rating) (Moshoeu, 2017).

In South Africa, there is a marginal proportion of empirical research conducted with the NEO-PI-R version. This is largely because internationally based personality tests have been found unsuitable among South African samples with multicultural and multi-linguistic backgrounds (Metzer et al., 2014; Valchev et al., 2014). In addition, poor translation and language proficiency have also been found to distort the meaning of the questionnaire. For example, unsatisfactory personality tests have been reported

among Black samples as one of the limitations for applying NEO-PI-R in a multicultural group (Valchev et. al., 2014).

Laher (2010) reported satisfactory internal consistency reliability of the NEO-PI-R in a study conducted among university students equivalent to those found in the US and other Western countries. The current study will operationalise the five factors of personality traits with the instrument adapted by Martins (2000).The instrument has been adapted for the South African sample based on the FFM and the NEO-PI-R, and uses slightly different labels for the five factors and facets. It measures personality in terms of five broad domains, namely: conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, resourcefulness and extraversion (Martins, 2000).The instrument measures personality in terms of 35 items on a continuum of positive and negative scales and assesses individual personality accurately through observers' ratings. It therefore, differs from other measurements of personality that heavily rely on self-reports (Moshoeu, 2017). Agreeableness denotes good-naturedness, cooperativeness and courteousness, while conscientiousness embodies persistence, determination, hard work, dependability and propensity towards achievement. Neuroticism is subdivided into being calm, enthusiastic, and free from anxiety, depression and insecurity; while openness to experience comprises attributes such as broad-mindedness, creativity, imagination, artistic sensitivity and intellectual ability. Finally, extraversion is characterised by sociability, friendliness and talkativeness (Moshoeu, 2017).

3.7.2 **Basic Traits Inventory (BTI)**

The Basic Traits Inventory (BTI) was designed in response to the need for locally developed and valid personality instruments for the unique South African context. As a result, the BTI was developed to provide such an option. Its development was based on the Neo-Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO PI-R) which had its development moulded by the big five and the Five-Factor Model (FFM) (Naidoo, 2016).The Basic Traits Inventory (BTI) was developed by Taylor and De Bruin (2006) to assess the big five personality traits within a multicultural and multi-linguistic society. It was meant to provide a measure of personality traits that can apply to a South African sample (Moshoeu, 2017). Metzer et al. (2014) argue that internationally based personality instruments do not account for aspects such as culture, language and socio-economic status, which could impact the accuracy of the interpretation of individual results.

Specifically, the instrument was designed to redress the limitation inherent in embracing the internationally based personality instruments that do not take into account the multicultural and multi-linguistic background of participants. The BTI was primarily developed because of the failure to replicate the internationally based personality assessment instruments in the South African population (Metzer et al., 2014; Valchev et al., 2014).The BTI was contextualised based on the FFM personality and the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) in the South African context and was developed as a five factor personality instrument. It uses the same labels as the FFM and/or BF, namely extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Each of the five factors is sub-divided into five underlying facets, except for neuroticism that is subsumed by four facets (Metzer et al., 2014).

The BTI instrument consists of 193 items measuring personality on a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The instrument is assumed to take approximately 45 minutes to complete and can be completed by any person with at least a grade 12 level of education. Additionally, the instrument is considered easy to use and understand since items are positively worded thereby allowing a layperson to understand and quickly recognise the wording and meaning (Moshoeu, 2017). Taylor (2004) believes that the items that combine positive and negative worded items cause methodological confusion as to whether the items worded negatively have the same meaning as those worded positively.

The reliability coefficient of the BTI is satisfactory across the dimensions. It has demonstrated internal consistency, reliability coefficient, and constructs validity for each of the five factors and facets across several different studies (Moshoeu, 2017; Taylor & De Bruin, 2006; Taylor, 2004). Meiring (2007) reports that the BTI has shown acceptable construct validity among African participants as compared to other instruments, with Tucker coefficients of congruence exceeding .90 for all factors. Similar to NEO-PI-R, the BTI questionnaire takes at least 45 minutes to complete and this can be interpreted as relatively long. Another limitation of using the BTI is related to the construction of statements that are positively worded and terms such as never, not or no, which are excluded from the statements (Moshoeu, 2017). Taylor (2004)

posits that negatively worded statements can cause conceptual confusion when respondents attempt to clearly articulate the meanings.

3.7.3 **South African Personality Inventory (SAPI)**

Personality across cultures is predominantly assessed using models and instruments of Western origin, with little attention to culture-specific manifestations of universal concepts and concepts more salient in specific cultures. Indigenous and cultural psychologists often emphasize the blind spots left by this approach(Valchev et. al., 2014). The importance of incorporating indigenous and universal, or emic and etic, elements in the study and assessment of psychological constructs, and personality in particular, has been increasingly recognised over the decades (Van de Vijver, 2013).

In addition, the South African Personality Inventory (SAPI) was constructed by the South African researchers with the help of the Netherlands researchers to develop a personality instrument relevant to South African populations (Metzer et al., 2014; Valchev et al., 2014). The SAPI is an inventory that accounts for the dynamics inherent in South Africa such as different cultures, 11 official languages and socio-economic status when administering personality tests (Moshoeu, 2017). Both the etic-emic approaches were utilised in the identification of culturally and linguistically adequate personality descriptive terms for all 11 official languages (Hill et al., 2013). Put succinctly, it is theoretically impossible to achieve the universality of any kind of personality factors in populations that are different from one another, whether in language or cultural background (Moshoeu, 2017).

Cross-cultural variations do exist when administering psychological assessment within different cultural backgrounds, particularly where people express or attach different meanings to their behaviour. In addition, Nel et al. (2012) note that less supportive evidence of the universality of the FFM in different languages is an ongoing debate as a considerable number of studies seem to report weaker structural equivalence (Moshoeu, 2017). The next section focuses on the integration of the relationship between trust and the big five personality dimensions. This section discusses the theoretical link that exists between the constructs of organisational trust and the personality dimensions.

3.8 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION OF CONSTRUCTS: ORGANISATIONAL TRUST AND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

Corresponding to the pivotal role of trust for all kinds of social interactions and interpersonal relationships, organisational trust has been the target of abundant research across scientific disciplines. However, an integration of the huge literature is currently missing thus hampering a common understanding of organisational trust and a synthesis between the fields (Thielmann, 2015). Furthermore, from a psychological perspective, there is an insufficient understanding of the (basic) personality traits accounting for individual variation in organisational trust. Therefore, the overall objective of this dissertation is to conceptualise the theoretical relationship and integration between the personality dimensions and organisational trust. The success of most organisations depends on how they attract and recruit employees, how they motivate employees to perform highly and ensure that employee performance increases (Muindi & Obonyo, 2015). Literature suggests that employees with various characteristics are motivated by various factors that may be either strength or weakness, depending on the employee's situation or resources (Warr & Inceoglu ,2012). Those traits determine whether employees can manage to have trust in their organisation.

To that end, a behavioural view on organisational trust is adopted, defining organisational trust in terms of a risky choice to depend on another. Based on a broad review of the literature, a theoretical framework is distilled, identifying the situational features and personality characteristics underlying trust. Specifically, organisational trust is considered a function of (1) attitudes toward risky prospects (risk and loss aversion), (2) trustworthiness expectations, and (3) betrayal sensitivity. These determinants are, in turn, rooted in different traits (i.e., anxiety/fear, trustworthiness, and forgiveness) which can be localised in the space defined by basic personality models (Thielmann, 2015).

Organisational trust is seen as an essential prerequisite for cooperation with numerous studies showing that a high level of organisational trust promotes an inclusive, open society, stimulates economic development, promotes democratic stability,fosters societal happiness and general feelings of well-being (Freitag & Bauer, 2016). Regarding the foundations of organisational trust, there are two general theoretical

perspectives on how trust is formed (Freitag & Bauer, 2016). The first perspective stresses that a person's trust is an evaluation of his or her social environment and is grounded in experiences of trustworthiness in social interaction. Drawing on experiences, an individual can infer other persons' probable future behaviour. Various studies show that trust changes only rather slowly at the societal, individual levels, thereby calling into question the role of later life experiences (Freitag & Bauer, 2016).

Against this, a second perspective holds that organisational trust is a generally stable propensity.Following this perspective, individual differences in personality traits developed earlier may be responsible for differences in organisational trust between individuals (Freitag & Bauer,2016). The researchers only found a relationship between the trait of agreeableness and generalised trust but not for other traits.

Alternatively, Dinesen et al. (2014) argued that all personality traits affect generalized trust. Besides, trait trustworthiness with its components fairness and honesty seems to be best reflected in the agreeableness dimension of the FFM, which involves differences in the motivation to cooperate versus defect (Thielmann, 2015).Finally, forgiveness has consistently been linked to a mixture of said dimensions, namely low levels of neuroticism and high levels agreeableness. In total the FFM would thus account for individual variation in trust behaviour through neuroticism and agreeableness a conjecture that has already obtained some (albeit weak) empirical support (Thielmann, 2015).

3.8.1 **Personality as an antecedent of organisational trust**

In the original research report by the Centre for Industrial and Organisational Psychology, it was stated that investigation of the antecedents of trust (or mistrust), led to the assumption that trust within companies is probably created by personal factors and managerial practices (Von Der Ohe, 2014).The researchers hypothesise whether the personality dimensions were antecedents of organisational trust between subordinates and their supervisors. The personality dimensions namely extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were found to be valid predictors of work performance (Von Der Ohe, 2014).

Goldberg (1990) cited in Von der Ohe (2014),gave one of the most detailed discussions of this taxonomy of personality. Von der Ohe (2014) then reported on three studies to confirm the generalisability of this taxonomy by firstly analysing the set of different trait terms, then investigating synonym clusters, and lastly examining trait-derived clusters of adjectives. These adjectives or synonym clusters were then released for inclusion in other studies like this one. In the context of the first trust audit, personality factors were considered for investigation as antecedents of organisational trust, because the literature at that stage considered them as valid predictors of work-related behaviour. This aspect has been strongly contested in organisational psychology literature because research conclusions were based on methodological technicalities. (Von der Ohe, 2014).

Personality greatly influences the decisions of men and women in context to how they give importance to different functions of work (Arora & Rangnekar, 2016). People tend to surround themselves in the environment where they are able to fully express themselves which is in congruence with their skills, abilities, and personality (Arora & Rangnekar, 2016). In this regard, employee personality represents a potential signifier of a perceived fit between individual and organisational trust (Cohen, 2003). In the current study, for understanding the key linkage between personality and organisational trust, we specifically chose the five factor model as it provides the most meaningful taxonomy using five dimensions of personality.

Personality is significantly correlated with measures of employee's psychological well-being (Jones et al.,2015). In an investigation of the relationship between personality and psychological well-being, Schmutte and Ryff (1997) discovered that extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness are strong significant predictors for three of the six dimensions of psychological well-being, namely, environmental mastery,self-acceptance, and purpose in life. Individuals high in agreeableness tend to be cooperative and trusting; individuals low in neuroticism tend to be calm and generally in a positive mood. Employees who share these characteristics are not likely to engage in low-integrity or counterproductive
behavior and are particularly unlikely to engage in interpersonal aggression and destructive behaviour arising from anger and hostility(Lagginess, 2016).

Agreeable individuals are cheerful and good natured, who exhibit a strong willingness to shoulder a great workload and responsibilities without any hesitation (Lagginess, 2016).Because of which supervisors also feel comfortable in engaging them in various organisational activities (Lagginess, 2016). Henceforth, researchers expect that because of their positive attitude toward work they will display greater commitment toward organisational trust (Barrick and Mount, 1991).

3.8.2 **Linking personality and trust on a conceptual level**

Rotter (1967; 1980) seems to be the first of the modern researchers who linked propensity to trust to personality. Von der Ohe (2014) investigated the relationship between trust, trustworthiness and gullibility. Gullibility in this case was defined as naïve and easily fooled Rotter (1967; 1980) confirms the long-held belief that persons tend to like persons who have personalities that are similar to theirs.

While some narrative reviews have concluded that there is indeed a positive relationship between personality dimensions and organisational trust, other narrative reviews have concluded that there is no such relationship(Morallane, 2017). The propensity to trust can be understood as a personality trait (Von der Ohe,2014). In a recent study, Alarcon et al. (2018) analysed the impact of personality, measured using the big five model (e.g., De Raad (2000), across the entire trust process (trusting actions or behaviour, beliefs and intentions), and found that personality predicted trust intentions and beliefs, but not trust behaviours; while propensity to trust predicted all three aspects of trust. Müller and Schwieren (2020) experimentally tested the impact of personality factors (measured using the big five model on behaviour in a trust game among humans and found that despite Alarcon et al. (2018) findings personality traits do explain trust behaviour. However, they suggest that personality best correlates with behaviour in ambiguous decisions, and not well in a risky decision where organisational trust behaviour is better explained also considering whether one is in a strong or a weak situation.

Considering the individual dimensions Thielmann and Hilbig (2015) link interpersonal trust (human-human) to the basic personality traits, suggesting that neuroticism and agreeableness are the main two factors responsible for individual differences in organisational trust behaviour. Also, Ben-Ner & Halldorsson (2007) found that

participants' personality predicts quite well interpersonal trust, where more agreeable and extroverted and less conscientious participants are more trusting. Mooradian et al. (2006) circulated a self-administered questionnaire, which measured personality traits and interpersonal trust at work, among the employees of a company, and found a significant relationship between agreeableness and propensity to trust.

In an organisational context, this disposition to trust is important as it implies that the trustor's experience (or the trustee's reputation) is not the only aspect that determines trust in this context (Von der Ohe, 2014). Von der Ohe et al. (2004) subsequently investigated the conceptual link between the elements of the five-factor model of personality and the behaviour linked to various elements of trust. The results of the research show that the contributions of this personality construct to the explanation of the trust relationship are highly significant ($p<0.000$). From the stepwise linear regression analysis, it became evident that the personality factors of conscientiousness and agreeableness had the highest explanatory power in the trust relationship.

Thielmann (2015) summed up a review and provided an integrative summary and coherent structure of the extant trust literature from different fields. In essence, it implies that:

- trust can be regarded as a risky dependence choice,
- multiple people, and situation characteristics may influence the decision to trust,
- and, individual differences in the trust are likely rooted in a combination of different personality traits. Hence, it seems heavily oversimplified to assume that one specific trait dimension (such as trust propensity) might sufficiently account for individual variation in trust behaviour.

According to Sicora (2015), the relationships between the propensity to trust and the personality traits of agreeableness and neuroticism corroborated with the few previous studies of personality and trust behaviours, individuals with higher levels of agreeableness or higher levels of neuroticism tended to have a higher propensity to trust. Agreeable individuals tend to exhibit and are more likely to experience happiness

because they extremely love to have close interrelationships and those who are higher in this trait will have higher life satisfaction (Chadrasekar & Chidambaram, 2015).

The big five model of personality known as the five-factor model (FFM), is a framework that provides a valid, robust and comprehensive way of representing fundamental personality differences between individuals (Morallane, 2017). Since the mid-1980s, the Big Five model is a robust indicator of an individual's personality. The five-factor models of personality trait structure began to gain prominence among students of trait psychology in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Today, applied research on the big five far outpaces that on other models of trait structure, with hundreds of works being published in each of the past several years (Morallane, 2017). Goldberg (1990) believes that the five-factor model of personality is regarded as the most comprehensive taxonomy of personality in the work context.

Blakey, (2016) points out integrity as an important antecedent to organisational trust. Komodromos and Halkias(2016) notes that integrity is considered as a crucial feature of organisational trust whereas others have equated it to organisational honesty and openness. According to (Mühl, 2014), integrity is considered to incorporate a degree of fairness within an organisation.In a broader sense, integrity involves the compatibility of the beliefs of the employees to the values of the organisation. In this case, the trustees' values are compared to those of the organisation instead of considering the perception of the trustors' acceptability of the trustees' values (Komodromos & Halkias, 2016).

According to Mansour, (2014) employees count on their superiors not just because they are competent and benevolent but also because they demonstrate a sense of integrity. In this case, integrity is the loyalty directed to one's rational convictions in terms of action. A trusting relationship between the organisational members and their leaders is founded upon integrity. It is a function of how the employees perceive their employer regarding how they align their words to their deeds. Management also needs to observe the sound principles laid out for their organization in order to inspire a perception of dignity in their employees. Demonstrating a sense of justice too affects the extent to which the management will be judged as having integrity (Partonia, 2013). The management gain trust through being honest, principled, fair and

consistent: the manager exhibiting these attributes are highly unlikely to undertake opportunistic behavior and the employees will therefore find no need of monitoring them to ascertain that they are actually trustworthy (Heyns & Rothmann, 2015).

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with the rationale for studying personality, and an overview of its conceptualisation, and the different definitions of personality according to different personality theorists. An overview of the Trait theory approach was provided, with a more in-depth discussion of the Trait perspectives of personality leading to the development of the five-factor model. Subsequently, an in-depth discussion on the five-factor model of personality and the measurement of personality was also discussed. The chapter concluded with the integration of the relationship between organisational trust and personality dimensions. In the next chapter, Chapter 4, the focus will be on the research methodology. The following chapter will explain the research design, outlining the research approach and method applied as well as the measuring instruments that were used in the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the preceding chapters, literature regarding organisational trust and personality dimensions was reviewed. These constructs were defined and clarified while conceptualising their role within the organisational context. Chapter 4 presents the research methodology that was employed to explore the methods used to measure organisational trust and personality dimensions. Comparisons were made to reach empirically based conclusion that included a description of the target population and the procedures used. An explanation of the measuring instruments and justification for using them was elaborated. Furthermore, the statistical techniques used to analyse the data as well as the hypotheses formulation is discussed. Apart from the above, the chapter deals with the first four steps of the empirical objectives as described in Chapter 1.

4.1 **RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research (Moela, 2016). According to Kotze (2013), a research design is a framework that plans how the researcher will sample participants, collect, and analyse data to address the problem under investigation. The objective of the research design involves planning, structuring and implementing the study to maximize the study's validity.

As explained in Chapter 1, the empirical research is quantitative and a cross-sectional research design was 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 were generally high. Research design involves eliciting information at a single time from individuals in different conditions and conclusions can be drawn in a short period. An Internet-based survey methodology was used to collect data from the target participants and the data was analysed using appropriate parametric methods (Van der Berg, 2011).

4.2 **RESEARCH APPROACH**

In this research, a quantitative cross-sectional approach has been taken. A quantitative study is characterised by an objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain information about the research topic. It is useful to

describe variables, examine relationships among variables, determine cause and effect interactions between variables (Creswell, 2014). Essentially, the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena are called the research approach. It provides the work plan of research (Morallane, 2017; Rajasekar et al., 2013). This chapter introduces the research approach followed in the study and the research methods used. A detailed review of the personality dimensions and organisational trust was provided in chapters 2 and 3 constituting the theoretical aspect of the study. The literature review indicated the need to assess the relationship between organisational trust and the personality dimensions. The purpose of the study is to better asses the relationship between organisational trust and personality dimensions as it generalizes across an organisation,different job levels, race, gender, age, years of experience and home language. To assess the relationship between organisational trust and the personality dimensions to determine if there are:

- certain personality styles or a combination of styles that are perceived to be more trustworthy than other
- personality styles that are not perceived as trustworthy

Researching this area is likely to benefit employees, employers and policymakers to come up with strategies that can aid leaders in learning adaptive strategies that can help create greater trusting relationships in organisations.

4.3 **TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGY**

Sampling is the process of selecting a representative group from the population under study. The target population is the total group of individuals from which the sample might be drawn. A sample is a group of people who take part in the investigation. The people who take part are referred to as participants. Generalizability refers to the extent to which researchers can apply the findings of their research to the target population they are interested in (McLeod, 2014). This section discusses the steps undertaken when determining the samples to be included in the study. The discussion is structured along the lines of Cooper and Schindler's (2014) five research questions for securing appropriate sample elements, namely:

• What is the target population?
• What are the parameters of interest?
• What is the sample frame?
• What is the appropriate sampling method?
• What size sample is needed?

The target population is described as a group of individuals who possess specific characteristics from which a sample is drawn to determine the parameters or characteristics of a large population (Munyoki, 2017). Specifically, the target population refers to a group of people or entities from which information is required, where statistical inferences can be made about a particular phenomenon under observation. Welman et al., (2005) articulate that target population validity is important and greater care should be taken to obtain a representative sample to prevent biased results.

The cross-sectional quantitative research design was used. A sample of permanent employees (N=350) was used in the study. Permission was obtained from the Chief People Officer of the organisation under study, and an ethical clearance was obtained from the UNISA Ethics Review Committee before conducting the study. An email was sent to employees of the organisation under study as non-probability convenience sampling was used for this study because this method of sampling has been defined as comprising suitable individuals who are both readily available and accessible to respond to the research.

The email contained a web-based link that led participants to an electronic website. On the website, the goal and purpose of the study were explained as well as the research procedure, ethical issues, the importance of the study and the value of their participation in the research and university. A letter about the rationale of the study, as well as the confidentiality and anonymity procedures were addressed and attached to the questionnaire. Respondents were given four weeks to complete the web-based questionnaire.The participants consisted of a non-probability sample of 350 participants. The participants were appointed at junior, supervisory and managerial levels in a full-time capacity. In this case, the population of this study was all permanent employees of the organisation under study who work in different business units.

These employees consisted of individuals from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds, different job levels, race, age, home language, years of experience and gender. The main ethnic groups (black, white, coloured and Indian) representing South African society were included in the sample and the sample was representative of both gender groups. Participants were enthused from various business units of the organisation from auditing to support business units. Targeting the total population of employees helped to increase the generalizability of the results to the target population.

4.4 **MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

To achieve the goals of this study and an attempt to extend the discussion on assessing the relationship between organisational trust and personality dimensions, a combined validated organisational trust and personality questionnaire was used. A combined organisational trust and personality questionnaire consisting of 6 biographical questions, 72 organisational trust questions and 35 personality questions were posted on a company's website with an open invitation for employees to participate.

The instrument was explained in terms of its nature and composition, validity and reliability as well as the justification for its use (Van der Berg, 2011). The questionnaire thus consists of 12 dimensions that were also used and verified in a longitudinal study of trust by Von der Ohe and Martins (2011). The combined organisational trust and personality questionnaire was used as a measure for the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust. Von der Ohe and Martins (2011) constructed the questionnaire.

This section discusses the measuring instruments used to conduct this research. The instruments are explained in terms of their nature and composition, validity and reliability as well as the justification for their use. Although validity and reliability information for each instrument is reported in this chapter, all instruments were subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the respective factor structures.Internal consistency was analysed via Cronbach's alpha to confirm the instruments' reliability.

4.4.1 **Organisational Trust**

The trust relationship dimensions in the questionnaire were directly related to the trust dimension and measured by 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 (Martins, 2002; Martins & Von der Ohe,2011; Von der Ohe, 2014).This section is about the trust relationship itself and was measured by the following five questions:

- I have an open, trusting relationship with the person
- The person I report to openly and honestly reveals important work-related facts to me
- The person I report to is fair in judging my performance
- The person I report to demonstrate good intentions and motives towards me
- I can believe what the person I report to says

As seen from the above statements, the questions only deal with interpersonal trust aspects between trustors as employees and their immediate supervisors. Von der Ohe (2014) suggested that for the sake of conceptual and theoretical clarity, the items used to determine organisational trust need to be classified as either relational (socio-emotional) linked to affective trust or as character based associated with cognitive trust. This distinction has to be considered when evaluating the model or questionnaire as this may have an indirect influence on the outcomes found to be significant (Von der Ohe, 2014).

The third part of the questionnaire deals with the organisational trust construct, which will include both individual employee's trust of specific other organisational members (e.g. trust in a specific colleague or trust in the leader) and individual employee's trust in generalised organisational entities (e.g. trust in management or the organisation as a whole (Von der Ohe, 2014).The five-point Likert scale items required the respondents to rate how much they trust their direct supervisor, manager, top management, and lastly their co-workers or team members. On the other hand, they also rated how much they think the same entity trusts them. The five-point Likert scale

items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from; 1 = ‘Strongly Disagree’; 2= ‘Disagree’; 3= ‘Unsure; 4= ‘Agree’ and 5= ‘Strongly Agree’.

The questionnaire was then scored for each of the various dimensions and all dimensions were scored such that low scores indicated non-acceptance or distrust of the specific dimension, while high scores indicated acceptance of the trust dimension or high levels of organisational trust. The analysis of variance and t-test approaches are appropriate strategies for testing the formulated hypotheses. The biographical groups, such as age, gender and position, were regarded as independent variables. The dependent variables used were the seven trust dimensions (Von der Ohe, 2014).

The fourth section is an additional section that was added to the questionnaire to measure participants’ satisfaction with changes that had occurred in the organisation and the participants were required to indicate how satisfied they were with the way those changes were implemented. This section was also augmented by asking the participants general questions about the various sources of information about the organisation or their work and to indicate whether those sources were sufficient.Participants had to rate these changes on a four-point scale where 4 is very satisfied and 1 is very dissatisfied.

The primary focus of the combined trust and personality questionnaire was exploring trust in the workplace. The goal is to gain information regarding levels of trust and an indication of trust-building and trust–reducing behaviours (Van der Berg, 2011). The objective of the combined organisational trust and personality questionnaire was to gather views on the existence of trust relationships, correlated with personality and managerial practices and behaviour as a whole. As mentioned, the questionnaire consisted of 13 dimensions consisting of Big Five Personality aspects and eight managerial practices as the dimensions of organisational trust (Martins, 2000; Martins & Von der Ohe, 2002; Von der Ohe et al., 2004; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010, Von der Ohe, 2014). The questionnaire focused on the trust relationship between top management, the immediate manager and colleagues.

4.4.1.1 **Nature and Composition**

Research by the Centre of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa during 1995–1996 investigating the possible antecedents, led to the assumption that trust within organisations is created by personality factors and managerial practices (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). 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 objective of this questionnaire is thus to gather views on the existence of a trust relationship, correlated with personality and managerial practices and behaviour.

At a later stage, three more dimensions were added to the questionnaire due to the confidential contract research undertaken in South Africa from 1998 to 2000 indicating how the following additional dimensions need to be included in the questionnaire (Von der Ohe, 2014);

- Information sources – this dimension measures the reliability and sufficiency of information sources.
- 360-degree trust (Interpersonal trust) – this dimension measures the impact of trust on all organisational levels, as well as felt trust. It is an indication of how much employees trust others and how well they think they are trusted.
- Changes occurred - How different employees experience change.

This final questionnaire consisted of 13 dimensions used and verified in a recent study on the relationship between organisational trust and quality of work-life by Van der Berg & Martins (2013). The trust segment of the questionnaire had two sections:

- 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 effective and how often they display the type of behaviour, rating them on a five-point scale where 1 is never/strongly disagree and 5 is always/strongly agree.

- Section 4: Included 38 questions. 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 first 13 questions measures the changes implemented by management and how the participant perceives them i.e. interpersonal trust. These questions of the trust section include changes that have occurred in the organisation over the past year and how 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 other 11 questions are general questions that measure trust in general. The participants had to rate how trustful or trustworthy their colleagues, immediate supervisor, immediate manager, and organisation are, on a five-point scale where 5 is always and 1 is never. The final fourteen questions of the trust section had various sources of information about the organisation or participants' work and participants had to indicate whether the sources of information received from their colleagues, immediate supervisor, immediate manager and organisation are sufficient. Participants rated various sources of information on a five-point scale where 5 is always and 1 is never.

4.4.1.2 **Validity**

Validity is the extent to which the measuring instrument adequately reflects the real meaning of the concepts being investigated. Internal and external validity is imperative for good research design (Tebele, 2013). It is the degree to which the results are truthful, so it requires a research instrument (questionnaire) to correctly measure the concepts under the study (Mohajan, 2017).

The trust audit compiled by Martins (2000) has been used to construct a conceptual model for the manifestation of organisational trust and as a valid and reliable measurement of organisational trust in research studies over the past few years (Von der Ohe et al., 2004; Cyster, 2009; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). Although there are other organisational trust measurements, most of them are grounded solely in personality theory and only a few focus on aspects relating to organisations (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). The organisational trust questionnaire focuses on six dimensions that have been found to have a high correlation with management

practices. These management practices also correlate significantly with trust (factor inter- correlation –0.58) (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013).

The content validity of the questionnaire was evaluated through factor and path analysis using structural equation modelling.The results of these procedures indicated that it measures what it is supposed to measure. The goodness 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; Martins, 2010). All the goodness–of–fit indexes indicated a good model fit according to Martins (2000). The goodness–of–fit test is performed to determine whether observed data correspond to some theoretical distribution AGFI with a value close to 0.90 reflects a good fit, AGFI with a value of 0.90 a good model fit and PGFI,0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit).

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, following the procedure outlined by Schumacher and Lomax (1996) to determine whether the data were compatible with the assumption that each of the proposed latent variables represented separate constructs. The results revealed a chi-square of 4 404.511, based on 33 degrees of freedom with a probability value of less than 0.001. The normal theory chi-square for this solution is 3 538.303. Additionally, the comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.890, the Bonet normed fit index (BDNFI) = 0.889 and the Bentler–Bonet non-normed fit index (BBNNFI) = 0.850. These were all very close to the recommended perfect fit, 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit) (Martins, 2002).

4.4.1.3 **Reliability**

Reliability refers to a measurement that supplies consistent results with equal values.It measures the consistency, precision, repeatability and trustworthiness of research(Mohajan,2017).It indicates the extent to which it is without bias(error free) and thus ensures consistent measurement across time and the various in the instrument(the observed scores).

In quantitative research, reliability refers to the consistency, stability and repeatability of results, that is, the result of a researcher is considered reliable

if consistent results have been obtained in identical situations but different circumstances. Reliability is used to evaluate the stability of measures administered at different times to the same individuals and the equivalence of sets of items from the same test (Mohajan, 2017). Reliability refers to the extent to which the measuring instrument gives the same results when used separately.

Reliability refers to the overall consistency of a measure such that any score changes measured by a completely reliable instrument would be a reflection of true change in the construct that is being measured (Sakashita, 2013). It is expected that measuring instruments will offer consistent results and internal consistency reliability indicates that for all items measured, the same instrument will produce the same results (Mohammed & Steyn, 2016). 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 and managerial practices (Martins, 2000). The reliability was based on a total sample of 6528 employees from 22 South African companies which are similar to the organisation in which this research study was conducted (Van Den Berg & Martins, 2013; Von der Ohe, 2014). Reliability in measuring these constructs was established in previous studies (Martins, 2000; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010).

4.4.1.4 **Validity of the Trust Model**

Structural equation modelling (SEM) has been used to assess the validity of the conceptual model of the manifestation of trust. SEM is a linear cross-sectional statistical modelling technique that includes Confirmatory Factor Analysis, path analysis, and regression analysis. The EQS software program was utilised to test the trust model using the structural equation model (Van der Berg, 2011).
Martins (2000) conducted a confirmatory analysis to determine whether the data confirmed the supposition that each of the proposed latent variables represents separate constructs.Using the data from 6528 employees from 22 organisations, Martins (2002) applied structured equation modelling techniques (SEM) to validate the trust relationship model. What emerges from the revised

model is that there is a correlation between the Big Five and trust, and between managerial practices and organisational trust (Von der Ohe, 2014).

The relationship between the personality aspects and trust is not so strong yet significant, while the relationship between managerial practices and trust is much stronger and positive. The high relationship between managerial practices and big five suggests that mediation or moderation needs to be investigated based on sound theoretical and conceptual leadership research literature – not only the trust literature(Von der Ohe, 2014). Van Der Berg and Martins (2013) re-evaluated the Martins (2000)model and took into consideration the SEM modification indices.

According to this analysis, which excluded information sharing and included the two added dimensions of change and interpersonal trust, the trust model still showed a good model fit. Results further revealed a non-significant chi-square of 4404.511, based on 33 degrees of freedom with a probability value of less than 0.001.However, Organisational Trust Model included two factors additional to Martins' (2000) model, namely change which has occurred, and interpersonal trust, but excluded the dimension of information-sharing (weak Cronbach alpha).Table 4.1 shows a comparison of the findings from Martins (2000) with the findings from Van der Berg's (2013) research, indicating the chi-square, degrees of freedom, probability level, and comparative fit indexes (CFI).

Table 4.1

Comparison of Organisational Trust results.

Comparison of fit criteria Model 1 (2000) Model 2: (2011)	**Model1 (2000) Organisational Trust**	**Model 2: (2011) Relationship between organisational trust and QWL**
Chi-square	90.874	622.252
df	2.272	3.175
p	0.000	0.000
CFI	0.980	0.910
RMSEA	0.79	0.104
NFI or BDNFI	0.965	0.875
NNFI or BBNNFI	0.973	0.894
GFI	**0.922**	**0.754**

Note. Developing a trust model for assisting management during change. Martins, N. (2000).

4.4.1.5 **Rationale for inclusion**

The Trust audit compiled by Martins (2000) has been used to construe a conceptual model for the manifestation of organisational trust and have been used as a valid and reliable measurement of organisational trust in research studies over the past few years (Cyster, 2009; Van der Berg, 2011; Von der Ohe et al., 2004; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). Although there are other organisational trust measurements, most of them are solely grounded in personality theory with only a few focusing on aspects relating to organisations (Büssing, 2002). The organisational trust questionnaire focuses on six dimensions that have been found to correlate highly with management practices. These management practices have also correlated significantly with organisational trust (factor inter-correlation – 0. 58) (Martins, 2000).

4.4.2 **Big Five Personality Dimensions**

The big five personality aspects will be measured using the adapted big five questionnaire validated by Von der Ohe (2014). Altogether, the 35 questions relating to the big five personality dimensions were included in the questionnaire.The combined organisational trust and personality questionnaire comprised sections 1-4.

The questionnaire was divided into the following sections:

- **Section 1** – deals with the biographical questions
- **Section 2** – has typical characteristics of the person the participants report to
- **Section 3** – deals with those things which the person the participants report to often does in the workplace
- **Section 4** – consists of one question on how efficient the participants think the person they report to is and a few questions on how the participants feel about change and trust in the organisation.

The objective of the trust questionnaire was to gather views on the existence of a trust relationship, correlated with personality and behaviour as a whole. The focus will not be on the personality constructs per se but on trust (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). The first section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic information such as age, gender, race, home language, position and years of

service. The second part of the questionnaire was concerning typical characteristics or personalities that people display in the workplace taking into cognisance the person the participants report to and indicating the extent to which that particular person demonstrates the specific characteristics (Von der Ohe, 2014). 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 1 to 7, where 1-3 is a strong follower, 4 is unsure and 5-7 is a strong leader 4 is unsure and 5-7 is a strong leader.

The personality factors that were included in Martin's model are the commonly known five-factor model (FFM) or big five Personality factors of agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, neuroticism, and extraversion. This model is the most accepted model of general personality structure.

4.4.2.1 **Nature and Composition**

In the original research report by the Centre for Industrial and Organisational Psychology, it was stated that investigation of the antecedents of trust (or mistrust), led to the assumption that trust within companies is probably created by personal factors and managerial practices" (Von der Ohe, 2014). Goldberg (1990) gave one of the most detailed discussions of this taxonomy of personality. He then reported on three studies to confirm the generalisability of this taxonomy by firstly analysing the set of different trait terms, then investigating synonym clusters, and lastly examining trait-derived clusters of adjectives. These adjectives or synonym clusters were then released for inclusion in other studies such as the current one. The big five personality questionnaire consisting of 35 items measure the five-factor personality dimensions namely Conscientiousness (8-item), Agreeableness (8-item),Openness to experience (5-item), Neuroticism (7-item) and Extraversion (7-item) (Martins, 2000; 2002; Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010; Von der Ohe, 2014). The scale uses descriptors in the form of adjectives ranging from negative to positive to describe personality traits, anchored to each extreme point. Table 4.2 below presents descriptors of the Big Five personality dimensions included in this study.

