MODELLING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, LEADERSHIP STYLE, HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

By

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SUMMARY

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Research in the organizational psychology and organizational behaviour literature has identified the existence of multiple dimensions of OC and found different relationships between these dimensions and important organizational factors and outcomes. In an attempt to add to the efforts to clarify these relationships, this study focuses on the relationships between organizational factors such as human resources management (HRM) practices, leadership and trust, and organizational commitment within an academic environment.

A sample of 246 employees from eleven South African institutions of higher learning was used in the study. The sample was made up of 67.88% respondents from Technikons and 28.86% from Universities. Females accounted for 45.12% of the sample while males were 54.51%. The average age of respondents was 41.9 years.

ANOVA was used to determine the relationship between demographic factors and organizational commitment. The results of the ANOVAs showed no significant relationship between the demographic factors and organizational commitment. The only significant relationship was found between the type of academic institution and total organizational commitment. Tukey's studentized range test indicated significant differences in the means of respondents from full-time residential institutions and those from institutions with a combination of fulltime residential and part-time non-residential students. Respondents from the

later type of institutions had reported more total organizational commitment. Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient was used to determine the inter-relationships between the total scales and subscales of the different variables. Significant inter-correlations were found between trust and HRM, trust and organizational commitment, leadership style and trust, and leadership style and HRM. Multiple Regression Analysis indicated weak predictions of organizational commitment by the different independent variables. Structural equations models could not be accepted as they showed weak fits with the data.

In light of these findings, suggestions are provided for academic institution managers to evaluate the role of HRM practices, leadership style and trust in influencing commitment to the organization and organizational trust. Suggestions are also made as to how leadership style and HRM practices can affect the role of trust in the development of organizational commitment, and how OC research can provide practical results for academic institutions.

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CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Many researchers point out that organizational commitment has remained a topic of interest ever since it was introduced in the early 1950s to the field of organizational behaviour (Aryee & Heng, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Baruch, 1998; Mowday, 1998; Goulet & Frank, 2002). These authors indicate that the continued interest is a result of the belief that if properly managed, organizational commitment can lead to beneficial consequences such as organizational effectiveness, improved performance, reduced turnover and reduced absenteeism (Meyer & Allen, 1997 and Mowday, 1998). This quest to harness the potential organizational benefits has resulted in the large number of studies that focus on the nature of organizational commitment.

Although a great deal has been written about organizational commitment, there still is no clear understanding on how the factors purported to be associated with it contribute to its development or how these organizational factors can be managed to promote the development of organizational commitment (Beck & Wilson, 2001). Human resources management practices, leadership styles and trust within the organization are some of the organizational factors that have been associated with organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The exact manner in which these factors influence the development of organizational commitment is still not well understood. Empirical evidence is still needed to unravel the development of organizational commitment.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Organizational commitment is widely described in the management and behavioural sciences literature as a key factor in the relationship between individuals and organizations. For example, Raju and Srivastava (1994); Mowday (1998); and Gilbert and Ivancevich (1999) all describe organizational commitment as the factor that promotes the attachment of the individual to the organization. Employees are regarded as committed to an organization if they willingly continue their association with the organization and devote considerable effort to achieving organizational goals (Raju & Srivastava, 1994; Mowday, 1998). These authors argue that the high levels of effort exerted by employees with high levels of organizational commitment would lead to higher levels of performance and effectiveness at both the individual and the organizational level.

As there seems to be considerable evidence that committed employees are more valuable than those with weak commitment (Raju & Srivastava, 1994; Mowday, 1998), researches have focused on the identification of organizational factors that can be managed in order to foster employee commitment. A search of the extensive literature reveals a long list of factors that are associated with the development of organizational commitment. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) have categorized these factors into four major categories of variables. These are personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences and structural characteristics. Other organizational factors that have been suggested to influence organizational commitment include organizational size, organizational culture, leadership style, and human resources management practices that influence salary, career prospects and possibilities for further education (Nijhof, de Jong & Beukhof, 1998). Among these, there are some factors such as organizational culture, leadership style, and human resources practices, which could be deliberately manipulated by organizations to influence the levels of organizational commitment in their employees.

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Human Resources Management (HRM). The importance of organizational characteristics in the creation and maintenance of employee work attitudes such as organizational commitment has been recognized by authors like Reichheld (1996) and Pfeffer (1998). These authors argue that organizations that pursue a strategy of increasing employee commitment gain a competitive advantage over other organizations that do not follow a similar strategy. Reichheld (1996) in his book "The Loyalty Effect", states that organizations that exhibit loyalty to their customers, employees and investors realize growth and profit that support a competitive advantage. He argues that when employees are satisfied with their organization, they will in turn show loyalty to the organization and will ensure that the customer is satisfied by the organization's services or products. As satisfied employees tend to stay with an organization, the organization will save costs on recruiting and training new employees as loyal employees remain with the organization. He cites several examples of companies that have pursued strategies of attracting developing and re-training competent employees as evidence that loyalty to employees can be a powerful source of competitive advantage.

Pfeffer (1998) writes in his book "The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First" that firms that pursue "high involvement, high performance and high commitment management practices" produce superior economic returns over time. He supports this viewpoint by identifying a set of seven management practices that he believes lead to organizational outcomes related to higher economic returns. These are: (1) employment security; (2) selective hiring; (3) self-managed teams and decentralization of decision making; (4) high compensation contingent on performance; (5) employee training; (6) reduced status differentials and (7) information sharing. He refers to these management practices as people-centred strategies and states that people-centred strategies are an important source of competitive advantage, as they cannot be easily imitated.

As both Reichheld's (1996) and Pfeffer's (1998) books lack empirical evidence to support their arguments, there arises a need for researchers to produce more empirical evidence to support the proposed link between management practices and positive organizational outcomes. Meyer and Allen (1997), in their book "*Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application*" describe several empirical studies which have shown a positive relationship between organizational practices, organizational commitment and desirable work outcomes such as performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, turnover, adaptability and job satisfaction.

In addition to the references quoted by Meyer and Allen (1997) there are other researchers who have reported relationships between human resource management systems or strategies and organizational outcomes such as employee retention, productivity, quality and organizational economic success at the organizational level (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli, 1997; Whitener, 2001). Arthur (1992) showed through Multiple Regression Analysis, that human resources systems were significantly associated with variation in steel mini-mills' performance. Tsui et al. (1997) found that organizational investments in employees is associated with significantly higher levels of employee affective commitment as well as higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviour, greater intention to stay with the organization and fewer unexcused absences.

Whitener (2001), using hierarchical linear modelling, found that employee's commitment is significantly related to both actual and perceived HRM practices such as internal promotion, training opportunities and employment security. These authors suggest that adopting an integrated set of human resource management practices focusing on commitment can produce high levels of employee affective commitment and subsequent organizational performance. However, the linkage between human resource management strategies and individual level employee commitment needs further exploration by researchers.

Trust: In the same way that organizational commitment is seen as an antecedent to desirable organizational outcomes, researchers argue that trust is the key to producing excellent organizational functioning (Whitener, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; and Kerfoot, 1998). Whitener (1997) argues that the levels of trust within an organization can influence the successful implementation of the HRM practices. She makes a case that trust influences the employee's perception of procedural and distributive justice associated with the implementation of human resources management policies. Therefore, the effectiveness and success of HRM policies and practices will be dependent on the employee's trust of the management in the organization (Whitener, 1997).

Organizational life is characterized by interactions between individuals within and outside the organization. Mishra (1996) and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) argue that trust is important for these interactions to be successful. They see trust as a necessary element that promotes effective co-operation and communication in well functioning organizations. Kerfoot (1998) supports the idea that trust is an important factor in organizational success. She argues that social and professional collaborations, which are essential for producing positive outcomes within an organization, succeed if there is trust between the involved parties. She takes the argument further by stating that the level of trust is the foundation upon which financial and quality success can be built.

Researchers have shown that trust has significant positive relationships with many organizational variables such as communication, performance, citizenship behaviour and co-operation (Mishra & Morrisey, 1990; Sashittal, Berman & Ilter, 1998; Costigan, Ilter & Berman, 1998). The results of a survey by Mishra and Morrisey (1990) of West Michigan managers present a list of seven main advantages of trust. These are (1) improved communication, (2) greater predictability, (3) dependability and confidence, (4) reduction in employee turnover, (5) an openness, willingness to listen and accept criticism non-defensively, (6) repeat business, and (7) a reduction of friction among employees. The managers surveyed also agreed that organizational

ineffectiveness is largely due to widespread distrust among employees towards management.

The results obtained by Costigan et al. (1998) indicate a link between affect-based trust in work relationships and employee behaviour such as risk taking, motivation, assertiveness and personal initiative to improve professionally. This means that when employees trust the organization, they work hard and are able to take risks and show initiative in ways that can only benefit the organization. Guarrero (1998) supports this argument when he contends that when an individual operates in an environment with high trust levels, the individual becomes more creative and effective, which consequently leads to organizational success.

Several researchers ascribe negative organizational and individual consequences to a lack of trust (Mishra & Morrisey, 1990; Kerfoot, 1998 and Guarrero, 1998). They point out that when trust levels are low, individuals tend to be less creative, less forthcoming with ideas and exert less effort towards organizational goals. Mishra and Morrisey (1990) state that in an environment where trust does not exist, individuals expand a lot of their energy trying to protect themselves rather than achieve organizational goals. Kerfoot (1998) lists, among others, a culture of insecurity, high turnover and marginal loyalty as some of the organizational consequences of low trust. Guarrero, (1998) takes the effects of lack of trust beyond the individual by indicating the organizational costs associated with a lack of trust. He indicates that without trust, management may erroneously assume that employees need more rigid supervision and tighter controls, which would stifle employee initiative and creativity.

Concerning factors that induce trust, Mishra and Morrissey (1990) identify four factors: (1) open communication, (2) giving workers greater share in the decision making, (3) sharing of critical information, and (4) true sharing of perceptions and feelings. Guerrero (1998) also describes four basic conditions that need to exist in an organization for trust to be developed and established. The conditions include an (1) openness that allows information to be shared with employees, (2) a commitment to fostering employee talent, (3) a willingness to

allow disagreement within the organization, and (4) a leadership base that consistently acts with integrity. All these support the notion that trust develops in an environment where information is freely shared and the organization shows commitment to its employees.

From the list of factors described by Mishra and Morrisey (1990) and Guarrero (1998), it seems that human resources management practices might have an influence on the development of trust. For example, information dissemination within an organization and the extent to which employees are involved in the decision making process are determined by human resources policies of an organization. Whitener (2001) has shown that human resources management practices like training and development, promotions, compensation, job security, recruitment and selection and performance evaluation have been found to affect the development of trust.

From the literature, it seems that there is evidence to support the argument that trust and organizational commitment are critical to an organization's success. In addition, Siegall and Worth (2001) argue that trust in organizations is needed so that employees can feel confident that their efforts will result in some benefit to themselves. Therefore, it can be argued that employees need to trust that their commitment to an organization and the efforts they exert on behalf of the organization will lead to personal benefits. Thus, it can be argued that if employees can trust that their efforts will lead to organizational success and that they will benefit from the organization's success, they will develop commitment to the organization. There is however, limited empirical evidence that clarifies the relationship between organizational commitment and trust.

The literature again supports the notion that human resources practices can affect the development of both organizational commitment and trust. Although there seems to be evidence that links specific human resources management systems with either commitment of individual employees or trust, what remains to be demonstrated is whether human resources management systems have a relationship with both trust and organizational commitment in the same people. A study in which all these variables are included is therefore called

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for. Another important organizational characteristic that could affect the development of organizational commitment and trust is leadership style.

Leadership Style. Several authors have associated leaders' characteristics with the development of either organizational commitment or trust (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1994; Bennis & Townsend, 1995; Kerfoot, 1998). Bennis and Goldsmith (1994), and Bennis and Townsend (1995) believe that vision, empathy, consistency and integrity in a leader could foster the development of trust. They also indicate that leaders generate and sustain trust by acting in ways that produce constancy, congruity, reliability and integrity. Kerfoot (1998) adds to these availability and accessibility, communicating with candour and a willingness to invest in employees.

According to the HRM philosophy, organizational commitment is the joint responsibility of line managers and the human resources department (Shepperd & Matthews, 2000). The way leaders behave as they practise the organization's human resources policies can influence employee's behaviour (Whitener, 2001). The interpersonal treatment employees receive from their supervisors such as "adequately considering their view points, supporting their personal biases, explaining their decisions and providing feedback timely and applying decision-making criteria consistently" could have strong effect on the employee's perceptions of fairness (Whitener, 2001). Therefore, organizations that have supervisors who treat employees fairly as they enact procedures and HR practices could increase their employee's trust in the organization and supervisors, which will in turn positively affect the levels of organizational commitment.

Relatively, there is still very limited research that supports the argument that organizational characteristics such as the leadership style practised and the HRM practices can affect the level of trust and organizational commitment within organizations. Given this situation it is imperative that more research is done around this area. The present study therefore aims to determine the relationship between organizational factors such as human resource management practices

and leadership style with the level of trust and organizational commitment of academics.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Organizational commitment has been studied extensively among diverse professional groups. The notion that commitment is important for the realization of organizational and professional goals particularly in the educational institutions has remained untapped by researchers. However, only a few studies have addressed commitment in these institutions. These studies on organizational commitment of educators have focused on teachers in schools and to a lesser extent on educators in higher education institutions. The study of employee commitment should be important to educational institutions receiving large amounts of public funds and playing an important role in the development of the skills and knowledge of employees of the future and the community as a whole.

The study of organizational commitment and trust will especially be relevant to South African higher education institutions at this point in time as several are faced with imminent mergers.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between selected human resource management practices, leadership style and the organizational trust and organizational commitment of employees within higher education institutions in South Africa. The proposed relationship of the variables of interest is illustrated in Figure 1.1. on page 10. The results of the study would help managers of academic institutions to determine the types of HRM practices and leadership styles to adopt in order to induce and maintain trust and organizational commitment from their employees.

Pfeffer (1998) writes in his book "The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First" that firms that pursue "high involvement, high performance and high commitment management practices" produce superior economic returns over time. He supports this viewpoint by identifying a set of seven management practices that he believes lead to organizational outcomes related to higher economic returns. These are: (1) employment security; (2) selective hiring; (3) self-managed teams and decentralization of decision making; (4) high compensation contingent on performance; (5) employee training; (6) reduced status differentials and (7) information sharing. He refers to these management practices as people-centred strategies and states that people-centred strategies are an important source of competitive advantage, as they cannot be easily imitated.

Figure 1.1. The proposed relationships between HRM practices, leadership style, organizational trust and organizational commitment.

1.5 DESCRIPTIONS OF CONCEPTS USED IN THE STUDY

1.5.1. Organizational commitment

Organizational researchers agree that a consensus has not yet been reached over the definition of organizational commitment (Scholl, 1981; Benkhoff, 1997a; Mowday, 1998; Suliman & Isles, 2000a, 2000b; Zangaro, 2001). Scholl (1981) indicates that the way organizational commitment is defined depends on the approach to commitment that one is adhering to. Accordingly, organizational commitment is defined either as an employee attitude or as a force that binds an employee to an organization. According to Suliman and Isles (2000a), there are currently four main approaches to conceptualising and exploring organizational commitment. There is the attitudinal approach, the behavioural approach, the normative approach and the multidimensional approach.

The attitudinal approach views commitment largely as an employee attitude or more specifically as a set of behavioural intentions. The most widely accepted attitudinal conceptualisation of organizational commitment is that by Porter and his colleagues who define organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individuals' identification with, and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1979). They mention three characteristics of organizational commitment: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organization and (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organization. Within this approach, the factors associated with commitment include positive work experiences; personal characteristics and job characteristics while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover.

The second approach refers to organizational commitment as behaviour (Suliman & Isles, 2000b; Zangaro, 2001). The focus of research according to the behavioural approach is on the overt manifestations of commitment. The behavioural approach emphasizes the view that an employee continues his/her employment with an organization because investments such as time spent in the organization, friendships formed within the organization and pension benefits, tie the employee to the organization. Thus an employee becomes committed to an organization because of "sunk costs" that are too costly to loose. Becker's (1960) side bet theory forms the foundation of this approach. According to him, employee commitment is continued association with an organization that occurs because of an employee's decision after evaluating the costs of leaving the organization. He emphasizes that this commitment only happens once the employee has recognized the cost associated with discontinuing his association with the organization.

In a similar vein, Kanter (1968) defined organizational commitment as "profit" associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving. That is, an employee stands to either profit or lose depending on whether he/she chooses to remain with the organization. Whereas the attitudinal approach uses the concept of commitment to explain performance and membership, the behavioural school uses the concept of "investments" as " a force that ties employees to organizations", to explain organizational commitment (Scholl, 1981).

The normative approach is the third approach, which argues that congruency between employee goals and values and organizational aims make the employee feel obligated to his/her organization (Becker, Randall, & Reigel 1995). From this point of view, organizational commitment has been defined as "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests" (Weiner, 1982).

The last approach, the multi-dimensional approach, is relatively new. It assumes that organizational commitment is more complex than emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation. This approach suggests that

organizational commitment develops because of the interaction of all these three components. Several studies, according to Suliman and Isles (2000b) have contributed to this new conceptualisation of organizational commitment. They credit Kelman (1958) as the earliest contributor to the multidimensional approach. Kelman lay down the foundation for the multidimensional approach when he linked compliance, identification and internalisation to attitudinal change. Another earlier contributor is Etzioni (1961) who, as cited by Zangaro (2001), describe organizational commitment in terms of three dimensions; moral involvement, calculative involvement and alienative involvement, with each of these dimensions representing an individual's response to organizational powers. Moral involvement is defined as a positive orientation based on an employee's internalisation and identification with organizational goals. Calculative involvement is defined as either a negative or a positive orientation of low intensity that develops due to an employee receiving inducements from the organization that match his/her contributions. Alienative involvement on the other hand is described as a negative attachment to the organization. In this situation, individuals perceive a lack of control or of the ability to change their environment and therefore remain in the organization only because they feel they have no other options. Etzioni's three dimensions incorporate the attitudinal, behavioural and normative aspects of organizational commitment.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also support the notion that organizational commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct. They developed their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and the fact that various mechanisms can lead to attitudes development of attitudes. Taking Kelman's (1958) work as their basis, they argue that commitment could take three distinct forms that they called compliance, identification, and internalisation. They believed that compliance would occur when attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. Identification would occur when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying

relationship. Lastly, internalisation would occur when the attitudes and behaviours that one is encouraged to adopt are congruent with one's own values.

The most popular multi-dimensional approach to organizational commitment is that of Meyer and his colleagues. In 1984, Meyer and Allen, based on Becker's side-bet theory, introduced the dimension of continuance commitment to the already existing dimension of affective commitment. As a result, organizational commitment was regarded as a bi-dimensional concept that included an attitudinal aspect as well as a behavioural aspect. In 1990, Allen and Meyer added a third component, normative commitment to their two dimensions of organizational commitment. They proposed that commitment as a psychological attachment may take the following three forms: the affective, continuance and normative forms.

Meyer and Allen (1984) defined affective commitment as "an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization", continuance commitment as "commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization", and normative commitment as "an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization". Each of these three dimensions represents a possible description of an individual's attachment to an organization.

Inverson and Buttibieg (1999) examined the multidimensionality of organizational commitment. Based on a sample of 505 Australian male fire-fighters, they found that four dimensions that are affective, normative, low perceived alternatives, and high personal sacrifice, best represent organizational commitment.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have pointed out that there are differences in the dimensions, forms or components of commitment that have been described in the different multidimensional conceptualisations of organizational commitment. They attribute these differences to the different motives and strategies involved in the development of these multidimensional frameworks. These included attempts to account for empirical findings (Angle & Perry, 1981), distinguish among earlier one-dimensional conceptualisations (Allen & Meyer,

1990; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich, 1993), ground commitment within an established theoretical context (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), or some combination of these (Mayer & Schoorman 1992). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have tabulated these different dimensions for easier comparison as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

<u>Dimensions of Organizational Commitment within Multidimensional Models</u>

Angle and Perry (1981) Value commitment Commitment to stay	"Commitment to support the goals of the organization" "Commitment to retain their organizational membership"
O'Reilly and Chapman (1986) Compliance Identification Internalization	"Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards" "Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organization" "Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values"
Penley and Gould (1988) Moral Calculative Alienative	"Acceptance of and identification with organizational goals" "A commitment to an organization which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions" "Organizational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments; yet he or she remains due to environmental pressures"
Meyer and Allen (1991) Affective Continuance Normative	"The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization" "An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization" "A feeling of obligation to continue employment"
Mayer and Schoorman (1992) Value Continuance	"A believe in and acceptance of organizational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization" "The desire to remain a member of the organization"
Jaros et al. (1993) Affective Continuance Moral	"The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on" "The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving" "The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalisation of its goals, values, and missions"

Note : From Meyer, J. P. and Herscovitch, L. 2001. Commitment in the workplace: toward a general model. Human Resources Management Review, Vol11, pp299-326.

The focus of the present study is on organizational commitment as a multidimensional concept that represents the relationship between an employee and his/her employer. The definition of organizational commitment that is adopted is that of Allen and Meyer (1990) which looks at commitment as a three dimensional concept which has an attitudinal aspect, a continuance aspect and a normative aspect. This approach is relevant to the current research as like Angel and Perry (1983), it is argued that different factors within the organization will influence the development of different components of organizational commitment. For example, it is hypothesized that specific HRM practices like compensation HRM practices, may induce continuance commitment as the employee might be reluctant to lose benefits while training HRM practices might induce normative commitment. On the other hand, certain types of HRM may induce both affective and continuance commitment of employees toward their organizations. Other organizational factors that can possibly have an influence on the development of organizational commitment include trust and leadership behaviour.

In order to further explore the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, the present study will treat it as a dependent variable that can be influenced by organizational factors such as HRM practices, leadership style and trust levels. Our analysis will determine which type of organizational factors will influence the development of which type of organizational commitment.

1.5.2. The concept of HRM

The concept of human resources management is comparatively new in the management and organizational behaviour literature. Human resources management only emerged as a planned and systematic approach to human resources in the latter half of the 20th century (Ferris, Hochwarter, Buckley, Harrel-Cook & Frink, 1999; Armstrong, 2000). It has emerged as an interdisciplinary and integrated approach towards the development of human

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resources. It focuses on developing the competency of the individual, throughout his association with the organization, by improving his skills, attitudes and job knowledge (Ferris et al., 1999).

The origin of HRM as a defined school of thought can be traced back to the 1970s with the development of the human resource accounting theory (Storey, 1995a). Earlier to this theory, human resources were considered a cost to the organization. Their value was seen only in terms of their ability to render services that would lead to financial gain by the organization. Human resources accounting revolutionized this thinking and brought about the idea that people represented assets of any organization. Human resources management, according to this approach, is defined as a process of identifying, measuring, and communicating information about human resources to decision makers, specifically about their cost and value of these assets.

Storey (1989) asserts that HRM models suggest that employees should be regarded as valued assets and that there should be an emphasis on commitment, adaptability and consideration of employees as a source of competitive advantage. HRM is an integrated strategy and planned development process for effective utilization of human resources for the achievement of organizational goals. Practically, HRM is the development of abilities and the attitude of the individuals, leading to personal growth and self-actualisation, which enable the individual to contribute to organizational objectives. HRM believes that human potential is limitless and it is the duty of the organization to help the individual to identify his/her strengths and make full use of them. The concept of HRM aims at understanding the needs and hopes of people in a better way.

The concept of HRM as a more effective approach to managing the organization's key asset, its people, has attracted enormous attention and stimulated significant debate among academics and practitioners (Storey, 1992; Luthans, 1998; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000). Much of the debate has been around the meaning of HRM. There is yet no universally accepted definition of

HRM. The literature (Guest, 1989; Storey, 1992, 1995a, 1995b) suggests a range of definitions. Some of these interchange HRM with personnel management or industrial relations. Others regard HRM as a distinct approach aimed at integrating the management of people into overall business strategy and organizational goals (Storey1995b).

Personnel management characteristically focused on a range of activities centred on the supply and development of labour to meet the immediate and short-term needs of the organization (Legge, 1995). Under personnel management, the activities of recruitment, selection, rewards development and others, are viewed as separate individual functions. HRM aims to integrate all of the personnel function into a cohesive strategy. Personnel management was largely something that managers did to subordinates, whereas HRM takes the entire organization as a focal point for analysis and stresses development at all levels (Legge, 1995).

Storey (1992) proposed three "models" of HRM referred to as a normative, which prescribes the ideal approach, a descriptive model that focuses on identifying development and practices in the field and a conceptual approach that seeks to develop a model of classification. At the normative level, differences between HRM, personnel management, employee relations and industrial relations are described.

A comparison of HRM and Personnel management as developed by Storey (1995a) is shown in Table 1.2 on pages 19. From this comparison, it can be seen that personnel management is seen as a control activity that focuses on an administrative processes without any focus on the developmental needs of the individual employee. HRM on the other hand, is seen as an approach that aims to involve managers in the development of their employees and the organization. It is also suggested that HRM is engaged in an identifiable set of functions or practices that are administered on an organization-wide basis for enhancing the effectiveness of employees. The term practice is used according to Baruch (1997)'s definition that practices are all kinds of techniques, activities, methods and programs conducted by the HRM department and line managers.

HRM practices therefore can serve as an indication of the way in which the organization takes care of its people.

Table 1.2

A Comparison of Personnel Management and HRM

Dimension	Personnel and IR	HRM
Beliefs and assumptions		
1. Contract	Careful delineation of written contracts	Aim to go "beyond contract"
2. Rules	Importance of devising clear rules/mutuality	"Can-do" outlook, impatience with "rules"
3. Guide to management action	Procedures	"Business need"
4. Behaviour referent	Norms/custom and practice	Values/mission
5. Managerial task vis-à-vis labour	Monitoring	Nurturing
6. Nature of relations	Pluralist	Unitarist
7. Conflict	Institutionalized	De-emphasized
Strategic aspects		
8. Key relations	Labour management	Customer
9. Initiatives	Piecemeal	Integrated
10. Corporate plan	Marginal to	Central to
11. Speed of decision	Slow	Fast
Line management		
12. Management role	Transactional	Transformational leadership
13. Key managers	Personnel/IR specialists	General/business/line managers
14. Communication	Indirect	Direct
15. Standardization	High (e.g. "parity" seen as an issue)	Low (e.g. "parity not seen as relevant)
16. Prized management skill	Negotiation	Facilitation
Key levers		
17. Selection	Separate, marginal task	Integrated, key task
18. Pay	Job evaluation (fixed grades)	Performance-related
19. Conditions	Separately negotiated	Harmonization
20. Labour management	Collective bargaining contracts	Towards individual contracts
21. Thrust of relations with stewards	Regularized through facilities and training	Marginalized (with exception of some bargaining for change models)

Note: From " Is HRM Catching on?" by Storey, J. 1995. *International Journal of Manpower,* Vol. 16, No. 4, pp3-12.

HRM therefore can be defined as a strategic approach to acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining the commitment of an organization's key resources, its employees (Ahmed, 1999). As a result, HRM encompasses a variety of functions designed to manage, support and develop employees working in organizations. In this study, HRM will be viewed as Storey (1995a) defined it. It will be seen as an approach to people management that regards employees as valuable assets and influences an organization to practice specific approaches to acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining commitment from the organization's employees.

1.5.3. The concept of leadership behaviour

There are many definitions of the concept of leadership as there are authors on the subject (Nirenberg, 2001). Some of these authors have defined leadership as a position, a person, a behavioural act, a style, a relationship or a process. Examples of those who define leadership in terms of a person include Hosking (1988), who describes leaders as those who consistently make effective contributions to the social order. Conger (1999), also describes leadership in terms of a person. He says leaders are individuals who establish direction for a working group of individuals. According to Conger, leaders also have the responsibility to motivate the group members and to gain the group's commitment to the direction they have set.

Other authors regard leadership as the behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. Rowden (2000) is one of those authors who define leadership as the behaviour of an individual when that person is directing and coordinating the activities of a group toward the accomplishment of a shared goal. Those who define leadership as an act include, Benis and Goldsmith (1994) who define leadership as what leaders do such as acting with integrity and competence, interpreting reality, explaining the present and painting a picture of the future.

Several authors define leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Gardner (1990) defines leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. Leadership is a process of giving purpose to collective effort, and causing others to willingly exert effort in order to achieve a specific purpose (Jacobs & Jacques, 1990). Jacques and Clement (1994) also define leadership as process. They regard leadership as a process in which one person sets the purpose or direction for others and gets them to move along together with him/her in that direction with competence and commitment.

Nirenberg (2001) defines leadership as a social function necessary for the achievement of collective objectives. Leadership is therefore not just a position in a hierarchy or a chain of command, but involves the actions of the leader. This approach to leadership sees leadership as a process of mutual interaction between leader and follower. The process of leadership may be thought of as consisting of a number of different functions such as inspiring subordinates, forming and reaching collective goals, and preserving group cohesion. Each of these functions can be accomplished by many different leadership behaviours.

Bass has been in the forefront of approaching leadership in terms of styles. Bass (1990) has described three well-known styles of leadership: laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership. Laissez-faire leaders abdicate their responsibility leaving their subordinates to work relatively on their own and avoid making decisions (Bass, 1990). Transactional leaders identify and clarify job tasks for their subordinates and communicate how successful execution of those tasks will lead to receipt of desirable job rewards (Bass, 1990). Transactional managers determine and define goals for their subordinates, and suggest how to execute tasks. They also provide feedback on completed tasks. Research has shown that transactional leadership could have a favourable influence on attitudinal and behavioural responses of employees. Transformational leaders adopt a long-term perspective (Bass, 1990). Rather than focusing solely on current needs of their employees or themselves, they

also focus on future needs. They also concern themselves with long-term issues instead of being concerned only with short-term problems and opportunities facing the organization. In addition, transformational leaders tend to have a holistic perspective of intra- and extra-organizational factors.

From the above definitions of leadership, it is clear that leadership can be viewed in terms of multiple perspectives, and that it can be represented as existing as an act, behaviour or process. It is also clear that each of these perspectives alone does not give a full explanation of what leadership is. Leadership is complex and encompasses all these aspects at varying degrees depending on the situation. In this study, we will take an integrative approach to leadership. This study will focus on leadership as both an individual and group-directed measure of leader behaviour and style and use measures that question the subordinates about the leader's behaviour toward an individual subordinate or toward an entire group of subordinates.

