

**Curtin Graduate School of Business
Curtin Business School**

**When ‘Trust in Top Management’ Matters to Organisational
Performance and Effectiveness: The Impact of
Senior Manager Role-modelling and Group Cohesiveness**

Ngiang Jiang Eng

**This thesis is presented for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
of
Curtin University**

October 2010

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature: _____
Ngiang Jiang Eng

Date: _____

DEDICATION

To The People of Australia and Singapore

To My Wife Doris,
My Children Darren, Rachael, Patricia, Ivan, Frederick, Xueqi & Weiren,
and Grandchildren Kayla, Javier & Hayden

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have contributed to my completion of this thesis and I wish to express my gratitude and appreciation for their support. Above all, I would like to thank my Supervisor: Professor Peter Galvin, and Co-supervisor: Associate Professor Marita Naude for their wisdom, assistance, advice, insightful comments, patience and encouragement. Also, I am very grateful to Professor Alma Whiteley for her initial mentoring on philosophy, and Professor Mohammed Quaddus for his initial coaching on both quantitative research and international research methods. Again, appreciation must be extended to Associate Professor Verena Marshall, the Chairperson of Thesis Committee, for her guidance in refining my research proposal for Candidacy approval.

Equally important, I wish to thank the management and staff of various participant organisations for facilitating the collection of data. Also, thanks to all the respondents for taking their time and effort to complete the survey. Again, appreciation should be extended to Jo Boycott, Delia Giggins and Jan McDonald for their commendable efforts in providing administrative support. Moreover, I am very grateful to Jenny Lalor for her initial guidance concerning the application of statistical package. Last, but not least, I would like to thank Curtin University for granting me a Postgraduate Scholarship for my Ph.D. study.

This thesis could not have eventuated without the cooperation and great support by the aforesaid people. My hearty thanks and deepest appreciation to all.

ABSTRACT

While ‘trust in top management’ matters to organisational performance and effectiveness, low trust in top management remains an issue in many organisations despite their efforts in building trust. The persistence of such problems appears to be largely due to improper approach used in the treatments of trust. While the literature reflects a fair amount of effort directed towards an understanding of trust building process, little research, if any, has been done into three important issues that follow. First, the potential effects of group processes on employee perceptions of management’s trustworthiness. Second, the moderating effects of potential moderators on the relationships between trust in management and important organisational outcomes. Third, the potential impacts of cultural differences on trusting relationships.

This research investigates into how organisations can strategise to deal with the persistent problem of low trust in top management. Backed by research evidence, the study provides insights for organisations to deal with this problem through (1) promoting group cohesiveness to improve employee trust in top management; and (2) promoting senior manager role-modelling to minimize the impacts of trust in top management on organisational outcomes.

To carry out the research, this study develops a theoretical framework that includes group cohesiveness, top management’s trustworthiness factors, trust in top management, important organisational outcomes (i.e., affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return), senior manager role-modelling, and their proposed interrelationships. From the theoretical framework emerges an analytical model which elucidates the theories and empirical evidence underlying the proposed relationships in the theoretical framework, and develops a series of theoretically justified and testable hypotheses to address the research questions/problem.

Data collection was administered in two field studies conducted in Western Australia (the WA study) and Singapore (the SIN study). In both field studies, the

population of interest was employees from a diverse range of industries. The sampling frame for the WA study comprised ten (10) randomly selected companies operating in various industries; and a random sample of employees in a variety of industries. For the SIN study, the sampling frame included fifteen (15) randomly selected companies operating in various industries. Of the 1,500 survey packs distributed in the WA study, the hypotheses were empirically tested on a final sample of 305 respondents using multiple regression analysis, simple regression analysis, and subgroup analysis. And, of the 1,000 survey packs distributed in the SIN study, the hypotheses were empirically tested on a final sample of 212 respondents using the same data analysis techniques.

Evidence from both the WA and SIN studies consistently concludes, *inter alia*, that (1) group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness, which in turn improve trust in top management; and (2) in situations where trust in top management is low, senior manager role-modelling can serve to minimize the impacts that trust in top management has on organisational outcomes, thereby minimizing undesirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness. Since the research findings have been replicable across two culturally different countries, their generalisability to other settings is highly possible.

Further, the research findings offer several theoretical implications. First, referent of trust (trustee) moderates the trust–antecedent relationships, such that the trust model with two predictors (trustee's ability, and integrity) is statistically desired for predicting trust in top management, whereas the trust model with three predictors (trustee's ability, integrity, and benevolence) may be well-suited for predicting trust in other organisational authorities. Second, social context for trust (e.g., groups), in which group processes play a major role in the social construction of trust, must not be neglected in the study of trust. Third, at any level of trust in top management, senior manager role-modelling can serve to improve the levels of desirable outcomes, which in turn enhance desirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness. Fourth, study of trust should increase emphasis on potential moderator variables in trust–outcome relationships to enhance accuracy of research findings. Like wise, study of organisational performance and effectiveness should

not neglect potential moderator variables that can possibly minimize the strong impacts that trust in top management has on important organisational outcomes, especially for situations with low trust in top management.

Fifth, the regression models of trust in top management across culturally different countries may differ significantly due to the differences in valuing top management's integrity when making judgments about top management's trustworthiness. Sixth, positive influence of group cohesiveness on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness may not be affected by cross cultural differences. Last but not least, cross cultural differences may not affect the impacts of trust in top management on affective commitment, turnover intention, and intention-to-return. However, they may vary the impacts that trust in top management has on job satisfaction due to the differences in valuing trust in top management when evaluating job experiences or work context.

Equally important, the research findings suggest two practical implications. First, considering trust is both an interpersonal and a collective phenomenon, promoting group cohesiveness is important and instrumental in improving trust in top management. In this regard, firms can build group cohesiveness by ways of team building activities, management actions, and use of cohesion messages. Next, when appropriate senior manager role-modelling is lacking, trust in top management is very critical, and is required if high levels of affective commitment, job satisfaction, intention-to-stay, and intention-to-return are to be attained. However, when appropriate senior manager role-modelling exists, trust in top management becomes less critical in terms of affective commitment, job satisfaction, intention-to-stay, and intention-to-return. Some helpful steps for firms to promote senior manager role-modelling include: (1) top management formalizes an organisational value system that is consistent with the organisation's goals and objectives; (2) top management internalizes the organisational value system as part of senior managers' character, with role-modelling expert's guidance; and (3) senior managers 'role model' the organisational value system for subordinates, provide an example of exemplary behaviour for subordinates to imitate, and thereby instilling the organisational value system into subordinates such that shared values are internalized in them.

Keywords: Trust in management, trustworthiness, group cohesiveness, role-modelling, organisational outcomes, organisational performance and effectiveness, moderator, regression analysis, subgroup analysis, Chow test, culture, cultural differences.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xvii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	
BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH	1
Trust as a Source of Competitive Advantage	1
Importance of Trust in Management	3
RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS	5
JUSTIFICATION FOR THE RESEARCH	8
METHODOLOGY	10
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS	13
DELIMITATIONS OF SCOPE AND KEY ASSUMPTIONS	15
OUTLINE OF THIS THESIS	16
MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF THE RESEARCH	18
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	
INTRODUCTION	19
THE CONCEPT OF TRUST	20
What is Trust	20
Trust as a set of beliefs or expectations	21
Trust as a behavioural intention or behaviour	21
Major components in a definition of trust	23
Cognition-Based Trust and Affect-Based Trust	25
Relationship-Based and Character-Based Perspectives of Trust	27
Moderating Effects of Definition of Trust and Referent of Trust	28

TRUSTWORTHINESS FACTORS AND TRUST	30
Parsimonious Factors of Trustworthiness	31
Key Tenets of Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) Trust Model	32
THE ROLE OF GROUPS IN THE FORMATION OF TRUST IN ORGANISATIONAL AUTHORITIES	34
Effects of Group Processes on Employee Perception of Superior's Trustworthiness	35
Group Cohesiveness	36
Consequences of Group Cohesiveness	37
EFFECTS OF TRUST ON ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES	39
Effects of Trust on Affective Organisational Commitment	40
Affective organisational commitment (affective commitment)	40
Trust in organisational authorities and affective commitment	42
Effects of Trust on Job Satisfaction	44
Job satisfaction	44
Trust in organisational authorities and job satisfaction	45
Effects of Trust on Turnover Intention	48
Turnover intention	48
Trust in organisational authorities and turnover intention	49
Effects of Trust on Intention-to-Return	60
Intention-to-return	60
Trust in organisational authorities and intention-to-return	63
ROLE-MODELLING AS A POTENTIAL MODERATOR OF TRUST-OUTCOME RELATIONSHIPS	64
Linkage between Role-modelling and Shared Values	65
Linkage between Shared Values and Trust	67
Multi-states of trust experience	68
CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND THEIR IMPACTS	70
The Origins of Cultural Differences	70
Impacts of Cultural Differences on Aspects of Behaviour and Interpersonal Relation	73
SUMMARY	77

CHAPTER 3: MODEL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

INTRODUCTION	80
THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	81
Operational Definitions	85
ANALYTICAL MODEL OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	88
Relationships between Top Management's Trustworthiness Factors and Trust in Top Management	88
Influence of Group Cohesiveness on Employee Perceptions of Top Management's Trustworthiness	93
Relationships between Trust in Top Management and Important Organisational Outcomes	96
Influence of Senior Manager Role-modelling on the Trust–Outcome Relationships	102
OUTLINE OF PROPOSED HYPOTHESES	105
SUMMARY	106

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION	107
PARADIGMS IN ORGANISATIONAL RESEARCH	107
CHOICE OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH PARADIGM	109
GENERAL RESEARCH APPROACH	110
SURVEY RESEARCH AND ITS APPROPRIATENESS	111
SURVEY RESEARCH DESIGN	112
Sampling and Sampling Frame	113
Selecting the Survey Method	115
Questionnaire Design for Mail Survey	116
Question content, question type and question wording	116
Development of new instrument measuring intention-to-return	117
Adaptation of previously validated instruments measuring study constructs	118
Questionnaire items measuring demographic characteristics	120
Response format, structure and layout	121
<i>Minimize response set biases</i>	122
<i>Use of Likert-type scales</i>	122

Instrumentation Validity	124
Content validity, reliability, and construct validity	124
Factor analysis	125
Reliability analysis	127
Convergent and discriminant validity analysis: Construct validity	128
Assumptions underlying factor, reliability, and correlational analysis, and their test procedures	129
Pilot Study	129
Administering the pilot study	130
Discussion of the pilot study results	130
Main Study: Data Collection for Both the WA and SIN Studies	132
Final survey questionnaire, cover letter and incentive	133
Data collection and follow-up efforts	133
DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING	135
Multiple Regression Analysis	135
Simple Regression Analysis	136
Subgroup Analysis	137
Statistical Tests for the Equality of Regression Parameters	139
Assumptions Underlying Regression Analysis, Chow (1960) Test, and Independent Groups T-Test, and Their Test Procedures	140
LIMITATIONS OF THE METHODOLOGY	141
ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	142
SUMMARY	142
 CHAPTER 5: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS	
INTRODUCTION	143
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE	143
Response Rate and Respondent Characteristics	143
Nonresponse Bias	145
Bias Caused by Common Method Variance	148
PSYCHOMETRIC ASSESSMENTS OF THE CONSTRUCTS	149
Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis	150
Results of Convergent and Discriminant Validity Analysis	150

TESTS OF HYPOTHESES	163
Pre-test for the Statistical Significance of Demographic Variables in the Regressions Specified for Hypothesis Testing	164
Results of Hypothesis Testing Done on the WA Data	165
Results of Hypothesis Testing Done on the SIN Data	180
COMPARISONS OF REGRESSION MODELS/LINES BETWEEN WA AND SIN	195
TESTS OF MODIFIED TRUST MODEL (MTM)	201
Regression Model for the MTM Based on the WA Data	201
Regression Model for the MTM Based on the SIN Data	203
Comparison of Regression Models for the MTM across WA and SIN	205
ASSUMPTION TESTING	206
SUMMARY	208
 CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	
INTRODUCTION	209
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS ABOUT THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS/HYPOTHESES	209
Development of the Research Outcome Model	225
Quality of the Data: Biases, Validity, Generalisability	229
CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE RESEARCH PROBLEM	230
SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH	231
Relevance and importance to the practice of professionals	232
Originality of the research outcome model	232
IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS	233
Theoretical Implications	233
Practical Implications	237
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	240
FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS	242
THESIS CONCLUSIONS	243
 REFERENCES	245

APPENDICES	282
Appendix 1: Preliminary Documents	283
Appendix 1.1: References of Some Previous Studies Indicating Positive Relationships of Trust with Organisational Outcomes	284
Appendix 1.2: Instrument Development – 10 Items Considered Having Face Validity to Tap into the Intention-To-Return Domain	286
Appendix 2: Pilot Study Documents	287
Appendix 2-1: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring top management’s ability	288
Appendix 2-2: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring top management’s benevolence	289
Appendix 2-3: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring top management’s integrity	290
Appendix 2-4: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring trust in top management	291
Appendix 2-5: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring senior manager role-modelling	292
Appendix 2-6: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring group cohesiveness	293
Appendix 2-7: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring affective commitment	294
Appendix 2-8: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring job satisfaction	295
Appendix 2-9: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring turnover intention	296
Appendix 2-10: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring intention-to-return	297
Appendix 2-11: Pilot study – Questionnaire items measuring demographic data	298
Appendix 2-12: Pilot study – Cover letter and survey questionnaire	299
Appendix 2-13: Full pilot study report	306
Appendix 2-14: Assumptions underlying factor, reliability, and correlational analysis, and their test procedures	316
Appendix 2-15: Pilot study illustration – Factor and reliability analysis of the intention-to-return scale	319
Appendix 3: Main Study Documents	323
Appendix 3-1: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring top management’s ability	324

Appendix 3-2: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring top management’s benevolence	325
Appendix 3-3: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring top management’s integrity	326
Appendix 3-4: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring trust in top management	327
Appendix 3-5: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring senior manager role-modelling	328
Appendix 3-6: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring group cohesiveness	329
Appendix 3-7: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring affective commitment	330
Appendix 3-8: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring job satisfaction	331
Appendix 3-9: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring turnover intention	332
Appendix 3-10: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring intention-to-return	333
Appendix 3-11: Main study – Questionnaire items measuring demographic data	334
Appendix 3-12A: Main study – Cover letter and survey questionnaire	335
Appendix 3-12B: Main study – Follow-up letter for the random sample of employees in a variety of WA industries	341
Appendix 3-13: Pre-test for the statistical significance of demographic variables in the regressions specified for hypothesis testing	342
Appendix 3-14: Assumptions underlying regression analysis, and their test procedures	351
Appendix 3-15: Illustration – Tests of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals underlying regression analysis	353
Appendix 3-16: Illustration – Tests of normality assumption underlying independent groups t-test	355
Appendix 4: Ethics Approval	357

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Empirical Studies Suggesting Positive Relationships between Trust in Organisational Authorities and Affective Commitment	43
Table 2.2: Empirical Studies Suggesting Positive Relationships between Trust in Organisational Authorities and Job Satisfaction	47
Table 2.3: Empirical Studies Suggesting Negative Relationships between Trust in Organisational Authorities and Turnover Intention	50
Table 2.4: Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions	73
Table 4.1: Summary of Previously Validated Multi-item Instruments	119
Table 4.2: Pilot Study's Alphas vs. Developers' or Authors' Alphas	132
Table 5.1: Respondent Characteristics	144
Table 5.2W: WA Study – Estimating Nonresponse Bias	146
Table 5.2S: SIN Study – Estimating Nonresponse Bias	147
Table 5.3W: WA Study – Test for Common Method Variance	148
Table 5.3S: SIN Study – Test for Common Method Variance	149
Table 5.4W Part 1 of 2: WA Study – Factor Analysis Results	151
Table 5.4W Part 2 of 2: WA Study – Factor Analysis Results	152
Table 5.4S Part 1 of 2: SIN Study – Factor Analysis Results	153
Table 5.4S Part 2 of 2: SIN Study – Factor Analysis Results	154
Table 5.5W Part 1 of 2: WA Study – Reliability Analysis Results	155
Table 5.5W Part 2 of 2: WA Study – Reliability Analysis Results	156
Table 5.5S Part 1 of 2: SIN Study – Reliability Analysis Results	157
Table 5.5S Part 2 of 2: SIN Study – Reliability Analysis Results	158
Table 5.6W: WA Study – Constructs' AVEs (Average Variance Extracted) and Constructs' Shared Variances	159
Table 5.6S: SIN Study – Constructs' AVEs (Average Variance Extracted) and Constructs' Shared Variances	160
Table 5.7W: WA Study – Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas	161
Table 5.7S: SIN Study – Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas	162
Table 5.8: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a	165
Table 5.8A: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a	166
Table 5.9: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1b	167

Table 5.10: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1c	167
Table 5.11: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1d	168
Table 5.12: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2a	168
Table 5.13: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2b	169
Table 5.14: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3a	171
Table 5.15: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3b	172
Table 5.16: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4a	174
Table 5.17: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4b	175
Table 5.18: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5a	177
Table 5.19: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5b	178
Table 5.20: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a	180
Table 5.20A: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a	181
Table 5.21: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1b	182
Table 5.22: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1c	182
Table 5.23: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1d	183
Table 5.24: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2a	183
Table 5.25: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2b	184
Table 5.26: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3a	186
Table 5.27: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3b	187
Table 5.28: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4a	189
Table 5.29: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4b	190
Table 5.30: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5a	192
Table 5.31: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5b	193
Table 5.32: Test for Equality of Regression Models across Two Countries (for Hypothesis 1a)	195
Table 5.33: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 1a)	196
Table 5.34: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 1b)	196
Table 5.35: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 1c)	197
Table 5.36: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (Hypothesis 1d)	197
Table 5.37: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 2a)	198

Table 5.38: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 3a)	198
Table 5.39: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 4a)	199
Table 5.40: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries (for Hypothesis 5a)	199
Table 5.41: WA Study – Statistics for Modified Trust Model (MTM)	202
Table 5.42: WA Study –Test for Stability of Regression Model for MTM	202
Table 5.43: SIN Study – Statistics for Modified Trust Model (MTM)	204
Table 5.44: SIN Study –Test for Stability of Regression Model for MTM	204
Table 5.45: Test for Equality of Regression Models for MTM across WA and SIN	205
Table 5.46: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients for MTM across WA and SIN	205
Table 6.1: Result Summary of Hypothesis Testing Done on WA & SIN Data	210
Table 6.2: Generalisability of Research Findings for Each Hypothesis by Country	211
Table 6.3: Comparisons of Regression Models/Lines between WA and SIN	212
Table 6.4: Summary of Test Results for the Modified Trust Model (MTM)	213
Table 6.5: Future Research Directions	242

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Part 1: The Theoretical Framework Part 1	82
Figure 3.1 Part 2: The Theoretical Framework Part 2	83
Figure 3.2: Outline View of the Theoretical Framework	84
Figure 5.1: WA Study – Regression of Affective Commitment on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	170
Figure 5.2: WA Study – Regression of Job Satisfaction on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	173
Figure 5.3: WA Study – Regression of Turnover Intention on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	176
Figure 5.4: WA Study – Regression of Intention-to-Return on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	179
Figure 5.5: SIN Study – Regression of Affective Commitment on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	185
Figure 5.6: SIN Study – Regression of Job Satisfaction on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	188
Figure 5.7: SIN Study – Regression of Turnover Intention on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	191
Figure 5.8: SIN Study – Regression of Intention-to-Return on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups	194
Figure 6.1 Part 1: The Research Outcome Model Part 1	226
Figure 6.1 Part 2: The Research Outcome Model Part 2	227
Figure 6.2: Outline View of the Research Outcome Model	228

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

Trust is defined as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995, p. 712). The benefits of trust and its increased importance have been cited in such areas as communication, conflict, leadership, management by objectives, negotiation, game theory, performance appraisal, implementation of SMWT (self-managed work teams), and employee–management relations. In particular, the implementation of SMWT significantly increases the importance of trust because direct observation of employees becomes impractical, and trust must take the place of control and supervision (Larson & LaFasto 1989). Again, for employee–management relations, trust is important because it facilitates cooperation between employees and management, affects resources available to firms, and improves firms’ ability in responding to their environment (Taylor 1989).

Recognition of the benefits and importance of trust within organisations has grown dramatically in recent years. This is evidenced by an abundance of studies (as in chapter 2) attempting to understand the antecedents of trust, and trust–outcome relationships important to organisational performance and effectiveness. The two subsections that follow discuss the importance of trust within organisations in respect to trust as a source of competitive advantage, and the increasing importance of trust in management.

Trust as a Source of Competitive Advantage

A successful firm is one with an attractive relative position that arises from the firm possessing a sustainable competitive advantage vis-à-vis its rivals (Porter 1991).

While there are many routes to competitive advantage, such as the industrial organisation perspective (e.g., Porter 1985), and the resource-based view (e.g., Barney 1986; Barney 1991,1995; Wernerfelt 1984), the strategy literature has strongly emphasized the resource-based view since the mid 1980s (Rouse & Daellenbach 1999). The resource-based view suggests that factors inside organisations are a primary source of sustainable competitive advantage, and that a firm can identify, evaluate and develop those internal organisational attributes which can create competitive advantages over rival firms (Barney 1991,1995; Lado, Boyd & Wright 1992; Wernerfelt 1984). Underlying this view is the belief that competitive advantage deriving from traditional marketing strategies may not be sustainable in the dynamic environments due to quick imitation, counter-attacks, and weakening entry barriers (D'Aveni 1994; Davis et al. 2000).

For an internal organisational attribute to provide a competitive advantage, it must be valuable, imperfectly imitable, and rare (Barney 1986,1991,1995). In this regard, trust appears to fulfill these three criteria, and thus can result in a performance advantage that is sustainable (Barney & Hansen 1994; Davis et al. 2000). Specifically, trust is valuable in the sense that it eliminates or reduces opportunistic behaviours and formal controls (Zaheer & Venkatraman 1995). Trust between two parties is unique to that relationship and therefore cannot be easily and perfectly imitated (Davis et al. 2000). And trust can be considered rare since it is a fragile thing that emerges and grows at a painfully slow pace, but can be destroyed in an instant (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Mishra & Morrissey 1990).

In respect to the criterion of rareness, trust between management and employees has been considered rare as evidenced in a number of reports concerning the trust gap between management and employees (e.g., Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Davenport 1990; Ettore 1995; Farnham 1989; Mishra & Morrissey 1990; Morehead et al. 1997; Onrec 2009; Seitel 1990; Watson Wyatt 2009). To illustrate, Mishra & Morrissey (1990) reported that more than 78% of American workers were suspicious of their management and developed an 'us-against-them' syndrome that interfered with their performance. Morehead et al. (1997) reported that a large national survey of Australian workplace revealed a very low level of trust in management, particularly within the public sector. More

recently, Onrec's (2009) report on an employee survey showed a fundamental lack of trust in UK companies' top management. Also, Watson Wyatt's (2009) country report about Singapore revealed that 47% of employees in the tenure group of 1 to 20 years indicated a lack of trust in top management.

Consistent with the resource-based view of strategic advantage, the developments in the field of organisational research have revealed the importance and benefits of trust for sustaining organisational performance and effectiveness (Bijlsma & Koopman 2003; Erdem & Ozen 2003; Kramer 1999; McAllister 1995; Rousseau et al. 1998). In the face of environmental and competitive pressures, organisations are moving towards flat and team-oriented structures where employees perform multidimensional work with the autonomy to make decisions (Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003). Such organisational arrangements require trust between employees and their managers in order to be successful (Whitener et al. 1998). Thus, many researchers and practitioners have extensively recognized trust as an important factor in determining organisational success and stability, as well as the employees' well-being (e.g., Clark & Payne 1997; Cook & Wall 1980; Hosmer 1995; Kramer & Tyler 1996; Mayer & Davis 1999; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995; Shaw 1997).

In brief, trust is a source of competitive advantage based on Barney's (1986; 1991; 1995) criteria of value, imperfect imitability, and rareness. This notion of competitive advantage reflects significant importance of trust within organisations, particularly in relation to trust in management. Organisations that have trusting relationships between management and employees should have an edge over rivals that do not (Bromiley & Cummings 1995; Hosmer 1995), for trust in management leads to improved organisational performance and effectiveness (e.g., Davis et al. 2000). More about the importance of trust in management is discussed next.

Importance of Trust in Management

As organisations restructure and reengineer in the name of efficiency and effectiveness, trust in management has become an increasingly important element in

determining organisational climate, employee performance, and organisation commitment (Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001).

The notion of 'trust as a source of competitive advantage' signifies a very important mechanism by which firm performance can be affected. In particular, the degree of trust between management and employees has a direct impact on organisational outcomes (Argyris 1964). In an organisational climate of high trust in management, employees are more willing to see the legitimate needs of the organisation. Conversely, where trust in management is low, employees vent frustration and aggression by attempting to break management rules, or by setting inappropriate goals which are not conducive to firm performance (Davis et al. 2000).

Consistent with the above view, many academic researchers, business practitioners and consultants (e.g., Bartolome 1989; Belasco 1989; Bennis 1989; Clawson 1989; Covey 1989; Horton & Reid 1991; Hosmer 1995; Watson 1991) have emphasized the critical importance of building trusting relationships between management and employees. Accordingly, managers' effectiveness depends on their ability to gain employees' trust, particularly when organisations have become flatter and more team-based, and surveillance of employees must give way to less dictatorial types of interpersonal influence (Brockner et al. 1997).

Trust in management has long been considered important to organisational outcomes (e.g., Argyris 1964; Brockner et al. 1997; Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak 2001; Scott 1980; Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Tzafrir et al. 2004; Zand 1972). Specifically, trust in management increases employee support for the management, improves employee commitment to the organisation, and enhances employee willingness to behave in ways that help to achieve organisational goals (Brockner et al. 1997). Again, trust in management influences employee organisational citizenship behaviours, and employee voluntary behaviours on behalf of the organisation (Konovsky & Pugh 1994; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Shamir & Lapidot 2003).

In addition, a number of more recent studies have revealed numerous consequences of trust in management, including belief in information, organisational commitment (Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Costa 2003; De Gilder 2003;

Dirks & Ferrin 2002), decision commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, job satisfaction, satisfaction with leaders, intention to stay (Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; De Gilder 2003; Dirks & Ferrin 2002), goal commitment, and job performance (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). These studies offer empirical evidence suggesting trust in management is related to a wide array of organisational outcomes, and further substantiate the importance of trust in management.

Summing up the foregoing discussion, it is noted that while trust in management has been known to have strong impacts on organisational outcomes, many organisations have yet to resolve the problem of low trust in management as evidenced in the management–employee trust gap reports previously discussed. The persistence of such problems appears to be largely due to improper approach used in the treatments of trust. While the literature reflects a fair amount of effort directed towards an understanding of trust building process, little research, if any, has been done into three important issues that follow. First, the potential effects of group processes on employee perceptions of management’s trustworthiness. Second, the moderating effects of potential moderators on the relationships between trust in management and important organisational outcomes. Third, the potential impacts of cultural differences on trusting relationships. Therefore, from the discussion emerges the broad research problem that follows.

RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The problem addressed in this research is:

Facing the persistent problem of low trust in top management (TITM) despite firms’ efforts in building trust, how can firms create (1) a condition to improve TITM, and (2) a condition to minimize the impacts of TITM on organisational outcomes?

The above broad research problem prompts relevant literature searches to unearth specific research questions for its resolution. Hence, chapter 2 discusses the

relevant literature in respect of different constructs and sets the stage for developing a theoretical framework for the study. Firstly, the concept of trust is thoroughly examined and discussed followed by the discussion of the parsimonious trustworthiness factors, and the key tenets of Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model. Secondly, while the social context (e.g., groups) for trust has been thought to be important (Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wekselberg 1996), it has been neglected in the most widely accepted definition of trust by Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995). Given this limitation (gap) in the authors' theory, the role of groups in the formation of trust in organisational authorities, including the effects of group processes on employee perceptions of superior's trustworthiness, and group cohesiveness and its consequences are examined and discussed.

Thirdly, four important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return are examined and discussed in respect of their important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness, and the pattern of their relationships with trust in organisational authorities. Finally, it has been argued that trust, alone, is an inadequate condition for certain desirable outcomes to occur (Hwang & Burgers 1997). It is something (i.e., the moderator) that provides the conditions under which certain trust–outcome relationships will be more or less pronounced (Brockner et al. 1997). Given this controversy, the potential moderating effects of role-modelling on the trust–outcome relationships are examined and discussed. As well, the linkage between role-modelling and shared values, and the linkage between shared values and trust are discussed.

In addition, driven by the notion of cultural differences having substantial impacts on interpersonal relations (e.g., Harrison 1995), and the theories suggesting trust is primarily an interpersonal phenomenon (e.g., Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), cultural differences and their impacts are examined and discussed. From the discussion about the origins of cultural differences, and the impacts of cultural differences on aspects of behaviour/interpersonal relation, it is suggested that a two-country study design is required to validate if research findings are replicable across culturally different countries.

All together, the literature review gradually identifies and develops the following four research questions aimed at resolving the broad research problem.

- RQ1. To what extent are employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity related to employee trust in top management?
- RQ2. How does group cohesiveness influence employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness?
- RQ3. To what extent is employee trust in top management related to each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?
- RQ4. How does role-modelling of senior managers influence the relationship between employee trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?

Briefly, RQ1 emerges out of the discussion of various issues, including the moderating effects of referent of trust¹ (Dirks & Ferrin 2002) and the inconsistent research findings on antecedent–trust relationships (Davis et al. 2000; Mayer & Gavin 2005). RQ2 grows out of the discussion of the importance of social context (e.g., groups) for trust (Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wekselberg 1996), the limitation (gap) in Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) theory, the role of groups in the formation of trust in organisational authorities (e.g., Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wech 2002), and group cohesiveness and its consequences (e.g., Gilbert & Tang 1998; Kandula et al. 2009; Mennecke, Hoffer & Valacich 1995).

RQ3 emerges out of the discussion of various issues, such as the potential linkage between employee trust in top management and the newly developed intention-to-return construct, and the moderating effects of both definition of trust and referent of trust that may vary the trust–outcome relationships (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). Finally, RQ4 grows out of the discussion of the linkage between role-

¹ Referent of trust means trustee according to Dirks & Ferrin (2002).

modelling and shared values (e.g., Bandura 1986; Bass 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1987; House 1977; Kouzes & Posner 1987; Schein 1985; Shamir, House & Arthur 1993; Sims & Brinkmann 2002; Yukl 1993), the linkage between shared values and trust (e.g., Barber 1983; Jones & George 1998; Lewicki, McAllister & Bies 1998), and the potential moderating effects of role-modelling on the trust–outcome relationships.

Answering the research questions provides contributions that are presented in chapter 6. In summary, this research makes four significant contributions to the body of knowledge. First, it has established a modified trust model (MTM) that is shown to have better cross-validity in predicting employee trust in top management vis-à-vis the original trust model (OTM) adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995). The MTM has two predictors: top management’s ability, and integrity, whereas the OTM has three: top management’s ability, integrity, and benevolence. Second, it has concluded that group cohesiveness influences employee perceptions of top management’s trustworthiness, and added the collective phenomenon of trust which supplements Mayer, Davis & Schoorman’s (1995) trust model and others that deal only with the interpersonal phenomenon of trust. Third, it has extended the ‘intention-to-return’ construct into the inventory of organisational outcomes, and established its positive association with trust in top management. Fourth, it has demonstrated that senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between employee trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return.

JUSTIFICATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The gap in the literature, the originality of the research outcome model, and the relevance and importance of the findings to the practice of professionals provide justification for the research. Some pertinent details follow.

Gap in the literature: This has been identified in the ‘background to the research’ section as relative neglect of the research problem by previous researchers. It is expected that findings from the research will provide insights for firms to deal with the persistent problem of low trust in top management as evidenced in the aforesaid management–employee trust gap reports (1989 – 2009). Such findings are crucial in view of the strong impacts that trust in top management has on important organisational outcomes.

Originality of the research outcome model: Overall, the research outcome model is based on the research findings that have been replicable across two culturally different countries: Western Australia and Singapore. Respectively, the modified trust model (first contribution aforesaid) has been established and justified on similar findings (i.e., better cross-validity vis-à-vis the original trust model) across the two countries. Again, the second and fourth contributions are the new perspectives deduced by synthesizing prior theories and research, which have not been attempted by prior researchers. Finally, the third contribution is the new perspective (involving a newly developed construct) deduced by reasoning from analogy of other outcome variables found in the literature.

Relevance and importance of the findings to the practice of professionals: This study focuses on organisational outcomes shown to have important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness. As such, the new perspectives will provide new knowledge about the relationship of group cohesiveness with trust in top management (TITM), and the moderating effects of senior manager role-modelling on the TITM–outcome relationships, which are crucial to organisational performance and effectiveness. In turn, this new knowledge assists understanding of the strategic roles of group cohesiveness and senior manager role-modelling in influencing organisational performance and effectiveness, which may lead to change in professional practices. Hereof, the new perspective concerning the positive association of intention-to-return with trust in top management is especially important for situations facing skill shortages and shift towards contract employments.

METHODOLOGY

Details of the methodology appropriate for collecting evidence to test the research hypotheses and answer the research questions are described in chapter 4. An overview of which is provided as follows.

Research paradigm: This study takes the theoretical perspective of functionalism characterized by an objectivist view of the organisational world, with an orientation toward seeking the regularities and relationships that lead to generalisations (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Gioia & Pitre 1990). From this perspective emerges the choice of **Quantitative Research Paradigm** which subscribes to the philosophical assumptions of positivist ontology, empirical epistemology, and quantitative methodology (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Creswell 1998; Gioia & Pitre 1990; Lee 1992).

Ontologically, the study treats the research situation as if it were a hard, external, objective reality like the natural world (Burrell & Morgan 1979). This objective view of reality encourages an empirical epistemology stance that emphasizes the importance of analysing relationships and regularities among the elements of interest within the research situation through which knowledge relevant to the research questions is gained (Lee 1992). From these ontological and epistemological stances emerges the choice of quantitative methodology that emphasizes the importance of basing research upon systematic protocol and technique (Burrell & Morgan 1979).

Theory building for the study, therefore, takes place in a deductive manner, starting with literature review, gap identification, research question formulation, research model development, hypothesis formulation, research design, data collection, data analysis, and hypothesis testing. In particular, the study focuses on the process of testing hypotheses in accordance with scientific rigour that allows for value-free and unbiased results. The results of the research process are “either verification or falsification of the hypotheses, with theory building occurring through

the incremental revision or extension (or occasionally, rejection) of the original theory” (Gioia & Pitre 1990, p. 590).

Sampling frame: This research study encompasses two field studies conducted in Western Australia (the WA study) and Singapore (the SIN study). In both field studies, the population of interest is employees from a diverse range of industries. The sampling frame for the WA study comprises ten (10) randomly selected companies operating in various industries; and a random sample of employees in a variety of industries. For the SIN study, the sampling frame includes fifteen (15) randomly selected companies operating in various industries.

Measures: All study constructs in the theoretical framework are measured using multi-item scales. The ‘intention-to-return’ construct is measured with a four-item instrument newly developed and tested for good psychometric properties. For all other constructs, existing scales that have well-established psychometric properties and have been previously used in the literature are modified slightly to fit the research context. In particular, the five-item scale for trust in top management is adapted from Mayer & Gavin (2005); the six-item scale for top management’s ability, and the two five-item scales for top management’s benevolence and top management’s integrity are adapted from Mayer & Davis (1999). Also, the six-item scale for group cohesiveness is adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1993), and the five-item scale for senior manager role-modelling from Rich (1997). Again, the five-item scale for affective commitment, and the two four-item scales for job satisfaction and turnover intention are adapted from Brashear et al. (2003). These adapted scales have been retested for the adequacy of validity and reliability.

Mail survey questionnaire: The survey questionnaire design follows certain guidelines provided by authorities (e.g., Frazer & Lawley 2000; Grinnell 1997; Mangione 1995; Sekaran 2003; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). The response format for all multi-item scales employs a six-point Likert-type scale that leaves out the midpoint choice aimed at minimizing central tendency bias (Mangione 1995; Si & Cullen 1998). Demographic variables (age, gender, education level, job type, basis of employment, level of employment, and organisational tenure) using category scales are placed in the last section of the questionnaire. Short and clear closed questions

expressed in plain and simple English are used throughout the questionnaire. All questions are neatly aligned and logically organised in appropriate sections with clear instructions on how to complete them.

Pilot study/pre-testing survey questionnaire: To ensure comprehension of the question wordings such that measurement error can be minimized (Long 1991; Sekaran 2003; Sitzman 2002), the questionnaire was pre-tested using 160 respondents not participating in the final data collection. These comprised 43 postgraduate students from Curtin Graduate School of Business and 117 employees from a variety of Western Australian industries. Whereas a handful of respondent feedback provided clues towards question wording improvements, the pilot results suggested minor alterations to two scales (top management's integrity, affective commitment) to improve their psychometric properties.

Data collection: Data collection was administered in two phases. Phase I (August/September 2008) was allocated for the SIN study and Phase II (September/October 2008) for the WA study. In the SIN study, 1,000 survey packs were distributed to employees across the fifteen (15) companies listed in the sampling frame. Of which, 226 surveys were completed and returned yielding a response rate of 22.6 percent (226/1000). Of the returned surveys, 14 were discarded due to too many missing values, leaving a final sample of 212. For the WA study, 1,500 survey packs were distributed to the ten (10) companies' employees and the random sample of employees in a variety of industries, as per the sampling frame. Of which, 325 surveys were completed and returned yielding a response rate of 21.67 percent (325/1500). Of the returned surveys, 20 were discarded due to too many missing values, leaving a final sample of 305. All together, the data collection efforts yielded two separate data sets for individual data analysis. The 'goodness of data' for each field study was affirmed through the tests of validity and reliability of the measures (Sekaran 2003).

Data analysis techniques: The data analysis techniques employed in this research are described in chapter 4. These techniques are factor analysis, reliability analysis, correlational analysis, standard multiple regression, hierarchical multiple regression, simple regression, subgroup analysis, independent groups t-test, GLM

(General Linear Model) procedure, Chow test (Chow 1960), and Arnold's (1982) T-test formula. While SPSS graduate pack 16.0 is capable of performing most of these analytical procedures, manual computations and statistics tables are required for Chow test and Arnold's T-test.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Operational definitions used by researchers are often not uniform. Hence, the operational definitions employed in this research are detailed in chapter 3 and outlined as follows.

Affective Commitment: Affective commitment, a dimension of organisational commitment, refers to the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Porter et al. 1974).

Conditional Trust: Conditional trust is a state of trust in which both parties are willing to transact with each other, as long as each behaves appropriately and uses a similar scheme to define the situation (Jones & George 1998).

Group Cohesiveness: Group cohesiveness is the degree to which a group sticks together, or the strength of a group member's desire to remain part of his or her work group (Gilbert & Tang 1998).

Intention-to-Return: This newly developed construct is conceptualized as the employee's perception that he/she has intention to return to the organisation from which he/she will leave upon completion of his/her contract or might leave voluntarily due to personal reasons.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke 1976). It is operationalized as one's affective attachment to the job in its entirety (Tett & Meyer 1993).

Senior Managers: Senior managers refer to those who report directly to the top management.

Senior Manager Role-modelling: Senior manager role-modelling is defined as the senior manager's behaviour, perceived by the employees to be an appropriate example to follow, which is consistent with both the senior manager's espoused values and the organisation's goals (e.g., Bass 1985; House 1977).

Top Management: "Top management is the group of persons at or near the top of the organisational chart" (McCauley & Kuhnert 1992, p. 269).

Top Management's Ability: Top management's ability, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) has skills, competencies and attributes that enable it to have influence within some specific domain.

Top Management's Benevolence: Top management's benevolence, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) wants to do good for the employee (trustor), aside from an egocentric motive.

Top Management's Integrity: Top management's integrity, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) adheres to a set of principles that is deemed acceptable by the employee (trustor).

Trust in Top Management: Trust in top management, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is operationalized as the willingness of an employee (trustor) to be vulnerable to the actions of the top management (trustee) based on the expectations that the top management will perform a particular action important to the employee, irrespective of the employee's ability to monitor or control the top management.

Turnover Intention: Turnover intention is defined as “a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation” (Tett & Meyer 1993, p. 262).

Unconditional Trust: Unconditional trust is an experience of trust based primarily on shared values that structure the social situation (Jones & George 1998).

DELIMITATIONS OF SCOPE AND KEY ASSUMPTIONS

In both the WA and SIN studies, the population of interest is employees from a diverse range of industries. While no industry boundary is placed around the research problem (as justified in chapter 4: sampling and sampling frame), the research findings do have a geographic boundary of generalisability as findings for one country may not be applicable to another due to cultural differences across countries. In particular, for the WA study, generalisation of the results beyond Western Australia is not intended. Similarly, for the SIN study, generalisation of the results beyond Singapore is not intended.

Given the cultural differences between Australia and Singapore according to Hofstede’s (1980; 2001; 2005) cultural dimensions (as in chapter 2), it is assumed that the research findings, if replicable across Western Australia and Singapore, are possibly generalisable to other settings based on replicability of findings across culturally different countries.

OUTLINE OF THIS THESIS

This thesis is organised around six chapters, namely chapter 1: introduction, chapter 2: literature review, chapter 3: model development and hypotheses, chapter 4: methodology, chapter 5: results and analysis, and chapter 6: discussion and conclusions.

Chapter 1 lays the foundations for the thesis. It introduces the background to the research, the research problem and research questions, and the justification for the research. These are then followed by an overview of the methodology, the operational definitions, the delimitations of scope and key assumptions, and an outline of the thesis. Finally, the main conclusions of the research are presented.

The broad research problem presented in chapter 1 prompts relevant literature searches to unearth specific research questions for its resolution. Hence, chapter 2 discusses the relevant literature in respect of different constructs that ultimately lead to the identification and development of the above-mentioned research questions. In addition, chapter 2 discusses the impacts of cultural differences on aspects of behaviour/interpersonal relation, and suggests that a two-country study design is required to validate if research findings are replicable across culturally different countries.

By synthesizing the theories, propositions, concepts, and research evidence drawn from the literature, a theoretical framework is developed and presented in chapter 3. Accordingly, chapter 3 describes the developed theoretical framework showing the relationships among various variables deemed relevant to the research questions. Associated with the theoretical framework are the operational definitions of all constructs, and the analytical model of the theoretical framework. The analytical model elucidates the theories and empirical evidence underlying the relationships in the theoretical framework, and addresses the research questions by developing a series of theoretically justified and testable hypotheses that guide the rest of the study.

Respectively, chapter 4 describes the methodology appropriate for collecting evidence to test the hypotheses according to scientific rigour. In particular, the justification for the methodology in respect to the philosophical assumptions, methodology precedents, and the research questions are sufficiently provided. Above all, various aspects of the research design, including sampling frame, survey method, questionnaire design, instrumentation validity and reliability, pilot study, and data collection and follow-up are addressed. Equally important, the data analysis techniques appropriate for hypothesis testing, the limitations of the methodology, and the ethical considerations of the research are clearly defined.

Subsequently, chapter 5 presents the results and analysis, which details how the data gathered from the respondents are analysed to test the proposed hypotheses and answer the research questions. In particular, the general characteristics of the sample (response rate, respondent characteristics, nonresponse bias, and bias caused by common method variance) are succinctly defined, and the psychometric assessments of the constructs are sufficiently addressed. Most importantly, the results of hypothesis testing done on both the WA and SIN data, the comparisons of regression models/lines between WA and SIN, and the tests of modified trust model are adequately presented and explicated. Equally important, the results of assumption testing are succinctly addressed. Consistent with the tradition in science to separate the results from the discussion of their significance to preserve objectivity (Lindsay 1995), chapter 5 is restricted to presentation and analysis of the collected data, while discussion of the findings is presented in chapter 6.

Accordingly, chapter 6 discusses the findings of chapter 5 within the context of the literature, and their theoretical and practical implications. Above all, the discussion and conclusions of the findings about the research questions/hypotheses, the development of the research outcome model, and the discussion about the quality of the data are presented. Equally important, the conclusions about the research problem, the significant contributions of the research, and the theoretical and practical implications are provided. As well, the limitations of the study are addressed, and the future research directions are outlined. Finally, the thesis conclusions are presented.

MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Evidence from the study concludes, *inter alia*, that (1) group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness, which in turn improve trust in top management; and (2) in situations where trust in top management is low, senior manager role-modelling can serve to minimize the impacts that trust in top management has on organisational outcomes thereby minimizing undesirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness. This evidence is generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings on the grounds that the research findings have been replicable across two culturally different countries.

In essence, facing the persistent problem of low trust in top management despite firms' efforts in building trust, firms can (1) promote group cohesiveness to improve employee trust in top management; and (2) promote senior manager role-modelling to minimize the impacts of trust in top management on organisational outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Prompted by the broad research problem addressed in this study, relevant literature was analysed to identify and develop specific research questions/hypotheses for its resolution. This chapter discusses the relevant literature across different theoretical areas and sets the stage for developing a theoretical framework for the study.

The chapter comprises six sections. **The first section** discusses the concept of trust, including the various definitions of trust, cognition- and affect-based trusts, relationship- and character-based trusts, and the moderating effects of definition of trust and referent of trust². **The second section** addresses the trustworthiness factors and trust, including the parsimonious factors of trustworthiness, and the key tenets of Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model.

The third section discusses the role of groups in the formation of trust in organisational authorities, including the effects of group processes on employee perceptions of superior's trustworthiness, and group cohesiveness and its consequences. **The fourth section** examines the effects of trust on organisational outcomes, focusing on trust in organisational authorities and its relationships with organisational outcomes: affective organisational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return. **The fifth section** examines role-modelling as a potential moderator of the trust–outcome relationships including the linkage between role-modelling and shared values, and the linkage between shared values and trust. Finally, **the last section** examines cultural differences and their impacts, including the origins of cultural differences, and the impacts of cultural differences on aspects of behaviour/interpersonal relation.

² Referent of trust means trustee according to Dirks & Ferrin (2002).

THE CONCEPT OF TRUST

Numerous researchers in the disciplines of economics (e.g., Milgrom & Roberts 1992; Williamson 1993), psychology (e.g., Lewicki & Bunker 1995; Lindsfold 1978), sociology (e.g., Lewis & Weigert 1985; Zucker 1986), organisation (e.g., Hosmer 1995; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), management (e.g., Gulati 1995; Lane & Bachmann 1996), and marketing (e.g., Anderson & Weitz 1989; Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande 1992) appear to be unanimous on the importance of trust in the conduct of human affairs. However, there is no agreement on a single scholarly definition of trust due to disciplinary differences in the treatments of trust (Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998; Hosmer 1995; Rousseau et al. 1998). For example, economists view trust as calculative; psychologists assess trust in terms of trustors' and trustees' attributes that yield internal cognitions; and sociologists consider trust in social relationships among people or institutions (Rousseau et al. 1998).

While the different perspectives of trust across disciplines have undoubtedly added value and insight to the concept of trust (Hosmer 1995; Rousseau et al. 1998), the divergent meanings scholars bring to the study of trust have made the scholarly definition of trust problematic (Husted 1989). Thus, in order to search for a definition of trust that provides a conceptual foundation for the present study, this section begins with examining the various perspectives of trust in the subsection that follows.

What is Trust

Trust is a hazy and diffuse topic given the vagueness and idiosyncrasies in defining trust across multiple disciplines and orientations (Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998; Hosmer 1995). However, most researchers appear to propose their definitions within two general approaches to trust in the literature: (1) trust as a set of beliefs or expectations, and (2) trust as a behavioural intention or behaviour (Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998; Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande 1992). The analysis of the two general approaches follows.

Trust as a set of beliefs or expectations

In this approach, trust has been treated as a party's beliefs or expectations about another party's trustworthiness which results from that other party's expertise, reliability, or intentionality (Blau 1964; Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998; Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande 1992; Pruitt 1981; Rotter 1967).

Numerous researchers across disciplines have approached trust in this way, and focused on the nature of a trustor's beliefs or expectations in defining trust (e.g., Anderson & Weitz 1989; Bradach & Eccles 1989; Deutsch 1973; Dwyer & Oh 1987; Fukuyama 1995; Larzelere & Huston 1980; Lindsfold 1978; Rotter 1971; Schurr & Ozanne 1985). Nevertheless, each discipline emphasizes different beliefs or expectations as central to trustor behaviour with little agreement about the content of those beliefs and expectations (Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998). For example, both Deutsch (1973) and Lindsfold (1978) suggest trust as a trustor's beliefs about a trustee's motivation to help the trustor. Larzelere & Huston (1980) view trust as a trustor's beliefs about a trustee's benevolence and honesty. Bradach & Eccles (1989) emphasize trust as a party's expectation that another party in an exchange relationship will not engage in opportunistic behaviour, despite short-term benefits and long-term uncertainty in rewards. Finally, Fukuyama (1995) views trust as one party's expectation of regular, honest, and cooperative behaviours of the other party based on shared norms and values. These divergent views of trust clearly attribute to the extensive differences in defining trust, and such differences become even more extensive in combination with the second general approach to trust discussed next.

Trust as a behavioural intention or behaviour

In this approach, trust has been viewed as a behavioural intention or behaviour that involves uncertainty and/or vulnerability on the part of the trustor, and one party's dependence on another (e.g., Coleman 1990; Deutsch 1962; Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998; Giffin 1967; Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande 1992; Schlenker, Helm & Tedeschi 1973; Zand 1972). These researchers suggest that risk (i.e., uncertainty and/or vulnerability about an outcome) and dependent interactions are essential for trust to arise (Rousseau et al. 1998).

Uncertainty is important to trust in the sense that trust would not be needed if a trustor could control a trustee's actions or predict those actions completely and accurately (Coleman 1990; Deutsch 1958). Put it another way, if actions could be undertaken with complete certainty, there would be no need or even possibility for trust to develop (Lewis & Weigert 1985). Similarly, vulnerability is critical to trust, for without vulnerability, trust is unnecessary because outcomes are inconsequential for the trustor (Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande 1992). This trust-vulnerability connection is clearly reflected in Deutsch's (1962) definition of trust emphasizing trust as actions that increase one's vulnerability to another.

Besides considering uncertainty and vulnerability, this approach also views dependent interactions of a dyad to be important for trust to emerge (Rousseau et al. 1998). Several arguments appear to be consistent with this view. First, trust is a generalized expectancy held by one party that the word, promise, or statement of another party can be relied upon (Rotter 1967). Second, trust is one's willingness to increase one's vulnerability to another whose behaviour is not under one's control (Zand 1972). In anticipation of behaviour under conditions of vulnerability, trust becomes the conscious regulation of one's dependence on another that will vary with the task, the situation, and the person. Finally, while the decision to trust is made by one party, the hypothesized consequences of that decision is dependent upon the actions of another party (Hosmer 1995).

Briefly, in this approach to trust, most researchers across disciplines have agreed that both risk (vulnerability and/or uncertainty related) and dependence are necessary conditions for trust to emerge (Rousseau et al. 1998). Some have added the goal of an ultimate benefit and/or willing cooperation (Hosmer 1995). For example, Carnevale, Pruitt & Carrington (1982) argue that trust is a concomitant expectation that the other will reciprocate, and which is essential for the goal of achieving mutual cooperation. Again, Meeker (1984) stresses the importance of willing cooperation and suggests that a trustor expects helpful or cooperative behaviour from his or her trustee. Similarly, Michalos (1990) notes that trust is a relatively informed attitude or propensity allowing oneself and perhaps others to be vulnerable to harm in the interests of some perceived greater good.

Taken together, the above two general approaches to trust have distinguished two major components of trust, belief and behavioural intention, in a definition of trust discussed in the subsection that follows.

Major components in a definition of trust

Across disciplines, a number of researchers have shared the notion that both the belief and behavioural components aforesaid must exist for trust to arise. However, they tend to be more explicit with one component than the other, generally, in their definitions of trust. Some selected definitions are examined as follows.

Drawing on the view that a trustor's confidence results from his/her belief of the trustworthy party's reliability and integrity (e.g., Larzelere & Huston 1980; Rotter 1971), Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande (1992) define trust as "a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence" (p. 315). They argue that both belief and behavioural intention are essential, because trust is limited if one believes in a partner's trustworthiness without having a willingness to rely on that partner. Conversely, if one has a willingness to rely on a partner without holding a belief about that partner's trustworthiness, reliance is more a function of power and control than trust.

In parallel with Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande's (1992) definition that highlights the importance of a trustor's confidence, Morgan & Hunt (1994) conceptualize that trust exists "when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity" (p. 23). While the behavioural component of trust is absent from the definition, the authors argue that the behavioural intention of willingness to act is implicit in the conceptualization of trust. In their view, "if one is confident, then one would be willing; if one is not willing, then one is not genuinely confident" (p. 24).

Hosmer (1995) defines trust as "the reliance by one person, group, or firm upon a voluntarily accepted duty on the part of another person, group, or firm to recognize and protect the rights and interests of all others engaged in a joint

endeavour or economic exchange” (p. 393). Clearly, ‘the reliance on another party’s behaviour that recognizes and protects the rights and interests of all others’ is the behavioural intention of one party’s willingness to act. The belief component, one may argue, is implicit and may be thought as one party’s belief of the other party being helpful, responsive, honest, consistent, fair and reliable.

Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995) establish an integrative model of trust in which trust is defined as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (p. 712). Here, the authors stress ‘willingness to be vulnerable’ as a precondition for trust, because trust is not taking risk per se, but rather it is a willingness to take risk. Clearly, this definition incorporates explicitly both the belief and behavioural components of trust.

Doney, Cannon & Mullen (1998) stress that beliefs of another’s trustworthiness drive a trustor’s behaviour, and both are essential components for trust to emerge. Trust, they argue, involves not only forming beliefs of another’s trustworthiness, but there must also be a willingness to use these beliefs as a basis for behaviour intentions and behaviour. Guided by this line of arguments, the authors define trust as “a willingness to rely on another party and to take action in circumstances where such action makes one vulnerable to the other party” (p. 604).

Whitener et al. (1998) use a definition that reflects three main 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 fulfill this expectation – that is, trust involves a willingness to be vulnerable and risk that the other party may not fulfill 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” (p. 513). Clearly, this definition of trust incorporates the salient features drawn from many different definitions of trust (e.g., Deutsch 1962; Hosmer 1995; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995; Zand 1972). As a result, both the belief and behavioural components of trust are explicitly shown in the definition.

In sum, while trust has been defined in a number of ways in the trust literature, the Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) definition of trust aforesaid has been most frequently cited in the contemporary scholars' writings across disciplines (e.g., Bhattacharya, Devinney & Pillutla 1998; Doney, Cannon & Mullen 1998; Elangovan & Shapiro 1998; Jones & George 1998; Lewicki, McAllister & Bies 1998; McKnight, Cummings & Chervany 1998; Mishra & Spreitzer 1998; Whitener et al. 1998). In other words, these contemporary scholars have generally acknowledged that "trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another" (Rousseau et al. 1998, p. 395). In view of its acceptance and popularity across disciplines, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) definition of trust and associated trustworthiness factors warrant a thorough review detailed in the later section titled 'Trustworthiness Factors and Trust'. Meanwhile, the discussion on the concept of trust continues.

Trust in interpersonal relations may be rooted in rationality or emotion, and this difference can differentiate the quality and outcomes of trusting relationships (Erdem & Ozen 2003). This view is consistent with the notion of cognition-based trust and affect-based trust (Lewis & Weigert 1985; McAllister 1995) discussed next.

Cognition-Based Trust and Affect-Based Trust

Cognition-based trust arises when one cognitively chooses whom he/she will trust in which respects and under what circumstances, based on what he/she takes to be 'good reasons' constituting evidence of trustworthiness (Lewis & Weigert 1985). In other words, when trust is cognition-based, individuals look for a rational reason to trust other party (Erdem & Ozen 2003). For instance, one party expects that the other party will fulfil his/her role properly. Similarly, the keeping of one's words by the other party may provide a basis for cognitive trust.

Affect-based trust, on the other hand, consists of the emotional bonds between individuals (Lewis & Weigert 1985). When trust is affect-based, interaction between two parties is intensive; the relationship of trust deepens; and parties

involved make a mutual, emotional investment to their relationship (Erdem & Ozen 2003). For example, concern and benevolence are demonstrated in the relationship.

Cognitive trust and affective trust can be related to each other in a way that a relationship may start from perceived cognitive trust which can be transformed through experience into affective trust (Lewis & Weigert 1985). Cognitive trust is more important at the beginning of the relationship. However, as interactions between parties intensify, affective trust becomes increasingly important as it promotes shared values that lead to a strong desire for cooperation, which in turn leads to superior performance (McAllister 1995). This notion has been thought to be important to the success of teamwork, for trust between team members also evolves from one form to another in which affective trust promotes common team values, team spirit, and strong desire for cooperation, which lead to synergistic team relationships (Erdem & Ozen 2003).

The idea that both cognitive and affective dimensions of trust are important to team performance has been supported empirically (e.g., Erdem & Ozen 2003; McAllister 1995). In particular, Erdem & Ozen's (2003) study makes a significant contribution to the extant literature by demonstrating the positive relationships of team performance with both cognitive and affective trusts among team members, and broadens the concept of trust under study in the present research.

One limitation of Erdem & Ozen's (2003) study is related to the notion that "where relationships develop to the point where team members exhibit unconditional and uncritical trust, this may have a negative impact upon effectiveness" (p.134). This notion could be misleading without clarifying the term 'unconditional and uncritical trust', for it seems to antithesize Jones & George's (1998) theory. For Jones & George, 'unconditional trust' "is something to strive for in important social situations" (p. 537), because when unconditional trust exists, "shared values create a common bond and fundamentally change the quality of the exchange relationship" (p. 539).

Despite this issue, Erdem & Ozen's (2003) study provides insights into how trust in interpersonal relations may be rooted and how it may evolve over time. To

further understand trust in interpersonal relations, two broad perspectives of trust based on leader–follower relationship, and characteristics of leader are examined and discussed in the subsection that follows.

Relationship-Based and Character-Based Perspectives of Trust

The leadership literature has distinguished between relationship-based and character-based perspectives of trust in leadership (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). In both perspectives, trust is thought to be a belief or perception held by the follower, it is not a property of the relationship or the leader per se.

The relationship-based perspective emphasizes that individuals observe leaders' actions and draw inferences about the nature of the relationship with the leader. This perspective is based on social exchange theory and the notion of reciprocity (Blau 1964). Trust in leadership is viewed as a social exchange process in which the exchange denotes a high-quality relationship centered on the issues of care and consideration (Konovsky & Pugh 1994; Whitener et al. 1998). Individuals who feel that their leader is caring and considerate about their well-being will reciprocate this sentiment in the form of desired behaviours.

For the character-based perspective, a leader's characteristics (or perceived trustworthiness) are considered important in view of the leader's authority to make decisions affecting the follower's well-being (e.g., promotions, layoffs). This perspective stresses that individuals observe leaders' actions and draw inferences about the character of the leader and how it influences a follower's sense of vulnerability in a hierarchical relationship (e.g., Cunningham & MacGregor 2000; Jones, James & Bruni 1975; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995; Oldham 1975). This means that followers attempt to draw inferences about the leader's characteristics (e.g., ability, benevolence, integrity, dependability, and fairness) and, in turn, these inferences will have consequences for work behaviours and attitudes (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). For example, followers who believe their leader is trustworthy will feel more comfortable engaging in behaviours that may put them at risk (e.g., sharing sensitive information) (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Conversely, followers who believe

their leader is not trustworthy (e.g., due to perceived lack of integrity) will divert effort towards ‘covering their backs’ which detracts from their job performance (Mayer & Gavin 1999).

On the whole, the two perspectives of trust in leadership appear to provide theoretical parsimony to the literature on trust in leadership. Having no distinction made between ‘leader/leadership’ and ‘manager/management’ because the terms are often used interchangeably in the literature (Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Yukl & Van Fleet 1992), the two perspectives can be extended to trust in manager/management and offer insights into the trust–outcome relationships being investigated in this research study.

In the next subsection, the moderating effects of definition of trust and referent of trust, which are instrumental to a deeper understanding of the construct of trust, are discussed.

Moderating Effects of Definition of Trust and Referent of Trust

The construct of trust has two independent facets: the definition of trust and the referent of trust (Clark & Payne 1997). Examples of definition of trust are affective trust, cognitive trust, willingness to be vulnerable, and overall trust. Examples of referent of trust are supervisor, manager, senior manager, and top management. The choices of definition of trust and referent of trust create diversity in construct focus.

The operational definition of trust moderates the relationships between trust and its antecedents and consequences (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). For example, among the four definitions of trust: affective trust, cognitive trust, willingness to be vulnerable, and overall trust identified in Dirks & Ferrin’s meta-analytic study, procedural justice, as an antecedent of trust, was found having the largest significant relationship with cognitive trust.

Similarly, the referent of trust moderates the relationships between trust and its antecedents and consequences (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). For example, it is possible

that a study may find a significant positive relationship between trust in organisational leadership (e.g., executive leadership, collective set of leaders) and affective commitment, but an insignificant relationship between trust in direct leader (e.g., supervisor, work group leader) and affective commitment. Specifically, referent of trust was found to be a significant moderator in 8 of the 10 relationships examined in Dirks & Ferrin's meta-analytic study.

Dirks & Ferrin's (2002) meta-analytic study cited above provides theory and empirical evidence regarding the moderating effects of definition of trust and referent of trust on the relationships of trust with its antecedents and consequences. It also suggests a positive relationship between trust in a direct leader and trust in organisational leadership. Moreover, it confirms that trust in authorities correlates positively with affective commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively with turnover intention. The validity of the study has been affirmed on the basis of well-developed theoretical framework, proper criteria for inclusion of past studies, and stringent meta-analytic procedures. However, since the majority of the past studies were cross-sectional in nature, the meta-analytic study was unable to confirm or disconfirm causality as multiple viable explanations (e.g., effect of a third variable, reverse causality) may exist for an observed correlation.

Briefly, the aforesaid study offers insights to the present study in two ways. First, it implies that the operational definition of trust should be clearly and precisely defined while the referent of trust clearly identified in the 'construct of trust' constituting the core of the theoretical framework. Next, it suggests due considerations be made in regard to the needs for re-testing existing antecedent–trust and trust–outcome relationships found in the literature due to diversity in construct focus.