Table 4.2

Description of the "Big Five" personality aspects

Agreeableness	Conscientiousness
cold-hearted – warm-hearted	irresponsible – responsible
unfriendly – friendly	disorganised – organised
rude- tactful	sloppy – neat
insensitive – sympathetic	lazy – hardworking
hostile – peaceful	dishonest – honest
mean – gentle	careless – careful
opposing – cooperative	deceitful – trustworthy
angry – happy	
Extraversion	**Openness to experience**
quiet – talkative	dull – intelligent
withdrawn – sociable	unimaginative – creative
unassertive – assertive	conventional – innovative
reserved – outgoing	believing – questioning
gloomy – cheerful	simple – complex
shy – bold	prefers routine – prefers variety
passive – active	
Neuroticism	
nervous - relaxed	
moody – stable	
insecure – confident	
touchy – even-tempered	
agitated – calm	

Note. Big Five Personality dimension descriptors by Martins (2002); Moshoeu (2017)

The dimensions are discussed in detail below:

Agreeableness includes traits such as being courteous, flexible, trusting, goodnatured, cooperative, forgiving, softhearted and tolerant. It contrasts a prosocial and communal orientation towards others with antagonism and includes traits such as altruism, tender-mindedness, trust, and modesty. Agreeableness represents the tendency to be altruistic (empathetic, kind, and gentle) and compliant (modest, having a values affiliation, and avoiding conflict) (Curtis et al., 2015; Metzer et al., 2014). It has also been labelled as likeability or friendliness and includes traits such as being affectionate, generous, sympathetic, modest and straightforward (Mhlanga, 2019).

Conscientiousness is a dimension of the five-factor model of personality that focuses on one's orientation and persistence of behavior, and can depict one's control over their impulses. This dimension consists of dynamic, control, and inhibition components of behavior and personality. Conscientiousness may be described as the degree to which a person effectively and efficiently plans, organizes, implements, and executes tasks. This factor is often associated with the order, commitment, responsibility, perseverance, diligence, carefulness, discretion and dependability (Clifton, 2014).Mhlanga (2019) argues that conscientious people are hardworking and achievement oriented and persevere in their endeavours.

Extraversion refers to the tendency to be assertive and to seek social interaction as well as to experience positive emotion (Curtis et al., 2015; Metzer et. al., 2014; Parks-Leduc et. al., 2015). Thus, people who possess a high level of extraversion are predisposed to have both positive emotions and cognition. They are often assumed more optimistic about the future, less susceptible to distraction, and less affected by competition than introverted people (Moshoeu, 2017). Notably, people with high extraversion are characterised by a high need for social contact and attention (Fischer & Boer, 2014).

Openness to experience - typical behavioral tendencies associated with openness to experience, embody people who have an active imagination, attentiveness to inner feelings and intellectual curiosity as opposed to being concrete-minded and narrow thinking (eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014). People who are open to new experiences are flexible, creative, and intellectually oriented; they actively pursue novelty and cognitively stimulating experiences. Openness to experience characteries someone who is open to novel experiences and ideas and who is imaginative, innovative and reflective. It describes the breadth, depth, originality and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life (Mhlanga, 2019). Openness to experience is correlated to being broad-minded, imaginative, sensitive, intelligent, creative,curious, cultured and original (Said, 2013).

Neuroticism is one of those traits that can be labelled as a 'dark' or 'contrary feelings personality trait. It is a propensity towards emotional instability including experiencing

fear, worry, insecurity, moodiness, anger, anxiety, hostility, depression, impulsiveness, melancholy and apprehension (Curtis et al., 2015; Fischer & Boer, 2014; Mhlanga, 2019). It reflects the capacity of an individual to adjust their emotional state to the demands of the situation and being able to remain calm and balanced when faced with adversities and stressful situations (Amir et. al., 2014).

4.4.2.2 **Validity**

Moshoeu (2017) defines validity as the degree to which the specific concepts and research conclusions accurately reflect the intended design. Validity generalisation is the use of meta-analytic techniques to explore the generalisability of the correlation between test scores (such as personality) and the outcome variables (such as trust) (Banks & McDaniel, 2014; Van Aarde, 2016).

Various research studies on the big five instruments indicated that the big five factors are stable and valid. The fact that the same five factors have consistently been identified through exploratory factor analysis as comprehensive measures of personality indicates that the big five can be used as a reliable theory of personality assessment. The validity of the instrument has been confirmed by results from research conducted within a multicultural and multilingual environment such as South Africa which makes it appropriate and relevant for use in this study (Martins, 2000; Martins and Von der Ohe, 2002; Von der Ohe et al.,2004). The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be highly satisfactory with alpha coefficients ranging between 0.82 and 0.94 for the various dimensions (Martins, 2000). In addition, 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 performed to determine whether a set of observed data corresponds to some theoretical distribution (Von der Ohe, 2004). A GFI with a value of close to 0.90 reflects a good fit, and AGFI with a value of 0.90 reflects a good model fit and a PGFI varies between 0 (no fit) and 1 (perfect fit). It could therefore be deduced that a good model fit was established (Martins, 2000).

4.4.2.3 **Reliability**

Reliability is defined as the degree to which the research findings are repeatable and consistent, which applies to both the subjects' scores on the measures and the outcomes of the study as a whole (Moshoeu, 2017). In this research, internal consistencies were measured using Cronbach's alpha. Internal consistency is the extent to which a scale can produce the same results when employed in different settings (Omrawo, 2015) and is based on the correlations between different items on the same scale. Cronbach's alpha is useful for determining the strength of a correlation as well as the direction of the correlation. Scales were considered reliable if their cronbach's alpha were at least .70 (Omrawo, 2015).

Moshoeu (2017) and Martins (2000) reported high satisfactory reliability alpha coefficients that range between .87 and .95 for the big five personality aspects.Similar findings were evident in the study of Von der Ohe et al. (2004) with alpha coefficients ranging between .82 and .95 for five-factor personality traits. The high reliability coefficient is consistent with an acceptable level of .70 (Moshoeu (2017).Therefore, suffice it to conclude that the five-factor model of personality has promising psychometric properties.

4.4.2.4 **Validity of the Five-Factor Model (FFM)**

The five-factor model (FFM) is a dimensional model of general personality structure, consisting of the domains of neuroticism (or emotional instability), extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (or constraint). The FFM is arguably the most commonly researched dimensional model of general personality structure. The five-factor model (FFM) is the predominant model for describing persons' characteristic way of thinking, feeling, and relating to others (Bagby, & Widiger, 2018).

The FFM has several characteristics that make it a very helpful model: (1) it integrates terminology from diverse theoretical frameworks which facilitate communication between researchers, (2) it makes it easier to explore the relationship between personality and other phenomena, and (3) it is an efficient model that provides a simple outline of general personality structure (Inchausti et al., 2015).The five-factor model (FFM) is a reasonably well validated dimensional model of general personality structure (Rojas, & Widiger, 2014). The FFM has accumulated compelling empirical

support, including cross-cultural generalizability, temporal stability across the lifespan and childhood antecedents. Empirical support for the convergent and discriminant validity of the FFM as a self-report measure has been provided by Rojas & Widiger (2014) and for its factor structure by Samuel et al. (2013).A model-fit exercise by Guenole and Chernychenko (2005) produced fit indices that represent excellent fit (i.e. global fit index = 0.97, non-normed fit index = 0.94 and comparative fit index = 0.96) confirming the five-factor structure of the instrument (Louw, 2014).

4.4.2.5 **Rationale for inclusion**

The big five personality dimensions have received considerable support for their cross cultural applicability worldwide.The methodologies used in studies on the big five personality factors often involve a comparison of the personality factor structure of the instrument in one culture to that of another culture.This is to determine the structural equivalence of the instrument across cultures (Grobler, 2014). It is considered relevant to the study based on the validity and reliability achieved in various previous studies and provides a platform to further validate the instrument in a multicultural and linguistic environment (Moshoeu, 2017). The big five model is a framework that provides a valid, robust and comprehensive way of representing fundamental personality differences between individuals (Morallane, 2017).Applied research on the big five far outpaces that on other models of trait structure,with hundreds of works being published in each of the past several years. Evidence is accumulating that suggests that virtually all personality measures can be reduced or categorised under the umbrella of a five-factor model of personality, which has subsequently been labelled the big five(Morallane, 2017).

4.5 **PROCEDURE FOR DATA GATHERING**

As mentioned above, the selected target group received an email with the link to an online questionnaire posted on a survey company's website. Instructions on how to complete and submit the questionnaire were explained on the opening page of the webpage. The purpose and intent of the research were explained to the participants in the email and possible anticipated questions were included. Respondents were also informed and assured of the confidentiality of their responses. Respondents 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 period of two months was allowed for participation to ensure adequate participation. 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 section.

4.6 **ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

Babbie (2013) defines ethics in research as the accepted standard of moral principle needed to guide how the researcher conducts the study. Bromley et al. (2015) define ethics as a "set of moral principles binding research procedures that comply to professional, lawful and social duties towards research participants" (p. 2). Hence, the processes adopted in this research adhered to ethical standards. De Vos et al. (2011) highlight the ethical parameters of honesty, objectivity, integrity, confidentiality and responsible publication.These parameters, as outlined by the authors, were adhered to in order to conform to ethical principles and ensure the integrity of the research. Permission to carry out the research was obtained, from the participating organisation and the research ethics of the College of Economic and Management Sciences committee. Where classical and recent sources of information were used; authors of all sources were acknowledged and cited. This ensured that the respect for intellectual property was exercised. Participants were apprised about the purpose of the study, what information was required from them, the benefits of their participation and the potential harm they may encounter during the course of data collection. After informing the participants, they gave their consent. The assurance of confidentiality was provided, and respondents' responses were kept completely confidential.

4.7 **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:

4.7.1 **Descriptive Statistics**

In all studies, descriptive statistics are reported to give the reader an idea of the composition of the dataset. This reporting of vital basic background information is

critical for later inclusion in meta-analytical studies and for the possible replication and re-analysis of data to ensure the correctness of interpretation and procedure (Von der Ohe, 2014). Means, standard deviations, cronbach's alpha coefficients and correlations among study variables were reported as part of Phase 1 of the results in Chapter 5. The following descriptive statistical methods were used in this study:

- The mean is the most widely used measure of central tendency and is defined as the summary of values divided by their number. The mean provides an arithmetic average on a set of values and the intended mean is used to compute the score averages that are obtained in the different dimensions of the instrument (Moshoeu, 2017). The formula to calculate the mean is:

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{n}$$

Mean is the most common measure of central tendency and refers to the average value of a group of numbers. Add up all the figures, divide by the number of values, and that is the average or mean. It is calculated from the formula ΣX / N. [The sum of all the scores in the distribution (ΣX) divided by the total number of scores (N)]. If you subtract each value in the distribution from the mean and then sum all of these deviation scores, the result will be zero (Sykes et al.,2016).

Standard deviation provides insight into how much variation there is within a group of values. It measures the deviation (difference) from the group's mean (average).The standard deviation (s or σ) is the positive square root of the variance. The variance is a measure in squared units and has little meaning concerning the data. Thus, the standard deviation is a measure of variability expressed in the same units as the data.The standard deviation is very much like a mean or an average of these deviations. In a normal (symmetric and mound-shaped) distribution, about two-thirds of the scores fall between +1 and -1 standard deviation from the mean, and the standard deviation is approximately 1/4 of the range in small samples (N< 30) and 1/5 to 1/6 of the range in large samples (N> 100 (Sykes et al., 2016). The standard deviation is perceived as the square root of the variance that measures the average of the deviations of each score from the mean and measures the average distance of

all the scores in the distribution from the mean or central point of the distribution (Cooper & Schindler, 2014;Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002).

4.7.2 **Inferential Statistics**

Inferential statistics are used to reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone i.e. to make inferences from the data obtained to more general conditions (Van der Berg, 2011).

4.7.2.1 Reliability of instruments

The reliability of the instruments is determined by the computation of the cronbach alpha and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be highly satisfied 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). According to Van der Berg (2011), the Cronbach alpha measure estimates the reliability based on the number of the items in the test and the average inter-correlation among test items. Although the construct validity of the managerial practices and trust relationship dimensions of the organisational trust questionnaire was accepted,the cronbach alphas were computed again to confirm these internal consistency estimates.

The cronbach alpha coefficient reflects the homogeneity of the scale as a reflection of how well the different items complement each other in their measurement of different aspects of the same variables. It gives an index that shows that all the items measure the same attributes. By convention, a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is widely accepted, implying that the higher the coefficient, the more reliable the instrument is. Moshoeu (2017) indicates that inter-item correlations of above .70 are considered acceptable, and as a result, they were used to determine the internal reliability of the instruments in this study.

4.7.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is a particular form of factor analysis that, instead of being driven entirely by the data, allows the researcher to impose a prior factor model on the data to determine the model’s capacity to account for the participant responses to the variables (Brown, 2016). A confirmatory factor analysis consists of observed variables

that are hypothesised to measure one or more latent variables (independent and/or dependent). Confirmatory factor analysis plays a crucial role in SEM, as it may be used to confirm that the indicators sort themselves into factors corresponding to how the researcher has linked the indicators to the latent variable. It is used to evaluate the role of measurement error in the model, validate a multifactorial model, and determine group effects on the factors (Mitonga-Monga, 2015).

4.7.2.3 Multiple regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is one of the most commonly used multivariate statistical techniques and is used to build models for predicting scores on one variable (trust as dependent variable) from several other variables (Big Five personality dimensions as independent variables) (Moshoeu, 2017). The overall objective of the multiple regression analysis is to predict the influence of a set of independent variables on the dependent variable.

In this instance, the r-squared ($\mathbf{R^2}$) values aim to indicate how well a set of independent variables explains the dependent variable and it measures the direction and size of the effect of each variable on a dependent variable.Multiple regression analysis involves several sets of variables on each side of the continuum whereby the variables are combined into a predictive value that produces the highest level of correlation between the predicted values and the single variable (Moshoeu, 2017).There are no agreed-upon standards for interpreting the magnitude of effect sizes. However, Cohen's (1977, 1988, 1992) original guidelines that d = 0.20 is a small, d = 0.50 is a medium, and d = 0.80 is a large effect size is still widely cited and used for interpreting magnitudes of effect. When reporting effect size, the following needs to be included:

- Type of effect size;
- Value or magnitude of the effect size;
- Interpretation of the effect size; and
- The practical significance of the effect size (Steyn, 2014).

Cohen's *d*-values were also calculated to determine any practical differences between the means of different groups. According to Ellis and Steyn (2003), d-values can be interpreted as follows:

- d ≈ 0.2 – Small effect; no practically significant difference
- d ≈ 0.5 – Medium effect; the practically visible difference
- d ≈ 0.8 – Large effect; practically significant difference

4.7.2.4 Correlation Coefficient

Correlation describes the degree of relationship between two variables and 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:

$$r = \frac{n(\Sigma xy) - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[\, n\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2 \,][\, n\Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2 \,]}}$$

Correlation refers to the association between variables, particularly where they move together. A positive correlation means that as one variable rises or falls, the other does so as well (e.g. caloric intake and weight). A negative correlation indicates that two variables move in opposite directions (e.g. vehicle speed and travel time) (Sykes et al., 2016). The pearson product-moment correlation coefficient measures the degree of a 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 0.0 indicates no relationship, and a correlation of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative relationship between variables. When r=0.00, then no linear relationship exists between the two variables (Van der Berg 2011). Taken as a rule of thumb, the following scales are used for interpreting the correlations (Van der Berg, 2011):

- 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

In the context of this study, correlation analysis was computed to determine whether or not personality traits and their dimensions (agreeableness, extraversion,conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism) as a composite set of independent latent variables were significantly and positively related to organisational trust(dependent latent variable). It was considered appropriate and useful to further test the association between two variables, as the technique aims to discover and ascertain the strength of the association between the variables under investigation (Cohen et al., 2013; Moshoeu, 2017).

4.7.2.5 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis, also known as cluster analysis, are mostly used to empirically examine whether a certain biographical group of variables that influence the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In the context of this study, hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used empirically to determine whether the various biographical variables (gender, age, race, home language, position and years of service) significantly moderated the relationship between the independent personality traits dimensions and the dependent organisational trust.The procedure for the computation of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis often involves at least three or four steps (Hair et al., 2010; Moshoeu, 2017).

In this instance, three steps of hierarchical moderated regression analysis were applied with the moderator regression analysis being entered in step 1 while the independent and dependent variables are entered in step 2 and the interaction effects are entered in step 3. That is, the moderating effect occurs when the level of the third variable (gender, race, age, language, and job levels) influences or affects the relationship between the personality traits as independent variables and trust as dependent variables. Since the interactions were categorical by continuous interaction, each interaction was evaluated based on the unstandardized regression coefficient (Aiken & West, 1991; Moshoeu, 2017).

4.8 **STATISTICAL HYPOTHESES**

According to Brewerton and Millward (2001) 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 organisational trust

Hypothesis 2: The biographical variables (gender, age, language, race, position and years of service) do not significantly moderate the relationship among the independent construct big five personality dimensions and the dependent construct organisational trust.

Hypothesis 3: The big five personality dimensions conceptualised as openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness positively and significantly predict organisational trust conceptualised as credibility, trust relationship,team management, information sharing, work support and interpersonal trust.

4.9 **CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In Chapter 4, the research methodology was discussed, describing the empirical research, research design as well as the target population, sampling strategy,measuring instruments, data processing and hypotheses formulation. Concerning measuring instruments, special attention was given to the rationale 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. An interpretation of raw and converted data was provided with the focus on confirmatory factor analysis. Specific hypotheses were formulated to test the dependent relationships of the empirical data. The next chapter presents the empirical findings and the interpretation of the results obtained from the data analysis.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

In the previous chapter, the methods, techniques, and procedures to be followed to obtain quantitative data were discussed. The aim of Chapter 5 is to present and discuss the results of various analysis that were performed to test the hypotheses that were set for the research. The chapter provides a discussion on the statistical analysis and data gathering process as well as the framework of data analysis together with the tabulation.The results of the empirical research will be presented in tables and graphs.Descriptive as well as inferential statistics were applied to do the interpretation. This chapter commences with descriptive statistics, followed by inferential techniques and concludes with a brief overview of the research results and summary chapter.

5.1 **DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

Descriptive statistical analysis refers to the use of statistical techniques to summarise random variables obtained from a sample (Deas, 2017). Descriptive statistics involve organising and summarising data obtained from populations or samples (Holcomb, 2016). The objective of descriptive statistics is to summarise and present data in a significant manner (Nestor & Schutt, 2014). This research study applied descriptive statistics in order to explain those aspects of the data which related to the research constructs, namely organisational trust and personality dimensions. The descriptive statistics provide an overview of the study and the sample will be presented and illustrated through tables and graphs.

5.1.1 **Biographical profile of the sample**

The following section describes the demographics of the participants. The biographical characteristics of participants are categorised according to the following control variables: age, gender, language, job levels, years of experience and race (e.g. African, Indian, Coloured, and White). These categories of variables are included in the current study based on their influential position on the variables under observation. An overview of the profile of the realised survey participants is reflected below. Illustrations in the form of graphs and discussions will follow**.**

5.1.1.1 Composition of participants by gender

Figure 5.1

Composition of participants by gender

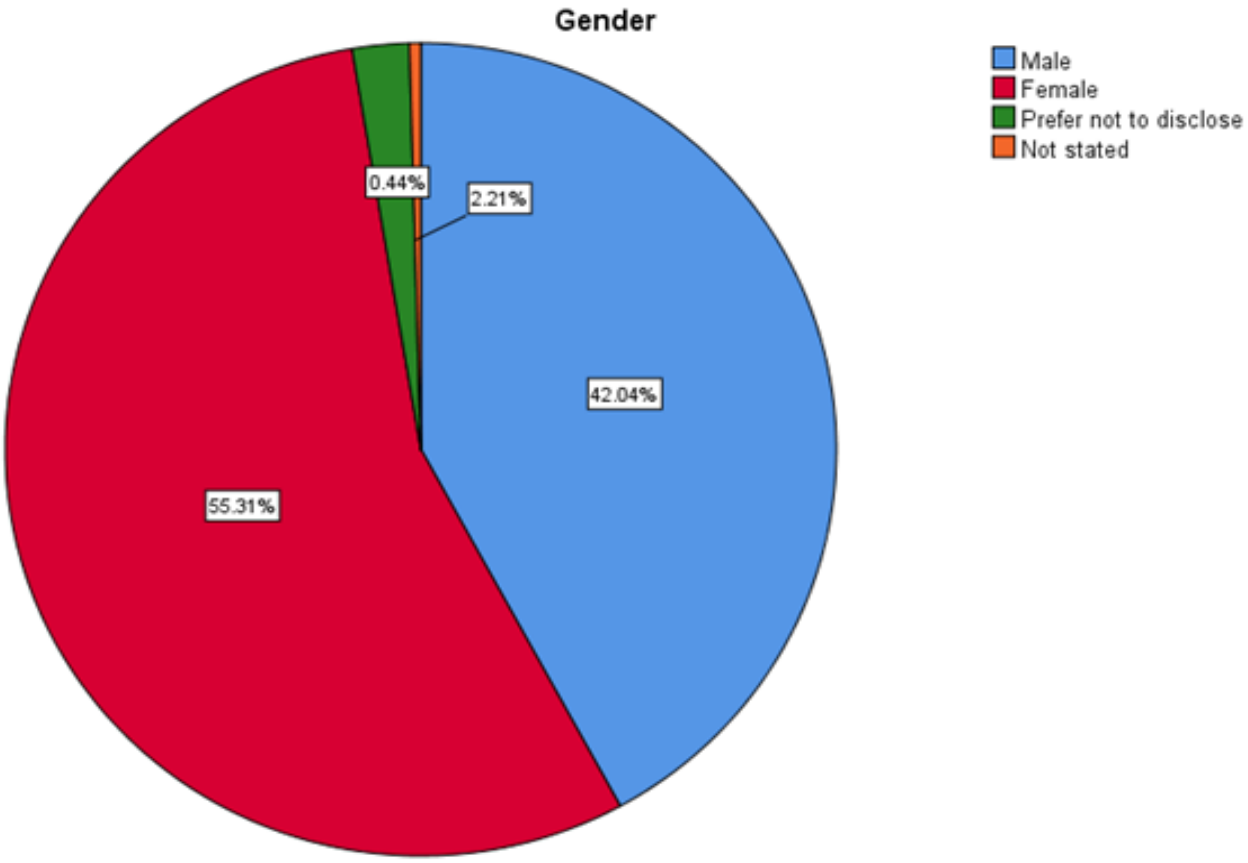
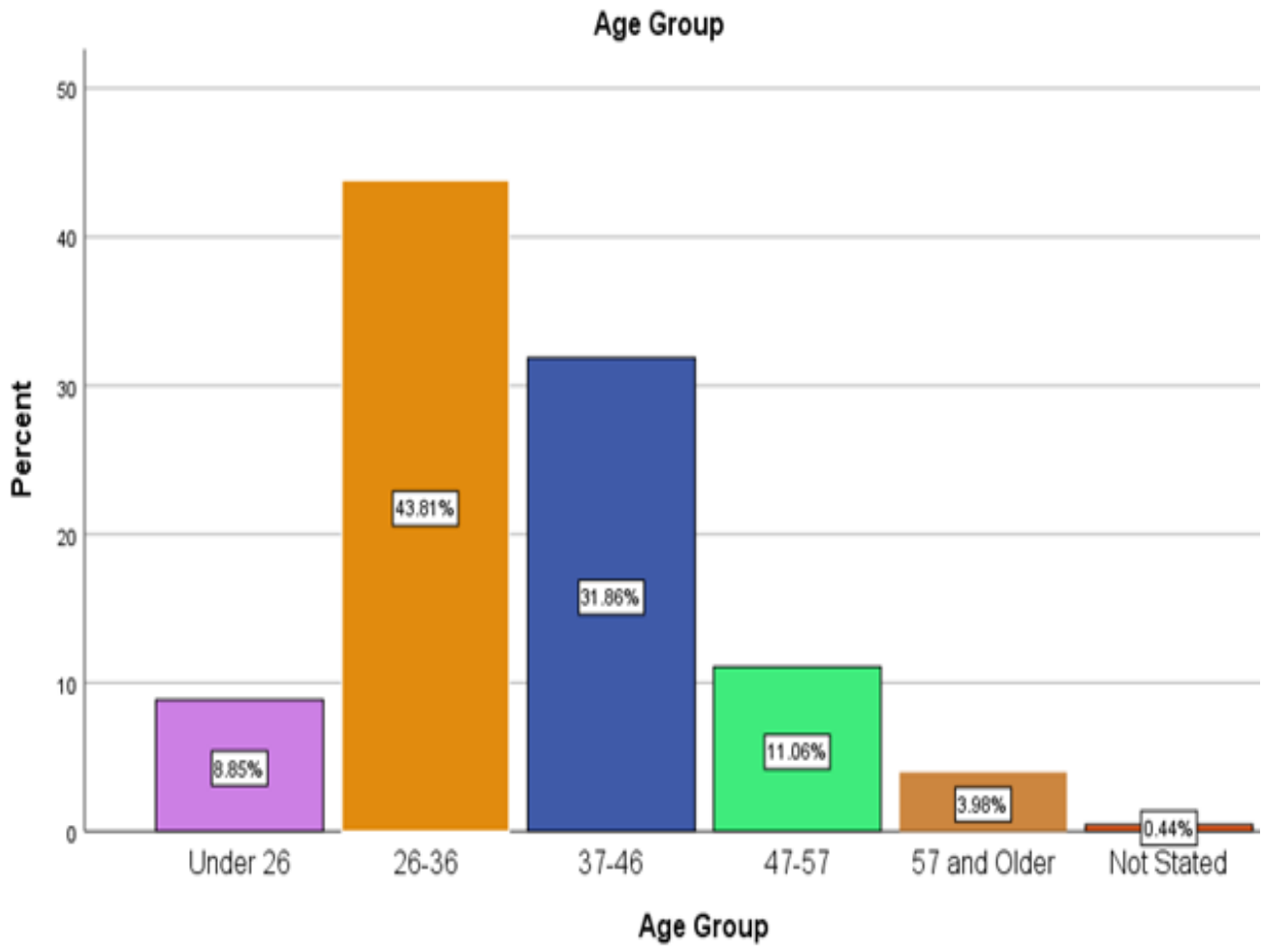


Figure 5.1 above indicates the gender composition. The sample consisted of 226 participants, with 125 females (55.3%) representing the majority of the total group followed by 95 males (42%) comprising the minority of the sample, 5 (2.2%) of the participants preferred not to disclose their gender and 1 (0.4%) participants' gender status was not stated. Overall, the figure shows that most of the participants in the survey were females.

5.1.1.2 Composition of participants by Age

Figure 5.2

Composition of participants by age



The age distribution is exemplified in Figure 5.2. In this category employees between the age of 26 to 36 years (N=99) represents the largest proportion, 43.8% of the sample, followed by the age group 37 to 46 years (N=72) representing 31.8% of the sample. Employees between the ages of 47 to 56 years (N=25) comprise 11.0% of the total sample, followed by 20 participants (8.8%) under 26 years of age. The smallest proportion (3.9%) represents employees 57 years and older (N=9). One of the participants (0.4%) did not indicate their age group. From this analysis, it can be concluded that survey participants consist of a relatively young generation who may positively influence the survey results and this relatively young generation are females because *Figure 5.1* showed that most of the participants in the survey were females.

5.1.1.3 Composition of participants by race

Figure 5.3

Composition of participants by race

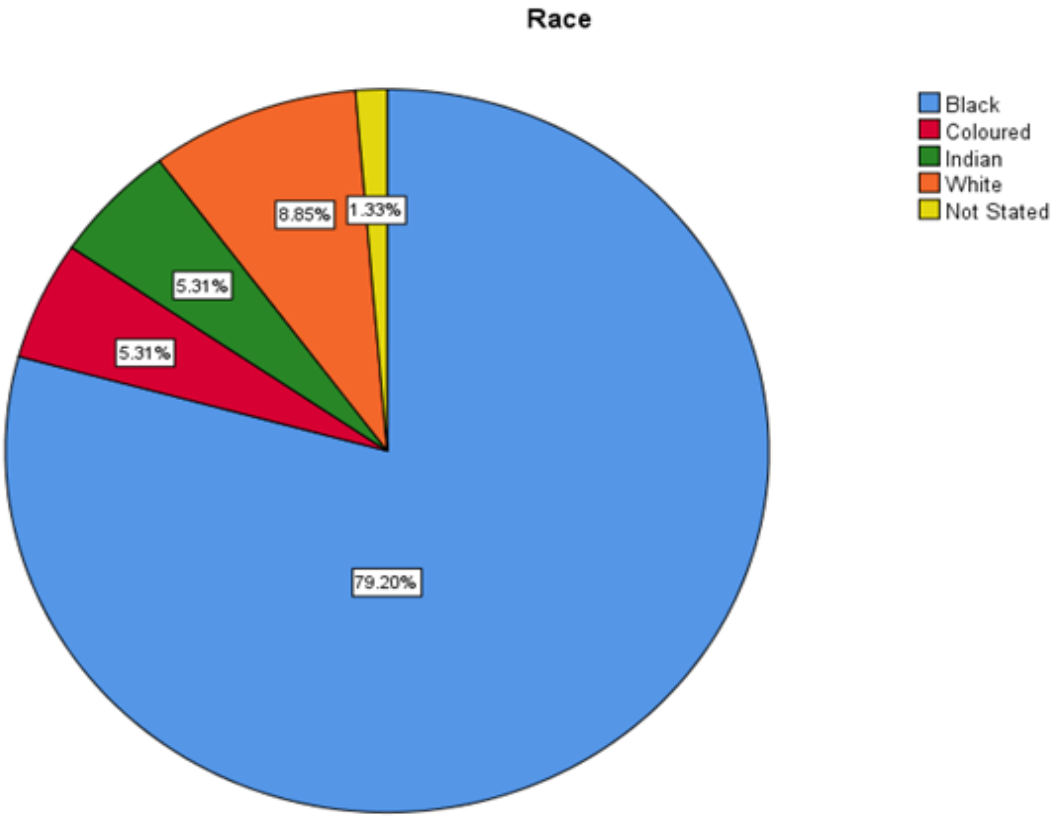


Figure 5.3 depicts the ethnic distribution of the sample. All four ethnic groups representing the South Africa social composition are included in the sample, although not in even numbers. The black group consists of 179 participants, representing 79.2% of the total sample, followed by the 20 Whites (8.8%) representing the second largest group. The Indian group (12 employees) and coloured group (12 in total) represented 5.3% of the sample representing the smallest proportion (5.3%) of the sample. Three of the respondents (1.3%) did not indicate their ethnicity in answering the questions. Overall, the figure shows that a majority of participants in the survey are blacks.

5.1.1.4 Composition of participants by years of service

Figure 5.4

Composition of participants by years of service

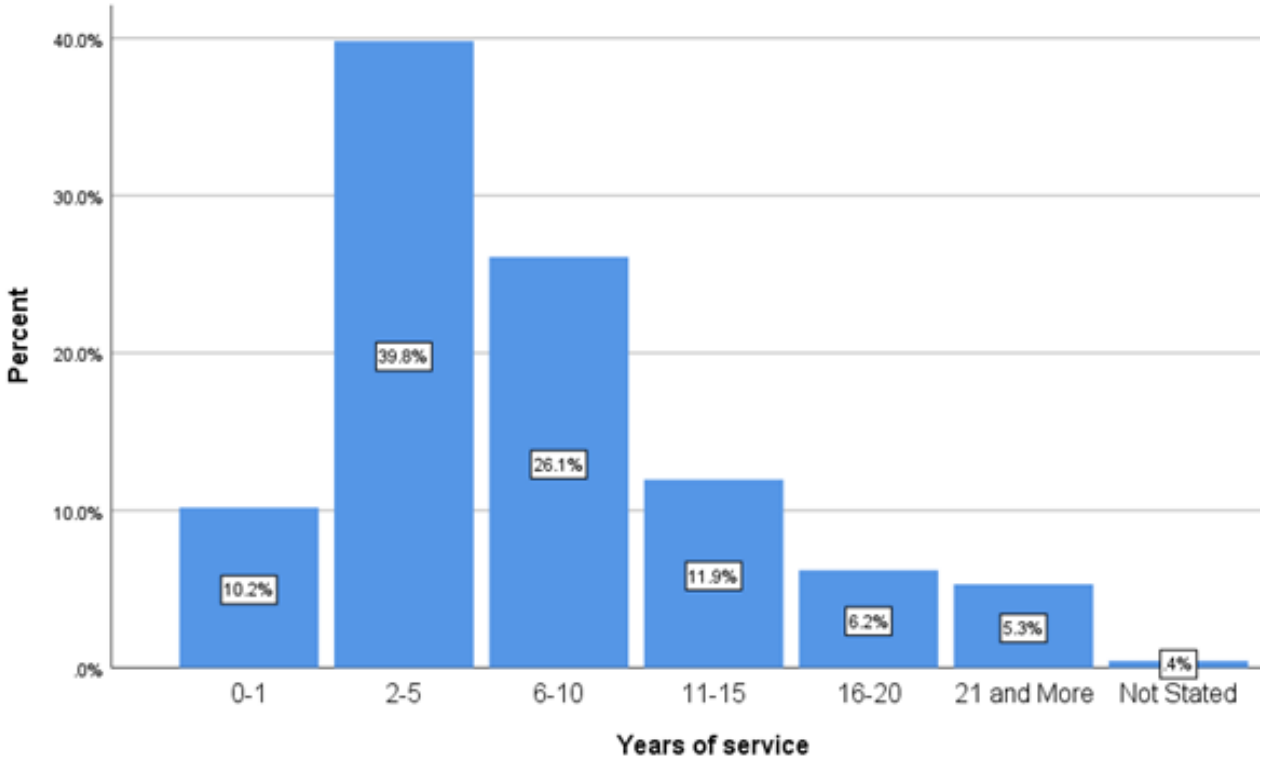


Figure 5.4 above indicates the years of service distribution of the participants in the sample. The tenure of the respondents was measured according to categories, ranging from 0 to 1 year and below to over 21 years and more. Participants with 0 to 1-year service in the survey constituted 10.2%; those between 2 to 5 years 39.8%; those with 6 to 10 years 26.1%; those with 11 to 15 years 11.9 %; those with 16 to 20 years 6.2%; those with 21 and more years 5.3%; while 0.4% of the respondents chose not to indicate their years of experience in the sample (n=226). From the above figure, it can be deduced that the majority of the participants in the survey (39.8%) are participants who have 2-5 years of experience.