1.5.4. The concept of Trust

Within organizational behaviour, trust has been described as a complex concept that is thought to be central to the interpersonal relationships that are characteristic of organizations (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). As a result, it has received a great deal of attention by organizational researchers who defined it from different perspectives. Some of these definitions are summarized in Table 1.3. Sitkin and Roth (1993) suggest that the definitions of trust could be divided into four basic categories: trust as an individual attribute, trust as behaviour, trust as a situational feature, and trust as an institutional arrangement. Hosmer (1995), on the other hand, suggests that individual expectations, interpersonal relations, economic exchanges, social structures and ethical principles represent major approaches to trust.

Table 1. 3

<u>A Summary of Some of the Definitions of Trust in the Organizational Context</u>

Author	Definition of trust
Rotter, 1967	"An expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group could be relied upon"
Zand, 1972	"The willingness of one person to increase his/her vulnerability to the actions of another person."
Cook and Wall, 1980	"The extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people".
Hosmer, 1995	"Optimistic expectations of the outcome of an uncertain event under conditions of personal vunerability.
Hunt and Morgan (1994)	"Trust exists when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity"
Mohr and Spekman 1994	"The belief that a party's word is reliable and that a party will fulfill its obligation in an exchange.
Mayer et al. 1995	"Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party."
Rousseau et al. 1998	"Trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another."
Gilbert and Li-ping Tang, 1998	"Organizational trust is a feeling of confidence and support in an employer… organizational trust refers to employee faith in corporate goal attachment and organizational leaders and to the belief that ultimately, organizational action will prove beneficial for employees."
Tschannen-Moran, and Hoy, 1998	"It is an individuals or a group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest and open."

According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998), the empirical study of trust began in the late 1950s when Deutsch (1958) studied trust using mixed-motive games in laboratory experiments with participants who were strangers to one another. He defined trust in behavioural terms, referring to trust as an expectation of possible positive benefits. When a player made a move that would benefit both players even where there was a risk of greater potential loss if an opponent exploited one's co-operative behaviour, then the player was said to exhibit trust. Thus, according to Deutsch (1958), trust consisted of actions that increased one's vulnerability to another whose behaviour was not under one's control in a situation in which one would suffer if the other abused that vulnerability.

Rotter (1967) defined trust in the context of communication, describing it as "an expectancy that the word, verbal promise or written statement of another individual can be relied on." He goes on to say that the trustor should have faith or confidence in the intentions or actions of another person. Rotter further emphasizes that the whole exchange relationship relies on the expectation that all concerned will act ethically with no intentions to cause harm to the other partners.

Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) define trust as the "willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party". In a similar vein, Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) define trust as an "individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest and open."

Although different authors have used different words or constructs to define trust, Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) have noted several similarities within these definitions. They argue that these definitions reflect three important facets of trust. First, trust in another party reflects an expectation or belief that the other party will act benevolently. Second, one cannot control or force the other party to fulfil this expectation, thus, trust involves a willingness to

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be vulnerable and risk that the other party may not fulfil that expectation. Third, trust involves some level of dependency on the other party so that the outcomes of one individual are influenced by the actions of another. These three aspects, that is, expectations or beliefs, a willingness to be vulnerable, and dependency on another are the major dimensions of trust within organizations. These aspects are highlighted in Table 1.3 on page 23, which summarizes some of the definitions of trust available in the literature.

Hupcey, Penrod, Morse and Mitcham (2001) performed a concept analysis of trust that led to the realization that trust has several important aspects which include (1) depending on another individual to have a need met; (2) choice or willingness to take some risk; (3) an expectation that the trusted individual will behave in a certain way; (4) limited focus on the area or behaviour related to the need and (5) testing of the trustworthiness of the individual.

In addition to the growing acceptance that trust is a multi-dimensional concept, organizational researchers are starting to realize that just like organizational commitment, trust has multiple bases and foci or referents. McCauley and Kuhnet (1992) identified the notion that trust consists of lateral and vertical elements. They refer to lateral trust in an organization as the trusting relationship between the employee and co-workers while vertical trust, concerns employee trust of his/her immediate supervisor, subordinates and top management.

In this study, Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999)'s multidimensional approach to trust will be adopted. This definition is adopted because it is one of the most frequently used definitions of trust and because it captures the key elements of the constructs that are included in the instrument that will be used to measure trust and it has already been applied to the study of organizational trust in schools. Recognizing McCauley and Kurtner (1992)'s conceptualisation of trust as having multiple foci and applying this to the academic institution environment, trust will be approached in this study as the attitude held by the referent employee towards co- workers, supervisor/s and management. This attitude is derived from the employee's perceptions, beliefs and attributions about the

trustees based upon his/her observations about the trustee's behaviour (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998). Trust of co-workers has become important in today's organizations, which are more reliant on groups or work teams. Work teams are made of groups of individuals with complementary skills who are equally committed to a common purpose and goal (Dirks, 1999). Dirks (1999, 2000) argue that trust seem to have an influence on team dynamics and performance. He suggests that trust should be understood as a construct that influences team performance indirectly by channelling the group member's energy towards reaching goals. Therefore, trust among the individual members of the team is essential for the team to work effectively.

In this study, we are concerned with the trust of academics and non-academics as expressed towards their leaders (Managers, Deans, etc.) and towards fellow employees, and the institution. As a result, the three aspects of trust, that is, trust in the supervisor, trust in colleagues and trust in the organization will be measured. Trust in the supervisor will refer to the confidence the academics and non-academic staff members have in their manager/supervisor (Managers, Deans, Directors, etc.) to keep their word and act in their best interest. Trust in co-workers will refer to the confidence that the academics and non-academics can depend on each other in difficult situations and that they can rely on the integrity of their colleagues. Trust in the organization will reflect the employee's faith in corporate goal attainment and organizational leaders, and the belief that ultimately, organizational actions will prove beneficial for the employee. It is therefore assumed that the academics and non-academics included in this study believe that they can rely on and believe that the organizational structures and systems, such as HRM policies, that are in place can enable them to anticipate a successful future.

1.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher presented background information on the dependent variable, organizational commitment, and on the independent variables that are assumed to have an influence on the development of organizational commitment. The independent variables are HRM practices, trust and leadership behaviour. From the literature, it is shown that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct with each of the constructs having multiple factors associated with its development. This study aims to determine how the different dimensions of the leadership and trust as well as different HRM practices relate to the different aspects of organizational commitment.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Many authors associate the development of organizational commitment with variables such as the personal characteristics of the employee, organizational characteristics and work characteristics (Mowday et al., 1979; Nijhof et al., 1992). The influence of personal characteristics on organizational commitment has been extensively studied with the focus on demographic variables such as age, gender, tenure and educational level and dispositional attributes (Nijhof et al., 1992). The organizational characteristics that have been studied include leadership or management style, organizational culture and trust. In our attempt to understand organizational commitment, we need to understand how these various variables fit together and lead to the development of organizational commitment.

2.2 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment researchers can be divided into two major camps, those who view organizational commitment as an attitude and those who view it as behaviour (Meyer & Allen 1991; Jaros et al., 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991) regard attitudinal commitment as the way people feel and think about their organizations, while behavioural commitment reflects the way individuals have become locked into the organizations. The attitudinal approach regards commitment as an employee attitude that reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

2.2.1. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Among the proponents of the attitudinal approach, researchers have started to view organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional concept that has different factors associated with it, outcomes, and implications for human resources management (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and his colleagues (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) have been at the forefront of the multidimensional approach. Their three-component model of organizational commitment incorporates affective, continuance and normative as the three dimensions of organizational commitment.

2.2.1.1. Affective Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) refer to affective commitment as the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Defined this way, affective commitment involves three aspects: (1) the formation of an emotional attachment to an organization, (2) identification with, (3) and the desire to maintain organizational membership. Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that an individual will develop emotional attachment to an organization when he/she identifies with the goals of the organization and is willing to assist the organization in achieving these goals. They further explain that identification with an organization happens when the employee's own values are congruent with organizational values and the employee is able to internalise the values and goals of the organization. With this, there is a psychological identification with and a pride of association with the organization.

Jaros et al. (1993) suggest that affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an employing organization. This could probably be because affective commitment is associated with desirable organizational outcomes. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as

turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour.

2.2.1.2. Continuance Commitment

The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions of organizational commitment is continuance commitment, which is based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory. The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organization for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer an individual stays. These investments include time, job effort, organization specific skills that might not be transferable or greater costs of leaving the organization that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals.

Allen and Meyer (1990) describe continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organization that reflects the employee's perception of the loss he/she would suffer if they were to leave the organization. They explain that continuance commitment involves awareness on the employee's part of the costs associated with leaving the organization. This then forms the employee's primary link to the organization and his/her decision to remain with the organization is an effort to retain the benefits accrued.

Romzek (1990) describes this type of attachment as a transactional attachment. He argues that employees calculate their investments in the organization based on what they have put into the organization and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organization. For example, an individual might choose not to change employers because of the time and money tied up in an organization's retirement plan. Such an employee would feel that he/she stands to lose too much if he/she were to leave the organization.

In addition to the fear of losing investments, individuals develop continuance commitment because of a perceived lack of alternatives. Allen & Meyer (1990) and Meyer & Allen (1991) argue that such an individual's commitment to the organization would be based on his/her perceptions of

employment options outside the organization. This occurs when an employee starts to believe that his/her skills are not marketable or that he does not have the skill required to compete for positions in the field. Such an employee would feel tied to his current organization. People who work in environments where the skills and training they get are very industry specific can possibly develop such commitment. As a result, the employee feels compelled to commit to the organization because of the monetary, social, psychological and other costs associated with leaving the organization. Unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

2.2.1.3. Normative Commitment

The third dimension of organizational commitment is normative commitment, which reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Researchers have overlooked this view of organizational commitment, as relatively few studies explicitly address normative commitment. Randall and Cote (1990) Allen and Meyer (1990) and O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) are some of the few who have attempted to differentiate normative commitment from the other components of organizational commitment.

Randall and Cote (1990) regard normative commitment in terms of the moral obligation the employee develops after the organization has invested in him/her. They argue that when an employee starts to feel that the organization has spent either too much time or money developing and training him/her, such an employee might feel an obligation to stay with the organization. For example, an employee whose organization paid his tuition while he/she was improving qualifications might believe that he/she can reimburse the organization by continuing to work for it. In general, normative commitment is most likely when individuals find it difficult to reciprocate the organization's investment in them.

O'Reilly et al. (1991) on the other hand defined and measured normative commitment in terms of values. They argue that congruence between an individual's and organization's values leads to the development of organizational commitment. In support of this viewpoint are Mayer and Schoorman (1992) who describe value commitment as an employee's acceptance of an organization's goals and values.

Jaros et al. (1993) agree with Allen and Meyer (1990) and refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. They emphasize the difference between this kind of commitment and affective commitment because normative commitment reflects a sense of duty, or obligation or calling to work in the organization and not emotional attachment. They describe it as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalisation of its goals values and missions. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment because it is not dependent on the personal calculations of sunken costs.

The multidimensionality of organizational commitment reflects its highly complex nature. The three aspects of organizational commitment as we have seen, seem to have different foundations. As all those forces that are attributed to be variables associated with the different forms of commitment co-exist in an organization, it can be assumed that the three types of commitment can also co-exist. It is important to realize that the three different dimensions of organizational commitment are not mutually exclusive. An employee can develop one or any combination or none of the three aspects of commitment. These aspects of organizational commitments differ only on the bases of their underlying motives and outcomes (Becker, 1992; Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996). For example an employee with affective commitment will stay with an organization and be willing to exert more effort in organizational activities while an employee with continuance commitment may remain with the organization and not be willing to exert any more effort than is expected.

In order for us to understand these different dimensions of organizational commitment better, it is important that we also understand how organizational factors associated with it affect the development of commitment.

2.2.2. Variables associated with Organizational Commitment

Students of organizational behaviour researching organizational commitment have tried to determine what it is about the organization and the employee's experiences that influence the development of the organizational commitment once the individual has selected membership in an organization. As a result, a lot of empirical research has focused on the variables associated with organizational commitment. Mowday et al. (1979) have grouped the factors that may lead to greater organizational commitment into three major groups. According to them commitment depends on 1) personal factors, 2) organizational factors, and 3) non-organizational factors. Each of these categories of factors might contribute to the development of the different dimensions of organizational commitment at varying degrees.

2.2.2.1. Variables associated with Affective Commitment.

Although multiples of variables have been hypothesized to be variables associated with affective commitment, Meyer and Colleagues (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) suggest that these variables can all be categorized into three major categories: personal characteristics, organizational characteristics, and work experiences.

Personal characteristics. An analysis of the organizational commitment literature reveals a long list of demographic factors that have been associated with commitment. Variables associated with commitment that may be significant for those employed in higher education institutions and business organizations in

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general include personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, family status, and educational level, need for achievement sense of competence and a sense of professionalism (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders 1996). Only those personal characteristics of particular interest to this study will be reviewed further.

Age. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analytic study involving 41 samples and 10 335 subjects, has shown a statistically significant positive correlation of .20 (p < .01) between age and affective organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1993) also studied the relationship between age and affective commitment. In a study of university librarians and hospital employees, they obtained a statistically significant positive mean correlation of .36 (p < .05) between age and affective commitment.

Age has been regarded as a positive predictor of commitment for a variety of reasons. Kaldenberg, Becker, and Zvonkovic (1995) argue that as workers age, alternative employment options generally decrease, making their current job more attractive. They furthermore state that older individuals may have more commitment to the organization because they have a stronger investment and greater history with the organization than younger workers.

Other researchers have not been able to show a significant link between age and organizational commitment. For example, Hawkins (1998) in a study of the affective commitment levels of 396 high school principals found a statistically non-significant correlation (*r* = -.004) between age and affective commitment. Colbert and Ik-Whan (2000) in a study of 497 college and university internal auditors failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organizational commitment. Overall, age seem to have an inconsistent although moderate correlation with affective commitment.

Gender. As far as gender is concerned, the reports are inconsistent. Mathieu & Zajac, (1990) in a meta-analytic study of 14 studies with 7420 subjects involving gender and organizational commitment obtained a mean correlation of -.089 for organizational commitment and gender. Although they report a weak

relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment, they suggest that gender may affect employee's perceptions of their workplace and attitudes towards the organization.

Kalderberg et al. (1995) found no significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of males and females. In addition, Hawkins (1998) found no significant difference between the mean level of commitment for female and male high school principals. Wahn (1998) on the other hand argues that women can exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment than men can. She cites reasons such as the fact that women face greater barriers than men when seeking employment as possible explanations to the high continuance commitment of women. She argues that having overcome these barriers women would be more committed to continue the employment relationship.

Although the literature quoted here is not exhaustive on the subject of the effect of gender on organizational commitment, it seems as if gender makes no difference on organizational commitment levels. Ngo and Tsang (1998) support the viewpoint that the effects of gender on commitment are very subtle.

Tenure. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reviewed 38 samples that included 12290 subjects and found a positive link between organizational tenure and affective commitment. They report an overall weighted mean correlation of $r = .17$ ($p < .01$). Kushman (1992) in his study of urban elementary and middle school teachers also found a positive correlation ($r = .17$; $p > .05$) between the number of years in teaching and organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1993) indicated that an analysis of organizational tenure showed a mild curvilinear relationship with organizational commitment. They showed that middle tenure employees exhibited less measured commitment than new or senior employees did. These findings are supported by Liou and Nyhan (1994), who found a negative relationship between tenure and affective commitment ($t = -3.482$). However, these two authors did not fined significant correlations between continuance commitment and employee tenure.

In a study of Japanese industrial workers, Tao, Takagi, Ishida and Masuda (1998) found that organizational tenure predicted internalisation (R^2 = .262 p < .05). Consistent with other researchers, Hawkins (1998) found a statistically significant positive correlation of r = .25 between the organizational commitment and tenure of 202 high school principals. Colbert and Kwon (2000) found a significant relationship (r =. 11, p < .05) between tenure and organizational commitment. They found that employees with a longer tenure had a higher degree of organizational commitment than that of their counterparts.

Although there seem to be empirical evidence to positively link tenure and organizational commitment, it is still not clear how this link operates (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that employees with long organizational tenure may develop retrospective attachment to the organization. These kinds of employees attribute their long service to emotional attachment in an effort to justify to themselves why they have stayed that long. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that the results of a positive relationship between tenure and affective commitment might be a simple reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organization and only those with a high commitment remain.

Although the relationship between gender, age and tenure and educational level and organizational commitment has been extensively studied, the literature has yet to provided strong and consistent evidence to enable an unequivocal interpretation of the relationship (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, Meyer and Allen (1997) caution that one cannot assume that growing older makes one develop higher affective commitment. They argue that the positive association might simply be because of differences in the particular generational cohorts that were studied. On the other hand, older employees might have more positive work experiences than younger employees might. Overall, empirical evidence suggests that age and affective commitment are significantly related.

Organizational Characteristics. Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that affective commitment develops as the result of experiences that satisfy employee's need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable in the

organization. These experiences include those that lead to a perception of support from the organization. Employees who perceive a high level of support from the organization are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organization in terms of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational characteristics such as structure, culture and organizational level policies, which can induce perceptions of organizational support, would probably induce organizational commitment. The idea that organizational policies are related to affective commitment has some support in the organizational commitment literature (Meyer & Allen, 1997). For example, Greenberg, (1994) reported that the manner in which employees perceive these policies and the manner in which they are communicated are related to affective commitment. The organizational policies assumed to affect the development of organizational commitment will be discussed in detail in the section on human resources management (HRM) practices later.

2.2.2.2. Variables associated with Continuance Commitment.

Continuance commitment refers to the employee's decision to continue employment because it would be costly to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment can develop because of any action or event that increases the costs of leaving the organization, provided the employee recognizes that these costs have been incurred (Meyer & Allen, 1991). They summarized these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: investments and employment alternatives.

Investments. In terms of organizational commitment, investments refer to any actions that would result in considerable potential loss should the individual decide to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Once an employee realizes that moving to a new organization would result in the forfeiture of benefits, the employee might decide to stay within the current organization rather

than lose the investments. Such an employee develops continuance commitment as he/she stays with the organization as a calculated decision rather than an eagerness to do so.

Investments can take any form and may be either work or non-work related. Work related investments include such things as the time spent acquiring non-transferable skills, the potential loss of benefits and giving up a senior position and its associated rewards (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Non-work related investments might include the disruption of personal relationships and the expense and human cost of relocating a family to another city. Investments can also take the form of time devoted to a particular career track or development of work groups or even friendship networks (Romzek, 1990). Leaving the organization could mean that the employee would stand to lose or would have wasted time, money, or effort that was invested. These investments are assumed to increase in number and magnitude over time. Thus, age and tenure are associated with the accumulation of investments.

Romzek (1990) suggests that organizations can easily get employees to feel that they have made big investments in the organization. He reckons that organizations have only to offer opportunities and working conditions that are competitive with other prospective employers. Typically, investment factors include promotion prospects, development of work group network performance bonuses and the accrual of vacation sick leave, family-friendly policies, and retirement benefits. If these cannot be easily matched by prospective employers, the organization's employees might remain "stuck" in the organization even though they are no longer effective.

Employment alternatives. The other hypothesized antecedent of continuance commitment is the employment alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that an employee's perception of the availability of alternatives will be negatively correlated with continuance commitment. They reckon that employees who think they have viable alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who think their alternatives are limited.

As with investments, several events or actions can influence one's perceptions of the availability of alternatives (Meyer & Allen 1997; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1998). For example, one employee might base his/her perceptions of available alternative jobs by scanning the external environment, looking at local employment rates and the general economic climate. On the other hand, another employee might base perceived alternatives on the degree to which his/her skills seem current and marketable. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that such things as the results of previous job search attempts and whether other organizations have tried to recruit the employee and the extent to which family factors limit the employee's ability to relocate can also influence perceptions of alternatives. For example, if the employee had applied for work and have not been successful on several occasions, such an employee might begin to think that he/she has no alternatives and would rather continue with the current employer. On the other hand, an employee who has been approached by other organizations might believe that he/she has ample alternatives and would not feel tied to the current employer.

The availability of alternative employment does not influence continuance commitment on its own (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1998). It may often work in conjunction with the extent to which family factors permit or enable an employee's ability to relocate or take up a new job. For example, even though an employee might have a better paying job offer and it turns out that there are no schools for his/her children or his/her spouse would not be able to find employment in the new town, the employee might choose to decline the offer and remain with the current employer.

In addition to perceived alternatives, there are other potential variables associated with continuance commitment. These factors accumulate over time. Time-based variables such as age and tenure are also hypothesized as factors associated with continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Studies using these as variables have shown mixed results. For some employees, the perceived cost associated with leaving an organization will increase as they get older and increase their organizational tenure. For others, however, the costs of

leaving might actually decrease as experience and skills increase. For this reason, Meyer and Allen (1997) recommend that age and tenure are best thought of as substitute variables of accumulated investments and perceived alternatives and not as direct predictors of continuance commitment. Associated with time-based investments is the employee's perception about the transferability of their skills and their education to other organizations will determine their judgment of the availability of alternatives (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Those employees who think their educational or training investments are less easily transferable elsewhere would tend to perceive lack of alternatives and thus expressed stronger continuance commitment to their organization.

Meyer and Allen (1997) emphasize the fact that neither investments nor alternatives will have an influence on continuance commitment unless or until the employee is aware of them and the implications of losing them. Thus, the employee's recognition that investments and/or lack of alternatives make leaving more costly represents the process that develops continuance commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the fact that recognition plays a central role in this process raises two points. First, it means that people who are in objectively similar situations can have different levels of continuance commitment. Second, for some cost-related variables to influence continuance commitment, a particular triggering event is required to focus the employee's attention on these variables. The final point to make in that the specific set of variables that influence an employee's continuance commitment might be idiosyncratic to that person. It can include both work-related and non-work related variables.

2.2.2.3. Variables associated with Normative Commitment

Compared to affective and continuance commitment, very few factors have been described as variables associated with normative commitment. According to Meyer & Allen (1990), normative commitment might develop based on the psychological contract between an employee and the organization. A

psychological contract refers to the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligations. Although psychological contracts can take different forms, Meyer and Allen (1990) suggest that the transactional and relational might be closely related to continuance commitment. They describe transactional contracts as more objective and based on principles of economic exchange while relational contracts as more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Furthermore, they consider relational contracts more relevant to normative commitment while transactional contracts might be involved in the development of continuance commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) also refer to the possible role that early socialization experiences might have in the development of normative commitment. They suggest that socialization can carry with it all sorts of messages about the appropriateness of particular attitudes and behaviours within the organization. Amongst these attitudes could be the idea that employees owe it to the organization to continue employment. Meyer and Allen (1997) assume internalisation to be the process involved in the development of normative commitment during the early days of assuming employment with an organization. They reason that through a complex process involving both conditioning and modelling of others, individuals can develop normative commitment.

It has also been suggested that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the employees finds difficult to reciprocate (Meyer & Allen, 1997). For example, if an organization sponsored tuition payments on behalf of employees, the employee might feel uncomfortable and indebted. Given the norms of reciprocity, the employee might develop feelings of obligation to the organization as he/she tries to rectify the imbalance. Cultural and individual differences exist in the extent to which people will internalise reciprocity norms and therefore in the extent to which organizational investments will lead to feelings of indebtedness.

2.2.3. Organizational Commitment within academic institutions

Several studies have investigated the organizational commitment of both educators and administrators in academic institutions and both groups were found to exhibit commitment to their organizations (Chiefo, 1991; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Celep, 1992; Richards, Arkyod, & O'Brein, 1993; Raju & Srivastava, 1994; Thornhill et al., 1996; Borchers and Teahen, 2001; Richards, O'Brein & Arkyod, 2000; Wolverton, Montez, Guillory and Gmelch, 2001). Chieffo (1991) found that mid-level administrators in higher education are fairly committed to their organizations largely because they are proud of what they are doing and the autonomy of their work. Her results also showed a significant correlation between leadership behaviours (.60 to .70, p<. 0001) such as, vision, influence orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation and values orientation, and organizational commitment. She also positively linked factors such as participation in decision-making meetings and the organizational structure with higher levels of organizational commitment.

In a survey of 1147 general and special educators, Billingsley and Cross (1992) determined the predictors of teacher's commitment. Their cross-validated regression results suggested that work-related variables such as leadership support, role conflict, role ambiguity and stress are the best predictors of commitment of educators. They concluded that increasing administrative support and principals' behaviours such as feedback, encouragement, acknowledgement, use of participative decision-making and collaborative problem solving are important in building a committed and satisfied teaching staff.

Celep (1992) tried to determine the level of organizational commitment of teachers with regard to the commitment to the school, to teaching work, to work group and to the teaching profession. Teacher's commitment to the school was tested with such factors as exerting effort on behalf of the school, and having proper pride in belonging to the school, among others. His results indicated a direct relationship between the teacher's organizational commitment and having

proper pride to belong to the school ($t = 7.13$, $p < .01$) and work group ($t = 13.25$, $p < .05$).

In a study to explore the ability of extrinsic and intrinsic work related rewards to predict the organizational commitment of health occupations educators, Richards et al. (1993), found that two intrinsic and one extrinsic work related rewards significantly predicted organizational commitment. Significance, involvement and general working conditions, were significant at the .01 level with standardized beta weights of .2411, .2135 and .1591, respectively. Similar results were found by Richards et al. (2002) when they predicted the organizational commitment of marketing education teachers. They found that six of the eight work related rewards entered the stepwise Multiple Regression. The variables that were significant at the .01 level were supervision (.2188), significance (.2158), involvement (.2137), promotion (.1592), and co-workers (.1258).

Thornhill et al. (1996) have showed that communication with employees is significantly related to the organizational commitment of higher education institutions. They found that communication in terms of information flow down the organization, information flow up the organization and leadership or management style were important in the context of higher education. Of the employees, who believed that management made a positive effort to keep staff well informed, 68 percent indicated that they felt part of the institution, 88 percent reported that it was a good place to work and 85 percent reported that their organization had a great future.

The interest in the commitment of educators has extended to the study of organizational commitment of part-time faculty. In a study of 479 full time and part-time academics at two Mid-Western universities, Borchers and Teahen (2001) found that the level of organizational commitment does not vary significantly between faculty members who are part-time on-ground, part-time on line, full-time on-ground and full-time on line. These findings indicate that despite employment status educators are equally committed to their organizations.

In a study of the factors related to the organizational commitment of college and university auditors, Colbert and Kwon (2000), found that

organizational characteristics such as organizational dependability (R^2 = 1.61, p < .01), organizational support (R^2 = 1.75, p < .01), and instrumental communication (R^2 = 2.09, p < .01), were significantly related to organizational commitment. They also found a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and organizational tenure (R^2 = 2.06, p < .05), and skill variety (R^2 = 1.51, p < .01).

Wolverton et al. (2001) found that organizational commitment of deans seemed to increase with age (t = 2.46, p < .05), number of years in the position (t = 3.00, p < .05), and the level of overall job satisfaction (t = 2.69, p < .05). They also found that if deans believed they worked for universities that exhibited high academic quality (t = 2.88, p < .01) and good environmental quality (t = 4.19, p < .01) they tended to be more committed to the organizations. In addition, the found that deans who were inside hires also seemed more committed to their universities than those who were brought in from outside.

From this analysis of studies of organizational commitment within academic institutions, it can be seen that the development of commitment is dependent on several organizational factors such as leadership and organizational culture, policies and practices. We therefore now turn to the exploration of the literature on the organizational factors that will form part of this study.

The idea that organizational commitment is important for the realization of organizational goals and professional goals in educational institutions has remained untapped by researchers. Organizational commitment research can possibly provide practical results for academic institutions by providing insight into the commitment profiles of their professional employees. From the employing organizations' standpoint, it is useful to identify which factors motivate academics' desire to remain with the organization.

2.3 HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

2.3.1. Introduction

The influence of human resources management practices on organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment has become an important topic of research in the 1990s. HRM involves the development of an individual's abilities and attitudes in such away that the individual is able to grow personally and contribute towards organizational interests (Guest, 1987, 1989; Storey, 1989, 1992, 1995a, 1995b; Kinicki, Carson & Bohlander, 1992). It attaches importance to the motivational aspect of organizational practices in the development and best utilization of human potential. Therefore, HRM is an integrated strategy and planned development process for effective utilization of human resources for the achievement of organizational objectives.

Arthur (1992) showed through Multiple Regression analysis that human resources systems were significantly associated with variation in steel mini-mills' performance. Tepstra (1994) found that large US companies that used specific HRM practices had significantly higher annual profit than those companies that did not use them. Authors like Pfeffer (1994) have described HRM as a means of achieving competitive advantage. Pefffer (1994) identifies the following types of HRM practices as the ones that seem to characterize organizations that are effective in achieving competitive advantage through their people: (1) employment security, (2) information sharing, (3) participation and empowerment, and (4) incentive pay.

Tsui et al. (1997) report an association between organizational investments in employees and levels of affective employee commitment as well as levels of organizational citizenship behaviour, greater intention to stay with the organization and fewer unexcused absences. These papers suggest that adopting an integrated set of human resource management practices focusing on commitment, can produce high levels of employee affective commitment and

subsequent organizational performance. However, the linkage between human resource management strategies and individual level employee commitment needs further exploration by researchers.

Meyer and Allen (1997) believe that the relationship between human resource practices and employee commitment should be examined more fully. They assert that by understanding how commitment develops, practitioners will be in a better position to anticipate the influence of a particular policy or practice even if it has not yet been the subject of empirical research.

2.3.2. HRM Practices within academic institutions

Although the adoption and implementation of HRM practices has been extensively investigated, these studies have concentrated on business settings. Comparatively few studies have focused on the adoption and implementation of HRM practices within an academic environment.

Driscoll (1978) studied the relationship of participation in organizational decision-making and satisfaction with the organization in an arts college in upstate New York. He measured the satisfaction of faculty with their participation in decision-making related to such issues as the appointment of new faculty, faculty promotion, faculty salary increases, appointment of a new department head and the allocation of the college budget. His study indicates that the assumption that the decision making process in an organization affects the satisfaction of its members is true even among college faculty.

2.3.3. The association of HRM practices and organizational commitment

Lately researchers have begun to focus their attention on the moderating effect of human resources management practices on organizational commitment (Iles, Mabey & Robertson, 1990; Graetner & Nollen, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Smith 2000; McElroy, 2001). These researchers suggest that particular

HRM practices will elicit various forms of commitment towards specific targets within the organization. For example, Graetner and Nollen (1992) found that participants with perceptions that their organization was committed to employment security, internal mobility, training, and development reported more organizational commitment than those who have a negative perception of their organization's allegiance to employees.

In a study that examined the mechanisms involved in the relations between human resource management and employee commitment, Meyer and Smith (2000) showed that affective commitment and normative commitment correlated significantly with all the HRM evaluation measures while continuance commitment did not. Positive and significant correlations were observed and ranged from .36 for training and benefits to .65 for performance appraisal and career development.