All in all, the literature review discussed in this entire section provides a good grasp of the concept of trust that helps in developing a sound theoretical framework in which trustworthiness factors, discussed next, are considered very important.

TRUSTWORTHINESS FACTORS AND TRUST

Trustworthiness factors refer to the factors that lead to trust (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Numerous researchers have described trustworthiness factors differently in the trust literature. Some researchers suggest as few as one factor, whereas others conceptualize as many as ten factors. For example, Johnson-George & Swap (1982) suggest a single factor: reliability, and which was empirically validated with 435 undergraduates. On the other hand, Butler (1991) conceptualizes ten factors, including availability, competence, consistency, discreteness, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, promise fulfillment, and receptivity. This conceptualization was empirically validated with several samples, including 180 managers and 173 of their subordinates, 111 machine operators, and four different samples of management students ($n = 380, 290, 132$ and 129).

Notice, however, that a major portion of trustworthiness factors can be subsumed within three parsimonious factors, ability, benevolence and integrity conceptualized by Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), representing three characteristics of a trustee that appear often in the literature. For example, Sitkin & Roth (1993) conceptualize two factors: ability, and value congruence, of which, the latter parallels the considerations embraced in integrity. Again, for Butler's (1991) ten factors outlined above, competence is similar to ability, whereas loyalty, openness, receptivity, and availability are encompassed within the conceptualization of benevolence. The remaining factors: consistency, discreteness, fairness, integrity, and promise fulfillment are embraced within the conceptualization of integrity. Similarly, Mishra (1996) suggests four factors: competence, openness, caring, and reliability. Whereas competence and caring are similar to ability and benevolence, respectively, reliability parallels integrity as a lack of the former would jeopardize the latter. As regards openness, it is related to the considerations encompassed in benevolence. More about the three parsimonious factors of trustworthiness are discussed in the subsection that follows.

Parsimonious Factors of Trustworthiness

Being parsimonious in nature, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) three trustworthiness factors: ability, benevolence and integrity have been thought of as important factors affecting a trustee's trustworthiness, and have been adopted by many researchers analyzing the antecedents of trust (e.g., Bauer & Green 1996; Brockner et al. 1997; Davis et al. 2000; Robinson 1996). These three factors are analyzed in the paragraphs that follow.

Ability: Ability is the trustor's perception that the trustee has skills, competencies and attributes, within some specific domain, which enable the trustee to have influence (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). The domain of the ability is specific because a given trustee may be highly competent and trusted in one area but have little aptitude, training, or experience in another. This 'domain-specific' view appears to have a direct linkage with Zand's (1972) notion suggesting that trust is not a global feeling of warmth or affection, but the conscious regulation of one's dependence on another that will vary with the task, the situation, and the person. Similar to Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) conceptualization, several other researchers (e.g., Butler & Cantrell 1984; Butler 1991; Cook & Wall 1980; Davis et al. 2000; Deutsch 1960; Giffin 1967; Hovland, Janis & Kelley 1953; Jones, James & Bruni 1975; Kee & Knox 1970; Lieberman 1981; Mishra 1996; Rosen & Jerdee 1977; Sitkin & Pablo 1992) have suggested ability (including its similar constructs: competence, and expertise) as an important factor of trustworthiness.

Benevolence: Benevolence is the trustor's perception of a positive trustee's orientation toward the trustor (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). It is the extent to which the trustor perceives that the trustee intends to do good to the trustor in the relationship. Similar to Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) conceptualization, a number of other researchers (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Frost, Stimpson & Maughan 1978; Jones, James & Bruni 1975; Larzelere & Huston 1980; Solomon 1960; Strickland 1958; Whitener et al. 1998) have considered benevolence (including its similar constructs: altruism, and consideration of individual's needs and desires) an important trustworthiness factor.

Integrity: Integrity is the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that is deemed acceptable by the trustor (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Adherence to some set of principles defines personal integrity, whereas acceptability of the principles defines moral integrity; and both, have crucial impacts on the perceived level of integrity (McFall 1987). Several issues such as the consistency of the trustee's past actions, reputation about the trustee, belief that the trustee is just, honest and fair, consistency between the trustee's actions and espoused values, and the congruence between the trustee's actions and words all affect the trustor's perception of trustee's integrity (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Again, several other researchers (e.g., Butler & Cantrell 1984; Butler 1991; Davis et al. 2000; Larzelere & Huston 1980; Lieberman 1981; Ring & Van De Ven 1992; Sitkin & Roth 1993) have considered integrity (including its similar constructs) an antecedent of trust.

The above three perceived trustworthiness factors form a major part of Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model, the key tenets of which are discussed next.

Key Tenets of Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) Trust Model

As indicated in the preceding section, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995) define trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712). Integrating this definition of trust with the three perceived trustworthiness factors aforesaid, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman present a trust model that delineates three principal tenets as follows.

First, a trustee must be specific, identifiable, and perceived to act and react with volition towards a trustor (Mayer & Davis 1999; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Second, a trustor's trust in a trustee is contingent upon the trustor's perceptions of the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity. All the three factors:

ability, benevolence and integrity are important to trust, and each may vary independently of the others (i.e., they are separable but not necessarily unrelated). And, it is possible for a perceived lack of any of the three factors to undermine trust. Third, a higher level of trust in the trustee (arising from the trustor's beliefs about the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity) increases the trustor's willingness to take risk with the trustee (e.g., cooperation, sensitive information sharing), and such risk-taking behaviours, in turn, will lead to positive outcomes (e.g., higher job performance, higher job satisfaction).

Overall, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model has the advantages of being simple, direct and parsimonious. In particular, the versatile definition of trust and the parsimonious set of determinants, conceptualized to be generalizable to the broadest number of contexts, have been cited over 1,100 times across multiple disciplines (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007). The areas in which they have been cited are "management, general business, marketing, accounting, finance, economics, information systems, industrial engineering, political science, communication, ethics, law, psychology, sociology, health care, and agribusiness" (p. 344). Above all, the model with a variation of its arguments designed to fit a particular outcome or context, appears to provide sound theoretical rationale for why trust has main (direct) effects on a variety of organisational outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin 2001). However, the following scenarios associated with the application of the model are worthy of concern.

Given the parsimonious nature of the model, the trustee (i.e., referent of trust) can be any specific person or any specific team of people who is identifiable. This means that the relationships between trust in trustee and the three perceived trustworthiness factors (ability, benevolence and integrity) may vary with trustee (referent of trust) types because referent of trust moderates the trust-antecedent relationships (Dirks & Ferrin 2002), as discussed in the preceding section. Moreover, there is cause for concern about the combined predictive power of the three trustworthiness factors in predicting trust in trustee. In Mayer & Davis's (1999) study, and Tan & Tan's (2000) study, all the three trustworthiness factors contributed significantly to the prediction of trust in top management, and trust in supervisor, respectively. However, Davis et al.'s (2000) study only revealed

benevolence and integrity as the significant predictors of trust in general manager, in which ability was only marginally significant at $p < 0.10$. Again, in Mayer & Gavin's (2005) study, all the three factors were significant predictors of trust in plant manager, but only ability and benevolence contributed significantly to the prediction of trust in top management (integrity was marginally significant at $p < 0.10$).

From the above discussion emerges the following research question:

RQ1. To what extent are employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity related to employee trust in top management?

Up to this point, it is noted that the most widely accepted definition of trust by Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995) aforesaid deals only with the psychological processes of trustors and neglects the social context (e.g., groups) for trust (Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wekselberg 1996). Hence, in the section that follows, the role of groups in the formation of trust in organisational authorities is discussed.

THE ROLE OF GROUPS IN THE FORMATION OF TRUST IN ORGANISATIONAL AUTHORITIES

The effects that groups have on a trusting relationship between employees and their superior can be viewed as "kinds of third-party effects on trust" (Burt & Knez 1995, p. 255), in which trust-related information about the superior are diffused via watching, gossip, and informal communication. Before considering this subject in details, it is necessary to digress briefly into the social information processing perspective which claims that social information affects one's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours (Salancik & Pfeffer 1978; Zalesny & Ford 1990).

Briefly, the tenets of social information processing (Salancik & Pfeffer 1978) suggest that one's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours (concerning any object or event) are influenced by salient, relevant and credible information that prevails in one's immediate social context. This social information (either immediate or recalled) creates social influence in three fundamental ways. First, social influence

operates both directly through the co-workers' overt statements and indirectly through their behaviours. Second, social influence structures a person's attention processes and makes aspects of the social context more or less salient. By highlighting certain aspects of an object or event and talking frequently about them, co-workers cue an individual as to what one's attitudes should be towards management, a particular supervisor, or specific company policies. Third, social influence affects one's attitudes through the interpretation of environmental cues. More than just focusing attention, others provide their constructed meanings of objects/events (often include evaluations of them) that are communicated to the individual by the social context.

All together, social information (either immediate or recalled) provides cues which individuals use to construct and interpret meanings of objects/events. And from which shared interpretations are ultimately developed to the extent that they influence one's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours. This notion of 'shared interpretations' arising from social information processing provides a key foundation in studying the effects of group processes on employee perception of superior's trustworthiness as discussed in the subsection that follows.

Effects of Group Processes on Employee Perception of Superior's Trustworthiness

A number of researchers have employed the above-mentioned social information processing (SIP) perspective to study the effects of group processes on employees' perceptions of their superior's trustworthiness (e.g., Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wech 2002). In particular, Shamir & Lapidot (2003) employed the SIP approach together with Burt & Knez's (1995) notion aforesaid as the foundations underlying their well-developed theoretical framework. Accordingly, they designed a longitudinal study of cadets' trust in their team commanders and consequently established three positions. First, trust in a superior reflects subordinates' trust in the system (organisation) that the superior represents. Second, subordinates employ criteria derived from systemic (organisational) properties such as collective identities and values to evaluate the trustworthiness of their superior. Third, group processes play a major role in the social construction of trust in a superior and in interpreting systemic properties into a

group's criteria (i.e., collective values, norms and expectations) which individuals use to evaluate the trustworthiness of superior.

Overall, Shamir & Lapidot's (2003) study has made two key contributions to the extant literature, and shed light on the present research problem. Specifically, it demonstrates that trust is not only an interpersonal phenomenon, but also a collective phenomenon attributable to group processes. Also, it establishes that organisation members working under the same superior will develop shared interpretations of the superior's trustworthiness, and that individuals' trust-related attributions and perceptions will be influenced by these shared interpretations.

In brief, Shamir & Lapidot's (2003) study provides insights to the present research by suggesting that employees' perceptions of their superior's trustworthiness may be influenced by their 'shared interpretations' attributable to group processes. To further explore such an effect of group processes, one of the more salient group process variables, namely group cohesiveness (Naumann & Bennett 2000) is discussed in the next subsection.

Group Cohesiveness

"A cohesive group is one that 'sticks together' – one whose members are 'bonded' to one another, and to the group as a whole" (Man & Lam 2003, p. 981). Despite the seemingly easy-to-understand concept, group cohesiveness (also termed cohesion) has been defined in a number of ways. Festinger (1950) defines it as the resultant of all forces acting on members to remain in the group. Scott & Rowland (1970) define it as the desire to remain a member of the group and an indication of interpersonal attraction. Carron (1982) defines it as a dynamic process which is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its goals and objectives. Zaccaro et al. (1995) describe it as the degree to which group members are attracted and motivated to stay with a group. Finally, Gilbert & Tang (1998) conceptualize it as the degree to which a group sticks together, or the strength of a group member's desire to remain part of his or her work group.

Group cohesiveness is influenced by empathy, self-disclosure, acceptance, and lateral trust (i.e., trust relations among peers) (Roark & Sharah 1989). Empathy refers to an understanding of the feeling and meaning of the member's expressions and experiences and the ability to communicate this understanding (Carkhuff & Berenson 1977). Self-disclosure is sharing ideas, feelings, and experiences for the benefit of the members (Corey & Corey 1982). Acceptance is members accepting one another's feelings, values, and problems (Rogers 1970). And finally, lateral trust refers to the sense of confidentiality and security of the members in the group (Corey & Corey 1982). Of these four factors, lateral trust has been found having both direct effect and indirect effects (through empathy, self-disclosure, or acceptance) in predicting group cohesiveness (Roark & Sharah 1989).

Group cohesiveness is a widely studied construct in the group dynamics literature (Naumann & Bennett 2000). Some previous studies concerning its consequences are presented in the subsection that follows.

Consequences of Group Cohesiveness

Group cohesiveness is the primary affective dimension of social integration, which influences performance as socially diverse group members work together and engage in meaningful interaction (Chansler, Swamidass & Cammann 2003; Harrison, Price & Bell 1998). High group cohesion results in better group interaction, less intermember friction, greater involvement in group tasks, higher attention on goal attainment, and greater interpersonal coordination (Dobbins & Zaccaro 1986). In these respects, there is abundant empirical evidence suggesting a positive relationship between group cohesiveness and performance, sometimes moderated by certain constructs (e.g., Chang & Bordia 2001; Evans & Dion 1991; Griffith 1997; Gully, Devine & Whitney 1995; Huang 2009; Keller 1986; Landers et al. 1982; Mullen & Copper 1994; Prapavessis & Carron 1997; Summers, Coffelt & Horton 1988; Wang, Chou & Jiang 2005; Wech et al. 1998; Williams & Widmeyer 1991).

Apart from its positive relationship with performance, group cohesiveness has been suggested as having positive associations with collaborative communication

(Brockman & Morgan 2006; Craig & Kelly 1999), information sharing (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Kandula et al. 2009; Mennecke, Hoffer & Valacich 1995), knowledge sharing (Chen, Zhou & Zhao 2008; Reagans & McEvily 2003), shared beliefs (Burke et al. 2005; Carron et al. 2003), shared understanding (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Magni et al. 2009; Naumann & Bennett 2000), and shared interpretations (Magni et al. 2009; Naumann & Bennett 2000).

In particular, Gilbert & Tang's (1998) study indicates that individuals in a highly cohesive group experience greater information sharing through social interactions among group members, and hence greater shared understanding about their employer. Members of a highly cohesive group feel attracted to one another and to the entire group, and the group becomes an important source of information sharing. The more individuals experience information sharing, the more they will experience greater shared understanding about their employer, and hence a higher 'feeling of confidence in their employer'. This line of arguments was empirically supported in the study involving 83 managerial employees of a federal governmental agency in the U.S.

Gilbert & Tang's (1998) study makes a significant contribution to the extant literature by suggesting a positive relationship of group cohesiveness with individuals' 'feeling of confidence in employer'. By emphasizing 'feeling of confidence in employer' being a reflection of "the belief that an employer will be straightforward and will follow through on commitments" (p. 322) in their work, the authors offer insights into the potential relationship between group cohesiveness and individuals' perceptions of employer's trustworthiness.

In addition, as noted in the preceding subsection, employees' perceptions of their superior's trustworthiness may be influenced by their 'shared interpretations' attributable to group processes (Shamir & Lapidot 2003). Subsequent literature review further suggests that these 'shared interpretations' may be considered mainly attributable to group cohesiveness for two reasons. First, group cohesiveness is the resultant of all forces acting on members to remain in the group (Festinger 1950). Next, group cohesiveness can be viewed as an indicator of synergistic group processes; and many of the group processes are reflected in the construct of group

cohesiveness (Barrick et al. 1998). In other words, employees' perceptions of their superior's trustworthiness may be influenced by their 'shared interpretations' mainly attributable to group cohesiveness.

From the discussion within this section emerges the following research question:

RQ2. How does group cohesiveness influence employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness?

Having discussed the antecedents of trust, the trust model, and the social context (groups) for trust, the section that follows examines the effects of trust on organisational outcomes.

EFFECTS OF TRUST ON ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES

For the effects of trust on organisational outcomes, prior studies have distinguished between a moderating effect perspective and a main (direct) effect perspective (Dirks & Ferrin 2001; Hwang & Burgers 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer 1998). While the former argues that trust serves to facilitate the effects of other determinants on organisational outcomes, the latter suggests that trust operates in a straightforward manner such that higher level of trust results in more positive attitudes and workplace behaviours (Dirks & Ferrin 2001). In comparison, the main effect perspective has received much greater attention and dominated the theoretical treatments of trust (e.g., Golembiewski & McConkie 1975; Jones & George 1998; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995).

Numerous studies have suggested that trust has positive effects on a variety of organisational outcomes. Notably, these are absence of monitoring, acceptance of decision/goal, acceptance of influence, attribution of positive motives, enhanced communication, extra-role behaviours, goal commitment, high levels of cooperation and performance, intention to stay, job performance, job satisfaction, low neglect, loyalty, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, perceived

accuracy of information, team commitment, and team satisfaction (References of these studies are detailed in Appendix 1.1).

In investigating the effects of trust on organisational outcomes, most studies focused on affective organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in view of the important consequences they have for organisational performance and effectiveness (Dirks & Ferrin 2001,2002). For the same reason, these three outcome variables are considered important to the present research problem, and hence warrant a thorough review in the subsections that follow. Within each subsection, each of these variables is examined in respect of its important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness, and its linkage with trust in organisational authorities. Such examinations are focused on studies that provide insights into the theoretical framework development and methodology alternatives, starting with affective commitment presented in the following subsection.

Effects of Trust on Affective Organisational Commitment

Affective organisational commitment (affective commitment)

Organisational commitment denotes employees' attachments to their organisation (e.g., Becker 1960; Buchanan II 1974; Porter et al. 1974; Wiener 1982). This term is explored in Meyer & Allen's (1991) study in three different forms: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment is the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Porter et al. 1974). It is characterized by three psychological factors: a strong desire to remain in the organisation, a willingness to exert considerable effort on its behalf, and a strong belief in and acceptance of its goals and values. On the other hand, continuance commitment (e.g., Becker 1960) reflects an employee's recognition that one would lose valued benefits (e.g., pension) upon leaving the organisation. In other words, individuals with strong continuance commitment stay in the organisation because 'they need to' (Laschinger,

Finegan & Shamian 2001). Finally, normative commitment (Wiener 1982) denotes an individual's sense of moral obligation for remaining in the organisation.

The most widely accepted and used definition of organisational commitment in research is that of Porter et al.'s (1974) notion of affective commitment (Mayer & Schoorman 1992). Affective commitment has been found having many positive consequences for the organisation (Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001). For example, it has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction, job involvement, job performance, and organisational citizenship behaviour (Allen & Meyer 1996). "Employees with strong affective commitment work in the organisation because they want to" (Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001, p. 11). They therefore have higher work motivation and organisational citizenship, and are less likely to leave the organisation (Allen & Meyer 1993; Bolon 1997).

Costs associated with higher levels of employee turnover include recruiting, screening, training, and the loss of continuity in customer relationships (Davis et al. 2000). An organisation which is able to increase affective commitment of its employees can reduce its employee turnover and associated costs, increase its level of service and, in turn, increase its bottom line. This position has received support empirically. For instance, Benkhoff's (1997) study reveals that affective commitment is significantly related to bank financial success. In a meta-analysis of 93 published studies, Riketta (2002) demonstrates that affective commitment is positively correlated with organisational performance. Similarly, Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari's (2003) study suggests that affective commitment has significant influence on company profitability.

While commitment to organisation has been found positively related to desirable outcomes, research findings have yielded inconsistent results about its relationship with job performance. Whereas Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) have concluded that commitment and performance are largely unrelated, Becker & Eveleth (1995) demonstrate that certain forms of commitment are positively related to performance. In fact Becker & Eveleth's (1995) study reveals that commitment to the organisation is uncorrelated with performance but commitment to the supervisor is positively associated with performance. These authors further suggest that

“distinctions among foci and bases of commitment help to explain and predict performance” (p. 311). Foci of commitment are the individuals and groups to whom an employee is attached (Reichers 1985), and bases of commitment are the motives engendering attachment (O'reilly & Chatman 1986). If performance is a concern, human resource professionals should focus their efforts on employee commitment to supervisors rather than to organisations (Becker & Eveleth 1995).

Having examined the important consequences of affective commitment, the subsection that follows discusses its linkage with trust in organisational authorities.

Trust in organisational authorities and affective commitment

Social exchange theory and the notion of reciprocity suggest that when trust exists in a relationship, parties involved will choose to respond through greater commitment to their organisation (Blau 1964). In Morgan & Hunt's (1994) view, employees prefer trusting workplace relationships and will commit themselves to the organisation in which trusting relationships exist. For Brockner et al. (1997), trust in organisational authorities increases support for such authorities, and which may be manifested in higher commitment to the authorities and the organisations. Again, Eisenberger et al. (2001) note that when trust in organisational authorities exists, employees feel safe and positive, and will reciprocate with loyalty and effort. In the same vein, some researchers have asserted that trust in organisational authorities gives employees a sense of security and satisfaction, so that they will show a favourable attitude towards their workplace and respond with greater commitment to the organisation (Raabe & Beehr 2003; Ramaswami & Singh 2003).

Numerous empirical studies have suggested a positive relationship between trust in organisational authorities and affective commitment (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar & Chen 2002; Brashear et al. 2003; Brockner et al. 1997; Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Flaherty & Pappas 2000; Hopkins & Weathington 2006; Ladebo 2006; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006; Nyhan 1999; Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams 1999; Tan & Tan 2000; Wong, Ngo & Wong 2002). The empirical evidence for such a relationship is further illustrated in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Empirical Studies Suggesting Positive Relationships between Trust in Organisational Authorities & Affective Commitment

Empirical Study	Context	Referent of Trust (Trustee)	Sample Size	Pearson's r
Matthai (1990)	A private psychiatric hospital in the Southern U.S.	Management	60	0.74**
Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991)	A pathology laboratory in the South-central U.S.	Management	195	0.68**
Nyhan (1999)	A county government organisation in the U.S.	Supervisor	327	0.43***
Tan & Tan (2000)	Convenience sampling in Singapore	Organisation	220	0.70**
Flaherty & Pappas (2000)	Eleven automobile dealerships in the North-eastern U.S.	Manager	129	0.445*
Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian (2001)	Nurses from the registry list of central Ontario, Canada	Management	412	0.46**
Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002)	A public sector organisation in India	Organisation	153	0.56**
Wong, Ngo & Wong (2002)	Four joint ventures in China	Organisation	295	0.50**
Dirks & Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis	Use 106 studies conducted during the past 4 decades	Management	106	0.49**
Brashear et al. (2003)	A variety of industries in the North-eastern U.S.	Manager	402	0.65*
Connell, Ferres & Travaglione (2003)	A large organisation in the Australian public health sector	Manager	275	0.52**
Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander (2006)	A global pharmaceuticals company operating in the U.S.	Supervisor	333	0.42**
Hopkins & Weathington (2006)	A downsized organisation in the U.S.	Organisation	184	0.70**
Ladebo (2006)	Agricultural Development Projects in Nigeria	Management.	296	0.47***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Effects of Trust on Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke 1976). Simply put it, job satisfaction represents a person's evaluation of his or her job and work context (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996). It is an attitude reflecting how well people like or dislike their job (Spector 1997).

Job satisfaction has been viewed as one's affective attachment to the job either in its entirety (global satisfaction) or in regard to particular aspects (facet satisfaction) (Tett & Meyer 1993). The latter usually relates to several job facets, including the work itself, supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, and co-workers (e.g., Churchill, Ford & Walker 1974; Smith, Kendall & Hulin 1969). Numerous researchers have considered the effects of these job facets separately, whereas others have regarded the sum-of-facet measure as the equivalence of global measure of overall job satisfaction (Brown & Peterson 1993). Again, some researchers have divided the construct of job satisfaction into intrinsic and extrinsic components (e.g., Porter & Lawler 1968), whereas others have considered the construct globally without dividing it into separate facets (e.g., Bagozzi 1980a; Bagozzi 1980b; Hackman & Oldham 1975; Pearson, Barker & Elliott 1957).

As the demand for experienced and skilled workers increases, creating a satisfied workforce has important implications for organisations and human resource professionals (Thoms, Dose & Scott 2002). A number of studies have suggested that employee job satisfaction leads to customer satisfaction. In a two-year longitudinal study involving surveys of employees, managers, customers, and organisational records of 28 stores in a regional restaurant chain, Koys (2001) reveals that employee satisfaction influences customer satisfaction. Similarly, in an analysis of a dyadic data set (involving judgments provided by salespeople and their customers) collected across multiple manufacturing and services industries, Homburg & Stock (2004)

demonstrate a positive relationship between salespeople's job satisfaction and customer satisfaction.

In addition, numerous studies have suggested that employee job satisfaction improves organisational performance. Heskett, Sasser & Schlesinger (1997) note that employee satisfaction and loyalty lead to customers' perceptions of value. In turn, such value perception results in customer satisfaction and loyalty, thereby improving company profitability and growth through repeat customer patronage. This job satisfaction–company performance argument has received supports from both real business cases and empirical studies. For example, in a meta-analysis involving job satisfaction–performance studies drawn from five major organisational research journals over the period 1964-1983, Petty, McGee & Cavender (1984) demonstrate that job satisfaction is positively related to performance. Again, the success experience at Sears Roebuck (the American retail giant) suggests practical evidence that increasing employee job satisfaction improves company performance (Rucci, Kirn & Quinn 1998).

Having examined the important consequences that job satisfaction has for organisational performance and effectiveness, the subsection that follows discusses its linkage with trust in organisational authorities.

Trust in organisational authorities and job satisfaction

Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) theory offers a way to better understand the linkage between trust in organisational authorities and job satisfaction (Flaherty & Pappas 2000). High LMX relationships are characterized by trust, respect and the existence of common goals, whereas low LMX relationships are characterized by contractual, impersonal interactions that never go beyond the basic job description (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995; Sparrowe & Liden 1997). Within the LMX literature, trust between leaders and followers has been considered critical to the high LMX relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). Since trust in a leader (manager)³ leads to high LMX relationship, it follows that trust in a leader (manager) will lead to

³ No distinction is made between 'leader/leadership' and 'manager/management' because the terms are often used interchangeably in the literature (Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Yukl & Van Fleet 1992).

increased job satisfaction. That is, subordinates will have greater job satisfaction if they have a stronger trusting relationship with their manager.

In Rich's (1997) view, trust in a manager leads to increased job satisfaction because managers perform many managerial tasks, such as performance appraisal, authorizing raises, promotion, job assignment, and training, which have a significant effect on an employee's job satisfaction. For Brockner et al. (1997), trust in organisational authorities increases support for such authorities, and which may be manifested in greater satisfaction with the authorities. Still, some contemporary researchers have pointed out that trust in a supervisor makes subordinates feel safer and engage in productive behaviours, thereby increasing job satisfaction (e.g., Brashear et al. 2003; Flaherty & Pappas 2000; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Rich 2001; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006).

Most studies investigating the effects of trust on attitudes focused on employee job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin 2001). A number of studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between trust in organisational authorities and job satisfaction (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar & Chen 2002; Brashear et al. 2003; Chan, Huang & Ng 2008; Cunningham & MacGregor 2000; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Flaherty & Pappas 2000; Goris, Vaught & Pettit 2003; Hopkins & Weathington 2006; Konovsky & Cropanzano 1991; Lagace 1991; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001; Matthai 1990; Matzler & Renzl 2006; McKnight, Phillips & Hardgrave 2009; Muchinsky 1977; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006; Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer 1996; Rich 1997; Roberts & O'Reilly 1974; Tan & Tan 2000; Ward 1997; Yang, Mossholder & Peng 2009; Zand 1972). The empirical evidence for such a relationship is further illustrated in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Empirical Studies Suggesting Positive Relationships between Trust in Organisational Authorities and Job Satisfaction

Empirical Study	Context	Referent of Trust (Trustee)	Sample Size	Pearson's r
Muchinsky (1977)	A large public utility located in the Iowa state of U.S.	Superior	695	0.25 to 0.72** #
Matthai (1990)	A private psychiatric hospital located in the Southern U.S.	Management	60	0.54**
Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991)	A pathology laboratory located in the South-central U.S.	Management	195	0.42**
Rich (1997)	Ten companies across a variety of industries in the U.S.	Manager	183	0.43*
Flaherty & Pappas (2000)	Eleven automobile dealerships in the North-eastern U.S.	Manager	129	0.34**
Tan & Tan (2000)	Convenience sampling in Singapore	Supervisor	220	0.81**
Cunningham & MacGregor (2000)	A telephone company located in British Columbia	Supervisor	535	0.18*
Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian (2001)	Nurses from the registry list of central Ontario, Canada	Management	412	0.52**
Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002)	A public sector organisation in India	Organisation	153	0.68**
Dirks & Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis	From 106 studies conducted during the past 4 decades	Management	106	0.51**
Brashear et al. (2003)	A wide range of industries located in the North-eastern U.S.	Manager	402	0.66*
Goris, Vaught & Pettit (2003)	Two multinational companies in the South-western U.S.	Superior	307	0.40**
Matzler & Renzl (2006)	Project teams of an Austrian company in the utility sector	Management	131	0.51*
Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander (2006)	A global pharmaceuticals company operating in the U.S.	Supervisor	333	0.38**
Hopkins & Weathington (2006)	A downsized organisation in the U.S.	Organisation	184	0.76**
Chan, Huang & Ng (2008)	A direct marketing company located in Guangzhou, China	Supervisor	126	0.55**
McKnight, Phillips & Hardgrave (2009)	A large food products organisation in the U.S.	Manager	127	0.46**
Yang, Mossholder & Peng (2009)	Six organisations across a variety of industries in Taiwan	Supervisor	203	0.26**

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Five facets of job satisfaction

Effects of Trust on Turnover Intention

Turnover intention

In view of the importance of quality and service, retaining skills within an organisation is of significant importance for a firm's survival. The employees of a firm represent its intellectual capital. If a highly skilled employee quits, the firm's intellectual capital will be devalued (CLMPC 1997).

Turnover is the actual termination of an individual's employment with a given company. There are three major reasons for turnover from the employee's point of view, namely (1) taking up a better offer elsewhere, (2) seeking a way to cope with undesirable job conditions (i.e., withdrawal), or (3) encountering a poor work-family fit (Duxbury & Higgins 1999). In any case, turnover has several undesirable implications for organisations. These include the cost of losing a skilled employee, cost of hiring and training a replacement (retraining cost is as high as 1.5 times the employee's annual pay), the lower productivity of a new employee, and the demoralizing effects on managers, peers and subordinates (Vanderkolk & Young 1991). Since turnover has such substantially negative consequences, its predictability has become significantly important to human resource management.

Turnover intention is "a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer 1993, p. 262). It has been thought to be the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, the sequence to which thinking of quitting and intending to search for alternative employment also belong (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth 1978). Tett & Meyer (1993) claim that turnover intentions/withdrawal cognitions are the best predictor of turnover. This claim is consistent with Ajzen & Fishbein's (1980) theoretical prescription and supported empirically in Steel & Ovalle's (1984) and Carsten & Spector's (1987) research findings.

Having examined the important consequences that turnover intention has for organisational performance and effectiveness, the subsection that follows discusses its linkage with trust in organisational authorities.