5.1.1.5 Composition of participants by home language

Figure 5.5

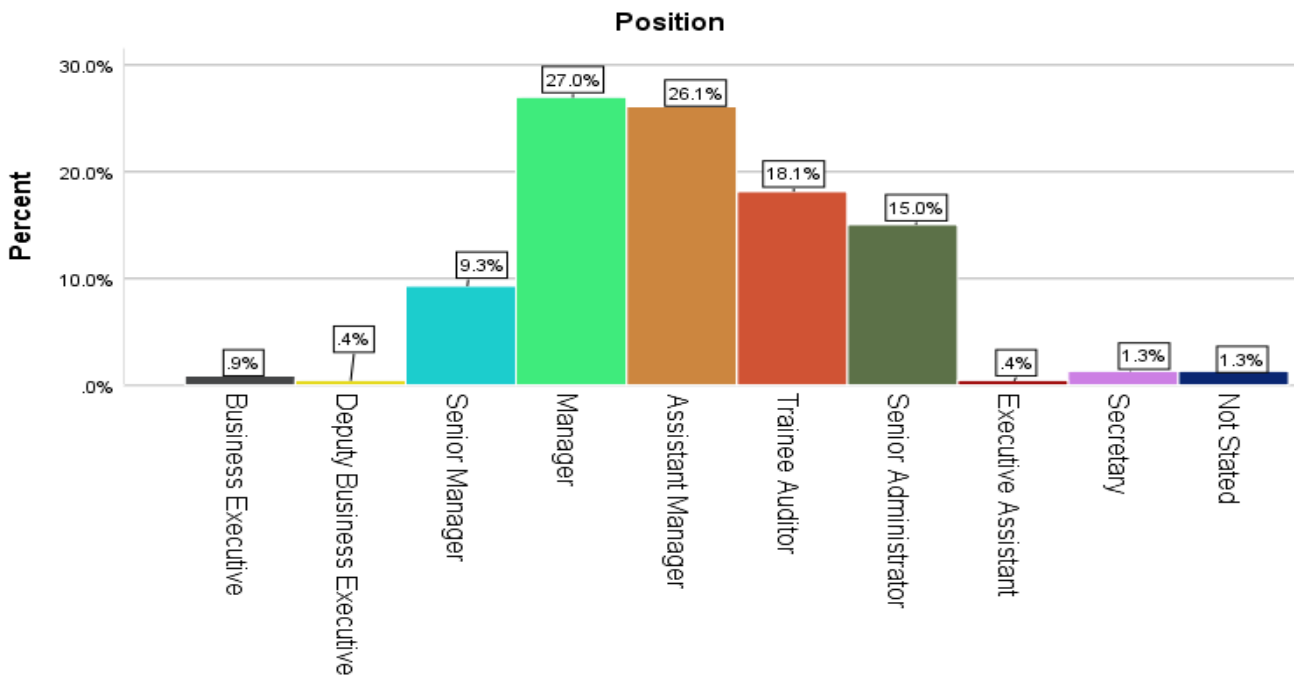
Composition of participants by home language

The potential contribution of the current study is its representativeness of all official languages in the South African context with a large sample size that was available for each of the eleven official language groups.Figure 5.5 shows that Sepedi is the most commonly spoken language (16.8%) in the survey, followed by Setswana and English (15.0%) and the third most spoken language in the survey is Zulu (13.7%) followed by Xhosa (9.7%) while Ndebele is the least commonly spoken language (1.3%). Afrikaans is spoken by 7.5% of the participants in the survey. Based on the information in Figure 5.5 it can be concluded that this is a true reflection that the overall participants in the survey are blacks, females from actively young generation (2-5 years' experience) and speaks African language that is Sepedi (16.8%).

5.3.1.6 Distribution of functional job level of participants

Figure 5.6

Composition of participants by position



As seen in figure 5.6, less than a quarter of the participants in the study indicated they were in the top management level, with an overall percentage of 37.6% at the managerial level, Business Executive (0.9%), Deputy Business Executive (0,4%), and Senior Managers (9.3%) and 27.0% (Managers). A high proportion of the participants indicated their functional job levels as lower-level employees (60.9%) and three respondents (1.3%) chose not to indicate their positions. Added together, functional job level employees, which are Assistant Managers, Trainee Auditors, Senior Administrators, Executive Assistants, and Secretaries, accounted for approximately 60.9% of the survey population.

5.2 **CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (CFA)**

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a method of testing how well the measured variables represent a smaller number of constructs (Hair et al., 2014). In other words, the CFA method provides information on how well the prior theoretical measurement of the factors matched the reality (actual data). In statistics, CFA is a special form of factor analysis, most commonly used in social research. It is used to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct or factor (Naeem, 2021). The objective of CFA is to test whether the data fits a hypothesised measurement model. This hypothesised model is based on theory or previous analytic research (Hair et al. 2014).

Confirmatory factor analysis is the statistical technique used to accept or reject a measurement theory by measuring the representation of each variable on the number of constructs in a structural model (Wong & Carlbäck, 2018). Merging the characteristics of both analysis techniques, confirmatory factor analysis enables researchers to estimate in a single analysis the multiple and interrelated relationship between measured variables and latent constructs in a complex path model.

In CFA, the researcher first develops a hypothesis about what factors he or she believes underlie the measures used. The researcher may impose constraints on the model based on these a priori hypotheses. By imposing these constraints, the researcher is forcing the model to be consistent with his or her theory (Naeem,2021). If the constraints the researcher has imposed on the model are inconsistent with the sample data, then the results of statistical tests of the model fit will indicate a poor fit,

and the model will be rejected. If the fit is poor, it may be because some items measure multiple factors (Naeem, 2021). It might also be that some items within a factor are more related to each other than others (Creswell, 2017).

A path diagram was created with the latent variables (the theorized factors), observed variables (the question from the questionnaire) and the factor loadings that represent each hypothesis. Due to some insignificant direct effects of the factor loading, indicating no linear relationship from one factor to another, a refined model was constructed (Wong & Carlbäck, 2018). Confirmatory factor analysis is a more complex and sophisticated set of techniques used to assess specific hypotheses or theories concerning the structure underlying a set of variables. The research statistically tests the hypotheses by utilising theoretical knowledge, experiential research, or a combination of the two (Van der Hoven, 2016).

The goal of CFA is its utilisation to assess the factor structure of a set of manifested variables by confirming whether the observed data correlate with the latent variables according to the form defined in the measurement model. The CFA produces a sequence of fit indices that indicate how close the measurement model, with its parameter estimates, fits the data collected (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013; Van der Hoven, 2016). Subsequently, Hair et al. (2010) propose several criteria for significant factor loadings that "factor loadings greater than ± .30 are considered to meet the minimal level; loadings of ± .40 are considered more important; and if the loadings are ± .50 or greater, they are considered practically significant. Considering Hair et al. (2010) recommendation, the factor loadings in the correlation matrix were set at a cut off point of ± .50. This would imply that factorability of .50 indicates that the factors account for an approximately 50% relationship within the data (Williams et al., 2010).

However, the loading less than .30 or fewer magnitudes should be discarded, as it does not meet the minimum level of practical significance (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Ho, 2006). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) before CFA can be employed a few activities need to be completed; the continuous categorical data must be identified; data must be normalised; the problem of missing data must be solved; the size of the sample must be adequate; item validation needs to be executed, and the theoretical model must be taken into account. In this case, the researcher performed all the

activities that needed to be employed before CFA can be completed. Data collected was checked for consistency before entered into SPSS AMOS for analysis

Sorting was done to eliminate incomplete and shoddy answered forms. Coding was done for individual forms to avoid double entry and tracking. Data entry into SPSS was done manually according to the design of the design data structure. After the entry, cleaning was done to eliminate missing data and data entered incorrectly were corrected to ensure reliability and consistency (Sekyere, 2015). Missing data were estimated using the expectation-maximisation method for maximum likelihood estimation in the AMOS version 27 package. After the initial screening in the SPSS, it was found that all missing data for both samples were distributed randomly and were below the 5% threshold (Schumacher & Lomax, 2004). The normality of the variables was initially evaluated based on the skewness of their distribution. When the ratio of the skewness and the standard error for skewness exceeded 3, the variable was considered to deviate from normality. The skewness and kurtosis were within this range and therefore deemed acceptable to proceed with the analysis.

Adequacy of sample size should be ascertained based on the data analysis that was conducted in this study. Various researchers have recommended several suggestions on the minimum sample size needed for CFA. To perform CFA analysis, it is recommended, an optimal sample is between 100 and 200" for it to be considered adequate and satisfactory (Ooi, 2013). Since the number of participants who responded to the survey for this study (N=226) falls within the acceptable range, it is concluded that the sample size is therefore considered to be adequate. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) plays an important role 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).The four stages that are important for conducting CFA (Hair et al. 2014) and which were followed in this study are the following:

Stage 1*: Defining Individual Constructs*

Stage 2*: Developing the Overall Measurement Model*

***Stage 3**: Designing a Study to Produce Empirical Results*
***Stage 4**: Assessing the Measurement Model Validity*

All the above four stages of confirmatory factor analysis were applied. In stage 1, the researcher listed constructs that comprised the measurement model and determined whether existing scales/constructs were available or could be modified to test the measurement model.

Stage 1: Defining the individual constructs. This initial stage of CFA involves using the most relevant available theory, research and information to construct a theoretical model (Hair et al. 2018; Tarka, 2017). If existing scales/constructs are not available, the researcher then developed new scales and did a pre- test to purify measures before confirmatory testing. This first step involves the procedure that defines constructs theoretically. All constructs must display adequate construct validity, whether they are new scales or scales taken from previous research. Even previously, established scales were carefully checked for contentvalidity. Content validity should be of primary importance and judged both qualitatively (e.g., expert's opinions) and empirically (e.g., unidimensional and convergent validity.In chapters two, three and four of this study, both the theoretical model of the organisational trust and personality dimensions were discussed based on the literature survey.

Stage 2: Developing the Overall Measurement Model. In this phase of CFA, it is essential to specify the relationships between the relevant variables that describe the phenomenon of study. The measurement model (which is CFA) is represented by a path diagram. CFA involves using multivariate techniques to test or confirm a pre-specified relationship (Hair et al. 2014). The fundamental hypothesis of CFA is that the covariance matrix of the observed or manifest variables is a function of a set of parameters which, in the current study, meant the relationship between latent variables and between the latent and the observed variables (Tarka, 2017). It is at this stage that the researcher will use CFA graphs with one-headed arrows indicating causal relationships or two-headed arched arrows indicating mutual dependencies (correlations) (Tarka, 2017).The inclusion of unimportant factors or the exclusion of important factors will produce implied models that are mis-specified. Because a mis-

specified model cannot adequately reproduce the observed covariance, it will not fit the data (Hair et al. 2018).

In Stage 2, the researcher developed a three-factor model using a diagram and diagram commonly has certain standard elements: latents are ellipses, indicators are rectangles, error and residual terms are circles, single-headed arrows are causal relations (note causality goes from a latent to its indicators), and double-headed arrows are correlations between indicators or between exogenous latent. Path coefficient values may be placed on the arrows from latent to indicators, or from one latent to another, or from an error term to an indicator, or from a residual term to a latent. Each endogenous variable has an error term, sometimes called a disturbance term or residual error, not to be confused with indicator error, e, associated with each indicator variable. In standard CFA applications testing a measurement theory, within and between error covariance terms should be fixed at zero and not estimated.

In standard CFA applications testing a measurement theory, all measured variables should be free to load only on one construct. Latent constructs should be indicated by at least three measured variables, preferably four or more. In other words, latent factors should be statistically identified. In the current study, the researcher worked on each sample separately to generate a model that best fits each sample.

Stage 3: Designing a study to produce empirical results. Before assessing the measurement model fit, some issues related to the research design, such as sample size, estimation technique and the computer programme are carefully addressed. Sample size requirements in CFA have been discussed in the section dedicated to the target population and the sampling methods. Estimation technique refers to the mathematical foundation of the estimates for each free parameter (Hair et al. 2018). The software utilised for conducting the CFA is the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 22, which is a module of IBM SPSS 22. This choice was mainly motivated by the graphical interface provided by AMOS 22.

The research study was designed and executed to collect the necessary data for testing the measurement model. In this stage, the researcher's measurement theory was tested. It should be noted that an initial data analysis procedure was performed

to identify any problems in the data, including issues such as data input errors. Specifically, sample size and model specification was considered, which allowed for the identification of the model. In this stage, the researcher must make some key decisions on designing the CFA model.

The software computed a solution for the specified model, which was used to assess the validity of the measurement model. A latent construct does not have a metric scale, as it has no range of values. To set the scale for each latent construct, the first factor loading on each construct was set to a specific value, namely 1.0, which is the typical value used by most researchers. This is also the value used by most software programs. The AMOS software used to perform the CFA for this study automatically assigns a fixed value (preferably one) to one-factor loading per construct. In running the initial CFA procedure in AMOS, the output was inspected to ensure that the correct loadings were fixed and that not more than one loading per construct was fixed. No abnormalities were found, and no additional constraints were placed on the CFA model. (Van Schalkwyk, 2018).

Stage 4: Assessing measurement model validity and fit. The CFA (measurement model) enables the researcher to establish the construct validity as discussed in previous sections. More importantly, this stage evaluates how well the model fits the data. Several fit indices are utilised to validate the model fit in CFA. In the fourth and final stage, the researcher evaluates the measurement model of a scale to determine the degree to which the data collected supports the theorised model. When the covariance matrix implied by the model is equal to the covariance matrix of the data collected, the model is said to fit (Hendrikz, 2017).

To assess the measurement model in CFA, the researcher first considered the measurement model fit and then evaluated the validity of the measurement model.When establishing how well a model fits the data, the chi-square test statistic is examined to determine goodness-of-fit by assessing the similarity between the estimated covariance matrix (theory) and the observed covariance matrix (reality) (Hair et al., 2014). To assess the psychometric properties of the scales, individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were ascertained in the present study (Kura et al., 2016).

5.2.1 **Reporting on the Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

According to Hair et al. (2014), confirmatory factor analysis is an approach to factor analysis, typically associated with structural equation modelling, that assesses the extent to which a pre-defined structure fits the data. The confirmatory factor analysis was done on the constructs:

- Big Five Personality Dimensions
- Organisational Trust Items (Managerial Practices)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using SPSS AMOS version 27.For Confirmatory Factor Analysis, the following model fit criterion was examined to test the model's fit: chi-square minimization (CMIN), chi-square minimization/degree of freedom (CMIN/DF), the goodness of fit index (GFI), root mean square residual index (RMR), and root mean squared error of approximation. In addition, the normal fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were calculated using the incremental fit index. Parsimonious goodness of fit index (PGFI) and parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI) was identified as a parsimonious fit index. Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayes information criterion (BIC), and consistent Akaike information criterion (CAIC) are used to select the best model between personality dimensions (the original instrument with 35 items) with organisational trust (44 items of which 27 items from the two factors (changes occurred and sources of information) did not meet the factor loading standard and were deleted from CFA.(So et al., 2019). Summary of the model-fit criteria and the model-fit interpretation is presented in Table 5.1 below:

Table 5.1

Model fit criterion and model fit interpretation

Model-Fit Criterion	Acceptable Level	Interpretation
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	A value close to .90 or .95 reflect a good fit
Adjusted GFI (AGFI)	0 (no fit)to 1 (perfect fit)	Value adjusted for *df,* with .90 or .95 a good model fit
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	.05 to .08	Value of .05 to .08 indicate close fit
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	A value close to .90 or .95 reflects a good model fit
Comparative Fit Index	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	A value close to .90 or .95 reflects a good model fit
Normed fit index (NFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	A value close to .90 or .95 reflects a good model fit
Chi – Square	1< $\chi 2$ /df <3	Acceptable fit

*Note.Saidi & Siew(2019)*As suggested by Hair et al. (2014), three types of fits are included in the analysis. They are: 1) Absolute fit: Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) and 2) Incremental fit: Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI); and 3) Chi-square: the relative chi-square (CMIN/DF). According to Hair et al. (2014), reporting these fit indices values usually provides sufficient information to evaluate a model. The most commonly used test to check the fitness of a model is Chi-square Fit Index. The Chi-Square Fit index calculates the extent to which the observed covariance and the calculated covariance differ from each other.

For a model to have a good fit, the Chi-Square Fit index should not be significant indicating there is no significant difference between the observed covariance matrix and the model covariance matrix (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The goodness of fit for the model was assessed using a chi-square statistic, CFI, and RMSEA.

5.2.1.1 Confirmatory factor analysis of the Personality Dimensions

The personality construct had the following five dimensions:

- Agreeableness
- Conscientiousness
- Extraversion
- Openness to experience
- Neuroticism

The CFA model for the personality dimensions was tested using AMOS 27.As the result of confirmatory factor analysis, it was found that the personality dimensions factor structure showed the good fit to the data ($\chi 2$= 0.379, df = 2, p 0.685, CFI = 1.00,

TLI = 1.02, NFI= 0.99, RFI= 0.98, IFI= 1.00 RMSEA = 0.00); eliminating the need of any modifications. All factor loadings were statistically significant, with highest loading on neuroticism (β = 0.86), followed by conscientiousness (β = 0.80), agreeableness (β = 0.78), openness to experience (β = 0.68) and with the lowest loading on extraversion (β = 0.54), respectively. Extraversion was dropped due to low factor loading.The items neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness were the ones with the highest factor loadings and contributing the most to the construct. It means the personality dimensions were measured by neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. The regression weights gave significant critical ratios, all of them with values above 24 and p-values of less than .001.

5.2.1.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of the Organisational Trust Items

The organisational trust items (managerial practices) were measured by eight factors, which are:

- Trust relationship
- Information sharing
- Work support
- Credibility
- Team management
- Sources of information
- Changes occurred
- Interpersonal trust

Initially, eight items were measuring the organisational trust dimension. The items changes occurred in the organisation (0.31) and sources of information (0.496) were dropped since the two items had low factor loadings. After eliminating the latent variables (factors) of changes that occurred and sources of information, the model fit index was greatly improved. The reduced model was greatly simplified; the number of distinct parameters to be estimated decreased from 27 to 20. Confirmatory factor analysis resulted in all the factor loadings being more than 0.60 – 0.98. According to Hair et al. (2014) standardised loading estimates should be 0.50 or higher, and ideally 0.70 or higher. Therefore, the latent variable of changes occurred in the organisation and sources of information and their observed variables are excluded from the following analysis.

As the result for confirmatory factor analysis, it was found that the organisational trust factor structure showed the good fit to the data ($\chi 2$= 1.195, df = 7, p = 0.302, CFI

=0.999, TLI = 0.998, NFI= 0.995, RFI= 0.989, IFI= 0.999 RMSEA = 0.29). All factor loadings were statistically significant, with highest loading on Credibility (β = 0.98),followed by Work Support (β = 0.93), Team Management (β = 0.93), Information Sharing (β = 0.91), Trust Relationship (β = 0.86) and Interpersonal Trust (β = 0.63),respectively.The items credibility, work support, team management, and information sharing were the ones with the highest factor loadings and contributing the most to the construct. It means the organisational trust item was measured by credibility, work support,information sharing and trust relationship. The results showed that the model is significant to the data.

5.2.1.3 Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model

The confirmatory factor analysis consisting of all constructs was done and all factor loadings were .50 to more than .90. According to Hair et al. (2014), standardised loading estimates should be .50 or higher, and ideally .70 or higher. The item extraversion was dropped since it had low factor loadings. (0.57). The summary statistics of the measurement model are shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2

Model Fit Measures for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	22.170	-	-
DF	11	-	-
CMIN/DF	2.015	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	.995	>.95	Excellent
TLI	.975	>.95	Excellent
IFI	.995	>.95	Excellent
RFI	.951	>.95	Excellent
NFI	.990	>.95	Excellent
RMSEA	<.05		Good fit
	0.05 – 0.08		Acceptable Fit

As seen in Table 5.2 above, the absolute fit index used to assess the models were chi-square value and probability value, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Normed Fit Index (NFI),Comparative Fit Index(CFI) and goodness of fit index (GFI). Looking at the overall fit indices, the value of chi-squared (χ2) was equal to 22.170 with 11 degrees of freedom and a probability value of .023, which is non- significant. As alluded by Hair et al. (2014), the Chi-square increases as the sample size increase, thus it is a mathematical function of the sample size, which makes it difficult to achieve model fit especially when large sample sizes are used. This resulted in the study using the χ2 over degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF), that is, the minimum discrepancy because it is considered as an adequate measurement.

The RMSEA was 0.06 respectively and the GFI was 0.98. In this case, the RMSEA meets the required level as they are below .08 and the GFI is above .95. The model is a good fit. The incremental fits used to assess the model were the comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). The values were 0.99, 0.99 and 0.97. All were above 0.95 indicating that the measurement model was a good fit. In this case, the measurement model showed a good overall acceptable fit.

5.3 **RELIABILITY ANALYSIS**

Reliability refers to the consistency of the measurements and results, i.e. the absence of difference if the same test was conducted again (Collis & Hussey, 2014). Reliability is important as it describes the consistency of the result over time and tests that question and factors accurately represent the total population (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The reliability was presented through the widely used Cronbach's alpha, a statistical test that measures internal consistency; the measure of how accurately the items on a test measure the same factor (Bonett & Wright, 2015). The basic formula for calculating Cronbach's alpha involves many items, or questions, (n) the variance of scores on each question (Vi), and the total variance of overall scores on the whole test (Wong & Carlbäck, 2018). The formula for Cronbach's alpha

$$\alpha = \frac{n}{n-1}\left(1 - \frac{\sum_i V_i}{V_t}\right)$$

The Cronbach's alpha (also called coefficient alpha) was calculated through SPSS version 27 and the result was compared to the measurement standard that serves as the base for evaluating the items, which in this case is the questions related to each factor. Collis and Hussey (2014) state that a Cronbach's alpha value of $1 > \alpha \geq 0.7$ will produce a reliable internal consistency of the model and its factors. Within this scale, a Cronbach's alpha value of $1 > \alpha \geq 0{,}8$ will produce very reliable results, indicating a good fit between the results and the actual reality, while a scenario of calculations resulting in $0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$ would only be deemed reliable. Any value below 0.6 would be unacceptable; leading to that the items cannot accurately measure the model and its factors (Wong & Carlbäck, 2018). Although the reliability of both questionnaires was already reported in Chapter 4, it was important to verify the reliability of these questionnaires.

Table 5.3

Selection of coefficient of alpha to observe the extent of reliability of the instrument

Cronbach Alpha	Internal Consistency
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Excellent
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Good
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Acceptable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

Note. Sharma (2016)

Table 5.3 above reveals the ranges of coefficient of alpha to observe the extent of reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003); Saidi and Siew (2019) provided the rule of thumb for assessing the Cronbach's Alpha value for a dichotomous or Likert scale instrument. Each factor is related to several items(questions) which produce a measurement of reliability (Cronbach's Alpha).

Having a value over 0.7 for each of the factors indicates that all of the items were able to accurately measure the factors (Wong & Carlbäck, 2018). For this research study, a reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher was considered as an acceptable score of internal consistency.

As can be seen in Table 5.4, seven factors (agreeableness, conscientiousness,neuroticism, openness to experience, trust relationship, credibility, and team management) had a Cronbach's Alpha value above 0.9, indicating high reliability, while three factors (work support, information sharing, and interpersonal trust) had a value over 0.7-0.8 indicating good reliability. This result implies that the questions asked to the participants were good means of measurement for each of the factors and that they could produce reliable results. The overall model had a Cronbach's alpha which amounted to 0.90 signifying both excellent reliability and that the model and its questions could appropriately measure the factors. Hence, the model served as a reliable instrument for testing the hypotheses developed in this research.

Table 5.4

Reliability Analysis Results of the Constructs

	Dimensions	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha	Acceptable Level
Personality	Agreeableness	8	0.94	Excellent
	Conscientiousness	8	0.95	Excellent
	Neuroticism	5	0.92	Excellent
	Openness to experience	7	0.92	Excellent
	Big Five Personality Dimensions	***28***	***0.93***	***Excellent***
Managerial Practices	Trust relationship	5	0.94	Excellent
	Credibility	13	0.96	Excellent
	Team Management	9	0.93	Excellent
	Work support	3	0.78	Good
	Information sharing	4	0.83	Good
	Interpersonal trust	10	0.85	Good
	Organisational Trust (Managerial Practices)	***44***	**0.88**	**Good**
	Overall Model	**72**	**0.91**	**Excellent**

This test confirms that the questionnaire was a reliable data collection tool in this research and that the data were appropriate for further analysis. It was noted that the overall internal consistency and reliability scale of the combined big five personality dimensions and organisational trust instrument was 0.91 indicating that the internal consistency of the measuring instrument was excellent and quite high. This could be an indication that some of the items are somehow redundant.The reason why reliability of the scales were included in the study for further analysis was to ensure that data are sound and replicable, and the results are accurate. Reliability also determines the value of a psychological test or study. If test results remain consistent when researchers conduct a study, its reliability ensures value to the field of psychology and other areas in which it has relevance. The authors further elaborate that to ensure reliability there is need for ensuring a standard scoring and instructions of the study instruments.

It should be noted that personality items in Martins' (2000) trust model use slightly different labels for the five factor model and facets measures of personality in terms of five broad domains, namely: Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Emotional Stability, Resourcefulness and Extraversion (Martins, 2000). Cited in Von der Ohe (2014), the model of personality derived by Martins is considered as the most acceptable model of general personality structure.

5.4 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the degree to which different dimensions of big five personality predict the dimensions of organisational trust.Regression analysis is used to identify the significance of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (James, 2011). Multiple linear regression (MLR), also known simply as multiple regression, is a statistical technique that uses several explanatory variables to predict the outcome of a response variable. As this study seeks to identify if the personality dimensions have an impact on organisational trust, the six items of organisational trust are treated as dependent variables.The personality dimensions agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism are the independent variables.

Standard multiple linear regression analysis was performed to test the hypothesis Ha4: personality dimensions conceptualised as agreeableness,conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism positively predict organisational trust conceptualised as credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship and interpersonal trust. The F- test was used to test whether there was significant regression between the independent (agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism, and conscientiousness) and dependent variables(credibility,team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust).

Collinearity diagnosis was investigated to ensure that zero-order correlations were below the level of multi-collinearity concern ($r \geq .90$), that the variance inflation factors did not exceed 10, that the condition index was below 15, and that the tolerance values

were close to 1.0 (Mitonga – Monga, 2015). To counter the probability of a type I error, the significant value was set at the 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq .05$).

5.4.1 **Regression analysis for dependent variable: Credibility**

Table 5.5

Multiple Regression Analysis: Model Summary, ANOVA and Coefficients of Big Five Personality Dimensions predicting Credibility

Model Summary				**ANOVA**					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of estimates	Credibility	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
.730 [a]	.533	.523	9.224	Regression	18233.097	4	4558.274	53.575	.000[b]
				Residual	15995.546	188	85.083		
				Total	34228.643	192			

Coefficients

Model (a) Predictors	**Unstandardized Coefficient B**	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficient Beta**	**t**	**P**
(Constant)	-38.692	6.123		- 6.320	.000
Agreeableness	1.760	.304	.403	5.791	.000
Conscientiousness	1.063	.335	.229	3.168	.002
Openness experience	.835	.342	.158	2.442	.016
Neuroticism	.568	.609	.073	.932	.353

Regression analysis was performed where the dependent variable was credibility and the independent variables were agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism as big five personality dimensions. These four variables were entered into the model to explain their total variance in terms of organisational trust. According to Table 5.5, the big five personality dimensions explained 52.0% of the variance in *Credibility*. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. *Agreeableness* made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting *Credibility* ($\beta = 0.403$; $p \leq 0.000$). This was followed by *Conscientiousness* ($\beta = 0.299$; $p \leq 0.02$), openness to experience ($\beta = 0.158$; $p \leq 0.016$) and *neuroticism* ($\beta = 0.073$; $p \leq 0.353$) and not statistically significant. Neuroticism ($\beta = 0.073$; $p \leq 0.353$) with credibility was insignificant, indicating that this personality dimension did not make much significant contribution to the prediction of Credibility.The dimensions of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Credibility.

5.4.2 **Regression analysis for dependent variable: Team Management**

Table 5.6

Multiple Regression Analysis: Model Summary, ANOVA and Coefficients of Big Five Personality Dimensions predicting Team Management

Model Summary				**ANOVA**						
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of estimates	Team management	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	
.675[a]	.456	.444	7.016	Regression	7745.328	4	1936.332	39.340	.	000[b]
				Residual	9253.542		49.221			
				Total	16998.870	188				
						192				

Coefficients

Model (a) predictors	**Unstandardized Coefficient B**	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficient Beta**	**t**	**P**
(Constant)	-24.003	4.657		-5.154	000
Agreeableness	.867	.231	.281	3.750	.000
Conscientiousness	.878	.255	.268	3.440	.001
Openness to experience	.625	.260	.167	2.405	.017
Neuroticism	.482	.463	.088	1.041	.299

According to Table 5.6, the big five personality dimensions explained 44.0% of the variance in Team Management. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. Agreeableness made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting Team Management ($\beta = 0.281$; $p \leq 0.000$). This was followed by conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.268$; $p \leq 0.001$), indicating that these big five personality dimensions made a statistically unique contribution in predicting Team Management.Openness to experience ($\beta = 0.167$; $p \leq 0.017$) indicating that this big Five personality dimension made a slightly less, but statistically unique, contribution in predicting team Management and neuroticism ($\beta = 0.088$; $p \leq 0.299$) was insignificant indicating that this personality dimension did not make much significant contribution in predicting team management. The dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience are statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Team Management.

5.4.3 Regression Analysis for the dependent variable: Work Support

Table 5.7

Multiple regression analysis: model summary, ANOVA and coefficients of dimensions of Big Five Personality Dimensions predicting Work Support

Model Summary				**ANOVA**					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of estimates	Work Support	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
.713[a]	.508	.497	2.581	Regression	1291.735	4	322.934	48.482	.000[b]
				Residual	1252.255	188	6.661		
				Total	2543.990	192			

Coefficients

Model					
(a) predictors	**Unstandardized Coefficient**	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficient**	**t**	**P**
	B		**Beta**		
(Constant)	-12.018	1.713		- 7.015	.000
Agreeableness	.430	.085	.361	5.060	.000
Conscientiousness	.402	.094	.318	4.286	.000
Openness to experience	.229	.096	.159	2.394	.018
Neuroticism	.004	.171	.002	.024	.981

Table 5.7, reflects that the dimensions of big five personality explained 50% of the variance in Work Support. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. Agreeableness made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting Work Support ($\beta = 0.361$; $p \leq 0.000$), followed by Conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.318$; $p \leq 0.000$) indicating that these two big five personality dimensions made a statistically unique contribution in predicting Work Support. The relationship between the big five personality dimension Openness to experience ($\beta = 0.159$; $p \leq 0.018$) indicated that this big five personality dimension made a slightly less, but statistically unique, contribution in predicting work support and neuroticism ($\beta = 0.002$; $p \leq 0.981$) was insignificant, suggesting that this variable did not make a significant contribution to the prediction of Work Support. The dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience are statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Work Support.

5.4.4 Regression Analysis for the dependent variable: Trust Relationship

Table 5.8

Multiple regression analysis: model summary, ANOVA and coefficients of dimensions of Big Five Personality predicting Trust Relationship

Model Summary				**ANOVA**					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of estimates	Trust Relationship	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
.768[a]	.590	.582	3.776	Regression	3864.221	4	966.055	67.765	.000[b]
				Residual	2680.110	188	14.256		
				Total	6544.332	192			

Coefficients

Model (a) predictors	**Unstandardized Coefficient B**	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficient Beta**	**t**	**P**
(Constant)	-20.554	2.506		- 8.201	.000
Agreeableness	.643	.124	.336	5.168	.000
Conscientiousness	.909	.137	.447	6.618	.000
Openness to experience	.333	.140	.144	2.381	.018
Neuroticism	-.119	.249	-.035	-.475	.635

As shown in Table 5.8, the big five personality dimensions explained 58.2% of the variance in Trust Relationship. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F- value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. Conscientiousness made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting Trust Relationship ($\beta = 0.447$; $p \leq 0.000$), followed by Agreeableness ($\beta = 0.336$; $p \leq 0.00$); Openness to experience ($\beta = 0.144$; $p \leq 0.018$), indicating that the first two big five personality dimensions made a statistically unique contribution in predicting Trust Relationship. Openness to experience ($\beta = 0.144$; $p \leq 0.018$) made a slightly less but statistically unique contribution in predicting Trust Relationship and neuroticism ($\beta = -0.035$; $p \leq 0.635$) was negative and insignificant suggesting that this variable did not make a significant contribution in predicting Trust Relationship dimension. The dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience are statistically significant predictors of the dimension of Trust Relationship.

5.4.5 Regression Analysis for the dependent variable: Information Sharing

Table 5.9

Multiple regression analysis: model summary, ANOVA and coefficients of dimensions of Big Five Personality Dimensions predicting Information Sharing

Model Summary				**ANOVA**					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of estimates	Information Sharing	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
.629[a]	.396	.383	3.716	Regression	1701.471	4	425.368	30.801	.000[b]
				Residual	2596.312	188	13.810		
				Total	4297.782	192			

Coefficients

Model (a) predictors	**Unstandardized Coefficient B**	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficient Beta**	**t**	**P**
(Constant)	-13.078	2.467		- 5.302	.000
Agreeableness	.404	.122	.261	3.297	.001
Conscientiousness	.426	.135	.259	3.151	.002
Openness to experience	.213	.138	.114	1.548	.123
Neuroticism	.311	.246	.113	1.266	.207

As can be seen in Table 5.9, the big five personality dimensions explained 38.3% of the variance in *Information Sharing*. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. *Agreeableness* made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting *Information Sharing* ($\beta = 0.261$; $p \leq 0.001$).This was followed by *Conscientiousness* ($\beta = 0.259$; $p \leq 0.002$) indicating that these Big five personality dimensions made a statistically significant unique contribution in predicting *Information Sharing*. The association between the big five personality dimensions *Openness to experience*, ($\beta = 0.114$; $p \geq 0.123$), Neuroticism ($\beta = 0.113$; $p \geq 0.207$) suggested that these two variables did not make a significant contribution to the prediction of *Information Sharing*.

5.4.6 Regression Analysis for the dependent variable: Interpersonal Trust

Table 5.10

Multiple regression analysis: model summary, ANOVA and coefficients of dimensions of Big Five Personality Dimensions predicting Interpersonal Trust

Model Summary				**ANOVA**					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of estimates	Interpersonal Trust	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
.501[a]	.251	.235	6.400	Regression	2583.007	4	645.752	15.765	.000[b]
				Residual	7700.702	188	40.961		
				Total	10283.710	192			

Coefficients

Model (a) predictors	**Unstandardized Coefficient B**	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficient Beta**	**t**	**P**
(Constant)	3.625	4.248		.853	.395
Agreeableness	.924	.211	.385	4.382	.000
Conscientiousness	.354	.233	.139	1.522	.130
Openness to experience	.268	.237	.092	1.131	.260
Neuroticism	-.221	.423	-.052	-.522	.602

According to Table 5.10, the big five Personality dimensions explained 23.5% of the variance in Interpersonal Trust. This finding was confirmed by the significance of the F-value ($p \leq 0.000$) in the ANOVA calculation. *Agreeableness* made the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting Interpersonal Trust ($\beta = 0.385$; $p \leq 0.000$), indicating that this Big five personality dimension made a statistically unique contribution in predicting Interpersonal Trust. The association between the big five personality dimensions *Conscientiousness* ($\beta = 0.139$, $p \geq 0.130$), *Openness to experience* ($\beta = 0.092$, $p \geq 0.260$) and *Neuroticism* ($\beta = -0.052$, $p \geq 0.602$) with Interpersonal Trust, suggested that these three personality variables did not make a significant contribution to the prediction of Interpersonal Trust.The dimension of Agreeableness was a statistically significant predictor of the dimension of Interpersonal Trust.