McElroy (2001) gives a useful illustration of the purported relationships between HR practices and other work related issues in a model shown in Figure 2.1.
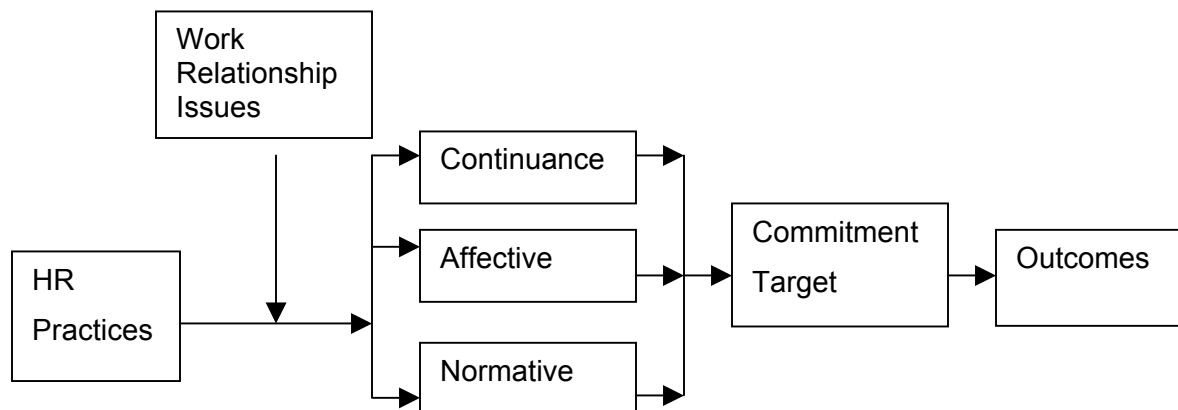
Figure 2.1. HR practices and work commitment.

From "Managing workplace commitment by putting people first", by McElroy, J.C. 2001. *Human Resource Management Review,* 11(2), pp265-282.

The model suggests that work relationship issues moderate the effect human resource practices have on organizational commitment. This raises the question of whether organizations through their HRM practices could encourage selective organizational commitment in their employees. It also raises the question of whether work relationship issues such as trust and leadership would have any role in the management of organizational commitment.

The relationship between a variety of HRM practices and organizational commitment has been investigated (McElroy 2001; Meyer & Herscovich, 2001; Whitener, 2001). McElroy (2001) argues that it is natural that HRM practices would influence organizational commitment, as they are concerned with the management of people. He points out that organizations that do not select the right employees to begin with, may not be able to keep these employees in the end because of low employee morale arising from a poor job fit. He also contends that organizations that do not socialize new employees into their jobs and/or the organization may not be able to cultivate from them a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organization. This he attributes to the lack of attachment demonstrated by the organization to the newcomers.

Iles et al. (1990), and Meyer and Herscovich (2001) warn that when examining how HRM practices can be used to foster affective commitment toward a target, one must be aware that the same practices may also induce other forms of commitment. That is, the practice of an HRM policy might elicit multiple effects on the employee and the manifestation of one effect might be neutralized or even negated by another effect. In terms of commitment, it means that instead of an HRM policy to elicit affective commitment it might elicit continuance or normative commitment instead. For example, an organization might use training to foster affective commitment in its employees. However, if its employees perceive the skills obtained through the training as non-transferrable, they might develop continuance commitment instead. On the other hand, an employee might feel a moral obligation to remain with the organization after the training is complete. It is therefore important that the right kind of HRM practice is adopted to induce and manage the right kind of commitment.

McElroy (2001) tabled a number of HR practices that characterize organizations that put people first and how these practices would be expected to affect commitment. He argues that each of these practices will have a positive effect on affective commitment although some might also affect other types of commitment as illustrated in Table 2.1. In addition, Whitener (2001), using hierarchical linear modelling, found that employee's commitment was statistically significantly related to both actual and perceived HRM practices such as internal promotion, training opportunities and employment security.

Table 2.1

The Effect of HR Practices on Types of Commitment

HR Practices	Types of Commitment		
	Affective	Normative	Continuance
Employment security	+	+	+
Selective hiring	+	+	0
Self-managed teams/decentralization	+	+	+
High compensation tied to organizational performance	+	0	+
Extensive training	+	+	0/+
Reduction of status differences	+/-	+/-	+/-
Sharing information	+	+	0

Note: 1. From "Commitment In The Workplace: Toward A General Model" by. Meyer, J.P. & Herscovitch, L. 2001. Human Resources Management Review, 11, 299-326.

2. +   = Positive effect

3. -   = Negative effect

4. 0 = no effect

Since it will not be possible to cover all the HRM practices that have been associated with organizational commitment in this review, it was necessary, therefore, to narrow the focus towards HRM practices identified most prominently within the general HRM literature and those practices of greatest relevance within

the specific context of academic institutions. On this basis, this review will focus on practices relating to recruitment and selection, training and development, promotion, job security, communication, involvement in decision-making and rewards systems, in no particular order. The following gives a description of how each of these practices might be expected to influence the various forms of organizational commitment.

2.3.3.1. Selective staffing

Many writers (Weiner, 1982; Guest 1987; Caldwell, Chatman & O'Reilly, 1990; Iles et al., 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Storey, 1992; Tepstra, 1994) have identified a link between recruitment and selection and the development of organizational commitment. They argue that by carefully selecting the people who join their organizations, organizations can make sure there is congruency between the organization and the employee to an extent that organizational commitment could easily develop. They also describe several recruitment and selection techniques that can instil this link. Weiner (1982) argues that commitment oriented recruitment relies strongly on communicating the organization's values and beliefs and selecting candidates through assessments that identify strong congruency between the organization and individual values.

Iles et al. (1990) argue candidates might develop organizational commitment if they perceive the selection procedures to be accurate and fair. Guest (1987) includes psychometric testing and profiling, occupational personality questionnaires, bio-data analysis, behavioural event and episodic questioning techniques as some of the techniques that can be applied. He argues that these techniques can enable managers to select employees with desired specific characteristics that can fit in with organizational norms and values.

In a study of 291 respondents from 45 firms, Caldwell et al. (1990), found that rigorous recruitment and selection procedures are associated with higher levels of employee commitment based on internalisation and identification. They

found that the presence of a consistent and well-documented set of selection policies is positively related to shared values (r = .17, p < .01). They also found a positive correlation between selection practices and normative commitment (r = .15, p < .05).

Meyer and Allen (1991), also agree that an employee's commitment to an organization can largely be determined by early job experiences especially by the recruitment process and the socialization process. Storey (1992) suggests that systematic techniques, such as testing that assess behavioural and attitudinal aspects are being used by employers to control the type of employee recruited, which contributes to the management of organizational culture. Tepstra (1994) on the other hand identifies seven HRM practices that might be involved in the development of organizational commitment. These are recruitment studies, validation studies, cognitive aptitude and ability tests, biographical information banks, structured interviews, goal setting and rigorous evaluations of developmental activities. He maintains that the use of effective staffing practices can benefit most organizations irrespective of contingency factors. He believes an organization can have great influence on employee performance and commitment during the initial stage of selection.

In a study to determine the overall association between affective and calculative commitment with human resources procedures, Randall and O'Driscoll (1997) found that employees with higher affective commitment reported stronger agreement with human resource policies. They reported positive correlation coefficients between affective commitment and assessing job performance(r = .34, p <. 01), training policies(r = .27, p <. 01), reward systems(r = .34, p <. 01), promotion policies(r = .42, p <. 01), decision-making procedures(r = .46, p <. 01), personal selection procedures(r = .36, p <. 01) and human resource management procedures(r = .38, p <. 01). Calculative commitment showed nonsignificant negative correlations with the same measures of human resource management.

According to McElroy (2001), selective hiring is another HRM practice that sends a clear message to employees that people matter. He points out that

extensive recruitment and targeted selection of the best might increase affective commitment for several reasons. In addition, McElroy (2001) maintains that the practice helps to ensure that only people who are seen as a good fit with organization goals and culture are selected. If the selection is successful, affective commitment should be enhanced by the very fact that the selected employees identify with organizational goals. The employee's knowledge that he/she was selected out of an extensive pool will create a perception that the organization thinks highly of him/her and will value his/her contributions to the organization.

However, McElroy (2001) also argues that being made to feel special might induce a moral sense of obligation to one's new employers, thus inducing normative commitment. He further argues that the knowledge that to get into a position one needs to beat a large number of competitors might create an unwillingness to look for alternative employment and enhance continuance commitment. Thus according to McElroy (2001) recruitment and selection practices might influence the development of all forms of organizational commitment. He argues that by carefully selecting the people who join their organizations, managers can make sure there is congruency between the organization and the employee to the extent that organizational commitment could easily develop.

2.3.3.2. Comprehensive Training

Training and development are also closely associated with culture change and indirectly employee commitment in much of the HRM literature. Guest (1987) alludes to training and development as one of the key policy areas necessary to achieve a new culture. This culture can be one in which organizational commitment ranks high.

McElroy (2001) claims that organizations that extensively train their employees create a reputation for valuing and developing employees. He adds that this provides a vehicle through which they can attract the right kind of

employees. Thus, people who are high achievers would be attracted to organizations known to value their employees. McElroy (2001) suggests that increased self-worth and importance could be the mechanism through which training is predicted to increase organizational commitment. He argues that organizations that invest in training send a clear message to their employees that the organization is committed to the development of its people. The employees are bound to respond in kind to this show of commitment to themselves The response might be in the form of affective commitment because of the psychological attachment to the organization and its goal that is induced by organization specific training, or it might be a moral obligation to give the organization its money's worth if the organization has funded the training.

When the training involves organization specific skills, the training might induce continuance commitment if the skills acquired are perceived to be un-transferable (McElroy, 2001). Generalized skills training can be easily transferable to other organizations, while specialized training may result in the creation of sunken costs in terms of time and effort that an employee stands to lose if he/she leaves the organization.

2.3.3.3. Equitable rewards

In studies related to HRM practices researchers have shown a link between rewards and benefits and organizational outcomes. Pfeffer (1994 1995,1998) argues that reward systems such as a higher salary base, gain-sharing, bonuses and employee stock options, act as incentives for employees to be committed and motivated to achieve organizational goals. In a study of 250 employees of a manufacturing operation, Oliver (1990) found a positive correlation (r = .56, p < .01) between work rewards and commitment. Buchko (1993) suggest that benefit practices can be associated with turnover. He found that in organizations in which benefits were a higher percentage of total labour costs and those organizations whose benefits packages were described to be of higher quality, tended to report lower rates of employee attrition. Buchko (1993)

suggests that this may be because employees are satisfied with the benefits they receive or it might be because the rewards and benefits received are binding investments that would induce organizational commitment. These results imply that the size and types of benefits provided for by organizations play a significant role in reducing employee turnover.

Williams and McDermid (1994) found that a negative performance-turnover relationship was stronger in organizations using performance-contingent reward systems. This means that individuals who were compensated more for their high levels of performance were less likely to quit. This might be because the high compensation becomes an investment that ties the employee down. Similarly, Park and Ofori-Dankwa 1994) also found that turnover is negatively associated with levels of pay, particularly when individual incentive programs determined pay. However, they also found that employee turnover was positively associated with the presence of group incentive programs. Employees were found to be unsupportive of group incentive programs, as these were not tied directly to the individual's efforts.

In studies related to compensation, Trevor, Gerhart and Boudreau (1997) found that salary growth had a pronounced effect on turnover. They found that the effects of salary growth on turnover were greatest for high performers. High performing employees were less likely to leave the organization if their salary growth was significant. This result suggested that organizations should adopt pay-for-performance programs to retain high performing employees.

Stum (1999) found that pay and benefits are still the foundation for choosing a new employer or for leaving the present one. He found that benefits such as medical plans, retirement plans, vacation, sick leave and short-term disability are important to employees in that order. His results also showed that stock purchase/ownership plans, profit sharing/cash bonus plans and defined benefit pension plans are the benefit plans that correlated best with employee commitment. Based on his results Stum (1999) concluded that employees are likely to be highly committed to the organization when they clearly understand the

overall compensation program and believe the compensation program provides internal pay equity.

According to McElroy (2001), providing high compensation could lead to higher affective organizational commitment through a variety of mechanisms. First, it allows the organization to attract a larger pool of applicants from which to selectively recruit. Second, high compensation serves as an indication of how much an organization values its people, thereby enhancing their self-worth and feelings of importance. Third, linking individual rewards directly to the future of the organization makes compensation dependent on performance. This motivates the individual to exert more effort on behalf of the organization. Finally, tying compensation to organizational performance makes comparison among employees more equitable, thus enhancing perceptions of fairness within the organization. For these reasons, high compensation that is tied to organizational performance is predicted to lead to increased levels of affective organizational commitment.

McElroy (2001), however, does not expect the tying of compensation to performance to create the norm of reciprocity associated with normative commitment. Since compensation is earned by the employee's performance and not given, the employee will not feel any obligation to the organization. Thus, McElroy (2001) argues that there would be no association between compensation and normative commitment. He suggests that high compensation might however affect continuance commitment. He speculates that if employees are paid high salaries they may perceive a loss of control over their high compensation should they decide to leave the organization. This might induce in the employee a desire to remain with the organization where the high compensation is guaranteed.

2.3.3.4. Promotions

Authors (Grusky, 1966; Iles et al, 1990; Snell & Dean, 1992; Kallenberg & Mastekaase, 1994) have linked promotion procedures and the presence of

promotion opportunities or career paths to have a positive relationship with organizational commitment. In a study of 1649 managers of large business companies, Grusky (1966) found positive statistically significant positive correlations between career mobility and organizational commitment. They found that managers with moderate mobility were less committed to the organization than managers who were most mobile during their careers. Iles et al. (1990) and other authors suggest that perceptions of the fairness of the promotion procedures of an organization can alienate those employees who were passed over especially if they perceive the procedures to be unfair.

HRM practices/policies dealing with internal career opportunities are called firm internal labour markets or FILMS (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 1994). FILMS are characterized by the presence of job ladders the entry point of which is only at the bottom. Movement up the ladders is associated with the progressive development of skills and knowledge (Kallenberg & Mastesaaka, 1994). The provision of mobility opportunities along with skill acquisition and development are central to the idea of promotion and advancement policies.

FILMS are often thought to create a closer psychological bond between the worker and the organization's culture (Kallenberg & Mastekaase, 1994). Hence, employees who identify with and are loyal to the organization can be expected to work hard and remain with the organization even if this action does not result in greater expected lifetime earnings and other job rewards. Kallenberg and Mastekaase (1994) provide five possible explanations for the link between organizational commitment and FILMS: 1) FILMS increase opportunities for intra-organizational mobility, 2) FILMS enhance earnings, 3) FILMS help to create firm specific skills, 4) FILMS influence autonomy and 5) FILMS decrease collective actions. These five sets of variables are not mutually exclusive nor are they necessarily competitive with one another. All of these variables may help to account for why FILMS are related to commitment. An important thing is that these factors may affect organizational commitment differently. For example, mobility and rewards may increase organizational commitment while lower opportunities for autonomy may detract from organizational commitment.

FILMS are generally assumed to lead to higher intra-organizational mobility and this mechanism is perhaps the most obvious reason why FILMS are thought to enhance organizational commitment (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa 1994). Employees in organizations with FILM should exhibit greater loyalty and attachment to their organizations while absence of opportunities is expected to lower organizational commitment. In addition, internal labour market policies provide the structural context within which organization training occurs, many skills are acquired, mobility and career advancement takes place, and higher earnings are often obtained. FILMS such as career advancement and promotion opportunities are often used as incentives to employees.

Supporting these arguments are Young and Worchel's (1998) results that show high positive correlation between satisfaction with promotion opportunities and organizational commitment ($t = .1059$, $p < .0001$). These policies help employers to reduce the cost of training and retaining employees with the necessary qualifications, and provide employees with effective assurances that exerting effort will be beneficial. Such policies raise the importance to employees of good performance and career advancement within the organization, and provide the employer with opportunities to observe the behaviour of employees on a long-term basis. Empirical evidence on the linkage between organizational commitment and FILMS is however scarce.

According to Rogers (2000), many organizations have adopted internal rules and administrative procedures that have the effect of shielding their core employees from the competitive external labour markets. These measures provide opportunities for the promotion of their employees. Rogers (2000) maintains that such policies usually contain core characteristics that include rules governing entry into the organization through a limited number of ports of entry at the bottom of long career ladders. Other factors associated with these type of policies is that they include formal and written rules regarding entry into the job ladders, firm specific skills requirements and job competition and other rewards are attached to positions rather than individuals (Rogers, 2000). Entry into the organization is followed by the acquisition of organization-specific skills through

internal training and experience. All these lead to eligibility for internal promotions. Thus, it can be argued that if employees were assured of progression within the organization, they often would not look for external alternatives. They would be happy to continue their association with the organization.

2.3.3.5. Job Security

Bansal, Mendelson and Sharma (2001) define job security as providing employees with a reasonable assurance that they will not be laid off, even during tough economic times. A number of studies have shown that perceived job security has a positive correlation with commitment and trust. Ashford, Lee and Bobko (1989) reported that perceptions of low levels of job security could result in reduced employee commitment. Hallier and Lyon (1996) suggest that if employees perceive a threat to their employment, their organizational commitment will decline. They assert that employees who are not assured of their place in the organizational structure tend to look for security outside the organization. This perception is based on the notion that organizations that provide employment security are committed to their workforce (Pfeffer, 1995).

Pfeffer and Viega (1999) argue that providing employment security is fundamental to a philosophy of putting people first in order to attain organizational success. Their argument is based on Pfeffer (1994)'s assertion that the provision of job security is deemed an important exhibition of the organization's commitment to its employees. Organizations that put people first would tend to have a corporate philosophy to provide employment security. This would enable the organization to take deliberate actions in implementing the other HRM policies associated with organizational commitment (McElroy, 2001). An organization would not be prepared to invest in employees who will not be staying with the organization for long. Continued employment therefore is essential as it affects an organization's willingness and ability to implement other

practices and the employee's willingness to engage in or benefit from organizational activities.

The provision of employment security, particularly in this day and age of downsizing, outsourcing and rationalization, characterizes a commitment by the employer to its employees (Pfeffer, 1994). Norms of reciprocity and social exchange theory dictate that employees should return the commitment (Tsui et al., 1997). This characterizes the exchange nature of the psychological contract between the employer and the employee. That is, in exchange for the employee's commitment to the organization, the employer provided employment security (Hallier & Lyon, 1996). Thus, it can be assumed that organizational commitment would be difficult to sustain in an environment where job security was not ensured. That is, perceptions of job insecurity might tend to diminish attachments to work and organization.

An employee is considered to enjoy job security when an individual remains employed with the same organization without a reduction of seniority, pay, pension benefits, and other benefits (Yousef, 1998). It also refers to the extent to which an organization provides stable employment. Job security is important because of the fact that it is critical for influencing work-related outcomes. In a study of 447 individuals in various organizations in the United Arab Emirates, Yousef (1998) found a statistically significant correlation ($r = .53$; $p < .0001$) between satisfaction with job security and organizational commitment.

According to McElroy (2001), employment security may induce several forms of commitment. Continued employment may enhance affective levels of commitment by virtue of the fact that an employee can get to like his/her work environment after a while. In addition, it might happen that as an employee continues membership of an organization, his/her belief in organizational values might increase and so might his/her willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization. Alternatively, the employee might feel obliged to return the loyalty exhibited by the organization. Finally, the provision of secure employment might induce continuance commitment due to the fact that an employee might continue

employment because the employee might face unemployment due to the lack of alternatives elsewhere.

2.3.3.6. Employee Participation

From as early as the late 1970s organizational researchers were interested in the relationship between participation in organizational decision-making and outcomes such as satisfaction with the organization (Driscoll, 1978). Driscoll (1978) showed that increasing levels of participation are associated with greater overall satisfaction with the organization as well as with specific satisfaction with participation itself. He argued that participation in decision-making might satisfy the employee's psychological needs for responsibility and autonomy.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997) changing from a system of hierarchical control to one in which employees are encouraged to demonstrate initiative clearly shows that the organization is supportive of its employees and values their contributions. In agreement with this are Pfeffer and Viega (1999) who believe that allowing employees the opportunity to make and take responsibility for decisions that affect their work should increase their sense of responsibility and stimulate more initiative and effort on the part of employees.

McElroy (2001) claims that participation can increase affective commitment when employees are involved in decision-making and the organization is decentralized. He maintains that organizations that give their employees more responsibility and autonomy indicate trust in their employees. This indication of trust in the employee might create a sense of obligation on the part of the employee (McElroy, 2001). Consequently, this might lead to an increase in the level of normative commitment. This especially happens when the employee perceives that he/she may have to give up his/her self-determination should they leave the organization.

2.3.3.7. Information sharing

The relationship between communication and organizational commitment has been of interest to researchers for many years. Trombetta and Rogers (1988) illustrated and tested this relationship as shown in Figure 2.2.
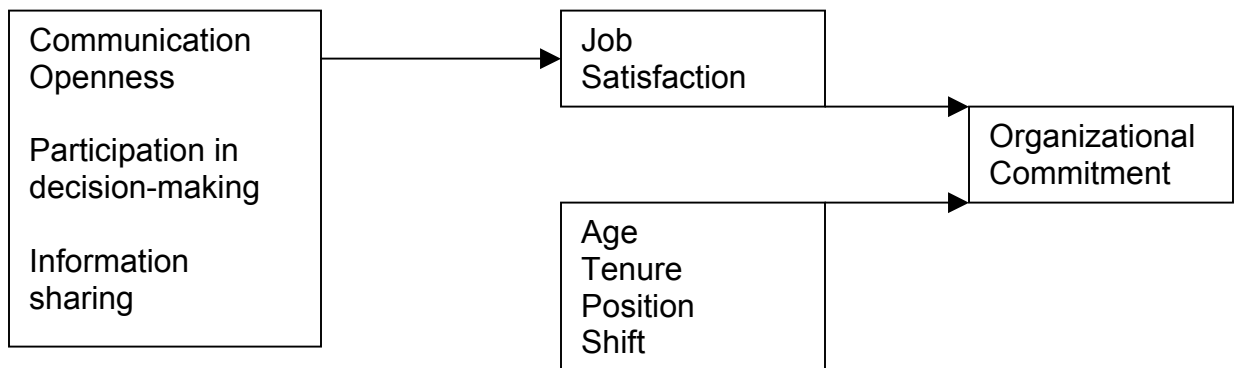
Figure 2.2. The effects of communication openness information adequacy, participation in decision-making, employee age, length of service, job position work shift, and job satisfaction on organizational commitment.

Note: From Trombetta,J.J & Rogers, D.P. (1988) Communication climate, job satisfaction and organizational commitment: The effects of information adequacy, communication openness and decision participation. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 1(4), 494-514.

Social information processing theory suggests that practices of communication that promote open communication within an organization and open access to information, and free information sharing, can increase affective organizational commitment (Thornhill et al., 1996). Information sharing is suggested to have direct influence on the variables associated with affective commitment by enhancing trust and building employee self-worth and perceptions of importance (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This means that information

sharing should promote increased perceptions of fairness on the nature of decisions and the processes by which decisions are made. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), both these factors have been associated with the development of affective commitment.

Thornhill et al. (1996) regard communication with employees as one of those organizational strategies that can be employed to encourage employee involvement and commitment. They assert that employers can use communication strategies such as "increased information flow down the organization" to involve employees. The study by Thornhill et al. (1996) of 439 employees of a British higher education institution shows a statistically significant relationship between organizational commitment and communication. They found that 68% of those employees who believed that management made a positive effort to keep staff well informed indicated that they felt part of the institution. Eighty eight percent (88%) of those felt that their organization was a good place to work and 85% that it had a bright future.

Young and Worchel (1998) also found that perceptions of both upward and downward communication were positively related to organizational commitment. Guzley (2001) found that employee's perceptions of organizational climate and communication climate were positively correlated with the level of employee commitment. Specifically their multiple regression results indicated that organizational clarity, participation and superior-subordinate communication accounted for 41% of the variance in organizational commitment (R^2 = .418, $p <$ .001) with participation (t = 4.910, $p<$ .001) and organizational clarity (t = 4.783, $p<$ .001) emerging as significant predictors of commitment.

In a study using an instrument developed by the international Communication Association, Putti, Aryee and Phua (2001) used Pearson correlations to show that the global measure of communication relationship satisfaction has a strong correlation with organizational commitment (r = .54, $p <$ .01).

To shed more light on the relationship between communication and organizational commitment, Postmes, Tanis and de Wit (2001) attempted to

identify aspects of organizational commitment that might contribute to affective organizational commitment. They made a distinction between horizontal and vertical communication with horizontal communication referring to the informal interpersonal and socio-emotional interaction between immediate colleagues and vertical communication referred to work-related communications up and down the organizational hierarchy. Results of their studies show that horizontal communications are less strongly related with organizational commitment while vertical communication was found to be the stronger predictor of organizational commitment.

Mayfield and Mayfield (2002) state that organizational loyalty and attachment are best nurtured when communication practices take place in an organization that places high value on employees and engenders trust. They also add that leader communication skills and practices help to generate organizational loyalty. Managerial communication practices that have been shown to encourage organizational commitment include managers explaining why decisions are made, communication occurring in a timely manner, important information flowing continuously, direct supervisors and other leaders explaining the specific implications of environmental and organizational changes to each level of employees and validating employee responses to leader communications (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002).

2.3.3.8. Developmental performance appraisal

The creation of a "performance culture" is characterized by a search for strategies to improve the contribution of individuals to the overall success of the organization (Fletcher & Williams, 1996). Performance management is associated with an approach to creating a shared vision of the purpose and aims of the organization. This helps individual employees to understand and recognize the role they can play in achieving organizational goals. In so doing, performance management is supposed to enhance performance both at the individual and organizational level.

According to Fletcher and Williams (1996), elements of a performance management system include among others: (1) the development of a mission statement and business plan, and the enhancement of communications within the organization so that employees are aware of the business plan and organizational objectives and can contribute to their formulation, (2) the clarification of individual responsibilities and accountabilities through job descriptions and clear role definitions, leading to the measurement of individual performance, and (3) implementing appropriate strategies and developing people. Fletcher and Williams (1996) found that aspects of performance management such as seeing the strategic relevance of one's goals and being aware of how well the organization is performing contribute to organizational commitment.

The relationship between performance management and organizational commitment is not very clear. The research by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggests that job, role and organizational characteristics are amongst the antecedents of organizational commitment. This indicates that some elements of a performance management system may influence the levels of organizational commitment. In a study of public and private sector organizations, Fletcher and Williams (1996) found weak correlations between organizational commitment and several measures of performance management. The correlations were .11 (F value = 8.99) for participation, .14 (F value =15.41) for feedback, and .16 (F value = 16.47) for difficulty of goals set.

Taylor and Pierce (1999) found that a significant change occurred in employees over the time that a performance management system was implemented at a regional environment council in New Zealand. They found a significant effect of the performance management system on the organizational commitment levels of those staff labelled as competent.

In addition to using HRM practices as organizational strategies to induce organizational commitment, organizations can change their leadership or management style towards a more participative approach (Guest, Peccei & Thomas, 1993). This apparent importance of leadership style in the

implementation of HRM policies and by implication the development of organizational commitment requires a thorough understanding of leadership styles. What follows now is review of the literature on leadership styles.

2.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES

2.4.1. Introduction

The fact that leadership is one of the most complex concepts studied by organizational and psychological researchers is attested to by the many different definitions of leadership that one finds in the literature (Van Seters & Field, 1989; Johns & Moser, 1989). Some of these definitions describe leadership as an act of influence, some as a process, and yet others have looked at a person's trait qualities (Johns & Moser, 1989; Horner, 1997). Each one of these approaches to leadership attempts to describe the nature and characteristics of leadership. As there seem to be considerable difficulties in specifying the factors associated with leadership, Johns and Moser (1989) recommend that it is more feasible to study leader behaviour or actual acts of the leader. Leadership style or behaviour describes the way in which a leader interacts with others rather than his traits. Before describing leadership styles, it is useful to place them in their context within the evolution of leadership theories.

2.4.2. Approaches to Leadership

Leadership has been accompanied throughout time by numerous theories that have been categorized into several historically distinct approaches that focus either on traits, behaviours, situational contingencies, or transformational leadership or into cultural contingency approach. These theories have been described in papers by such authors as Yukl (1989), Van Seters and Fields (1989), Johns and Moser (1989) Gibson and Marcoulides, (1995) and more

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recently, Yukl (1999). Although these authors have used different classifications, they all have grouped different leadership theories with a common theme. Since it is not the intention of this section to give detailed descriptions of the different leadership approaches/eras or ideas, a detailed literature review will not be given on the other leadership theories except for the multifactor leadership theory, which is of interest to this study.

2.4.3. Multifactor leadership theory

The multifactor leadership theory developed by Bass in the 1980s encompasses a range of leader behaviours. This approach incorporates the: transformational, transactional, laissez-faire leadership and charismatic styles of leadership. These leadership styles have been described to have a direct effect on individual and organizational level outcomes (Bass, 1990a; Yukl & Van Fleet 1992).

Bass (1985) based his descriptions of transformational and transactional leaders on Burns's (1978) ideas. Burns (1978) proposed that one could differentiate ordinary from extra-ordinary leadership. He described ordinary/transactional leaders as those leaders who influence employee compliance by expected rewards. Transactional leadership is an exchange relationship that involves the reward of effort, productivity and loyalty. Transformational leaders as those who motivate their followers to perform beyond expectation by raising the follower's confidence levels and providing support for developing to higher levels.

The work of Bass and his colleagues (Bass & Avolio, 1990a, 1995) expanded Burns's factors of leadership to include a third factor laissez faire leadership. Bass (1985) investigated key behaviours of leaders in public and private organizations and developed a model of transformational leadership. Based on this model and evidence collected from using the MLQ questionnaire they expanded the factors to what they called the "full range leadership model".

The key factors associated with multifactor leadership appeared in the original version of the Multifactor Leadership questionnaire (MLQ) an instrument developed by Bass (1985) to measure transactional and transformational leadership. The original five factors identified by Bass (1985) are charisma (idealized influence), intellectual stimulation, individualized attention, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. The first three factors he associated with transformational leadership and the latter two with transactional leadership. The validity of the MLQ has been confirmed by various studies. Bass and his colleagues have revised the MLQ and included an additional factor of inspirational motivation associated with transformational leadership. This is based on the four I's of transformational leadership described by Bass and Avolio (1990a; 1990b) and Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991) A measure of laissez-faire behaviours, an ineffective form of leadership is also included in the current form of the MLQ as part of the full measure of full-range leadership.