Trust in organisational authorities and turnover intention

Employees who trust their manager are more likely to value the inducements/contributions ratio which ties them to the organisation, for they believe that their trusted manager will recognize their contributions and reward them fairly (Mayer & Schoorman 1992). Thus, high levels of trust in organisational authorities can help to reduce employee turnover (Sonnenberg 1994). This view is consistent with a number of studies indicating that reduced turnover is a considerable advantage of trust in organisational authorities. For example, in a survey of 143 West Michigan managers regarding ways to develop and increase trust between employers and employees, Mishra & Morrissey (1990) indicate that reduced turnover is considerably associated with trust in management. Similarly, in a study involving 371 employees in the restaurant industry, Davis et al. (2000) demonstrate that higher level of employee trust in general manager is associated with higher level of performance and lower level of employee turnover.

In a similar vein, one's perceived intention to leave an organisation is closely associated with trust in organisational authorities (Costigan, Ilter & Berman 1998). When employees trust their management, they develop an attachment to the organisation and have little or no intention to leave, for they are likely to pursue a long-term career in the organisation (Tan & Tan 2000). In this respect, some researchers have pointed out that when employees trust their superior, they feel safer and develop loyalty towards the organisation, thereby lowering their intention to quit (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006). This notion of an inverse relationship has received empirical support from numerous studies suggesting a negative relationship between trust in organisational authorities and turnover intention (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar & Chen 2002; Brashear et al. 2003; Chan, Huang & Ng 2008; Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Costigan, Ilter & Berman 1998; Cunningham & MacGregor 2000; Davis et al. 2000; De Gilder 2003; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Hopkins & Weathington 2006; Konovsky & Cropanzano 1991; Matthai 1990; McKnight, Phillips & Hardgrave 2009; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006; Parra 1996; Robinson 1996; Tan & Tan 2000; Wong, Ngo & Wong 2002,2003). The empirical evidence for such a relationship is further illustrated in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Empirical Studies Suggesting Negative Relationships between Trust in Organisational Authorities and Turnover Intention

Empirical Study	Context	Referent of Trust (Trustee)	Sample Size	Pearson's r
Matthai (1990)	A private psychiatric hospital located in the Southern U.S.	Management	60	-0.58**
Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991)	A pathology laboratory located in the South-central U.S.	Management	195	-0.43**
Cunningham & MacGregor (2000)	A telephone company located in British Columbia	Supervisor	535	-0.35*
Tan & Tan (2000)	Convenience sampling in Singapore	Organisation	220	-0.62**
Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002)	A public sector organisation in India	Organisation	153	-0.40**
Wong, Ngo & Wong (2002)	Four joint ventures in China	Organisation	295	-0.35**
Dirks & Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis	106 studies conducted during the past 4 decades	Management	106	-0.40**
Connell, Ferres & Travaglione (2003)	A large organisation in the Australian public health sector	Manager	275	-0.37**
Brashear et al. (2003)	A wide range of industries located in the North-eastern U.S.	Manager	402	-0.50*
Wong, Ngo & Wong (2003)	Four joint ventures in China	Organisation	295	-0.35**
Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander (2006)	A global pharmaceuticals company operating in the U.S.	Supervisor	333	-0.44**
Hopkins & Weathington (2006)	A downsized organisation in the U.S.	Organisation	184	-0.63**
Chan, Huang & Ng (2008)	A direct marketing company located in Guangzhou, China	Supervisor	126	-0.42**
McKnight, Phillips & Hardgrave (2009)	A large food products organisation in the U.S.	Manager	127	-0.35**

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

While Table 2.1 to 2.3 above provide a ‘snapshot’ of the theories and empirical evidence concerning the trust–outcome relationships under investigations, the paragraphs that follow attempts to evaluate and comment on several focal empirical studies cited above.

Considering the significant role that sales managers play in molding, sculpting, and shaping the behaviours and attitudes of their salespeople, Rich (1997) developed a theoretical framework that related sales manager role-modelling to trust, job satisfaction, and overall performance. In this study, trust in manager was conceptualized as the extent to which a salesperson has confidence in the manager’s reliability and integrity, and was measured with a five-item scale adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1990). The study was conducted in the U.S. with results suggesting sales manager role-modelling behaviour leads to enhanced trust in the sales manager which, in turn, results in greater job satisfaction and job performance among salespeople.

Briefly, Rich’s (1997) study has made significant contributions to the trust and sales management literature. Other than confirming a positive relationship of trust in manager with job satisfaction, it provides empirical validity for management suggesting managers should lead by example and provide a model of the desired behaviour they want their employees to enact. Equally important, it offers useful insights into defining and measuring the role-modelling construct studied in the present research.

As with Rich’s (1997) study, Flaherty & Pappas (2000) examined the salesperson–sales manager trusting relationship and made significant contribution to the trust and sales management literature. They employed leader–member exchange (LMX) theory to investigate the relationships of trust in sales manager with its antecedents and organisational outcomes (job satisfaction and affective commitment). Trust was conceptualized as the perceived credibility and benevolence of a trustee, and was measured with an eleven-item scale adapted from Kumar, Scheer & Steenkamp (1995) and Ganesan, Weitz & John (1993). The study conducted in the U.S. suggests that salespeople who trust their managers are more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to the organisation. The results also

indicate that salespeople who are more satisfied with their jobs are also more committed to the organisation.

On the whole, Flaherty & Pappas's (2000) study contributes to the extant literature by verifying the various theories that suggest the positive relationships of trust in authorities with affective commitment and job satisfaction. It also verifies Mowday, Porter & Steers's (1982) theory suggesting that an exchange relationship exists between the individual and the organisation in which commitment is exchanged for desirable outcomes. This means that an individual, given a desirable outcome (i.e., job satisfaction in this case), will repay the organisation with increased commitment.

Drawing empirical evidence from the work of Anderson & Narus (1990), Lagace (1991), Rich (1997), and Cunningham & MacGregor (2000), which demonstrate a positive relationship of trust with job satisfaction, Brashear et al. (2003) further examined trust-building processes and outcomes in sales manager–salesperson relationships. In their study, trust was conceptualized as the salesperson's degree of confidence that his/her manager is both benevolent and honest, and was measured with the eight-item scale used by Kumar, Scheer & Steenkamp (1995). The study conducted in the U.S. suggests that shared values and managerial respect are positively related to trust, with shared values having the strongest influence. The results also reveal that trust has a direct positive relationship with job satisfaction, an indirect positive relationship with affective commitment, and an indirect negative relationship with turnover intention.

In brief, besides confirming the positive relationship of trust with job satisfaction, Brashear et al.'s (2003) study has significantly contributed to the extant literature by considering the significant and positive influence of shared values on trust. Again, it offers insights for management suggesting shared values should be a key focus of trust building. Above all, it offers useful insights into defining and measuring the constructs of affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention studied in the present research.

The strong association of trust with job satisfaction aforesaid are also established in Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander's (2006) study of ethical climate in organisations. Building on previous research, Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander examined the integrated effects of ethical climate and supervisory trust on salesperson's job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intention. In their study, trust was conceptualized as a salesperson's confidence that his/her supervisor can be trusted and will behave ethically, and was measured using Robinson's (1996) seven-item scale. The study conducted in the U.S. demonstrates that ethical climate is a significant predictor of trust in supervisor, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. The results also suggest that trust in supervisor mediates the relationships of ethical climate with job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intention. Overall, the study has contributed to the extant literature by suggesting that trust in supervisor significantly enhances the process through which ethical climate leads to higher job satisfaction, greater affective commitment, and lower turnover intention.

While the above four studies suggest a positive association of trust with job satisfaction, trust is not the only source of job satisfaction, for job design factors such as task variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback could also affect satisfaction (Hackman 1980). In this regard, Seers & Graen (1984) suggest that trust may contribute to job satisfaction independently of job design factors, whereas Dunegan, Tierney & Duchon (1992) indicate that job design factors may moderate the impact of trust on job satisfaction. Driven by these contrasting views, Cunningham & MacGregor (2000) further investigated how subordinate trust in supervisor and job design factors related to job satisfaction and turnover intention. Trust in this context was conceptualized based on three core beliefs that the other is predictable, benevolent and fair, and was measured using a seven-item scale. In a study conducted in British Columbia, the results suggest that trust has significant relationships with job satisfaction and turnover intention independently of the effects of job design factors. The study also indicates trust to be as important as job design factors in predicting job satisfaction and turnover intention. Specifically, trust has significant associations with job satisfaction and turnover intention even after the effects of job design factors have been accounted.

Overall, Cunningham & MacGregor's (2000) study has made significant contributions to the extant literature. Besides confirming the significant relationships of trust in supervisor with job satisfaction and turnover intention, it verifies Seers & Graen's (1984) notion suggesting subordinate trust in supervisor may contribute to job satisfaction independently of job design factors. Again, it provides implications for management suggesting that trust and job design factors are complementary constructs, and that organisations could benefit by making improvements in either of them, or both to be more beneficial. Above all, the study offers insights into detecting potential moderating variables in the trust–outcome relationships, which are instrumental to the present study.

While trust has been found having positive association with job satisfaction as in the foregoing, the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) proposes that individual–job congruence (i.e., a fit between individual and job characteristics) results in high job satisfaction/job performance (Hackman 1980). In exploring the functioning of JCM, Goris, Vaught & Pettit (2003) investigated the moderating effects of trust in superiors and influence of superiors on the association between individual–job congruence and job satisfaction/performance. Both trust in superiors and influence of superiors were conceptualized and measured according to Roberts & O'Reilly's (1974) instrument. In a study conducted in the U.S., the results provide weak support to trust in superiors and influence of superiors as moderators of the relationship between individual–job congruence and job satisfaction/job performance. However, the study suggests that both trust in superiors and influence of superiors are positively related to job satisfaction and job performance.

On the whole, Goris, Vaught & Pettit's (2003) study provides justification for trust in superiors and influence of superiors as strong predictors of job satisfaction and job performance even after the effects of individual–job congruence have been accounted. As with Cunningham & MacGregor's (2000) findings, the study offers useful insights into detecting potential moderating variables in the trust–outcome relationships, which are crucial to the present research.

More recently, prompted by the profound repercussions of downsizing for employees, Hopkins & Weathington (2006) examined the relationships between

justice perceptions, trust, and employee attitudes in the context of a downsized organisation in the U.S.. In this research context, trust was conceptualized as “one’s expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another’s future actions will be beneficial, favorable, or at least not detrimental to one’s interest” (Robinson 1996, p. 575), and was measured using Robinson’s (1996) seven-item scale.. The study suggests that trust in organisation mediates the relationships between distributive justice and both job satisfaction and affective commitment. The results also indicate that trust in organisation mediates the relationship between procedural justice and turnover intention. Aside from confirming the strong associations of trust in organisation with affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention, the study provides useful implications for management. In particular, it suggests that not only does trust in organisation enhance the process through which procedural justice leads to lower turnover intention, trust in organisation also facilitates the process through which distributive justice leads to higher job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Taken together, the above empirical studies conducted in the U.S. (and one in Canada) provide empirical evidence for the present research phenomena and offer insights useful to the present study. However, since the present research is conducted outside the U.S., it is important to further examine some previous studies conducted outside the U.S.. Hence, the paragraphs that follow examine five focal empirical studies conducted in five other nations that provide further insights for the phenomena under investigation.

In Singapore, Tan & Tan (2000) conducted a study that involves two referents of trust (i.e., supervisor, and organisation) allowing testing of both the trust–outcome relationships and moderating effects of referent of trust. On the belief that the antecedents and outcomes of each focus of trust may differ, the authors examined the antecedents and outcomes of trust in supervisor and organisation. Trust in supervisor was conceptualized as the willingness of a subordinate to be vulnerable to the actions of his/her supervisor whose behaviour and actions he/she cannot control, whereas trust in organisation was conceptualized as the global evaluation of an organisation’s trustworthiness as perceived by the employee. Each of these constructs was measured with a seven-item scale adapted from Gabarro & Athos

(1976). The results suggest that while trust in supervisor is related to increased job satisfaction and innovative behaviour, trust in organisation is related to higher affective commitment and lower turnover intention. The study also reveals that though trust in supervisor and trust in organisation are positively and significantly correlated, trust in supervisor is more strongly associated with supervisor's ability, benevolence, and integrity, whereas trust in organisation is more strongly related to justice and perceived organisational support.

In brief, Tan & Tan's (2000) study has made significant contributions to the extant literature. Besides confirming trust in authorities is related positively to affective commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively to turnover intention, it extends the trust literature by demonstrating that trust in supervisor and trust in organisation are distinct constructs with different antecedents and outcomes, and that the two constructs are positively correlated. Again, it provides practical implication for management suggesting organisation to adopt a more holistic approach in building trust, which can be achieved by focusing on the various organisational units and the various levels (e.g., supervisor level and organisational level). Above all, it provides useful insights into the application of some analytical procedures appropriate for the present study.

In India, recognizing employees' positive work attitudes that go beyond their prescribed roles as a source of an organisation's competitive advantage, Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002) conducted a study to examine the mediating effects of trust in the relationship between organisational justice and work outcomes. Trust was primarily conceptualized based on Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) "willingness to be vulnerable". The measurement of trust in supervisor was based on Marlowe & Nyhan's (1992) eight-item scale, and trust in organisation was measured with a seven-item scale adapted from Gabarro & Athos (1976). The results suggest that trust in organisation mediates the relationships between organisational justice (including distributive, procedural and interactional) and job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intention. The study also reveals that trust in supervisor mediates the relationships between interactional justice and both task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Notably, Aryee, Budhwar & Chen's (2002) findings are in corroboration of Tan & Tan's (2000) study suggesting trust in organisation and trust in supervisor are distinct constructs with different antecedents and outcomes. The findings have important implications for both researchers and management. Specifically, they suggest that trust in supervisor significantly facilitates the process through which interactional justice leads to higher task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. Again, they indicate that trust in organisation significantly enhances the process through which organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) leads to higher job satisfaction and affective commitment, and lower turnover intention.

In China, considering most previous studies on affective commitment were conducted in Western countries and findings from which may not be generalisable to Eastern countries, Wong, Ngo & Wong (2002) conducted a study to examine factors affecting joint venture employees' affective commitment. In this research context, trust in organisation was measured with an eight-item scale adapted from Cook & Wall (1980) and Ashford, Lee & Bobko (1989). The study suggests that trust in organisation mediates the relationships of affective commitment with distributive justice, procedural justice, and perceived job security. The results also reveal that both perceived job security and affective commitment have significant effects on employees' turnover intention.

As an extension to the above study, Wong, Ngo & Wong (2003) further investigated the antecedents and outcomes of trust in supervisor and organisation. Whereas trust in organisation was measured with an eight-item scale aforesaid, trust in supervisor was measured with a three-item scale adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1990). The results suggest that Job security affects employees' trust in organisation, whereas subordinate-supervisor 'guanxi' affects employees' trust in supervisor. Moreover, the study indicates that both trust in organisation and trust in supervisor relate negatively to turnover intention, and that trust in supervisor also affects significantly employees' organisational citizenship behaviour.

Despite the omission of their conceptualization of trust, both Wong, Ngo & Wong's (2002; 2003) studies have made significant contributions to the extant

literature. The 2002 study, besides confirming the positive relationship of trust in organisation with affective commitment, also indicates that trust in organisation significantly enhances the process through which organisational justice (distributive and procedural) and perceived job security lead to greater affective commitment. And in turn, this results in lower turnover intention. Again, the 2003 study further reveals that trust in organisation has a stronger effect on turnover intention than does trust in supervisor. Notably, the 2003 research findings are in corroboration of both Tan & Tan's (2000) and Aryee, Budhwar & Chen's (2002) studies suggesting trust in different levels of organisational authorities will have different antecedents and outcomes.

In Australia, driven by a survey indicating low levels of trust in managers within a large public health organisation, Connell, Ferres & Travaglionne (2003) conducted a study to determine the predictors and consequences of trust in manager. Trust in managers was primarily conceptualized based on Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) "willingness to be vulnerable", and was measured with a five-item scale adapted from Cook & Wall (1980). The results suggest that perceived organisational support, procedural justice and transformational leadership are significant predictors of trust in manager. The study also reveals that trust in manager is related positively to affective commitment but negatively to turnover intention. This study has contributed to the extant literature by suggesting managers can influence trusting relationship with subordinates by adopting transformational leadership orientation, and engendering perceived organisational support and procedural justice at all levels. Equally important, it confirms the strong associations of trust in manager with affective commitment and turnover intention, providing empirical evidence for the present research phenomena.

In Austria, considering employee satisfaction is central to TQM (Total Quality Management), Matzler & Renzl (2006) conducted a study to investigate employee satisfaction and employee loyalty in relationships to interpersonal trust (trust in management and trust in peers) in the utility sector. Trust was primarily conceptualized based on Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) "willingness to be vulnerable" and Whitener et al.'s (1998) three main facets of trust, and was measured using Cook & Wall's (1980) interpersonal trust scale. The results reveal that both

trust in management and trust in peers relate positively to employee satisfaction which, in turn, correlates positively with employee loyalty. The study has contributed to the body of knowledge by suggesting that trust in peers has a much stronger impact on employee satisfaction than does trust in management. An important implication of this is that measures should be taken to increase both employees' trust in peers and trust in management in an effort to increase employee satisfaction. Respectively, the reported positive relationship of trust in management with employee satisfaction also offers empirical evidence for the phenomena under investigation.

Summing up the above subsections, it is found that trust in organisational authorities have repeatedly been established as having strong associations with affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Such phenomena, substantiated both theoretically and empirically, seem adequate in providing a representative pattern of relationships between trust in organisational authorities and important organisational outcomes⁴. Nevertheless, considering the moderating effects of definition of trust and referent of trust that may vary the trust–outcome relationships (Dirks & Ferrin 2002) as reviewed previously, replications of the above pattern of relationships are of importance in suggesting valid answers that will possibly lead to the resolution of the broad research problem. This means that it is important to re-test existing trust–outcome relationships found in the literature due to diversity in construct focus (as stressed in this chapter page 29).

From the above discussion emerges the following research question:

RQ3(i). To what extent is employee trust in top management related to each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention?

Further, in the face of skill shortages and shift towards contract employments, it is also important to know if the above pattern of relationships applies to

⁴ As previously discussed, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention are important outcomes since they have been repeatedly found as having important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness.

employees' perceived intention to return to the same workplace, for these employees already possess the skills and experience conducive to organisational performance and effectiveness. However, the concept of 'intention-to-return' has not been found in the existing trust literature. Thus, it is necessary to conceptualize the concept afresh and critically assess where it fits in as an important organisational outcome. The critical discussion about this issue follows.

Effects of Trust on Intention-to-Return

Intention-to-return

The term 'intention-to-return' has been used by public media announcing celebrities' intention to return to former workplace. For example, Provost Jonathan Cole announced his intention to return to teaching and research (Columbia Uni 2002). Also, Economic Counsellor Kenneth Rogoff notified IMF Management of his intention to return to Harvard University (IMF 2003). Again, Romanian president confirmed his intention to return to Social Democrats (BBC 2004).

In the research arena, the term 'intention to return' has been frequently used in the field of marketing to investigate customers' intention to return to the same vendor (e.g., Chang 2000; Chen, Chen & Kazman 2007; Hong 2004; Jiang & Rosenbloom 2005; Karson & Fisher 2005). In particular, Chang (2000) investigates the impact of physical environments on customer satisfaction and their subsequent return intention within a service industry. Liu, Leach & Winsor (2005) analyse members' intention to return to organisational conferences using an accessibility-diagnostics framework. Noone & Mount (2008) examine the effect of price on customers' return intention paying special attention to the moderating influence of satisfaction and reward programme membership on the relationship between price and return intent. Again, in the domain of E-commerce, Jiang & Rosenbloom (2005) examine the role of price perception, service attribute-level performance and satisfaction, and their effects on customers' return intention. Karson & Fisher (2005) investigate the effects of non-brand-related factors (e.g., security, ease of use, transactional capabilities, etc.) on customers' intention to return. Chen, Chen &

Kazman (2007) investigate the affective and cognitive impacts of ECRM (Electronic Customer Relationship Management) systems on online customers' intention to return to the website. More recently, Larson & Steinman (2009) examine the impact of key service quality drivers on NFL (National Football League) fan satisfaction and return intention. Alegre & Cladera (2009) analyse the determinants of tourist intention to return to a destination, paying special attention to the effects of satisfaction.

The term 'intention to return' or more frequently its similar phrases have been found in organisational literature. For example, a number of organisational researchers (e.g., Eys et al. 2005; Spink 1998; Spink & Odnokon 2001) have conducted studies in sport organisations (e.g., teams) to examine factors that affect athletes' intention to return to the same team the next season.

Whereas increasing numbers of firms have turned to temporary workers to improve their competitiveness in the global market (Foote 2004), many industries that have seasonal demands such as agriculture, tourism, retail, hospitality and fishing rely heavily on seasonal workers (Qenani-Petrela, Mittelhammer & Wandschneider 2008). Prompted by the growing reliance on such contingent employments, organisational researchers have increasingly focused on the influence of human resource management systems and practices on the expectations and experience employees have of work, and factors that may lead to employees' premature departure and intention to return. In particular, Morris & Vekker (2001) examine temporary workers' preferences and expectations, and the growth in temporary employment. Finna (2004) analyses the visible advantages of temporary workers in respect of economical competitiveness and solutions for decreasing inactivity and unemployment. Foote (2004) investigates factors associated with the management of temporary workers that may lead to higher than normal rates of premature departure with an emphasis on the development of comprehensive Human Resource Management systems that address the factors identified. Camerman, Cropanzano & Vandenberghe (2007) examine the benefits of organisational justice in the context of contingent employment. More recently, Ainsworth & Purss (2009) explore the dynamics between management approach, human resource systems and practices, and responses of seasonal workers.

The term 'intention to return' or its similar phrases are also found in literature investigating solutions to reduce the nursing shortage by ways that promote inactive nurses' intention to return to the nursing labour market. (e.g., McIntosh, Palumbo & Rambur 2006; McLean & Anema 2004; Myers & Bushnell 2007; Williams et al. 2006). In particular, Hammer & Craig (2008) examine the experiences of inactive nurses who return to nursing and identify factors that may lead to inactive nurses' intention to return. Kawaguchi, Yasukawa & Matsuda (2008) examine inactive nurses' job-searching behaviours to return to healthcare workplace where serious shortage of nurses exists. Tanaka, Serizawa & Sakaguchi (2008) examine the challenges and problems in using career redevelopment programmes and individual hospital programmes to induce inactive nurses' intention to return to the nursing workforce. More recently, Alameddine et al. (2011) analyse the career transitions of nurses registered with the College of Nurses Ontario to determine their likelihood of return to the active labour market.

In the context of business organisations, it is plausible to speculate that athlete perceived intention to return to the same team the next season is parallel to contract employee perceived intention to return to the organisation from which he/she will leave upon completion of his/her contract. This form of workplace behavioural outcome/intention is thought to be important and relevant to the Singapore industries due to the shift from permanent to contract employment aimed at controlling fixed costs and/or plugging talent gap (Ambition 2009; Lee 2008; Ravindran 2005; Robert Half 2009). It is also important and relevant to the Australian industries such as manufacturing, automotive repair, and construction for two reasons as follows.

First, the aforesaid industries traditionally were the major employers of apprentices (Toner 2000). Substantial decline in apprentice intake over the 1990s, rising non-completion rates of apprentices, and continuing high wastage rates from the trades (i.e., trades employees electing to work in other occupations) have resulted in significant trade skill shortages across these industries. In the face of such a problem, and given the importance of quality and service, retaining skills within an organisation is increasingly seen as the critical issue for a company's survival (CLMPC 1997). Second, contract employees account for a significant part of the

workforce in the Australian industries due to a move away from permanent employment towards contract employment (ABS 2002,2007).

For the purpose of this research study, the ‘intention-to-return’ construct is re-conceptualized as the employee’s perception that he/she has an intention to return to the organisation from which he/she will leave upon completion of his/her contract or might leave voluntarily due to personal reasons. The potential linkage between this construct and trust in organisational authorities is discussed next.

Trust in organisational authorities and intention-to-return

While the concept of ‘intention-to-return’ has not been found in the extant trust literature, it can be logically conceptualized aforesaid whereby it can nicely fit in as an important workplace behavioural outcome/intention. Such conceptualization permits ‘intention-to-return’ to be seen as an extension of the trust–outcome relationships discussed in the preceding subsections. As such, it is possible to speculate the relationship of trust in organisational authorities with ‘intention-to-return’ based on some theoretical perspectives underlying the trust–outcome relationships already discussed in the foregoing. For example, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman’s (1995) theoretical rationale, Brockner et al.’s (1997) view on increased support for organisational authorities, Tan & Tan’s (2000) perspective on reduced turnover intention, and Dirks & Ferrin’s (2001; 2002) perspectives of trust, all of which provide the theoretical basis for such a speculation.

From the above discussion emerges the following research question:

RQ3(ii). To what extent is employee trust in top management related to intention-to-return?

In sum, this section discusses four important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return in respect of their important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness, and the pattern of their relationships with trust in organisational authorities. In the next section, the potential moderating effects of role-modelling on these trust–outcome relationships are discussed.

ROLE-MODELLING AS A POTENTIAL MODERATOR OF TRUST–OUTCOME RELATIONSHIPS

Previous research has clearly established that trust in organisational authorities is manifested in certain desirable outcomes as reported in the preceding section. Nevertheless, it has been argued that trust, alone, is an inadequate condition for certain desirable outcomes to occur (Hwang & Burgers 1997). It is something (i.e., the moderator) that provides the conditions under which certain trust–outcome relationships will be more or less pronounced (Brockner et al. 1997). This controversy in arguments suggests that, for both theoretical and practical reasons, it is crucial to identify a moderator of the trust–outcome relationships that will possibly lead to the resolution of the broad research problem.

Nevertheless, investigation of whether the relationship between trust and an outcome variable varies systematically with the values of a moderator variable can only meaningfully proceed in the presence of some a priori hypothesis regarding the influence of a moderator variable upon the trust–outcome relationship (Arnold 1982). Testing whether the strength of correlation between trust and an outcome variable varies significantly with the values of a moderator variable can lead to meaningful scientific conclusions only in the presence of some plausible hypothesis predicting that trust and that outcome variable should be more strongly related under some conditions than others. “A random search for moderator variables is no more justified and no more theoretically enlightening than a random search for statistically significant zero-order relationships between variables (p. 146). Accordingly, investigation of potential moderator variable follows.

While previous studies investigating the trust–outcome relationships have been abundant as evidenced by the numerous studies reported in this chapter, very few studies have explored the moderators of such relationships. Few authors have shed light on this issue. For example, Dunegan, Tierney & Duchon (1992) note that the impact of trust on job satisfaction will be less pronounced if employees are highly motivated by the way the job is designed. Again, Brockner et al. (1997) conclude that the impact of trust in organisational authorities on employee affective commitment is greater when outcomes associated with authorities’ decisions are

perceived to be relatively unfavourable. Similarly, Cunningham & MacGregor (2000) observe that job design factors may moderate the impact of trust on job satisfaction.

Following the arguments of Cummings & Schwab (1970), Jenkins (1977) and Griffin (1980) suggesting variables which distinctively affect performance/satisfaction could become potential moderators of relationships to performance/satisfaction, Rich's (1997) study previously reported in the preceding section was further examined. The results of this study reveal that manager role-modelling is positively and significantly correlated with performance and job satisfaction. Taken together, role-modelling could be a potential moderator of trust–outcome relationships.

Gaining insights from the literature review, three concepts, including role-modelling, shared values and multi-states of trust experience, are considered important in exploring moderating effects on the trust–outcome relationships. These concepts and their interrelationships are discussed in the two subsections that follow.

Linkage between Role-modelling and Shared Values

Role-modelling, in transformational and charismatic leadership theories (e.g., Bass 1985; House 1977), is described as the leader's behaviour perceived by the follower to be an appropriate example to follow that is consistent with both the leader's espoused values and the organisation's goals. Values are general principles or standards (e.g., competence, consistency, fairness, helpfulness, honesty, integrity, loyalty, openness, predictability, reliability, and responsibility) that are considered intrinsically desirable ends (Jones & George 1998; Olson & Zanna 1993; Rokeach 1973).

The efficacy of role-modelling in instilling desired values into followers has long been identified in the leadership literature (e.g., Bass 1985; House 1977; Sims & Brinkmann 2002). Effective leaders in organisations have extraordinary effects on followers because they express by actions a set of values and beliefs to which they

want their followers to subscribe (House 1977). They are inspirational to followers to the extent that they provide examples and patterns for their followers (Bass 1985). In other words, leaders 'role model' a value system, which is consistent with the organisation's goals and objectives, for the followers to the extent that they provide a model of desired behaviour (i.e., exhibition of espoused values) that inspires followers to perform beyond expectations. Role-modelling has been considered a leadership practice common to successful leaders, which entails leaders engaging in behaviours that are consistent with their articulated vision, values and beliefs, and hence gaining respect from their followers (Kouzes & Posner 1987). By engaging in exemplary acts that followers perceive as involving great personal sacrifices, cost and energy which are worthy of imitation, leaders earn credibility and serve as a role model of desired values (Conger & Kanungo 1987; Shamir, House & Arthur 1993).

Further, role-modelling is used to symbolize new values and provide an example of exemplary behaviour for followers to imitate (Yukl 1993). By observing a model of new desired behaviour (i.e., exhibition of new values), followers form an idea of how response components must be combined and sequenced to produce the new desired behaviour (Bandura 1986). For Shamir, House & Arthur (1993), role modelling is related to vicarious learning that occurs when the relevant messages are inferred by followers from observation of leaders' values, beliefs and behaviours. When vicarious learning occurs, the leader becomes a 'representative character' (Bellah et al. 1985) – an image that helps define for the followers the kinds of values, beliefs and behaviours which are good and legitimate to develop. This notion of vicarious learning–representative character further suggests that the leader provides an ideal role model of desired values for followers. Finally, role-modelling has been considered important in reinforcing the values that support the organisational culture because employees often observe the behaviour of their leaders to find out what is valued in the organisation (Sims & Brinkmann 2002).

In sum, numerous leadership theories have suggested that leader (manager)⁵ 'role models' the value system of organisation for followers (subordinates), provides an example of exemplary behaviour for followers (subordinates) to imitate, thereby

⁵ No distinction is made between 'leader/leadership' and 'manager/management' because the terms are often used interchangeably in the literature (Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Yukl & Van Fleet 1992).

instilling the value system of organisation into followers (subordinates) such that shared values are internalized in them. Simply put it, manager role-modelling promotes shared values (i.e., the value system of organisation) in subordinates.

In the subsection that follows, the relationship between shared values and trust is explored to understand how shared values contribute to trust enhancement.

Linkage between Shared Values and Trust

Dissimilarity of values has been found to have a negative effect on trust development and trustworthiness (e.g., Anderson & Weitz 1989; Smith & Barclay 1997). In contrast, similarity of values (or shared values) has been found to be positively related to trust (e.g., Brashear et al. 2003; Gillespie & Mann 2004; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Yilmaz & Hunt 2001).

Several researchers have emphasized the important role that shared values play in attaining high levels of trust. Barber (1983) considers a reciprocal process between shared values and trust, with shared values helping to build trust between leaders and followers, and trust serving to express and maintain those shared values. Lewicki, McAllister & Bies (1998) suggest that the extent to which both parties identify with each other's values is a determinant of high trust relationships. For Jones & George (1998), shared values structure the social situation and become the primary vehicle through which people experience the highest state of trust. Finally, Gillespie & Mann (2004) conclude that the extent to which team members perceive they share common values with their leader influences their trust in the leader.