5.5 **CORRELATIONS COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN BIG FIVE PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS AND ORGANISATIONAL TRUST**

The relationship between variables was calculated using Pearson product-moment correlations. These correlations helped the researcher to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables under investigation (Mitonga-Monga, 2015). Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis (also called Pearson's r) was computed to determine the extent of the relationship, if any, between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust (James, 2011).

The general rule of thumb to set the cut-off point for the statistical significance at 95% interval confidence level ($p \leq .05$) and the practical effect size at $r \geq .50 \geq .70$ (medium to large effect) (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013) was applicable in this study. The correlations between values of r (n) = 0.1 and 0.3 pose a small effect, r (n) >0.3 to 0.5 pose a moderate (medium) effect, and those greater than r (n) = 0.5 pose a large effect size, as stated by Cohen (1988). In this study, the inter-correlations matrix was used to test H1, which posed that each of the dimensions of organisational trust, are significantly and positively related to the big five personality dimensions. The inter-correlations matrix for the study is reflected in Table 5.11. The following table 5.11 illustrates the correlation between the big five personality dimensions and managerial practices as the components of organisational tr

Table 5.11

Inter-correlations matrix (Spearman's rho correlations) of different constructs

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Agreeableness	1									
2 Conscientiousness	.592**	1								
3 Openness experience	.507**	.545**	1							
4 Neuroticism	.690**	.688**	.571**	1						
5 Trust relationship	.626**	.695**	.505**	.567**	1					
6 Team management	.566**	.600**	.474**	.549**	.805**	1				
7 Work support	.626**	.612**	.503**	.548**	.837**	.867**	1			
8 Information sharing	.534**	.582**	.416**	.525**	.788**	.880**	.843**	1		
9 Interpersonal trust	.425**	.352**	.311**	.306**	.512**	.627**	.565**	.600**	1	
10 Credibility	.652**	.622**	.500**	.590**	.850**	.912**	.917**	.898**	.623**	1

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 - tailed). r = ≥ 0.1 ≥ 0 .3- small practical effect; r = ≥ 0.31 ≤ 0.50 – medium practical effect; r ≥ 0.50 – large practical effect

The results of the correlation analysis indicate that all the big five personality dimensions correlate positively with the managerial practices items as components of organisational trust. There were, however, differences in the effects sizes; more specifically, the results indicate that agreeableness correlated significantly and positively with credibility (r = 0.652; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01) followed by trust relationship and Work support (r= 0.626; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), team management (r= 0.566; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), information sharing (r=0.534; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), Interpersonal trust (r=0.425;medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01).

In terms of the second dimension, conscientiousness correlated significantly and positively with trust relationship (r=0.695; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), credibility (r=0.622; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), work support (r=0.612; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), team management (r=0.600; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), information sharing (r=0.582; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01) and interpersonal trust (r=0.352; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01).

Additionally, a positive and substantial significant relationship was observed with the dimension openness to experience which correlated significantly and positively with trust relationship (r=0.505; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), work support (r=0.503; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), credibility (r=0.500; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), team management (r=0.474; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), information sharing (r=0.416; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01) and interpersonal trust (r=0.311; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01).

Furthermore, the results showed that neuroticism correlated significantly and positively with credibility (r=0.590; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), trust relationship (r=0.567; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), team management (r=0.549; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), work support (r=0.548; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01), information sharing (r=0.525; large practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01) and interpersonal trust (r=0.306; medium practical effect; p, ≤ 0.01).

However, there was no statistically significant weak relationship that was found between the constructs. Based on the above findings, H1 – There is a statistically significant positive

correlation between big five personality dimensions and organisational trust, which is partially accepted.

5.6 **Hierarchical moderated regression analysis**

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis, also known as cluster analysis, are mostly used to empirically examine whether certain biographical group of variables influences the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In the context of this study, hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used empirically to determine whether the various biographical variables (gender, age,home language, race, position and years of service) significantly moderated the relationship between the independent organisational trust and the dependent personality dimensions (Moshoeu, 2017).

The researcher conducted the hierarchical moderated regression analysis thoroughly to investigate the relationships between the variables. To test these hypotheses, a three-step hierarchical moderated regression analysis was followed, whereby the control variables such as gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service were entered separately as step 1, and the independent variables were entered in the subsequent steps. The F-test was used mostly to determine which of the added set of variables could lead to a significant increase in the R^2 (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

In the first step (block 1) of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis, the researcher assessed how much of the variance in the criterion variable can be explained by the controlled predictors. In the second and third steps (blocks 2 and 3), the researcher assessed how much additional variance can be explained by the predictors as above listed. Only the results of the moderating biographical variables are displayed.

To check the influence of a third variable on two variables, a moderator analysis needs to be conducted (Nyathi, 2020). The models summary presented provide details on the steps for hierarchical regression analysis between organisational trust as the dependent variable, with personality dimensions as independent variable together with biographic variables as moderators.

5.6.1 Gender as a moderator

No significant main and interaction (moderation) effects were observed on gender, suggesting that gender did not act as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism as composites of independent variables and trust relationship,work support, team management, information sharing and credibility as dimensions of organisational trust variable. A significant interaction (moderating) effect was observed in terms of gender and the relationship among the variable interpersonal trust where p = .004 suggesting that participants from the two gender group which is male as coded as 0 and female 1 as coded in this analysis could moderate the relationship.The two dummy variables were created for the categorical variable gender.The following variables were controlled for in the regression analysis age,race,gender,home language,position and years of service. In step 1, the control variables were entered into the regression analysis and accounted for 11% of the variance in big five personality dimension and organisational trust (R^2=.049, p > .004 for interpersonal trust).The following table 5.12 displayed the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis for gender as a moderator.

Table 5.12

Moderated Regression Results with Big Five Personality dimensions as the DV, Organisational Trust IV, and Gender as the Moderator

		Interpersonal Trust	
Criterion	**Predictor Variable**	**β**	**Sig.**
Interpersonal Trust	Gender	-.107*	.004*
Model Statistics			
R^2		.049	
ΔR^2		.011	
F		5.795	
ΔF		2.686	

*N=226. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at***p≤ .001, **p ≤ .01, *p ≤ .05.*

5.6.2 Race as a moderator

Table 5.13 below summarises the findings of the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis, with race as the moderator on the relationship between agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism as composites of independent variables and trust relationship, work support, team management, information sharing, interpersonal trust and credibility as dimensions of organisational trust. A significant moderating effect was observed in terms of race and interpersonal trust (p= .001), suggesting that participants from the two races (whites and non-whites) as coded in this analysis could moderate the relationship.The two dummy variables were created for the categorical variable race.The following variables were controlled for in the regression analysis age,race,gender,home language,position and years of service. In step 2, the control variables were entered into the regression analysis and accounted for 22% of the variance in big five personality dimension and organisational trust (R^2=.071,p > .001 for interpersonal trust). The model was significant to some degree as race as a control variable significantly predicted interpersonal trust as one of the dimensions of organisational trust and none of the control variables significantly predicted big five personality dimensions and organisational trust items except for interpersonal trust.

Table 5.13

Moderated Regression Results with Big Five Personality Dimensions as the DV, Organisational Trust IV, and Race as the Moderator

		Interpersonal Trust	
Criterion	**Predictor Variable**	**β**	**Sig.**
Interpersonal trust	Race	.157**	.001**
Model Statistics			
R^2		.071	
ΔR^2		.022	
F		5.652	
ΔF		5.150	

*N=226. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at***p≤ .001, **p ≤ .01, *p ≤ .05.*

5.6.3 Position as moderator

Table 5.14 depicts the findings of the moderated regression analysis with the position as the moderator variable on the relationship between the big five personality dimensions

(agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, neuroticism) and organisational trust dimensions (trust relationship, work support, team management, information sharing, interpersonal trust and credibility). No significant relationship was detected in terms of position concerning agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, neuroticism, trust relationship, work support, team management, information sharing, credibility except for interpersonal trust. A significant moderated effect was detected between position and interpersonal trust respectively with a significant p-value of p= .003 suggesting that participants from the two positions which is non- management position as coded as 0 and the management position coded as 1 (non- management position and management position) as coded in this analysis could moderate the relationship.The two dummy variables were created for the categorical variable position.The following variables were controlled for in the regression analysis age,race,gender,home language,position and years of service. In step 3, the control variables were entered into the regression analysis and accounted for 2% of the variance in big five personality dimension and organisational trust (R^2=.085, p > .003- for interpersonal trust).

Table 5.14*Moderated Regression Results with Big Five Personality Dimensions as the DV, Organisational Trust IV, and Position as the Moderator*

		Interpersonal Trust	
Criterion	**Predictor Variable**	**β**	**Sig.**
Interpersonal trust	Position	.048*	.003*
Model Statistics			
R^2		.085	
ΔR^2		.002	
F		3.381	
ΔF		.514	

*N=226. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at***p≤ .001, **p ≤ .01, *p ≤ .05.*

5.6.4 Home Language as a moderator

Visual inspection in Table 5.15 also shows that in terms of the moderating effect, home language acted as a significant moderator of interpersonal trust. No significant relationship was detected in terms of home language concerning agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, neuroticism, trust relationship, work support, team management,

information sharing, and credibility except for interpersonal trust. A significant moderated effect was detected between home language and interpersonal trust respectively with a significant p-value of p= .002, suggesting that participants from the two languages which is African language as coded as 0 and the non-African language coded as 1 as coded in this analysis could moderate the relationship.The two dummy variables were created for the categorical variable home language.The following variables were controlled for in the regression analysis age,race,gender,home language,position and years of service. In step 4, the control variables were entered into the regression analysis and accounted for 4% of the variance in big five personality dimension and organisational trust (R^2=.083, p > .002 for interpersonal trust).

Table 5.15

Moderated Regression Results with Big Five Personality Dimensions as the DV, Organisational Trust IV, and Home Language as the Moderator

		Interpersonal Trust	
Criterion	**Predictor Variable**	**β**	**Sig.**
Interpersonal trust	Home Language	-.064*	.002*
Model Statistics			
R^2		.083	
ΔR^2		.004	
F		3.963	
ΔF		.848	

*N=226. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at***p≤ .001, **p ≤ .01, *p ≤ .05.*

5.6.5 Age as a moderator

As reflected in Table 5.16, no significant main moderation effects were observed on age, suggesting that age did not act as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism as composites of independent variables and trust relationship, work support, team management, information sharing and credibility as dimensions of organisational trust variable. A significant moderating effect was observed in terms of age and the relationship

among the variable interpersonal trust where p =.003 suggesting that participants from the two age groups which is young adult as coded 0 and the Adults coded as 1 in this analysis could moderate the relationship.The two dummy variables were created for the categorical variable age.The following variables were controlled for in the regression analysis age,race,gender,home language,position and years of service. In step 5, the control variables were entered into the regression analysis and accounted for 38% of the variance in big five personality dimension and organisational trust (R^2=.038, p >.003 for interpersonal trust).The following Table 5.16 displayed the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis for age as a moderator.

Table 5.16

Moderated Regression Results with Big Five Personality Dimensions as the DV, Organisational Trust IV, and Age as the Moderator

		Interpersonal Trust	
Criterion	**Predictor Variable**	**β**	**Sig.**
Interpersonal Trust	Age	-.195*	.003*
Model Statistics			
R^2		.038	
ΔR^2		.038	
F		8.837	
ΔF		8.837	

*N=226. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at***p≤ .001, **p ≤ .01, *p ≤ .05*

5.6.6 Years of Service as a moderator

No significant moderating effects were observed for agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism as composites of independent variables and trust relationship, work support, team management, information sharing, and credibility as dimensions of organisational trust variable, suggesting that years of service did not act as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between big five personality dimensions and the dimensions of organisational trust except for interpersonal trust (p= .001) suggesting that participants from the years of experience groups which is long working experience as

coded as 0 and short term experience coded as 1 as coded in this analysis could moderate the relationship.The two dummy variables were created for the categorical variable years of service.The following variables were controlled for in the regression analysis age,race,gender,home language,position and years of service. In step 6, the control variables were entered into the regression analysis and accounted for 8% of the variance in big five personality dimension and organisational trust (R^2=.079, p > .001 for interpersonal trust).The results are shown in Table 5.17 below.

Table 5.17

Moderated Regression Results with Big Five Personality Dimensions as the DV, Organisational Trust IV, and Years of Service as the Moderator

		Interpersonal Trust	
Criterion	**Predictor Variable**	**β**	**Sig.**
Interpersonal Trust	Years of Service	-.117*	.001**
Model Statistics			
R^2		.079	
ΔR^2		.008	
F		4.745	
ΔF		1.951	

*N=226. Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at***p≤ .001, **p ≤ .01, *p ≤ .05*

5.7 **HYPOTHESES TESTING**

The hypothesis testing for the conceptual model was done using SPSS AMOS version 27, checking for p-values and coefficients of determination of the various relationships between the factors studied in this research. On three hypotheses, one was supported,one partially supported, and the last one not supported implying that the majority of the hypotheses that were conducted were true and therefore accepted. The following is a detailed description of each hypothesis and an overall summary is shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18

Summary of the research hypotheses

Research objective	Research hypotheses	Statistical Procedure	Supported / Not Supported
Research objective 1:			
What is the nature of the empirical relationship between Big Five personality dimensions and organisational trust?	There is a positive empirical statistical relationship between the Big Five personality dimensions and organisational trust.	Correlation Analysis	**Supported**
Research objective 2:			
Do the biographical variables (gender, age, language, race, job levels) significantly moderate the relationship among the construct personality dimensions (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) and the dependent construct organisational trust?	The biographical variables (gender, age, language, race, position, and years of service) do not significantly moderate the relationship among the independent construct big five personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism) and the dependent construct organisational trust.	Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis	**Not supported**
Research Objective 3:			
To empirically assess whether or not the Big Five Personality dimensions, conceptualised as Openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness positively and significantly predict organisational trust as conceptualised as credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust.	The big five-personality dimension (openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness is a statistically significant predictor of the dimensions of organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust).	Multiple Regression Analysis	**Partially Supported**

Consequently, the results described in this chapter tested these hypotheses, afollowing results were obtained:

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

Correlation analysis indicated a statistically positive relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust dimensions. The findings of the study therefore partially support Hypothesis 1, which postulated that a positive relationship exists between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust, respectively. This supports the findings of previous studies that investigated the relationship between

organisational trust and quality of work life. (Van der Berg, 2011). The present study provides evidence that the big five personality dimensions are a fundamental consideration in understanding organisational trust. Results from the hypothesis test indicated that the big five personality dimensions had a significant effect on organisational trust. The results of this research study confirm a strong positive relationship between personality dimensions and organisational trust. The overall model was (0.91).

Overall, the correlation analysis delivered significant findings as a positive relationship was observed between the personality dimensions and the organisational trust variables. This suggested that, when employees experience organisational trust as positive they will also be more likely to be more satisfied and trustworthy towards their organisation. Therefore organisations should take cognisance in the expecations that they create with their employees in order to prevent any unfulfilled expectations or promises which could result in dissatisfaction with the organisational trust factors.

Organisations should also ensure that the promises they make to their employees in terms of compensation, training and development opportunities, supervisor support, career opportunities and organisational commitment can be regarded as fair as this may have an effect on organisational trust and thereby have an effect on the state of their personality and behaviour.

Hypothesis 2: The biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service) do not significantly moderate the relationship among the independent construct big five personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism) and the dependent construct organisational trust.

No significant moderating effects were observed for big five personality dimensions of agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism as composites of independent variables and organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust. The findings of the study, therefore, provide no support for Hypothesis 2, which postulated that biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service) do not significantly moderate the relationship among the independent construct big five personality dimensions and dependent constructs.

Hypothesis 3: The Big Five Personality dimensions conceptualised as openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness positively and significantly predict organisational trust conceptualised as credibility, trust relationship, team management, information sharing, work support and interpersonal trust.

The regression model confirmed that three dimensions of big five personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience) predict organisational trust. Agreeableness made the most significant predictor of organisational trust.The neuroticism dimension showed no effect in predicting organisational trust.The agreeableness dimension indicated the strongest predictor of the organisational trust dimension and followed by conscientiousness. Openness to experience dimensions showed slightly less, but statistically unique contribution to organisational trust variables.The findings of the study, therefore, provide partial support for Hypothesis 3, which postulates that most big five personality dimensions would significantly predict the dimensions of organisational trust.

Conscientiousness influences the extent to which individuals perceive their work and the organisation that employs them. Individuals high in conscientiousness are predisposed to be organised, disciplined, diligent, dependable, and purposeful and are more likely to correctly perform work tasks, take initiative in solving problems, remain committed to working performance, and comply with organisational policies (Matzler et al., 2011; Munyoki 2017). In essence, highly conscientious people tend to be higher performers, hardworking, thorough, and self-disciplined, thereby enhancing a positive effect on trusting behaviour. Although employees need the basic skills required to do their jobs, skills alone are not sufficient for them to do their jobs properly. They also need the personality traits required to transform abilities into achievements (Bui, 2017). Personality assessment has been used in many work settings to, for instance, predict employees' performance in specific roles, establish good work relationships and create effective support teams (Espinola & Francia, 2015).

The agreeableness dimension showed a large effect in predicting organisational trust. Martins (2000,) and Von der Ohe (2014) described agreeableness as being liked, courteous,

good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, and soft-hearted with the opposite being disagreeable or cold, rude, unkind and independent (Martins, 2002).Agreeableness is also referred to as conformity (Von der Ohe, Martins & Roode,2004).

Barrick et al. (2001) add trustfulness and affability. According to Widiger and Costa (2012), the facets of agreeableness are Trust, Straightforwardness, Altruism, Compliance, Modesty, and Tender-mindedness. Because of this link to trust, conformity, and compassion the dimension of agreeableness is the best big five-trait predictor for organisational trust (Judge & Bono, 2000).

5.8 **CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter provided an in-depth discussion of the findings of the empirical research. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to examine the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust, respectively. The results were analysed, interpreted and integrated to reveal important observations relating to the relationship between the variables examined in the study. Chapter 6 will discuss the conclusions and limitations of the study, in detail. Furthermore, recommendations for future research will be made.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter formulates conclusions based on the literature review and the results of the empirical research. The limitations will then be discussed and recommendations made for further research.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

In the next section, conclusions about the literature and empirical research will be discussed. The theoretical objectives were defined and described (conceptualised) for organisational trust and personality dimensions, as well as the theoretical relationship between the concepts, and how they are measured. These theoretical objectives were achieved by utilising the literature review on organisational trust and the personality dimensions. The objectives were**:**

- to conceptualise organisational trust from a theoretical perspective
- to conceptualise the personality dimensions from a theoretical perspective
- to conceptualise the theoretical relationship and integration between the personality dimension and organisational trust

The following conclusions were drawn based on the literature:

6.1.1 **Conclusions regarding the literature review**

6.1.1.1 The first aim: To conceptualise organisational trust from a theoretical perspective

This aim was addressed in Chapter 2, and the following conclusions can be drawn:
The first aim of the literature study was to conceptualise organisational trust from a theoretical perspective.

The various definitions of organisational trust were presented, and a definition specific to the study was formulated, organisational 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; Van Der Berg & Martins, 2013). Organisational trust is a concept that is related to organised work, that it foresees expectation, belief, and guarantees a degree of risk, a psychological condition resulting

from its willingness to accept damage due to positive expectations about intentions, behaviour, roles or experiences (Al-Shalabi, 2019).

The definition of organisational trust as proposed by Mayer et al.(1995, p.712) 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 that other party”.Furthermore,in recent years organisational trust has also been defined as the willingness of one individual to expense effort,expecting that it will be reciprocated by another individual, without any firm commitment of such(Mozumder,2018). It can therefore be argued that given the organisational trust models discussed earlier, organisational trust can be viewed as measurements of perceived fairness. This perceived fairness would in turn increase the likelihood of individuals to put themselves in a vulnerable position, whilst expecting a positive outcome(Visser, 2021).

The nature and extent of organisational trust were discussed. Like other human traits, trust can be innate (i.e. shaped by genetic differences), acquired (formed by environmental conditioning), or shaped in an interplay between genes and environment (Oskarsson et al., 2012; Van Lange et al., 2014). Reviewed literature outlines two broad perspectives on the roots of organisational trust: the dispositional and the experiential perspective. While not mutually exclusive, the two perspectives provide a stylised conception of how trust is formed and develops over the life course. (Dinesen & Bekkers, 2015).

The various aspects and models of organisational trust were discussed, with specific emphasis on dimensional models and typologies: Mayer et al. Integrated Model of organisational Trust (Heyns & Rothmann (2015), Rousseau et al. Model of Trust (James, 2011), Dietz and Den Hartog’s Model of Trust Process (James, 2011; Dietz, 2011), Ferres and Travaglione’s Workplace Trust Referent Model (James, 2011; Ferres & Travaglione, 2003) and Robbins’s Structural Cognitive Model of Trust (Robbins, 2016) each of which appears to have its advantages and disadvantages. For the present study, the Mayer et al. model is relevant to the current study as the Mayer et al. (1995) model is a foundation and is relevant to individuals’ trusting behaviours inside as well as outside an organisational context. As it also covers *risk* and *interdependence* as basic conditions necessary to establish

organisational trust, it is applicable across most disciplines that study organisational trust (Von der Ohe, 2014).

In summary, the Mayer et al. model was designed to understand the major factors that explain organisational trust beyond the individual level to the group and the organisational perspective as well. The model accommodates the complexity and multiple dimensions of organisational trust, while still being comprehensible and robust. The model can be applied to organisational trust studies in the company-stakeholder context as it recognises the relational and process aspects of trust and provides an adequate explanation for the building of organisational trust once violated (Schoorman et al., 2007).

A workplace that fosters trusting and positive relationships could motivate workers to strive to attain the organisation's goals and objectives. Hassan and Ahmed (2011) conducted a study in the banking sector in Malaysia to investigate the belief that an organisational environment in which there is trust, pride in accomplishing great outcomes, and enthusiasm about what is done is an ideal place to work. These researchers stated that leaders are obligated to perform their daily roles, functions, and duties to high ethical and moral standards in an effort to entice others to follow their behaviour (Baptiste, 2018).

For instance, Adams et al. (2008) examined organisation trust as manifest in the Canadian forces. They explored the dimensions that influence organisational trust and the manner in which trust is developed, the sociological underpinnings that act as preconditions of organisational trust and the referents of organisational trust. They also concluded that organisational trust influences organisational performance, organisational commitment and the job satisfaction of the employees. Vineburgh, (2010) examined how organisational trust affects the related variables amongst the faculty members of the Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) around the United States. Vineburgh established that the high levels of employee empowerment, high levels of the support for innovation were both a function of organisational trust. Sonea and Campeanu-Sonea (2014) conducted a case study of Romanian companies, focusing on their specific high-trust features. They found out that the fundamental role of building organisational trust in organisations was based on elements such as reliability, honesty and openness and the concerns that the organisations had for their employees or stakeholders, which resulted in enhanced quality of service and benefits in regards to the growth of the organisations.

Furthermore, Morreale and Shockley-Zalabak, (2014) conducted a qualitative study of organisational trust, examined the perception of leaders in Polish and Russian organisations. In acknowledging the significance of trust in organisations irrespective of their culture, Morreale and Shockley-Zalabak were interested to establish what organisational leaders in the two communist countries thought about organisational trust. The study found that personal experiences in relation to organisational trust suggested the importance of the construct to organisations in both countries. Child and Möllering (2000) investigated how organisational trust is developed in the Chinese business environment. They reconciled the sociological and managerial perspectives of the development of organisational trust in Chinese organisations. This study established that the contextual system of these organisations rather that the personal contact of the people that administer it inhibit or facilitated the development oforganisational trust amongst the employees.

Besides, Chinomona (2013) studied the influence of servant leadership on the trust of their leader and their commitment to their organisation. This study was based on various sectors at Gauteng' Province in South Africa. The study established that servant leadership influences the perception of trust amongst employees in their leader. This in turn motivates the employees to be more committed to their organization. Nkrumah, (2013) studied how organizational trust and organizational empowerment affects the involvement of employees in their job. The study was conducted in a multinational organization in Ghana, the Nestle Ghana Limited. Nkrumah established that there was a positive relationship between organizational trust and the involvement of employees in their respective jobs. Management should therefore aim at creating highly trustworthy environments in order to achieve more involvement from their employees.

6.1.1.2 The second aim: To conceptualise the personality dimensions from a theoretical perspective

The various definitions of personality were presented, and a definition specific to the study was formulated as Personality: is an individual's unique pattern of thoughts, feelings, and behaviour that persist over time and across situations (Louw, 2014; Van der Berg & Martins, 2013). Personality is a system defined by personality traits and dynamic processes that affects how individuals function socially as well as in a work context (Morallane, 2017).

Personality can also be viewed as a system defined by various personality traits and dynamic processes, which influence how people function socially and in their work environment (Cilliers et al., 2018; Louw, 2014).

Personality psychologists have long been interested in understanding human nature, which at times is deemed too complex and arguably daunting to accomplish by some personality psychologists.Throughout its relatively long history, the study of personality has accumulated many definitions useful to the taxonomy of personality. Moshoeu (2017) asserts that personality has been constructed from a variety of conceptual, theoretical and empirical perspectives with varying levels of concepts and scales. It has been used along with aspects such as emotions, attitudes, and behavioural response patterns of an individual in particular settings. Although each of these aspects contributed significantly to the understanding of individual differences in behaviour and experience, they were limited in presenting a universal definition of personality (Moshoeu, 2017).

Regardless of the definition of personality used, most recent studies define it as composed of characteristics and tendencies that determine unique traits and those that are most common to an individual (such as thoughts, feelings and emotions) that persist over time and manifest themselves through measurable personality traits (Parks-Leduc et al., 2014). In other words, people are to some degree considered similar, yet it is the differences between them that spark interest in psychologists to measure personality (Moshoeu, 2017).

No universal definition for personality exists, however as can be seen from the foregoing definitions some agreement about some of the aspects that the definitions of personality exist. Thus, it seems important that the following criteria be considered to do the construct personality justice. These are (1) the mask of personality (physical appearance, behaviour as well as traits) which refers to those aspects that can be observed and are visible; (2) emotions, thoughts, attitudes, and values that are unconscious behaviour and invisible; (3) changeable nature of behaviour as well as enduring patterns (consistencies); (4) every individual's uniqueness; (5) differentiation as well as wholeness in personality; (6) the acceptance that personality refers to a human being (living) who can adapt to his/her circumstances (Mouton, 2017).

The trait approach and five-factor model of personality, dimensions of personality and measurement of personality, were also discussed. Despite the wide use of the trait approach in different organisational contexts, there is still no agreement on how many personality traits there are (Masoga, 2013).Within trait theory, there are different views regarding the number of factors that make up personality. Accordingly, there is no correct number and the number of factors used is not important, as long as those factors contain fundamental variables that describe personality and behaviour (Masoga, 2013). Thurstone came up with seven factors in the Thurstone Temperament Schedule (Thurstone, 1953) that were based on the work of Guilford. He used oblique rotation (Goldberg, 1993) which is a specific factor analysis technique where the researcher considers both the structure and pattern of the matrix (Masoga, 2013).

There has been much confusion, if not controversy, concerning the key ingredients, components, constituencies, and proximate mechanisms underlying personality traits (Yang et. al., 2014). Despite the different views about the number of factors associated with personality, the personality research that was conducted supports the validity of five factors over and above the other number of factors proposed by the various researchers.

There are several personality models through multiple studies. The model most widely accepted is the Five Factor model of personality, or the Big Five. In the literature, there is consensus that the five-factor model is one of the most prominent models in contemporary psychology to describe the most outstanding characteristics of personality (Mdhluli, 2019). This model organises a wide range of individual characteristics into five dimensions of personality, namely: *Conscientiousness*, *Agreeableness*, *Neuroticism*, *Openness to Experience* and *Extraversion*.

The dimension conscientiousness has been defined in many different forms within the personality psychology. The lack of a clear and concise understanding of conscientiousness has resulted in some misinterpretation of its precise meaning. For example, the dimension has been linked with characteristicssuch as persistence, organised, reliable, thorough, goal-directed, responsible, hardworking and achievement-oriented (Barrick et al., 2013). Other studies associate the dimension with achievement orientation, dependability and orderliness (Raja & Johns, 2010; Vogt & Laher, 2009). Accordingly, to view conscientious as an achievement reflects the strength and ability to work harder and meet desired goals, whilst

dependability is the interpersonal component of conscientiousness that involves responsibility and dutifulness, while orderliness reflects structuring work into small and manageable portion(Moshoeu,2017). On the contrary, Costa and McCrae (1992) note that when describing the achievement-striving individuals who score high on the conscientious dimension and its facets have high aspiration levels and work hard to achieve their goals. Very high scorers, however, may invest too much in their careers and become workaholics. In other words, achievement-striving individuals tend to be self-focused and self-governing, and therefore are likely to achieve better performance through careful planning, goal-setting and persistence. People who exhibit this characteristic are motivated to achieve, succeed and persevere on difficult task.

Taylor and De Bruin (2006) also define conscientiousness as the degree of effectiveness and efficiency with which an individual plan, organises and carries out tasks. They therefore identified the facets of conscientiousness as order, self-discipline, effort, dutifulness and prudence. According to Taylor and De Bruin's (2006) definition, an individual with a high level of conscientiousness acts purposefully, displays behaviour that is strong-willed, determined and detail oriented. By contrast, an individual with a low level of conscientiousness displays the tendency to be careless in working towards goals, is lazy and tends to be irresponsible and impulsive.

In general, individuals high in conscientiousness are predisposed to be organised, disciplined, diligent, dependable, and purposeful, and are more likely to correctly perform work tasks, take the initiative in solving problems, remain committed to work performance and comply with policies. As such, conscientious people tend to get involved with actions beyond the minimal requirements of their organisation, such as involving themselves in organisational citizenship behaviour (Moshoue, 2017).

Agreeableness refers to the tendency to be altruistic, trusting, modest, and compliant (Curtis et al., 2015; Metzer et al., 2014). The trait agreeableness is concerned with the nature of an interpersonal relationship between people. Agreeableness is compatible with the motivational aspects and behaviours aimed at caring for people with whom one has personal contact (Parks-Leduc et al., 2014). Agreeable people are oriented towards helping others and cooperating with them in order to achieve organisational goals. Yao and Moskowitz, (2015) describe Agreeableness as a social trait. The ability to trust others as well as to

establish and maintain relationships are the hallmarks of people who score high on agreeableness. High Agreeableness persons' have noticeable greater interpersonal communication when in a high-status role compare to in a low-status role and may influence the effortful control process (Yao, & Moskowitz, 2015)

Templer (2012) describes agreeableness in terms of a collectivistic orientation in both the individual and societal level of analysis. Accordingly, an individual with collectivist behaviour shows sensitivity towards others and is more accommodating and compromising; s/he avoids conflict and confrontation. Research conducted by Vogt and Laher (2009) investigated the relationship between the FFM model of personality, individualism and collectivism. Based on a sample of 176 students from the University of the Witwatersrand, results indicated that there were no significant differences between the five-factor model and individualism and/or collectivism.

In similar vein, Templer (2012) conducted a study on a sample of 354 employees from organisations in Singapore to determine whether agreeableness has a strong positive relationship in a tight and collectivistic society. The results indicate that agreeableness plays a significant role in the explanation of job satisfaction within the work context in a tight and collectivistic society. This means agreeable individuals are encouraged and rewarded for engaging in harmonious relationships at work, which in turn, leads to higher job satisfaction. Employees are thus punished accordingly for not conforming to social norms which will lead to lower job satisfaction.

Conversely, Zhai et al. (2013) conducted a study among as a sample of 818 urban employees from five Chinese cities to determine if there is a relationship between the Big Five and job satisfaction as well as subjective well-being. Their hypothesis was that agreeableness is positively associated with job satisfaction and subjective well-being. The overall findings revealed that the Big Five explained 6.1% of the total variance of job satisfaction, suggesting that the Big Five is a weaker predictor of job satisfaction in the Chinese context which is characterised by a collectivistic culture where connections play an important role in the workplace.

Neuroticism refers to the general tendency to be emotionally unstable and to experience negative emotions such as fear, sadness, guilt, anger and distrust as well as to expect the

worst from situations (Curtis et al., 2015; Fischer & Boer, 2015). It is a sense of apprehension and an underestimation of own abilities. The trait neuroticism has been conceived as a trait of normal personality falling along a continuum with emotional stability, its positive pole (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Neuroticism is one of the dimensions of personality traits that appear in most personality models and is associated with individual differences in basic human physiological and neurological mechanisms (Templer, 2012). Neuroticism represents a predisposition to focus on the negative aspects of the self, others and the world, as well as a tendency to experience a high level of stress. People high in neuroticism tend to experience such negative effects as emotional instability, embarrassment, guilt, pessimism, and low self-esteem. The inverse reflects the degree to which people are calmer and confident as opposed to anxious and insecure (eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014). Emotional stability is most strongly related to life satisfaction, job satisfaction and low stress levels.

People with low levels of emotional stability tend to be defensive and guarded, have a negative view of themselves, worry about others' opinions of them, and tend to make stable, internal, global attributions about negative events (Barrick et al., 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2015). Such people are more dissatisfied with their work and life in general and are more motivated to avoid failures as compared to completing particular tasks. Therefore, regardless of the term used, common to neuroticism is the tendency to have a negative view of the self, to experience negative affect and to be more sensitive to minor failures and frustrations of daily life.

Bakker et al. (2010) assert that the trait neuroticism has been hypothesised to influence work-related strain both directly and indirectly through its influence on workplace perceptions. In the former case, the effect is thought to arise because of a heightened vulnerability to aversive stimuli and the effects of stress, while in the latter case, individuals high in neuroticism are thought to appraise certain work situations as threatening because they are more susceptible to anxiety inducing environmental cues, and/or tend to view the world negatively.

In their study, Raja and Johns (2010) found that only one interaction term involving job score and neuroticism (ß= - .14, $p < .01$) was negatively and significantly related to job performance. In another study, Chiaburu et al. (2011) reported that neuroticism was negative

and strongly associated with in-role performance, creative and organisational citizenship behaviour in higher job scope in all occupational settings. Similarly, Barrick et al. (2013) maintained that job characteristics can provide trait-relevant cues to neurotic individuals to such an extent that a high scope job could be seen as an excessive burden, resulting in the worsening of PE fit, which in turn will magnify the negative effects of neuroticism on creativity. The meta-analysis review of Barrick and Mount's (1991) work revealed that neuroticism was negatively associated with job performance in various organisational settings. In other words, people with high neuroticism were found to inversely relate to job performance, particularly regarding work-related aspects that require cognitively challenging work and demand initiative, as well as a variety of skills (Raja & Johns, 2010). Such people are expected to be wary and even vulnerable as well as anxious when performing complex job activities which require taking control in a less structured job situation. In essence, neurotic individuals are supposed to have less fulfilling and rewarding interactions at work than emotionally stable person(Moshoeu,2017). It has been found that neuroticism predicts many human and organisational outcomes, with job performance and job satisfaction being two of the most established outcomes of emotional stability. Judge et al. (2013), for instance, provided evidence of a significant positive relationship between the trait of emotional stability and job performance. Many empirical studies have shown that employees with high levels of emotional stability were more satisfied with their jobs.