2.4.3.1. Transformational leadership style

There is considerable variation in the way transformational leadership is conceptualised. Bennis 's 1959 notion of the transformational leader as someone with the ability to reach the souls of their followers has been modified. It has been modified by such authors as Burns (1978), who was first to propose that transformational leadership represents the transcendence of self-interest by the leader and followers. Transformational leaders, according to Burns (1978), are able to ensure that followers are consciously aware of the importance of sharing organizational goals and values. They also find ways to ensure that followers know how to achieve these goals. Burns (1978) further states that transformational leaders motivate their followers to go beyond their own self-interests and give effort on behalf of the organization by appealing to the higher order needs of followers.

Bass and colleagues (Bass, 1985; 1997; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995; 1999) have identified five factors which represent the behavioural components of

transformational leadership: 1) idealized influence (attributes); 2) idealized influence (behaviour); 3) inspirational motivation; 4) intellectual stimulation; and 5) individualized consideration. Idealised influence attributes occur when followers identify with and emulate those leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision. Idealized influence behaviour refers to leader behaviour that results in followers identifying with leaders and wanting to emulate them. Inspirational motivation is closely related to idealized influence. It implies that leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Individual consideration occurs when leaders relate to followers on a one-to-one basis in order to elevate goals and develop skills.

Leaders who display individual consideration treat each employee as an individual and are attentive to the unique needs, capabilities and concerns of each individual (Bass, 1985). They also consider the individual's developmental and growth needs. Managers who demonstrate individualized consideration often coach, mentor, and counsel their subordinates. Leaders manifesting inspirational motivation articulate high expectations to subordinates (Bass 1985). They communicate important issues very simply and use various symbols to focus their efforts. They also demonstrate self-determination and commitment to attaining objectives and present an optimistic and achievable view of the future. A transformational leader provides intellectual stimulation to employees by encouraging them to try out new approaches for solving problems (Bass, 1985). They challenge the status quo and encourage employees to explore new ways of achieving organizational goals and objectives. Subordinates under such leadership are not hesitant to offer their ideas, become critical in their problem solving and tend to have enhanced thought processes.

Yukl (1989) defined transformational leadership as the process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organization's mission and objectives.

Transformational leaders are said to appeal to higher ideals and moral values of followers, heighten their expectations, and spur them to greater effort and performance on behalf of the organization (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1990b). Bass and Avolio (1990b) suggest that transformational leaders inspire followers with a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort, thus motivating followers to achieve more than they thought they would achieve.

In addition, transformational leaders have the ability to motivate their subordinates to commit themselves to performance beyond expectations (Bass, 1990a; Bryman, 1992; Howell & Avolio, 1992). According to Bass (1990b), this occurs in three main ways. First, it is by raising the level of awareness of the objective of the organization and how it is to be achieved. Second, it is to encourage co-workers to put the organization's objective above their own personal interests. Finally the leader has to satisfy and stimulate people's higher-order needs. To accomplish these results, transformational leaders must possess and display four characteristics namely idealized influence or charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1985; 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1990a; 1990b).

Leaders demonstrating idealized influence or charisma have a vision, a strong influence and a sense of mission (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1990a). They also instil pride in their subordinates and command respect. Employees have a high level of trust and confidence in such leaders, tend to adopt their vision , seek to identify with them, and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. A charismatic leader does not derive his/her authority and the legitimisation of his/her leadership from rules, position, or tradition, but from the followers' faith and trust in him. The leader's power is personal and due to these extraordinary qualities. Leaders who encourage their followers to be innovative and creative provide intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1990b). When the leader prompts the followers to provide alternative solutions to problems and challenges their assumptions it creates intellectual stimulation. An idealized influence attribute occurs when the followers identify with and emulate the leader. The followers also tend to trust the leader whom they perceive as someone with an attainable

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mission and vision. Idealized influence behaviour refers to the leader when the leader's behaviour results in followers identifying with the leader and wanting to emulate him/her. Inspirational motivation is about motivating and inspiring followers and providing challenges and meaning within their work environment.

The relational relationship of transformational leaders and their followers is one characterized by pride, and respect (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). The employees often develop a high level of trust and confidence in such a leader. The employees are proud to identify themselves with the leader and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. Transformational leaders therefore do not rely on rules, position or regulations to legitimise their leadership.

2.4.3.2. Transactional leadership style

Bass (1985; 1990a; 1990b; 1999) referred to transactional leadership as an exchange relationship between leader and follower. Transactional leadership theory is grounded in the social learning and social exchange theories, which recognize the reciprocal nature of leadership (Deluga, 1990). It is based on the realization that leadership does not necessarily reside in the person or situation but resides in the social interaction between the leader and the follower (Van Seters & Fields, 1989).

Bass (1985), and Bass and Avolio (1990a) described transactional leadership in terms of two characteristics: the use of contingent rewards and management by exception. They described contingent reward as the reward that the leader will bestow on the subordinate once the latter has achieved goals that were agreed to. Contingent reward is therefore the exchange of rewards for meeting agreed-on objectives. By making and fulfilling promises of recognition, pay increases and advancement for employees who perform well, the transactional leader is able to get things done. Bass (1985) therefore argues that by providing contingent rewards, a transactional leader might inspire a

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reasonable degree of involvement, loyalty, commitment and performance from his/her subordinates.

Transactional leaders may also rely on active management by exception which occurs when the leader monitors followers to ensure mistakes are not made, but otherwise, allows the status quo to exist without being addressed (Bass & Avolio, 1995). In passive management by exception, the leader intervenes only when things go wrong. In general, one can conclude that transactional leadership is an exchange relationship that involves the reward of effort, productivity and loyalty.

2.4.3.3. Laissez-Faire leadership style

Both the transformational and transactional leaders are described as leaders who actively intervene and try to prevent problems, although they use different approaches. When researching these two active forms of leadership, one finds that they are often contrasted with a third style of leadership, called laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1990a; Deluga, 1990). Deluga (1990) describes the laissez-faire leader as an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates, make decisions or give direction. Such a leader generally refrains from participating in group, or individual decision-making thus giving his/her subordinates considerable freedom, to the point of abdicating his/her responsibility. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership.

The laissez-faire style of leadership is also referred to as management-by-exception (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). Management-by-exception characterizes how leaders monitor negative subordinate behaviour and exert corrective action only when subordinates fail to meet objectives. Leaders who manage by exception intervene only when procedures and standards for accomplishing tasks are not met. It can therefore be concluded that by 'laissez-faire' it is meant that the leader is not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties.

2.4.4. Leadership style and HRM practices

Avolio et al (1991) argue that leaders in today's changing organizations need to develop their followers to handle greater levels of responsibility and uncertainty. This requires training and development of the employees. Avolio et al. (1991) argue that the transformational leader will be a good manager in this environment. The "four Is of transformational leadership" they describe enable the transformational leader to adopt and practice appropriate HRM policies that would bring about the desired outcomes. Since individualized consideration is displayed when leaders pay attention to the developmental needs of followers (Bass, 1999), it can be argued that the transformational leader would tend to practice those HRM policies that would encourage the training and developmental needs of his/her followers. Idealized influence and inspirational motivation are displayed when the leader envisions a desirable future and articulates how it can be achieved (Bass, 1999). This would require that organizational HRM policies favour the sharing of information. A transformational leader would be assumed to practice HRM practices that encourage communication. Intellectual stimulation on the other hand is displayed when the leader helps followers to become more innovative and creative (Bass, 1999). Such a leader can be expected to practice HRM policies that promote participation in decision-making.

Employees' behaviour can also be influenced by the treatment they receive from their supervisors or managers, as they are often the people who carry out the practices (Whitener, 2001). The interpersonal treatment employees receive from their supervisors such as adequately considering their view points, supporting their personal biases, explaining their decisions and providing feedback timely and applying decision-making criteria consistently could have strong effect on the employee's perceptions of fairness (Whitener, 2001). Therefore, organizations that have supervisors who treat employees fairly as they enact procedures and HR practices could increase their employee's trust in

the organization and supervisors, which will in turn positively affect the levels of organizational commitment.

2.4.5. Leadership styles within academic institutions

According to Bryman (1992), transformational forms of leadership have only recently become the subject of systematic inquiry in educational contexts, although it has been studied extensively within business settings. The studies of leadership within an educational context are important for several reasons. Educational institutions, especially higher education institutions, which use public funds, are under scrutiny and are pressurized to produce value for money performance (Bess & Goldman, 2001; Pounder, 2001). Expectations are that these institutions should operate as "business units" making profit. This has led to a tendency to transfer commercial business models into the educational arena.

As Bess and Goldman (2001) have put it, a new managerial culture, which promotes economic efficiency and bottom line results, dominates both policy and practice often overriding most concerns for social goals, quality of teaching and research and internal human relations, is being adopted in higher education. As a result, leaders within academic institutions struggle to respond to business pressures of controlling costs, maintaining enrolment, and fundraising while managing employees who often do view business interests as secondary to academic freedom.

As a sub-discipline or content area of leadership studies, educational leadership is still in its infancy. Most of the empirical studies conducted have been done in schools with a limited number of studies concentrating on higher education (Brown & Moshavi, 2002). While it is acknowledged that the organizational cultural legacies and leadership within schools and higher education institutions may be different, Bess and Goldman (2001) point out that professors and teachers have much in common. Both do work with a significant cognitive and intellectual content, and have substantial independence and

autonomy where they work closely with students and associate with their own peers. Professors and teachers enjoy a tenure system that provides job security and a buffer that characterizes their profession and the leadership context. Based on Bess and Goldman 's (2001) arguments, it is assumed that the common goal of education pursued by both types of institutions might allow for comparisons or generalizations from one to the other.

Educational leadership researchers have drawn selectively from the broader perspectives or approach to leadership and concentrated mainly on transformational and charismatic leadership. A review of the literature indicates a limited number of papers focusing on the efficacy of transformational and transactional leadership in the context of higher education. In a study of principals of 89 high schools, Koh, Steers and Telborg (1995), found that transformational leadership behaviours hold an additive effect on outcomes such as satisfaction and effectiveness. In a more recent study of 440 university faculty members, Brown and Moshavi (2002) showed that the idealized influence or charisma factor of transformational leadership was significantly predictive of desired organizational outcomes. Using the MLQ, they found that the aggregated measure of transformational leadership is significantly related to the faculty's satisfaction, their perceptions of their organization's effectiveness and their willingness to expend extra effort.

Leithwood and his colleagues, with their research within schools, also contributed a great deal towards our understanding of transformational leadership within an educational environment (Leithwood, 1994, Leithwood & Jantzi, 1997, 1999a,b, c; Yu, Leithwood & Jantzi, 2002). Leithwood (1994) showed that transformational leadership practices had significant direct and indirect effects on progress within school restructuring initiatives and teacher perceptions of student outcomes. Leithwood (1994) synthesized the effects of transformational leadership on organizational aspects such as the purpose, people, structures and culture. His summary shows that a transformational leader shares the school's vision with the individuals within the school and that he also shares the responsibility and decision making power with staff.

Leithwood and Jantzi (1997) expanded on the work by Leithwood, by searching for the factors that account for attributions of transformational school leadership. Their findings are illustrated in Figure 2.3.
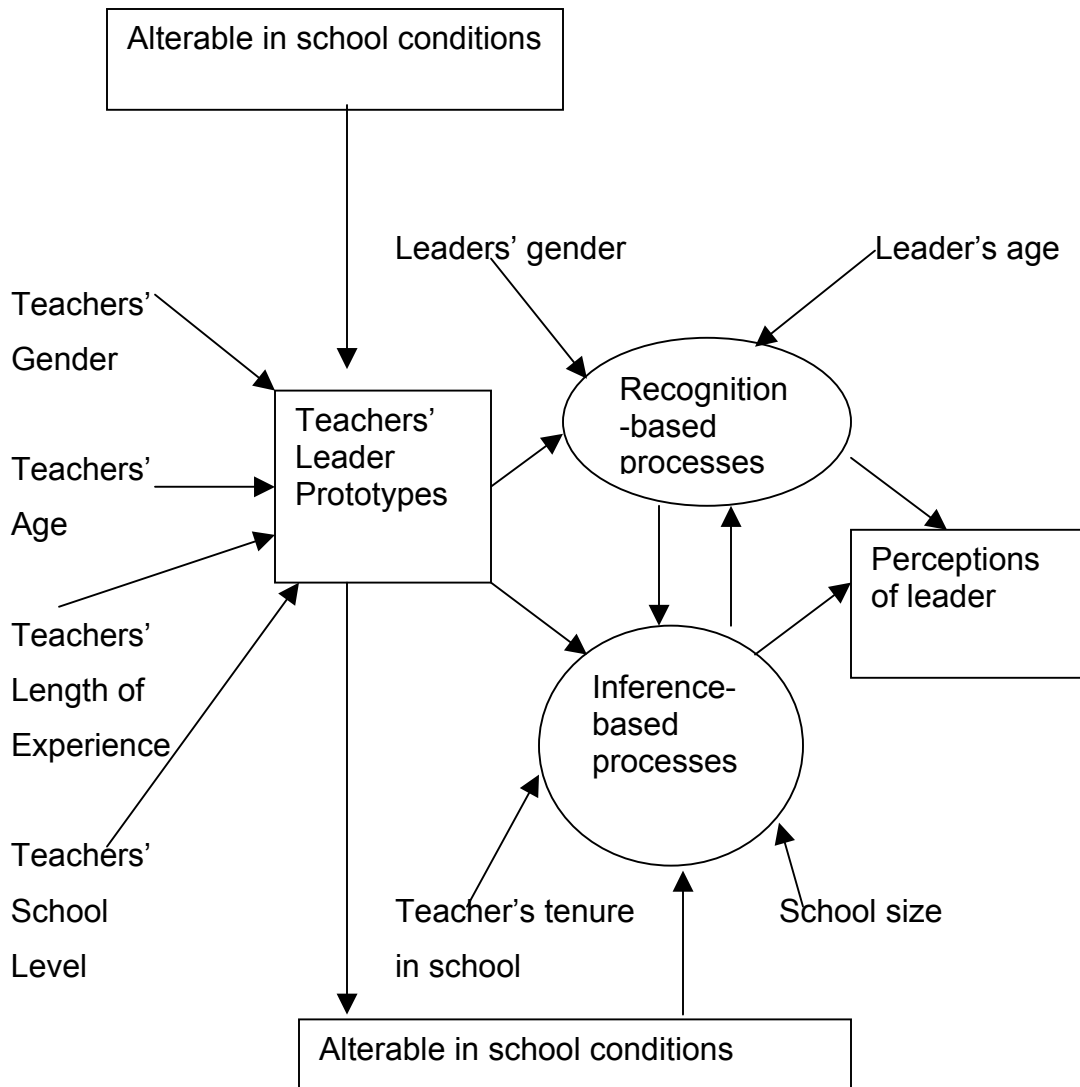
Figure 2.3. Explaining the formation of teacher's leader perceptions.

From "Explaining variation in teacher's perceptions of principal's leadership: A replication", by Leithwood, K. and Jantzi, D. 1997. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 35, 4, pp312-331.

In this replication study, they found that personal characteristics like the teachers's gender, age, length of experience, tenure in school and level in school, and the leader's age and gender as well as the school size have an influence on both recognition-based processes and inference-based processes, perceptions of teachers and the teacher's leader prototypes. Leithwood and Jantzi (1999a) also showed that transformational leadership had strong significant direct effects on organizational conditions. In a replication study, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999b) confirmed their earlier results. Considering these results, it is reasonable for one to assume that transformational leadership and transactional leadership within higher education institutions might be associated with desirable outcomes such as trust and organizational commitment.

Other authors who also believe that leadership is essential in educational institutions include Rowley (1997) and Ogshabeni (2001). Rowley (1997) argues that the type of leadership exercised in academic institutions, which is academic leadership, is unique to higher education. He indicates that this leadership extends beyond the organization into the wider community served by higher education and is central to academic excellence. Such leadership is important in managers at all levels in higher education and is not only vested in top management.

Ogshabemi (2001) looked at the level of satisfaction that academics derive from the behaviour of their line managers. Line managers in higher education could be a head of department, a dean of a faculty, a director of a school or unit, or the Vice Chancellor of the institution. He found that approximately half (52.4%) of university teachers are satisfied with the behaviour of their line managers while about a third (34.4%) are dissatisfied. Through regression analysis, he found that age and the length of service in higher education were important in explaining an academic's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the behaviour of their line managers.

The literature review on leadership in academic institutions indicates that leadership is as essential as it is in other organizations and that it has an influence on employee's work attitudes.

2.4.6. Leadership behaviour and Organizational commitment

According to Stum (1999), employee commitment reflects the quality of an organization's leadership. Therefore it is logical to assume that leadership behaviour would have a significant relationship with the development of organizational commitment. Managerial research suggests a positive direct relationship between leadership behaviours and organizational commitment.

Transformational leadership is generally associated with desired organizational outcomes such as the willingness of followers to expend extra effort (Bass, 1985; Bass, Waldman, Avolio & Bebb, 1987; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). A willingness to expend extra effort indicates some degree of commitment. Contingent reward behaviours that represent transactional leadership have been found to be reasonably associated with performance and work attitudes of followers although at a lower level than transformational leadership behaviours (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1990a).

A relationship between commitment and leadership style has been reported in the organizational and management literature. Billingsley and Cross (1992) reported a positive relationship between leader support and commitment. Tao et al. (1998) also found that supervisory behaviour predicted internalisation (R^2 = .180, p <.01). In three separate studies, Popper, Mayseless and Castelnovo (2000) found evidence to support the hypothesis that a positive correlation existed between transformational leadership and attachment Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) found that leadership behaviours explained 48% of the variance in *organizational* commitment and 55% of trust.

Authors like Kent and Chelladurai (2001) took the analysis further and looked at the correlation between the different aspects of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. These authors found that individualized consideration has positive correlations with both affective commitment (r = .475, p < .001) and normative commitment (r = .354, p < .001).

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They also found positive correlations between intellectual stimulation and both affective commitment (r = .487, p < .001) and normative commitment (r = .292, p < .05).

The positive relationship between leadership behaviour and organizational commitment was found even in non-western populations. Chiok Foong Loke (2001) studied the effect of leadership behaviours on employee outcomes in Singapore. A high, positive significant correlation was shown among organizational commitment and leadership behaviours. The Person Product correlations ranged from .60 for enabling others to act and inspiring a shared vision to .84 for enabling others to act and modelling the way.

2.5 TRUST IN ORGANIZATIONS

2.5.1. Introduction

Organizational scholars have believed for some time that trust has a number of important benefits for organizations and their members (Carnevale and Wechsler, 1992; McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992; Mayer et al., 1995). According to Carnevale and Wechsler (1992) trust provides a basis for security and confidence in the intentions and actions of supervisors, managers and organizational leaders. This idea is reflected in most theoretical treatments of trust and its effects on workplace attitudes, behaviours and performance (Kramer, 1999; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Dirks & Ferrin (2001) argue that trust results in effects such as more positive attitudes, higher levels of cooperation and other forms of workplace behaviour and superior levels of performance.

Although organizational researchers have devoted a significant amount of attention to examining the numerous potential benefits of trust, they have devoted less attention to examining the different dimensions of trust as well as ways in which trust elicits the benefits. It is therefore important that the

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dimensions of trust within organizations are first understood before we can study their links with other organizational outcomes. In this section, we will therefore start by reviewing what the literature has to say about the different dimensions of trust within organizations, the organizational bases of trust and then look at the relationship of trust and organizational commitment.

2.5.2. Dimensions of trust within organizations

The conceptualisation of the construct and its dimensions is certainly one of the most controversial issues in the studies about trust. The conceptualisation of the concept of trust in the literature has in the beginning been one-dimensional. Among the authors who have proposed a multidimensional definition of trust, Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992) identify cognitive and behavioural dimensions of trust. The cognitive dimension consists of the belief in the partner's reliability or credibility, which comes from his motivation and knowledge. These dimensions are similar to those described by Ganesan (1994). Ganesan (1994) proposes two dimensions of trust: credibility, which depend on the trustor's belief that the trusted has the required expertise to carry out his/her role effectively and reliably and benevolence, which is based on the trustor's belief that the supplier acts on the basis of intentions that are beneficial to the trustor. The behavioural dimension of trust is concerned with the act of placing trust in another and implies vulnerability and uncertainty on the part of the trustor (Moorman et al., 1992).

Researchers who make a distinction on the cognitive and affective aspects of trust suggest that trust is based on both knowledge (cognitive-based trust) and feelings or emotions (affect-based trust) that the trustor has in dealing with the trustee (MacAllister, 1995). Those researchers who approach trust in terms of trustworthiness or the degree to which a subject perceives his partner as trustworthy, hold that perceived trustworthiness and trusting behaviour are respectively a determinant and a consequence of trust (Mayer et al., 1995).

Three factors are assumed to lead a subject to consider a partner trustworthy. These are: ability, which relates to the partner's competence to supply what the trustor expects; integrity, which relates to the fact that the partner is guided by principles accepted to the trustor; benevolence, which relates to the intention of the trustee to do his best for the trustor.

Rousseau et al. (1998) propose a cross-disciplinary conceptual definition of trust that defines trust as a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another. When conceptualised as a psychological state, trust has been defined in terms of several dimensions (McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992; McAllister, 1995; Kramer, 1999). McCauley and Kuhnert (1992) describe trust as a multidimensional variable. They also distinguish between lateral and vertical trust. Lateral trust is trust relations among peers who share a similar work situation while vertical trust refers to trust relations between individuals and their immediate supervisor, top management or the organization as a whole.

McAllister (1995) suggests that interpersonal trust can be categorized into two different dimensions: effective and cognitive. Cognitive forms of trust reflect issues such as the integrity or capability of another party. Affective forms of trust reflect a special relationship with the party that may cause the referent to demonstrate concern about one's welfare and a feeling of benevolence. In addition, to the affective and cognitive aspects of trust, researchers have described the rational and the relational aspects of trust (Kramer, 1999). The rational approach posits that the choice to trust depends on a conscious calculation of advantages. This approach includes two central elements: the knowledge that enables a person to trust another and the incentives for the trusted person to honour or fulfil that trust. The relational approach of trust suggest that trust has both a calculative orientation toward risk and a social orientation toward other people and society as a whole. This approach implicates a variety of organizational structures such as networks and governance systems in the emergence and diffusion of trust within organizations.

2.5.3. Referents of trust within organizations

Carnevale and Welchsler (1992) indicate that the foci of trust within an organization can differ as employees can trust co-workers but not supervisors or they can trust top management and not the work unit and each type of trust has different outcomes. Dirks and Skarliski (2002) believe that it is just as important to identify the exact referent of trust, as it is to identify the different dimensions of trust. They argue that in order to effectively leverage the benefits of trust within the workplace, there needs to be a better understanding of which referent/s may be most relevant and important for eliciting such outcomes as performance, organizational citizenship and organizational commitment. McCauley and Kuhnert (1992) indicate that research can examine trust among peers, between employee and supervisor, management and others. Accordingly, an employee may trust his co-workers but distrust his supervisor or management. Dirks and Skarliski (2002) agree with this and regard workplace referents of trust to include supervisors, subordinates, co-workers and top managers.

McCauley and Kuhnert (1992) endorse the view that organizational processes communicate top management's attitude towards its employees. They argue that employees monitor the organizational environment when assessing whether to place trust in management. If the structures, roles and climate define a trustworthy system employees will reciprocate trust relations communicated by management. If on the other hand they reflect a lack of trust in employees by top management employees will respond with distrust. The type of trust that is bestowed on co-workers and immediate supervisors is often relationship and/or character based (Dirks & Skarliski, 2002). Following the social exchange principle, the relationship-based perspective implies that followers will reciprocate benefits received, and that individuals will target their efforts to reciprocate toward the source of the benefit received.

Tan and Tan (2000) emphasise the importance of distinguishing the referents of trust within an organization. They argue that trust in the supervisor and trust in the organization, are two distinct but related constructs, each with its

own antecedents and outcomes. Their study showed that although trust in supervisor and trust in organization were positively and significantly correlated, trust in supervisor was more strongly associated with variables such as ability, benevolence, and the integrity of the supervisor, whereas trust in organization was more strongly correlated with global variables such as perceived organizational support and justice.

Reciprocating trust in one's immediate leader may also be related to job-related outcomes such as increasing job performance or engaging in citizenship behaviours (Dirks & Ferrin, 2000). For example, employees might give extra time to fulfil supervisor requests or may engage in helping behaviour such as staying late to help a supervisor or co-worker due to social exchange process involving a supervisor. In contrast, trust in senior leadership may involve reciprocating to that referent with high commitment to the organization. The character-based perspective, with its concerns on integrity, reliability and honesty of specific leaders would also suggest that understanding which referent is trusted will predict the response or concern toward a specific individual.

Dirks and Skarliski (2002) caution against researchers focusing solely on trust in supervisor at the expense of other important referents. They argue that exploring trust from the viewpoint of colleagues is very important in the growing presence of lateral relationships within organizations. Workplaces have become more reliant on teams or work groups that make it important for researchers to focus on exchanges between co-workers. Trust in co-workers might also have work related benefits such as exchanges of information with co-workers and helping co-workers in need.

2.5.4. Bases of trust within organizations

Researchers have spent considerable effort in identifying the bases of trust within organizations (McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992; Mayer et al., 1995; Kramer, 1999). In a survey conducted at a large federal government training organization, McCauley & Kuhnert (1992) found that job/relational variables such as participation in decision-making, autonomy, feedback, supportive supervisor behaviour and communication can significantly explain trust in management (r = .70, p < .001). They also showed that system wide variables such as professional development, job security, and performance appraisal, do add a significant explanation (r = .76, p < .001) beyond that provided by relational variables.

Antecedent conditions that promote the emergence of trust include psychological, social and organizational factors that influence individual expectations about others' trustworthiness and their willingness to engage in trusting behaviour when interacting with them. The organizational factors that have been associated with the development of trust include the HRM policies practiced in the organization and the leadership within the organization (Whitener et al., 1998).

2.5.5. HRM practices and trust

The levels of trust within an organization can influence the successful implementation of the HRM practices (Whitener, 1997). Therefore, the effectiveness and success of the HRM policies and practices will be dependent on the employee's trust of the management in the organization (Whitener, 1997). At the same time, human resources management (HRM) practices like training and development, promotions, compensation, job security, recruitment and selection and performance evaluation have been shown to affect the development of trust (Whitener, 2001). Employee's trust will affect their perception of the accuracy and fairness of the HRM practices. Employees are

concerned about the procedural and distributive justice and fairness of the HR practices that determine outcomes such as promotion, rewards and training. When the implementation of the practices is perceived to be procedurally fair and the associated benefits are fairly distributed, HRM practices could have a positive influence on the development of employees' trust in the organization and management.

2.5.6. Leadership style and trust

The importance of leadership style as an important organizational characteristic that could also affect the development of trust cannot be over emphasized. Trust has been identified as an important part of numerous leadership theories. As a result, researchers spent effort in an attempt to identify leadership characteristics that can instil trust. Researchers have shown that transformational and charismatic leaders built trust in their followers (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). According to several researchers, transformational leaders engage in actions that gain the trust of their followers (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Bennis and Goldsmith (1994), describe the characteristics of leaders who can establish trust as vision, empathy, consistency and integrity. These authors also indicate that leaders generate and sustain trust by acting in ways that produce constancy, congruity, reliability and integrity. According to Bennis and Townsend (1995) these are four essential characteristics of the leader who are likely to develop trust in the organization. Kerfoot (1998) adds to these characteristics, four other characteristics that include availability, accessibility, communicating with candour and a willingness to invest.

The identification of leadership characteristics does not fully explain the relationship between trust and leadership. Several researchers have put forward some explanations. Podsakoff et al. (1990) showed that trust, conceptualised as faith in and loyalty to the leader, was directly related to transformational

leadership. Lewicki and Bunker (1996) argue that trust may result from a sense of identification with the other's desires and intentions. The types of activities that strengthen identification based trust include developing a collective identity, creating joint products and goals, and committing to commonly shared values (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Thus, transformational leaders may be able to build mutual trust by developing a common vision that group members can collectively identify with and pursue with the objective of creating joint products.

Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust is based on the perspective that transformational leadership behaviours such as individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and, individual motivation have an influence on the development of trust. This model proposes that when followers believe their leaders have integrity, capability or benevolence they become more comfortable when engaging in behaviours that put them at risk. By treating each employee as an individual and being attentive to their unique needs, capabilities and concerns of each individual, a transformational leader would instil trust.

Tyler and Degoey (1996) argue that there is greater empirical support for a relational model of trust between supervisors and subordinates than for an instrumental model of trust. Trust is more likely to result when a social bond has been created between a subordinate and his/her supervisor as it would in a transformational relationship, than in the case where instrumental judgments are more important as it is the case in a transactional relationship. Thus, based on my review of past research, I feel it is more plausible to argue for direct and partially mediated roles for trust as the best way to model its relationship with transformational leadership.

Some researchers describe trust in leadership as operating according to a social exchange process (Whitener, et al., 1998). Whitener et al. (1998) assert that manager's actions and behaviours provide the foundation for trust. Using the relational perspective, they propose five types of leader behaviour that have an influence on trust. These include behavioural consistency, behavioural integrity, participative decision-making, communication and demonstrating concern. According to this perspective, followers see their relationship with their leaders as

beyond the basic economic contract such that the parties operate based on trust, goodwill and perceptions of mutual obligations. Issues of care and consideration in the relationship are central to such relationships. Individuals who feel that their leader has or will demonstrate care and consideration tend to reciprocate this sentiment in the form of behaviour desired by their leader.

Researchers have used this perspective in describing the operation of transformational leadership and trust (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). Pillai et al. (1999) suggest that transformational leaders may operate by establishing social exchange relationships with followers. Fairholm and Fairholm (1999) also believe that leaders can lead effectively in a united and harmonious environment characterized by trust. They argue that in such an environment the leader and subordinate are able to trust each other enough to trust the purposes, actions, and intentions of each other and others which will enable them to further the goals of the organization.

According to Bass (1999) in today's cynical world trust in leadership is required for willingness to identify with the organization and to internalise its values. For this, transformational leadership is required along with corresponding HRM policies and practices in the selection, training, and development of the employees. Transformational leaders build trust by demonstrating individualized concern and respect for followers (Jung & Avolio, 2001). Arnold, Barling and Kelloway (2001) also showed that transformational leadership increases trust and organizational commitment. A hierarchical regression analysis found that transformational leadership accounted for a significant contribution to trust (R^2 = .52, p < .05) and organizational commitment (R^2 = .36, p < .05)

Existing research argues that the responsibility for building and maintaining trust lies with the leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Dirks & Skarliski, 2002). Dirks and Ferrin (2001) have shown that trust in leadership has a significant relationship with individual outcomes including job performance (r = .16), organizational citizenship behaviour altruism (r =. 19), turnover intention (r = .40), job satisfaction (r = .51), and organizational commitment (r = .49). They also found that trust in supervisor was more strongly related to job level variables

whereas trust in senior leadership was more strongly related to organizational level variables. For example, they found job performance to be related significantly higher level with trust in supervisor ($r =. 17$) than with trust in senior management ($r =. 00$). In contrast, organizational commitment was related at a significantly higher level with trust in senior leadership ($r = .57$) than with trust in supervisor ($r = .44$).