While the above researchers have generally agreed that shared values are important towards contributing to trust enhancement, they appear to have different views as to how such a relationship comes about. The process through which such a relationship develops can best be understood by examining the multi-states of trust experience discussed in the subsection that follows.

Multi-states of trust experience

Considering trust a psychological construct, Jones & George (1998) take a symbolic interactionist perspective (e.g., Blumer 1962,1969), suggesting people act according to the meanings acquired through social interactions, and view trust as a changing or evolving experience.

Using a well-developed theoretical framework, Jones & George (1998) conceptualize a single construct of trust comprising three distinct states, conditional trust, unconditional trust, and distrust, which are determined by the interactions among values, attitudes, and moods and emotions. In this model, values serve to provide standards of trust that people strive to achieve in their trusting relationships (e.g., Butler 1991; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995; Rotter 1980). Attitudes serve to provide information concerning another person's trustworthiness (e.g., Butler 1991; McAllister 1995; Rempel, Holmes & Zanna 1985; Robinson 1996). Finally, moods and emotions serve as indicators of the presence and quality of trust in a relationship (e.g., Frijda 1988; George & Jones 1997). Associated with this theoretical framework are a number of well-defined concepts that contribute significantly to the body of knowledge while providing insights to the present research. Briefly, they are:

First, at the initial social encounter, each party simply suspends belief that the other is not trustworthy and begins a relationship with conditional trust (i.e., a state of trust in which both parties are willing to transact with each other based on a similar scheme as long as each behaves appropriately). Second, conditional trust can change into unconditional trust (i.e., an experience of trust based primarily on shared values that structure the social situation) in which shared values create a common bond and fundamentally change the quality of the exchange relationship.

Above all, Jones & George's (1998) study contributes significantly to the trust literature by theorizing that shared values lead to actualization of unconditional trust and create a common bond that fundamentally improves the quality of trusting relationship. Despite its merits, the study provides little or vague suggestion on how organisation, in practice, can change the state of trust from conditional trust to

unconditional trust. This limitation (gap) could have been eliminated had the authors proposed a concept capable of promoting shared values.

Summing up this entire section of literature review, it is found that Jones & George's (1998) study limitation aforesaid could possibly be eliminated through synthesizing with the concept of role-modelling deemed capable of promoting shared values. In other words, the synthesized relationship will reflect that role-modelling promotes shared values (i.e., the value system of organisation), which in turn lead to actualization of unconditional trust thereby improving the quality of trusting relationship between organisation (top management)⁶ and employees. In turn, such an improved trusting relationship may be manifested in the trust–outcome relationships.

From the above synthesis of concepts emerges the following research question:

RQ4. How does role-modelling of senior manager⁷ influence the relationship between employee trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?

Further, the notion of cultural differences having substantial impacts on interpersonal relations (e.g., Harrison 1995) reflects that cultural differences may also have impacts on trusting relationships, for trust is primarily an interpersonal phenomenon (e.g., Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Therefore, literature review is turned to examining cultural differences and their impacts discussed next.

⁶ Trust in top management reflects employees' trust in the organisation that the top management represents (Shamir & Lapidot 2003).

⁷ Senior manager, reports directly to the top management, is deemed the most appropriate position to 'role model' the value system of organisation.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND THEIR IMPACTS

Culture, in this study, is defined as socially transmitted values, beliefs and behaviours that are shared by a group of people (Cai, Wilson & Drake 2000; Hofstede 2001; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 1997; Varner & Palmer 2005). People from different cultures view the world based on different sets of cultural assumptions or cultural values (Ferraro 2002). Such values set the standards by which one's thinking and behaviour are judged to be good/right or bad/wrong.

Cultural values shape people's attitudes and beliefs about work, success, wealth, authority, equity, competition, and many others of the content and context of the work environment (Scarborough 2000). They rule and regulate how people treat others and wish to be treated; how people communicate, negotiate, process information, and make decisions; the leadership style that people like to use; and how and where people want to be led. This section discusses the origins of cultural differences and the impacts of cultural differences on aspects of behaviour/interpersonal relation in the two subsections that follow.

The Origins of Cultural Differences

There are several cultural differences models such as the Hofstede Model (Hofstede 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005), Trompenaars Model (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 1997), and GLOBE Model (House et al. 2004). While the respective merits and drawbacks of different models are widely discussed, use of one model for analysing and understanding national cultural differences is helpful to illustrate the major issues which need to be considered. Hofstede Model is selected for this study for it has been most frequently used by cross-cultural researchers as a management diagnostic tool. Using this model it is possible to identify differences in responses to management styles, organisational preferences, and motivation patterns.

Cultural values can differ across countries as identified by Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) five cultural dimensions: power distance, individualism vs. collectivism,

masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long- vs. short-term orientation. The salient points of each dimension follow.

Power distance: Power distance is the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally. In cultures with large differences in power between individuals, organisations will have more hierarchy levels and the chain of command is deemed more important (Dickson, Den-Hartog & Mitchelson 2003). For example, Mexico, China and Russia have high power distance, whereas USA, Japan, Chile, Venezuela, Yugoslavia and Germany have low power distance (Fernandez et al. 1997). Power distance in society has a significant impact on organisations. In particular, power distance in society is negatively related to having employee decision-making authority in organisations (Schuler & Rogovsky 1998). Also, job level is less strongly related to job satisfaction in a low power-distance context vis-à-vis a high power-distance context (Robie et al. 1998).

Individualism vs. collectivism: Individualism is characterized by societies in which the ties between individuals are loose. People are expected to look after themselves and their immediate family. In contrast, collectivism is characterized by a tight social framework in which people are integrated into strong and cohesive in-groups. People expect their in-group to look after them in exchange for their loyalty towards their in-group. For example, USA, Mexico, Yugoslavia, Venezuela, Chile and Germany are individualistic countries, whereas Japan, China and Russia are collectivist countries (Fernandez et al. 1997).

Masculinity vs. femininity: The masculine culture is characterized by dominant values in a society that stress assertiveness, being tough, and material success (money and things), but not caring for others and the quality of life. Conversely, in the feminine culture, people are inclined towards values such as warm social relationships, quality of life, and care of the weak. For instance, France, USA, Venezuela, Yugoslavia and Germany are feminine countries, whereas China, Mexico, Russia, Chile and Japan are masculine countries (Fernandez et al. 1997).

Uncertainty avoidance: Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous circumstances and tries to avoid these circumstances by believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise, providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, and rejecting deviant ideas and behaviours. Fernandez et al.'s (1997) study of nine countries suggests that Russia, USA, Chile, China and Venezuela are higher in uncertainty avoidance vis-à-vis Mexico, Germany, Japan and Yugoslavia. In general, lower uncertainty-avoidance societies are more innovative than higher uncertainty-avoidance societies (Dickson, Den-Hartog & Mitchelson 2003; Shane 1993).

Long- vs. short-term orientation: Long-term orientation is associated with such values as perseverance, thrift, and sense of shame, whereas short-term orientation is associated with such values as personal stability, protecting one's 'face', respect for tradition, and fulfilling social obligations. East Asian countries' scores on the Long-Term Orientation Index (LTO) are higher vis-à-vis Western countries. LTO scores are highly associated with national economic growth in the period 1965-85, and even more in the period 1985-95. "Long-term orientation is thus identified as a major explanation of the explosive growth of the East Asian economies in the later part of the 20th century" (Hofstede 2001, p. 351).

In brief, the above Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) five cultural dimensions provide a guide to understanding the differences in culture across countries. In particular, the five cultural dimensions for both Australia and Singapore as shown in Table 2.4 below indicate that the two countries are largely different in national cultures.

Table 2.4: Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Country	PDI*	IDV*	MAS*	UAI*	LTO*
Australia	36	90	61	51	31
Singapore	74	20	48	8	48
* PDI	Power Distance Index				
IDV	Individualism				
MAS	Masculinity				
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index				
LTO	Long-Term Orientation				

Source: Extracted from Hofstede (1980; 2001; 2005)

With the background of how and why cultural values differ across countries, attention is turned to the impacts of cultural differences on aspects of behaviour and interpersonal relation as follows.

Impacts of Cultural Differences on Aspects of Behaviour and Interpersonal Relation

Cultural differences are said to have substantial impacts on aspects of behaviour and interpersonal response, as evidenced below in a summary of findings from selected articles covering discussion from general aspects to leadership, performance and trust. For example, Chinese in Taiwan are less compliant than Chinese in Singapore in response to friends' requests, but they are more tactful in refusing compared with Singaporean Chinese (Bresnahan et al. 1999). Hungarians are more willing to engage in self-disclosure to partners, friends, and parents than Russians and Georgians, but less so to acquaintances (Goodwin et al. 1999). In dealing with conflict, Americans (individualists) use more assertive tactics, whereas Japanese (collectivists) use more avoidance tactics (Ohbuchi, Fukushima & Tedeschi 1999). More illustrations from this area of research follow.

Western and Eastern cultures are different in various aspects (e.g., Scarborough 2000; Yoon, Vargas & Han 2004; Yuki et al. 2005). In particular, there are cultural differences in perceptions of levels of job satisfaction, job tension, and interpersonal relations with superiors and peers (Harrison 1995). Job satisfaction is lower, job tension higher, and interpersonal relations poorer for managers in

Singapore (high power distance, collectivist) than for managers in Australia (low power distance, individualist). Also, there are differences in choices of decision process (Chu, Spires & Sueyoshi 1999). Compared with Americans, Japanese are less likely to invoke compensatory decision processes⁸, which involve conflict-confronting assessment of trade-offs among attributes. Again, there are differences in effective routes to persuasion (Pornpitakpan & Francis 2000). Whereas source expertise has a greater impact on persuasion in the Thai culture (high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, collectivist) than in the Canadian culture (low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, individualist), argument strength has more influence in the Canadian than in the Thai culture.

In the same vein, there are significant cultural differences in preferred approaches to emotional support provision (Burleson & Mortenson 2003). Americans (being more individualist) will evaluate comforting messages high in person centeredness⁹ more positively than will Chinese, whereas traditional Chinese (being more collectivist) are more comfortable with less person-centered messages. Moreover, there are differences in causal attributions (Maddux & Yuki 2006). Compared with Westerners, East Asians make broader/more complex causal attributions, and hence are more aware of how individuals and events are interrelated. More specifically, Westerners have a strong tendency to explain behaviours in terms of an actor's characteristics, whereas East Asians are more inclined to explain behaviours in terms of situational factors influencing the actor. Similarly, there are differences in perceptions of the consequences of events (Maddux & Yuki 2006). People from East Asian cultures are more aware of the indirect, downstream, distal consequences of events than do people from Western cultures.

Further, cultural differences can influence leaders' and subordinates' perceptions concerning leadership. In particular, preferences of business managers'

⁸ Compensatory decision processes involving trade-offs between attribute values are conflict-confronting, whereas noncompensatory processes not involving explicit trade-offs are conflict-avoiding (Chu, Spires & Sueyoshi 1999).

⁹ "In comforting contexts, person centeredness is manifest in terms of the extent to which messages explicitly acknowledge, elaborate, legitimize, and contextualize the distressed other's feelings and perspective. Thus, messages low in person centeredness deny the other's feelings and perspective by criticizing the other's feelings, challenging the legitimacy of those feelings, or telling the other how he or she should act and feel" (Burleson & Mortenson 2003, p. 115).

explicit behaviours to successfully guide and motivate employees vary across countries (Ittrell & Valentin 2005). Argentine managers have greater preference than their U.S. counterparts in adopting Effective Leadership Practices - Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modelling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart (Aimar & Stough 2006). Certain personality traits positively associated with transformational leadership behaviour in the U.S. context are not evident in the Chinese environment (Shao & Webber 2006). Ranking of the importance of effective leadership behaviours differs significantly across countries (Russette, Scully & Preziosi 2008). Gender differences in leadership styles (consideration vs. initiating structure) are predominantly present in western societies with female managers around the world using more consideration style (Van Emmerik, Euwema & Wendt 2008). Preferred leadership prototypes held by leaders vary across countries, cultures and industries (Paris et al. 2009). Finally, culture and leadership interact in different ways in diverse contexts such that culture influences leadership styles because people have different beliefs and assumptions about characteristics that are deemed effective for leadership (Jogulu 2010).

Moreover, cultural differences can influence international alliance performance. In this respect, organisational culture differences tend to be more disruptive than national culture differences, and differences in the professional culture most relevant to alliance value creation are most disruptive (Sirmon & Lane 2004). Studies in this area appear to yield inconsistent results on the impact of cultural similarities and differences on strategic partnerships (Meirovich 2010). Some suggest that partners must possess cultural similarities in order to succeed while others reveal that cultural differences have a positive impact on both the efficiency and competitiveness of partnerships. More recently, Calza, Aliane & Cannavale's (2010) study indicates that Algerian culture is characterized by a low degree of performance orientation and a low degree of assertiveness, with strong implications for foreign managers. Such a national culture discourages local workers to reach higher standards and to improve performance, and impacts on foreign managers' capability to motivate local workers. Hence, the involvement of local managers is crucial in overcoming these problems.

In addition, cultural differences can have significant impacts on trusting relationships. In investigating the impact of cultural differences on trust relating to business strategy and control in the multinational corporations' headquarters–subsidiary relationships, Horng's (1993) study suggests that while trust may promote the pursuit of desired strategy, trust can also facilitate the use of strategic control versus financial control. In the service industries, customer trust in the service provider generally depends on customers' beliefs about service providers' ability, benevolence, predictability, and integrity (Schumann et al. 2010). However, customers differ in the way they build trust in their service provider across cultures. While the effect of ability on trust is robust across countries, the effects of the other three trust drivers differ across countries due to moderating effects of the cultural values of the target group.

Similarly, cultural differences can influence one's inclination to trust or distrust others (Scarborough 2000). Christianity (embedded in Western cultures) emphasizes that people are born with the stigma of original sin and thus are condemned unless saved (i.e., changed). In contrast, Shinto (the indigenous spirituality of Japanese) makes little distinction between deities and people. The extent to which one's attitudes and beliefs are shaped by one of these positions can affect one's inclination to trust or distrust others. Finally, there are cultural differences in the process of trust formation (Yuki et al. 2005). Americans tend to trust people primarily based on whether they share category memberships (e.g., they trust in-group members more than out-group members), whereas Japanese tend to trust people based on the likelihood of sharing direct or indirect interpersonal links.

Taken together, cultural values differ across countries (Hofstede 1980,2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005), and such cultural differences can have substantial impacts on aspects of behaviour and interpersonal relation (e.g., Harrison 1995; Scarborough 2000; Yoon, Vargas & Han 2004; Yuki et al. 2005). Since trust is primarily an interpersonal phenomenon (e.g., Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), cultural differences may also have impacts on trusting relationships.

The above line of reasoning suggests that research findings for the resolution of the broad research problem may have a geographic boundary of generalisability as

findings for a high power distance (PD), low individualism (IDV) nation may be different from those for a low PD, high IDV nation. For example, previous research findings about interpersonal relations with superiors for managers in Singapore (high PD, low IDV) are different from those for managers in the low PD, high IDV Australia (Harrison 1995). However, given a large number of nations that have the cultural characteristics of either high PD/low IDV (East Asians) or low PD/high IDV (Anglo-Americans), research findings for Singapore and Australia may also apply to a substantial number of East Asian and Anglo-American nations, respectively. Following this line of arguments, it is logical to infer that research findings, if replicable across culturally different countries, are possibly generalisable to other settings.

This section of the literature review offers insights into the methodology alternatives that allow research findings for the resolution of the broad research problem to be validated for their generalisability across culturally different countries. Specifically, the literature indicates that a two-country study design, involving one country characterized by high PD/low IDV and the other by low PD/high IDV, is required to make such a validation possible.

SUMMARY

The broad research problem addressed in this study prompted relevant literature searches to unearth specific research questions for its resolution. Accordingly, four research questions gradually emerged out of the foregoing discussion of literature across different theoretical areas. Some salient points follow.

Firstly, the concept of trust was thoroughly reviewed and discussed in order to have the fullest grasp of the concept. This was then followed by the discussion of the parsimonious trustworthiness factors, and the key tenets of Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model. From the discussion of various issues, including the moderating effects of referent of trust and the inconsistent research findings on antecedent–trust relationships, emerged the first research question:

RQ1. To what extent are employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity related to employee trust in top management?

Secondly, while the social context (e.g., groups) for trust has been thought to be important (Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wekselberg 1996), it has been neglected in the most widely accepted definition of trust by Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995). Given this limitation (gap) in the authors' theory, the role of groups in the formation of trust in organisational authorities, including the effects of group processes on employee perceptions of superior's trustworthiness, and group cohesiveness and its consequences were reviewed and discussed. From the discussion of this topic emerged the second research question:

RQ2. How does group cohesiveness influence employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness?

Thirdly, four important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return (a newly developed concept) were examined and discussed in respect of their important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness, and the pattern of their relationships with trust in organisational authorities. From the discussion of various issues, such as the moderating effects of definition of trust and referent of trust that may vary the trust–outcome relationships (Dirks & Ferrin 2002), emerged the third research question:

RQ3. To what extent is employee trust in top management related to each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?

Finally, it has been argued that trust, alone, is an inadequate condition for certain desirable outcomes to occur (Hwang & Burgers 1997). It is something (i.e., the moderator) that provides the conditions under which certain trust–outcome

relationships will be more or less pronounced (Brockner et al. 1997). Given this controversy, the potential moderating effects of role-modelling on the trust–outcome relationships were examined and discussed. As well, the linkage between role-modelling and shared values, and the linkage between shared values and trust were discussed. From the discussion of this topic emerged the fourth research question:

RQ4. How does role-modelling of senior manager influence the relationship between employee trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?

In addition, driven by the notion of cultural differences having substantial impacts on interpersonal relations (e.g., Harrison 1995), and the theories suggesting trust is primarily an interpersonal phenomenon (e.g., Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), cultural differences and their impacts were examined and discussed. From the discussion about the origins of cultural differences, and the impacts of cultural differences on aspects of behaviour/interpersonal relation, it is suggested that a two-country study design is required to validate if research findings are replicable across culturally different countries.

The next chapter describes the theoretical framework, the operational definitions of all constructs, the analytical model of the theoretical framework, and the research hypotheses that guide the rest of the study.

CHAPTER 3

MODEL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 covered the relevant literature review by classifications that ultimately led to the identifications and developments of the following four research questions aimed at resolving the broad research problem.

- RQ1. To what extent are employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity related to employee trust in top management?
- RQ2. How does group cohesiveness influence employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness?
- RQ3. To what extent is employee trust in top management related to each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?
- RQ4. How does role-modelling of senior manager influence the relationship between employee trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?

This chapter describes the theoretical framework, the operational definitions of all constructs, the analytical model of the theoretical framework, and the research hypotheses that guide the rest of the study. It comprises three sections starting with the theoretical framework and operational definitions. The second section describes the analytical model of the theoretical framework, which addresses the research questions by developing a series of theoretically justified and testable hypotheses. Finally, the last section outlines the research hypotheses proposed in the study.

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

By synthesizing the theories, propositions, concepts, and research evidence drawn from the literature, a theoretical framework was developed as in Figure 3.1 below. It comprises all the factors, concepts, constructs and interrelationships; and provides a strong conceptual foundation to proceed with the research.

The theoretical framework (Figure 3.1 below), on which the entire research rests, is divided into two parts due to the complexity and scope of the applicable information. Part 1 of the framework shows the proposed relationships of group cohesiveness with the top management's trustworthiness factors, and the trust model adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995). Part 2 shows the proposed relationships of trust in top management with the important organisational outcomes (affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return), and the moderating effects of senior manager role-modelling on the trust–outcome relationships. Both parts of the theoretical framework are shown in a single outline view presented in Figure 3.2 below.

Incorporated in the theoretical framework are the proposed new perspectives highlighted with bolded blocks and lines. Specifically, they are the proposed influence of group cohesiveness on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness, the proposed relationship of trust in top management with intention-to-return, and the proposed influence of senior manager role-modelling on the trust–outcome relationships.

Associated with the theoretical framework are the operational definitions of all the constructs and related concepts, and the analytical model describing the constructs and their relationships. The former is discussed in the subsection that follows while the latter in the subsequent section of its own.

Figure 3.1 Part 1: The Theoretical Framework Part 1

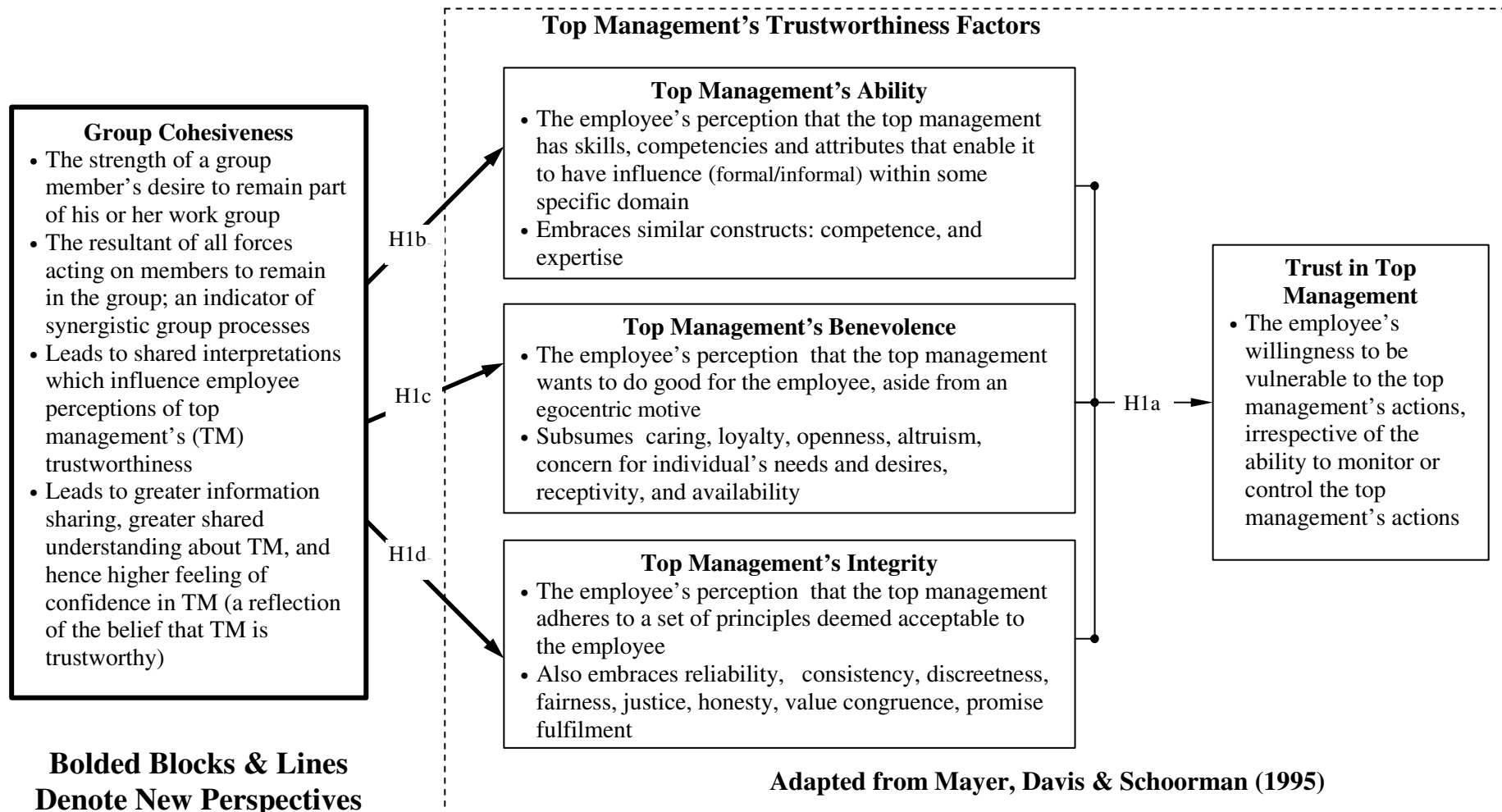


Figure 3.1 Part 2: The Theoretical Framework Part 2

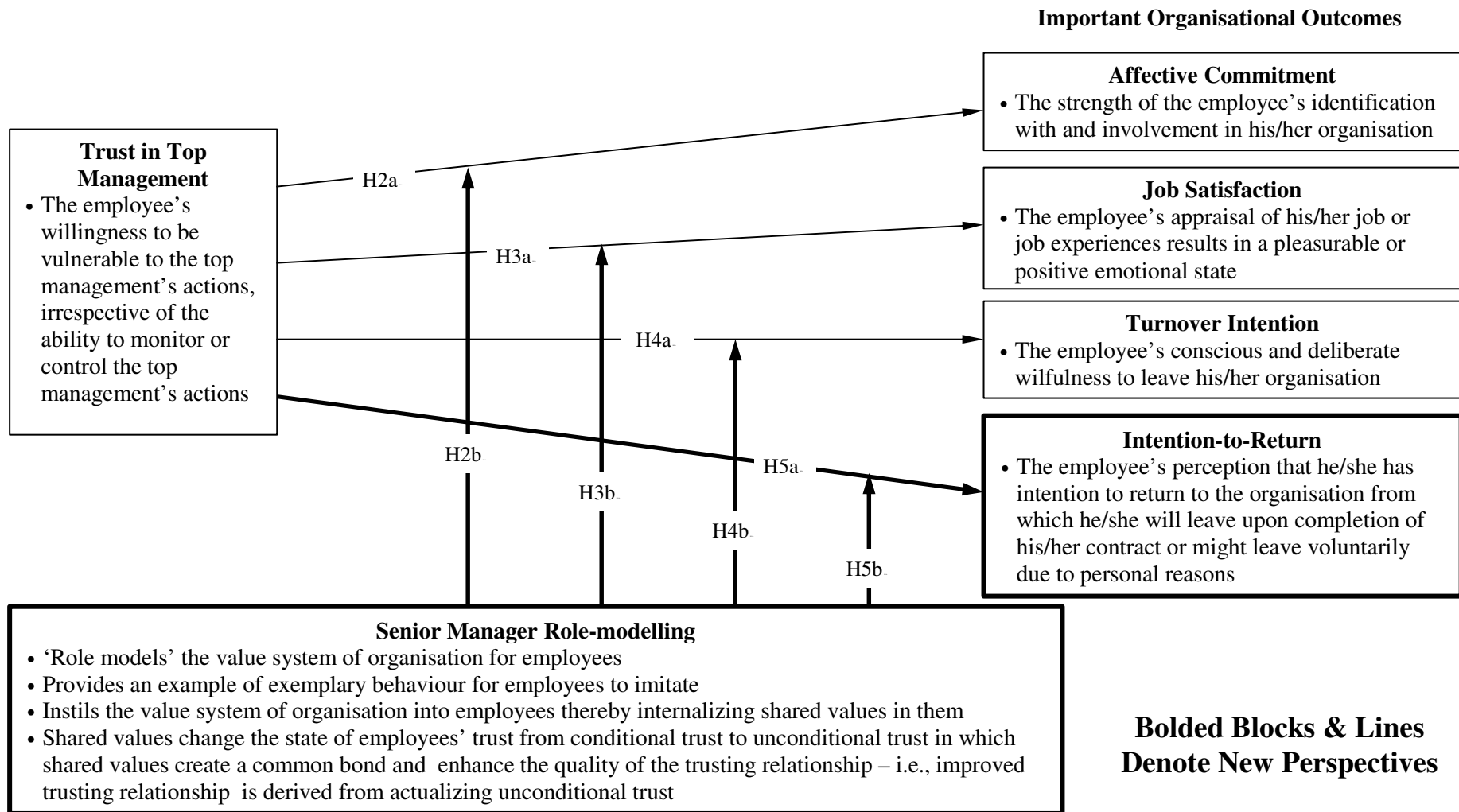
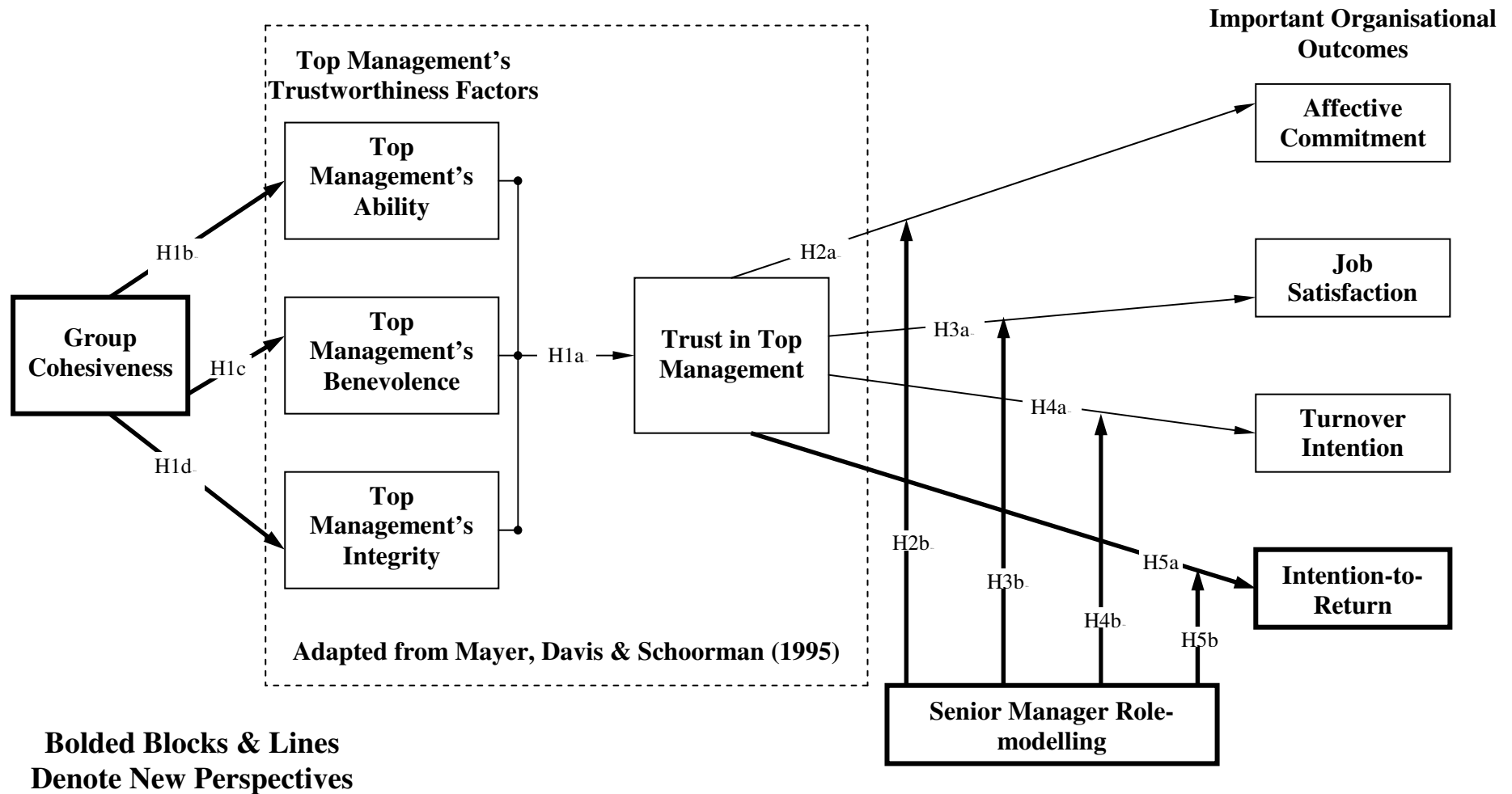


Figure 3.2: Outline View of the Theoretical Framework



Operational Definitions

Within the above theoretical framework (Figure 3.1), the operational definitions of all the constructs, flowing from left to right, are detailed as in the following. For the purpose of clarity, several related terms, including top management, senior manager, conditional trust, and unconditional trust are also defined and listed accordingly.