Openness to experience refers to the tendency to be creative, curious and sensitive to aesthetics variety (Curtis et al., 2015; eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014). It is the behavioural tendency of being genuinely open to new ideas of doing things. Typical behavioural tendencies associated with openness to experience embody people who have active imagination, attentiveness to inner feelings and intellectual, curiosity as opposed to being concrete-minded and narrow-thinking (eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014). People who are open to new experiences are flexible, creative and intellectually oriented; they actively pursue novelty and cognitively stimulating experiences. In addition, open people have a higher level of tolerance for ambiguity and have the ability to absorb to any situation. They are not easily distracted or intimidated by their situation(Moshoeu, 2017).

Conversely, a person scoring low on openness to experience is associated with a preference for familiarity, simplicity, and closure. These individuals tend to be unadventurous, behaviourally rigid, socially conforming and conventional in their reasoning

(Bjørkelo et al., 2010). The characteristics of a person low in openness to experience could easily be linked to those of performance avoidance and goal orientation where avoiding failure by conforming to normative-based standards is the goal.

The dimension Extraversion refers to the tendency to be assertive and to seek social interaction as well as to experience positive emotion (Curtis et al., 2015; Metzer et al., 2014; Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). It is sometimes used interchangeably with Positive Emotionality or Surgency and resembles the major dimensions of dominance and nurturance in the interpersonal theory of personality (eSilva & Laher, 2012). Therefore, people who possess a high level of extraversion are predisposed to have both positive emotions and cognition. They are often assumed to be more optimistic about the future, less susceptible to distraction and less affected by competition than introvert people (Moshoeu,2017). In a similar vein, Eswaran et al. (2011) posit that people who are high in extroversion are usually very jovial, vocal and interactive people. In fact, such people often appear to have a good deal of social interaction. Typically, extroverts exhibit behaviour such as being assertive, active, talkative, warm and friendly, while introverts are more reserved, independent of others, and even-paced (eSilva & Laher, 2012; Metzer et al., 2014; Templer, 2012).

Notably, people with high extroversion are characterised by a high need for social contact and attention (Fischer & Boer, 2014). Robbins and Judge (2015) assert that extraverts tend to be generally happier in their work and in their lives as a whole. They tend to perform better in the work that requires significant interaction with others. Perhaps because they have more social skills, they usually have more friends and spend more time in social situations than introverts.

The study by Srivastava et al. (2008) aimed to test whether extraverts are happier (positive affective) because they participate in more social interactions which, in turn, produce positive affect, or they derive more enjoyment from social interactions. Using the Day Reconstruction Method (DRM), their study found that social interactions partially mediated the relationship between extraversion and positive affect. This suggests that extraverts had greater social participation relative to introverts, and in turn, support the notion that extraversion personality is indeed seen as style of actively engaging with the environment.

6.1.1.3 The third aim: To conceptualise the theoretical relationship and integration between the personality dimensions and organisational trust.

This third aim, conceptualising the theoretical relationship and integration between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust was attained in Chapter 3 and the subsequent conclusions were drawn from the literature review:

The literature review supports that corresponding to the pivotal role of organisational trust for all kinds of social interactions and interpersonal relationships; organisational trust has been the target of abundant research across scientific disciplines. However, an integration of the huge literature is currently missing thus hampering a common understanding of organisational trust and a synthesis between the fields (Thielmann, 2015). Furthermore, from a psychological perspective, there is an insufficient understanding of the (basic) personality traits accounting for individual variation in organisational trust. Therefore, the general aim of the research can now be stated as to assess the overall relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust.

Research further indicates that to that end, a behavioural view on organisational trust is adopted,defining organisational trust in terms of a risky choice to depend on another. Based on a broad review of the literature, a theoretical framework is distilled, identifying the situational features and personality characteristics underlying organisational trust. Specifically, trust is considered a function of (1) attitudes toward risky prospects (risk and loss aversion), (2) trustworthiness expectations, and (3) betrayal sensitivity. These determinants are, in turn, rooted in different traits (i.e., anxiety/fear, trustworthiness, and forgiveness) which can be localised in the space defined by basic personality models (Thielmann, 2015).

Regarding the foundations of organisational trust, there are two general theoretical perspectives on how organisational trust is formed (Bauer, 2015). The first perspective stresses that a person's trust is an evaluation of his or her social environment and is grounded in experiences of trustworthiness in workplace interaction. Drawing on experiences, an individual can infer other persons' probable future behaviour. Various studies show, however, that trust changes rather slowly at the societal and individual levels, thereby calling into question the role of later life experiences (Freitag & Bauer, 2015).

Understanding organisational trust as a decision under risk, researchers distill three core components of trust behaviour from the extant literature: attitudes towards risky prospects (i.e., risk aversion and loss aversion), trustworthiness expectations, and betrayal sensitivity. Each of these refers to a distinct set of causal determinants, including personality characteristics (anxiety/fear, trustworthiness, and forgiveness) which can be localized in the space defined by models of basic personality structure (e.g., the Five-Factor Model and the HEXACO model of personality). In sum, the review contributes to the understanding of trust behaviour by linking and integrating the findings from various fields of trust research

Alarcon et al. (2018) investigated the relation between personality and organisational trust. Thielmann et al. (2015) researched on the impact of another trait-based personality mechanism called HEXACON on trustworthiness. Another study by Evans and Revelle (2008), considered the trust inventory and personality traits, and validated this inventory by an economic task. They discovered that trust can be related to the Extravesion personality trait. Evans and Revelle (2008) adopted a broad view of dispositional trust including a generalised expectation of others and a willingness to accept vulnerability. However, a review of their items suggests a strong inclination toward one's own behaviours versus the behaviours of others.These measures, which tap into one's preference for trustworthy behaviour or actual tendencies toward behaviour are useful but are more internally focused than Mayer and colleagues' measure of propensity trust which focuses on attitudes toward others.

Sicora (2015) focused on organisational trust among coworkers and workplace leaders and its relation with two personality models. Finally, Gerris et al. (2010) studied the impacts of the Big Five personality traits of couples on their marriages.The above mentioned studies are based on information systems, typically conducted by designing questionnaire, handing out questionnaires to subjects and analysing their answers.

Yao and Moskowitz, (2015) describe Agreeableness as a social trait. The ability to trust others as well as to establish and maintain relationships are the hallmarks of people who score high on Agreeableness. High Agreeableness persons' have noticeable greater interpersonal communication when in a high-status role compare to in a low-status role and may influence the effortful control process (Yao, & Moskowitz, 2015). It has been found that

emotional stability predicts many human and organisational outcomes, with job performance and job satisfaction being two of the most established outcomes of emotional stability/neuroticism. Judge et al. (2013), for instance, provided evidence of a significant positive relationship between the trait of emotional stability and job performance. Many empirical studies have shown that employees with high levels of emotional stability were more satisfied with their jobs.

Mooradian et al. (2006) found that agreeableness positively influenced trust in colleagues and trust in the supervisor. The study by Bergman et al., (2010) found that extraversion and neuroticism were positively related, but agreeableness, the trait which is usually described in terms of interpersonal warmth, and includes the subfacet trust, was unrelated to organisational trust in others in newly formed teams. Interestingly, when trait trust was introduced in the model, the effect of agreeableness was no longer significant, suggesting that broad measures of personality have little predictive value with regard to trusting behaviour, when more specific and theoretically aligned traits are considered at the same time (Wöhrle et al.,2015).

6.1.2 **Conclusions regarding the empirical study**

The empirical study had four aims:

- To assess the nature of the empirical relationship between personality dimensions and organisational trust.
- To ascertain whether biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race,position and years of service) significantly moderate the relationship among the construct big five personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience) and the dependent construct organisational trust.
- To empirically assess whether or not the big five personality dimensions (conceptualised as agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism, and conscientiousness) positively and significantly predict organisational trust (conceptualised as credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship and interpersonal trust).
- Formulate recommendations and areas for future research based on the research findings for the field of industrial and organisational psychology with regard to big five personality dimensions and organisational trust.

The following conclusions were drawn based on the empirical research:

6.1.2.1 The first aim: To assess the nature of the empirical relationship between personality dimensions and organisational trust.

The validity and reliability of the questionnaire was confirmed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Fit indices from the multivariate analysis confirmed the factor structure of the measuring instrument. Most of the indices indicated the hypothesised model to be a good to acceptable fit.

To determine the reliability of the combined big five personality and organisational trust instrument, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated. The reliability coefficients of all the dimensions of the measuring instrument ranged between 0.78 to 0.96

Correlation analysis indicated a statistically positive relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust dimensions. Out of the big five personality dimensions, only four dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness,openness to experience, and neuroticism) indicated a positive relationship with organisational trust dimensions (trust relationship, credibility, team management, work support, information sharing and interpersonal trust). In addition, credibility exhibited the highest correlation with big five personality dimensions of agreeableness,neuroticism and conscientiousness. However, there was a significant relationship found between credibility as a dimension of organisational trust and agreeableness,neuroticism and conscientiousness.

The findings of the study therefore partially supported Hypothesis 1, which postulated a positive partial relationship between some of the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust, respectively. This supports the findings of previous studies that investigated the relationship between organisational trust and quality of work life. (Van der Berg, 2011).The results of the current study are consistent with findings of the relationship between personality and work engagement. There is a strong link between personality and work engagement (Li and Mao 2014; Rossier et al. 2012).

Although all personality characteristics are important, it seems that specific personality characteristics have a stronger relationship with work engagement and performance, including neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness and intellect-openness (Akhtar et al. 2015; Nilforooshan and Salimi, 2016; Ongore, 2014; Rogers et al., 2013). In a study amongst 1 050 working adults, Akhtar et al. (2015) found that personality traits are valid predictors of work engagement. Similarly,Warr and Inceoglu (2012) found in a sample of 393 individuals from several countries that particularly conscientiousness and extraversion are strong predictors of work engagement.With regards to student's engagement and academic performance, it was also established that personality play a significant role (Ariani, 2015; Rosander and Bäckström, 2014; Uppal and Mishra, 2014)

Based on previous studies, all these personality dimensions are positively related to academic performance, except for neuroticism, which has a negative relationship with engagement (Downey et al. 2014). Mishra (1996) agreed that organisational trust is a construct grounded in an individual's willingness to be vulnerable, but also noted that it is contingent on the individual believing the other person to be competent, open, concerned, and reliable. Based on this, Quinlan (2009) attempted to establish whether there is a relationship between the big five personality characteristics of leaders and the ability of leaders to create and sustain organisational trust. Multiple regression analysis revealed that the leader traits of Extraversion and Agreeableness significantly predicted the trust behaviour of Meeting Expectations.

Martins (2002) investigated the relationship of the big five personality dimensions and managerial practices to the dimension of trust relationships between managers and employees. He surveyed 6,528 employees in South Africa and the results indicate that a weaker relationship with the dimension of organisational trust was obtained for the big five personality. Similarly, Martins (2004) identified principal personality types related to parent, teacher, and student trust in the principal and the school.

6.1.2.2 The second aim: To ascertain whether biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service) significantly moderate the relationship among the big five personality dimensions (agreeableness,conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) and the dependent construct organisational trust.

A moderating effect occurs when a third variable has an influence or impact on the strength of the relationship between two variables (say, X and Y) (Gaol et al., 2014). Thus, in this study gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service were moderator variables respectively in determining the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust constructs.

The big five personality dimensions that were used, as independent variables were the dominant variables that emerged from the model fit measures of confirmatory factor analysis: agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism. The biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service) were used as the moderating variables and the organisational trust dimensions were used as the dependent variables.

In terms of the interaction effects, gender had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust ($\beta = -0.107$, $p<0.004$).The results of the current study corresponds to the findings of the previous study on a model of personality traits and work – life balance as determinants of employee engagement conducted by Moshoeu (2017). She found out no significant main and interaction (moderation) effects were observed on gender, suggesting that gender did not act as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, resourcefulness, emotional stability, positive work-home interaction, positive home-work interaction as composites of independent variables and work enthusiasm and work occupied as dimensions of employee engagement variable.

The above results contradict some of the findings in the literature, which have shown that women scored higher on the big five personality traits of Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism than men (Arif et al. 2012; De Bolle et al. 2015; Soto & John., 2017). Gender differences in personality traits are often reported in terms of which gender has higher scores on a particular trait on average. For example, women are often found to be higher in Agreeableness than men (Rahmani & Lavasani, 2012). Weisberg et al. (2011) studied the personality trait of neuroticism and found that the relationship between neuroticism and teaching quality is moderated by gender differences, and that females score higher on neuroticism than males. However, such a finding does not preclude the fact that men may

also experience neuroticism and may even score higher on this trait than women. The goal of investigating gender differences in personality is, therefore, to elucidate the differences among general patterns of behaviour in men and women on average, with the understanding that both men and women can experience states across the full range of most personality traits. Gender differences in terms of interaction effects do not imply that men and women only experience states on opposing ends of the trait spectrum; on the contrary, significant interaction effects can exist along with a high degree of overlap between the distribution of men and women (Kim et al. 2019).

In a meta-analysis, Vukasovic and Bratko (2015) concluded that gender was not a significant moderator of the heritability of personality traits and findings revealed that 40% of individual differences were due to genetics and 60% were due to environmental factors; however, their study involved a moderator analysis of heritability estimates calculated from the twin correlations across samples and personality traits from several models of personality traits, including the big five model.Their study empirically tested and supported the moderator effect of study design on heritability in the field of personality trait psychology.

In terms of the interaction effects race had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust ($\beta=0.157$, $p<0.001$). The results of the current study correspond to the findings of previous research that examined age differences in the big five trait domains of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience.In the study conducted by Naeem (2021) on the teaching staff's personality traits,students' lecturer personality preferences and teaching quality at a Zimbabwean higher education institution.He found that no significant differences across racial/ethnicity groups on Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism in both the student and teaching staff samples.

Previous studies, however, have revealed racial group differences in the big five personality traits. For instance, Lucas and Baird (2014) found Extraversion to be positively related to positive effects across various cultures in the teaching and learning environment. Tan et al. (2018) research on teaching staff's personality traits in higher education also investigated differences in preferences among two ethnic groups (South East Asian/Chinese versus Caucasian/British). Their findings suggested that Caucasian students had a stronger dislike

for the personality trait of Neuroticism in their lecturers than the Asian sample, while Asians had a higher preference for Extraversion, Openness to Experience and Agreeableness in their lecturers. Findings such as these contradict the results of the current study which did not identify significant differences in big five personality traits across racial groups.

The position or functional job levels had no interaction effects in significantly moderating relationships between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust ($\beta=0.048$, $p<0.003$). The results of the current study corresponds to the findings of the previous study on a model of personality traits and work – life balance as determinants of employee engagement conducted by Moshoeu (2017). She found that no significant interaction was detected between agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, resourcefulness, emotional stability, positive work-home interaction, work enthusiasm and work occupied respectively.

Salgado (1997) conducted a meta-analysis of the five-factor personality dimensions in relation to performance for three criteria (i.e., supervisory ratings, training ratings and personnel data) and for five occupational groups using validity studies conducted in Europe. Results indicated that Conscientiousness and Neuroticism were valid predictors for all performance criteria and for most occupational groups.

In terms of the interaction effects home language had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust ($\beta=-0.064$, $p<0.002$).

Researchers have tried to identify the psychological factors that influence second language communication behaviour in a second or foreign language, for example, among Canadians, and Asian people, such as Japanese, Chinese and Malaysians (Ito, 2013; Yashima et al.,2018; Yousef et al., 2013). Among the predictive factors for willingness to communicate in second language, personality traits have been considered crucial (Ito, 2022). According to the pyramid model of willingness to communicate in second language, personality traits are the foundational factors for willingness to communicate, and they influence willingness to communicate via affective and cognitive factors such as perceived competence and anxiety (Ito, 2022).

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) showed that openness influenced willingness to communicate in second language via perceived competence in an second language, and extraversion influenced willingness to communicate via anxiety in second language, but agreeableness was directly related to willingness to communicate in second language. Also, personality traits are the significant predictors of foreign language proficiency, accounting for 13% of its variance (Ghapanchi et al., 2011).

Age had no interaction effects in significantly moderating the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust ($\beta = -0.195$, $p<0.003$). The results of the current study contradicts to the findings of previous research that examined age differences in the big five trait domains of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience. In the study conducted by Naeem (2021) on the teaching staff's personality traits,students' lecturer personality preferences and teaching quality at a Zimbabwean higher education institution. He found that the demographic characteristic of age results revealed a significant difference in mean scores across age groups based on a p-value of $.000 < 0.05$. The average scores on Agreeableness, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness and Extraversion seemed to differ across age groups. The average score of lecturers between the ages of 26 and 35 and those between the ages of 46 and 55 on Agreeableness, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness and Extraversion was significantly higher ($p = .007 < .05$) than the average score of lecturers who were between the ages of 19 and 25 years.

Existing research suggests that the big five personality traits evolve with age over the life span and can change. Scholars have found that people's levels of Conscientiousness and Agreeableness increase as they get older, while their levels of Neuroticism decrease (Soto & John, 2017). Similarly, some psychologists have found that Neuroticism, Extraversion (only in men) and Openness to Experience decrease with age after 70, but Conscientiousness and Agreeableness increase with age (the latter only in men) (Roberts et al. 2017). Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies conducted globally suggest that there are modest mean level changes throughout adulthood in the big five personality trait model (Soto & John, 2017). The results of a recent study on an Indian population comprising of 155 subjects Magan et al. (2014) concluded with a suggestion that while personality traits may change with age; it is gender-dependant, possibly related to the facets of such traits.

Gollner et al. (2017) also investigated big five personality trait development in the transition to early adolescence (from the fifth to eighth grade), finding that people tend to be more extraverted in mid-adolescence. Finally, Openness to Experience showed a negative and linear association with age, with personality traits in general changing modestly during early adolescence.The available data indicates that from emerging adulthood through to middle age, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness show positive age trends while Neuroticism shows a negative trend, and Extraversion and Openness to Experience show flat trends (Gollner et al. 2017; Lucas & Baird, 2014; Roberts et al. 2017; Soto & John, 2017).

Lastly, in terms of the interaction effects, years of service had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and the organisational trust dimensions except for interpersonal trust ($\beta = -0.117$, $p<0.001$). In the previous study in the The Link Between Employees' Organizational Tenure and Citizenship Behaviour conducted by Seok et al.(2018) to examine the mediating effects of five different types of employees' trust on the relationship between employees' organisational tenure and their organisational citizenship behaviour. Seoke et al.(2018) used data obtained from 163 employees from banking organisation located in Kota Kinabalu, Sabah. Results showed that the direct effect of employee organisational tenure showed a positive but not significant effect towards organisational citizenship behaviour. For the direct effect of employee's organisational trust towards their organisational citizenship behaviour, the sub scale of integrity and relationship influence organisational citizenship behaviour significantly.The sub-scale of integrity shows a negative and significant effect towards organisation citizenship, whereas the sub-scale of relationship affects organisational citizenship behaviour positively. While, the mediation test showed mediation effect did not exist between employee organisational tenure, employee's trust, and organisational citizenship behaviour. The final part of analysis indicated the model has adequate predictive relevance.

Trust in organisation is a prerequisite bottom line in organisation's strategy.Organisational trust within employer and employee would reinforce good behaviour of employees. Employees' ethical behaviour is the best policy for an organisation to earn good reputation. Ethical behaviour is based on employees experiences in their careers as they have to make decision on what action should be taken every day (Huang et al.,2017). Employees who have longer working experience will have higher positive feeling towards their employer

which will lead to good behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour. Huang (2017) found that employees who have worked for more than five years in the organisation would show organisational citizenship behaviour in their working environment. This may be because employees who have longer working experience tend to value and appreciate their organisation more and are more committed in order to pay back the organisation. It was also state that experienced employees in the organisation are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour because they trust their employer which leads to higher level of job satisfaction and job commitment. Hence, working experience may strengthen or weaken the relationship between employees' organisational trust and their organisational citizenship behaviour.

Findings from research have shown that employee organisation behaviour differ across career stages. Employees with a longer job tenure are commonly considered to be more reliable, productive, loyal,trustworthy and committed to the organisation and are more able to socialise with co-workers and more engaged in organisationational citizenship behaviour(Huang, 2017). Human capital theory suggests that employees' organisational tenure is positively related to their job performance. According to the theory employees gain more knowledge and skills about how to perform their jobs effectively over time. The attraction–selection–attrition model claims that employees with poor performance will leave their jobs early from the organisation where they work, leaving the better performers in the organisation and accruing longer tenure . In contrast, findings from Hackman study suggests that long job tenure would lead to decreased intrinsic motivation and increased feelings of job boredom and job dissatisfaction of employees.

Among the five traits, the conscientiousness (consisting of the dimensions of scrupulousness and perseverance) has been showed as particularly relevant in the organisational context by several studies, highlighting its associations with important work outcomes, such as attitudes (Topino et al.,2021), job satisfaction (Rubenstein et al.,2019), performance (Shaffer & Postlethwaite, 2013), relationships with leaders (Huang et al.,2017), response to workplace stressors, and organisational citizenship behaviours. More specifically, the relationship with job satisfaction was also pointed by previous meta-analyzes, which showed that conscientiousness showed significant positive associations, sometimes the highest among different traits of the big five (Miao et al., 2016). Conscientious people tend to be well-organised, self-disciplined, hardworking, growth and

success-oriented, persevering, and motivated in the pursuit of established goals (Topino et al.,2021). Taken together, these factors favour greater efficiency and increase the probability of obtaining satisfactory rewards in the work context, both formally (e.g., promotion) and informally (e.g., esteem and reputation) (Topino et al.,2021).

The results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis indicated biographical variables (gender, age, home language, race, position, and years of service) did not have any moderating effect for the big five personalities and organisational trust dimensions except for the interpersonal trust dimension. Overall, the biographical variables indicated no significant moderating effect on any of the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust variables. The findings of the study, therefore, provide no support for Hypothesis 2, which postulated that biographical variables do not significantly moderate the relationship among the big five personality dimensions *(agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience)* and the dependent construct organisational trust.

6.1.2.3 The third aim: To empirically assess whether or not the big five personality dimensions conceptualised as (agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism, and conscientiousness) positively and significantly predict organisational trust conceptualised as (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust).

To assess which big five personality dimensions significantly predict organisational trust, a stepwise linear regression was conducted. The purpose of the linear regression analysis was to determine the extent that the independent big five personality dimensions predicted or explained the variance in organisational trust. Although all personality characteristics are important, it seems that specific personality characteristics have a stronger relationship with organisational trust, including agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience with the exception of neuroticism.

In addition, it was of interest for this research to understand which dimension in the set of the entire big five-personality dimensions, best predicted organisational trust.The regression model confirmed that three dimensions of the big five personality constructs (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience) would predict organisational trust. Agreeableness made the most significant predictor of organisational

trust. The neuroticism dimension showed no effect in predicting organisational trust. Individuals who score high on neuroticism are not likely to be trustworthy because their expressions of anger and hostility may lead to react negatively (Colbert et al., 2012).The result of the current study corresponds with that of Naeem (2021) where the researcher concluded that of the big five personality traits, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Agreeableness are the most desired over Neuroticism, and are more closely linked to teaching quality in a Zimbabwean higher education context.

Mooradian et al. (2006) found that agreeableness positively influenced trust in colleagues and trust in the supervisor. Mooradian et al. (2006) circulated a self-administered questionnaire, which measured personality traits and interpersonal trust at work, among the employees of a company, and found a significant relationship between agreeableness and propensity to trust. A similar study by Jacques et al. (2009) investigated the effect of personality on trust in virtual reality (VR) teams, where, due to the use of VR technology, individuals were unable to control others' behaviours and were forced to trust them. Their results indicated that extraversion and agreeableness negatively correlated with trusting behaviours. Neuroticism positively correlated with trust behaviour, and openness negatively correlated with technology anxiety.

Agreeableness describes nurturance, altruism, care, and emotional support, and it is also linked to being cooperative, trustful, tolerant, and forgiving (Digman, 2003). Friendly individuals have an emotional concern for the well-being of others, treat others with consideration for their rights and preferences, and usually have favorable opinions about others (Soto, 2019). Agreeableness positively impacts the intuitive and reliant decision-making styles (El Othman et al., 2020). Employees with a low level of agreeableness are aggressive, oppositional, manipulative, callous, and strong-willed (Shehzad et al., 2020, 2021). Agreeable employees are more motivated to establish an interpersonal connection which contributes to a higher level of well-being,satisfaction and being trustful (Aydogmus et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the results indicate that conscientiousness plays an important role in significantly predicting organisational trust. Participants who score high on conscientiousness are better able to plan and organise themselves, as well as take control

of the amount of time (energy and resources) required to complete certain tasks, especially to increase efficiency, effectiveness and productivity (Moshoeu,2017). In other words, time management is of paramount importance to conscientious people because they need to structure and plan the work ahead. Conscientious people are predetermined to do thorough work and persevere in order to finish tasks at the allotted time (Moshoeu,2017).Organisational conscientiousness is usually interpreted to reflect the mindfulness that an employee never forgets to be a member of an organisation and always obeys organisational rules and procedures even when no one is watching. Conscientiousness is a set of behaviours that causes a person to do tasks more than the basic requirements of the job. And can be an important predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour (Saeedy & Rastgar,2015).

Persons characterised as conscientious are usually willing to conform to the group's norms, as well as to organisational rules and policies if they possess a level of agreeableness (Smithikrai, 2008). According to Hofmann and Jones (2005), persons characterised with the personality trait of conscientiousness displayed recurring behavioural regularities of the organisation, efficiency, thoroughness, and steadiness. The literature explored further revealed that persons characterised as conscientious possessed characteristics such as self-control, determination, purposefulness, a will to achieve, and dependability (Grehan et al., 2011).Conscientious persons are organised, plan skillfully, and are reliable on matters that require achievement versus being careless, negligent, and sloppy (Van Lieshout, 2000).Evans and Revelle (2008) examined the predictive value of the Big Five and trait trust in an investment game and found that of the big five only agreeableness positively predicted trusting behaviour which is consistent with current study.

Openness to experience showed significant effect in predicting organisational trust. The behavioural tendency to be resourceful or open to new ideas plays an important role in explaining employees' level of organisational trust. This tendency allows people to be creative in terms of structuring their work-related activities. In addition, people who score high on openness to experience are better able to craft or redesign their own work, thereby increase their trust in the organisation(Moshoeu,2017).Müller and Schwieren (2019) experimentally tested the impact of personality factors (measured using the Big Five model) on behaviour in a trust game among humans and found that (despite Alarcon et al. (2018) findings personality traits do explain organisational trust behaviour. However, they

suggest that personality best correlates with behaviour in ambiguous decisions, and not well in a risky decision where organisational trust behaviour is better explained also considering whether one is in a strong or a weak situation.

In the literature reviewed, individuals who were classified as openness-to experience were creative, unconventional, and broadminded (Smith & Canger, 2004). Open individuals are less likely to engage in interpersonal relationships or relationships that fulfill their physical or emotional needs because the traits associated with openness do not appear relevant for interpersonal relationship; therefore, the researchers did not expect to find relationships between supervisors' openness and subordinates' attitudes (Smith & Canger, 2004). Receptiveness to new ideas, preference for varied sensations, attentiveness to inner feelings, and intellectual curiosity are other characteristics of the openness-to-experience dimension (Grehan et al., 2011).

The current study find no significant effect on neuroticism in predicting organisational trust. With regard to neuroticism, however, evidence is rather scarce with only one study supporting the proposed negative relation between neuroticism (specifically the anxiety facet) and organisational trust (Müller & Schwieren, 2012) and another study hinting at a trend for the proposed negative relation between neuroticism and trust behaviour (Ben-Ner & Halldorsson, 2010). However, only few studies have predicted trust behaviour from the perspective of the FFM, and thus further research is needed to critically test the proposed associations between trust behaviour and neuroticism.

Correspondingly, several studies reported high correlations between neuroticism and trait anxiety and/or fear (Doty et al., 2013). Moreover, high levels of neuroticism have been identified as a risk factor for the development of anxiety disorders. Neuroticism should hence explain individual differences in trust behaviour through its influence on trait anxiety and fear.

Neuroticism is a personality trait that naturally reflects variations in positive and negative emotions (Soto, 2019). Anxiety, sadness, poor self-esteem, impulsivity, and mood fluctuations are mostly common traits among highly neurotic individuals. Therefore, neuroticism scores are predicted to be low in positive output behaviours (Murugesan and Jayavelu, 2017). Individuals having high neuroticism levels are more likely to adopt

maladaptive techniques to control their emotions and are less likely to participate in reappraisal, and have more negative moods (Yoon and Barker Steege, 2013). Neurotic employees experience more negative life events, and such employees are more furious, depressed, embarrassed, and worried and more focused on the negativity around them (Blackwell et al., 2017). These employees have a hard time expressing their feelings and understanding the behaviour of the other employees in the organisation (Aydogmus et al., 2015).

The findings of the study, therefore, provide partial support for Hypothesis 3, which postulates that the big five personality dimensions would positively and significantly predict organisational trust.

6.1.2.4 The fourth aim: Formulate recommendations and areas for future research based on the research findings for the field of industrial and organisational psychology with regard to Big Five personality dimensions and organisational trust.

Based on the limited scope of the present study, future studies can investigate the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust using all the Chapter 9 public institutions in South Africa. Future studies can be in the form of longitudinal studies that take into account situational and environmental influences that may change with time.

The findings in the literature review contributed to the field of industrial and organisational psychology, particularly with respect to organisational trust. The literature provided new insights in terms of the associations between personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness,openness to experience and neuroticism) and organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust).

In addition, future studies can employ a mixed-method design in which data is collected through both questionnaires and interview questions. Interview questions can allow more in-depth rich data to be obtained to understand the nature of the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust among the different employees at public institutions.

Other possible interventions to enhance trust in the organisation and trust in the coworkers and supervisors are to engage in team-building exercises so that employees can have a better understanding of different personality of their counterparts, regularly engaging employees through webinars as a means of openly sharing information, engaging in productive dialogues, and empowering employees to take part in decision-making, and being ethical can create high organisational trusting climate.

It is fundamental for organisations to create a safe space (psychological safety) for constructive dialogue, honest and open engagements with employees.Communicating timeously, transparently, encouraging other employees and line managers to do the same whilst listening with empathy, responding thoughtfully without judgment, and lastly taking accountability for actions and decisions.

The literature reviews also provided relevant information on organisational trust, thereby contributing a new understanding on this construct. The current study added significant value by advancing the existing literature through its provision of new insights into the way in which organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust) and personality traits (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, resourcefulness and emotional stability) are related.

This study will be of value to the human resource function specifically in the formulation of reliable and valid psychological explanations of the behaviour of employees and the implementation of appropriate interventions to ensure an effective, efficient and equitable improvement in the behaviour of employees. In addition, the findings of this research study will add significance to the body of knowledge by attempting to give an insight into the impact of the big five personality dimensions on organisational trust.

Based on conclusions in terms of the empirical study, the statistical relationship identified between personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism) and organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust) provided advanced knowledge in terms of organisational trust in the workplace.

The correlational analyses revealed that individuals' perception of organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust) and personality dimensions (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, resourcefulness and emotional stability) are significantly related. This suggests that certain attitudinal and behavioural aspects relating to organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust) and personality traits respectively (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, resourcefulness and emotional stability) should be incorporated into any intervention strategies that promote organisational trust in the workplace.

Moreover, the public organisation understudy will be able to ascertain which dimensions of the construct contribute positively towards organisational trust. This informs the organisation to implement interventions that will increase the levels of organisational trust.

The standard multiple linear regression analysis further confirmed the statistical effects of organisational trust (credibility, team management, work support, information sharing, trust relationship, and interpersonal trust) and personality traits (conscientiousness, resourcefulness and emotional stability) variables that acted as the most significant predictors of organisational trust behaviour. This study emphasises the significance of organisational trust in the twenty-first-century world of work and the fourth industrial revolution (4IR) which enables employees to cope with the increasing challenges and demands they face in the new normal, specifically, in the organisational context. The conclusions drawn from this study can benefit industrial and organisational psychology scholars, academics and practitioners to develop organisational trust interventions.

6.1.3 Conclusions regarding the contribution of this study to the field of industrial and organisational psychology

The findings of the literature review and the empirical study have contributed new knowledge to the field of industrial and organisational psychology and, in particular, to the body of knowledge on organisational trust. The study adds to the understanding of organisational trust as a multidimensional construct within this field.

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on the theoretical perspectives of organisational trust. The literature review adds significantly towards enhancing an understanding of the role of organisational trust in public organisations in South Africa to ascertain the current level of organisational trust among employees within the organisation.

Moreover, the public organisation understudy will be able to ascertain which dimensions of the construct contribute positively towards organisational trust. This informs the organisation to implement interventions that will increase the levels of organisational trust.

Leaders who have an understanding of how individuals' personalities differ can use this understanding to improve their leadership effectiveness and lead to improving employees' job performance. If leaders know their employees' tendencies, strengths, and weaknesses, they can use these to help their employees and keep them motivated.

Leaders can also use the Big Five on themselves to assess their behaviours and demonstrate to employees how to not only maximise their strengths but also learn from their weaknesses as they drive the organisation to success and continue to evaluate organisational behaviour.

6.2 **LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The limitations of the present study concerning the literature review and the empirical study will be discussed in the following section.

6.2.1 **Limitations related to the literature review**

As mentioned in earlier chapters, some of the constructs like organisational trust and personality are not necessarily well defined in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.Future research studies should be undertaken for diversified occupational groups like nursing, police personnel, scientists, etc. to explore whether results of the present study can be generalised in different contexts.

This research study on assessing organisational trust and personality dimensions in a public organisation context was limited on account of the following:

- Despite the importance of the big five personality trait model, researchers have criticised it in the past because of its inability to generate accurate measures. It should therefore be modified to make it more dynamic (South et al. 2018).

- It was evident in the literature that although these personality trait measures are widely used in the social sciences globally, existing research mainly reflects conditions in Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich and Democratic (WEIRD) populations. Furthermore, low education levels may misrepresent personality measures when assessed in large-scale surveys and in low or middle-income countries (Laajaj et al. 2019).
- The paradigms of the present study were limited to the subfields of Organisational Psychology and the discipline of IOP, which include open systems, humanistic, behavioural and psychoanalytic paradigms (Naeem, 2021).

6.2.2 **Limitations related to the empirical study**

The study was conducted at one public service organisation, resulting in a small sample size. Although the study took place in a public service organisation, its results may not be generalizable to all public service organisation and the private sector, due to the small sample size.

Secondly, cross-sectional quantitative designs have several limitations mainly relating to the analysis of causal relationships or changes over time and the comparability of samples (Cohen et al., 2018). They are also susceptible to cohort effects (i.e. differences between age groups arising from the effects of growing up in different historical eras), which may reduce the internal validity of the results (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2017). Cross-sectional designs are, however, commonly used in social research because of their efficiency (when large volumes of data need to be collected in a limited period) and economic feasibility (the costs are relatively low) (Babbie & Roberts, 2018). Another limitation of the study was the use of the cross-sectional design instead of a longitudinal design. This limited the data analysis in that a cross-sectional design does not allow a high degree of confidence on analysis. Future studies would benefit from utilisation of a longitudinal design to allow for greater confidence towards improved and/or better consistent conclusions related to causes of variations in research variables.

Although a cross-sectional design does not lend itself to making causal inferences from the data, it was deemed appropriate for this study because of its usefulness in gathering large-scale data from a wide target population that could be objectively analysed to make inferences about the relationships between the variables (Cohen et al., 2018).