The findings of Dirks and Ferrin (2001) seem to confirm the significance of the follower's perceptions of leadership actions and styles. They report substantial relationships between perceptions of leadership actions including transformational leadership ($r = .72$), interactional justice ($r = .65$), participative decision-making ($r = .46$), and failure to meet expectations of subordinates ($r = .40$). These results indicate that trust in leadership appears to be associated with well-established set of leadership actions and behaviours.

According to Dirks and Ferrin (2002), individuals observe leader's actions and draw inferences about the nature of their relationship with the leader and/or the character of the leader. Employee's trust in their leaders can also be influenceed by level of perceived fairness or justice in the organizational practices or decisions because the practices are seen as a signal of the nature of the relationship with the leader and/or the character of the leader. Participative decision making sends a message that the leader enacting the program has confidence in and concern and respect for subordinates or it may influence followers' overall perceptions about the character of the leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust in organizational leadership may involve reciprocal action at the organizational level with organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment.

2.5.7. Studies of trust within academic organizations

That trust is critical to management–subordinate exchange cannot be denied. It is therefore imperative that academic institutions managers gain and

maintain the trust of their faculty. As Pelton, Strutton and Rawwas (1994) explain, the ability of academic managers to develop and preserve long-term, trusting relationships with members of their faculty is a key component of the long-run success of academic institutions. Within academic settings, faculty and administrators are interrelated partners who are jointly responsible for all forms of educational exchange. They often are dependent on each other to perform successfully. It is therefore important that they agree on institutional goals, as their ensuing attitudes about the institution and its educational mission are pivotal to the character of the institution.

Several studies have provided empirical evidence of the importance of trust within academic organizations. Driscoll (1978) have shown that trust in organizational decision-making emerges as a predictor of satisfaction attitudes. He found that organizational trust within a college of arts was strongly associated with participation in decision making. He showed that organizational trust was just as important as participation in decision making for faculty within an arts college. His results showed that this importance was consistent within the hierarchical levels of the college. Higher trust in each level is significantly associated with both overall satisfaction and satisfaction with participation. Pelton et al. (1994) studied the role of trust of faculty-administrators on faculty performance.

Hoy and his colleagues have engaged in research on trust within schools. According to their findings, trust of teachers in their colleagues and the principal is an important element of trust within schools (Hoy, Tarter, & Witkoskie, 1992). In addition, trust of colleagues and the principal by teachers is very important for the effectiveness of the school (Tarter, Sabo & Hoy, 1995) as well as a positive school climate (Hoy, Sabo & Barnes, 1996). More recently, Hoy, Smith and Sweetland (2002) showed that aspects of teacher trust were related to positive aspects of school climate. Teacher trust in colleagues was related to all aspects of school climate (r = .27, p < .05), such as collegial leadership (r =. 44, p <. 01). Taken together, the literature indicates that trust is important in academic institutions and that it has an influence on the effectiveness of the institution.

2.5.8. Trust and organizational commitment

According to Mayer et al. (1995)'s model, individual's beliefs about another's ability, benevolence and integrity, lead to a willingness to risk which manifest in a variety of behaviours. Researchers have used this basic idea to examine the main effects of trust on a variety of behavioural and performance outcomes such as communication and information sharing, organizational citizenship behaviour, effort,conflict, commitment, individual performance and unit performance.

In two studies of British blue-collar workers, Cook and Wall (1980) found that trust subscales correlate positively with organizational commitment subscales. The overall correlation between trust and organizational commitment was .56 (p< .0001), while faith in peers had a correlation of .30 with trust and of .32 with organizational identification. Confidence in peers had a correlation of .23 with trust.

Trust in organizational authorities has been shown to influence a variety of subordinate's work attitudes and behaviour (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Martin & Tyler, 1997). Employees are supportive of or committed to authorities and the institutions that the authorities represent, when trust is relatively high. Employees committed to organizations are likely to be satisfied with their relationship with the authorities, and willing to behave in ways that help to further the authorities goals and by extension the goals of the organization. Brockner et al. (1997) report that trust has a positive although non-significant effect on employee commitment (r = .05).

Sashital, Berman, and Ilter (1998) conducted a study that analysed the influence of trust of a manager by his/her superiors and subordinates on the outcome of the manager's performance evaluation. They found that the nature

and extent of trust developed by managers in their relationship with colleagues and superiors appears to influence the way their performance is evaluated by others. They found that superiors would evaluate a manager's performance favourably if they trust him.

Trust has been described in the literature as a variable that has direct influence on work group processes and performance (Dirks, 1999). This implies that when trust levels are high a group would experience superior group processes such as higher levels of cooperation and higher performance. On the other hand, when trust is decreased, a group will experience inferior group processes and lower performance. Dirks (1999) argue that the effect of trust does not necessarily have to be direct. He reckons that interpersonal trust could influence group processes and performance indirectly through moderation. In this role, trust moderates the relationship between other variables and group performance.

Dirks and Ferrin (2001; 2002) have reviewed the consequences of trust in leaders and other referents within organizations. They have found inconsistent results with regard to trust and performance and behavioural variables and some consistent evidence regarding trust and attitudinal variables. Most studies that examine the relationship between trust and interpersonal behaviour are based on the premise that trust affects how individuals behave towards one another (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Trust is also linked to a number of attitudinal variables such as organizational commitment (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Following the character-based perspective, and the recognition that managers are responsible for many duties that have a major effect on employee's organizational commitment such as performance evaluations, guidance and assistance with job responsibilities and training, it can be assumed that employees would trust those managers whom they regard as trustworthy in those activities. This idea implies that when employees have high levels of trust in their leaders, they will also have higher levels of organizational commitment. This idea seems to be supported by Dirks and Ferrin (2002)'s meta-analytic findings that demonstrate a substantial relationship between trust in leadership and organizational commitment ($r =.46$).

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2. 6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The researcher addressed the following questions:

Research question 1: What is the relationship between demographic variables and organizational commitment?

Research question 2: What is the inter-relationship between organizational commitment, HRM practices, leadership style, and organizational trust?

Research question 3: To what degree do HRM practices predict organizational commitment subscales and total organizational commitment?

Research Question 4: Can a structural model be built to indicate the relationship between organizational commitment, HRM practices, leadership style and trust?

2.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher aimed to provide an overview of the literature regarding organizational commitment and variables that could lead to its development. The literature review indicates that organizational commitment is linked to various variables which include both personal variables such as age and gender and organizational characteristics such as HRM practices, leadership style and trust.

While each of the organizational factors, that is, leadership style, HRM practices and trust, have been individually shown to be positively associated with organizational commitment, studies examining the combined effect of these factors are limited. Researchers also need to look at the relative effects of the individual dimensions of leadership styles, individual HRM practices and individual dimensions of trust on the different dimensions of organizational commitment. Although transformational leadership may be an important antecedent of trust, possible consequences of trust include commitment, satisfaction, and citizenship behaviours (Whitener et al 1998). Commitment entails a high level of identification with the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert extra effort for the benefit of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Morrow, 1983). Both trust in the leader and the organization, and commitment, are necessary for successful attainment of the leader's vision. Research that would indicate the influence of the different leadership styles, which is transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership, on the different types of organizational commitment would be enlightening.

Organizations with high trust cultures have distinct managerial communication practices that will encourage organizational commitment (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002). Leadership styles and HRM practices would probably have interactive influence with each other. That means that HRM practices and leadership styles can be mutually supportive. For example, transformational leadership, which involves intellectual stimulation, would be supportive of HRM practices that promote employee training and development. At the same time, the presence of HRM practices that promote employee development would enable a leader to practice transformational behaviours.

The previous review of the literature allows us to formulate a hypothesised model of the relationship between organizational commitment, HRM practices, leadership styles and trust. This hypothesised model is shown in Figure 1.1 in page 10. Testing the model will help us to understand the relationship of the variables in the study. The model includes the multiple dimensions of the

variables studied. The three dimensions of organizational commitment, that is, affective, normative and continuance aspects are included. Selective staffing, comprehensive training, job security, equitable rewards, information sharing, promotions, employee participation and developmental performance appraisals were included in HRM practices. Trust dimensions included in the study were trust in co-workers, trust in leadership and trust in the organization. Leadership styles such as transformational style, transactional and laissez faire were included.

Even though not included in the model demographic factors might also affect organizational commitment. The respondent's age, gender, level of education, language, and tenure and the relationship with organizational commitment will be investigated in the current study

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to address the methods used in this study. Items that will be addressed include the research design, population and sample, instrumentation, reliability and validity of the instrumentation, scoring techniques, data-gathering procedures, and the method of statistical analysis.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The survey design is regarded as the most appropriate research design to measure the perceptions of the respondents in this study. A survey is the most appropriate research design as it can enable the researcher to collect information from a large population. The information obtained from the sample can then be generalized to an entire population (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Survey research is usually a quantitative method that requires standardized information in order to define or describe variables or to study the relationships between variables.

Surveys generally fall into one of two categories, descriptive or relational (Rungtusanatham, Choi, Hollingsworth, Wu & Forza, 2003). Descriptive surveys are designed to provide a snapshot of the current state of affairs while relational surveys are deigned to empirically examine relationships among two or more constructs either in an exploratory or in a confirmatory manner. The current study is a relational survey that seeks to explore the relationship between organizational commitment, HRM practices, organizational trust, and leadership behaviour.

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3.3 PARTICIPANTS

Population: The population for this study is academic staff members of higher education institutions in South Africa. There are 36 higher education institutions in South Africa, which consist of 15 Technikons and 21 universities. Because of the binary system of higher education in South Africa as well as the legacy of the apartheid policies respondents were asked to indicate whether their institution is a Technikon or a University. Technikons are higher education institutions that focus on providing career-oriented training with an emphasis on experiential training incorporated in the curriculum. The Technikon was coded as 1 and University as 2. These institutions were then distinguished into either a previously disadvantaged or advantaged Technikon or University. Previously disadvantaged institutions served the black community and did not receive the same degree of government subsidy as the previously advantaged institutions, which served the white community.

In the present study, all employees of South African higher education institutions made up the study population. With 36 institutions, each with at least 300 staff members, the research population would be in excess of 10000. It would be almost impossible to reach all employees of all 36 institutions. As a result, it was necessary to sample the population. As the results will be generalized, it is essential that the sample should ideally be representative of all the employees of higher education institutions. The sampling frame was decided to include only those employees within these institutions who have some "professional" status or training with professional being defined as someone who has received specialized training for his work. Employees involved in unskilled labour such as cleaners and gardeners were excluded. Employees included in the sampling frame were academics (which included lecturing staff irrespective of post level) and non-academics which included technical support staff like computer technicians, laboratory technicians, professional practitioners like librarians, researchers and administrative support staff like administration officers, secretaries and others in similar positions.

The Sample: As it was not possible to reach all employees of the higher education institutions that participated in the study because of the geographical dispersion of the institutions and the large population, it was decided to use the convenience sampling method to obtain the study sample. A convenience sample was obtained by requesting someone within an institution to distribute and collect questionnaires within a faculty/department. The lead contact person was given instructions to distribute the questionnaires to at least one person in the positions specified in the sampling frame. The lead contact person approached the potential participants and only issued a questionnaire if the individual agreed to participate. Only full time employees were asked to complete the questionnaire. The sampling process is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Courier services were used to send questionnaires to the lead contact persons. Eight hundred and fifty (850) questionnaires were sent out to the eleven institutions that agreed to participate. The returned number of questionnaires was 255 (30%). Of these, nine (3.5%) were not usable, as several items were not answered. This brought the response rate to 28.9% (N = 246). The sample included employees from five (5) Technikons and six (6) Universities. Most of the respondents were Technikon employees at 167 (70.19 %) while 71 (29.283%) participants were from Universities.

Respondent's characteristics: The biographical characteristics of the sample of respondents are presented in order to get a clear picture of the sample. Demographic information of the respondents is given in tabular form. Demographic variables that were measured from the respondents were as follows:

- Age
- Level of education
- Total number of years in an academic institution
- Number of years in current position
- Current home language and mother tongue
- Gender
- Current position at work
- Number of years with current institution
- Frequency of involvement in decision-making meetings

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┌─────────────────────────┐              ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Population: All employees│              │ Write a letter requesting│
│ of higher education      │              │ permission to use        │
│ institutions in South    │              │ employees as             │
│ Africa (36).             │              │ respondents.             │
└─────────────────────────┘              └─────────────────────────┘
            │                                         │
            ▼                                         │
┌─────────────────────────┐   ┌───────────────┐       │        ┌─────────────┐
│ Population: All          │   │ Permission    │◄──────┤───────►│ Permission  │
│ employees within         │   │ granted (11). │       │        │ not granted.│
│ institutions that agreed │   └───────────────┘       │        └─────────────┘
│ to participate (11).     │          │                │              │
│                          │──►┌───────────────┐       │              ▼
└─────────────────────────┘   │ Approach Dean │       │        ┌─────────────┐
            │                  │ of Faculty/   │       │        │ No further  │
            │                  │ Director of   │       │        │ action taken│
            ▼                  │ school/unit.  │       │        └─────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────┐   └───────────────┘       │
│ Sample unit: All         │          │                │
│ employees within         │          ▼                ▼
│ Faculties that agreed    │   ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ to participate.          │   │ Appoint a lead          │
└─────────────────────────┘   │ contact person.         │
            │                  └─────────────────────────┘
            │                             │
            ▼                             ▼
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │ Distribute questionnaires│
                              │ according to sampling    │
                              │ frame                    │
                              └─────────────────────────┘
                                         │
┌─────────────────────────┐              ▼
│ Sampling frame: all      │  ┌──────────┐  ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ employees at the level   │  │ Subjects.│─►│ Completed                │
│ of Dean, HOD, academic,  │─►└──────────┘  │ questionnaires collected │
│ technical support,       │               └─────────────────────────┘
│ administrative support,  │
│ researcher, and          │
│ professional practitioner│
└─────────────────────────┘
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Figure 3.1. From population to sample: the process followed in obtaining the sample.

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Note: the numbers in brackets represent the number of institutions.

Age. Respondents were requested to report their age in years. The distribution of the respondents' reported age is shown in Table 3.1. The participants' age varies between a minimum of 21 years and a maximum of 69 years. The mean age of the respondents is M = 41.9 years with a standard deviation of 2.13.

Table 3.1

Age Distributions of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage of total Sample	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
21	1	.41	1	.41
22	1	.41	2	.82
23	5	2.03	7	2.85
24	1	.41	8	3.26
25	5	2.03	13	5.29
26	2	.82	15	6.11
27	8	3.25	23	9.36
28	6	2.44	29	11.80
29	6	2.44	35	14.24
30	6	2.44	41	16.68
31	6	2.44	47	19.12
32	8	3.25	55	22.37
33	10	4.18	65	26.55
34	5	2.03	70	28.58
35	7	2.89	77	31.47
36	6	2.44	83	33.91
37	7	2.89	90	36.80
38	8	3.25	98	40.05

Table 3.1 (Continued)

Age distribution of respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage of total Sample	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
39	8	3.25	106	43.30
40	8	3.25	114	46.55
41	4	1.62	118	48.17
42	16	6.50	134	54.67
43	10	4.18	144	58.85
44	6	2.44	150	61.29
45	9	3.66	159	64.95
46	7	2.89	166	67.84
47	4	1.62	170	69.46
48	7	2.89	177	72.35
49	1	.41	178	72.76
50	13	5.28	191	78.04
51	3	1.21	194	79.25
52	7	2.89	201	82.14
53	9	3.66	210	85.80
54	2	.82	212	86.62
55	6	2.44	218	89.06
56	3	1.21	221	90.27
57	4	1.62	225	91.89
58	6	2.44	231	94.33
59	3	1.21	234	95.54
60	1	.41	235	95.95
62	2	.82	237	96.77
67	1	.41	238	97.18
69	1	.41	239	97.59
Unknown	7	2.89	246	100.00

The respondents were classified into five age groups as indicated in Table 3.2. The largest single group (31.31%) of respondents are between the ages of 41 and 50, 29.67% are between 31 and 40 years. Respondents in the age group 51 to 60 years made up 18.29 % of the sample while those between 21 and 30 years made up 16.67 %. A small fraction of the sample (1.63%) is above 60 years of age.

Table 3.2

A Distribution of Respondent's Ages into Age Groups

Age	Frequency	Percentage of total Sample	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
21-30	41	16.67	41	16.67
31-40	73	29.67	114	46.34
41-50	77	31.31	191	77.65
51-60	45	18.29	236	95.94
Above 60	4	1.63	239	97.57
Unknown	7	2.85	246	100.00

Gender. Respondents were asked to state their gender. The gender distribution of the respondents is shown in Table 3.3. The majority of the respondents are male ($\underline{n}$=133) representing 54.51 % of the sample. Females made up 45.12% of the sample.

Table 3.3

Respondents' Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Male	133	54.51	133	54.41
Female	111	45.12	244	99.53
Unknown	2	.81	246	100.00

Level of education. Respondents were asked to indicate the highest level of education they have achieved. The distribution of the respondent's level of education is shown in Table 3.4. The largest single group of respondents (37.77 %) have a master's degree or equivalent. Respondents with doctoral degrees make up only 15.04 % of the sample. This is befitting the sample, which is mainly made up of Technikon employees. Technikon employees have only started recently (in the early 90s) to improve their qualifications compared to universities, which have always required a postgraduate qualification to be employed in most academic positions.

Table 3.4

Distribution of Respondents According to Level of Education

Highest Qualification	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	50	2.32	50	2.32
Honours degree or equivalent	61	24.79	111	45.12
Masters degree or equivalent	88	35.77	199	80.89
Doctoral degree or equivalent	37	15.04	236	95.93
Unknown	10	4.06		100.00

Current position. Respondents were also asked to indicate their current position. Seven possible positions were given. These were lecturer, researcher, head of department, dean of faculty, professional practitioner, administrative personnel and technical support staff. The distribution of the current positions respondents occupy is shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Distribution of Respondents Per Current Position

Level of position	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Lecturer	154	62.60	154	62.60
Researcher	9	3.66	163	66.26
Head of Department	36	14.63	199	80.89
Dean	6	2.44	205	83.33
Professional practitioner	6	2.44	211	85.77
Administrative personnel	26	1.56	237	96.33
Technical support staff	5	2.03	242	98.36
Unknown	4	1.62	246	100.00

Approximately sixty-three (62.60%) percent of respondents are in a lecturing position, 3.66% are researchers, 14.63% Heads of Departments, 2.44% Deans, 2.44% professional practitioners, 1.56 % administrative personnel and 2.03% Technical support staff. Overall, 83.33 % are academics and 16.67% non-academics.

Number of years working in an academic institution. Respondents were asked to report on the total number of years they have worked in an academic institution. Figures reported in months were rounded off to the nearest year. The distribution of the respondent's number of years in an academic institution is shown in Table 3.6. The number of years in an academic environment ranged from 1 year to 37 years.

Table 3.6

<u>Distribution of Respondents Per Number of Years Spent in an Academic</u>
<u>Institution</u>

Number of years in an academic institution	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	7	2.85	7	2.85
2	15	6.09	22	8.94
3	15	6.09	37	15.03
4	12	4.87	49	19.90
5	11	4.47	60	24.37
6	15	6.09	75	30.46
7	11	4.47	86	34.93
8	20	8.13	106	43.06
9	8	3.25	114	46.31
10	20	8.13	134	54.44
11	5	2.03	139	56.47
12	7	2.85	146	59.31
13	7	2.85	153	62.16
14	5	2.03	158	64.19
15	6	2.44	164	66.63
16	3	1.21	167	67.84
17	4	1.62	171	69.46
18	7	2.85	178	72.31
19	3	1.21	181	73.52
20	17	6.91	198	80.43
21	4	1.62	202	82.05
22	8	3.25	210	85.30
23	3	1.21	213	86.51
24	3	1.21	216	87.72
25	7	2.85	223	90.57

Table 3.6 (continued)

Number of Years Spent in an Academic Institution

Number of years in an academic institution	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
26	2	.82	225	91.39
27	2	.82	227	92.21
28	1	.41	228	92.62
29	1	.41	229	93.03
30	3	1.21	232	94.24
31	1	.41	233	94.65
32	1	.41	234	95.06
34	1	.41	235	95.47
35	3	1.21	238	96.68
37	1	.41	239	97.15
Unknown	7	2.85	246	100.00

The number of years that respondents spent in an academic environment was then categorised into five groups with an interval of five years in between as shown in Table 3.7

Table 3.7

Number of Years in Academic Environment Per Category

Number of years in academic environment	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1-5	60	24.39	60	24.39
6-10	74	30.08	134	54.47
11-15	30	12.19	164	66.66
16-20	34	13.82	198	80.48
More than 20	41	16.67	239	97.15
Unknown	7	2.85	246	100.00

Thirty percent (30.08%) of these respondents had been in an academic environment for between six and ten years, 24.39% had between one and five years experience in academia, 12. 19% had between 11 and 15 years, 13.82% had between 15 and 20 years while 16.67 % have more than 20 years.

Number of years in current position. Respondents were asked to report the number of years they have been in the current position. The distribution of the number of years the respondents are in their current positions is shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8

<u>Distribution of Respondents Per Number of Years in Current Position</u>

Number of years in current position	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	22	8.94	22	8.94
2	46	18.67	68	27.63
3	27	1.97	95	38.60
4	27	1.97	122	49.57
5	15	6.09	137	55.67
6	24	9.76	161	65.45
7	11	4.47	172	69.92
8	15	6.09	187	76.01
9	10	4.06	197	80.08
10	14	5.69	211	85.77
11	2	.82	213	86.59
12	6	2.44	219	89.02
13	2	.82	221	89.83
14	5	2.03	226	91.87
15	4	1.62	230	93.49
16	3	1.22	233	94.71

Table 3.8 (continued)

Distribution of Respondents Per Number of Years in Current Position

Number of years in current position	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
17	3	1.22	236	95.93
18	2	.82	238	96.74
19	1	.41	239	97.15
23	2	.82	241	97.96
25	1	.41	242	98.37
27	1	.41	243	98.78
Unknown	3	1.22	246	100.00

The respondents were grouped into categories according to the number of years they are in the current position. The distribution of respondents per category of number of years in their current positions is shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9

Distribution of Respondents Per Number of Years in Current Position Per Category

Number of years in current position	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1-5	137	55.69	137	55.69
6-10	74	30.08	211	85.77
11-15	19	7.72	230	93.49
16-20	9	3.65	239	97.15
More than 20	4	1.62	243	98.78
Unknown	3	1.22	246	100.00

The largest single group of respondents (55.69%). have been in their current position for between 1 and 5 years. Those who have been in the current position

for between 6 and 10 years formed the second largest group (30.08%). Respondents who have been in the current position for between 11 and 15 years formed less than 10 % of the sample. An even smaller proportion (3.65%) of the sample had been in their current positions for between 16 and 20 years. Respondents who have been in their current position for longer than twenty years made up only 1.62% of the sample.

Number of years in the current institution. Respondents were asked to report the total number of years that they had been employed in their current institution. The reported number of years with current institution were categorised into five categories with an interval of five years. The distribution of the respondents according to the number of years with current institution is shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10

Distribution of Respondents Per Number of Years in Current Institution

Number of years in current institution	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1-5	88	35.77	88	35.77
6-10	87	35.36	175	71.13
11-15	29	11.78	204	82.92
16-20	21	8.56	225	91.46
More than 20	15	6.09	240	97.57
Unknown	6	2.43	246	100.00

Respondents who have been employed by the current institution for between 1 and 5 years or between 6 and 10 years together made up 71.13 % of the sample. Those who were with the current institution for between 11 and 15 years made up 11.78 % while those who had been with the institution for

between 16 and 20 years formed 8.56% of the sample. Respondents with more than twenty years with the current institution constituted 6.09% of the sample.

Involvement in Decision-making. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they are involved in decision-making. The distribution of respondents in terms of how often they perceived themselves to be involved in decision-making is shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11

Distribution of Respondents According to Involvement in Decision-making

Involvement in decision making	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Always	59	23.98	59	23.98
Sometimes	129	52.43	188	76.42
Rarely	36	14.63	224	91.05
Never	20	8.13	244	99.19
Unknown	2	.81	246	100.00

The majority of respondents (52.43%) reported that they were sometimes involved in decision-making processes, while 23.98 % reported that they were always involved. This corresponds to the reported positions of the respondents as only 17.09% percent are in what can be regarded as managerial positions as heads of departments or deans as illustrated in Table 3.8.

Language. Respondents were asked to report their mother tongue as well as the language they currently use at home. Respondents were asked to report on the language this way because of an apparent tendency among South Africans to adopt English as a language spoken at home. The distribution of respondents according to current home language is shown in Table 3.12. The largest single group of respondents (48.78 %) currently use Afrikaans a home language while the second largest home language group is English speakers

(19.11 %). Amongst the African languages, North Sotho speakers formed the largest group (16.26 %).

Table 3.12

Respondent's Distribution by Current Home Language

Home language	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
English	47	19.10	47	19.10
Afrikaans	120	48.78	167	67.88
Zulu	6	2.44	173	70.32
Xhosa	2	.82	175	71.13
Ndebele	2	.82	177	71.95
North Sotho	40	16.26	217	88.21
South Sotho	8	3.25	225	91.46
Tsawna	5	2.03	230	93.49
Venda	8	3.25	238	96.74
Other	5	2.03	243	98.78
Unknown	3	1.22	246	100.00

Table 3.13 shows the distribution according to the language respondents spoke when growing up (mother tongue). Fifty percent of respondents (50.00%) reported Afrikaans as their mother tongue. North Sotho at 17.07% is the second highest mother tongue followed by English at 12.60%.

Figure 3.2 compares the distribution of the languages as mother tongue and as current language. Although there is a numerical decrease in the distribution of Afrikaans (it showed a 1.23% decrease from mother tongue to current language), it is still the most common language used by the sample. The distribution of English increased from 12.60% as mother tongue to 19.10% as current language. As the frequency of the usage of African languages was very low, it was decided to group all African languages together. As a result, African languages were used by 31.27 % as current home language and 36.86% as

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mother tongue. Comparing English, Afrikaans and African languages as the language currently used by respondents, Afrikaans is the most used at 48.78 %, followed by African languages at 31.27 % and then English at 19.34 %. These three languages will be used as the language variables during statistical analysis.

Table 3.13

Distribution of Respondents by Mother Tongue

Mother tongue	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
English	31	12.60	31	12.60
Afrikaans	123	5.00	154	62.60
Zulu	7	2.85	161	65.45
Xhosa	3	1.21	164	66.67
Ndebele	1	.41	165	67.07
North Sotho	42	17.07	207	84.15
South Sotho	7	2.85	214	86.99
Tswana	6	2.44	220	89.43
Venda	11	4.47	231	93.90
Other	13	5.28	244	99.19
Unknown	2	.81	246	100.00
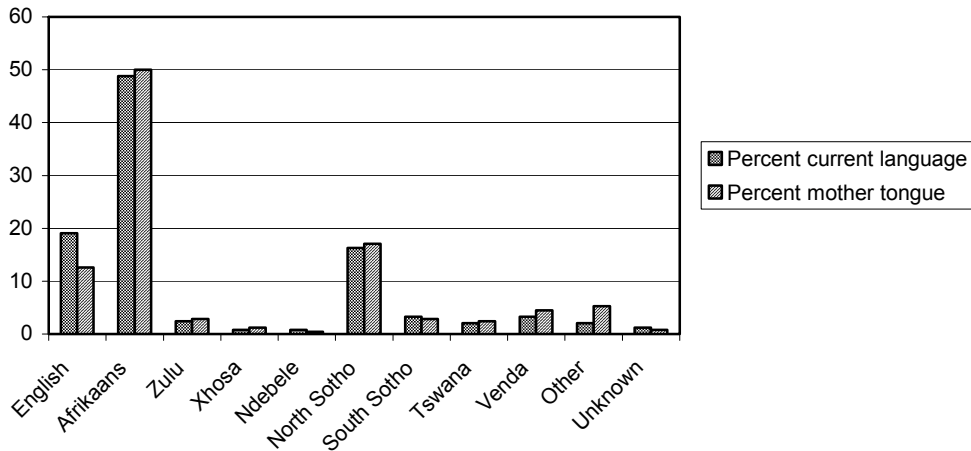
Figure 3.2. A comparison of language used as mother tongue and current home language.

Organizational characteristics. Organizational characteristics have been suggested to have an influence on work attitudes such as organizational commitment (Nijhoff et al, 1998). Respondents were therefore requested to report on the type of campus they work in, the age of the organization, the size of organization as measured by student enrolment figures, the type of academic institution, whether the institution has undergone any restructuring recently and when the restructuring happened.

Type of campus. Respondents were requested to indicate the type of campus they are working in. They choose from three options, a main campus, satellite campus or branch campus. This item was included in the questionnaire because it is assumed that an organization's decentralised structure could have an influence on organizational outcomes. The respondent's distribution is shown in Table 3.14. Approximately two-thirds of respondents came from a Main campus, a quarter came from a satellite campus and less than 10 % from a branch.

Table 3.14

Distribution of Respondents Per Type of Campus

Type of Campus	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Main	165	67.07	165	67.07
Satellite	61	24.79	226	91.86
Branch	18	7.32	244	99.19
Unknown	2	.81	246	100.00

Type of institution. The type of institution the respondents belonged to was also thought to have an influence on work attitudes. Respondents were asked to choose from previously disadvantaged Technikon, previously advantaged Technikon, previously advantaged University, and previously disadvantaged University. Previously advantaged/disadvantaged referred to the previous government's disparate funding of white and black academic institutions.

Table 3.15

Distribution of Respondents Per Type of Institution

Type of Institution	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Previously disadvantaged Technikon	39	15.85	39	15.85
Previously advantaged Technikon	128	52.03	167	67.88
Previously advantaged University	26	10.57	193	78.45
Previously disadvantaged University	45	18.29	238	96.74
Unknown	8	3.25	246	100.00

The largest single group of respondents (52.03%) came from a previously advantaged Technikon, approximately 16% from a previously disadvantaged Technikon, about 10% from a previously disadvantaged university and 18.29 % from a previously advantaged university. Overall, 67.88% of respondents came from a Technikon and 28.86 % came from a university.

Age of institution. The age of an organization, seems to have an influence on work attitudes. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate the age of their institution in years. The results are shown in Table 3.16. The institutions were all more than 10 years of age. Their ages ranged from 17 years to 103 years.