Group Cohesiveness: Group cohesiveness is the degree to which a group sticks together, or the strength of a group member's desire to remain part of his or her work group (Gilbert & Tang 1998). It is influenced by empathy, self-disclosure, acceptance, and lateral trust (Roark & Sharah 1989).

Top Management: "Top management is the group of persons at or near the top of the organisational chart" (McCauley & Kuhnert 1992, p. 269). This is an identifiable set of top decision makers, who has the authority to change organisational policies, and whose actions have a significant impact on the firm's employees (Mayer & Davis 1999).

Top Management's Ability: Top management's ability, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) has skills, competencies and attributes that enable it to have influence within some specific domain. This subsumes both the formal and informal influence the top management is perceived to have in the organisation, as well as its perceived competence, skills, and expertise (Mayer & Davis 1999).

Top Management's Benevolence: Top management's benevolence, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) wants to do good for the employee (trustor), aside from an egocentric motive. This subsumes caring, loyalty, openness, altruism, concern for individual's needs and desires, receptivity, and availability. For example, if an employee believes the top management cares about the employee's interests, the top management will be seen as having benevolence for the employee (Mayer & Davis 1999).

Top Management's Integrity: Top management's integrity, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) adheres to a set of principles that is deemed acceptable by the employee (trustor). This subsumes not only that the top management espouses values that the employee sees as positive, but also that the top management acts in a way that is consistent with the espoused values (Mayer & Davis 1999). Besides, this also embraces reliability, consistency, discreetness, fairness, justice, honesty, value congruence, and promise fulfilment.

Trust in Top Management: Trust in top management, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is operationalized as the willingness of an employee (trustor) to be vulnerable to the actions of the top management (trustee) based on the expectations that the top management will perform a particular action important to the employee, irrespective of the employee's ability to monitor or control the top management. Consistent with Shamir & Lapidot's (2003) position suggesting trust in a superior reflects subordinates' trust in the organisation that the superior represents, trust in top management can be seen as employees' trust in the organisation.

Senior Managers: Senior managers refer to those who report directly to the top management.

Senior Manager Role-modelling: Senior manager role-modelling is defined as the senior manager's behaviour, perceived by the employees to be an appropriate example to follow, which is consistent with both the senior manager's espoused values and the organisation's goals (e.g., Bass 1985; House 1977).

Conditional Trust: Conditional trust is a state of trust in which both parties are willing to transact with each other, as long as each behaves appropriately and uses a similar scheme to define the situation (Jones & George 1998).

Unconditional Trust: Unconditional trust is an experience of trust based primarily on shared values that structure the social situation (Jones & George 1998).

Affective Commitment: Affective commitment, a dimension of organisational commitment, refers to the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Porter et al. 1974). It is characterized by three psychological factors: a strong desire to remain in the organisation, a willingness to exert considerable effort on its behalf, and a strong belief in and acceptance of its goals and values.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke 1976). It has been viewed as one's affective attachment to the job either in its entirety (global satisfaction) or in regard to particular aspects (facet satisfaction) (Tett & Meyer 1993). It is operationalized according to the former perspective in the present study.

Turnover Intention: Turnover intention is defined as "a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett & Meyer 1993, p. 262). It has been thought to be the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, the sequence to which thinking of quitting and intending to search for alternative employment also belong (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth 1978).

Intention-to-Return: This newly developed construct is conceptualized as the employee's perception that he/she has intention to return to the organisation from which he/she will leave upon completion of his/her contract or might leave voluntarily due to personal reasons.

In the section that follows, the analytical model describing the above constructs and their relationships within the theoretical framework are presented.

ANALYTICAL MODEL OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The research rests on the basis of the theoretical framework shown in Figure 3.1 above. This section describes all the constructs and their relationships in the theoretical framework, and addresses the research questions by developing a series of theoretically justified and testable hypotheses. In the subsection that follows, the relationships between top management's trustworthiness factors and trust in top management are explored.

Relationships between Top Management's Trustworthiness Factors and Trust in Top Management

This component of the theoretical framework is related to RQ1: 'to what extent are employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity related to employee trust in top management?'.

As with the case of most contemporary scholars cited in chapter 2, this study considers trust as a psychological state such as a belief or attitude towards another known party (Rousseau et al. 1998). The construct of trust has two independent facets, namely the referent of trust and the definition of trust (Clark & Payne 1997). The referent of trust is top management, and the definition of trust is Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) "willingness to be vulnerable" (p. 712).

"Top management is the group of persons at or near the top of the organisational chart" (McCauley & Kuhnert 1992, p. 269). This is an identifiable set of top decision makers, who has the authority to change organisational policies, and whose actions have a significant impact on the firm's employees (Mayer & Davis 1999). By adapting Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) full definition of trust, trust in top management is operationalized as the willingness of an employee (trustor) to be vulnerable to the actions of the top management (trustee) based on the expectations that the top management will perform a particular action important to the employee, irrespective of the employee's ability to monitor or control the top management. This means that in a trusting relationship between an employee and the

top management, the employee makes rational decisions in regard to what he/she is willing to risk and where he/she will be vulnerable in a given relationship (Davis et al. 2000).

Considering Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) theory suggesting the trustor's beliefs about the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity (trustworthiness factors) will lead to a higher level of trust in the trustee, these three trustworthiness factors are adapted to reflect a focus on top management. Their relationships with trust in top management and interrelationships are delineated as follows.

Top Management's Ability: Top management's ability, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) has skills, competencies and attributes that enable it to have influence within some specific domain. This subsumes both the formal and informal influence the top management is perceived to have in the organisation, as well as its perceived competence, skills, and expertise (Mayer & Davis 1999).

In Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) notion about the trustor's perception of the trustee's ability as an important trustworthiness factor, the domain of the ability is specific because a given trustee may be highly competent and trusted in one area but may have little aptitude, training, or experience in another. Consistent with this position, several other researchers (e.g., Butler 1991; Cook & Wall 1980; Sitkin & Pablo 1992) have suggested ability (including its similar constructs: competence, and expertise) as an important factor of trustworthiness. This idea has received support from a number of empirical studies revealing a positive relationship between the trustor's perception of the trustee's ability and the level of trust in the trustee (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mayer & Davis 1999; Mayer & Gavin 2005; Tan & Tan 2000).

Consistent with the above arguments, employee trust for top management is expected to be positively associated with the ability of the top management. As already discussed, ability is domain-specific such that a top management team which is highly competent and being trusted in one area does not necessarily imply that it is

highly competent and trusted in another. Hence, for a top management team to be trusted, it should possess effective managerial skills and knowledge, and must exhibit competence in devising organisational policies and providing strategic directions that lead to a successful and effective organisation, which in turn exerts positive influence on the employees' work lives and well-being. In this respect, employees are less concerned with the organisation's bottom line than they are with the issue of 'what can you do for me?' (Davis et al. 2000). It follows that if a top management team is perceived as able to get something done about a particular problem (e.g., devising a policy to resolve the work–family balance problem), it is likely to be more trusted than one which is perceived as impotent in the situation. Therefore, it is plausible to speculate that **an employee's perception of the top management's ability affects the level of trust in the top management.**

Top Management's Benevolence: Top management's benevolence, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) wants to do good for the employee (trustor), aside from an egocentric motive. This subsumes caring, loyalty, openness, altruism, concern for individual's needs and desires, receptivity, and availability. For example, if an employee believes the top management cares about the employee's interests, the top management will be seen as being benevolent towards the employee (Mayer & Davis 1999).

Besides Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), several other researchers (e.g., Cook & Wall 1980; Davis et al. 2000; Jones, James & Bruni 1975; Larzelere & Huston 1980; Whitener et al. 1998) have considered benevolence (including its similar constructs: intentions, motives, and concern for individual's needs and desires) to be an important trustworthiness factor. This view has been supported empirically. For instance, Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza's (1995) study reveals that leaders who show consideration of members' needs and desires have higher perceived trustworthiness from their members. Similarly, a number of empirical studies suggest a positive relationship between the trustor's perception of the trustee's benevolence and the level of trust in the trustee (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mayer & Davis 1999; Mayer & Gavin 2005; Tan & Tan 2000).

Consistent with the above arguments, employee trust for the top management is expected to be positively associated with the benevolence of the top management. In particular, a top management team is trusted by its employees when it shows genuine concern about the needs of the employees and demonstrates a genuine desire and willingness to help employees become more satisfied and more productive workers (Rich 1998). Again, if employees perceive that the top management has their best interests at heart, and will go out of its way on their behalf, they are more likely to trust the top management (Davis et al. 2000). Thus, it is plausible to argue that **an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence affects the level of trust in the top management.**

Top Management's Integrity: Top management's integrity, adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), is the employee's (trustor's) perception that the top management (trustee) adheres to a set of principles that is deemed acceptable by the employee (trustor). This subsumes not only that the top management espouses values that the employee sees as positive, but also that the top management acts in a way that is consistent with the espoused values (Mayer & Davis 1999). Besides, this also embraces reliability, consistency, discreteness, fairness, justice, honesty, value congruence, and promise fulfilment.

Aside from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), a number of other researchers have suggested integrity (including its similar constructs: e.g., fairness, justice) as an important trustworthiness factor (e.g., Butler & Cantrell 1984; Butler 1991; Davis et al. 2000; Sitkin & Roth 1993). This position has been supported empirically. For example, Hart et al.'s (1986) analysis of 24 survey items reveals that integrity, and fairness of management are positively related to level of trust in management. Again, a number of studies indicate that justice of management is positively associated with trust in management (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar & Chen 2002; Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Hopkins & Weathington 2006; Wong, Ngo & Wong 2002). Similarly, several studies suggest a positive relationship between the trustor's perception of the trustee's integrity and the level of trust in the trustee (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mayer & Davis 1999; Mayer & Gavin 2005; Tan & Tan 2000).

Consistent with the above arguments, employee trust for the top management is expected to be positively associated with the integrity of the top management. An employee's perception of his/her top management's integrity involves his/her belief that the top management adheres to a set of principles that he/she finds acceptable (Davis et al. 2000). Such factors as consistency, honesty, fairness, and recognition all affect the employee's perception of the top management's integrity (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Further, top management has the authority to change organisational policies, and whose actions have a significant impact on the firm's employees (Mayer & Davis 1999). In this respect, if employees perceive that the top management has a strong sense of justice in carrying out these managerial tasks, they are more likely to trust the top management. That is, a top management team which is seen to be fair, just and honest is more likely to be trusted. Thus, it is plausible to suggest that **an employee's perception of the top management's integrity affects the level of trust in the top management.**

All the three trustworthiness factors: ability, benevolence, and integrity are important to trust, and each may vary independently of the others (i.e., they are separable but not necessarily unrelated) (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). And, it is possible for a perceived lack of any of the three factors to undermine trust. In particular, even if the top management is perceived to have high ability to exert positive influence on the employees' work lives (e.g., changing organisational policies that may significantly impact the employees' work lives), it may or may not have the desired attributes which contribute to the employee perception that it has a strong sense of justice (or integrity) in carrying out these managerial tasks. Thus, ability alone may be insufficient to cause trust. To further illustrate, even if the top management is perceived to have high integrity, it may or may not have the desired attributes which contribute to the employee perception that it has the ability to be helpful. Hence, integrity by itself may be insufficient to cause trust. By the same logic, benevolence by itself may also be inadequate to cause trust. However, a perceived lack of benevolence, even the top management is perceived to have high integrity and ability, may lead to employees perceiving insufficient trust to divulge sensitive information about mistakes or shortcomings.

Consistent with the above lines of arguments, the three trustworthiness factors: top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity are proposed as predictors of trust in top management. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1a: Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.

In the subsection that follows, the influence of group cohesiveness on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness is explored.

Influence of Group Cohesiveness on Employee Perceptions of Top Management's Trustworthiness

This component of the theoretical framework is related to RQ2: 'how does group cohesiveness influence employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness?'.

Group cohesiveness is the degree to which a group sticks together, or the strength of a group member's desire to remain part of his or her work group (Gilbert & Tang 1998). It is influenced by empathy, self-disclosure, acceptance, and lateral trust (Roark & Sharah 1989). It is the primary affective dimension of social integration, which influences performance as socially diverse group members work together and engage in meaningful interaction (Chansler, Swamidass & Cammann 2003; Harrison, Price & Bell 1998).

Aside from its positive relationship with performance, group cohesiveness has been suggested having positive associations with collaborative communication (Brockman & Morgan 2006; Craig & Kelly 1999), information sharing (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Kandula et al. 2009; Mennecke, Hoffer & Valacich 1995), knowledge sharing (Chen, Zhou & Zhao 2008; Reagans & McEvily 2003), shared beliefs (Burke et al. 2005; Carron et al. 2003), shared understanding (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Magni et al. 2009; Naumann & Bennett 2000), and shared interpretations (Magni et al. 2009; Naumann & Bennett 2000).

The positive association between group cohesiveness and information sharing discussed previously (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Kandula et al. 2009; Mennecke, Hoffer & Valacich 1995) is crucial to the trusting relationship between employees and employer, for low-power/low-status employees have limited information needed to make judgments about employer's trustworthiness (Kramer, Brewer & Hanna 1993; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001). In this respect, members of a highly cohesive group feel attracted to one another and to the entire group, and the group becomes an important source of information sharing (Gilbert & Tang 1998). The more individuals experience information sharing, the more they will experience greater shared understanding about their employer, and hence higher 'feeling of confidence in their employer'. Since 'feeling of confidence in employer' is a reflection of "the belief that an employer will be straightforward and will follow through on commitments" (p. 322) (i.e., a reflection of the belief that an employer is trustworthy), it appears plausible that, on the whole, group cohesiveness may influence individuals' perceptions of employer's trustworthiness.

In addition, the suggested positive association between group cohesiveness and shared interpretations above-mentioned (Magni et al. 2009; Naumann & Bennett 2000) provides important implications for organisation. In particular, shared interpretations influence one's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours according to the social information processing perspective¹⁰ (Salancik & Pfeffer 1978; Zalesny & Ford 1990), and so they are likely to influence individuals' trust-related perceptions about their superior (Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wech 2002). Taken together, it appears plausible that group cohesiveness may influence employees' perceptions of their superior's trustworthiness.

¹⁰ The social information processing perspective claims that social information (either immediate or recalled) provides cues which individuals use to construct and interpret meanings of objects/events such that shared interpretations are ultimately developed to the extent that they influence one's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours (Salancik & Pfeffer 1978; Zalesny & Ford 1990).

Following the above lines of arguments, it is plausible to propose that group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1b: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability

Hypothesis 1c: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence

Hypothesis 1d: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity

In the subsection that follows, the relationships between trust in top management and the important organisational outcomes are explored.

Relationships between Trust in Top Management and Important Organisational Outcomes

This component of the theoretical framework is related to RQ3: ‘to what extent is employee trust in top management related to each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return?’. The first three outcome variables and their relationships with trust in top management are explored in the subsection below, followed by the newly developed intention-to-return variable in the subsection of its own.

Relationships of trust in top management with affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention

Affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention have been repeatedly found as having important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness (as evidenced in chapter 2). Thus, they are important organisational outcomes constituting an integral part of the theoretical framework.

Affective Commitment: Affective commitment, a dimension of organisational commitment, refers to the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation (Porter et al. 1974). It is characterized by three psychological factors: a strong desire to remain in the organisation, a willingness to exert considerable effort on its behalf, and a strong belief in and acceptance of its goals and values.

In accordance with social exchange theory and the notion of reciprocity, when trust exists in a relationship, parties involved will choose to respond through greater commitment to their organisation (Blau 1964). This can be thought that employees prefer trusting workplace relationships and will commit themselves to the organisation in which trusting relationships exist (Morgan & Hunt 1994). Specifically, when trust in organisational authorities exists, employees feel safe and positive, and will reciprocate with loyalty and effort (Eisenberger et al. 2001). In other words, trust in organisational authorities offers employees a sense of security and satisfaction, so that they will show a favourable attitude towards their workplace

and respond with greater commitment to the organisation (Raabe & Beehr 2003; Ramaswami & Singh 2003).

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke 1976). It has been viewed as one's affective attachment to the job either in its entirety (global satisfaction) or in regard to particular aspects (facet satisfaction) (Tett & Meyer 1993). It is operationalized according to the former perspective in the present study.

For the effects of trust on job satisfaction, LMX (Leader–Member Exchange) theory suggests that trust leads to high LMX relationship, thereby increasing subordinate job satisfaction (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995; Sparrowe & Liden 1997). This means that subordinates will have greater job satisfaction if they have a stronger trusting relationship with their manager. In particular, trust in a manager leads to increased job satisfaction because managers perform many managerial tasks (e.g., performance appraisal, promotion, layoffs) that have a significant effect on an employee's job satisfaction (Rich 1997). Again, trust in organisational authorities makes employees feel safer and engage in productive behaviours, which in turn enhance job satisfaction (e.g., Brashear et al. 2003; Flaherty & Pappas 2000; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Rich 2001; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006)

Turnover Intention: Turnover intention is defined as “a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation” (Tett & Meyer 1993, p. 262). It has been thought to be the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, the sequence to which thinking of quitting and intending to search for alternative employment also belong (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth 1978).

Reduced employee turnover is closely associated with high levels of trust in organisational authorities (Davis et al. 2000; Mishra & Morrissey 1990; Sonnenberg 1994). In the same vein, employees' perceived intention to leave an organisation is considerably associated with their levels of trust in organisational authorities (Costigan, Ilter & Berman 1998). As an illustration, when employees trust their top management, they develop an attachment to the organisation and tend to have little

or no intention to leave, for they are likely to pursue a long-term career in the organisation (Tan & Tan 2000). Likewise, when employees trust their manager, they feel safer and develop loyalty towards the organisation, thereby lowering their turnover intention (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006).

All together, the aforesaid theoretical perspectives have been supported empirically. There is abundant empirical evidence suggesting trust in organisational authorities is related positively to affective commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively to turnover intention (as detailed in chapter 2). In particular, Tan & Tan (2000) examine the antecedents and outcomes of trust in supervisor and organisation. The study indicates that while trust in supervisor is related to increased job satisfaction and innovative behaviour, trust in organisation is related to higher affective commitment and lower turnover intention. Also, Flaherty & Pappas (2000) investigate the relationships of trust in sales manager with its antecedents and organisational outcomes. The results demonstrate that salespeople who trust their managers are more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to the organisation. Again, Cunningham & MacGregor (2000) examine how subordinate trust in supervisor and job design factors relate to job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results indicate that trust has significant associations with job satisfaction and turnover intention even after the effects of job design factors have been accounted.

In a study investigating Kanter's (1977) work empowerment theory, Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian (2001) suggest that empowerment impacts trust in management, and in turn, trust in management positively influences job satisfaction and affective commitment. Also, Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002) examine the mediating effects of trust in the relationship between organisational justice and work outcomes. The results reveal that organisational justice impacts trust in organisation, which in turn influences job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intention. Again, Connell, Ferres & Travaglione (2003) investigate the predictors and consequences of trust in managers. The study demonstrates that trust in managers is related positively to affective commitment, but negatively to turnover intention. Similarly, Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander (2006) examine the integrated effects of ethical climate and supervisory trust on salespeople's job attitudes and turnover intention. The study indicates that ethical climate is a significant predictor of trust in

supervisor, job satisfaction, and affective commitment; and that trust in supervisor is related positively to job satisfaction, but negatively to turnover intention.

More recently, Ladebo (2006) examines the attitude reactions to trust between employees and management. The study demonstrates that both management-affective and management-cognitive trusts are positively related to group cohesion and affective commitment, but negatively to turnover intention. Again, Hopkins & Weathington (2006) investigate the relationships between justice perceptions, trust, and employee attitudes in the context of a downsized organisation. The results indicate strong associations of trust in organisation with affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Finally, Gill (2008) examines the effects of trust in manager on employee job satisfaction and dedication in the hospitality industry. The study suggests that higher level of employee trust in manager is associated with higher level of employee job satisfaction and dedication.

In brief, consistent with the above lines of arguments and loads of empirical evidence, employee trust for the top management is expected to be related positively to affective commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively to turnover intention. This claim is further supported by Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) and Dirks & Ferrin's (2001; 2002) theoretical treatments of trust as follows.

Central to Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model is the fundamental tenet of "willingness to be vulnerable" (p. 712). Also vested in the model is the principle of reciprocity as reflected in the definition of trust suggesting trust in a trustee is based on the expectation that the trustee will perform actions of importance to the trustor, without the trustor having to monitor or control the trustee (Brockner et al. 1997). Taken together, based on top management being specified as the trustee in the theoretical framework, the model essentially suggests that higher levels of trust in top management (trustee) increase employee (trustor) willingness to take risk with the top management, and such risk-taking behaviours, in turn, will lead to positive outcomes (e.g., higher affective commitment, higher job satisfaction, lower turnover intention).

In addition, “trust operates in a straightforward manner: higher levels of trust are expected to result in more positive attitudes, higher levels of cooperation and other forms of workplace behaviour, and superior levels of performance” (Dirks & Ferrin 2001, p. 451). Accordingly, when employees believe the management is trustworthy, they are more likely to have a sense of security and feel more positive about the management performing managerial tasks that affect their well-being (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). Conversely, low levels of trust in management are likely to cause psychological distress on employees, for the management has authority over important aspects of one’s career. Such distress, in turn, is likely to affect one’s attitudes towards the organisation. For example, when employees do not trust their management owing to perceived lack of competence, fairness, honesty, or integrity, they are more likely to consider quitting, for they may be concerned about the management’s decisions making and may not want to put themselves at risk to the management. It follows that a higher level of trust in top management is likely associated with higher affective commitment, higher job satisfaction, and lower turnover intention.

All in all, following the above lines of reasoning, it is plausible to propose that employee trust in top management is related positively to affective commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively to turnover intention. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2a: Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3a: Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4a: Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.

In the subsection that follows, the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return is explored.

Relationship of trust in top management with intention-to-return

The newly developed ‘intention-to-return’ variable, thought to have important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness, constitutes an extension of important organisational outcomes, and hence of the trust–outcome relationships in the theoretical framework.

Intention-to-return is conceptualized as the employee’s perception that he/she has intention to return to the organisation from which he/she will leave upon completion of his/her contract or might leave voluntarily due to personal reasons.

While intention-to-return, conceptualized as an important organisational outcome, lacks theoretical grounding and empirical evidence in the trust literature, its relationship with trust in top management can be deduced by reasoning from analogy of the other outcome variables proposed in the above hypotheses. This means that the theoretical perspectives underlying the above hypotheses for affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention also apply to intention-to-return. Accordingly, employee trust for the top management is expected to be related positively to intention-to-return. This claim is consistent with Mayer, Davis & Schoorman’s (1995) theoretical rationale, Brockner et al.’s (1997) view on increased support for organisational authorities, and Dirks & Ferrin’s (2001; 2002) perspectives of trust. In particular, by specifying top management as the trustee in Mayer, Davis & Schoorman’s (1995) trust model, higher levels of trust in top management will increase employee willingness to take risk with the top management, which in turn results in higher levels of desirable outcomes. Also, trust in management increases support for the management, and which may be manifested in greater desirable outcomes (Brockner et al. 1997). Again, trust operates in a straightforward manner: higher levels of trust in manager/management are expected to result in more positive attitudes and higher levels of desirable behavioural outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin 2001). Similarly, employees who believe their management is trustworthy are more likely to have a sense of security leading to more positive attitudes and higher desirable outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin 2002).

Following the above lines of reasoning, it is plausible to propose that a positive relationship exists between trust in top management and intention-to-return. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5a: Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.

In the subsection that follows, the influence of senior manager role-modelling on the trust–outcome relationships is explored.

Influence of Senior Manager Role-modelling on the Trust–Outcome Relationships

This component of the theoretical framework is related to RQ4: ‘how does role-modelling of senior manager influence the relationship between employee trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return’.

Senior managers refer to those who report directly to the top management. Senior manager role-modelling is defined as the senior manager’s behaviour, perceived by the employees to be an appropriate example to follow, which is consistent with both the senior manager’s espoused values and the organisation’s goals (e.g., Bass 1985; House 1977). By this operational definition derived from leadership theory, senior managers (leaders) inherit a responsibility to model desired behaviour not only for the benefit of the organisation, but also for the benefit of those they supervise (Scarnati 2002). Positive role-modelling requires senior managers to model positive attitude, understand negative behaviour, master self-control and discipline, practice perception management, model confidence, model a tolerance for risk taking, and model teaching and coaching. While negative role-modelling behaviour is possible and detrimental to the organisation, it is outside the scope of this study.

A number of studies have suggested that role-modelling is an important managerial behaviour to enhance employee trust (e.g., Bass 1985; Kanungo 1998;

Podsakoff et al. 1990; Rich 1997,1998; Whitener et al. 1998). Whereas these prior studies suggested role-modelling as an antecedent of trust, the present study proposes role-modelling as a moderator of the trust–outcome relationships. This proposition is indebted to a number of theoretical perspectives discussed in chapter 2, some salient points of which follow.

First, managers ‘role model’ the value system of an organisation for subordinates, providing an example of exemplary behaviour for subordinates to imitate and thereby instilling the value system of organisation into subordinates such that shared values are internalized in them (e.g., Bandura 1977; Bandura 1986; Bass 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1987; House 1977; Kouzes & Posner 1987; Schein 1985; Shamir, House & Arthur 1993; Sims & Brinkmann 2002; Yukl 1993). In essence, manager role-modelling promotes shared values in subordinates.

Second, shared values have long been thought to be an important factor contributing towards trust enhancement (e.g., Barber 1983; Jones & George 1998; Lewicki, McAllister & Bies 1998). This notion has been supported empirically in several studies suggesting a positive correlation between shared values and trust (e.g., Brashear et al. 2003; Gillespie & Mann 2004; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Yilmaz & Hunt 2001).

Third, shared values change the state of employees’ trust from conditional trust¹¹ to unconditional trust¹² in which shared values create a common bond and fundamentally enhance the quality of trusting relationship (Jones & George 1998). In essence, improved trusting relationship is derived from actualizing unconditional trust, and so organisations striving to create unconditional trust must first create the conditions that promote shared values.

Synthesizing the above three concepts suggests that manager role-modelling promotes shared values (i.e., the value system of organisation) in subordinates leading to actualization of unconditional trust, which in turn improves the trusting

¹¹ Conditional trust is a state of trust in which both parties are willing to transact with each other, as long as each behaves appropriately and uses a similar scheme to define the situation.

¹² Unconditional trust is an experience of trust based primarily on shared values that structure the social situation.

relationship between the organisation (top management)¹³ and subordinates. Such an improved trusting relationship, in turn, is manifested in the trust–outcome relationships. It follows that manager role-modelling provides the conditions under which the trust–outcome relationships will be more or less pronounced.

From the above synthesis of concepts and lines of reasoning, it is plausible to propose senior manager role-modelling as a moderator of the trust–outcome relationships. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.

Hypothesis 5b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return.

Further, it is worthy of note that cultural values differ across countries (Hofstede 1980,2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005), and such cultural differences can have substantial impacts on aspects of behaviour and interpersonal relation (e.g., Harrison 1995; Scarborough 2000; Yoon, Vargas & Han 2004; Yuki et al. 2005). Since trust is primarily an interpersonal phenomenon (e.g., Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), cultural differences may also have impacts on trusting relationships. From the discussion in chapter 2, it is suggested that a two-country study design, involving one country characterized by high PD/low IDV and the other by low PD/high IDV, is required to validate if research findings are replicable across

¹³ Trust in top management reflects employees' trust in the organisation that the top management represents (Shamir & Lapidot 2003).

culturally different countries. To the extent that research findings are replicable across culturally different countries, they are possibly generalisable to other settings.

In the next section, an outline of the research hypotheses proposed in this study is presented.

OUTLINE OF PROPOSED HYPOTHESES

This section presents an outline of the research hypotheses proposed in this study as in the following.

Hypothesis 1a: Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.

Hypothesis 1b: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability

Hypothesis 1c: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence

Hypothesis 1d: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity

Hypothesis 2a: Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3a: Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4a: Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.

Hypothesis 5a: Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.

Hypothesis 5b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the theoretical framework showing the relationships among various variables deemed relevant to the research questions. Following the description of operational definitions for all constructs, the analytical model of the theoretical framework was presented. The analytical model elucidated the theories and empirical evidence underlying the relationships in the theoretical framework, and developed a series of theoretically justified and testable hypotheses aforesaid.

In the next chapter, the methodology appropriate for collecting evidence to test the hypotheses is discussed. In particular, various aspects of the research design, including sampling design, survey method, questionnaire design, instrumentation validity and reliability, pilot study, and data collection and follow-up are adequately addressed. Moreover, the data analysis techniques appropriate for hypothesis testing are also defined.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 described the development of research model and hypotheses. This chapter aims to present the methodology appropriate for collecting data to test the hypotheses. The chapter is organised around eight topics: paradigms in organisational research, choice of quantitative research paradigm, general research approach, survey research and its appropriateness, survey research design, data analysis techniques for hypothesis testing, limitations of the methodology, and ethical considerations.

PARADIGMS IN ORGANISATIONAL RESEARCH

Both qualitative and quantitative research approaches are important in organisational research; and both have been used to address almost any research topic (Lee 1992; Trochim & Donnelly 2007). However, researchers across disciplines, such as sociology, psychology, management, customer service, nutrition, public health, and many other related fields, have been engaged in a long-standing debate about the differences between and relative advantages of the two approaches (Abusabha & Woelfel 2003; Trochim & Donnelly 2007). The heart of this qualitative-quantitative debate is philosophical rather than methodological as delineated below.

Researchers approach their studies with a certain paradigm, a set of fundamental beliefs or assumptions, which guides their inquiries (Creswell 1998). These fundamental assumptions are related to ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology (Lincoln & Guba 2000). The ontological issue is about the nature of reality (Creswell 1998). The epistemological issue is about the nature of relationship, between the researcher and that being researched, that is deemed the most

appropriate way to produce knowledge. The axiological and methodological issues relate to the role of values in a study, and the process of research, respectively.

The qualitative research paradigm subscribes to the subjectivist view of the organisational world, and is sometimes labelled soft and unscientific (Abusabha & Woelfel 2003; Reichardt & Rallis 1994a). This paradigm revolves around the ontological assumption that reality is constructed by individuals and thus multiple realities exist in a study (Creswell 1998). This subjective view of reality encourages an epistemological stance that stresses the importance of interaction and close distance between the researcher and the respondents through which knowledge of organisation is acquired. Undoubtedly, this epistemological stance implies the value-laden and biased nature of qualitative studies. From the assumptions related to ontology, epistemology and axiology emerges the methodological issue. Qualitative researchers stress the importance of letting subjects unfold their nature and characteristics during the process of investigation (Burrell & Morgan 1979). In general, they work inductively starting with specific observations and measures. They then detect patterns and regularities, formulate tentative propositions that they can explore, and finally develop general conclusions or theories (Trochim & Donnelly 2007).