Thirdly, all the instruments chosen for this study were self-report assessments. Although self-reporting measures are commonly used to assess individual perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour, they have a few disadvantages. The results of self-reporting measures may be biased, since participants may lack the ability for introspection or to recall particular information, and as a result, they provide inaccurate responses to the questions, despite their best attempts to offer true and honest answers (Cohen et al., 2018; Field, 2018).

Self-report measures are also susceptible to socially desirable responses (e.g. employees may exaggerate positive discretionary behaviour and underreport negative behaviour) (Holtz & Harold, 2013). Individuals may thus attempt to conceal their perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour by providing spurious or false responses, especially if their true responses may be deemed unacceptable to society (Babbie & Roberts, 2018).

The importance of looking not only at individual differences, for instance concerning personality characteristics but also at cultural background when it comes to assessing organisational trust is emphasised by Wöhrle et al. (2014) who found a unique contribution of cultural characteristics on workplace trust. Under the effects of employment equity legislation, an employee in any South African organisation, at anytime, has to work with persons from other cultures, which brings about a multitude of implications and questions.

A particular focus of the study was on permanent employees in a public organisation therefore, judgement needs to be applied before applying the recommendations out of these parameters.

In the study, the measuring instrument that was administered was in English, which is the official business language of the organisation under study. However, this may have harmed the ability to understand the scale items by participants whose first language is not English (Ndoro, 2017). The present study only used a quantitative research methodology and qualitative methods could be considered. Data was collected using only questionnaires and no other data collection methods such as interviews and focus groups discussions (Van der Hoven, 2016).

Additionally, other forms of analysis could have been used like ANOVA where the researcher can measure the differences in the experience of organisational trust pertaining to the proposed demographics in order to get in depth understanding of whether there are significant differences in terms of biographical variables.

6.3 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

From the results of the study, several recommendations can be made to the public organisation under study to increase the levels of organisational trust among employees. It is recommended that the measures be used in a larger study, with respondents from different public service organisations and organisational cultures.This will help to get an idealistic in-depth understanding of the constructs. In an attempt to address the limitations of this study as discussed in the previous section, it is recommended that further research be conducted to investigate the concepts of organisational trust and culture and their possible interrelationships to gain clarity on the roles they play within an organisational setting.

The organisation should communicate the findings of the study to the employees, to create awareness of the role and impact of the big five personality dimensions on organisational trust. Building organisational trust should be prioritised as a key developmental strategy in management and leadership development programmes for the organisation.

It is recommended that organisational trust is an essential element of effective employer-employee relations and enhances the parties' willingness to work together towards a common goal. Trusting employer-employee relations is only possible if organisations find ways of balancing control with cooperation and consensus. This could be achieved if the organisation's management ensures that each person has an equal opportunity to make a distinctive contribution as the sharing of information and ideas is imperative.Employees should have a clear, shared picture and understanding of the importance of their efforts in the overall success of the organisation, and in turn, this can increase the trust level within the organisation.

As various studies have found that trust in a direct leader has a positive influence on turnover intentions conversely, low trust or even worse a breach of trust can lead to employee turnover (Von der Ohe, 2014). As such, supervisors should be trained in ethics

and in how to treat employees fairly. This would be an effort to increase integrity, which has the highest impact on perceptions of trustworthiness and consequently organisational trust. Various reviews have also shown that it is important to understand the functioning of trust relationships in organisations to understand cooperative behaviour and coordination in organisations (McEvily, 2011).

The regression results indicated that the three dimensions of the big five personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience) would predict organisational trust except for neuroticism. Individuals who score high on neuroticism are not likely to be trustworthy leaders because their expressions of anger and hostility may lead subordinates to react negatively to them (Colbert et al., 2012). Anger and hostility expressed frequently will make it difficult for those leaders to form meaningful relationships and have influence over their subordinates (Weisband & Atwater, 1999). Leaders who have an understanding of how individuals' personalities differ can use this understanding to improve their leadership effectiveness and lead to improving employees' trust relationship and job performance.If leaders know their employees' tendencies, strengths, and weaknesses, they can use these to help their employees and keep them motivated.

Finally, to improve the level of organisational trust of all employees, the organisation needs to try to maintain and further enhance the positive managerial practices of team management through various team-building interventions, leadership team effectiveness sessions, and to develop interventions that explore accountability at individuals and team value.

No significant main interaction (moderation) effects were observed for the biographical variables between agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism as composites of independent variables and trust relationship, work support, team management, information sharing, and credibility as dimensions of organisational trust variable. A significant interaction (moderating) effect was observed in terms of biographical variables (age, race, gender, home language, position and years of experience) with interpersonal trust as the dimension of organisational trust as such it is recommended that further research be conducted to investigate the concepts of biographical variables and interpersonal trust and their possible interrelationships to gain clarity on the roles they play within an organisation.

In conclusion, the managerial concern is somehow related to some aspect of open, honest communication. Supervisors who ensure that relevant information is shared and who are fair and honest in their communication should be perceived more much more trustworthy than others should. Whitener et al.(1998) already pointed out the importance of communication for trustworthiness. The two factors of sources of information and changes that occurred in the organisation identified as important were openness, accuracy, and timely feedback, including offering 360 explanations for their decisions. Fortunately, such communication falls under the control of the supervisor,and if these skills are lacking, it is straightforward to rectify the situation with appropriate interventions. Leaders can also use the big five on themselves to assess their behaviours and demonstrate to employees how to not only maximise their strengths but also learn from their weaknesses as they drive the organisation to success and continue to evaluate organisational behaviour.

6.4 **FUTURE RESEARCH**

The focus of future research should be on collecting data from additional public institutions/organisatiions in order to validate the results of the current study, because these results will not have general applicability without such replication.

As this research was conducted in a single public service institution, a research study on the relationship between organisational trust and big five personality dimensions is needed, with larger populations in the broader public service sector to improve the generalisability of the results. Industrial psychologists working in the field of organisational trust and big five personality dimensions should further investigate whether certain big five personality dimensions predict organisational trust in the private sector the same way as in the public sector.

Notwithstanding the limitations stated, the study results can potentially be used as a basis for future investigations on organisational trust and personality dimensions.The respondents reported on their feelings and attitudes; therefore, social desirability might have affected the responses received as also cautioned by Johnson and Fendrich (2002).

Based on the limited scope of the present study, future studies can investigate organisational trust using a private organisation in South Africa. Future studies can be in the

form of longitudinal studies that take into account situational, environmental, and cultural influences that may change with time. In addition, future studies can employ a mixed-method design in which data is collected through both questionnaires and interview questions. Interview questions can allow more in-depth rich data to be obtained to understand the nature of organisational trust among the different employees at public organisations. Future studies can employ random sampling and use a large sample size to ascertain the psychometric properties of the measuring instrument.

Future research studies should consider conducting a mixed-method (quantitative and qualitative) approach to draw more insightful experiences from the participants. A degree of accuracy in the research analysis may be proven higher if data collection instruments such as observations and interviews are used in conjunction with a questionnaire.

As part of leadership strategies and interventions, Leaders who have an understanding of how individuals' personalities differ can use this understanding to improve their leadership effectiveness and lead to improving employees' job performance and trust relationship behaviours.If leaders know their employees' tendencies, strengths, and weaknesses, they can use these to help their employees and keep them motivated.

The organisation should also do more to address the issues of sources of information employees receive from their line managers and changes that occurred in the organisation, as they do not come out clearly as to whether these two dimensions should be part of organisational trust dimensions.

However, only few studies have predicted organisational trust behaviour from the perspective of the FFM, and thus further research is needed to critically test the proposed associations between organisational trust behaviour and neuroticism dimension.

6.5 **INTEGRATION OF THE STUDY**

The present study assessed the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and organisational trust. In the context of the first trust audit, personality factors were considered for investigation as antecedents of trust, because the literature at that stage considered them as valid predictors of work-related behaviour (Von der Ohe,2014). This has been a strongly contested aspect in the organisational psychology literature, as various

research came to different conclusions because of methodological technicalities. Personality traits have been shown to predict critical work behaviours (Gaddis & Foster, 2015; Kaiser et al., 2015). It has therefore been suggested that the characteristics of the trustor and specifically their personality traits may influence organisational trust (Terblanche & Heyns, 2020).

Personality which encompasses a person's values, drives, preferences, and needs is perceived as an important determinant of organisational trust. The choice to trust is therefore a lifestyle in which the total personality has to find expression and people will choose to trust where they can express themselves and will seek an environment where they can exercise their preferences, abilities, and skills. Individuals' trusting choice is an expression of their personalities (Kotze, 2014). Therefore, the research hypothesis that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the big five personality dimensions and trust was partially supported.

Understanding what factors make a difference in the trust levels of employees could be helpful for organisations to create, develop and sustain an organisational climate in which employees can thrive. Developing and nurturing organisational trust is no longer a nice to have it is a business imperative.

6.6 **CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter discussed the conclusions of both the theoretical and the empirical findings. Limitations of the study were highlighted, and recommendations for future research were proposed. This research study concluded with an integration of the study, providing support for a positive relationship between the dimensions of big five personality dimensions and organisational trust, respectively. It is hoped that this investigation will stimulate research in the important areas of organisational trust and big five personality dimensions since these two concepts constitute part of the greatest challenges organisations face. The study is herewith concluded.

REFERENCES

Agyemang, F. G., Dzandu, M. D., & Boateng, H. (2016). Knowledge sharing among teachers: the role of the Big Five Personality traits. *VINE Journal of Information and Knowledge Management Systems*, *46*(1), 64-84. https://doi.org/10.1108/VJIKMS-12-2014-0066

Akhtar, R., Boustani, L., Tsivrikos, D., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2015). The engageable personality: Personality and trait EI as predictors of work engagement. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *73*, 44-49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.08.040

Akoglu, H. (2018). User's guide to correlation coefficients.*Turkish Journal of Emergency Medicine, 18*(3), 91-93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tjem.2018.08.001

Al-Shalabi, F.S. (2019) 'The relationship between organisational trust and organisational identification and its effect on organisational loyalty', *International Journal of. Economics and Business Research*,*18*(1), 1–30.

Amir, F., Naz, F., Hafeez, S. Q., Ashfaq, A., & Dogar, Y. H. (2014). Measuring the effect of five-factor model of personality on team performance with moderating role of employee engagement. *Journal of Psychology and Behavioural Science*, *2*(2), 221-255

Alarcon, G. M., Lyons, J. B., Christensen, J. C., Bowers, M. A., Klosterman, S. L., & Capiola, A. (2018). The role of propensity to trust and the five factor model across the trust process. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *75*, 69-82.

Alansari, M. A., Khan, S. A., Ali, S. I., Bogam, R. R., & Fouad, A. N. (2016). Personality traits and academic performance of medical students. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, *5*(4), 420–425. http://doi.10.36106/ijsr

Albrecht, S. L., Bakker, A. B., Gruman, J. A., Macey, W. H., & Saks, A. M. (2015). Employee engagement, human resource management practices and competitive advantage. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, *2*(1),7-35. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOEPP-08-2014-0042

Alkahtani, A. H., Abu-Jarad, I., Sulaiman, M., & Nikbin, D. (2011). The impact of personality and leadership styles on leading change capability of Malaysian managers. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, *1*(2), 70-98. http://irep.iium.edu.my/id/eprint/11519

Anglim, J., & Connor, P. J. (2018). Measurement and research using the Big Five, HEXACO, and narrow traits: A primer for researchers and practitioners*. Australian Journal of Psychology,* (In Press). http://doi.9536 10.1111/ajpy.12202

Arif, M., Rashid, A., Tahira, S., & Akhter, M. (2012). Personality and teaching: An investigation into prospective teachers' personality. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 2*(17), 161–171. http://doi //www.ijhssnet.com

Arora, R., & Rangnekar, S. (2016). The interactive effects of conscientiousness and agreeableness on career commitment. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 53*(1), 14–29. https://doi.org/10.1002/joec.12025

Arnason, L., & Johnsen, S. (2012). *The Role and Perception of Organisational Trust.* Gothenburg: University of Gothenburg: school of business and economics

Aucamp, L. (2014). *The influence of transformational leadership on trust, psychological empowerment, and team effectivenes* [Doctoral dissertation,Stellenbosch University].SUNScholar.http://hdl.handle.net/10019.1/86572

Aven, T. (2011). On some recent definitions and analysis frameworks for risk, vulnerability, and resilience. *Risk Analysis: An International Journal*, *31*(4), 515-522. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1539-6924.2010.01528.x

Aydogmus, C., Ergeneli, A., & Camgoz, S. M. (2015). The role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between personality and job satisfaction. *Research Journal of Business and Management*, *2*(3), 251-276.https://doi.org/10.17261/PRESSACADEMIA.2015312979

Babbie, R., & Roberts, L. W. (2018). *Fundamentals of social research* (4th ed). Nelson Education

Bachmann, R., & Zaheer, A. (2006). *Handbook of Trust Research*. Edward Elgar.

Bachmann, R. (2011). At the crossroads: Future directions in trust research. *Journal of Trust Research*, *1*, 203-213. https://doi.org/10.1080/21515581.2011.603513

Bachmann, R. Gillespie, N. & Priem, R. (2015). Repairing Trust in Organizations and Institutions: Toward a Conceptual Framework. *Organization Studies*, *36*(9), 1123–1142. https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840615599334

Bagby, R. M., & Widiger, T. A. (2018). Five Factor Model personality disorder scales: An introduction to a special section on assessment of maladaptive variants of the five factor model. *Psychological Assessment*, *30*(1), 1. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/pas0000523

Bakker, A.B., Van Veldhoven, M.J.P.M., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2010). Beyond the Demand-Control model: Thriving on high job demands and resources. Journal of Personnel Psychology, 9, 3–16. doi:10.1027/1866-5888/a000006

Bandura, A. 2012. On the functional properties of perceived self-efficacy revisited. *Journal of Management*, *38*, 9-44.

Banks, G. C., & McDaniel, M. A. (2014). Meta-analysis as a validity summary tool. In *The Oxford handbook of personnel assessment and selection*. Oxford University Press. http://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199732579.013.0009

Baptiste, B. (2018).*The Relationship Between the Big Five Personality Traits and Authentic Leadership*.[Doctoral dissertation, Walden University].Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies. 4714. https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/4714

Barakat, A., & Othman, A. (2015). The Five-Factor Model of Personality and Its Relationship to Cognitive Style (Rush and Prudence) and Academic Achievement among a Sample of Students. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *6*(35), 156-165.

Barrick, M. R. & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *44*(1), 1–26. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1991.tb00688.x

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Personality and performance at the beginning of the new millennium: What do we know and where do we go next? *International Journal of Selection and assessment*, *9* (1-2), 9-30. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00160

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Li, N. (2013). The theory of purposeful work behaviour: The role of personality, higher-order goals, and job characteristics. *Academy of management review*, *38*(1), 132-153.

Ben-Ner, A., & Halldorsson, F.(2007) Measuring trust: which measure can be trusted? Paper provided by the Human Resources and Labor Studies, University of Minnesota in its Working Papers with*, (0207)*. https://EconPapers.repec.org/RePEc:hrr:papers:0207

Ben-Ner, A. (2010). Trusting and trustworthiness: What are they, how to measure them, and what affects them. *Journal of economic psychology : research in economic psychology and behaviourall economics, 31*(1) .

Bell, C., & Njoli, N. (2016). The role of big five factors on predicting job-crafting propensities amongst administrative employees in a South African tertiary institution. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *14*(1), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v14i1.702

Bencsik, A. & Machova, R., 2016, 'Knowledge sharing problems from the viewpoint of intergeneration management', International conference on management leadership and governance April, pp. 42–55.

Bernstein, D. (2013). *Essentials of psychology* (6th ed.). Cengage Learning

Bersin, J., Argawal, D., Peltser, B., & Schwartz, J. (2015). *Global human capital trends 2015*.http://d2mtr37y39tpbu.cloudfront.net/wpcontent/uploads/2015/08/DUP_Global HumanCapitalTrends2015.pdf

Bews, N., & Rossouw, D. (2002). Contemporary organisational change and the importance of trust. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *28*(4), 2-6. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i4.72

Bews, N., & Martins, N. (2002). An evaluation of the facilitators of trustworthiness.*SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*,*28*(4),14-19.https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i4.70

Bjørkelo, B., Einarsen, S. & Matthiesen, S. B. (2010). Predicting proactive behaviour at work: Exploring the role of personality as an antecedent of whistleblowing behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 83(2), 371-394.

Blackwell, D., Leaman, C., Tramposch, R., Osborne, C., & Liss, M. (2017). Extraversion, neuroticism, attachment style and fear of missing out as predictors of social media use and addiction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *116*, 69-72.http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.04.039

Blakey, J. (2016). *The trusted executive : nine leadership habits that inspire results, relationships and reputation*. Kogan Page Publishers

Bligh, M. C. (2017). "Leadership and trust," in Leadership Today: Practices for Personal and Professional Performance, eds J. Marques and S. Dhiman (Springer),21–42. https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007%2F978-3-319-31036-7_2c

Blignaut, L. (2011). *Personality as a predictor of performance for customer service centre agents in the banking industry* [Doctoral thesis, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/5736

Blignaut, L., & Ungerer, L. M. (2014). Personality as predictor of customer service centre agent performance in the banking industry: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *12*(1), 1-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v12i1.607

Blokland, L.M.E. (2016). Non-Western (African) views of psychological constructs: Current context of psychological assessment in South Africa. In R. Ferreira (Ed.),*Psychological Assessment: Thinking innovatively in the contexts of diversity* (pp. 37- 51). Juta and Company (Pty) Ltd

Blommaert, T., Van Den Broek, S. & De Pooter, M. (2014). The Guardians of Trust: Cultivating Trust Can Enhance Business Performance, but it Runs Counter to the Instincts of Organizations and Internal Auditors. *Internal Auditor, 71*(5), 47-51.

Bolding, A.R.(2017). Personality and preservice teacher success.[Doctoral dissertation, Univesrity of Western Carolina]. https://libres.uncg.edu/ir/wcu/f/Bolding2017.pdf

Bonett, D., & Wright, T. (2015). Cronbach's alpha reliability: Interval estimation, hypothesis testing, and sample size planning. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, *36*(1), 3-15. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.1960

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *89*(5), 901.

Botha, N.(2019*). Customer Relationship Value in the Business-to-Business Railway Market of Southern Africa* [Doctoral dissertation,University of South Africa].UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/26231

Bothma, C. F., & Roodt, G. (2013). The validation of the turnover intention scale. SA *Journal of Human Resource Management*,*11*(1),1-12.http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v11i1.507

Boudreaux, M. (2014). *Personality-Related Problems and the Five-Factor Model of Personality*[Doctoral dissertation,Univerisity of Carlifonia Riverside]. UC Riverside Electronic Theses and Dissertations. https://escholarship.org/uc/item/6r76q9c4

Brewerton, P. M., & Millward, L. J. (2001). *Organizational research methods*. SAGE Publications, Ltd. https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781849209533

Bridoux, F., Stofberg, N., & Den Hartog, D. (2016). Stakeholders' responses to CSR tradeoffs: When other-orientation and trust trump material self-interest. *Frontiers in Psychology, 6*, 1992. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01992

Brown, S., Gray, D., McHardy, J., & Taylor, K. (2015). Employee trust and workplace performance. *Journal of Economic Behaviour & Organisation*, *116*, 361-378. https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jebo.2015.05.001

Brown, C.G. (2016). *Leadership Approachability: What is it, what is it good for, and who needs it?* (Publication No. 10146605) [Doctoral Thesis, University of Tulsa]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global

Bui, H. T. (2017). Big Five personality traits and job satisfaction: Evidence from a national sample*. Journal of General Management*, *42*(3), 21–30.

Bussing, A. (2002). Trust and its relations to commitment and involvement in work and organisations. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 28*(4). https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i4.77

Campos-Castillo, C., & Ewoodzie, K. (2014). Relational trustworthiness: How status affects intra-organizational inequality in job autonomy. *Social science research*, *44*, 60-74.https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2013.11.001

Cao, L. (2015). Differentiating confidence in the police, trust in the police, and satisfaction with the police. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *38(*2), 239-249. https://doi.org/10.1108/PIJPSM-12-2014-0127

Capuzzi, D., & Stauffer, M. D. (2016). *Counselling and psychotherapy: Theories and interventions.* John Wiley & Sons

Carducci, B. J. (2009). *The psychology of personality: Viewpoints, research, and applications.* John Wiley & Sons.

Castaldo, S., Premazzi, K., & Zerbini, F. (2010). The meaning (s) of trust. A content analysis on the diverse conceptualizations of trust in scholarly research on business relationships. *Journal of Business Ethics, 96*, 657-668. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s10551-010-0491-4

Castelfranchi, C., & Falcone, R. (2010). *Trust theory:A socio-cognitive and computational model.* John Wiley & Sons

Castillo, J. (2017). The relationship between big five personality traits, customer empowerment and customer satisfaction in the retail industry. *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research (JBRMR)*, *11*(2). https://dx.doi.org/10.24052/JBRMR/253

Cattell, R. B. (1945). The description of personality: Principles and findings in a factor analysis. *The American journal of psychology*, *58(1),* 69-90. https://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1417576

Cave, J., & Jolliffe, L. (2013). *Tourism and souvenirs: Global perspectives from the margins.* Channel View Publications.

Cervone, D., Shadel, W. G., & Jencius, S. (2001). Social-cognitive theory of personality assessment. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *5*, 33-51.

Chandrasekar, T., & Chidambaram, C. (2015) "The Impact of Big Five Personality Traits and Positive Psychological Strengths towards Job Satisfaction: a Review", *Periodica Polytechnica Social and Management Sciences*, *23(2),*142–150. https://doi.org/10.3311/PPso.7620

Chao, C.-M., Yu, C.-T., Cheng, B.-W., & Chuang, P-C. (2013). Trust and commitment in relationships among medical equipment suppliers: Transaction cost and social exchange theories. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal*, *41*(7), 1057-1069. https://doi.org/ 10.2224/sbp.2013.41.7.1057

Cheung, F. M., van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Leong, F. T. L. (2011). Toward a new approach to the study of personality in culture. *American Psychologist, 66*, 593-603.

Cheung, F. M. (2012). Mainstreaming culture in psychology. *American Psychologist*, *67*(8), 721

Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I. S., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviours: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *96*(6), 1140. https://doi.org/ 10.1037/a0024004

Child, J., &Möllering, G. (2000). The Development Of Organizational Trust In The Chinese Business Context. Research Papers in Management Studies, 34

Chinomona, R. (2013). The Influence of Servant Leadership on Employee Trust in a Leader and Commitment to the Organization. Mediterrenean Journal of Social Sciences, 4(14), 405–414.

Chitsaz-Isfahani, A. & Boustani, H. (2014). Effects of Talent Management on Employee Retention: The Mediate Effect of Organizational Trust. *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, *3*(5), 114–128. http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJAREMS/v3-i5/1196

Cho, Y. J. & Park, H. (2011). Exploring the Relationships Among Trust, Employee Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment. *Public Management Review*, *13*(4), 551–573. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2010.525033

Choi, J. Y., and Resick, C. J. (2017). “Trust in the workplace: a multi-foci meta-analytic investigation,” in Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings, New York, NY. doi: 10.5465/ambpp.2016.16770abstract

Cilliers, F., & Koorzten, P. (2002). The psychoanalytic approach to team development. In R. Lowman (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational consulting psychology: A comprehensive guide to theory,skills, and techniques* (pp. 260-284). Jossey-Bass.

Cilliers, J. R., Mostert, K., & Nel, J. A. (2018). Study demands, study resources and the role of personality characteristics in predicting the engagement of first-year university students.*South African Journal of Higher Education*, *32*(1), 49-70. https://dx.doi.org/10.20853/32-1-1575

Clifton, A. (2014). Variability in personality expression across contexts: A social network approach. *Journal of personality*, *82*(2), 103-115.https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12038

Cohen, J. (1988) Set Correlation and Contingency Tables. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, *12*(4), 425-434. https://dx.org/10.1177/014662168801200410

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2013). *Research methods in education*. Routledge.

Cohen, R.J., Swerdlik, M.E. & Sturman, E.D., (2013). *Psychological testing and assessment: An introduction to test and measurement* (8th ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education*.Routledge

Colbert, A. E., Judge, T. A., Choi, D., & Wang, G. (2012). Assessing the trait theory of leadership using self and observer ratings of personality: The mediating role of contributions to group success. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *23*(4),670-685.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.03.004.

Collis, J. and R. Hussey (2014), *Business Research: A Practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Colman, A.M. (2015). *A dictionary of psychology* (4th ed.).Oxford University Press.

Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., Zapata, C. P., & Wild, R. E. (2011). Trust in typical and high-reliability contexts: Building and reacting to trust among firefighters. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(5), 999-1015. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2006.0241

Cook, C.T.(2016). Is adaptability of personality a trait?[Doctoral dissertation, University of Manchester.https://www.research.manchester.ac.uk/portal/files/54579342/FULL_TEXT.PDF

Cooper, D.R., & Schindler, P.S. (2014) *Business Research Methods*. (12th ed.). McGraw Hill International Edition.

Cooper, C. A., Carpenter, D., Reiner, A., & McCord, D. M. (2014). Personality and job satisfaction: Evidence from a sample of street-level bureaucrats. *International Journal of Public Administration, 37*, 155-162. https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2013.798810

Costa, P. T, Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *13*, 653-665.

Costa, P. L., Passos, A.M., & Bakker, A.B. (2016). The work engagement grid: predicting engagement from two core dimensions. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *31*(4), 774789. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-11-2014-0336

Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical assessment, research, and evaluation*, *10*(1), 7. https://dx.doi.org/10.7275/jyj1-4868

Coxen, L., van der Vaart, L., & Stander, M. W. (2016). Authentic leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour in the public health care sector: The role of workplace trust. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*,*42*(1),1-13.https://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1364

Cramer, D., & Howitt, D. (2004). *The Sage dictionary of statistics: A practical resource for students in the social sciences*. Sage Publications

Creed, W., & Miles, R. (1996). Trust in organizations: a conceptual framework linking organizational forms, managerial philosophies, and the opportunity costs of controls. In R. Kramer, & T. Tyler *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 16-38). SAGE Publications, Inc., https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452243610.n2

Creswell, J.W. and Plano Clark, V.L. (2011) *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. (2nd ed.). Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th ed.). Sage. https://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n5p40

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Sage publications.

Cunliffe,A.L.(2008). *Organization theory*.Sage.http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446214770

Curtis, R. G., Windsor, T. D., & Soubelet, A. (2015). The relationship between Big-5 personality traits and cognitive ability in older adults – a review. Aging, Neuropsychology, and Cognition, 22(1), 42-71.

Cyster, S. (2009). *A comparative study of the trust audit results of three business units of a South African company* [Masters dissertation, University of South Africa].UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/1780

Damane, L. (2016). *Assessing Authentic Leadership and Workplace Trust Amongst Managerial Government Employees in Lesotho*. [Masters dissertation, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University]. vital:26458. http://hdl.handle.net/10948/9033

Dant, R.P., Weaven, S., & Baker, B.L. (2013). Influence of personality traits on perceived relationship quality within a franchisee-franchisor context. *European Journal of Marketing, 47*, 279-302. https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561311285556

Deas, A. J. (2017).*Constructing a psychological retention profile for diverse generational groups in the higher educational environment*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa].UNISA ETD.http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23304

De Bolle, M., De Fruyt, F., McCrae, R. R., Löckenhoff, C. E., Costa Jr, P. T., Aguilar-Vafaie, M. E., & Terracciano, A. (2015). The emergence of sex differences in personality traits in early adolescence: A cross-sectional, cross-cultural study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *108*(1), 171-185. http://doi.10.1037%2Fa0038497

De Jong, B. A., Dirks, K. T., & Gillespie, N. (2016). Trust and team performance: A meta-analysis of main effects, moderators, and covariates. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(8), 1134–1150. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000110

De Raad, B. (1998). Five big, big five issues: Rationale, content, structure, status, and crosscultural assessment. *European Psychologist*, *3*(2), 113-124.

De Raad, B. (2000). *The big five personality factors: the psycholexical approach to personality*. Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.

De Raad, B., Barelds, D. P., Timmerman, M. E., De Roover, K., Mlačić, B., & Church, A. T. (2014). Towards a pan ‐ cultural personality structure: Input from 11 psycholexical studies.*European Journal of Personality*, *28*(5), 497-510. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.1953

Diener, E., & Lucas, R. E. (2019). Personality traits. In R. Biswas-Diener & E. Diener (Eds), *Psychology: Noba Textbook Series*. DEF Publishers. http://doi.noba.to/96u8ecgw

Dietz, G., & Hartog, D. N. (2006). Measuring trust inside organisations. *Personnel Review*, *35*, 557-588. https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480610682299

Digman, J. M. (2003). Personality structure: emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review. 41*, 417– 440. https://doi.org/10.1146/ANNUREV.PS.41.020190.002221

Dinesen, P. T., Nørgaard, A. S., & Klemmensen, R. (2014). The civic personality: Personality and democratic citizenship. *Political Studies, 62*, 134-152. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9248.12094

Dinesen, P. T., Bekkers, R. (2015). The foundation of individuals' generalized social trust: A review. In Van Lange, P. A. M., Rockenbach, B., Yamagishi, T. (Eds.). *Trust in social dilemmas* (pp. 77–99). Oxford University Press.

Ding, Z., Ng, F., Wang, J. (2014). Testing trust scale measurement invariance in project teams. *Journal of Engineering, Design and Technology*, *12*, 209–222. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEDT-04-2012-0017

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 611-628.https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.611

Domina, N. V. (2009). *Gender and culture influences on leadership perceptions*. [Doctoral dissertation,George Washington University].GW-Scholar Space.https://scholarspace-etds.library.gwu.edu/etd/zg64tk93r

Dumont, F. (2010). *A history of personality psychology: Theory, science, and research from Hellenism to the twenty-first century*. Cambridge University Press.

Du Plessis, M., Wakelin, Z., & Nel, P. (2015). The influence of emotional intelligence and trust on servant leadership. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *41*(1), 01-09.https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v41i1.1133

Durand, L. (2017). *An explorative study on the development of a framework for the measurement of performance and trust* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa].UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23272

Doty, T. J., Japee, S., Ingvar, M., & Ungerleider, L. G. (2013). Fearful face detection sensitivity in healthy adults correlates with anxiety-related traits. Emotion (Washington, D.C.), 13(2), 183–188. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031373

Downey, S. N., van der Werff, L., Thomas, K. M., & Plaut, V. C. (2015). The role of diversity practices and inclusion in promoting trust and employee engagement. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *45*(1), 35-44. https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12273

Earle, T. C., Siegrist, M., & Gutscher, H. (2007). Trust, risk perception and the TCC model of cooperation. In M. Siegrist, T. C. Earle, & H. Gutscher (Eds.),*Trust in cooperative risk management: Uncertainty and scepticism in the public mind* (pp. 1–49). Earthscan Publications.

Eberl, P. (2004). The development of trust and implications for organizational design: a game-and attribution-theoretical framework. *Schmalenbach Business Review*, *56*(3),258-273. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03396695

Eisenbeiss, S. A. & Giessber, S. R. (2012). The Emergence and Maintenance of Ethical Leadership in Organizations: A Question of Embeddedness? *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 11*, 7-19. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000055

Elgoibar, P., Euwema, M., & Munduate, L. (2016). *Building Trust and Constructive Conflict Management in Organizations*.Springer International Publishing

El Othman, R., El Othman, R., Hallit, R., Obeid, S., & Hallit, S. (2020). Personality traits, emotional intelligence and decision-making styles in Lebanese universities medical students. *BMC psychology*, *8*(1), 1-14.https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-020-00406-4

Engelbrecht, A. S., & Cloete, B. E. (2000). An analysis of a supervisor-subordinate trust relationship. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *26*(1), 24-28. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v26i1.695

Engelbrecht, A. S., Heine, G., & Mahembe, B. (2014). The influence of ethical leadership on trust and work engagement: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *40*(1), 1-9. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1210

Enguene, T. (2015). Trust in The Workplace: A Permanent Challenge for Performance in an Organization. *International Journal of Management and Commerce Innovations*,*3*,416–424. http://www.researchpublish.com/download.php?file=Trust%20in%20the%20Workpla

eSilva, L., & Laher, S. (2012). Exploring the utility of the NEO-PI-R in a sample of South African university students. *IFE PsychologIA: An International Journal*, *20*(1), 19-48. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC38922

Espinola, O. N., & Francia, A. M. G. (2015). *Personality traits and its relation to job performance of secondary public school teachers in Dasmariñas City* [Doctoral dissertation, De La Salle University-Dasmarinas].

Eswaran,S., Aminul Islam, Md. and Yusuf,D.H.M.(2011). A study of the relationship between the Big Five personality dimensions and job involvement in a foreign based financial institution in Penang, *International Business Research*, *4*,(4),164 -175

Evans, A. M., & Revelle, W. (2008). Survey and behavioural measurements of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *42*(6), 1585–1593. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2008.07.011

Fard, P. G., & Karimi, F. (2015). The Relationship between Organizational Trust and Organizational Silence with Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment of the Employees of University. *International Education Studies*, *8*(11), 219-227. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v8n11p219

Ferreira, N. (2014). Career meta-competencies in the retention of employees. In Coetzee, M. (Ed.), *Psycho-social career meta-capacities: Dynamics of contemporary career development* (pp. 175–202). Springer International.

Ferres, N. (2003). *The development and validation of the Workplace Trust Survey (WTS): Combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies* [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Newcastle - Australia

Ferres, N., & Travaglione, T. (2003). The development and validation of the workplace trust survey (WTS): Combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies. APROS, Mexico.

Fetvadjiev, V. H., Meiring, D., van de Vijver, F. J. R., Nel, J. A., & Hill, C. (2015). The South African Personality Inventory (SAPI): A culture-informed instrument for the country's main ethnocultural groups. *Psychological Assessment, 27*(3), 827–837. https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000078

Field, A. 2013. *Discovering Statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics* (4th ed.). Sage.

Fink, M., Harms, R., & Möllering, G. (2010). Introduction: A strategy for overcoming the definitional struggle. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, *11*, 101-105.

Fischer, R., & Boer, D. (2015). Motivational basis of personality traits: A meta-analysis of value-personality correlations. *Journal of personality*, *83*(5), 491-510.

Fischer, S., Hyder, S., & Walker, A. (2020). The effect of employee affective and cognitive trust in leadership on organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment: Meta-analytic findings and implications for trust research. *Australian Journal of Management*,*45*(4),662-679. https://doi.org/10.1177/0312896219899450

Fiske, D. W. (1949). Consistency of the factorial structures of personality ratings from different sources. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 44*(3), 329–344. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0057198

Fleeson, W., & Jayawickreme, E. (2018). *Perspective on the person; Rapid growth and opportunities for integration*. (2nd ed.). Oxford university Press. https://doi. 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780190224837.013.3

Flick, U. (2015). *Introducing research methodology: A beginner's guide to doing a research project*. Sage Publications

Foulkrod, K.H., Field, C., & Brown, C.V.R. (2009). Trauma surgeon personality and job satisfaction results from a national survey. Paper read at the Austin Trauma and Critical Care Conference, Austin, Texas, 4 June

Fourie, R., & Lubbe, D. (2012). Trustworthiness of South African sustainability reports: an overview. *Journal for New Generation Sciences*, *10*(3), 50-68.