Table 3.16

Institution Size (as Indicated by Enrolment Figures) and Age of Institution

Institution	Enrolment figures	Age of institution
1	42000	23
2	12000	18
3	7000	44
4	15000	30
5	8000	23
6	33000	22
7	5000	17
8	8000	45
9	60000	55
10	6000	18
11	9000	33

Enrolment figures of institution. Respondents were asked to report the size of their institution in terms of the student enrolment figures. The reported figures were captured per institution. The results are shown in Table 3.16. The institutions from which participants came varied in size from approximately 5000

students to over 70000 in enrolment. Six (54.54%) institutions had enrolment figures of between 5000-10000 students while five (45.45%) had above 10000 students.

Type of academic institution. Respondents were asked to indicate the kind of academic institution they worked in. Three options were offered, a distance education institution (1), a full-time residential institution (2), a combination institution (3) has both a distance education component and a full time residential component. Distance education institutions are characterised by mature/older part-time students and limited contact between institutional staff and students. Staff at full time residential institutions tends to have more contact with students. It is believed that this difference might account to different levels of organizational commitment in employees. The distribution of participants over the three categories is shown in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17

Type of Academic Institution

Type of institution	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Distance education	20	8.13	20	8.13
Full-time residential	104	42.28	124	5.41
Combination (Full/part-time, residential/non-residential)	122	49.59	246	100.00

Respondents from distance education institutions made up less than 10% of the sample, respondents from full-time residential institution represented more than 40% while respondents from a combination institution, that is an institution with both a distance and residential component formed nearly half of the sample.

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Institutional restructuring. Another organizational factor that has been suggested to have an influence on organizational commitment and trust levels is whether or not the organization has undergone restructuring. Researchers have shown that restructuring, especially when accompanied by job losses, affects the levels of employee commitment and trust (Hallier & Lyon, 1996). Respondents were therefore requested to indicate whether or not their institution has recently undergone any restructuring and how recent that was. The distribution of the responses is shown in Table 3.17 and 3.18.

Table 3.18

Distribution of Respondents with Regard to Organization's Restructuring

Any restructuring	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Yes	133	54.06	133	54.06
No	107	43.49	240	97.56
Unknown	6	2.44	246	100.00

A small majority (54.06%) of respondents came from institutions that had experienced restructuring while 43.49% came from institutions that had not been restructured. Of the respondents who have experienced restructuring, more than 40% reported the restructuring had happened in the last three years. Less than 10 % reported that restructuring had happened in the past two years while a quarter experienced restructuring in the year preceding the research. The results are summarized in Table 3.19.

Table 3.19

Distribution of Respondents with Regard to the Time Their Organization Had Undergone Restructuring

When restructuring occurred	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
During the current year	34	25.00	34	25.00
In the past year	28	20.59	62	45.59
In the past 2-3 years	61	44.85	123	90.44
More than three years ago	13	9.56	136	100.00

3. 4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between organizational commitment, HRM practices, and trust and leadership styles. The following instruments were used in a survey to measure the variables in the study:

- Organizational commitment: Allen and Meyer's (1990) questionnaire
- HRM practices: a three part questionnaire made up of items from Boselie, Hesselink, Pauwe and Van der Weile's (2001) questionnaire, Snell and Dean's (1992) questionnaire and own items
- Trust: Ferres (2002) trust questionnaire
- Leadership style: Bass and Avolio's (1995) MLQ 5x

The instruments used are summarised in Table 3.20.

Table 3.20

Summary of Measuring Instruments

Research concept	Original instrument Author	Subscales	Number of items
Organizational commitment	Meyer & Allen (1991) OCS	Affective Commitment (AC)	8 items
		Normative Commitment (NC)	8 items
		Continuance Commitment (CC)	8 items
Trust	Ferres (2002)	Trust in supervisor (TS)	16
		Trust in co-worker (TC)	22
		Trust in organization (TO)	13
HRM	Boselie, Hesselink, Pauw & Van der Wiele (2001)	Promotions (PRO)	7
		Job security (JS)	4
		Information sharing (IS)	6
		Employee Participation (EP)	4
HRM	Snell & Dean (1992)	Comprehensive training (CT)	8
		Selective staffing (SS)	7
		Developmental performance appraisal (DPA)	9
		Equitable reward (ER)	8
Leadership style	Bass and Avolio (1995) MLQ x5	Transformational leadership (TRL)	Inspirational motivation: 4 Idealized Influence (behaviour): 4 Idealized influence (attributed): 4 Individualized consideration: 4 Intellectual stimulation: 4

Table 3.19 (continued)

 Summary of measuring instruments

Research concept	Original instrument Author	Subscales		Number of items
		Transactional Leadership (TXL)		Contingent reward: 4 Effectiveness: 4 Extra Effort: 3 Satisfaction: 2
		Laissez Faire Leadership (LFL)		4
		Management by (passive) (MBEP)	Exception	4
		Management by (active)(MBEA)	Exception	4
Demographic variables	Own items	Age Gender Educational level Tenure Current position Language Institution size Institution type		

3.4.1. Allen and Meyer's (1990) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

The 24-item organizational commitment scale, developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), was used to measure the dependent variable, organizational commitment. These authors report the process used in developing their scale consisting of affective, normative and continuance commitment sub-scales. They created a pool of 51 items for the scale. The scale was tested with approximately 500 employees from two manufacturing firms and a university. Clerical, managerial, and supervisory employees were represented in the sample. Females represented 57 percent of the sample. Scale items for measuring affective, normative, and continuance commitment were selected for inclusion in the scales based on a series of decision rules that took into consideration item

endorsement proportions, item-total correlations, direction of scoring and content redundancy (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

According to the rules, items were eliminated if the endorsement proportion was greater than .75, or the item correlated less with its sub-scale than with one or both of the other sub-scales, or the content of the item was redundant with respect to other items on the scale (Allen & Meyer 1990). Both positively and negatively scored items were selected. Following the application of the rules Allen and Meyer (1990) selected eight items for inclusion into each of the scales. They report the reliability of the affective commitment scale (ACS) as .87, continuance commitment scale (CCS) as .75 and for the normative commitment scale as .79. Factor analysis of the 24 items indicated that the three factors accounted for 58.8, 25.8 and 15.4 percent of the total variance, respectively. Allen and Meyer's (1990) results showed that the three commitment constructs could be reliably measured.

3.4.2. HRM Practices Questionnaire

Three different questionnaires were used to measure HRM practices. A short 8-item questionnaire was used to determine the respondent's perception of the employing organization's commitment to the HRM practices of choice. A five-point scale was used with 0 representing "very uncommitted", 3 representing unsure and 5 representing "very committed".

Snell and Dean's 1992 questionnaire was used to measure the following HRM practices: selective staffing, comprehensive training, development appraisal, and equitable rewards. Selective staffing was measured with a 7-item scale that measured the extensiveness of the organization's selection process as demonstrated by the time and money spent and the number of people involved in the selection process. An 8-item scale measured the extensiveness of training and development opportunities. The items measured such things as the frequency and variety of training, the amount of money spent on the training, and the percentage of people who had undergone training. Developmental appraisal

was measured with a 9-item scale that measured whether performance appraisal was used for developing employees. This consisted of items addressing issues such as the frequency of feedback, the diagnosis of training needs, problem solving approaches and discussing future issues. Equitable rewards were measured with an 8-item scale measuring the degree to which pay was competitive for the industry and whether it was based on individual performance. Although a 7-point Liker-type response scale was used, each item had a different formulation of the end points. For example, in one item, 1 would represent "very little" and 7 would represent "a great deal", while in another item 1 would be "not closely" and 7 would be "very closely".

Snell and Dean (1992) factor analysed these scales using principal components with varimax rotation. They report that the analyses produced five factors, which correspond with staffing, training, appraisal, equitable rewards (external) and equitable reward (individual equity). This meant that the measure for equitable reward was broken into two separate subscales that represented external and individual equity. Snell and Dean (1992) did not report fully on the construct validity of their scales.

Employee participation, Information sharing, and job insecurity were measured using items from a questionnaire developed by Boselie et al (2001). The items were scored with a 7 point likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree. Employee participation was measured by 4 items and had a Cronbach Alpha of .72. The information sharing subscale contained 6 items with a Cronbach Alpha of .72. Job insecurity was measured with 5 items with a Cronbach Alpha of .76. Seven items that were developed by the present researcher measured promotion.

3.4.3. Bass and Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Bass (1985) developed an instrument to measure both transactional and transformational leadership behavior. The resulting instrument, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), was conceptually developed and empirically validated to reflect the complementary dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership with sub-scales to further differentiate leader behavior. The initial 142-item pool for the MLQ was developed by combining a review of the literature with an open-ended survey asking 70 executives for their descriptions of attributes of transformational and transactional leaders. The 142 items were categorized into either transformational, transactional or "can't say" by 11 MBA and social science students. The final questionnaire contained 73 items. The MLQ has since acquired a history of research as the primary quantitative instrument to measure the transformational leadership construct.

Since it was first used, the MLQ has undergone several revisions. These have been done in an attempt to address concerns about its psychometric properties (Avolio et al, 1995). The current version of MLQ, the MLQ Form 5X was developed based on the results of previous research using earlier versions and confirmatory factor analyses (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). The MLQ 5X was developed in response to criticisms of the original MLQ 5R. The MLQ 5X is composed of behavioural items for the following leadership styles: transformational, transactional, laissez faire and management by-exception. The transformational leadership style is divided into idealized charismatic behaviours and attributions. Factors representing transformational leadership include idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. Transactional leadership was represented by two factors called contingent rewards and management-by-exception. Management-by-exception is divided into Management-by-Exception-Active (MBEA) and Management-by-Exception-Passive (MBEP). As a result, the MLQ 5X contains nine factors.

In the MLQ 5X, transformational leadership is measured by 20 items made up of Inspirational motivation (4 items), Idealized Influence (behaviour)(4 items), Idealized influence (attributed) (4 items), Individualized consideration (4 items) and Intellectual stimulation (4 items). Transactional Leadership (TXL) is measured by 12 items made up of Contingent reward (4 items), Management by Exception (passive) (MBEP) (4 items) and Management by Exception (active)(MBEA) (4 items) Laissez Faire Leadership (LFL) is measured by 4 items. In addition, there are nine items that measure leadership outcomes. These are: Effectiveness (4 items), Extra Effort (3 items), and Satisfaction (2 items). The MLQ 5X therefore contains 45 items; there are 36 items that represent the nine leadership factors and 9 items that assess three leadership outcome scales.

Tepper and Percy (1994) investigated the latent structure of the multifactor leadership questionnaire. Their investigation revealed two areas of concern regarding the structural validity of the MLQ. First, they found that models that contained items measuring management by exception (passive and active) did not indicate a good fit with the data. They also found the charismatic and inspirational leadership scales failed to display convincing evidence of discriminant validity from each other. They then recommended that the MLQ be refined further before it is employed in further studies.

In response to the concerns raised about the MLQ, Avolio et al (1995) and Avolio et al (1999) used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on a large pool of data (N= 1394), in order to provide evidence for the construct validity of the MLQ 5X. According to them, the MLQ 5X scales exhibited high internal consistency and factor loadings. They reported reliabilities for total items and for each leadership factor scale that ranged from .74 to .94. Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman (1997) also tested the factor structure of the MLQ in a Dutch organization. The results of their factor analysis show that although transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership can be found in the data, the scales found are slightly different from Bass' scale.

However, Tejeda, Scandura and Pillai (2001) confirmed the validity of the MLQ 5X. Using four different samples, Tejeda et al (2001) found internal

consistency coefficients (Cronbach Alphas) of between .85 and .90 for attributed charisma; between .86 and .91 for idealised influence; between 89 and .94 for inspirational leadership; between .86 and .91 for intellectual stimulation; between .86 and .93 for individual consideration; between .84 and .88 for contingent reward; between .69 and .79 for management by exception (active); between .82 and .90 for management by exception (passive) and .72 - .88 for the non-leadership scale. Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam (2003) also confirmed the nine-factor leadership model proposed by Bass and Avolio.

3.4.4. Organizational Trust Questionnaire

Organizational trust was measured using a 51-item questionnaire composed by Ferres, Travaglione, Munro, Albercht and Boshoff (2001). A seven point Likert scale items with 1 = strongly disagree, 4= Undecided, and 7 = strongly agree. Ferres et al (2001) used data from two samples, a South African sample and an Australian sample, to determine the psychometric properties of the trust questionnaire. With the Australian sample, they found a two-factor structure with Factor 1 containing 28 items and Factor 2 with 20 items. The two factors had Cronbach Alphas of .98 and .96 respectively. Data from the South African sample gave a three-factor structure. Factor 1 contained 19 items (Cronbach Alpha = .97), Factor 2 contained 18 items (Cronbach Alpha = .94) and Factor 3 contained 6 items (Cronbach Alpha = .90). Ferres et al (2001) named these factors, trust in organization, trust in co-workers and trust in supervisors, respectively. Factor analyses of the trust scale indicated that the three factors accounted for 48.8, 5.41 and 5.48 percent of the total variance, respectively.

3.5 PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

3.5.1. Questionnaire administration

A self-administered questionnaire was developed by combining six separate instruments. A section on demographics was added for gathering background, personal and organizational information. The questionnaire was a pencil-and-paper instrument. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study to the prospective respondent. General instructions on completing the questionnaire and the importance of completing all questions were included. The covering letter also explained why it was important that the potential respondent personally completed the questionnaire.

In order not to confuse the respondents, the different instruments were separated into sections. According to Babbie's (1998) recommendations, short instructions were given at the beginning of each section. The Allen and Meyer (1990) questionnaire was placed at the start of the instrument. It was followed by the Ferres et al's (2001) trust questionnaire, the HRM questionnaire (made up of items from Boselie et al' (Section C), Snell and Dean's (1992) (Section D) and own items (Section E). Section F contained the MLQ questionnaire. Items regarding personal information and organizational information were placed at the end of the measuring instrument.

The questionnaire was pre-tested using a few (n = 5) non-academics from two of the participating institutions. These individuals were not included in the final sample. The qualitative comments received were mostly regarding wording, construct validity, and length of the questionnaire. Since the questionnaire was compiled from pre-existing scales that were standardized, the length of the questionnaire could not be changed. The word organization used in most items was replaced with "institution", unit with "department" or "faculty" where

appropriate. Apart from this, the items were not modified in any way. The original author's wording and response scale were maintained.

A letter to request permission to use academic staff members as respondents in the study was sent to all the heads of the 36 institutions of higher education. Only 11 of the 36 institutions gave permission. That amounted to 27.8% of the 36 institutions. Once permission was obtained, the questionnaire was sent by courier mail to a lead contact person at the different faculties of the institutions. The lead contact person's responsibility was to distribute and collect the questionnaire. Eight hundred questionnaires were sent out. The completed questionnaires were then sent back to the researcher either by post or courier mail. Every two weeks, an e-mail reminder was sent to the lead contact person who then reminded the respondents by telephone to complete and return the questionnaires.

3.5.2. Handling of returned questionnaires and data

The returned questionnaires were coded and the raw data entered into a generic processing program. As the data was collected through a self-response questionnaire, it was not possible for the researcher to ensure that the respondents answered all survey items. There were a few questionnaires with some unanswered items. According to Roth and Switzer, (1995) missing data causes two major problems. First, missing data reduce statistical power as it increases the size of the sample needed for the statistical test to be accurate. Statistical power refers to the ability of an analytic technique to detect a significant effect in a data set (Roth & Switzer, 1995). Secondly, missing data affects the accuracy of estimating parameters. According to Roth and Switzer (1995) accuracy refers to both the amount of dispersion around a true score in a study and the over or underestimation of a true score in a study. They argue that missing data may increase the variance around true scores because there is less data to analyse in the sample.

The literature provides several guidelines in dealing with missing data. These include among others listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, mean substitution, regression imputation, and hot-deck imputation (Roth & Switzer, 1995). Listwise deletion eliminates all the data for an individual when there is any missing data. Pairwise deletion eliminates information on a statistic-by-statistic basis. Mean substitution inserts the mean value of a variable in the place of the missing value. This approach saves a great deal of data that listwise deletion eliminates. It also saves more data than pairwise deletion. Regression imputation uses related variables to estimate or impute missing values. Hot deck imputation replaces missing score with a real score from a similar individual. In this study, a two-step process was followed to deal with missing data. First, listwise deletion was used where more than five consecutive items or an entire section missed data. This resulted with only 246 questionnaires being retained. In the second step, missing items were entered as the mean value of the particular scale. This was "sometimes", "unsure" or "undecided" depending on the scale. As a result, two hundred and forty six (246) questionnaires were usable, providing a return rate of 28.9 % percent.

The response rate of 28.9% is low when compared to guidelines in the literature. Babbie (1998) suggests that a 50 % response rate is adequate, a 60 % is considered good while a 70 % response rate is considered very good. A low response rate is not acceptable, as many survey researchers have found that responses obtained from a small portion of a sample cannot be generalized to the sample (Roth & BeVier, 1998). This leads to concerns regarding the external validity of the study. The low response rate in this study was despite the use of a lead contact within the institution and follow-ups as efforts to enhance the response rate.

There are multiple reasons that can be attributed to the low response rate. The first is the length of the questionnaire. The length of the questionnaire is commonly believed to reduce response rates (Roth & BeVier, 1998). Frochlich (2002) suggests that a questionnaire length of 40-50 items spread at 10-12 items over four-five pages would elicit high response rates. He argues that if a survey

is under four or five pages, resistance to participate would be lower and the response rate higher. The questionnaire used in the study was 18 pages long and contained four different instruments with multiple items. The negative influence of the length of the questionnaire was indicated by the comments on some of the questionnaires that were returned incomplete. The present researcher could not alter carefully developed instruments and as such, the length of the questionnaire, could not be reduced by eliminating items.

Another reason for the low response rate could be the attitude of the sample group. This research used employees in academic institutions. These employees could possibly be over researched/sampled by other researchers to an extent that they have been unwilling to participate (Frohlich, 2002). It could also be that employees in academic institutions have less free time to respond to surveys for reasons ranging from expanded responsibilities and being busy with their own research.

Roth and BeVier (1998) suggest that the nature of the sample might have an influence on the response rate. They suggest that where the sample was drawn across many institutions, the response rate might be low. They argue that workers who are sampled within a single organization might be more likely to respond to surveys than those sampled across organizations. Another reason for the low response rate could be that the contact leads at the respective institutions failed to deliver the questionnaires to prospective respondents or that they did not make follow-ups.

The response rate is important in that it is an indication of the success of a survey research study (Roth & BeVries, 1998; Frohlich, 2002). According to Frohlich (2002), response rates are important for three reasons. First, a high non-response rate is associated with a real risk that the data will be biased. If the data is biased, there is a risk that the low responses might only reflect the perspective of certain types of academic institutions and not all institutions in the country. Second, many statistical tests require a suitable number of cases. For example, Frohlich (2002) attests that at least 10 degrees of freedom are generally required for each variable in a Multiple Regression model to achieve sufficient statistical

power. Finally, high response rates are an indirect indication of relevance and rigor of a study in the eyes of the respondents. Respondents are more likely to return a questionnaire if they perceive that the study is important and warrants their cooperation.

3.6 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis of the data was done at the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria. The researcher, the study promoter, co-promoter, and a statistics practitioner were involved in the planning and execution of the analysis. The SAS package was used to perform the required calculations.

Since the researcher used instruments that have been developed and validated with samples other than South Africans and in addition, some of the instruments, for example, the Snell and Dean (1992) questionnaire did not have sufficient psychometric information available, the researcher was obliged to validate the instruments, as their portability was not guaranteed. Validation of an instrument requires that the researcher determine the construct validity of the measures. Determining the construct validity of the measures is very important as any attempt to correctly identify significant relationships among variables depends on our ability to correctly measure the variables. O'Leary-Kelly and Vorkuka (1998) indicate that studies in which measures are flawed lead to erroneous conclusions.

Factor analysis was found to be the most popular method in the literature for determining construct validity. Factor analysis was used to revalidate the structure and internal reliability of the instruments used. When used to determine construct validity, factor analysis is usually a two-step process, Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (O`Learry-Kelly & Vorkuka, 1998; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).   According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000),

Exploratory Factor Analysis is used to determine the underlying factor structure of a set of data or a construct when one has obtained measures on a number of variables and wants to identify the number and nature of the underlying factors. It offers a means of examining the interrelationships among the items of a scale that are used to reveal the clusters of items that have sufficient common variation to justify their grouping together as a factor. This process condenses a group of items into a smaller set of composite factors with a minimum loss of information. The second stage of factor analysis, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis stage is used to test propositions about item groupings and the construct.

The procedure for factor analysis followed was as explained by Schriesheim and Eisenbach (1995). First, reverse-scored items were properly scored. Then a Pearson product-moment correlation matrix was computed and a principal axis factor analysis undertaken with R^2s as initial communality estimates. The Eigenvalue greater than 1.00 rule and the Scree test were used to determine the number of appropriate factors to extract. The Scree test was used to determine "Clear" breaks between the Eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Once the number of potential factors was determined, a Principal Factor Analysis was done according to the number of determined factors. The extracted factors were then subjected to Direct Quartimin rotation. As it is commonly done, items that do not load $\geq$ .25 on any factor in any solution and those items loading $\geq$ .25 on more than one factor and the difference in loadings was less than .25 in any of the solutions were identified and left out of the following round of the analysis. The process was repeated until no "problematic" items remain on any factor according to the described evaluative procedure. After the Exploratory Factor Analysis, items are either discarded or retained for interpretation.

Once the underlying structure of a set of data has been obtained, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to determine how well the obtained structure(that is the measurement model) fits the data. Confirmatory Factor Analysis represents the actual testing of hypotheses about the structures underlying responses to individual items on the instrument (Schriesheim & Eisenbach, 1995). In CFA, hypotheses about specified factors and how the

factors are arranged in a larger model and how much of an underlying construct the factors can explain are tested.

Once the factor structures of the various instruments were established, the next step was to determine the relationships of the demographic variables and organizational commitment. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was the procedure of choice to determine the relationships. ANOVA requires that the sample from which the data is obtained be drawn from a normally distributed population.

3.6.1. Factor structure of the Organizational Commitment scale

In order to determine the psychometric properties of Allen and Meyer's (1990) organizational commitment scale, the factor analysis procedure described in section 3.5 was followed. An analysis of the total 24 items identified seven (7) Eigenvalues of >1.00 and the Scree test suggested that it was possible to extract up to six factors. The Eigenvalues of the factors that are >1.00 were 4.575, 2.973, 1.746, 1.307, 1.144, 1.032, and 1.008 respectively. The Scree test showed a "clear" break between Eigenvalues 1 and 2; Eigenvalues 2 and 3; Eigenvalues 3 and 4; Eigenvalues 4 and 5; and Eigenvalues 5 and 6. The break between Eigenvalues 6 and 7 was not clear. It was then decided to analyse 1 to 7 factor structures.

In the one-factor structure analysis of Allen and Meyer (1990)'s organizational commitment scale, eight items were eliminated and the remaining sixteen items satisfactorily loaded onto the one factor with loading values ranging from .266 to .805. The two-factor solution retained 19 items while five items were eliminated. Thirteen items with factor loadings ranging from .254 to .814 loaded onto factor 1, while six items with factor loadings that ranged from .406 to .605 loaded on factor 2. The Cronbach Alphas of the factors are .80 and .71 respectively. Factor 1 explained 18.45% of the total variance and factor 2 explained 10.60% of the total variance. Factor 1 contributed 63.49 % to the

common variance while Factor 2 contributed 36.51%. The two factors have a low inter-factor correlation of .019.

The three-factor structure results of the organizational commitment scale are shown in Table 3.20. Nineteen items were retained with eight of those loading on Factor 1, five items on Factor 2, and six items on Factor 3.

Table 3.21

Three Factor Rotated Structure of Organizational Commitment Scale (N=246)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
A13	.795		
A8	.665		
A16	.635		
A6	.615		
A2	.511		
A11	.415		
A23	.385		
A3	.269		
A9		.699	
A15		.666	
A14		.636	
A10		.513	
A12		.311	
A5			.578
A21			.449
A4			.421
A24			.415
A17			.402
A19			.304
Cronbach Alpha	.73	.63	.61
Total Variance explained	18.65%	9.36%	5.07%
Common Variance explained	56.37%	28.31%	15.32%

The Cronbach alphas of the factors are .73, .63 and .61, respectively. Factor 1 explained 18.65% of the variance in data space and 56.37% of the common variance. Factor 2 explained 9.36 % of variance in data space and 28.31% of common variance while Factor 3 explained 5.07% of variance in data space and 15.32% of common variance. The three factors have low inter-factor

correlations that range from – .041 to .281. The inter-correlations between the three factors are shown in Table 3.21.

Table 3.22

Factor Correlations for a Three-factor Rotated Structure of OCS (N= 246)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	1.000		
Factor 2	-.034	1.000	
Factor 3	.281	-.041	1.000

The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the one-, two-, and three-factor solutions are shown in Table 3.23. A comparison of the one-, two- and three-factor solution CFA indices indicate that the three-factor solution of the organizational commitment scale best approximates the factor structure of the original authors. The three factors were named factor 1: Affective Commitment, factor 2: Continuance Commitment and factor 3: Normative Commitment, according to the original author's nomenclature.

3.6.2. Factor structure of the HRM practices scale

The HRM scale was made up of three sections, Section C with items from Boselie et al (2001), Section D items from Snell and Dean (1992), and Section E with own items. As the scales used different response scales, the scales were treated as separate questionnaires when determining their psychometric properties.

Table 3.23

<u>Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Organizational Commitment Scale</u>
<u>(N =246)</u>

Indices	1 Factor Structure	2 Factor Structure	3 Factor Structure
Fit function	.0612	.3499	.1659
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.9723	.8952	.9534
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.8615	.8165	.8912
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0383	.3290	.0626
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.3241	.7161	.5448
Chi-Square (df =; p > Chi Square)	14.9835 (2; .0006)	85.7230(12; < .0001)	4.6377(12; < .0001)
Independence model Chi-Square (df)	302.44 (6)	33.21 (15)	413.33 (21)
RMSEA Estimate (90% CI)	.1628(.0925-.2442)	.1584(.1278-.1907)	.0987(.0664-.1329)
ECVI Estimate (90 % CI)	.1278(.0918-.1949)	.4255(.3194-.5631)	.3009(.2363-.3976)
Probability of Close Fit	.0057	.0000	.0085
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	.9562	.7661	.9270
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	13.9638	75.8060	41.9429
Akaike's Information Criterion	1.9835	61.7230	16.6377
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	1.9728	7.6591	-37.4262
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	3.9728	19.6591	-25.4262
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.9740	.8608	.9435
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.8686	.7076	.8723
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.9505	.7404	.9017
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.3168	.5923	.5152
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	3.2035	6.9402	3.8228
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.8514	.6755	.8279
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.9568	.7683	.9286
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	99	62	128

An analysis of the total 22 items in Section C identified five (5) Eigenvalues of >1.00 and the Scree test suggested that it was possible to extract up to five factors. The Eigenvalues of the factors that are >1.00 were 6.552, 2.417, 1.632, 1.225, and 1.064 respectively. The Scree test showed a break between Eigenvalues 1 and 2; Eigenvalues 2 and 3; Eigenvalues 3 and 4; and Eigenvalues 4 and 5. This suggested that there are possibly five factors in the scale. The same rules as described in the factor analysis of the organizational commitment scale were followed in determining which items are excluded or retained.

Four items were eliminated in the one-factor solution. The one factor scale has a Cronbach Alpha of .89 and explains 32.02 % of the total variance. In the two-factor analysis of Boselie et al (2001)'s scale, two items were eliminated. Sixteen items loaded onto factor 1 with factor loadings ranging from .287 to .782 while four items loaded onto factor 2 with loadings ranging from .403 to .901. The Cronbach Alphas of the factors were .89 and .77 respectively. Factor 1 explained 24.86 % of the variance and 64.56 % of the common variance while, Factor 2 explained 13.65 % of the total variance and contributed 35.44 % to the common variance. The factors are not inter-correlated as the inter-factor correlation is .180. Only two items were eliminated from the three-factor structure of the Boselie et al (2001) scale. The three factors have Cronbach Alphas of .83, .76 and .74 respectively. The Factor Analysis results are shown in Table 3.24. Factor 1 explained 23.16 % of the total variance, while Factors 2 and 3 explained 13.69% and 5.24 % respectively. The factors contributed 55.01%, 32.53% and 12.46%, respectively to the common variance.

Table 3.24

Three-factor Rotated Structure of Boselie et al's scale (N=246)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
C17	.630		
C12	.629		
C20	.620		
C4	.581		
C19	.565		
C7	.534		
C21	.490		
C15	.469		
C8	.445		
C22	.330		
C14		.908	
C11		.890	
C9		.547	
C6		.418	
C3		.315	
C2			.744
C5			.679
C10			.643
C1			.402
C16			.339
Cronbach Alpha	.83	.76	.74
Total Variance explained	23.16%	13.69%	5.24%
Common Variance explained	55.01%	32.53%	12.46%

The three factors showed a low inter correlation. Table 3.25 shows the results of the inter-factor correlations of the three factors. Factor 1 and Factor 2 have an inter-correlation of .192; Factors 1 and 3 have .406, while Factors 2 and 3 have .200. A four-factor structure was abandoned as only one item loaded onto factor 4.

Table 3.25

<u>Inter-factor Correlations of the Three-factor Structure of the Boselie et al (2001)'s</u>
<u>Scale</u>

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	1.000		
Factor 2	.192	1.000	
Factor 3	.406	.200	1.000

The one-, two-, and three-factor solutions were subjected to Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis are shown in Table 3.26. Although the goodness of fit indices of the two-factor solution seem better, interpretation of the factors will be difficult as factor 1 loaded equal amounts of items that measured information sharing, promotion opportunities and equitable rewards. The three-factor solution was thus preferred as it extracted more factors that are distinct and interpretable. The three factors were named Factor 1: Information sharing/employee sharing, Factor 2: job insecurity and Factor 3: promotion opportunities, respectively.