In contrast, the quantitative research paradigm subscribes to the objectivist view of the organisational world, and is blamed for forcing individuals and human behaviour into rigid categories (Abusabha & Woelfel 2003; Miles & Huberman 1994; Reichardt & Rallis 1994a). This paradigm revolves around the ontological assumption that reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher (Creswell 1994). This objective view of reality encourages an epistemological stance that the researcher is independent from the respondents. Knowledge of organisation presupposes an understanding of the causal relationships among the elements of the structure (Lee 1992); and this is gained through enumeration, aggregation, and causation (Abusabha & Woelfel 2003; Reichardt & Rallis 1994b). Axiologically, quantitative researchers pride themselves in being unbiased and value-free in their studies (Abusabha & Woelfel 2003; Creswell 1994; Reichardt & Rallis 1994a). The ontological, epistemological and axiological stances have direct implications of the methodological issue. Quantitative researchers work deductively. They begin with

thinking up a theory about a topic of interest, narrow that down into more specific hypotheses, narrow down further when they collect data to address the hypotheses, and ultimately test the hypotheses resulting in confirmation and extension (or rejection) of the original theory (Trochim & Donnelly 2007).

In brief, both qualitative and quantitative research are based upon rich and varied traditions that come from multiple disciplines (Trochim & Donnelly 2007). They are fundamentally different in their philosophical assumptions and the differences can be profound and potentially irreconcilable. However, with a bit more appreciation for their differences without prejudging what should be right or wrong, there is value of combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches into what is called a 'mixed methods' approach (Abusabha & Woelfel 2003; Lee 1992; Trochim & Donnelly 2007). As regards the present study, it was framed within the philosophical assumptions of quantitative research paradigm as discussed next.

CHOICE OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH PARADIGM

This study took the theoretical perspective of functionalism characterized by an objectivist view of the organisational world, with an orientation toward seeking the regularities and relationships that lead to generalisations (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Gioia & Pitre 1990). From this perspective emerges the choice of **Quantitative Research Paradigm** which subscribes to the philosophical assumptions of positivist ontology, empirical epistemology, and quantitative methodology (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Gioia & Pitre 1990; Lee 1992).

Ontologically, the study treated the research situation as if it were a hard, external, objective reality like the natural world (Burrell & Morgan 1979). This objective view of reality encourages an empirical epistemology stance that emphasizes the importance of analysing relationships and regularities among the elements of interest within the research situation through which knowledge relevant to the research questions was gained (Lee 1992). From these ontological and epistemological stances emerges the choice of quantitative methodology that

emphasizes the importance of basing research upon systematic protocol and technique (Burrell & Morgan 1979). In particular, the study focused on the process of testing hypotheses in accordance with scientific rigour that allows for value-free and unbiased results.

Theory building for the study, therefore, took place in a deductive manner, starting with literature review, gap identification, research question formulation, research model development, hypothesis formulation, research design, data collection, data analysis, and hypothesis testing.

While the choice of quantitative research paradigm was predetermined by the study taking the theoretical perspective of functionalism, two other reasons also accounted for this paradigm choice. First, all trust related studies reviewed in chapter 2 employed quantitative methodology. The use of quantitative methodology in the study complied with authorities' view suggesting methodology precedents be followed as a general rule (Remenyi, Money & Price 2001; Remenyi et al. 1998). Next, the research questions required correlational analysis and hypothesis testing to be performed in accordance with scientific rigour that demands quantitative methodology.

The process of research associated with quantitative methodology is preoccupied with systematic protocol and statistical techniques which are prerequisites for scientific rigour (Burrell & Morgan 1979). This research process is detailed in several sections below starting with the general research approach in the next section.

GENERAL RESEARCH APPROACH

The primary objective of this research is to assess the relationships between trust in top management and organisational outcomes, and the effects of senior manager role-modelling in the trust–outcome relationships through a series of theoretically justified hypotheses. Given that the research is aimed at determining the relationships

among study constructs, a correlational study that permits a noncontrived or natural setting (i.e., a field study) is called for (Sekaran 2003). Also, given the research questions, the unit of analysis is the individual from whom data ought to be collected. All data needed to answer the research questions can be gathered just once over a period of three to four months, for which a cross-sectional study is warranted.

Driven by the above design perspectives, a cross-sectional field study as the desired general research approach is called for. Though this general research approach does not demand a particular data collection technique, it may be better served by a particular data collection technique such as survey and objective measure (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). A further examination of various data collection issues does suggest that a survey research is deemed the best way to answer the research questions. The section that follows provides justification for the use of survey research as the method of evidence collection in this study.

SURVEY RESEARCH AND ITS APPROPRIATENESS

Survey research is perhaps the dominant form of data collection in social research (Trochim & Donnelly 2007). It is an excellent research tool because it is relatively inexpensive and allows quick data acquisition over broad populations (Kerlinger & Lee 2000; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). It is particularly useful and powerful in obtaining a representation of the reality of a social structure (Kerlinger & Lee 2000). This relative strength (as compared with experimental research) in realism can be very important for studying real-life organisations. Also, survey research maximizes the representative sampling of population of interest thereby improving the generalisability of the results (Scandura & Williams 2000). Again, it obtains very accurate information because the survey questionnaire is specifically crafted to answer the research questions (Dess & Robinson 1984; Slater 1995).

According to Totten, Panacek & Price (1999), surveys generally study people under real world conditions rather than in the controlled laboratory environment. While they usually have a ‘nonexperimental’ design, “they have more in common

with the more scientific ‘true experimental’ or ‘quasi-experimental’ type studies if done properly” (p. 26). They are generally ideal for obtaining data about people’s attitudes, behaviours, knowledge, and personal history which are difficult to be obtained through other forms of research. These propositions conclude that a survey research is indeed the best way to get answers, particularly, in terms of the attitudinal and behavioural information demanded by the research questions. The next section discusses the various aspects of survey research design necessary to perform an effective and scientifically valid survey study.

SURVEY RESEARCH DESIGN

Proper survey study design aims at minimizing nonresponses (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). Low response rates that may ruin an otherwise well-designed survey effort are among the most difficult problems in survey research (Trochim & Donnelly 2007). Inadequate response rates could be problematic for they may substantially affect the survey results and therefore the study conclusions (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). For example, some researchers have suggested that response rates below 50% are not scientifically acceptable because a majority of the sample is not represented in the results (e.g., Mangione 1995). Also, with very low response rates, one cannot be sure if the data obtained are biased since the nonrespondents may be different from the respondents (Sekaran 2003, p. 257) – hence the need for tests in respect of nonresponse bias. Thus, efforts to minimize low response rates should be implemented in the study design.

In addition, proper study design should also attempt to minimize response set biases. “A response set bias is a factor that operates to produce a particular pattern of answers that may not exactly correspond to the true state of affairs” (Mangione 1995, p. 33). This means that response set biases will severely distort the survey results and thus the study conclusions. Accordingly, several aspects of the survey research design delineated in the following subsections were organised, as appropriate, around the best efforts to minimize nonresponses and response set biases.

Sampling and Sampling Frame

While surveys are useful and powerful in finding answers to research questions, they can do more harm than good if data are not collected from the people or objects that can provide the correct answers (Sekaran 2003). The process of selecting the right people or objects for study is known as sampling. To elaborate upon this, sampling is the process of selecting units (e.g., individuals, households, organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample researchers may fairly generalise their results back to the population from which the sample was chosen (Trochim & Donnelly 2007).

Trochim & Donnelly (2007) have made a distinction between the population that researchers would like to generalise to, and the population that will be accessible to them. The former is called the theoretical population and the latter the accessible population. Consistent with this distinction, the listing of the accessible population from which researchers will draw their sample is called the sampling frame.

This research study encompassed two field studies conducted in Western Australia (the WA study) and Singapore (the SIN study). In both field studies, the population of interest was employees from a diverse range of industries. The sampling frame for the WA study comprised ten (10) randomly selected companies operating in various industries; and a random sample of employees in a variety of industries that were selected and contacted via their home addresses. For the SIN study, the sampling frame included fifteen (15) randomly selected companies operating in various industries.

A number of reasons accounted for the use of the above sampling frame for each field study. First, viewing trust as an organising principle (McEvily, Perrone & Zaheer 2003), trust within organisations is not industry-specific. Thus, the sampling frame for each field study covered a variety of industries – hence a diverse range of employees' workplace experiences appropriate for trust research. Second, it is consistent with a number of previous researchers who included a variety of industries in the sampling frame of their studies (e.g., Brashear et al. 2003; Rich 1997; Tan &

Tan 2000). Third, a primary purpose of the research was to generalise results beyond a particular industry or sector to the defined population of interest.

In addition, the two-country study design was initiated by a number of important considerations. First, while no industry boundary was placed around the research problem, the research findings were deemed to have a geographic boundary of generalisability as findings for one country might not be applicable to another due possibly to cultural differences across countries. So in the case of one-country study, one can not generalise the study results beyond that country in which the study was conducted. Next, given the cultural differences between Australia and Singapore according to Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) cultural dimensions outlined in chapter 2-Table 2.4, the two-country study design provides insight into the potential effects of cultural differences on the research findings. Such a design also allows comparisons of results in order to assess the replicability of research findings across Western Australia and Singapore. If replicable, the research findings can be considered generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings based on replicability of findings across culturally different countries.

The two-country study design aims at collecting data from two culturally different countries so that the research findings for both countries can be compared using statistical techniques by Chow (1960) and Arnold (1982) to assess the replicability of findings across Western Australia and Singapore. The use of Hofstede's cultural dimensions is to ensure that two countries of different cultural values are chosen for the study. Cultural dimensions and their potential moderating effects on the studied relationships are not the focus of the research design and hence are not featured in the theoretical framework.

"The practicalities of obtaining access to the sample often determine the method of questionnaire administration" (Frazer & Lawley 2000, p. 9). Hence, the above sampling frames inevitably influence the choice of survey method discussed in the subsection that follows.

Selecting the Survey Method

The term survey refers to a type of study that consists of asking people to respond to questions or statements (Mangione 1995; Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999; Trochim & Donnelly 2007). The major and most common survey methods are mail survey, telephone survey, and personally administered questionnaire, each of which has its own advantages and disadvantages. The choice of survey method may depend on personal preference, cost and/or time constraints, potential response rate, practicalities of gaining access to samples, or other criteria important to a particular research study (Frazer & Lawley 2000). This decision may involve tradeoffs of advantages and disadvantages as there may not be one method which is clearly the best (Trochim & Donnelly 2007).

Considering the desired sampling frames and the nature of the research (i.e., a thesis study), time and budget constraints were the major determining factors in selecting a survey method. A mail survey, being relatively inexpensive and most capable of reaching large geographically dispersed sample in a relatively short period (Frazer & Lawley 2000; Mangione 1995; Sekaran 2003), was deemed appropriate and being chosen as the data collection strategy. Time and budget constraints suggested that other survey methods were less suitable.

In addition to its relative strengths aforesaid, a mail survey has several other advantages over other survey methods (Mangione 1995). First, it provides subjects with ample time to answer and look up information if necessary. Second, it gives privacy in responding, and allows respondent anonymity. Third, it offers subjects with visual input rather than merely auditory input thereby allowing them to see the context of a questionnaire. Fourth, it insulates subjects from the expectations of the researcher. Finally, it allows subjects to answer questions at their convenience. In general, the first four advantages allow for least response errors, and the last for least researcher interference.

Inevitably, the mail survey approach above-mentioned was rationally decided at the expense of lower response rates. The response rates of mail survey are

typically low, and “a 30% response rate is considered acceptable” (Sekaran 2003, p. 237). To improve response rates, some effective techniques recommended by previous researchers (e.g., Mangione 1995; Sekaran 2003; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999) were implemented. These included providing each subject with an up-front incentive and a self-addressed pre-paid envelope, keeping the questionnaire brief with clear instructions, using Curtin University’s letterhead for the one-page cover letter, avoiding holiday/vacation periods, and sending follow-up letters. Having justified mail survey as the survey method, design of the questionnaire followed as described in the next subsection.

Questionnaire Design for Mail Survey

Questionnaire design is influenced by the choice of survey method (Frazer & Lawley 2000). Being a mail survey, it is self-administered and difficult for subjects to clarify any doubts that they might have; and so the ‘Survey of Employees’ Workplace Experiences’ questionnaire should feature simple and straightforward. “Quality data require a well-designed study using a carefully crafted questionnaire” (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999, p. 26). Thus, a number of design issues including question content, question type, question wording, response format, scales and scaling, and structure and layout were duly addressed to minimize biases (Frazer & Lawley 2000; Mangione 1995; Sekaran 2003; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999; Trochim & Donnelly 2007). The first three issues are discussed right below and the remaining three in the later subsections.

Question content, question type and question wording

The content and purpose of each question were carefully considered so that each construct was adequately measured (Frazer & Lawley 2000; Sekaran 2003). As each of the ten study constructs is of a subjective nature (e.g., satisfaction, commitment), where subjects’ beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes are to be measured, multiple closed questions were used to tap the dimensions and elements of each construct. Closed questions are ideal for tapping subjective feelings for they help subjects make quick decisions to choose among several alternatives. Also, they allow for easy

coding of information for subsequent analysis. For the demographic variables (i.e., objective facts) such as age and gender, each of which was tapped by a single direct question. As regards wordings, simple English without slang, jargon or idioms was used in anticipation of subjects' differences in educational levels and cultures.

In addition, when developing the survey questionnaire, the first step is to thoroughly search the relevant literature and look for previously validated instruments that can be adapted to measure the study constructs (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). Of the ten study constructs, the search results successfully identified validated instruments for all except the intention-to-return construct. The three subsections that follow describe the development of new instrument measuring intention-to-return, the adaptation of previously validated instruments measuring the other nine study constructs, and the questionnaire items measuring demographic characteristics.

Development of new instrument measuring intention-to-return

As the intention-to-return construct is of a subjective nature which cannot be measured directly, a multi-item scale instrument was developed to adequately tap the construct. The instrument development process involved several steps. First, ten (10) items considered having face validity (as in Appendix 1.2) were generated to tap into the intention-to-return domain. Most of these items were critically examined and adapted from the organisational climate questionnaire by Duxbury & Higgins (1999). This initial step has been supported by two theoretical views that follow.

Forehand & Gilmer (1964) define organisational climate as the set of relatively enduring characteristics describing an organisation, which distinguishes the organisation from other organisations, and influences the behaviour of people in the organisation. For Litwin & Stringer (1968), organisational climate is the set of measurable properties of an organisation, perceived directly or indirectly by its people, which influences motivation and behaviour resulting in consequences such as satisfaction, productivity or performance, and retention or turnover. These theories provide justification for adapting measurement items from organisational climate questionnaire to tap the construct definition of intention-to-return.

Second, the set of ten (10) items as in Appendix 1.2 was submitted to the Supervisors of the study for evaluation in order to attest the content validity of the instrument. This step resulted in items 3 through 10 being replaced with two new items as in Appendix 2-10. Third, the resulted 4-item instrument was tested on a sample of 160 subjects participated in the pilot study discussed in the later subsection. In essence, the reliability and construct validity of the 4-item intention-to-return scale were established on the basis of desired levels of item loadings and internal consistency reliability, and desired evidence for convergent and discriminant validity.

Adaptation of previously validated instruments measuring study constructs

The nine previously validated multi-item instruments adapted for measuring the study constructs are summarized in Table 4.1 below, with details in Appendices 2-1 through 2-9. While these instruments using five-point Likert scale had their Cronbach's Alphas ranging from 0.72 to 0.96, they were re-tested for reliability, construct validity, and wording appropriateness in the pilot study discussed in the later subsection.

Table 4.1: Summary of Previously Validated Multi-item Instruments

Constructs	No of Items	Developers or Authors	Cronbach's Alphas	Appendix References
Top Management's Ability (TMA)	6	Mayer & Davis (1999)	.88	Appendix 2-1
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	5	Mayer & Davis (1999)	.89	Appendix 2-2
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	6	Mayer & Davis (1999)	.88	Appendix 2-3
Trust in Top Management (TITM)	5	Mayer & Gavin (2005)	.72	Appendix 2-4
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	5	Rich (1997)	.96	Appendix 2-5
Group Cohesiveness (GC)	6	Podsakoff et al. (1993)	.93	Appendix 2-6
Affective Commitment (AC)	7	Brashear et al. (2003)	.92	Appendix 2-7
Job Satisfaction (JS)	4	Brashear et al. (2003)	.90	Appendix 2-8
Turnover Intention (TI)	4	Brashear et al. (2003)	.91	Appendix 2-9

Source: Extracted from literature review

Questionnaire items measuring demographic characteristics

Previous studies of trust antecedents and outcomes have offered inconsistent views concerning the potential effects of respondent demographic variables on respondents' scores. In particular, most focal empirical studies reported in chapter 2 have not considered respondent demographic variables as control variables in their model estimates. Further, for the previous studies that employed Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model, Mayer & Davis (1999) used age, gender and tenure as control variables which yielded statistically insignificant effects on all the regression models. Also, Tan & Tan (2000) employed age, education, tenure and employment level as control variables which were found to be statistically insignificant. Again, for Davis et al. (2000) and Mayer & Gavin (2005), respondent demographic variables were completely omitted in their studies.

For the present study, items measuring demographic characteristics included age, gender, education level, job type, basis of employment, level of employment, and tenure in organisation as outlined in Appendix 2-11. While these demographic factors were not thought to have significant effects on the respondents' scores for the reasons aforesaid, a pre-test for their statistical significance in the regressions specified for hypothesis testing was considered and further discussed in chapter 5.

In brief, each latent construct was tapped using a multi-item scale instrument, whereas each demographic variable was measured by a single direct question. In any case, short and clear closed questions were used in conjunction with plain and simple English. Associated with these question design decisions were the response format (also covers scales and scaling) and the structure and layout as discussed next.

Response format, structure and layout

“Careful attention to response format will save hours of data entry. People tend not to read directions, so using the same format throughout is preferable” (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999, p. 33).

The response format for all multi-item scale instruments employed a six-point Likert-type scale with the following anchors: strongly disagree (=1), disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, agree, and strongly agree (=6). The six-point scale that leaves out the midpoint choice was used to minimize central tendency bias (Mangione 1995; Si & Cullen 1998). Also, several questionnaire items were negatively phrased and reverse scored in an effort to reduce acquiescence bias (Mangione 1995). Both biases are further discussed later in this subsection.

For the demographic data, all measurement items using category scales were placed in the last section of the questionnaire. This ‘placing demographic questions last’ decision has been supported by the predominant opinion of previous researchers (e.g., Frazer & Lawley 2000; Grinnell 1997; Mangione 1995; Sekaran 2003; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). These researchers have generally agreed that demographic questions are boring, and ‘placing them first’ may also cause respondents to think that the researchers are more interested in their personal information than the survey objectives leading to respondent bias and respondents’ refusal in participation.

Overall, all questions were neatly aligned and logically organised in appropriate sections with clear instructions on how to complete them. A page entitled ‘optional respondent comments’ was also provided at the end of the questionnaire. The two versions of questionnaire, one for the pilot study and the other for the main study, are shown in Appendix 2-12, and Appendix 3-12A, respectively. The main-study questionnaire contains 56 questions (49 scale items and 7 demographic questions) which require 8 – 10 minutes to complete. This optimal completion time arising from the questionnaire design efforts aimed at minimizing respondent effort that could improve response rates (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). The questionnaire design efforts also attempted to minimize response set biases as discussed next.

Minimize response set biases

When deciding on the response format above-mentioned, due considerations were exercised to minimize response set biases namely acquiescence bias, beginning–ending list bias, recall bias and central tendency bias as advised by Mangione (1995).

Firstly, acquiescence bias, the tendency to say ‘yes’ or ‘agreeable’, was dealt with by having some negatively phrased questions, and more scale points that made respondents to consider the fine points of their attitudes (Mangione 1995). Secondly, beginning–ending list bias, the tendency to pick items at the beginning or end of long lists (because people seldom read the whole list or they remember the items listed last), was minimized by having shorter lists of choices in the demographic section. Thirdly, recall bias is the tendency to misremember particular information due to long recall periods used in questionnaire items. This bias did not cause any concern as all questionnaire items referred to recent experiences or current information.

Finally, central tendency bias is “the tendency to answer in the middle, to look average” (Mangione 1995, p. 34). On the use of odd-point scales, Mangione argues that “if you give people a middle choice they will use it” (p. 13). To minimize such a bias, he suggests using an even-point scale that leaves out the midpoint choice. Additionally, Si & Cullen’s (1998) study further confirms that the use of even-point scales does reduce central tendency bias, particularly in Asian cultures namely China, Japan and Hong Kong. Consistent with these researchers’ views, the present study employed an even-point Likert-type scale to minimize this kind of bias. More about Likert-type scales follow.

Use of Likert-type scales

Likert-type scales are designed to examine how strongly subjects agree or disagree with duly constructed statements, ranging from most positive to most negative attitudes or feelings toward some object (Sekaran 2003; Zikmund 2003). They are commonly used to measure a wide variety of latent constructs in social science research (Kent 2001), as well as, in marketing research (Zikmund 2003).

In the present research, Likert-type scales were used to measure each latent construct for a number of reasons. First, they communicate interval scale properties to subjects, and hence produce data that can be assumed interval scaled (Madsen 1989; Schertzer & Kernan 1985; Sekaran 2003). Second, they were used in most previous studies (discussed in chapter 2) and the nine previously validated instruments above-mentioned, in which they were treated as interval scales. Finally, they are popular means for measuring attitudes because they are simple to administer, particularly they allow for easy categorization and coding of data for subsequent analysis (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999; Zikmund 2003).

When planning the use of Likert-type scales, due considerations were given to the issue of odd- versus even-point scales, and the impacts of number of scale points on reliability and validity. For the former, an even-point scale was used to minimize central tendency bias according to Mangione's (1995) and Si & Cullen's (1998) recommendations aforesaid. Here, one key decisive factor was that the multi-cultures of Western Australia and Singapore, particularly the Asians, are more prone to such a bias. As regards the latter, previous empirical studies have revealed that there is no optimal number of points in a Likert-type scale, for its reliability and validity are independent of the number of scale points (Jacoby & Matell 1971; Steinberg 1990). For Mangione (1995), the use of six-point scales is adequate to help respondents make fine distinctions when responding to a complex and emotional issue, and hence reduces bias. This position is consistent with numerous studies employing six-point Likert-type scales (e.g., Babin, Boles & Robin 2000; Bernal, Wooley & Schensul 1997; Chang 1994; Hills & Argyle 2002; Misener & Cox 2001; Niemi-Murola et al. 2007; Pomini et al. 1996; Skinner et al. 1991; Weist et al. 2005). These considerations together, therefore, called for the use of six-point Likert-type scale in the present research.

To sum up, the survey questionnaire design followed certain principles of question content, question type, question wording, response format, scales and scaling, and structure and layout in order to minimize nonresponses and response set biases. Further, the questionnaire design, particularly the desired response format, also considered the need for easy categorization and coding of data for subsequent analysis. Once data were collected, the 'goodness of data' was then assessed through

tests of validity and reliability of the measures (Sekaran 2003) discussed in the subsection that follows.

Instrumentation Validity

Instrumentation or measurement validity is the critical first step in quantitative, positivist research (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). If the measuring instruments employed in a study were not acceptable at a minimal level, then the research findings would be meaningless. Three forms of instrumentation validity: content validity, reliability, and construct validity are mandatory. Some pertinent details are discussed next.

Content validity, reliability, and construct validity

Content validity is concerned with the assurance that the measure includes an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept (Sekaran 2003). It is “a function of how well the dimensions and elements of a concept have been delineated” (p. 206). Reliability is the extent to which individual items used in a construct are consistent in their measurements (Nunnally 1978; Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). It is concerned with the assurance that the items posited to measure a construct are considered as a set of items that are sufficiently correlated to be reliable (i.e., low on measurement error) (Cronbach 1951).

Construct validity refers to how well the instrument taps the concept as theorized (Sekaran 2003). It is broadly defined as the extent to which an operationalization measures the concept it is supposed to measure (e.g., Bagozzi, Yi & Phillips 1991; Cook & Campbell 1979). Some authors determined construct validity by assessing the extent to which each measurement item correlates with the total score (e.g., Kerlinger 1986; Yap, Soh & Raman 1992). However, a more stringent assessment of construct validity is through both convergent and discriminant validity (e.g., Campbell & Fiske 1959; Sekaran 2003; Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005; Trochim & Donnelly 2007), which can be established in many ways discussed in the later subsection.

In this study, the content validity of the intention-to-return instrument, as discussed above, was attested by the supervisors of the study according to Kidder & Judd (1986) and Sekaran (2003) suggesting that content validity can be attested by a panel of judges. All other measuring instruments, adapted from the existing scales with validated psychometric properties, were considered having content validity.

The reliability and construct validity of all measuring instruments were assessed using SPSS graduate pack 16.0. First, factor analysis was conducted to determine the underlying factor structure of each of the ten scales independently. Second, reliability analysis based on Cronbach's alpha model was run to examine the internal consistency reliability of each scale (also to determine the inclusion or exclusion of measurement items through the pilot study to produce a reliable scale). Finally, convergent and discriminant validity analysis were performed to establish the construct validity of each scale. These analytical procedures are outlined in the subsections that follow.

Factor analysis

There are several factor analytical models, with the most common being PAF (principal axis factoring) and PCA (principal components analysis) (Coakes & Steed 2005). Despite the debate in the literature over which model is most appropriate, PAF was considered the preferred model for this study.

To determine the underlying factor structure of each of the ten scales independently, factor analytical procedure was individually done for each scale as follows. First, using Kaiser's (1960) criterion of extracting factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, a number of factor extraction statistics, including the total variance explained statistics, the scree plot, the communalities and factor loadings, were generated for each scale. This factor extraction criterion is based on the idea that an eigenvalue of 1 represents a substantial amount of variation explained by a factor (Field 2005, p. 633). Next, analysis was undertaken to examine the communalities and factor loadings of the measurement items for each construct to assess if they tapped into the same construct as predicted (Coakes & Steed 2005). The complete

process is illustrated in Appendix 2-15 while some issues concerning communality and factor loading are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

Communality: Communality for an item measuring a predicted construct is the percent of variance in that item explained by the predicted construct (Field 2005). It is a measure of substantive importance of a measurement item to the predicted construct. In general, low communalities across a set of measurement items indicate that the measurement items are little related to one another. A construct comprising an item with a low communality raises concern that the construct might not work well for that item. However, an item with a low communality may be meaningful if it contributes to the interpretation of a well-defined construct, though often high communality reflects greater contribution. To determine if a measurement item has substantive importance to the predicted construct, Stevens (1992) recommends a minimum threshold of 0.16 communality or 0.4 loading associated with that measurement item.

Factor loading: Factor loading (FL) for an item measuring a predicted construct can be thought of as the Pearson correlation (r) between the measurement item and the predicted construct (Coakes & Steed 2005; Field 2005). Thus, squared FL (like squared r) would give an estimate of the percent of variance in the measurement item explained by the predicted construct (Field 2005). This means that 'squared item-loading is communality'; and that loading (as in communality) is a gauge of substantive importance of a measurement item to the predicted construct. In general, the higher the loading, the more meaningful it is, or the greater is the impact of the measurement item on the predicted construct (Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991).

A finding that measurement items have high loadings on the predicted construct indicates that the measurement items posited to represent the construct really tap into the same construct (Carmines & Zeller 1979; Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991; Pett, Lackey & Sullivan 2003). In this respect however, there is no single agreement as to how high a loading needs to be. Some researchers used a minimum threshold of 0.3 or 0.35 while some used a minimum loading equal to $5.152/[\text{SQRT}(N-2)]$ when the sample size (N) was 100 or more (Norman & Streiner 1994). Still other researchers used 0.4 for the central construct and 0.25 for other

constructs (Raubenheimer 2004). Typically, researchers have treated a loading greater than 0.3 to be important (Field 2005). For Stevens (1992), a minimum threshold of 0.4 loading explaining around 16% of the variance in the measurement item is recommended.

Reliability analysis

Reliability and factor analysis are complimentary procedures in scale construction and definition (Coakes & Steed 2005, p. 164). Cronbach's alpha reliability model was considered the preferred model for this study. This procedure examines Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient of a given scale and determines the inclusion or exclusion of measurement items to produce a reliable scale. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient indicates how well the measurement items in a set are positively correlated to one another (Sekaran 2003). The commonly used threshold value for the Cronbach's alpha is 0.7 (Hair et al. 1995; Nunnally 1978). Some researchers suggest a reliability alpha of 0.6 as the minimum acceptable level (e.g., Churchill 1991; Sekaran 1992; Slater 1995). In Sekaran's (2003) terms, "reliabilities less than 0.60 are considered to be poor, those in the 0.70 range, acceptable, and those over 0.80, good" (p. 311).

The output of a reliability analysis for a given scale comprises three important statistics (Coakes & Steed 2005). First, the 'corrected item-total correlation' statistics show the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) between the score on the individual item and the sum of the scores on the remaining items. Here, Field (2005) holds that r for each item in a reliable scale should not be less than 0.3 (depends slightly on sample size, smaller r is acceptable with bigger sample size). Items with $r < 0.3$ may have to be dropped for they do not correlate very well with the scale overall. Second, the 'Cronbach's alpha if item deleted' statistics display the alpha coefficient that would result if the item were removed from the scale. Finally, the 'reliability' statistics show the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the overall scale.

Convergent and discriminant validity analysis: Construct validity

The idea of convergent and discriminant validity through which construct validity can be established was proposed by Campbell & Fiske (1959). Whereas convergent validity refers to two or more valid measures of the same concept should correlate highly, discriminant validity refers to valid measures of different concepts should not correlate too highly (Bagozzi, Yi & Phillips 1991). Another way of saying is that measures that are theoretically supposed to be highly correlated are really so in practice (convergent validity), whereas measures that are theoretically not related to one another in fact are not (discriminant validity) (Trochim & Donnelly 2007).

To establish construct validity, the construct should have not only convergent validity, but also discriminant validity (Churchill 1979). There are several ways by which convergent and discriminant validity can be tested, including factor methods, correlational methods, AVE (average variance extracted) method, SEM (structural equation modelling) methods, and Multitrait-Multimethod. Briefly discussed below is the AVE method employed in this study.

AVE (average variance extracted) method: AVE is a measure of the average variance extracted from the measurement items by each construct, which is computed as the square root of the average communality (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). According to Fornell & Larcker (1981), convergent and discriminant validity of a given construct can be established as follows. First, a construct is considered to display convergent validity when the average variance explained by that construct's items (i.e., the construct's AVE) is at least 0.50. That is, when the variance explained by the construct is greater than the variance due to measurement error. Next, a construct is proved having discriminant validity when the construct's AVE is greater than the construct's shared variance (i.e., the squared correlation) with every other construct.

Assumptions underlying factor, reliability, and correlational analysis, and their test procedures

When selecting a data analysis technique that involves parametric statistics, one should ensure that the parametric assumptions related to the technique are satisfied (e.g., normality, linearity, and lack of multicollinearity, etc.) (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). However, it is noteworthy that researchers have established moderate violations of parametric assumptions to have little or no effect on substantive conclusions in most instances (e.g., Cohen 1969).