Frazier, M. L., Johnson, P. D., & Fainshmidt, S. (2013). Development and validation of a propensity to trust scale. *Journal of Trust Research*, *3*, 76-97. https://doi.org/10.1080/21515581.2013.820026

Frederiksen, M. (2012). Dimensions of trust: An empirical revisit to Simmel's formal sociology of intersubjective trust. *Current Sociology, 60*, 733-750. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011392112461800

Freitag, M., & Bauer, P. C. (2016). Personality traits and the propensity to trust friends and strangers. *The Social Science Journal*, *53*(4), 467-476. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soscij.2015.12.002

Fricker Jr, R. D., Kulzy, W. W., & Combs, D. J. (2014). *The integrative model of organizational trust as a framework for understanding trust in government*. Monterey, California. Naval Postgraduate School. Dudley Knox Library. http://hdl.handle.net/10945/38723

Fukuyama, F. (1995) Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity. Free Press.

Fulmer, C. A., & Gelfand, M. J. (2012). At what level (and in whom) we trust. *Journal of Management*, *38*, 1167-1230. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312439327

Gabarro, J.J. (1978) The Development of Trust Influence and Expectations. In: Athos, A.G. and Gabarro, J.J., (Eds.), *Interpersonal Behavior: Communication and Understanding in Relationships*, (pp. 290-303). Prentice Hall

Gaddis, B.H., & Foster, J.L. (2015). Meta‐analysis of dark side personality characteristics and critical work behaviours among leaders across the globe: Findings and implications for leadership development and executive coaching. *Applied Psychology*,*64*(1), 25–54. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12017

Galford, R. M., & Drapeau, A. S. (2003). *The trusted leader.* Simon and Schuster

Gaol, F. L., Kadry, S., Taylor, M., & Li, P. S. (Eds.). (2014). Recent Trends in Social and Behaviour Sciences: Proceedings of the International Congress on Interdisciplinary Behaviour and Social Sciences,2013. CRC Press

Garson, G.D. (2004). PA 765 Statnotes: An online textbook. Factor Analysis. http://www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/pa765/factor.htm

Gefen, D., Karahanna,E., & Straub,D.W.(2003) Trust and TAM in Online Shopping: An Integrated Model. *MIS Quarterly*, *27*(1)51–90, 2003. https://doi.org/10.2307/30036519.

Geldenhuys, D. J. (2012). Group-as-a-whole as a context for studying individual behaviour: A group diagnostic intervention. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *38*(2), 1-12. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v38i2.1011

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference. 11.0 update (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Ghapanchi, Z., Khajavy, G. H., & Asadpour, S. F. (2011). L2 motivation and personality as predictors of the Second language proficiency: Role of the Big Five traits and L2 motivational self System. *Canadian Social Science*, *7*(6), 148-155.

Giddens, A. (1996). *The consequences of modernity*. Cambridge University Press.

Gider, Ö., Akdere, M., & Top, M. (2019). Organizational trust, employee commitment and job satisfaction in Turkish hospitals: implications for public policy and health. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, *25*(9),622-629. https://doi.org/10.26719/emhj.19.010

Gillespie, N. (2012). Measuring trust in organizational context: An overview of survey-based measures. In F. Lyon, G. Möllering, & M.N.K. Saunders (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods on trust* (pp. 175–188). Edward Elgar Publishing.

Gillespie, N., Hurley, R., Dietz, G., & Bachmann, R. (2012). Restoring institutional trust after the global financial crisis: A systemic approach. In R. M. Kramer & T. L. Pittinsky *(Eds.), Restoring trust in organizations and leaders: Enduring challenges and emerging answers.* Oxford University Press

Gillis, T. (2003). More than a social virtue: Public trust among organizations most valuable asset. *Communication World*, *20*(3), 10-12.

Goodwin, C. J., & Goodwin, K. A. (2016). *Research in psychology methods and design* (8th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative" description of personality": the big-five factor structure. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *59*(6), 1216.

Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers of the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, *4*, 26-42

Goldberg, L. R. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *The American Psychologist, 48*, 26–34.

Göllner, R., Roberts, B. W., Damian, R. I., Lüdtke, O., Jonkmann, K., & Trautwein, U. (2017). Whose “storm and stress” is it? Parent and child reports of personality development in the transition to early adolescence. *Journal of personality*, *85*(3), 376-387.

Golesorkhi, B. (2006). Gender differences and similarities in judgments of trustworthiness. *Women in Management Review*, *21*,195-210.https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420610657380

Gouws,R.H.(2020).*The relationship between workplace trust,work engagement and turnover intentions*[Masters dissertation, Nelson Mandela University]. vital:40494. http://hdl.handle.net/10948/48124

Govier, T. (1998). *Dilemmas of Trust*. Carleton University Press

Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2013). *Essentials of statistics for the behavioural sciences.* Cengage Learning

Grayson K, Ambler T. (1999).The Dark Side of Long-Term Relationships in Marketing Services*. Journal of Marketing Research.36*(1),*132-141.* https://doi.org/10.1177/002224379903600111

Grobler, S. (2014). *The impact of language on personality assessment with the Basic Traits Inventory* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/13250

Grehan, P. M., Flanagan, R., & Malgady, R. (2011). Successful graduate students: The roles of personality traits and emotional intelligence. *Psychology in the Schools*, *48*(4), 317-331. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20556

Guenole, N., & Chernyshenko, O. S. (2005). The Suitability of Goldberg's Big Five IPIP Personality Markers in New Zealand: A Dimensionality, Bias, and Criterion Validity Evaluation. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, *34*(2), 86–96. http://research.gold.ac.uk/id/eprint/7226

Guilford, J. P. (1936). Unitary traits of personality and factor theory. *The American Journal of Psychology*, *48*(4), 673-680.

Guinot, J., Chiva, R., & Mallén, F. (2013). "Organizational trust and performance: Is organizational learning capability a missing link?". *Journal of Management & Organization*, *19*(5), 559-582. https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2014.3

Halbesleben, J.R.B., & Wheeler, A.R. (2012). To invest or not? The role of co-worker support and trust in daily reciprocal gain spirals of helping behaviour. *Journal of Management*, *41*(6), 1628-1650. https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206312455246

Hamad, H. (2015). Transformational leadership theory: Why military leaders are more charismatic and transformational? *International Journal on Leadership*, *3*(1), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.21863/ijl/2015.3.1.001

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A global perspective* (7th ed). Pearson Education

Hair, J. F., Jr., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. Long Range Planning.*International Journal of Strategic Management*, *46*(1-2), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2013.01.001

Hair, J., Anderson, R., Black, B., & Babin, B. (2016). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Pearson Prentice-Hall.

Hardin, R. (2001). Conceptions and explanations of trust. In K. Cook (Ed.), *Trust in society* (*Vol. 2*, pp. 3-40). Russell Sage Foundation

Hardin, R. (2002). *Trust and trustworthiness*. Russell Sage Foundation.

Hardin, R. (2006). *Trust*. Polity Press.

Hardin, R. (2013). Government without trust. *Journal of Trust Research*, *3*, 32-52. https://doi.org/10.1080/21515581.2013.771502

Harlow, L. L. (2014). *The essence of multivariate thinking: Basic themes and methods*. Routledge.

Hassan, A., & Ahmed, F. (2011). Authentic leadership, trust and work engagement. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences*, *6*(3), 164-170. https:// doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1075160

Hassell, L. (2005). Affect and trust. In P. Herrmann, V. Issarny, & S. Shiu (Eds.), *Trust Management* (pp. 131-145). Springer

Heale, R., & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evidence-Based Nursing 18(3)*, 66-67. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/eb-2015-102129.

Hendrikz, K. (2017). *The development of a principled leadership scale* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Stellenbosch]: Scholar Sun.https://scholar.sun.ac.za.

Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world. *Behavioural and brain sciences*, *33*(2-3), 61-83.

Heyns, M. M. (2015). Trust within the work context: conceptualisation, measurement and outcomes [Doctoral dissertation, North West University].Boloka Institutional Repository. http://hdl.handle.net/10394/17017

Heyns, M., & Rothmann, S. (2015). Dimensionality of trust: An analysis of the relations between propensity, trustworthiness and trust. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *41*(1), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v41i1.1263

Heyns, M., & Rothmann, S. (2018). Volitional trust, autonomy satisfaction and engagement at work. *Psychological Report*,*121*(1),112-134.https://doi.org/10.117 7/0033294117718555

Ho, R. (2006). *Handbook of univariate and multivariate data analysis and interpretation with SPSS*. Taylor and Francis

Hofmann, D. A., & Jones, L. M. (2005). Leadership, Collective Personality, and Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(3), 509–522. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.509

Hofmeyr, J.H. (2006, November). Report of the Sixth Round of the SA Reconciliation Barometer Survey. Wynberg: Institute for Justice and Reconciliation.

Hogan, R., Chamorro-Premuzic, T., & Kaiser, R. (2013). Employability and career success: Bridging the gap between theory and reality. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 6*, 3-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/iops.12001

Hogan, R., & Sherman, R. A. (2020). Personality theory and the nature of human nature. Journal of personality difference.152, http://doi:10.1016/j.paid.2019.109561.

Holcomb, Z. C. (2016). *Interpreting basic statistics: a guide and workbook based on excerpts from journal articles* (7th ed.). Pyrczak

Hough, L. M., Oswald, F. L., & Ock, J. (2015). Beyond the Big Five: New directions for personality research and practice in organizations. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *2*(1), 183-209. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032414-111441

Howell, D.C. (2004). *Fundamental statistics for the behavioural sciences* (5th ed.).Thomson-Brooks/Cole.

Hill, C., Adams, B. G., De Bruin, G. P., Nel, J. A., Van de Vijver, F. J., Valchev, V. H., & Meiring, D. (2013). Developing and testing items for the South African Personality Inventory (SAPI). *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *39*(1), 1-13. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i1.1122

Hsieh, C.-C., & Wang, D.-S. (2015). Does supervisor-perceived authentic leadership influence employee work engagement through employee – perceived authentic leadership and employee trust?*The International Journal of Human Resource Management,26*(18),2329-2348.https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1025234

Huang, J. L., Cropanzano, R., Li, A., Shao, P., Zhang. X.A., Li, Y. (2017). Employee conscientiousness, agreeableness, and supervisor justice rule compliance: A three-study investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*(11),1564–1589. pmid:28749156

Ikonen, M., Savolainen, T., Lopez-Fresno, P. & Kohl, H. (2016). “Trust Restoration in Workplace Relationships : Multilevel Analysis of (Mis)Trusting”, In C.Baglioni, C.Mio & A. Garlatti(Eds.) Abstracts of the 18th European Conference on Intellectual Capital(EICIC),pp.19-20, May, Italy

Inchausti, F., Mole, J., Fonseca-Pedrero, E., & Ortuño-Sierra, J. (2015). Validity of personality measurement in adults with anxiety disorders: psychometric properties of the Spanish NEO-FFI-R using Rasch analyses. *Frontiers in psychology*, *6*, 465. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00465

Ito, T. (2013). Psychological processes predicting the English communication behaviour of Japanese high school students. *Shinrigaku Kenkyu: The Japanese Journal of Psychology*, *84*(5), 488-497. https://doi.org/10.4992/jjpsy.84.488

Ito, T. (2022). Effects of general trust as a personality trait on willingness to communicate in a second language. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *185*, 111-286. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2021.111286

Jackson, J. J., Hill, P. L., & Roberts, B. W. (2012). Misconceptions of traits continue to persist: A response to Bandura. *Journal of Management*, *38*(3), 745-752.

Jacoub, L. (2014). *How cognitive and affective trust in the leader is related to leader behaviours and effectiveness* [Bachelor's thesis, University of Twente]. University of Twente Theses. http://purl.utwente.nl/essays/65415

Jacques, P. H., Garger, J., Brown, C. A., & Deale, C. S. (2009). Personality and virtual reality team candidates: the roles of personality traits, technology anxiety and trust as predictors of perceptions of virtual reality teams. *Journal of Business & Management*, *15*(2).

James, L. J. (2011). *The relationship between perceived organisational support and workplace trust: An exploratory study* [Masters Dissertation, University of Western Cape]. University of the Western Cape Electronic Theses and Dissertations Repository. http://hdl.handle.net/11394/3188

Jex, S. M., & Britt, T. W. (2014). *Organizational psychology: A scientist-practitioner approach*. John Wiley & Sons.

Ji, Y., Zhou, E., Li, C., & Yan, Y. (2015). Power distance orientation and employee help seeking:Trust in supervisor as a mediator.Social Behavior and Personality:*An International Journal*,*43*(6),1043–1054.https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2015.43.6.104 3

John, O. P. (1990). The "Big Five" factor taxonomy: Dimensions of personality in the natural language and in questionnaires. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 66–100). The Guilford Press.

John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five Trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 102–138). Guilford Press.

Johnson, J. L., Cullen, J. B., Sakano, T., & Takenouchi, H. (1996). Setting the stage for trust and strategic integration in Japanese-U.S. cooperative alliances. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *27*(5): 981–1004. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490160

Johnson, J. A. (1997). Units of analysis for the description and explanation of personality. In *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 73-93). Academic Press.

Johnson, T. and Fendrich, M. 2002. A validation of the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale. http://www.srl.uic.edu/publist/Conference/crownemarlowe.pdf

Jones,N., Hill, C., & Henn, C. (2015) Personality and job satisfaction: their role in work-related psychological well-being, Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 25*(4), 297-304 http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2015.1078086

Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *87*(3), 530.

Judge, T. A., Rodell, J. B., Klinger, R. L., Simon, L. S., & Crawford, E. R. (2013). Hierarchical representations of the five-factor model of personality in predicting job performance: integrating three organizing frameworks with two theoretical perspectives. *Journal of applied psychology*, *98*(6), 875.

Kaiser, R.B., LeBreton, J.M., & Hogan, J. (2015). The dark side of personality and extreme leader behaviour. *Applied Psychology*, *64*(1), 55–92. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12024

Kannan-Narasimhan, R., & Lawrence, B. S. (2012). Behavioural Integrity: How Leader Referents and Trust Matter to Workplace Outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *111*(2), 165–178. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-011-1199-9

Kang, M., & Sung, M. (2017). How symmetrical employee communication leads to employee engagement and positive employee communication behaviours: The mediation of employee-organization relationships. *Journal of Communication Management, 21*(1), 82–102. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCOM-04-2016-0026

Kim, T. Y., Wang, J., & Chen, J. (2018). Mutual trust between leader and subordinate and employee outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *149*(4), 945-958. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3093-y

Kim, L. E., Jorg, V., & Klassen, R. M. (2019). A meta-analysis of the effects of teacher personality on teacher effectiveness and burnout. *Educational Psychology Review, 31*(1), 163–195. https://doi.10.1007/s10648-018-9458-2

Khan, B., Ahmed, A., & Abid, G. (2016). Using the 'Big-Five'for assessing personality traits of the champions: An insinuation for the sports industry. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, *10*(1), 175-191.

Kline, P. (2013). *Personality: The psychometric view*. Routledge.

Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of higher education*, *6*(5), 26-41. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26

Komodromos, M., & Halkias, D. (2016). *Organizational Justice During Strategic Change: The Employee's Perspective*. Routledge

Konrad, B.B. (2016). *The Impact of Trust on Employee Competence Utilisation in a Business Excellence Setting* [Doctoral Thesis, University of Latvia].E-resource repository of the University of Latvia.https://dspace.lu.lv/dspace/bitstream/handle/7/31376/298-51903-Bolzern Konrad_Britta_bb11049.pdf?

Korver-Nieberg, N. (2014). Attachment and psychosis. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Amsterdam]. UvA-DARE Digital Academic Repository. https://hdl.handle.net/11245/1.418230

Kotze, C. (2013). The relationship between personality types and psychological career resources of managers in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape [Doctoral dissertation,University of South Africa].UNISA ETD.http://hdl.handle.net/10500/13597

Kramer, R. M. (1999). Trust and distrust in organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual review of psychology*, *50*(1), 569-598. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.50.1.569

Krot, K., & Lewicka, D. (2012). The importance of trust in manager employee relationships. *International Journal of Electronic Business Management*, *10*(3), 224-233.

Kulik, C. T., Ryan, S., Harper, S., & George, G. (2014). Aging populations and management. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*(4), 929–935. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.4004

Kumar, K., Bakshi, A. and Rani, E. (2009), "Linking the 'Big Five'personality domains to organizational citizenship behaviour", International Journal of Psychological Studies, *1*(2),
25-34. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijps.v1n2p73

Kumar, R. (2014*) Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners*(4th ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd.

Kura, K. M., Shamsudin, F. M., & Chauhan, A. (2016). Organisational trust as a mediator between perceived organisational support and constructive deviance. *International journal of business and society*, *17*(1). https://doi.org/10.33736/ijbs.506.2016

Laginess, A. J. (2016). Mapping Integrity in the Domain of Trait Personality.

Laher, S., & Cockcroft, K. (2014). Psychological assessment in post-apartheid South Africa: The way forward. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *44*(3), 303-314. https://doi.org/10.1177/0081246314533634

Lee, C. K., Song, H. J., Lee, H. M., Lee, S., & Bernhard, B. J. (2013). The impact of CSR on casino employees'organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation: An empirical examination of responsible gambling strategies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 3*(3), 406-415.http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.10.011

Leung L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. Journal of family medicine and primary care, *4*(3), 324–327.https://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4863.161306

Levi, M., & Stoker, L. (2000). Political trust and trustworthiness. *Annual Review of Political Science*, *3*, 475-507.

Lewicki, R.J. and Bunker, B.B. (1996) Developing and Maintaining Trust in Work Relationships. In: Kramer, R.M. and Tyler, T.R., Eds., Trust in Organizations: Frontiers in Theory and Research, Sage Publications,(pp.114-139). http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452243610.n7

Lewicki, R. J., Tomlinson, E. C., & Gillespie, N. (2006). Models of interpersonal trust development: Theoretical approaches, empirical evidence, and future directions. *Journal of management*, *32*(6), 991-1022. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206306294405

Lewis, J. D., & Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a Social Reality. *Social Forces*, *63*(4), 967–985. https://doi.org/10.2307/257860

Li, P. P. (2007). Towards an interdisciplinary conceptualization of trust: *A typological approach. Management and Organization Review*, *3*, 421-445.

Li ,L ., & Mao, S.(2014). Social Behavior and Personality.*an international journal*,*42*(1),7 15(9). https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2014.42.1.7

Li, P. P. (2015). Trust as a leap of hope for transaction value: A two-way street above and beyond trust propensity and expected trustworthiness. In B. H. Bornstein & A. J. Tomkins (Eds.), *Motivating cooperation and compliance with authority: The role of institutional trust* (*Vol. 62nd Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, pp. 37-53). Springer.

Llewellyn, D.J., & Wilson, K.M. (2003). The controversial role of personality traits in entrepreneurial psychology. *Journal of Education and Training, 45*, 341-345. https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910310495996

Loehlin, J. C., & Goldberg, L. R. (2014). Do personality traits conform to lists or hierarchies?. *Personality and individual differences*, *70*, 51-56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.06.018

Lounsbury, J. W., Sundstrom, E., Levy, J. J., & Gibson, L. W. (2014). Distinctive personality traits of information technology professionals. *Computer and Information Science*, *7*(3), 38.

Louw, G. J. (2014). Burnout, vigour, big five personality traits and social support in a sample of police officers. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *40*(1), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1119

Lu, L., Lu, A. C. C., Gursoy, D. & Neal, N. R. (2016). Work Engagement, Job Satisfaction, And Turnover Intentions: A Comparison Between Supervisors and Line-Level Employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *28*(4), 737-761. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-07-2014-0360

Lucas, R. E., & Baird, B. M. (2014). Extraversion and emotional reactivity. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology 86*(3), 473–485.

Luhmann, N. (1988). Familiarity, confidence, trust: Problems and alternatives. In D. Gambetta (Ed.), *Trust: Making and breaking cooperative relations* (pp. 94-107), Basil Blackwell

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15*(1), 3–26. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X960151001

Magan, D., Mehta, M., Sarvottam, K., Yadav, R. K., & Pandey, R. M. (2014). Age and gender might influence big five factors of personality: a preliminary report in Indian population. *Indian Journal of Psychology and Pharmacology*, *58*(4), 381-388.

Mahembe, B., & Engelbrecht, A. S. (2013). A confirmatory factor analytical study of a servant leadership measure in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*,*39*(2), 1-8. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/ sajip. v39i2.1127

Mansour, M. (2014). Organization Justice, Support and Trust: Evidence from Saudi Companies. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, *2*(1), 22–25.

Martins, N. (2000). Developing a trust model for assisting management during change. SA *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *26*(3), 27-31. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v26i3.716

Martins, N. (2002). A model for managing trust. *International Journal of manpower*, *23*(8),754-769. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437720210453984

Martins, N., & Von der Ohe, H. (2002). Trust as a factor in determining how to attract, motivate and retain talent. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*,*28*(4), 49–57. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i4.79

Martins, N., & Von der Ohe, H. (2011) A Longitudinal Study of the Role of Trust During Change, *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *21*(2), 301-306. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2011.10820460

Masoga, L. (2013). The role of personality and organisational climate in employee turnover [Doctoral dissertation,University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/8846

Maguire, S., & Phillips, N. (2008). 'Citibankers' at Citigroup: A study of the loss of institutional trust after a merger. *Journal of Management Studies, 45*(2), 372–401. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2007.00760.x

Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Sage publications

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *The Academy of Management Review,20*(3),709-734.https://doi.org/10.2307/258792

McAdams, D. P., & Pals, J. L. (2006). A new Big Five: Fundamental principles for an integrative science of personality. *American Psychologist, 61*(3), 204–217. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.61.3.204

McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect-and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(1), 24-59. https://doi.org/10.2307/256727

McCrae, R. R., Costa, P. T., & Piedmont, R. L. (1993). Folk concepts, natural language,and psychological constructs: The California Psychological Inventory and the five factor model. *Journal of Personality*, *61*(1), 1–26.https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1993.tb00276.x

McCrae, R. R. (2010). The place of the FFM in personality psychology. *Psychological Inquiry*, *21*(1), 57-64. https://doi.org /10.1080/10478401003648773

McDaniel.(2015).Personality Theory Paper. PSY 375, http://www.arbor.edu/wpcontent/uploads/2016/04/dalontrius-mcdaniel.pdf

McEvily, B. (2011). Reorganizing the boundaries of trust: From discrete alternatives to hybrid forms.*Organization science*, *22*(5), 1266-1276.https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1110.0649

McEvily, B., & Tortoriello, M. (2011). Measuring trust in organisational research: Review and recommendations.*Journal of Trust Research*,*1*(1),23-63.https://doi.org/10.1080/21515581.2011.552424

McGrath, R. E. (2014). Scale- and Item-Level Factor Analyses of the VIA Inventory of Strengths. *Assessment*, *21*(1), 4–14. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191112450612

McKnight, D. H., & Chervany, N. L. (1996). *The meanings of trust*. Minneapolis, Minn: Carlson School of Management, Univ. of Minnesota.

McKnight, D. H., & Chervany, N. L. (2002. What trust means in e-commerce customer relationships: An interdisciplinary conceptual typology. *International journal of electronic commerce*, *6*(2), 35-59. https://doi.org/10.1080/10864415.2001.11044235

McLeod, K. (2014). An oral history of sampling: From turntables to mashups. In *The Routledge companion to remix studies* (pp. 93-105). Routledge. https://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9781315879994.ch5.https://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9781315879994-13

McMurphy, S. (2013). “Trust, distrust, and trustworthiness in argumentation: Virtues and fallacies".OSSA Conference.http://scholar.uwindsor.ca/ossaarchive/ OSSA10/papers and commentaries/113

Mdhluli, N. I. (2019). *Personality traits, work-family conflict, stress and work engagement of working women* [Masters dissertation, University of South Africa].UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/26756

Merchant, K. (2012). How men and women differ: Gender differences in communication styles, influence tactics, and leadership styles (CMC Senior theses, paper 513). http://scholarship.claremont.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1521&context=cmc_ these

Metzer, S. A., De Bruin, G. P., & Adams, B. G. (2014). Examining the construct validity of the Basic Traits Inventory and the Ten-Item Personality Inventory in the South African context. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *40*(1), 1-9.http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1005

Mhlanga, O. (2019). Identification of personality traits affecting entrepreneurial performance in the hospitality subsector: A five-factor personality model. *Acta Commercii*, *19*(2), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.4102/ac.v19i2.651

Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2016). A meta-analysis of emotional intelligence and work attitudes. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology., 90*, 177–202. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12167.t

Millar, C.C.J.M., & Culpin, V. (2014). AGE-ility challenges, and management agendas for the organisation. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *27*(4), 542-549. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-05-2014-0099

Mishra, A. (1996). Organizational responses to crisis: the centrality of trust. In R. Kramer, & T. Tyler *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 261-287). SAGE Publications, Inc., https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452243610.n13

Mitonga-Monga, J. (2015). *The effects of ethical context and behaviour on job retention and performance-related factors* [Doctoral Thesis, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD and National ETD Portal. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/19882

Moodley, S. N. (2010). *Personality and work engagement in a financial institution* [Doctoral Thesis, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/5032

Moein, T., Paalhed, J., and Bengtsson, M. 2015. *"Dimensions of trust and distrust and their effect on knowledge sharing and knowledge leakage. An Empirical study of Swedish knowledge-intensive firms*," in *UMEA Universitet review*, Umea School of Business and Economics, (pp. 96).

Moela, J. S. (2016). *Investigating the relationship between organisational culture and employee engagement in a public service department* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23242

Mohajan, H. K. (2017). Two criteria for good measurements in research: Validity and reliability. *Annals of Spiru Haret University. Economic Series*, *17*(4), 59-82. https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/id/eprint/83458

Mohammed, E., Steyn, R., & Mohammed, E. (2016). Personal branding: A systematic review of the research and design strategies used reported in journal articles relating to critical elements of personal branding. *In Proceedings of the International Conference on Business and Management Dynamics 2016: Sustainable economies in the information economy* (pp. 27-35).

Möllering, G. (2001). The Nature of Trust: From Georg Simmel to a Theory of Expectation, Interpretation and Suspension:. *Sociology, 35*, 403-420. https://doi.org/10.1177/S0038038501000190

Möllering, G. (2006). *Trust: Reason, routine, reflexivity*. Emerald Group Publishing.

Möllering, G. (2013a). Process views of trusting and crises. In R. Bachmann & A. Zaheer (Eds.), *Handbook of Advances in Trust Research* (pp.285-306). Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Möllering, G. (2014). Trust, calculativeness, and relationships: A special issue 20 years after Williamson's warning. *Journal of Trust Research, 4*, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.1080/21515581.2014.891316

Moletsane, M. (2016). Understanding the role of indigenous knowledge in psychological assessment and intervention in a multicultural South African context. In R Ferreira (Ed.), *Psychological Assessment: Thinking innovatively in the context of diversity* (pp.20-36). Juta and Company (Pty) Ltd.

Moodaly, A. (2008). *The role of culture in trust levels of leaders* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/3139

Mooradian, T., Renzl, B., & Matzler, K. (2006). Who trusts? Personality, trust and knowledge sharing. *Management learning*, *37*(4), 523-540.

Moorman C, Deshpandé R, Zaltman G.(1993). Factors Affecting Trust in Market Research Relationships. Journal of Marketing. 57(1):81-101. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299305700106

Mondak, J. J., & D HALPERIN, K. A. R. E. N. (2008). A framework for the study of personality and political behaviour*. British Journal of Political Science*, *38*(2), 335-362. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007123408000173

Morallane, M. H. (2017). *The relationship between personality traits and cognitive adaptability of established entrepreneurs* [Doctoral Thesis, University of Pretoria].UPSpace Institutional Repository. http://hdl.handle.net/2263/60510

Morgan, J. (2014). Trust in The Workplace: What Happened to it, and How Do we get it back?https://www.forbes.com/sites/jacobmorgan/2014/09/11/trust-in-the workplace-what happened-to-it-and-how-do-we-get-it-back/#629021d07030 (accessed 14:30 p.m. 28 September 2019).

Morreale, S. P., & Shockley-Zalabak, P. S. (2014). A Qualitative Study of Organizational Trust: Leaders' Perceptions in Organizations in Poland and Russia. Intercultural Communication Studies, 13(2), 69–89.

Moshoeu, A. N. (2017). *A model of personality traits and work-life balance as determinants of employee engagement*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa].UNISA ETD.http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23247

Mouton, S. (2017). *An investigation into the first and second-order factor structure of the South African Personality Inventory (SAPI)* [Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch University]. SUNScholar Research Repository. http://hdl.handle.net/10019.1/102860

Mozumder, N. A. (2018). "A Multilevel Trust-based Model of Ethical Public Leadership*," Journal of Business Ethics, 153*(1), 167-184.

Muindi, F.K., & K'obonyo, P.O. (2015). Quality of worklife, personality, job satisfaction, competence, and job performance: A critical review of literature. *European Scientific Journal, ESJ, 11(26).* https://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/view/6243

Mühl, J. K. (2014). *Organizational Trust :Measurement, Impact, And The Role Of Management Accountants*.Springer.https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-04069-1

Müller, J., & Schwieren, C. (2020). Big five personality factors in the trust game. *Journal of Business Economics*, *90*(1), 37-55.

Müller, J., & Schwieren, C. (2020). Big five personality factors in the trust game. *Journal of Business Economics*, *90*(1), 37-55.

Munneke, A.F., & Cornu, M. (2017). The influence of the age difference on trust between young managers and older subordinates : A qualitative study among employees of a Dutch multinational production company.https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1147890/FULLTEXT01.pdf

Munyoki, S. M. (2017). *Investigating Antecedents of Organizational Trust in Kenyan Start-Up Ventures* [Doctoral dissertation, United States International University-Africa].USIU-A Digital Repository. http://erepo.usiu.ac.ke/bitstream/handle/11732/3334.

Murugesan, R., & Jayavelu, R. (2017). The influence of big five personality traits and self efficacy on entrepreneurial intention: The role of gender. *Journal of entrepreneurship and innovation in emerging economies*, *3*(1), 41-61. https://doi.org/10.1177/2393957516684569

Nadkarni, S., & Herrmann, P. (2010). CEO performance, strategic flexibility, and firm performance: the case of the Indian business process outsourcing industry. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(5),1050-1073.

Naeem, F.(2021).*Teaching staff's personality traits,students' lecturer personality preferences and teaching quality at a Zimbabwean higher education institution*[Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD.https://hdl.handle.net/10500/27947

Naidoo, R. (2016). *Relationship between personality traits, psychological capital and job performance among sales employees within an information, communication and technology sector* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/22153

Ndlovu, T., Quaye, E.S., & Saini, Y.K. (2021). Predicting organisational commitment: The role of line manager communication, employee trust and job satisfaction. *South African Journal of Business Management,52*(1), a2355. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajbm.v52i1.2355

Ndoro, T. (2017). *Employee engagement of staff at a South African higher education institution* [Unpublished Doctoral dissertation,University of South Africa].

Nel, J. A., Valchev, V. H., Rothmann, S., Van de Vijver, F. J. R., Meiring, D., & De Bruin, G. P. (2012). Exploring the personality structure in the 11 languages of South Africa. *Journal of Personality*, *80* (4), 915-948.

Nestor, P. G., & Schutt, R. K. (2014). *Research methods in psychology: Investigating human behaviour.* SAGE Publications

Neumann, J.E. (1999). Systems psychodynamics in the service of political organizational change. In R. French & R. Vince (Eds.), *Group relations, management, and organization,* (pp. 54-69).Oxford University Press.

Newaye, T. K. (2020). *Personality traits as predictors of substance abuse and risky sexual behaviours among university students in Ethiopia* [Doctoral dissertation,University of South Africa]UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/26718

Nhlanhla, M., Ed, M., & Thubelihle, S. (2014). Teachers personality on pupils' performance in literature in English in Bulawayo province. *European Scientific Journal*, *10*(19), 1857–7881. https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2014.v10n19p%25p

Nida, S., & Ali, R. S. (2017). Influence of the Big Five personality traits on academic motivation among higher education students: Evidence from developing nation. 87136, University Library of Munich, Germany. https://doi.mpra.ub.unimuenchen.de/8713

Nielsen, B. B. (2011). Trust in strategic alliances: Toward a co-evolutionary research model.*Journal of Trust Research*,*1*(2),159-176.https://doi.org/10.1080/21515581.2011.603510

Nienaber, A. M., Romeike, P. D., Searle, R., & Schewe, G. (2015). A qualitative meta-analysis of trust in supervisor-subordinate relationships. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *30*(5), 507-534. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-06-2013-0187

Nilforooshan, P., & Salimi, S. (2016). Career adaptability as a mediator between personality and career engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 94,* 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.02.010

Njoku, E. C., Ebeh, R. E., & Mbaeri, S. O. (2017). Personality traits as predictors of organizational commitment among public and private sector employees in Enugu, Nigeria. *British Journal of Psychology Research*, *5*(2), 9-23.

Nkrumah, N. Y. A. (2013). The Influence Of Organizational Trust And Organizational Empowerment On Employee Job Involvement At A Multinational Organization In Ghana; The Moderating Role Of Job Insecurity. University of Ghana

Nowakowska, M. (1973). The limitations of the factor-analytical approach to psychology with special application to Cattell's research strategy. *Theory and Decision*, *4*(2), 109-139.https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00145149

Nyathi, F. (2020). *The relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment amongst employees in the investment sector* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa].UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/27433

Oldham, G.R., & Fried, Y. (2016). Job design research and theory: Past, present and future. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *136*, 20–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2016.05.002

Oluwatoyin, B. A. (2016). Evolving expectations for personality traits in counselling psychologist in training. IFE Psychology IA*: An International Journal*, *24*(2), 267-278. https://doi.org/10.10520/EJC-59ea5cc40

Omrawo, C. (2015). *Personality as an antecedent of work-family conflict: a variable-and person-centred approach* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Cape Town].OpenUCT. http://hdl.handle.net/11427/13795

Ongore, O. (2014). A study of relationship between personality traits and job engagement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *141*, 1315-1319. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.05.226

Ooi, K. B. (2013). Total quality management and knowledge management in Malaysian manufacturing and service firms: a structural equation modelling approach [Doctoral dissertation, University of Malaya,]. http://studentsrepo.um.edu.my/id/eprint/5645

O'Reilly, C. A., Caldwell, D. F., Chatman, J. A., Lapiz, M., & Self, W. (2010). How leadership matters:The effects of leaders 'alignment on strategy implementation. *The leadership quarterly*,*21*(1),104-113.https://doi.org/10.101 6/j.leaqua.2009.10.008

Oskarsson, S., Dawes, C., Johannesson, M., & Magnusson, P. K. (2012). The genetic origins of the relationship between psychological traits and social trust. *Twin Research and Human Genetics*, *15*(1),21-33. https://doi.org/10.1375/twin.15.1.21

Oosthuizen, R., Tonelli, L., & Mayer, C. (2019). Subjective experiences of employment equity in South African organisations. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 17*, 12 pages.https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v17i0.1074

Palaiou, K., Zarola, A., & Furnham, A. (2016). The dark side of personality predicts positive and negative work attitudes. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *88*,12-16 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.08.029

Paliszkiewicz, J. (2012). Orientation on trust and organizational performance. In Management, Knowledge and Learning International Conference (pp. 203-212).https://doi.org/10.1177/2278682113476164

Paliszkiewicz, J., Koohang, A., & Nord, J. H. (2014). Management trust, organizational trust,and organizational performance: Empirical validation of an instrument. *Online Journal of Applied Knowledge Management*, *2*(1), 28-39. https://doi.org/10.2478/mper-2014-0005

Parks-Leduc, L., Feldman, G., & Bardi, A. (2015). Personality traits and personal values: A meta-analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *19*(1), 3-29. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868314538548

Partonia, S. (2013). The Impact of Trust on Organizational Silence and Its Challenges in Iran. *International Journal of Business Economics and Management Studies*, 1(2), 1–18.