Table 3.26

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Boselie et al's Scale for HRM (N =246)

Indices	1 Factor Structure	2 Factor Structure	3 Factor Structure
Fit function	.0702	.1525	.2113
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.9757	.9649	.9636
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.9271	.9335	.9414
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0312	.0412	.0451
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.4878	.6548	.7183
Chi-Square (df =; Chi square)	17.2031 (5; .0041)	37.3631 (19; .0071)	51.7638 (41; .1209)
Independence model Chi-Square (df)	58.63(10)	932.08(28)	1049.3(55)
RMSEA Estimate (90% CI)	.0998(.0509-.1533)	.0628(.0320-.0924)	.0327(. -.0576)
ECVI Estimate (90% CI)	.1539(.1169-.2226)	.2966(.2408-.3854)	.4249(. -.5195)
Probability of Close Fit	.0474	.2186	.8595
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	.9786	.9797	.9892
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	15.2607	35.6457	5.8655
Akaike's Information Criterion	7.2031	-.6369	-3.2362
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-15.3235	-86.2382	-214. 9548
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-1.3235	-67.2382	-173. 9548
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.9755	.9634	.9784
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.9572	.9701	.9855
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.9704	.9599	.9507
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.4852	.6514	.7087
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	2.6283	2.4461	1.1712
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.9407	.9409	.9338
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.9788	.9799	.9893
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	159	199	271

An analysis of the 32 items in the Snell and Dean (1992) scale for HRM practices rendered seven Eigenvalues > 1.0. The Eigenvalues were 11.094, 1.903, 1.612, 1.426, 1.232, 1.173 and 1.050. The Scree test showed a clear break between Eigenvalues 1 and 2; Eigenvalues 2 and 3; Eigenvalues 3 and 4; and Eigenvalues 4 and 5. The break between Eigenvalues 5 and 6 was not clear while that between 6 and 7 was clear. This suggests that probably six factors can be extracted. The results of the two-factor solution for the Snell and Dean's scale are shown in table 3.27.

Table 3.27

Two-factor Rotated Structure of Snell and Dean (1992) Scale (N = 246)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
D9	.858	
D3	.848	
D14	.782	
D11	.723	
D30	.679	
D25	.613	
D22	.612	
D17	.442	
D16	.392	
D10	.293	
D24		.814
D31		.730
D20		.700
D15		.656
D12		.601
D8	.285	.552
D26		.541
D32		.517
D7		.510
D27		.472
D28		.435
D5		.319
Cronbach Alpha	.88	.86
Total Variance explained	36.18%	6.03%
Common Variance explained	85.71%	14.29%

Following the common rules for factor elimination and retention, the one-factor structure eliminated four items. Thus, 28 items were retained in the final one-factor structure. In the two-factor structure of Snell and Dean's (1992) scale, seven items were eliminated. The Cronbach Alphas of the factors in the two-factor solution were .89 and .77 respectively. Factor 1 explained 36.18 % of the variance and 85.71 % of the common variance while, Factor 2 explained 6.03 % and contributed 14.29 % to the common variance. A three-factor structure was abandoned as only one item loaded onto Factor 3.

The two factors showed a rather high inter correlation of .657. A three-factor structure was abandoned as only one item loaded onto factor 3.

The one- and two-factor solutions were subject to Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis are shown in Table 3.28. The two-factor solution was preferred as it showed a better fit with the data. The two factors were named Factor 1: Comprehensive training and Factor 2: Staff selection, development and retention. Factor 2 was made up of items that represented selective staffing practices, developmental performance appraisal and equitable rewards. Selecting appropriate staff and providing developmental opportunities and rewarding them equitably seem to be indicative of an organization that is committed to its employees.

Table 3.28

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Snell and Dean's HRM scale (N =246)

Indices	1 Factor Structure	2 Factor Structure
Fit function	.1600	.0859
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.9553	.9770
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.9106	.9505
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0287	.0292
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.6369	.6048
Chi-Square (df=; p >chi-square)	39.2020(14; .0003)	21.0348 (13; .0722)
Independence model Chi-Square	1266.9(21)	949.82 (21)
RMSEA Estimate (90 % CI)	.0857(.0546- .1181)	.0502 (.0 - .0880
ECVI Estimate (90% CI)	.2782(.2166- .3720)	.2124 (.0 - .2815)
Probability of Close Fit	.0314	.4514
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	.9798	.9913
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	4.1437	2.1891
Akaike's Information Criterion	11.2020	-4.9652
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-51.8726	-63.5345
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-37.8726	-5.5345
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.9501	.9838
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.9697	.9860
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.9691	.9779
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.6460	.6053
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	3.3762	1.4615
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.9536	.9642
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.9799	.9914
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	150	262

In addition to the HRM subscales, the respondent's overall perception of the institution's commitment to certain HRM practices was measured. The Scree test showed one factor, with an Eigenvalue of 4.794. All eight items loaded satisfactorily on the one factor with factor loading values that ranged from .573 to .822. The factor explained 43.59% of the variance. The factor analysis results are shown in Table 3.29.

Table 3.29

<u>One factor Structure of the Commitment to HRM Practices Scale</u>

Item	Factor loading
E7	.822
E8	.820
E5	.736
E2	.725
E4	.724
E3	.718
E1	.713
E6	.573
Cronbach Alpha	.90
Variance Explained	43.59%

This factor is labeled Perceptions of HRM. It was not regarded as feasible to do a confirmatory factor analysis on a one-factor, eight-item scale.

3.6.3. Factor structure of the Trust scale

In order to determine the psychometric properties of Ferres (2002) trust scale when applied to the research sample, the factor analysis procedure described in 3.5 was followed. An analysis of the total 51 items identified eight (8) Eigenvalues of >1.00 and the Scree test suggested that it was possible to extract up to seven factors. The Eigenvalues of the factors that are >1.00 were 22.038, 3.703, 2.635, 2.363, 1.528, 1.296, 1.109 and 1.018, respectively. The Scree test showed a break between Eigenvalues 1 and 2; Eigenvalues 2 and 3; Eigenvalues 3 and 4; Eigenvalues 4 and 5; Eigenvalues 5 and 6; and Eigenvalues 6 and 7. The break between Eigenvalues 7 and 8 was not clear. It was then decided to extract 1 to 8 factor structures.

Table 3.30

Two-factor Structure of the Trust Scale (N=246)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
B16	.897	
B17	.865	
B23	.824	
B15	.820	
B21	.791	
B20	.786	
B13	.777	
B50	.753	
B45	.743	
B8	.722	
B25	.714	
B33	.706	
B18	.706	
B40	.694	
B29	.694	
B36	.692	
B31	.686	
B14	.678	
B51	.673	
B46	.670	
B27	.663	
B38	.656	
B11	.625	
B43	.609	
B7	.604	
B9	.567	
B6	.449	
B35		.787
B34		.775
B44		.773
B42		.771
B39		.712
B47		.686
B48		.677
B12		.677
B32		.676
B37		.641
B24		.620
B49		.574
B41		.547
B30		.488
B1		.421
B5		.360
B2		.308
B4		.288
B3		.255
Cronbach Alpha	.97	.92
Total Variance explained	41.59%	6.83%
Common Variance Explained	85.91%	14.09%

The results of the one factor structure analysis resulted with 49 items being retained. Three items were eliminated as they had factor loadings of <. 25. The Cronbach Alpha of the one factor structure was .98. In the two-factor structure analysis of Ferres (2002) questionnaire, five items were eliminated. Factor 1 explained 41.59% of the total variance while factor 2 explained 6.83%. Factor 1 was made up of twenty-seven items and factor 2 has nineteen items. Factor 1 contributed 85.91% of the common variance while factor 2 contributed 14.09%. The Cronbach Alphas of the factors were .97 and .92 respectively. The two-factor solution of the organizational trust questionnaire is shown as Table 3.30 in page 143. Fourty-seven of the fifty-one items in the trust scale were retained when a three-factor analysis was done. Factor 1 was made up of eighteen items; factor 2 had twenty items while factor 3 had nine items. Factor 1, factor 2 and factor 3 explained 41.29 %; 6.32% and 5.54% of the total variance in data space, respectively. A four-factor structure was abandoned as only one item loaded onto factor 4.

The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the organizational trust scale are shown in Table 3.31. The two factor solution showed better goodness of fit indices. The two factors were named Factor 1: trust in supervisor and organization, and Factor 2: trust in co-workers. The two factors showed a moderate inter-correlation of .624

Table 3.31

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Trust scale (N =246)

Indices	1 Factor Structure	2 Factor Structure	3 Factor Structure
Fit function	1.2945	1.1004	1.5352
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.8162	.8425	.7984
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.7427	.7682	.7041
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0382	.0428	.0581
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.6802	.6766	.6346
Chi-Square (df =; chi square)	317.1514 (65; < .0001)	296.6020(53; < .0001)	376.1272(62; < .0001)
Independence model Chi-Square	3281.4 (78)	2786.7(66)	3103.9(78)
RMSEA Estimate (90% CI)	.1258(.1122 – .1399)	.1292(.1141-.1447)	.1438(.1300-.1580)
ECVI Estimate (90% CI)	1.5196(1.3032 – 1.7686)	1.3159 (1.1175 – 1.5469)	1.7863(1.5462-2.0590)
Probability of Close Fit	.0000	.0000	.0000
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	.9213	.9204	.8962
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	358.5093	274.7896	402.1280
Akaike's Information Criterion	187.1514	163.6020	252.1272
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-105.6952	-75.1806	-27.2033
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-4.6952	-22.1806	34.7967
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.5990	.6439	.5281
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.9055	.9009	.8694
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.9034	.9033	.8788
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.7528	.7253	.6986
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	11.9636	11.1812	13.8203
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.8840	.8795	.8476
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.9216	.9208	.8967
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	67	66	55

3.6.4. Factor structure of the Multifactor Leadership scale

In order to validate the psychometric properties of Bass and Avolio's (1995) MLQ scale when applied to the research sample, the factor analysis procedure described in 3.5 was followed. An analysis of the total 45 items identified seven (7) Eigenvalues of >1.00 and the Scree test suggested that it was possible to extract up to five factors. The Eigenvalues of the factors that are >1.00 were 2.600, 3.247, 1.859, 1.327, 1.181, 1.038 and 1.008, respectively. The Scree test showed a break between Eigenvalues 1 and 2; Eigenvalues 2 and 3; Eigenvalues 3 and 4; and Eigenvalues 5 and 6. The breaks between Eigenvalues 4 and 5; and Eigenvalues 6 and 7 were not clear. This suggests a possible five factors.

The results of the one-factor structure analysis resulted in 39 items being retained. Six items were eliminated as they had factor loadings of <. 25. The Cronbach Alpha of the one factor structure was .97. In the two-factor structure, eight items were eliminated. These items loaded onto both factors with loadings greater than .25.

In the three-factor structure, Factor 1 explained 48.37% of the total variance in data space and 87.22% of the common variance. Factor 2 explained 4.28% of the total variance and 7.72% of common variance while Factor 3 explained 2.81% of the total variance and 8.49% of the common variance. The Cronbach alphas of the factors were .97, .60, .63, respectively. The three-factor solution is shown in Table 3.32.

Table 3.32

Three factor Rotated Structure of Bass and Avolio's MLQ Scale (N = 246)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
F48	.920		
F42	.917		
F44	.892		
F38	.882		
F40	.871		
F21	.869		
F37	.859		
F35	.825		
F18	.815		
F31	.812		
F10	.812		
F36	.797		
F43	.792		
F30	.785		
F19	.780		
F32	.754		
F1	.736		
F45	.734		
F34	.728		
F23	.721		
F29	.717		
F26	.703		
F14	.681		
F15	.672		
F39	.671		
F2	.661		
F16	.643		
F13	.630		
F11	.602		
F9	.597		
F8	.549		
F5	.317	.635	
F28		.541	
F3		.456	
F33		.460	
F24			.479
F27			.395
F4			.252
F17		-.406	
Cronbach Alpha	.97	.60	.63
Total Variance explained	48.37%	4.28%	2.81%
Common Variance explained	87.22%	7.72	5.06%

The three factors had low inter-correlations. Table 3.33 shows the results of the inter-factor correlations of the three factors of Bass and Avolio's MLQ. Factor 1 and Factor 2 have an inter-correlation of .244; Factors 1 and 3 have .119, while Factors 2 and 3 have – .141. A four-factor structure was abandoned as only one item loaded onto factor 4.

Table 3.33

Inter-correlations of the Rotated Three Factors of Bass and Avolio's MLQ Scale (N= 246)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	1.000		
Factor 2	.244	1.000	
Factor 3	.119	-.141	1.000

The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the one-, and three-factor solution of Bass and Avolio's MLQ scale are shown in Table 3.34. A comparison of the CFA results indicates the three-factor solution to have a better fit with the data. The three-factor solution was therefore selected for further statistical analysis. The three factors were named Factor 1: transformational/transactional leadership, Factor 2: passive leadership, Factor 3: active management by exception. Transformation and transactional leadership items loaded together into a single factor. This is possibly consistent with the view that transformational and transactional leadership are opposite ends of a continuum and that they are complementary of each other. These results are consistent with Bass (1985) and suggest that the same leader may exhibit both transformational and transactional leadership qualities. The factor structure is however quite different from that obtained by the developers of the scale.

Table 3.34

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Bass and Avolio's MLQ Scale (N =246)

Indices	1Factor Structure	3 Factor Structure
Fit function	.7504	.6095
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.8806	.9185
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.8124	.8804
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0641	.0473
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.6849	.7301
Chi-Square (df =; chi square)	183.8486(35; < .0001)	149.3322(62; < .0001)
Independence model Chi-Square	2555.0(55)	2823.5(78)
RMSEA Estimate (90% CI)	.1318(.1133-.1508)	.0758(.0604-.0914)
ECVI Estimate (90% CI)	.9213(.7604-1.1145)	.8606(.7278-1.0268)
Probability of Close Fit	.0000	.0039
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	.9407	.9682
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	166.0606	141.2750
Akaike's Information Criterion	113.8486	25.3322
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-43.8380	-253.9984
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-8.8380	-191.9984
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.7389	.8374
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.9238	.9600
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.9280	.9471
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.7218	.7528
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	9.3456	5.7467
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.9075	.9335
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.9409	.9684
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	68	135

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a description of the research methodology used in this study: the participants of the study, the research instruments, and the procedure of data collection and data analysis. The psychometric properties of the research instruments used in the study were reported.

The Meyer and Allen (1991) questionnaire was factor analysed to reveal three factors, which corresponded with the authors' original factors. The factors were named Affective Commitment; Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment. The HRM questionnaire's factor analysis resulted with six factors. These factors were: Information Sharing, Promotions Opportunities, Job Insecurity; Comprehensive Training; Performance and Equitable Rewards and Commitment to HRM practices. Selective Staffing and Employee Participation were not extracted with this sample.

Although a three-factor solution was obtained for the Ferres et al (2001) trust questionnaire, the two-factor solution was selected as it gave a better though only a reasonable fit with the data. The two factors were named Trust in Supervisor and Organization and Trust in Co-worker. Factor analysis of Bass and Avolio's (1995) 5X MLQ questionnaire resulted with three factors instead of the expected five. The factors were named Transformational/Transactional Leadership; Laissez Faire Leadership and Management by Exception (active). These factors will be used for further analysis in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this research was to model the relationships between organizational commitment, HRM practices, leadership styles and trust. A secondary aim was to explore the relationship of demographic variables peculiar to academic institutions on the different types of organizational commitment. To accomplish these purposes the study was designed to explore these questions:

1) What is the relationship between demographic variables and organizational commitment?
2) What is the inter-relationship between HRM practices, leadership style, organizational trust and organizational commitment?
3) To what degree do specific subscales predict organizational commitment subscales and total organizational commitment?
4) Can a structural equations model be built regressing HRM practices, leadership style and organizational trust on organizational commitment as a dependent variable?

The psychometrically defined variables as well as the demographic variables to be used in further analyses, aimed at finding answers to the four research questions are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Variables Included in the Analyses

Variable	Description
AC	Affective Commitment
CC	Continuance commitment
NC	Normative commitment
OCtot	Total organizational commitment
IS	Information sharing
JS	Job security
PO	Promotions opportunities
CT	Comprehensive training
PER	Performance & equitable rewards
CHRM	Commitment to HRM
HRMtot	Total HRM practices
TSO	Trust in supervisor & organization
TCW	Trust in co-worker
Ttot	Total trust
TNF/TNX	Transformational/Transactional leadership
LFL	Laissez faire leadership
MBEA	Management by exception (active)
G183	Age
G184	Gender
G185	Educational level
G 186	Current position
G187	Tenure in academia
G188	Tenure in position
G189	Tenure in organization
G190	Involvement in decision-making
G191	Current Language
G192	Mother tongue
G193	Type of campus
G194	Type of educational institution
G195	Institutional age
G196	Institutional size
G197	Type of academic institution
G198	Restructuring in institution
G199	Time when restructuring happened
G200	Institution

4.2 RESULTS

4.2.1. Demographics and OC

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between demographic variables and organizational commitment?

In order to investigate the relationships between organizational commitment and the demographic variables of the respondents, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the variance of the organizational commitment responses of the respondents to the demographic variables. The proper application of the ANOVA procedure requires that certain assumptions are met, one assumption being that the sample with which we work was drawn from a population that is normally distributed (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Kerlinger and Lee (2000) recommend that where the normality of the data was not certain, nonparametric tests should be preferred. However, Kerlinger and Lee (2000) indicate that ANOVA can be used if the distributions are not very skewed.

All the variables measured on continuous were divided into categories and ANOVAs were done with commitment scores as dependent variables and categorical variables as independent variables. The results are shown in Tables 4.2 to 4.6.

Table 4.2

Results of Analysis of Variance of with Demographic Variables as Independent Variables and Affective Commitment as Dependent Variable (N = 246)

Variable	df	Sum of squares	Mean of squares	F value	P > F
Age	3	151.116	50.371	.78	.5133
Gender	1	73.093	73.092	1.13	.2946
Educational level	3	157.238	52.412	.81	.4963
Current position	2	123.991	61.995	.96	.3928
Tenure in academia	4	381.395	95.348	1.47	.2298
Tenure in position	2	190.370	95.185	1.47	.2427
Tenure in organization	3	82.322	27.440	.42	.7367
Involvement in decision-making	3	814.759	271.586	4.20*	.0118
Current Language	2	39.811	19.905	.31	.7370
Mother tongue	2	66.235	33.117	.51	.6035
Type of campus	2	115.788	57.894	.90	.4172
Type of educational institution	3	20.467	6.822	.11	.9564
Institutional age	2	25.038	12.519	.19	.8248
Institutional size	5	307.020	61.404	.95	.4610
Type of academic institution	2	346.980	173.490	2.68	.0817
Restructuring in institution	1	54.926	54.926	.85	.3627
Time when restructuring happened	2	252.584	126.292	1.95	.1563
Institution	10	569.093	56.909	.88	.5598

Note * = statistically significant at the 95% level of confidence

Almost all the results of the ANOVAs indicate that significant relationships between the demographic variables and the affective commitment subscale did not exist. The only groups that were significantly different at $p \leq 0.05$ were the groups formed in terms of the degree of involvement in decision-making. Tukey's studentized range test, however, failed to indicate any significant differences between the scores of the groups on this variable.

Analysis of Variance with demographic variables as independent variables and continuance commitment as dependent variable showed no groups with significant differences at the 5% level of significance, as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Results of Analysis of Variance with Demographic Variables as Independent Variables and Continuance Commitment as Dependent Variable. (N= 246)

Variable	df	Sum of squares	Mean of squares	F value	P > F
Age	3	81.896	27.298	.81	.4941
Gender	1	69.526	69.526	2.07	.1582
Educational level	3	34.237	11.412	.34	.7962
Current position	2	92.084	46.042	1.37	.2658
Tenure in academia	4	83.293	20.823	.62	.6502
Tenure in position	2	61.407	30.703	.92	.4090
Tenure in organization	3	54.005	18.001	.54	.6598
Involvement in decision-making	3	39.918	13.306	.40	.7560
Current Language	2	37.287	18.648	.56	.5780
Mother tongue	2	60.997	30.498	.91	.4114
Type of campus	2	132.889	66.444	1.98	.1521
Type of educational institution	3	142.013	47.337	1.41	.2546
Institutional age	2	40.554	20.277	.60	.5514
Institutional size	5	370.266	74.053	2.21	.0740
Type of academic institution	2	35.092	17.546	.52	.5968
Restructuring in institution	1	47.250	47.250	1.41	.2427
Time when restructuring happened	2	28.786	14.393	.43	.6541
Institution	10	478.496	47.849	1.43	.2069

Analysis of Variance results with demographic variables as independent variables and normative commitment as the dependent variable, as shown in Table 4.4, indicated no groups with significant differences at the 5 % level of significance.

Table 4.4

Results of Analysis of Variance with Demographic Variables as Independent Variables and Normative Commitment as Dependent Variable (N =246)

Variable	df	*F* value	*P > F*
Age	3	1.13	.3492
Gender	1	1.90	.1765
Educational level	3	1.77	.1707
Current position	2	.04	.9630
Tenure in academia	4	.79	.5415
Tenure in position	2	.33	.7192
Tenure in organization	3	.59	.6274
Involvement in decision-making	3	.38	.7701
Current Language	2	.42	.6618
Mother tongue	2	1.07	.3521
Type of campus	2	.45	.6417
Type of educational institution	3	.38	.7655
Institutional age	2	.84	.4386
Institutional size	5	.45	.8081
Type of academic institution	2	2.60	.0876
Restructuring in institution	1	.44	.5127
Time when restructuring happened	2	2.13	.1333
Institution	10	1.71	.1161

Analysis of variance with categorical variables as independent variables and total organizational commitment as the dependent variable showed two groups with significant differences at the 5% level of significance, as shown in Table 4.5. The groups are those formed in terms of involvement in decision-making and Type of academic institution. However, these differences could not be identified more precisely as Tukey's studentized range test did not indicate any significant differences when groups were compared pairwise.

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Table 4.5

Results of Analysis of Variance with Demographic Variables as Independent Variables and Total Organizational Commitment as Dependent Variable (N = 246)

Variable	df	Sum of squares	Mean of squares	F value	P > F
Age	3	744.907	248.302	1.80	.1649
Gender	1	76.564	76.564	.55	.4615
Educational level	3	928.963	309.654	2.24	.0998
Current position	2	49.082	24.541	.18	.8381
Tenure in academia	4	639.764	159.941	1.16	.3455
Tenure in position	2	276.168	138.084	1.00	.3780
Tenure in organization	3	297.232	99.077	.72	.5484
Involvement in decision-making	3	1247.397	415.799	3.01*	.0424
Current Language	2	79.069	39.534	.29	.7529
Mother tongue	2	86.435	43.217	.31	.7335
Type of campus	2	335.359	167.679	1.21	.3089
Type of educational institution	3	54.376	18.125	.13	.9410
Institutional age	2	123.605	61.802	.45	.6429
Institutional size	5	1122.450	224.490	1.62	.1779
Type of academic institution	2	1356.834	678.417	4.91*	.0129
Restructuring in institution	1	103.801	103.801	.75	.3918
Time when restructuring happened	2	557.301	278.650	2.02	.1476
Institution	10	2705.817	270.581	1.96	.0678

Note * = statistically significant at the 95% level of confidence

4.2.2. The relationship between HRM, leadership, trust and OC.

Research Question 2: What is the inter-relationship between HRM practices, leadership style, organizational trust and organizational commitment?

Inter-correlation coefficients were calculated by means of Pearson's Product Moment and the results shown in Table 4.6. Since the results show high inter-correlations, and because the sample size was high (N= 246), the results are interpreted with caution. The Pearson product correlation coefficient

was squared and the results multiplied by 100 (100 r^2) to calculate coefficient of determination. It represents the percent of the variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variable, that is, the common variance. The 100 r^2 results are shown in Table 4.7.

The interpretation of the correlation coefficients and the common variance was based on the classical five "rules of thumb" as suggested by Franzblau (1958). These are:

- r ranging from 0 to .20 may be regarded as indicating *no or negligible correlation*

- r ranging from .20 to .40 may be regarded as indicating *a low degree of correlation*

- r ranging from .40 to .60 may be regarded as indicating *a moderate degree of correlation*

- r ranging from .60 to .80 may be regarded as indicating *a marked degree of correlation*

- r ranging from .80 to 1.00 may be regarded as indicating *high correlation*

The following interpretations are made for the 100 r^2:
  - Lower than 5% = low conceptual correlation
  - 6-10%   = useful conceptual correlation
  - 11-15%   = moderate conceptual correlation
  - 16-25%   = high conceptual correlation and
  - >25   = very high conceptual correlation

Table 4.6

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Factor Variables (N = 246)

Var	AC	CC	NC	OC tot	TSO	TCW	Ttot	IS	JS	PRO	CT	PER	HRM tot	CHRM	TNF/TNX	LFL	MBEA
AC	1.0000																
CC	.00777 .9035	1.0000															
NC	.38055 <.0001	-.04110 .5211	1.0000														
OC tot	.69390 <.0001	.58477 <.0001	.63348 <.0001	1.0000													
TSO	.55212 <.0001	.00647 .9195	.27249 <.0001	.41330 <.0001	1.0000												
TCW	.32897 <.0001	.02304 .7192	.21591 .0007	.28255 <.0001	.64140 <.0001	1.0000											
Ttot	.50473 <.0001	.01477 .8177	.27382 <.0001	.39458 <.0001	.93520 <.0001	.87152 <.0001	1.0000										
IS	.37641 <.0001	.06594 .3030	.26016 <.0001	.35311 <.0001	.72505 <.0001	.50589 <.0001	.69834 <.0001	1.0000									
JS	.20453 .0013	-.18261 .0041	-.07108 .2667	-.03749 .5584	.27421 <.0001	.14626 .0218	.24277 <.0001	.22296 .0004	1.0000								
PRO	.40031 <.0001	-.11201 .0795	.26409 <.0001	.26045 <.0001	.60547 <.0001	.29964 <.0001	.52529 <.0001	.49689 <.0001	.15033 .0183	1.0000							
CT	.38780 <.0001	-.06358 .3206	.25913 <.0001	.28078 <.0001	.68012 <.0001	.40437 <.0001	.62134 <.0001	.58736 <.0001	.17989 .0047	.48683 <.0001	1.0000						
PER	.42994 <.0001	-.02427 .7049	.19051 .0027	.29423 <.0001	.65773 <.0001	.34894 <.0001	.58145 <.0001	.66946 <.0001	.18699 .0032	.55348 <.0001	.65599 <.0001	1.0000					
HRM tot	.49095 <.0001	-.10061 .1155	.23861 .0002	.30200 <.0001	.79668 <.0001	.45810 <.0001	.72064 <.0001	.78771 <.0001	.51417 <.0001	.73742 <.0001	.79342 <.0001	.81913 <.0001	1.0000				
CHRM	.43594 <.0001	-.00022 .9973	.23131 .0003	.33061 <.0001	.71152 <.0001	.40806 <.0001	.64311 <.0001	.64968 <.0001	.21823 .0006	.52778 <.0001	.71158 <.0001	.71404 <.0001	.76189 <.0001	1.0000			
TNF/TNX	.36986 <.0001	.04391 .4930	.26509 <.0001	.33882 <.0001	.72480 <.0001	.39952 <.0001	.64766 <.0001	.51796 <.0001	.16413 .0099	.40041 <.0001	.53935 <.0001	.52201 <.0001	.57829 <.0001	.56210 <.0001	1.0000		
LFL	.20290 .0014	-.00378 .9529	-.07181 .2619	.06860 .2838	.27135 <.0001	.06189 .3337	.20200 .0014	.12004 .0601	.17419 .0062	.15841 .0129	.15449 .0153	.12467 .0508	.20629 .0011	.21649 .0006	.25507 <.0001	1.0000	
MBEA	.07930 .2152	.01403 .8267	.16466 .0097	.12532 .0496	.02740 .6689	.07423 .2461	.05178 .4188	.08992 .1597	.00017 .9978	.03991 .5332	.17158 .0070	.14102 .0270	.11814 .0643	.10335 .1059	-.06586 .3035	-.26349 <.0001	1.000

Table 4.7

Calculation of $100r^2$ (N= 246)

Var	AC	CC	NC	OCtot	TSO	TCW	Ttot	IS	JS	PRO	CT	PER	HRMtot	CHRM	TNF/TNX	LFL	MBEA
AC	1.0																
CC	0.00	1.0															
NC	14.48	-0.16	1.0														
OCtot	**48.02**	**34.19**	**40.12**	1.0													
TSO	**30.48**	0.00	7.42	17.08*	1.0												
TCW	10.82	0.05	4.66	7.98	**41.13**	1.0											
Ttot	**25.47**	0.02	7.49	15.56	**87.45**	**75.95**	1.0										
IS	14.16	0.43	6.76	12.46	**52.56**	**25.59**	**48.76**	1.0									
JS	4.18	-3.33	-0.50	-0.14	7.51	2.13	5.89	4.97	1.0								
PRO	16.02*	-1.25	6.97	6.78	**36.65**	8.97	**27.59**	24.68*	2.25	1.0							
CT	15.03	-0.40	6.71	7.88	**46.25**	16.35*	**38.60**	**34.49**	3.23	23.70*	1.0						
PER	18.48*	-0.05	3.62	8.65	**43.26**	12.17	**33.80**	**44.81**	3.49	**30.63**	**43.03**	1.0					
HRMtot	24.01*	-1.01	5.69	9.12	**63.46**	20.98*	**51.93**	**62.04**	**26.43**	**54.37**	**62.95**	**67.09**	1.0				
CHRM	19.00*	-0.00	5.33	10.93	**50.62**	16.65*	**41.35**	**42.20**	4.76	**27.85**	**50.63**	**50.97**	**58.04**	1.0			
TNF/TNX	13.67	-0.19	7.02	11.47	**52.53**	15.96	**41.94**	**26.82**	2.69	16.03*	**29.08**	**27.24**	**33.44**	**31.59**	1.0		
LFL	4.11	-0.00	-0.51	0.47	7.36	0.38	4.08	1.44	3.03	2.38	2.38	1.55	4.25	4.68	6.50	1.0	
MBEA	0.62	0.01	2.71	1.57	0.72	0.55	0.26	0.80	0.00	0.15	2.94	1.98	1.39	1.06	-0.43	-6.94	1.0

Note: Underlined = negative correlation

* = High conceptual correlation, 16.00- 25.00% & Bold = very high conceptual correlation, >25%

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HRM and OC: Table 4.7 indicates that HRM practices have a useful conceptual correlation with organizational commitment. Total HRM practices explain 9.12% (r = .302, $p <$ .0001) of the variance of total organizational commitment. Organizational commitment to HRM practices explains 10.93% (r = .330, $p <$ .0001) of the variance of total organizational commitment. HRM and affective commitment subscales however shows moderate to high common variance. Information sharing and comprehensive training have moderate common variance with affective commitment of r = .376, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 14.16% and r = .388, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 15.03%, respectively. Promotion opportunities, and performance and equitable rewards have high conceptual correlations with affective commitment of r = .400, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 16.02% and r = .429, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 18.48%, respectively. A perception that the organization is committed to HRM practices is highly correlated with affective commitment (r = .436, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 19.00%). Total HRM is also highly correlated with affective commitment (r = .491, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 24.01%). Continuance commitment showed negative non-significant common variance with all of the HRM scales. Normative commitment on the other hand showed only low common variance with information sharing (r = .260, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 6.76%), promotion opportunities (r = .264, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 6.97%), total HRM (r = .239, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 5.69%), comprehensive training (r = .259, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ =6.71%), and organizational commitment to HRM practices (r = .231, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 5.33%).