Peabody, D., & Goldberg, L. R. (1989). Some determinants of factor structures from personality-trait descriptors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *57*, 552-567

Peral, S., & Geldenhuys, M. (2020). The indirect relationship between personality and performance through job crafting behaviour. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *46*(1), 1-12.https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v46i0.1715

Perry, R. W., & Mankin, L. D. (2004). Understanding employee trust in management: Conceptual clarification and correlates. *Public Personnel Management*, *33*(3), 277-290. https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600403300303

Pervin, L. A. (1989). Persons, situations, interactions: The history of a controversy and a discussion of theoretical models. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(3), 350-360.

Poon, J. M. L., Rahid, M. R., & Othman, A. S. (2006). Trust In Supervisor: Antecedents And Effect On Affective Organizational Commitment. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, *11*(2), 35 – 50.

Potgieter, I. L, & Ferreira, N. (2018). Personality preference facets and self-regulatory employability of human resource professionals. *South African Journal of Psychology, 48*(1), 142–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/0081246316685934

Pytlikzillig, L. M. P., Hemenover, S. H., & Dienstbier, R. A. (2002). What do we assess when we assess a Big 5 trait? A content analysis of the affective, behavioural, and cognitive processes represented in Big 5 personality inventories. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *28*(6), 847-858.

Quinlan, L. M. (2009). Leader personality characteristics and their effects on trust in the organizational setting. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 69*(8-B), 5091.

Quintelier, E. (2014). The influence of the Big 5 personality traits on young people′s political consumer behaviour. *Young Consumers*, *15*(4), 342-352. https://doi.org/10.1108/YC- 09-2013-00395

Raab, G., Stedham, Y., & Neuner, R.M. (2005), Entrepreneurial potential: An exploratory study of business students in the U.S. and Germany, *Journal of Business and Management, 11*(2),71-88.

Raghavan, S., & Janardhanan, S. (2019). Investigating Employees' Tenure and Performance among Middle Managers: The Moderating Role of Psychological Empowerment. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *9*(6), 548–559. http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v9-i6/5971

Rahmani, S., & Lavasani, M. (2012). j Gender differences in Five Factor model of personality and sensation seeking. *Psychological Bulletin,* (46), 2906–2911

Raja, U., & Johns, G. (2010). The joint effects of personality and job scope on in-role performance, citizenship behaviours, and creativity. *Human relations*, *63*(7), 981-1005.

Ranwala, R. S., & Dissanayake, D. M. N. S. W. (2016). Big five personality traits and entrepreneurial inclination: A study based on Sri Lankan undergraduates. *Social and Basic Science Review*, *4*(4), 84-98

Ratnasingham, P. (1998). The importance of trust in electronic commerce. *Internet research*. *8*, 313-321. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/10662249810231050

Roberts, B. W., & Jackson, J. J. (2008). Sociogenomic personality psychology. *Journal of personality*, *76*(6), 1523-1544.

Roberts, B. W. (2009). Back to the future: Personality and assessment and personality development. *Journal of research in personality*, *43*(2), 137-145. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2008.12.015

Roberts, B. W., Luo, J., Briley, D. A., Chow, P. I., Su, R., & Hill, P. L. (2017). A systematic review of personality trait changes through intervention. *Psychological Bulletin*. http://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000088

Robinson, N. D. (2014). *The Relationship between Organisational Commitment, Work Engagement and Turnover Intentions*.[Masters dissertation,Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University]. vital:21119. http://hdl.handle.net/10948/6582

Robbins, S.P., & Judge, T.A. (2015).Organizational Behavior.(16th ed.). Pearson

Robbins, B. G. (2016). What is trust? A multidisciplinary review, critique, and synthesis. *Sociology Compass*, *10*(10), 972-986. https://doi.org/10.1111/soc4.12391

Rojas, S. L., & Widiger, T. A. (2014). Convergent and discriminant validity of the Five Factor Form. *Assessment*, *21*(2), 143-157. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191113517260

Rosander, P. & Backstrom, M. (2014). Personality traits measures at baseline can predict academic performance in upper secondary school three years later. Scandinavian *Journal of Psychology*, *55*(6), 611-618. https://doi.org/10.1111/sjop.12165

Rosenthal, R., & Rosnow, R. L. (1991). *Essentials of behavioural research: Methods and data analysis* (2nd ed.). McGraw Hill.

Ross, W., & LaCroix, J. (1996). Multiple meanings of trust in negotiation theory and research: A literature review and integrative model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *7*()4,314-360. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022786

Rossier, J., Zecca, G., Stauffer, S.D., Maggiori, C., & Dauwalder, J-P. (2012). Career adapt-abilities scale in a French-speaking Swiss sample: Psychometric properties and relationships to personality and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *80*, 734–743.

Rothmann, S., & Coetzer, E.P. (2003). The Big Five Personality Dimensions and Job Performance. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29, 68-74. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v29i1.88

Rothmann, S., Diedericks, E., & Swart, J. (2013). Manager relations, psychological need satisfaction and intention to leave in the agricultural sector. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 39*(2), 11 pages. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i2.1129

Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. *Journal of personality*, *35*(4), 651-65. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1967.tb01454.x

Rotter, J. B. (1980). Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility. *American psychologist*, *35*(1), 1.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer. C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*(3), 393-404.https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1998.926617

Rovai, A. P., Baker, J. D., & Ponton, M. K. (2013). Social science research design and statistics: A practitioner's guide to research methods and IBM SPSS. Watertree Press

Rubenstein, A. L., Zhang, Y., Ma, K., Morrison, H. M., & Jorgensen, D. F. (2019). Trait expression through perceived job characteristics: A meta-analytic path model linking personality and job attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *112*, 141-157.

Saeedy, S., & Rastgar, A. A. (2015). Study of the role of personality factors in organizational citizenship behaviours. *Trends Journal of Sciences Research*, *2*(2), 50-55.

Said, E. (2013). Personality traits and performance: The mediating role of adaptive behaviour in call centres. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, *3*(1), 17-27. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ajibm.2013.31003

Saidi, S. S., & Siew, N. M. (2019). Investigating the Validity and Reliability of Survey Attitude towards Statistics Instrument among Rural Secondary School Students. *International Journal of Educational Methodology*, *5*(4), 651-661. https://doi.org/10.12973/ijem.5.4.651

Sakashita, C. (2013). *Behaviours, motivations and values: Validity, reliability, and utility of novice motorcyclist's self-report in road safety research* [Doctoral thesis, University of Sydney].Sydney Digital Theses.http://hdl.handle.net/2123/10056

Sale, Z. (2014). The relationship between personality, cognition and emotional intelligence [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/19985

Salgado, J. F. (1997). The five factor model of personality and job performance in the European Community. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(1), 30–43. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.1.30

Salgado, J. F., & Fruyt, F. (2017). Personality in personnel selection. *In The Blackwell handbook of personnel selection* (2nd ed.). (pp. 172–198). Wiley-Blackwell.

Samadi, B., Wei, C. C., Seyfee, S., & Yusoff, W. F. W. (2015). Conceptual model of organizational trust and knowledge sharing behaviour among multigenerational employees. *Asian social science*, *11*(9), 32-42. https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v11n9p32

Samuel, D. B., Mullins-Sweatt, S. N., & Widiger, T. A. (2013). An investigation of the factor structure and convergent and discriminant validity of the Five-Factor Model Rating Form. *Assessment*, *20*(1), 24-35. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191112455455

Sanderson WC, Scherbov S (2014) Measuring the Speed of Aging across Population Subgroups. *PLoS ONE 9*(5): e96289. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0096289

Sapienza, P., Toldra - Simats, A., & Zingales, L. (2013). Understanding trust. *The Economic Journal*, *123* (573), 1313-1332. https://doi.org/10.1111/ecoj.12036

Schaufeli, W.B. (2013). What is engagement? In C. Truss, K. Alfes, R. Delbridge, A. Shantz, & E. Soane (Eds.), *Employee Engagement in Theory and Practice, (pp. 29-49) Routledge.*

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). A beginner's guide to structural equation modelling. Psychology Press

Schmutte, P. S., & Ryff, C. D. (1997). Personality and well-being: reexamining methods and meanings. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *73*(3), 549.

Schoder, D. & Haenlein, M. (2010). The Relative Importance of Different Trust Constructs for Sellers in the Online World, *Electronic Markets*, *14*(1), 48-57. https://doi.org/10.1080/1019678042000175298

Schoeman, J. D. (2012).*The Relationship between Work Place Well-being, Psychological Capital and Work Place Trust*.[Doctoral dissertation, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University].vital:9406.http://hdl.handle.net/10948/d1013044

Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present, and future. Academy of Management Review,32(2), 344-354. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.24348410

Schoorman, F. D., Wood, M. M., & Breuer, C. (2015). Would trust by any other name smell as sweet? Reflections on the meanings and uses of trust across disciplines and context. In B. H. Bornstein & A. J. Tomkins (Eds.), *Motivating cooperation and compliance with authority: The role of institutional trust* (Vol. 62nd Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, pp. 13-35). Springer.

Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (2016). *Theories of personality*. (11theds). Cengage Learning.

Seok, C. B., Mutang, J. A., Nawi, N. H. M., Wider, W., & Chiew, T. C. (2018). The Link Between Employees' Organizational Tenure and Citizenship Behaviour: do Different Types of Trust Play Important Role?*International Journal of Engineering & Technology, 7*(2.29), 1036-1040. http://dx.doi.org/10.14419/ijet.v7i2.29.14305

Saadullah, S. M., & Bailey, C. D. (2014). The “big five personality traits” and accountants’ ethical intention formation. In *Research on professional responsibility and ethics in accounting*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Saadullah, S.M. and Bailey, C.D. (2014), "The “Big Five Personality Traits” and Accountants’ Ethical Intention Formation". In *Research on Professional Responsibility and Ethics in Accounting* (*Research on Professional Responsibility and Ethics in Accounting, Vol. 18*), Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, pp. 167-191. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1574-076520140000018006

Shaffer, J. A., & Postlethwaite, B. E. (2013). The validity of conscientiousness for predicting job performance: A meta-analytic test of two hypotheses. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 21*(2), 183–199. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12028

Shafique, F., & Mahmood, K. (2010). Model development as a research tool: An example of PAK-NISEA. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, *2010*, 1-12. https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac/427

Shapiro, S. P. (1987). The social control of impersonal trust. *American journal of Sociology*, *93*(3), 623-658.

Shehzad, K., Xiaoxing, L., Sarfraz, M., & Zulfiqar, M. (2020). Signifying the imperative nexus between climate change and information and communication technology development: a case from Pakistan. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, *27*(24), 30502-30517.https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-09128-x

Shehzad, K., Zaman, U., José, A. E., Koçak, E., & Ferreira, P. (2021). An officious impact of financial innovations and ICT on economic evolution in china: revealing the substantial role of BRI. *Sustainability*, *13*(16),8962. https://doi.org/10.3390/SU13168962

Shields, H. E., & Bredfeldt, G. J. (2001). *Caring for souls.* Moody publishers.

Shinga, G. N. (2015). Factors involved in combat readiness with hardiness as a mediator: An exploratory study [Masters dissertation,Stellenbosch University].SUNScholar. http://hdl.handle.net/10019.1/97837

Shockley, E., Neal, T. M., PytlikZillig, L. M., & Bornstein, B. H. (Eds.). (2015). *Interdisciplinary perspectives on trust: Towards theoretical and methodological integration*. Springer.

Sicora, R., T. (2015). *Personality and Trust: A Qualitative Study on the Personality Styles/Traits of Leaders and Employees and the Impact on Culture of Trust within Organizations,* [Doctoral thesis, University of St. Thomas]. UST Research Online.https://ir.stthomas.edu/caps_ed_orgdev_docdiss/43

Six, F., Nooteboom, B., & Hoogendoorn, A. (2010). Actions that build interpersonal trust: A relational signalling perspective. *Review of Social Economy, 68*(3), 285–315. https://doi.org/10.1080/00346760902756487

Skinner, D., Dietz, G., & Weibel, A. (2014). The dark side of trust: When trust becomes a“poisoned chalice”.*Organization*,*21*(2),206-224. https://doi.org/10.117/1350508412473866

Smith, M. A., & Canger, J. M. (2004). Effects of supervisor "big five" personality on subordinate attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 18*(4), 465 481. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:JOBU.0000028447.00089.12

Smith, S., & Diedericks, E. (2016). Positive employment relations: A qualitative meta-synthesis of the evidence. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 26*(6), 527–534. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2016.1219554

Smithikrai, C. (2008). Moderating effect of situational strength on the relationship between personality traits and counterproductive work behaviour. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 11*(4), 253–263. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-839X.2008.00265.x

So, A., De Gagne, J. C., & Park, S. (2019). Validity and Reliability of the Korean Version of the Women's Toileting Behaviour Scale. International neurology journal, 23(2), 151–160. https://doi.org/10.5213/inj.1938018.009

Sonea, A., &Campeanu-Sonea, E. (2014). Specific Features Of High-Trust Organization: Case Studies Of Romanian Companies. Presented at the Proceedings Of The 8th International Management Conference, Bucharest, Romania

Soto, C. J., & John, O. P. (2017). The next Big Five Inventory (BFI-2). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 11*(3), 117–143

Soto, C. J. (2019). How replicable are links between personality traits and consequential life outcomes? The life outcomes of personality replication project. *Psychological Science*, *30*(5), 711-727.https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797619831612

South, S. C., Jarnecke, A. M., & Vize, C. E. (2018). Sex differences in the Big Five model personality traits: A genetics exploration. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *74*, 158-165.

Stander, F. W., De Beer, L. T., & Stander, M. W. (2015). Authentic leadership as a source of optimism, trust in the organisation and work engagement in the public health care sector. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *13*(1), 1-12. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.675

Sudeshna & Datt, S. (2016). Importance of research approach in a research. https://www.projectguru.in/publications/selecting-research-approach businessstudies

Suhr, D. (2006). Exploratory or Confirmatory Factor Analysis? Proceedings of the 31st Annual SAS? Users Group International Conference. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc., Paper Number: 200-31. http://www2.sas.com -> 200-31.pdf

Suliman, A. M. T. (2002). The mediating role of organizational commitment in work climate performance relationship. *Journal of Management Development*, *21* (3), 170-183. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710210420255

Srivastava, S., Angelo, K. M., & Vallereux, S. R. (2008). Extraversion and positive affect: A day reconstruction study of person–environment transactions. Journal of Research in Personality, 42(6), 1613-1618.https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jrp.2008.05.002

Steyn, H. S. (2014). *The use of effect sizes in credit rating models* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/18790

Swanepoel, B., Erasmus, B., Schenk, H., & Tshilongamulenzhe, M.C. (2014*). South African human resource management: theory and practice*. Juta

Sykes, L. M., Gani, F., & Vally, Z. (2016). Statistical terms Part 1: The meaning of the MEAN, and other statistical terms commonly used in medical research. *South African Dental Journal*, *71*(6), 274-278. http://hdl.handle.net/2263/56610

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Tan, H. H., & Tan, C. S. (2000). Toward the differentiation of trust in supervisor and trust in organization. *Genetic, social, and general psychology monographs*, *126*(2), 241 https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/lkcsb_research/2678.

Tarka, P. (2017). The comparison of estimation methods on the parameter estimates and fit indices in SEM model under 7-point Likert scale. *Archives of Data Science*, *2*(1), 1-16.

Taylor, N. (2004). *The construction of a South African five-factor personality questionnaire* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg]. http://hdl.handle.net/10210/1665

Taylor, N. & De Bruin, G. P. (2006). *Basic Traits Inventory: Technical Manual*. Jopie van Rooyen & Partners.

Taylor, N., & De Bruin, G. P. (2013). The Basic Traits Inventory. In S. Laher & K. Cockcroft (Eds.), *Psychological assessment in South Africa: Research and applications* (pp. 232–243). Wits University Press.

Tebele, C. (2013). *Job embeddedness and organisational commitment as predictors of voluntary turnover at a South African higher education institution* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD.http://hdl.handle.net/10500/10464

Templer, K. J. (2012). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: the importance of agreeableness in a tight and collectivistic Asian society. *Appl. Psychol.* 61, 114–129. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2011.00459.x

Tett, R. P., & Christiansen, N. D. (2007). Personality tests at the crossroads: A response to Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, and Schmitt (2007). *Personnel psychology*, *60*(4), 967-993.

Terblanche, N.H.D., & Heyns, M. (2020). The impact of coachee personality traits, propensity to trust and perceived trustworthiness of a coach, on a coachee's trust behaviour in a coaching relationship.SA Journal of Industrial Psychology,46(0), a1707. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v46i0.1707

Thielmann, I. (2015). *Trust from a Trait Perspective: A Theoretical Framework and Empirical Test* [Doctoral dissertation, Universität Mannheim]. MADOC Publikationserver & Universitätsbibliographie. https://madoc.bib.uni-mannheim.de/39945.

Thielmann, I., & Hilbig, B.E. (2015) "Trust: An integrative review from a person–situation perspective." *Review of General Psychology*, *19*(3), 249-277

Thomas, A., & Bendixen, M. (2000). The management implications of ethnicity in South Africa. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *31*(3), 507-519. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490919

Thorsen, S. V., Jensen, P. H., & Bjørner, J. B. (2016). Psychosocial work environment and retirement age: a prospective study of 1876 senior employees. *International archives of occupational and environmental health, 89*(6),891-900.https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s00420-016-1125-7

Thurstone, L.L. (1938). *Primary mental abilities.* University of Chicago Press

Thurstone, L. L. (1953). *Thurstone Temperament Schedule*. Science Research Associates

Tirelli, A., & Goh, S. C. (2015). The relationship between trust, learning capability, affective organisational commitment and turnover intentions. International *Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, *15(*1), 54-68. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJHRDM.2015.069971

Topino E, Di Fabio A, Palazzeschi L, Gori A (2021) Personality traits, workers' age, and job satisfaction: The moderated effect of conscientiousness. *PLoS ONE 16*(7): e0252275. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0252275

Trapp, R. (2014). *Successful Organizations Need Leaders at all Levels*. http://www.forbes.com/sites/rogertrapp/2014/03/23/organizations-needleaders-at-all

Tredoux, C. G., & Durrheim, K. (2002). *Numbers, hypotheses and conclusions*. *Juta*

Tredoux, C., & Durrheim, K. (2013). *Numbers, hypotheses & conclusions: A course in statistics for the social sciences*. UCT Press

Tupes, E. C., Christal, R. E. 1 96 1 . Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings. *United States Air Force Technical Report*. 61-97

Uppal, N., and Mishra, S. K. (2014). Moderation effects of personality and organizational support on the relationship between prior job experience and academic performance of management students. *Stud. High. Educ. 39*, 1022–1038. https://doi.org 10.1080/03075079.2013.777411

Uslaner, E. M. (2002) *The Moral Foundation of Trust*. Cambridge University Press.

Valchev, V. H., Van de Vijver, F. J., Alewyn Nel, J., Rothmann, S., Meiring, D., & De Bruin, G. P. (2011). Implicit personality conceptions of the Nguni cultural-linguistic groups of South Africa. *Cross-Cultural Research*, *45*(3), 235-266.

Valchev, V.H., Nel, J.A., Rothmann, S., Van de Vijver, F.J.R., Meiring, D., & De Bruin, G.P. (2013). Similarities and differences in implicit personality concepts across ethno-cultural groups in South Africa. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *44*(3), 365–388. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022022112443856

Valchev, V. H., Van de Vijver, F. J., Meiring, D., Nel, J. A., Hill, C., Laher, S., & Adams, B. G. (2014). Beyond Agreeableness: Social–relational personality concepts from an indigenous and cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *48*, 17-32.

Van Aarde, N. (2016). The predictive validity of the big five constructs on job performance: a meta-analysis [Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria].UPSpace Institutional Repository. http://hdl.handle.net/2263/53004

Van der Berg, Y. (2011). *The relationship between organisational trust and quality of work life* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/5103

Van der Berg, Y., & Martins, N. (2013). The relationship between organisational trust and quality of work life*. SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(1), 1-13.http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm. v11i1.392

Van Der Hoven, A. G. (2016). *The influence of servant leadership on trust, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour on a selected sample of teachers in the Western Cape Province* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Western Cape]. UWC Electronic Theses and Dissertation. http://hdl.handle.net/11394/5633

Van Lange, P. A. M., Vinkhuyzen, A. A. E., & Posthuma, D. (2014). Genetic influences are virtually absent for trust. *PLoS ONE*, *9*(4), e93880.http://www.plosone.org/article/info%3Adoi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0093880

Van Lieshout, C. F. M. (2000). Life-span personality development: Self organizing goal-oriented agents and developmental outcome. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *24*, 276–288

Van Schalkwyk, R.D.(2018). A total quality framework for private higher education in South Africa[Doctoral dissertation,University of South Africa].UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/25223

Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2013). Contributions of internationalization to psychology: Toward a global and inclusive discipline. *American Psychologist, 68*(8), 761–770. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033762

Van der Werff, L., & Buckley, F. (2017). Getting to know you: A longitudinal examination of trust cues and trust development during socialization. *Journal of Management, 43*(3), 742–770. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314543475

Van Zyl, C. J. (2014). The psychometric properties of the emotional quotient inventory 2.0 in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *40*(1), 1-8. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1192

Verburg, R. M., Nienaber, A. M., Searle, R. H., Weibel, A., Den Hartog, D. N., & Rupp, D. E. (2018).The role of organizational control systems in employees' organizational trust and performance outcomes. *Group & organization management*, *43*(2), 179-206. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601117725191

Victor, J., & Hoole, C. (2017). The influence of organisational rewards on workplace trust and work engagement. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 15*(1), 1-14.https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.853

Vineburgh. (2010). *A study of organizational trust and related variables among faculty members at HBCUs* [Doctoral dissertation,University of Iowa].Lowa Research Online. https://doi.org/10.17077/etd.iet9btjl

Visser, S., W., J. (2021). *The mediating effect of organisational justice mechanisms on the relationship between leadership and trust* [Masters dissertation, University Pretoria]. UPSpace. http://hdl.handle.net/2263/80423

Vogelgesang, G. R., Crossley, C., Simons, T., & Avolio, B. J. (2020). Behavioural integrity: examining the effects of trust velocity and psychological contract breach. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-16. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-020-04497-2

Vogt, L., & Laher, S. (2009). The five factor model of personality and individualism/collectivism in South Africa: an exploratory study. *Psychology in Society*,(37),39-54. http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S101560462009000200003&lng=en&tlng=en.

Von der Ohe, H., Martins, N., & Roode, M. (2004). The influence of credibility on employer employee trust relations. South *African Journal of Labour Relations*, *28*(2), 4-32. https://dx.doi.org/10.10520/EJC59583

Von der Ohe, H., & Martins, N. (2010). Exploring trust relationships during times of change.*SA Journal of Human Resource Management*,*8*(1),9.https://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v8i1.256

Von der Ohe, H. (2014). *An exploratory study on organisational trust relationships* [Doctoral Thesis,University of South Africa]. UNISA ETD. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/18641

Vosloo, W. (2014). *The relationship between financial efficacy, satisfaction with remuneration and personal financial well-being* [Doctoral dissertation, University of North West].Boloka Institutional Repository. http://hdl.handle.net/10394/13455

Vukasovic, T., & Bratko, D. (2015). Heritability of personality: A meta-analysis of behaviour genetic studies. *Psychology Bulletin, 141*(4), 769–85. http://doi:10.1037/bul0000017

Waeterloos, E., & Cockburn, P. (2018). Rural Transformation in South Africa and International Development Assistance: Lessons from and challenges to aid and development effectiveness stemming from the long-term partnership between Belgium and South Africa (1998-2017) https://www.enabel.be/sites/default/files/utd_belgium_report_final_web.pdf

Walterbusch, M., Gräuler, M., & Teuteberg, F. (2014). How trust is defined: A qualitative and quantitative analysis of scientific literature. 20th Americas Conference on Information Systems (AMCIS2014), 7-9 August2014,http://aisel.aisnet.org/cgi /viewcontent.cgi?article=1142 &context=amcis2014

Warr, P., & Inceoglu, I. (2012). Job engagement, job satisfaction, and contrasting associations with person–job fit. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*(2), 129–138. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026859

Ward, P., R, Miller E, Pearce AR, Meyer SB (2016) Predictors and Extent of Institutional Trust in Government, Banks, the Media and Religious Organisations: Evidence from Cross-Sectional Surveys in Six Asia-Pacific Countries. *PLoS ONE 11*(10):e0164096. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0164096

Weibel, A., Den Hartog, D. N., Gillespie, N., Searle, R., Six, F., & Skinner, D. (2016). How do controls impact employee trust in the employer? *Human Resource Management*, *55*(3), 437-462. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21733

Weisberg, Y. J., Deyoung, C. G., & Hirsh, J. B. (2011). Gender differences in personality across the ten aspects of the Big Five. *Frontiers in psychology*, *1*(2),178–190. https://doi. www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3149680/

Weiten, W. (2010). Psychology: themes and variations. Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Weiten, W. (2016). *Psychology: Themes and variations* ((10th ed.). Cengage Learning

Wekselberg, V. (1996). Reduced" social" in a new model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*,*21*(2) 333-335. http://www.jstor.org/stable/258660

Welman, J., Kruger, S., & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research Methodology* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press

Williams, B., Onsman, A., & Brown, T. (2010). Australian paramedic graduates' attributes: A pilot study using exploratory factor analysis. Emergency Medicine Journal, 27(10), 794-799. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/emj.2010.091751

Whitener, E. M., Brodt, S. E., Korsgaard, M. A., & Werner, J. M. (1998). Managers as initiators of trust: An exchange relationship framework for understanding managerial trustworthy behaviour. Academy of management review, 23(3), 513-530. https://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.1998.926624

Withers, C. W. (2017). Trust–in geography. *Progress in Human Geography*, *42*(4), 489-508. https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0309132516688078

Wöhrle, J., Van Oudenhoven, J. P., Otten, S., & Van der Zee, K. I. (2015). Personality characteristics and workplace trust of majority and minority employees in the Netherlands. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, *24*(2), 161-177. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2014.891583

Woldearegay, A.,G. (2013). *Development and validation of a hybrid measure of organisational communication satisfaction* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa].http://hdl.handle.net/10500/11884>

Wolff, H. & Kim, S. (2012). The relationship between networking behaviours and the Big Five personality dimensions. *Career Development International*, *17*(1),43-66. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620431211201328

Wong, Y., Wong, C., & Ngo, H. (2012). The effects of trust in organisations and perceived organisational support on organisational citizenship behaviour: A test of three competing models. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,23*(2),2478–293.htpp://dx.doi/org/10/1080/09585192.2011.610966

Wong, Y-W., & Wong, Y. (2017). The effects of perceived organisational support and affective commitment on turnover intention: A test of two competing models. *Journal of Chinese Human Resource Management*, *8*(1),2–21. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCHRM-01-2017-0001

Wong, A., & Carlbäck, J. (2018). *A Study on Factors Influencing Acceptance of Using Mobile Electronic Identification Applications in Sweden* (Publication No. diva 2:1214313) [Doctoral Dissertation, Jönköping University]. http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:hj:diva-39902

Wright, S. (2011). Undercover Boss: What Australian Employees Think About Their Managers.*International Employment Relations Review*,*17*, 1-21. https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.924563328790109

Xiong, H-B., & Fang, P. (2014). Authentic leadership, collective efficacy, and group performance: An empirical study in China. *Social Behaviour and Personality*, *42*(6),921–932. http://dx.doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2014.42.6.921

Yahaya, R., & Ebrahim, F. (2016). Leadership styles and organisational commitment: Literature review. *Journal of Management Development*, *35*(2), 190–216. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-01-2015-0004

Yang, Y., Read, S. J., Denson, T. F., Xu, Y., Zhang, J., & Pedersen, W. C. (2014). The key ingredients of personality traits: Situations, behaviours, and explanations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *40*(1), 79-91. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167213505871

Yao, Q., & Moskowitz, D. S. (2015). Trait agreeableness and social status moderate behavioural responsiveness to communal behaviour. *Journal of personality*, *83*(2), 191-201.

Yao, T., Qiu, Q., & Wei, Y. (2019). Retaining hotel employees as internal customers: Effect of organisational commitment on attitudinal and behavioural loyalty of employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *76*, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.03.018

Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2018). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research*, *22*(1), 115-137.

Yoon, H. S., and Barker Steege, L. M. (2013). Development of a quantitative model of the impact of customers' personality and perceptions on Internet banking use. *Computer Human Behaviour, 29*, 1133–1141. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CHB.2012.10.005

Yousef, R., Jamil, H., & Razak, N. (2013). Willingness to communicate in English: A study of Malaysian pre-service English teachers. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(9), 205. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n9p205

Zecca, G., Györkös, C., Becker, J., Massoudi, K., de Bruin, G.P., & Rossier, J. (2015). Validation of the French Utrecht Work Engagement Scale and its relationship with personality traits and impulsivity. *European Review of Applied Psychology, 65*(1), 19–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.erap.2014.10.003

Zeffane, R., & Bani Melhem, S.J. (2017). Trust, job satisfaction, perceived organisational performance and turnover intention: A public-private sector comparison in the United Arab Emirates. *Employee Relations*, *39*(7), 1148–1167. https://doi.org/ 10.1108/ER-06-2017-0135

Zhai, Q., Willis, M., O'Shea, B., Zhai, Y., & Yang, Y. (2013). Big Five personality traits, job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing in China. *International Journal of Psychology*, *48*(6), 1099-1108.

Zhang, A. Y., Tsui, A. S., Song, L. J., Li, C., & Jia, L. (2008). How do I trust thee? The employee-organization relationship, supervisory support, and middle manager trust in the organization. *Human Resource Management*, *47*(1),111-132. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20200

Zhang, Z., & Chelladurai, P. (2013). Antecedents and consequences of athlete's trust in the coach. *Journal of Sport and Health Science*, *2*(2),115-121. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2012.03.002

Zukauskas, P., & Veinhardt, J. (2018). *Philosophy and paradigm of scientific research, In Management culture and corporate social responsibility*. Pranas Open, https://doi.10.5772/intechopen.70628

The relationship between trust and big five personality dimensions

ORIGINALITY REPORT

31%	32%	7%	3%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	uir.unisa.ac.za Internet Source	23%
2	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	3%
3	link.springer.com Internet Source	3%
4	repository.nwu.ac.za Internet Source	2%

Ethical clearance #:
2018_CEMS/IOP_027

TRUST AND PERSONALI TY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Prospective Participant

You are invited to participate in a research study, entitled **"The relationship between trust and Big Five Personality Dimensions."** The study is being conducted by Mmamokupi Nancy Radiokana and Prof Nico Martins from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa (UNISA), who may be reached at nancy.sace@gmail.com/ martinsn@mweb.co.za or on 0722247194/ 0832666372

The aim of this research study is to explore the relationship between trust and the Big Five Personality Dimensions with a view to determine if there are certain personality styles or combination of styles that are perceived to be more trustworthy than others and if there are personality styles that are not perceived as trustworthy. As a result, to come up with strategies that can aid leaders in learning adaptive strategies that can help create greater trusting relationships in organisations.

Your participation in the study will contribute to a better understanding of how trust can be influenced by the Big Five personality dimensions. You are free to contact the investigator at the above email address and phone number to discuss the study. You must be at least 26 years old to participate.

If you agree to participate:

- The survey or questionnaire will contain behavioral type of questions to evaluate employees' attitudes, feelings and will take approximately minimum of 35 minutes of your time to complete
- You will not be compensated

Risks/Benefits/Confidentiality of Data

There are no known risks or some possible risks such as loss of privacy or confidentiality or some discomfort which could cause you to feel uncomfortable, embarrassed, sad, tired, etc. There will be no costs for participating, nor will you benefit from participating. Your name and email address will be kept during the data collection phase for tracking purposes only. A limited number of research team members will have access to the data during data collection.

Participation or Withdrawal

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to answer any question and you have the right to withdraw from participation at any time. Withdrawal will not affect your relationship with the University of South Africa (UNISA) in anyway. If you do not want to participate either simply stop participating or close the browser window.

Participants 's answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly including the statistician, and members of the Research Ethics Committee. Otherwise, records that identify participants will be available only to people working on the study.

The research report compiled from the overall findings will include an integrated summary of the results. No individual or organisation will be identified by name when reporting on the findings. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report. My research was reviewed and approved by the UNISA CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee (Ethical Clearance# 2018_ CEMS/IOP_ 027).

Contacts

If you have, any questions about the study contact the researcher Mmamokupi Nancy Radiokana on 0722247194 or email nancy.sace@gmail.com. Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Prof Nico Martins, email: martinsn@mweb.co.za / Martin@unisa.ac.za, phone number: 0832666372.

Questions about your rights as a research participant

For questions about your rights or any dissatisfaction with any part of this study, you can contact, anonymously if you wish, the UNISA Research Ethics Office, at 012 4502 or by email at CEMS - Ethics@unisa.ac.za.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Thank You.

Mmamokupi Nancy Radiokana

Primary Researcher

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

23 October 2018

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : 2018_CEMS/IOP_ 027
Name : Miss Mmamokupi Nancy Radiokana
Student #: 58559167
Staff #: N/A

Dear Miss Mmamokupi Nancy Radiokana,

Decision: Ethics Approval from 16 October 2018 to 16 October 2021

Researcher(s): Name: Miss Mmamokupi Nancy Radiokana
Address: 129 Cape Parrot Street, Elandspoort, 0183
E-mail address, telephone: 072 224 7194, nancy.sace@gmail.com

Supervisor (s): Prof N Martins
E-mail address, telephone: martinsn@mweb.co.za, 083 266 6372

The relationship between trust and Big Five Personality Dimensions.

Qualification: Post graduate degree-Masters

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for **Three** years.

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on the 16th October 2018 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was approved on 16th October 2018.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (16th October 2021). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:
*The reference number **2018_CEMS/IOP_027** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Signature
Chair of IOP ERC
E-mail: vnieka2@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-8231

Signature
Executive Dean : CEMS
E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-4805

URERC 25.04.17 - Decision template (V2) - Approve

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

ImzamoYami Consultancy

Editorial Certificate

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRUST

AND THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

MMAMOKUPI NANCY RADIOKANA	**13 Aug 2021**
CLIENT	ISSUE DATE

This document certifies that the above manuscript was proofread and edited for proper English language| Grammar | Punctuation | Spelling and Style by one of our highly qualified Professional Academic Editors, most of whom are Members of Professional Editors Guilds. The editor endeavoured to ensure that the author's intended meaning was not altered during the review. All amendments were tracked with the Microsoft Word "Track changes" feature. Therefore, the authors had the option to reject or accept each change individually.

Dr Nomzamo Dube	Noel Neville Nyathi (MA)
DIRECTOR	MANAGING DIRECTOR

Imzamo Yami Consultancy enhances the performance of Corporates, Governments, Municipalities, Institutions of Higher Learning and Researchers through Corporate and Academic content creation services which include Social Science Research | Data analysis | Documentation| Copywriting | Proof reading and Editing. We envision to be a leading social science and humanities research organisation providing expert and practical solutions to organisations, municipalities, institutions of higher learning and communities across Africa.