Trust and OC: The relationship between trust and organizational commitment seems to be a significant one. Total trust has a substantial common variance of r = .505, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 25.47% with affective commitment and a moderate correlation with total organizational commitment (r = .395, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 15.56%). Trust in supervisor and organization has a quite high common variance of 30.48% (r = .552, $p <$ .0001) with affective commitment. Trust in co-workers has a useful correlation with affective commitment (r = .329, $p <$ .0001;

$100r^2$ = 10.82%) but a low common variance with total commitment (r = .282, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 7.98%). Continuance commitment shows no correlation with any of the trust scales. Normative commitment on the other hand shows low common variance with trust in supervisor and organization (r = .272, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 7.42%) and total trust (r = .274, $p < $.0001; $100r^2$ = 7.49%).

Leadership and OC: Transformational/Transactional leadership style shows a moderate common variance with affective commitment (r = .369, p $<$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 13.69%) and a low common variance with normative commitment (r = .265, p $<$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 7.02%). Continuance commitment shows no correlation with any of the leadership style scales. Laissez faire leadership behaviour is not usefully related to any of the organizational commitment sub-scales or the total scale score.

HRM and trust: The organizational trust and HRM practices variables show a significant correlation. Total HRM practices and total trust have a common variance of 51.93%. Total HRM on the other hand, has a common variance with trust in supervisor and organization of r = .797, $p < $.0001; $100r^2$ = 63.46% and a moderate common variance of r = .458, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 20. 98% with trust in co-worker. Trust in supervisor and organization has a substantial degree of common variance with information sharing (r = .725, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 52.56%), promotion opportunities (r = .605, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 36.65%), comprehensive training (r = .680, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 46.25%), and performance and equitable rewards (r = .658, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 43.26%). The relationship between trust in supervisor and organization and job security is significant but not strong (r = .274, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 7.51%). Trust in supervisor and organization is positively and highly correlated with the perception of the organization's commitment to HRM practices (r = .712, $p < $ .0001; $100r^2$ = 50.62%). Trust in co-worker has high conceptual correlation with information sharing (r = .506, $p < $.0001; $100r^2$ = 25.59%), comprehensive training (r = .404, p

$< .0001$; $100r^2 = 16.35\%$), and total HRM practices ($r = .458$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 20.98\%$). Trust in co-worker shows a moderate correlation with perceptions of the organization's commitment to HRM ($r = .408$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 16.65\%$). The relationship between trust in co-worker and promotions opportunities is useful ($r = .299$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 8.97\%$). Performance and equitable rewards show a moderate relationship with trust in co-worker ($r = .348$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 12.17\%$). Total trust accounts has a very significant correlation with information sharing ($r = .698$, $p <. 0001$; $100r^2 = 48.76\%$), Promotion opportunities ($r = .525$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 27.29\%$), comprehensive training ($r = .621$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 38.60\%$), performance and equitable rewards ($r = .581$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 33.80\%$) and perceptions of organizational commitment to HRM practices ($r = .643$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 41.35\%$). Total trust however has a low correlation with job security ($r = .242$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 5.89\%$).

HRM and leadership: Transformational/Transactional leadership style is the only leadership subscale that shows a significant correlation with HRM subscales. It has a moderate common variance with promotions opportunities ($r = .400$, p $<. 0001$; $100r^2 = 16.03\%$). Strong conceptual correlations are found between Transformational/Transactional leadership style and information sharing ($r = .517$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 26.82\%$), comprehensive training ($r = .539$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 29.08\%$), performance and equitable reward ($r = .522$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 27.24\%$), total HRM practices ($r = .578$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 33.44\%$) and organizational commitment to HRM practices ($r = .562$, $p < .0001$; $100r^2 = 31.59\%$). The relationships between laissez faire leadership and HRM subscales were all statistically non-significant.

Trust and leadership: The relationship between trust and leadership style seem to be significant only when Transformational/Transactional leadership style is taken into consideration. Transformational/Transactional leadership style has a useful conceptual correlation with trust in co-worker ($r = .399$, $p < .0001$;

$100r^2$ = 15.96%), and a very high degree of common variance with trust in supervisor and organization (r = .724, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 52.53%) and total trust (r = .647, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 41.94%). Laissez faire leadership has a low conceptual correlation with trust in supervisor and organization (r = .271, $p <$ .0001; $100r^2$ = 7.36%).

4.2.3. The relationship between Organizational commitment and predictor variables.

Research Question 3: To what degree do specific subscales predict organizational commitment subscales and total organizational commitment?

Stepwise Multiple Regression was carried out with scale and sub-scales of organizational commitment as dependent variables and the other subscales as independent (predictor) variables. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) define multiple regression as a statistical method that relates one dependent variable to a linear combination of one or more independent variables. They further explain that this procedure can help researchers determine how much each independent variable explains or relates to the dependent variable. In order to carry out Stepwise Multiple Regression, Ordinary Least Squares regressions are computed in stages. In one stage, an independent variable that correlates well with the dependent variable is included in the equation. In the second stage, the remaining independent variables with the highest partial correlation with the dependent are entered while at the same time controlling for the first variable. This process is repeated, at each stage controlling for each previously entered independent variables until the addition of a remaining variable does not increase R^2 by a significant amount or until all variables are entered. Multiple Regression is therefore used to predict the variance in an dependent variable by various independent variables.

An important output of Multiple Regression is the multiple correlation coefficient, R^2, which is the proportion of the variance in the dependent explained uniquely or jointly by the independent variables. The significance of R^2 is determined by the F-test, which is the same as testing the significance of the regression model as a whole. If the probability of obtaining a large value of (F) < 0.05 then the model would be considered to be significantly better than would be expected by chance and it can be concluded that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable.

Stepwise Multiple Regression with affective commitment as the dependent variable indicates that only two independent variables, trust in supervisor and organization, and promotions opportunities, contributed significantly towards affective commitment at the <.05 level of significance. The prediction model indicated that 31.17% common variance existed between predictors and the dependent variable. The C (p) value of 2.86 indicates a good fit with the data as it approaches the number of variables in the model. The results are summarized in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Affective Commitment as Dependent Variable and HRM Practices Subscales as Predictor Variables

Variable	Partial R^2	Model R^2	C(p)	F(df)	P > F
TSO	0.3048	0.3048	3.2894	107.00 (1)	<0.0001
PRO	0.0069	0.3117	2.8616	2.43 (2)	0.1204

Table 4.10 illustrates the results of the Multiple Regression with continuance commitment as the dependent variable. The model indicates a weak prediction of the dependent variable (7.01%) with three independent variables. Job security, information sharing and promotion opportunities contributed 3.33%, 1.20% and 2.48% respectively to the total prediction. The C(p) value of –0.97 is numerically lower than the number of variables in the model.

Table 4.10

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Continuance Commitment as Dependent Variable and HRM Practices Subscales as Predictor Variables

Variable	Partial R^2	Model R^2	C(p)	F(df)	$P > F$
JS	0.0333	0.0333	4.4035	8.42 (1)	0.0041
IS	0.0120	0.0453	3.3521	3.05(2)	0.0821
PRO	0.0248	0.0701	-0.9748	6.46(3)	0.0117

Table 4.11 indicates that six independent variables entered the prediction model of normative commitment. The independent variables involved are trust in supervisor and organization (7.43%), management by exception (active) (2.47%), job security (2.26%,) promotion opportunities (1.37%), laissez faire leadership (0.92%) and transformational/transactional leadership (0.10%). The total prediction of the variance in normative commitment is 15.47%. The C(p) value of 5.74 indicates a good fit of the data as it approaches the number of variables in the model.

Table 4.11

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Normative Commitment as Dependent Variable and Trust, HRM Practices and Leadership Behaviour Subscales as Predictor Variables

Variable	Partial R^2	Model R^2	C(p)	F(df)	$P > F$
TSO	0.0743	0.0743	18.3780	19.57(1)	<0.0001
MBEA	0.0247	0.0990	13.4224	6.67(2)	0.0104
JS	0.0226	0.1216	9.0586	6.23(3)	0.0132
PRO	0.0137	0.1353	7.2128	3.819(4)	0.0521
LFL	0.0092	0.1445	6.6198	2.59 (5)	0.1091
TNF/TNX	0.0102	0.1547	5.7482	2.89(6)	0.0906

Table 4.12 illustrates the prediction model of total organizational commitment by three independent variables; trust in supervisor and organization, management by exception (active) and job security. The three independent variables together account for 25.46% of the variance in total organizational commitment with trust in supervisor and organization accounting for 22.63% of the variance, management by exception (active) for 1.46% and job security for 1.37 %. The C(p) value of 0.02 indicates a weak fit with the data as it is lower than the number of variables in the model.

Table 4.12

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Total organizational Commitment as Dependent Variable and Trust, HRM Practices and Leadership Behaviour Subscales as Predictor Variables

Variable	Partial R^2	Model R^2	C(p)	F(df)	$P > F$
TSO	0.2263	0.2263	5.0665	71.37(1; 245)	<0.0001
MBEA	0.0146	0.2409	2.3948	4.68(2; 245)	0.0314
JS	0.0137	0.2546	0.0280	4.44(3; 245)	0.0361

When multiple regression was done with the total scales instead of the subscales, total trust and commitment to HRM practices were the only independent variables that entered the prediction model for total organizational commitment as shown in Table 4.13. The two independent variables accounted for 22.30% of the variance in total organizational commitment with total trust accounting for 21.35 % and commitment to HRM practices adding only 0.09%. The C(p) value of 1.22 indicates a good fit of the data as it approaches the number of variables in the model.

Table 4.13

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with Total organizational Commitment as Dependent Variable and Total Scale of Trust and Organizational Commitment to HRM Practices as Predictor Variables

Variable	Partial R^2	Model R^2	C(p)	F(df)	$P > $ F
Ttot	0.2135	0.2135	2.2247	66.23(1)	<0.0001
CHRM	0.0095	0.2230	1.2230	2.98(2)	0.0857

4.2.4. A structural equation model of OC, HRM, Leadership style and trust

Research Question 4: Can a structural equations model be built regressing HRM practices, Leadership style and organizational trust on organizational commitment as a dependent variable?

A structural equations model was built to investigate the relationship between total HRM practices, transformational/transactional leadership style, and total trust with affective commitment as dependent variable, as illustrated in Figure 4.1. Factor item scores were aggregated.
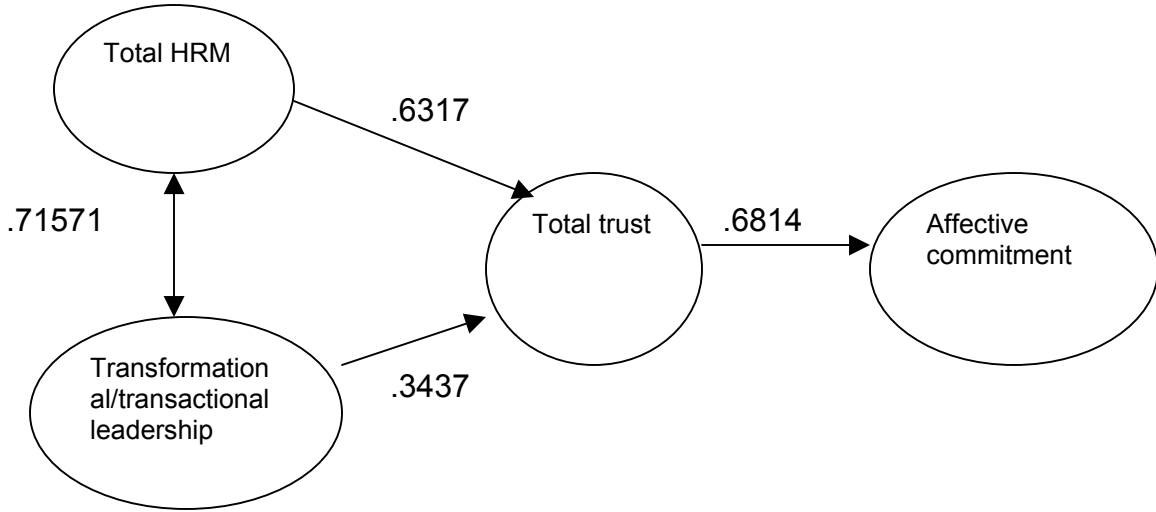
167

Figure 4.1. Structural equation model of total HRM practices, transformational/transactional leadership style, total trust as independent variables and affective commitment as final dependent variable.

In the above figure 4.1 path coefficients are all satisfactory above .30. The indices obtained from a structural equations analysis of the model are shown in Table 4.14 in page 170. A weak fit is indicated between the data and the causal model in Figure 4.1 The RMR and RMSEA values are above the levels acceptable for a good fit and the relevant fit indices are mostly below .90.

Table 4.14

<u>Indices obtained From the Structural Equations Analysis Model in Figure 4.1 (N</u>
<u>=246)</u>

Indices	Value
Fit function	6.6627
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.6836
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.6400
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.2111
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.6383
Chi-Square (df =; Chi square)	1632.3634 (493;<.0001)
Independence model Chi-Square (df)	8025.6 (528)
RMSEA Estimate (90% CI)	.0971 (.0919; .1024)
ECVI Estimate (90% CI)	7.3073 (6.7944; 7.8563)
Probability of Close Fit	0.0000
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	0.8480
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	1833.2359
Akaike's Information Criterion	646.3634
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-1574.7650
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-1081.7650
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.0987
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.8372
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.7966
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.7438
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	23.1228
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.7822
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.8487
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	83

The second model built investigated the relationship between total HRM practices, Transformational/Transactional leadership style and total trust with total organizational commitment as final outcome variable. The model is illustrated in Figure 4.2. Item scores within factors were aggregated.
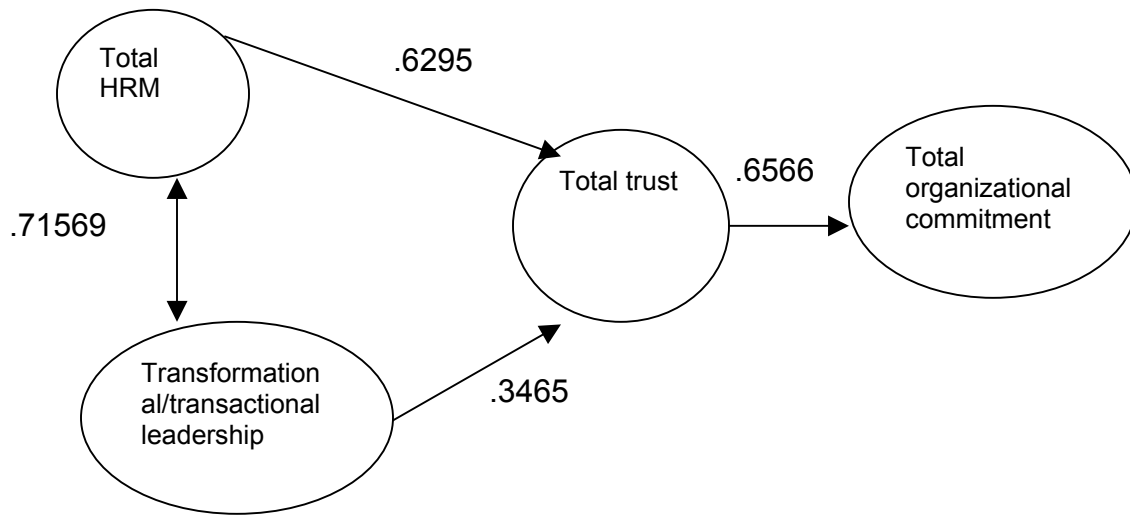

Figure 4.2 Structural equation model of total HRM practices, Transformational/Transactional leadership style, total trust as independent variables and organizational commitment as dependent variable.

The path coefficients shown in figure 4.2 are all satisfactory, with path coefficients >.3. Structural Equations Analysis was done to further examine the model, and the results are shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15

Indices obtained From the Structural Equations Analysis of Figure 4.2 (N =246)

Indices	Value
Fit function	7.3446
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	.6856
GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.6463
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.1958
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.6442
Chi-Square (df =; Chi square)	1799.4328 (592 <.0001)
Independence model Chi-Square (df)	8237.3 (630)
RMSEA Estimate (90% CI)	.0912 (.0864; .0961)
ECVI Estimate (90% CI)	8.0562 (7.5195; 8.6298)
Probability of Close Fit	0.0000
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index	.8413
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	1984.8756
Akaike's Information Criterion	615.4328
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-2051.7235
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-1459.7235
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.0859
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	.8311
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) NFI	.7816
James Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.7344
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	23.1716
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rho1	.7675
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.8421
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	90

The fit between the data and figure 4.2 is weak, (for example, GFI index = 0.69). This is especially clear when the value of RMR of .1958 is taken into account.

The results obtained from the analyses to find answers to the research questions are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, the major findings of the study will be discussed with regard to previous findings in other studies. The implications of the findings for management practices, contributions of the current study, directions for future research and the limitations of the present study will be discussed.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The first research question is concerned with the relationship between demographic variables such as age, tenure, organizational characteristics and organizational commitment. The results suggest that the studied demographic variables have no significant relationship with either organizational commitment sub-scales or total organizational commitment. Each one of these demographic variables will accordingly be discussed.

In this study, age showed no significant relationship with any of the organizational commitment subscales or total organizational commitment. This finding is in contrast to Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) who reported a positive significant correlation between age and affective commitment. The current study's non-significant findings are similar to what was reported by Hawkins (1998), and Colbert and Kwon's (2000). Age therefore seem to have no statistically significant relationship with organizational commitment of employees of higher education institutions in South Africa.

Similar to age, gender showed no significant influence on the organizational commitment of respondents in this study. This finding is in line with similar reports by Kalderberg et al. (1995) and Hawkins (1998). This finding differs from popular belief and reports by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) as well as Wahn (1998) who reported that women have higher organizational commitment

than men. Researchers who have reported differences in the organizational commitment of men and women have argued that women tend to have stronger continuance commitment because they find it difficult to obtain employment and therefore would hold on to it once they have found it. The women in this study probably do not perceive lack of alternatives as they are professionals and most institutions in South Africa have become equal opportunity employers. These women might feel that they have better opportunities of finding employment and therefore do not feel obliged to remain with an institution.

The level of education also showed no significant differences in the organizational commitment of respondents. This was despite the expectation that employees with higher education levels would report lower organizational commitment, as they would perceive themselves as marketable with more alternatives. The non-significant relationship between organizational commitment and level of education might be explained by Irving et al. 's (1997) argument that individuals with high levels of training and education might be more attached to their occupations rather than the organization as they regard their skills as employable in the occupation. In this study, the majority of respondents had a bachelor's degree or higher qualification, and therefore they might be of the perception that they are marketable.

The current position of the respondents also showed no significant relationship with organizational commitment. One would have expected significant differences between respondents at different levels of the hierarchy and between employees in different occupation types. It was expected that employees in positions with higher levels of responsibility, decision-making and accountability such as heads of department, deans and directors would report stronger affective commitment. Significant differences were also expected between academics and non-academics. The non-significant differences found in this study can possibly be attributed to the low numbers of some of the different groups in the sample.

The only demographic variable that showed a significant relationship with any form of commitment is the type of academic institution. A significant

difference in the means of affective commitment of employees from a full-time residential institution and a combination institution was found. The affective commitment of employees from combination institutions was reportedly higher than that of employees at full-time residential institutions.

No significant relationships were found between the demographic variables and continuance or normative commitment.

The findings of this study confirm the assertion that demographic variables play a relatively minor role in the development of organizational commitment as was shown by Mathieu and Zajak (1990) and Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky 's (2002) meta-analyses.

The second research question looked at the inter-relationship between HRM practices, leadership style, trust and organizational commitment. Although the results indicate a low degree of correlation between total HRM practices and total organizational commitment, the HRM subscales and organizational commitment subscales are significantly correlated. HRM subscales and affective commitment show a moderate to high correlation. Information sharing and comprehensive training both have a moderate degree of correlation with affective commitment. These results confirm Putti et al.'s (2001) and Guzley's (2001) findings. These positive significant relationships can be explained by the fact that both information sharing and comprehensive training practices create a perception of being valued by the organization, which in turn might induce a reciprocal positive feeling about the organization (Thornhill et al.'s 1996; McElroy, 2001).

Promotion opportunities, and performance and equitable rewards have high inter-correlations with affective commitment. Kallenberg and Mastekaase (1994) argue that possibilities of internal career movement create a closer bond between the employee and the organization's culture. The high correlation between performance and equitable rewards and affective commitment is expected as it might be indicative of satisfaction with the rewards or as McElroy

(2001) suggests, high compensation might serve as an indication of how much an organization values its people, thereby enhancing their self-worth.

None of the HRM subscales had a statistically significant relationship with continuance commitment. This is understandable since continuance commitment is associated with lack of alternatives and/or side bets. It is possible that in an academic environment those factors that might be regarded as side bets in other industries, such as extensive training, promote marketability and employability. Higher education institutions compete for academics and other employees with extensive training and qualifications. On the other hand, normative commitment showed a low degree of correlation with information sharing, promotion opportunities, total HRM and organizational commitment to HRM practices. Total HRM and normative commitment showed a high correlation.

Job security had a positive albeit non-significant relationship with affective commitment (r = .204, p = .0013) and a negative non-significant relationship with continuance commitment and normative commitment. These results are somewhat similar to Ugboro's (2003) findings who reported correlations of r = -.37 between job insecurity and affective commitment and non-significant associations with continuance and normative commitment. The negative relationship between job insecurity and affective commitment makes sense considering the fact that academic institutions like public sector institutions traditionally offer lifelong employment (Hallier and Lyon 1996). Organizations that provide job security can expect loyalty and organizational commitment (Whitener et al. 1998). Ugboro (2003) argues that employees in such organizations are insulated from the uncertainties and instability experienced in the private sector. As such, these employees are expected to have higher levels of job security and subsequent organizational commitment.

A perception that the organization is committed to HRM practices is strongly correlated with affective commitment. This finding is consistent with the argument that organizations that want employees with affective commitment must demonstrate their own commitment to the employees by providing a supportive work environment (Meyer & Smith, 2001). Among the things that can

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be done to show commitment to employees is sharing information, providing comprehensive training and promotion opportunities, as well as providing strong visionary leadership. It is therefore not surprising that significant correlations were found between affective commitment and various HRM subscales (information sharing, promotion opportunities, performance and equitable rewards and comprehensive training).

The relationship between trust and organizational commitment seem to be significant and consistent. Total trust has a marked correlation with affective commitment and a moderate correlation with total organizational commitment. These findings correspond with reports in the literature (Cook & Wall's, 1980; Brockner et al., 1997; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust in supervisor and organization has a significant correlation with affective commitment. Trust in co-worker has a low degree of, albeit useful, correlation with affective commitment. Continuance commitment again showed no correlation with any of the trust scales. Normative commitment on the other hand shows a useful correlation with trust in supervisor and organization and total trust.

Leadership style shows low correlation with organizational commitment. Transformational/Transactional leadership shows a moderate degree of correlation with affective commitment and a low correlation with normative commitment. The organizational commitment of employees in the academic institutions included in the present study does not seem to be strongly related to the leadership style of their superiors.

Trust and HRM practices show significant correlations. Total HRM practices and total trust have a significant correlation. Total HRM on the other hand has a significant correlation with trust in supervisor and organization, and a moderate correlation with trust in co-worker. Trust in supervisor and organization has a significant correlation with information sharing, promotion opportunities, comprehensive training and performance and equitable rewards. The relationship between trust in supervisor and organization and job insecurity was not strong. Trust in co-worker has a marked correlation with information sharing, a moderate correlation with comprehensive training and total HRM. However, trust in co-

worker and promotion opportunities have a low degree of correlation. Performance and equitable rewards show a moderate correlation with trust in co-worker.

Transformational /transactional leadership is the only leadership subscale that shows a notable correlation with HRM subscales. It has a moderate correlation with promotion opportunities, a significant correlation with information sharing, comprehensive training, performance and equitable rewards, total HRM and commitment to HRM practices.

The relationship between trust and leadership style seem to be significant only when transformational/transactional leadership is taken into consideration. Transformational/transactional leadership has a useful correlation with trust in co-worker and a significant correlation with trust in supervisor and organization and total trust. Laissez faire leadership has a low correlation with trust in supervisor and organization.

The fact that transformational/transactional leadership behaviour is the only leadership behaviour that has significant correlations with HRM practices and trust can be explained by considering the characteristics of both transformational and transactional leaders. Transformational leaders, according to Burns (1978), are able to ensure that followers are consciously aware of the importance of sharing organizational goals and values. This can best be supported by HRM practices that promote sharing of information. In addition, a transformational leader can provide intellectual stimulation and take care of each individual's developmental and growth needs in an organization that is committed to the comprehensive training of its employees. Transformational leaders can also motivate their subordinates to commit themselves to performance beyond expectations (Bass, 1990a; Bryman, 1992; Howell & Avolio, 1992), if the organization's compensation policies recognize performance and provide equitable rewards. Similarly, transactional leaders can use contingent rewards in exchange for meeting agreed-on objectives. By motivating employees, providing training opportunities, making and fulfilling promises of recognition, pay increases

and advancement for employees who perform well, the transformational/transactional leader can get things done.

Following the findings of this study and the recognition that leaders are responsible for HRM practices that have an effect on organizational commitment, it can be assumed that the development of organizational commitment can be influenced by organizational policies that build trust.

Research question 3 is aimed at determining the degree to which specific subscales predict organizational commitment subscales and total organizational commitment. The results indicate that only two of all the predictor variables, that is, trust in supervisor and organization and promotions opportunities entered the prediction model. The degree of prediction of the model is moderate as the two predictor variables together accounted for 31% of the variance of affective commitment. However, trust in supervisor and organization is the stronger predictor as it accounted for 30% of the common variance of affective commitment. This results support the inter-correlation results, which indicated trust in supervisor and organization and promotion opportunities had the highest correlations with affective commitment.

Multiple regression analysis results show weak predictions of continuance commitment by job insecurity, information sharing and promotion opportunities.

Normative commitment was also weakly predicted by trust in supervisor and organization, management by exception (active), job insecurity, promotion opportunities, laissez faire leadership and transformational/transactional leadership.

Although the structural equations model built by regressing HRM practices, leadership style, and trust onto organizational commitment has a weak fit with the data, the relationships between the variables cannot be ignored. The results of these analyses seem to indicate that causal relationships among the variables in the present study are not enough to explain the development of organizational commitment.

5.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

The current study adds to researchers efforts to understand the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational factors such as HRM practices, leadership style and trust. This study contributes a new direction in the research on organizational commitment by opening up a debate on the importance of HRM practices in the development of organizational commitment. The fact that statistically significant correlations were only found between affective commitment and HRM practices can assist with the understanding of how HRM practices can be utilized in managing desirable types of organizational commitment. The study also contributes to our understanding of the importance of HRM practices in building trust.

The study shows that HRM practices that are perceived as indicative of an organization's commitment to its employees are positively associated with trust in supervisor and organization, and affective commitment. HRM practices that are concerned with the personal development of the employee such as comprehensive training, promotion opportunities, performance and equitable rewards and information sharing, were essential in the development of trust and affective commitment in an academic setting.

From this study, it appears that demographic factors, both personal factors and organizational factors do not have a statistically significant role in the development of organizational commitment in academic settings. This is important, as human resources managers in academic institutions should rather focus on HRM practices and not employee variables in an attempt to build the right type of organizational commitment.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

Empirical evidence appears to support the view that HRM practices, leadership style and trust can influence the development of organizational

commitment, especially affective commitment. Organizations that require their employees to develop organizational commitment should provide a supportive work environment, which creates a mutually beneficial environment. This has practical implications for employers. Organizations should demonstrate their commitment to the employees by providing comprehensive training, sharing information, provide for the development and growth of employees within the organization and offer more than market related incentives.

Managers interested in fostering commitment among their employees can gain by seeking guidance from the growing literature on "high commitment HRM". They should however select and adopt HRM practices that would contribute to the perceptions of the organization's commitment to its employees and indirectly to the development of affective commitment. Organizations should not just adopt any HRM practices, as they may not have the same impact in their kind of industry. For example, job insecurity did not have any significant influence on the organizational commitment of employees of academic institutions as it was expected.

A managerial approach that is based on leadership behaviour that is based on sharing information, demonstration of concern for employee welfare and equitable rewards has significant implications for managing employee behaviour. Open and accurate communication creates an impression that the organization cares and values the employee as a partner (Whitener et al, 1998). Therefore, providing explanation of managerial decisions that affect employee welfare, the future of the organization and other labour issues, would facilitate the development of trust as it reduces speculation on the part of the employee.

Higher education institutions need to reflect on their HRM practices and the type of organizational commitment they induce. The transitional period created by the mergers in the higher education sector should be used as an opportunity to review the HRM practices and leadership styles and efforts should be made to adopt those HRM practices that promote the personal development and growth of employees.

5.5 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although this study shows that certain HRM practices could influence trust, leadership behaviour and organizational commitment, it still does not shed light on the mechanisms through which this is accomplished. As the models build to illustrate these relationships were not supported by the data, we could attempt to explain the causal relationship between the variables. Future research directions could include, among others:

- Longitudinal studies to establish the causal relationships among the variables.

- To enhance external validity, future research efforts should obtain a representative sample from more institutions.

- Replication of this study after the transformation of the South African higher education landscape has been completed.

- Replication of the study using leadership measures that are relevant to academic leadership.

- Future research is also needed to identify "side bet" factors for employees of academic institutions, which could lead to continuance commitment.

5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study should be viewed with a few limitations in mind. Self-reported measures were used to measure the constructs. It is well known that this might cause common method variance challenges. Another limitation can be sampling bias. Most of the respondents were mainly from a single

institution with the other institutions in the study providing the remainder of the sample. These findings may therefore not be generalizable to the other higher education institutions in the sample and in the country.

The use of employees alone to measure organizational level variables could have affected the validity of the responses. Employees might not have been fully aware of some or all of the HRM practices within their institutions and might have given inaccurate responses.

Despite this limitations this findings contribute to extend the literature on the variables associated with the development of organizational commitment by supporting the findings of previous researchers.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the growing literature on the influence of HRM practices, leadership and trust on the development of organizational commitment. It provides empirical evidence to support theoretical models that link HRM practices with organizational commitment, HRM practices with trust in supervisor and organization, and also links trust in supervisor with organizational commitment. This study also identifies the HRM practices that are significantly associated with affective commitment and trust. These include information sharing, promotion opportunities, comprehensive training, performance, and equitable rewards.

In addition, the study shows that at least some of the constructs contained in the measuring instruments are not directly portable to the kind of sample on which this study was done. The importance of re-validating measuring instruments developed in one culture and to be used in a different country or culture or even a different kind of sample is strongly emphasised by the outcomes of the analyses done in this regard in the present study.

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