Underlying the application of PAF (principal axis factoring) factor analysis are a number of assumptions related to sample size, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, absence of outlying cases, absence of extreme multicollinearity and singularity, factorability of the correlation matrix, and absence of outliers among variables (Coakes & Steed 2005). Of which, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of outlying cases are also the underlying assumptions of both reliability and correlational analysis. These assumptions and their test procedures are outlined in Appendix 2-14.

In brief, the foregoing factor and reliability analysis, and convergent and discriminant validity analysis were conducted in both the pilot and main studies to assess the instrumentation validity. Some salient points of the pilot study are discussed in the subsection that follows.

Pilot Study

The objectives of the pilot study are twofold. First, pre-testing of the survey questionnaire to ensure appropriateness of the question wordings and their comprehension such that measurement error can be minimized (Long 1991; Sekaran 2003; Sitzman 2002). Next, assessment of the reliability and construct validity of all scales so that necessary changes can be made to improve their psychometric characteristics.

Administering the pilot study

The cover letter and survey questionnaire used for the pilot study are presented in Appendix 2-12. The questionnaire was pre-tested using 160 respondents comprising 43 postgraduate students from Curtin Graduate School of Business, and 117 employees from a variety of Western Australian industries. Respondents were encouraged to place their comments and suggestions in the evaluation form appended to the questionnaire. Such feedback aimed at providing clues to the potential problems so that necessary improvements to the questionnaire could be made. Given that the respondents did not represent the Singapore sample in any way, concern has been raised about the potential limitation of the pilot. However, “if a questionnaire could ‘pass muster’ with the extremes of the sample (intellectual, emotional, and attitudinal), it should be more than satisfactory for the ‘typical’ respondents” (Hunt, Sparkman & Wilcox 1982, p. 270). This view has precluded the potential limitation aforesaid. Results of the pilot study are discussed next.

Discussion of the pilot study results

A handful of genuine comments were received from the respondents. A couple of them proposed some minor wording changes to improve comprehension. Others suggested category codes be added alongside each demographic item to facilitate data entry. Most fruitful were the assessment results pertaining to the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments. Some pertinent details follow.

Factor and reliability analysis, as well as, convergent and discriminant validity analysis were performed on the pilot data according to the procedures described in the instrumentation validity subsection. A summary of analysis results is provided below while the full pilot study report is presented in Appendix 2-13.

The initial results revealed that the internal consistency reliability coefficients of two scales (top management’s integrity, affective commitment) could be improved through the exclusion of less desired measurement items. Accordingly, the 6-item top management’s integrity scale (Appendix 2-3), after removal of item 4, was amended to a 5-item scale ($\alpha = 0.924$) for the main study. Again, the 7-item affective

commitment scale (Appendix 2-7), after deletion of items 1 and 3, was altered to a 5-item scale ($\alpha = 0.907$). For all the other scales, their measurement items remain status quo. The overall analysis results after the exclusion of these less desired items are discussed as follows.

The factor analysis results did confirm the underlying factor structure of each of the ten scales. First, a single factor with eigenvalue greater than 1 was extracted for each scale as predicted. Next, the communalities and loadings of all measurement items in each scale exceeded Stevens's (1992) proposed minimum threshold of 0.16 communality or 0.4 loading, indicating that they tapped well into the predicted construct. This also indicated that across all measurement items in each scale, no item with a low communality (< 0.16) causing concern that a construct might not work well.

Further, the reliability analysis results based on Cronbach's alpha model did confirm the internal consistency reliability of each scale. All items measuring each construct had item-total correlations above the minimum threshold of 0.3 for a reliable scale (Field 2005). Most importantly, all scales had their internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) exceeding the commonly used threshold value of 0.7 (Hair et al. 1995; Nunnally 1978; Sekaran 2003) which substantiated the desired reliability of each scale. Table 4.2 below provides a 'snapshot' of the pilot study's Alphas versus the developers' or authors' Alphas for all scales.

Moreover, the construct validity of all the ten scales was established through convergent and discriminant validity obtained by way of AVE (average variance extracted) method proposed by Fornell & Larcker (1981). In particular, convergent validity was demonstrated for all constructs because all AVE indices exceeded 0.50, indicating that the variance captured by the underlying construct was greater than the variance due to measurement error. As well, discriminant validity was demonstrated for all constructs because each construct's AVE was greater than the construct's shared variance (i.e., the squared correlation) with every other construct.

Finally, the results of correlations among the study constructs offered support for several hypothesized relationships in the theoretical framework. This, in addition

to the reliability and validity of the measures, further established the level of confidence in using the amended survey questionnaire for the main study discussed in the subsection that follows.

Table 4.2: Pilot Study's Alphas vs. Developers' or Authors' Alphas

Constructs	Pilot Study's Alphas	Developers' or Authors' Alphas	Developers or Authors
Top Management's Ability (TMA)	.872	.88	Mayer & Davis (1999)
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	.900	.89	Mayer & Davis (1999)
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	.924	.88	Mayer & Davis (1999)
Trust in Top Management (TITM)	.712	.72	Mayer & Gavin (2005)
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	.959	.96	Rich (1997)
Group Cohesiveness (GC)	.920	.93	Podsakoff et al. (1993)
Affective Commitment (AC)	.907	.92	Brashear et al. (2003)
Job Satisfaction (JS)	.754	.90	Brashear et al. (2003)
Turnover Intention (TI)	.884	.91	Brashear et al. (2003)
Intention-to-Return (ITR)	.849	Newly developed for this research	

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Main Study: Data Collection for Both the WA and SIN Studies

Desired amendments to measurement items were made according to the pilot study results. The final measurement items used for data collection are detailed in Appendices 3-1 through 3-11 while the data collection process is provided in the subsections that follow.

Final survey questionnaire, cover letter and incentive

The final survey questionnaire and cover letter are presented in Appendix 3-12A. The one-page cover letter (printed on Curtin University's letterhead) concisely and clearly states Curtin University as the sponsoring institution, the overall aim of the study, the researcher's assurance of confidentiality and anonymity, the voluntary nature of participation, the importance of participation, how completed surveys can be returned, and the enclosure of small gift of appreciation. These elements featured in the letter and the inclusion of self-addressed pre-paid envelope motivate the subjects' participation thereby improving response rate (Mangione 1995; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). Also included in the letter is the standard Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee's approval statement. This statement offers the subjects further assurance that the researcher undertakes to comply with Curtin University guidelines on human research ethics, which further encourages their participation in the study.

The presentation of small gift of appreciation (incentive) that goes along with each survey questionnaire is an effort aimed at improving response rate. "Many researchers believe bias is minimized and response rates improved if the incentive is offered to everyone up front rather than providing it later as a reward for returning the survey" (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999, p. 28).

Data collection and follow-up efforts

The timing of data collection can help or hinder response rate (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). The holiday/vacation period from December through January might be problematic and was therefore avoided. Considering enough time must be budgeted for sending out mail surveys and follow-up reminders, and getting the responses back by mail, data collection was planned ahead and scheduled for August through November 2008.

Having prepared the survey packs (i.e., cover letter, professionally printed questionnaire, gift, and self-addressed pre-paid envelope), data collection was

administered in two phases. Phase I (August/September 2008) was allocated for the SIN (Singapore) study and Phase II (September/October 2008) for the WA study.

The SIN study: A trip was made to Singapore in August 2008 for the study. Survey was conducted over the months of August and September 2008. 1,000 survey packs were distributed to employees across the fifteen (15) companies listed in the sampling frame. Survey packs were personally delivered to each company's CEO who was delighted to distribute them to the employees. Each CEO was offered the summary results of the study as a token of appreciation. In all cases, subjects were solicited via the cover letter to complete the survey within two weeks of receipt and return it in the self-addressed pre-paid envelope provided. Three reminders via email/phone were made to each company's CEO at 2-week intervals to seek their assistance in reminding the subjects to return the completed surveys. This is consistent with Totten, Panacek & Price's (1999) study suggesting three reminders at 2- to 4-week intervals as the desired follow-up efforts to improve response rate.

The WA study: Survey was conducted over the months of September and October 2008. 1,500 survey packs were distributed to the ten (10) companies' employees and the random sample of employees in a variety of industries, as per the sampling frame. Survey packs for the ten companies were personally delivered to each company CEO's secretary who was able to distribute them to the employees. Each CEO was offered the summary results of the study as a token of appreciation. For the random sample of employees in various industries, survey packs were distributed to the individuals' home addresses. In all cases, subjects were solicited via the cover letter to complete the survey within two weeks of receipt and return it in the self-addressed pre-paid envelope provided. Three reminders via email/phone were made to each company CEO's secretary at 2-week intervals to seek their assistance in reminding the subjects to return the completed surveys. For the random sample of employees in various industries, three reminders via letter reiterating the overall aim of the study and the importance of participation (as in Appendix 3-12B) were sent to the subjects at 2-week intervals.

In brief, the foregoing data collection efforts yielded two separate data sets for individual data analysis. Several data analysis techniques employed for hypothesis testing are discussed next.

DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The literature review revealed some data analysis techniques that could be applied to the research questions. Using the SPSS graduate pack 16.0, standard multiple regression, hierarchical multiple regression, simple regression, and subgroup analysis were employed for hypothesis testing. These techniques are briefly described in the subsections that follow.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Applying regression analysis requires the dependent variable to be continuous, and the independent variables can be either continuous or categorical (coded as dummy) (Coakes & Steed 2005). Standard multiple regression analysis is used to assess the relationship between the dependent variable and the whole set of predictors. In this method, the dependent variable is regressed simultaneously on all predictors chosen on the basis of good theoretical reasons (Field 2005). The result is a regression model that represents the best prediction of the dependent variable from the predictors. In the case of hierarchical regression analysis, the order of entry of the independent variables is determined by one's theoretical knowledge.

The overall fit of the regression model can be assessed using R and R^2 in the Model Summary, and the F-ratio and Sig. (i.e., p-value) in the ANOVA table, all of which are generated by SPSS (Field 2005). R , the multiple correlation coefficient between the predictors and the dependent variable, is a gauge of how well the model predicts the observed data. It follows that R^2 is the amount of variation in the dependent variable explained by the model. The significance of R^2 can be tested using the F-ratio which is the ratio of regression model mean square (MS_M) to residual mean square (MS_R). If a model is good, then MS_M will be large and MS_R will

be small. That is, a good model should have a large F-ratio (at least greater than 1) with a p-value less than 0.05.

In addition, the Coefficients table from SPSS provides three important model parameters for assessing individual variables' contribution to the regression model (Field 2005). They are standardized beta value (Beta, β), t-statistic (t), and p-value (Sig.). The t-test in multiple regression can be conceptualized as a measure of whether a particular variable is contributing significantly to the model. Thus, if the t-test associated with the Beta of a variable is significant (p-value < 0.05), then the variable's contribution to the model is significant. The smaller the p-value (and the larger the t value), the greater is the variable's contribution. Moreover, the Beta values show the degree of importance of each variable.

Finally, the adjusted R^2 in SPSS regression Model Summary provides an indication of how much variance in the dependent variable would be accounted for if the model were derived from the population from which the sample was drawn (Field 2005). As a consequence, the difference between the R^2 and adjusted R^2 values indicates the loss in predictive power (or shrinkage) when the model is applied to other samples from the same population, and which provides a means for cross-validation. The closer the adjusted R^2 value to the R^2 , the better is the cross-validity of the regression model. That is, a very little loss in predictive power (R^2 - adjusted R^2) of a regression model indicates good cross-validity upon which the model can be generalised. In cross-validating a regression model for its generalisability, one must be sure that the assumptions underlying regression analysis are reasonably tenable.

Simple Regression Analysis

Whereas multiple regression seeks to predict a dependent variable from several predictors, simple regression seeks to predict a dependent variable from a single predictor. In simple regression model, the assessments of model fit and predictor's contribution to the model are similar to that of multiple regression above-mentioned. However, there are some notable differences. First, because there is only one predictor, R in the Model Summary is the simple correlation between the predictor

and the dependent variable. Next, Beta (β) in the Coefficients table represents the gradient of the regression line, and so the t-test tests whether a β value is significantly different from zero (Field 2005). A significant t-value indicates that the slope of the regression line is significantly different from horizontal.

Subgroup Analysis

Subgroup analysis was originated by Frederiksen & Melville (1954). Despite the potential degradation of information as a result of converting quantitative variables into categorical variables (Stone & Hollenbeck 1984), many researchers have employed subgroup technique to detect moderating effects (e.g., Arnold 1982; Griffin 1980; Hatfield & Huseman 1982; Liu & Hu 2007; Mathieu 1990; Patterson 2004; Schriesheim 1980). This method involves a number of steps. First, two subgroups are created by splitting the sample at some value of the potential moderator variable (Darrow & Kahl 1982; Patterson 2004; Stone & Hollenbeck 1984). Second, an independent groups t-test is conducted to determine that the two subgroups are significantly different in their moderator scores. Third, separate regressions of the dependent variable on the independent variable are performed to determine their level of association for each subgroup. Finally, appropriate statistical test is used to determine whether the levels of dependent-independent variables association for the two subgroups differ significantly.

In the final step concerning detection of moderating effects, some researchers have compared the B coefficients of the two regressions (e.g., Liu & Hu 2007; Patterson 2004), whereas others have compared the correlations of the dependent and independent variables for the two subgroups (e.g., Griffin 1980; Zedeck et al. 1971). Arnold (1982) explains that the former attempts to detect the moderating effect of a third variable on the form (i.e., direction or slope) of relationship between two variables, whereas the latter on the degree of relationship between the same variables.

This study attempts to determine whether a third variable (Z) moderates the form (i.e., direction or slope) of relationship between two variables. The appropriate statistical test is to determine whether the B coefficients of the two regressions vary with the values of Z (Arnold 1982). This involves testing the significance of the difference between the two B coefficients as follows (p. 156):

$$t = (B_2 - B_1) \div \text{SQRT} (SE_2^2 + SE_1^2), \text{ with } (n_1 + n_2 - 4) \text{ df}$$

where

B_1 = B coefficient (slope) of the regression line for subgroup 1;

B_2 = B coefficient (slope) of the regression line for subgroup 2;

SE_1 = standard error of estimate for B_1 ;

SE_2 = standard error of estimate for B_2 ;

n_1 = sample size of subgroup 1; and

n_2 = sample size of subgroup 2.

If the computed t value with $(n_1 + n_2 - 4)$ degrees of freedom is significant at the 0.05 level, the difference between the two B coefficients is significant, and so the moderating effect of the third variable does exist on the form of relationship between the two variables.

Apart from the subgroup technique aforesaid, moderated regression is another common method for assessing moderating effects (Blood & Mullet 1977; Cohen & Cohen 1975; Darrow & Kahl 1982; Saunders 1956; Stone & Hollenbeck 1984; Zedeck 1971). However, it was not used in conjunction with subgroup analysis in this research for a number of reasons. First, the results of moderated regression and subgroup analyses, particularly in organisational behaviour, industrial psychology, and organisational psychology studies, often produce conflicting findings about the status of a variable as a moderator (Stone & Hollenbeck 1984). Second, the results of moderated regression are more difficult to interpret and may fail to reveal moderating effects that are actually present (Blood & Mullet 1977; Griffin 1980). Finally, failure to find a moderating effect when using moderated regression technique “does not necessary mean that the effect does not exist, only that the effect is not extremely strong” (Darrow & Kahl 1982, p. 46).

Statistical Tests for the Equality of Regression Parameters

Given the cultural differences between Australia and Singapore (Hofstede 1980,2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005) discussed previously, the two-country study design allows comparisons of results in order to assess the replicability of research findings across Western Australia and Singapore. If replicable, the research findings can be considered generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings based on replicability of findings across culturally different countries. This section discusses the statistical tests used for this procedure.

Chow test (Chow 1960) has been widely used to determine whether the set of linear regression parameters (i.e., the intercepts and slopes) is the same across two sub-samples (Doran 1989; Seddighi, Lawler & Katos 2000). The test can be performed by constructing an F-ratio defined as follows (Seddighi, Lawler & Katos 2000, p. 83):

$$F = [RSS - (RSS_1 + RSS_2)]/k \div [(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n - 2k)] \sim F(k, n - 2k)$$

where

RSS = residual sum of squares of the regression line for the entire data set;

RSS₁ = residual sum of squares of the regression line for sub-sample 1;

RSS₂ = residual sum of squares of the regression line for sub-sample 2;

n = number of cases; and

k = number of parameters of the regression model (including the intercept term).

If F is significantly large, a different regression model applies across the two sub-samples (Doran 1989).

In this study, the Chow test was employed to test the stability of the regression model of Trust in Top Management (i.e., cross-validation of model) (Doran 1989; Schriesheim & Neider 2001). The test was also used to determine whether the multiple regression models of Trust in Top Management for the two countries (WA and Singapore) differed significantly due to cross-cultural differences. In the latter, GLM (General Linear Model) procedure was employed to assess the equality of error variances of trust in top management across the two countries, and test which coefficients (slopes) of the regression models differed

significantly. Including the Group term and Group*X_i interaction terms in the SPSS GLM procedure, the Group term will test differences in intercepts and the Group*X_i terms will test differences in slopes (Matheson 2001).

In addition, the T-test formula: $t = (B_2 - B_1) \div \text{SQRT}(SE_2^2 + SE_1^2)$, with $(n_1 + n_2 - 4)$ df recommended by Arnold (1982) aforesaid was employed to determine whether the simple regression models of each dependent variable for the two countries differed significantly due to cross-cultural differences. This formula has been supported by a number of researchers (e.g., Brame et al. 1998; Clogg, Petkova & Haritou 1995; Paternoster et al. 1998).

Assumptions Underlying Regression Analysis, Chow (1960) Test, and Independent Groups T-Test, and Their Test Procedures

All data analytical techniques using parametric statistics involve a number of underlying assumptions. The assumptions which underpin regression analysis are: appropriate ratio of cases to independent variables; absence of outliers; absence of extreme multicollinearity and singularity; normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals; and independent errors (Coakes & Steed 2005; Field 2005). The first assumption is a matter of research design while all other assumptions can be assessed through regression analysis. These assumptions and their test procedures are outlined in Appendix 3-14.

For the Chow (1960) test, the underlying assumptions include normality of error terms for each of the two groups; independent errors for each of the two groups; and error terms for the two groups have the same variance (Lewis-Beck, Bryman & Liao 2004). The first two assumptions can be assessed through regression analysis while the last assumption through Levene's test for equality of error variances in the GLM procedure.

In regard to independent groups t-test, the underlying assumptions are: interval or ratio level of measurement, random sampling, independence of groups, normality, and homogeneity of variance (Coakes & Steed 2005), of which the first three are a matter of research design. Normality of scores for each group can be

tested using normality statistics such as skewness and kurtosis, and normal Q-Q plot (Coakes & Steed 2005; Field 2005). The assumption of normality is tenable when both skewness z-score (skewness/std. error) and kurtosis z-score (kurtosis/std. error) are within ± 2 for most samples, and within ± 2.58 for small samples (Field 2005). In any case, the upper threshold is ± 3.29 . For homogeneity of variance, assumption is assessed through Levene's test for equality of variances in the independent groups analysis. If the test is not significant ($p > 0.05$), homogeneity of variance is confirmed (Coakes & Steed 2005).

LIMITATIONS OF THE METHODOLOGY

The methodology has some limitations. Firstly, the use of Hofstede Model which has several limitations in itself (Shi & Wang 2011): (a) the respondents for Hofstede's studies were predominantly non-managerial employees, and hence managerial employees' minds were not represented in the model; (b) institutional and in-group collectivism, and performance-orientation dimension were not addressed in the Hofstede's literature; (c) Hofstede's studies did not measure feminine scores directly - a lack of masculinity was considered feminine; and (d) the score of China in the model was based on the estimate number derived from Taiwan and Hongkong. Secondly, as cultural differences between Western Australia and Singapore were not measured, the conclusion concerning the country*predictor interactions cannot be statistically ascribed to cultural differences in respect to Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) cultural dimensions. Thirdly, all perceptual variables in the theoretical framework require that they be measured through same-source self-reports which created the potential for common method variance that must be cautiously addressed (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Finally, as with all other cross-sectional studies, this study cannot prove the direction of causality as data were collected at a single point in time (Bollen 1989).

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher undertakes to ensure ethical issues relating to data collection and reporting comply with Curtin University guidelines on research with minimal risk. Associated with this undertaking is the ethics approval granted by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (as in Appendix 4).

Data collection was carefully planned in a way that caused as little disruption as possible to the participants' work schedules. All participants being studied were provided with a letter stating the overall aim of the study, the researcher's assurance of confidentiality and anonymity, and the voluntary nature of participation. Also included in the letter was the standard Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee's approval statement.

SUMMARY

This chapter covered the methodology appropriate for collecting evidence to test the hypotheses according to scientific rigour, with particular emphasis in the survey research design. Following the justification for the methodology in respect to philosophical assumptions, methodology precedents, and nature of the research questions, the appropriateness for the general research approach and survey research was presented. This was then followed by the survey research design which addressed several design issues concerning sampling frame, mail survey method, questionnaire design, instrumentation validity and reliability, pilot study, and data collection and follow-up. The chapter also defined the data analysis techniques employed for hypothesis testing. Finally, the limitations of the methodology, and the ethical considerations of the research were addressed.

The next chapter discusses the results and analysis, which details how the data gathered from the respondents are analysed to test the proposed hypotheses and answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 described the methodology appropriate for collecting evidence to test the proposed hypotheses. This chapter explains how the collected data are analysed to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions. The chapter is organised around six sections starting with the general characteristics of the sample, including response rate, respondent characteristics, nonresponse bias, and bias caused by common method variance. This is then followed by the psychometric assessments of the constructs, tests of hypotheses based on the WA and SIN data sets, comparison of regression models/lines between WA and SIN, tests of modified trust model, and assumption testing.

Consistent with the tradition in science to separate the results from the discussion of their significance to preserve objectivity (Lindsay 1995), this chapter is restricted to presentation and analysis of the collected data. Discussion of the findings within the context of the literature, and their theoretical and practical implications are presented in chapter 6.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Response Rate and Respondent Characteristics

In the WA study, 1,500 survey packs were distributed to the ten (10) companies' employees and the random sample of employees in a variety of industries, as per the sampling frame. Of which, 325 surveys were completed and returned yielding a response rate of 21.67 percent (325/1500). Of the returned surveys, 20 were discarded due to too many missing values, leaving a final sample of 305.

For the SIN study, 1,000 survey packs were distributed to employees across the fifteen (15) companies listed in the sampling frame. Of which, 226 surveys were completed and returned yielding a response rate of 22.6 percent (226/1000). Of the returned surveys, 14 were discarded due to too many missing values, leaving a final sample of 212.

The above collected data were organised into two separate data sets (i.e., WA and SIN) on which data analyses were performed individually to test the study hypotheses. Several respondent characteristics for both studies are outlined in Table 5.1 below. Of particular important are the responder types (early vs. late) which allow an estimate of nonresponse bias as discussed in the next subsection.

Table 5.1: Respondent Characteristics

		WA Study			SIN Study		
		N	Percent	Cumulative Percent	N	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age	20-35	114	37.4	37.4	116	54.7	54.7
	36-50	119	39.0	76.4	72	34.0	88.7
	> 50	72	23.6	100.0	24	11.3	100.0
	Total	305	100.0		212	100.0	
Gender	Male	146	47.9	47.9	127	59.9	59.9
	Female	159	52.1	100.0	85	40.1	100.0
	Total	305	100.0		212	100.0	
Education	Year 10 - 12	60	19.7	19.7	53	25.0	25.0
	College - Tertiary	91	29.8	49.5	83	39.2	64.2
	University	154	50.5	100.0	76	35.8	100.0
	Total	305	100.0		212	100.0	
Tenure	< 3 years	159	52.1	52.1	92	43.4	43.4
	3 to < 9 years	86	28.2	80.3	60	28.3	71.7
	9 years & over	60	19.7	100.0	60	28.3	100.0
	Total	305	100.0		212	100.0	
Responder	Early	179	58.7	58.7	133	62.7	62.7
	Late	126	41.3	100.0	79	37.3	100.0
	Total	305	100.0		212	100.0	

Source: Analysis of survey data

Nonresponse Bias

When addressing nonresponse bias, one key step is to validate that the nonrespondents are not substantially different from the respondents and therefore do not bias the study results (Totten, Panacek & Price 1999). Given that late respondents are assumed to be more similar to nonrespondents (Armstrong & Overton 1977), comparing the responses of early and late respondents will provide information about the bias caused by nonrespondents. If these groups are not significantly different, nonrespondents may not be a problem.

To estimate nonresponse bias, Armstrong & Overton's (1977) procedure was followed and independent groups t-test performed to compare data provided by early and late respondents. For the WA study (Table 5.2W), no significant differences were found between the early respondents (58.7 percent of the sample) and late respondents (41.3 percent of the sample) on affective commitment [$t(303) = -0.812$, $p = 0.417$], job satisfaction [$t(303) = -0.031$, $p = 0.975$], turnover intention [$t(303) = -0.399$, $p = 0.690$], and intention-to-return [$t(303) = -0.327$, $p = 0.744$]. Similarly, for the SIN study (Table 5.2S), no significant differences were found between the early respondents (62.7 percent of the sample) and late respondents (37.3 percent of the sample) on affective commitment [$t(210) = -1.002$, $p = 0.317$], job satisfaction [$t(139) = -0.490$, $p = 0.625$], turnover intention [$t(210) = -0.139$, $p = 0.889$], and intention-to-return [$t(210) = -0.907$, $p = 0.365$]. Thus, the above estimates indicated that nonrespondents might not be a problem in both the WA and SIN studies.

Table 5.2 W: WA Study – Estimating Nonresponse Bias

Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Affective commitment	Equal variances assumed	.000	.985	-.812	303	.417	-.11138	.13717
	Equal variances not assumed			-.809	265.281	.419	-.11138	.13773
Job satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	.269	.604	-.031	303	.975	-.00361	.11509
	Equal variances not assumed			-.031	263.218	.975	-.00361	.11580
Turnover intention	Equal variances assumed	.752	.386	-.399	303	.690	-.06404	.16061
	Equal variances not assumed			-.395	260.528	.693	-.06404	.16204
Intention-to-return	Equal variances assumed	.047	.829	-.327	303	.744	-.04572	.13990
	Equal variances not assumed			-.329	274.337	.743	-.04572	.13914

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.2S: SIN Study – Estimating Nonresponse Bias

Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Affective commitment	Equal variances assumed	2.242	.136	-1.002	210	.317	-.14721	.14691
	Equal variances not assumed			-.974	149.979	.331	-.14721	.15108
Job satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	5.442	.021	-.516	210	.606	-.06796	.13167
	Equal variances not assumed			-.490	138.660	.625	-.06796	.13873
Turnover intention	Equal variances assumed	1.101	.295	-.139	210	.889	-.02510	.18007
	Equal variances not assumed			-.136	150.627	.892	-.02510	.18494
Intention-to- return	Equal variances assumed	.525	.469	-.907	210	.365	-.12822	.14133
	Equal variances not assumed			-.897	158.115	.371	-.12822	.14297

Source: Analysis of survey data

Bias Caused by Common Method Variance

Common method variance (i.e., variance that is attributable to the measurement method) can confound the interpretation of study results (Podsakoff et al. 2003). To test for common method variance, researchers (e.g., Andersson & Bateman 1997; Aulakh & Gencturk 2000) have used a post hoc Harman's one-factor test suggested by Podsakoff & Organ (1986). The test involves loading all the study variables into an exploratory factor analysis. If substantial common method variance is present, either a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis or one general factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the measures.

The fact that all the measures in this study were of a same-source self-report nature created the potential for common method variance. A post hoc one-factor test aforesaid was therefore necessary. For each data set (WA and SIN), all the ten (10) scales were factor analyzed using the principal axis method with varimax rotation. Using an eigenvalue over 1 extraction criterion (Aulakh & Gencturk 2000; Podsakoff et al. 1984; Schriesheim 1979), two factors could be justified for each data set. Moreover no general factor was apparent in the factor structure for each data set (Table 5.3W: WA Study - factor 1 accounted for 28.44 %, and Table 5.3S: SIN Study – factor 1 accounted for 30.91%). Thus, the post hoc test suggested that bias caused by common method variance was not of great concern in both studies.

Table 5.3W: WA Study – Test for Common Method Variance

Factor	Total Variance Explained			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	Initial Eigenvalues % of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.968	49.684	49.684	2.844	28.440	28.440
2	1.386	13.863	63.546	2.730	27.299	55.739
3	.830	8.298	71.845			
4	.633	6.333	78.178			
5	.555	5.548	83.726			
6	.473	4.728	88.454			
7	.382	3.822	92.277			
8	.311	3.105	95.382			
9	.248	2.482	97.864			
10	.214	2.136	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.3S: SIN Study – Test for Common Method Variance

Factor	Total Variance Explained			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	Initial Eigenvalues % of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.447	54.473	54.473	3.091	30.914	30.914
2	1.183	11.830	66.303	2.874	28.742	59.656
3	.975	9.746	76.049			
4	.611	6.110	82.159			
5	.425	4.250	86.409			
6	.392	3.917	90.327			
7	.316	3.159	93.485			
8	.296	2.960	96.446			
9	.211	2.111	98.556			
10	.144	1.444	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Source: Analysis of survey data

PSYCHOMETRIC ASSESSMENTS OF THE CONSTRUCTS

The research findings would be meaningless if the measuring instruments employed in the study were not acceptable in terms of reliability and construct validity at a minimal level (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). Reliability is assessed through the degree to which individual items used in a construct are consistent in their measurements (Nunnally 1978; Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005). Construct validity is assessed through both convergent and discriminant validity (e.g., Campbell & Fiske 1959; Sekaran 2003; Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005; Trochim & Donnelly 2007). In which, convergent validity refers to two or more valid measures of the same concept should correlate highly, whereas discriminant validity refers to valid measures of different concepts should not correlate too highly (Bagozzi, Yi & Phillips 1991).

To assess the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments, the analytical procedures described in chapter 4 instrumentation validity subsection were performed on both the WA and SIN data sets. First, factor analysis was conducted to confirm the underlying factor structure of each of the ten scales independently. Second, reliability analysis based on Cronbach's alpha model was run

to confirm the internal consistency reliability of each scale. Finally, convergent and discriminant validity analysis was performed to establish the construct validity of each scale. The results of these analyses are outlined in the subsections that follow.

Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis

For both the WA and SIN data sets, the factor analysis results did confirm the underlying factor structure of each of the ten scales. First, a single factor with eigenvalue greater than 1 was extracted for each scale as predicted. Next, the results shown in Tables 5.4W and 5.4S below revealed that the communalities and loadings associated with the items measuring each construct exceeded Stevens's (1992) proposed minimum threshold of 0.16 communality or 0.4 loading, indicating that all items measuring each construct tapped well into the predicted construct. The desired communalities across each set of measurement items also substantiated the desired relationships among the items measuring each construct. That is, no item with a low communality (< 0.16) causing concern that a construct did not work well.

In addition, the reliability analysis results for both the WA and SIN data sets shown in Tables 5.5W and 5.5S below did substantiate the desired reliability of each scale. First, all items measuring each construct had item-total correlations above the minimum threshold of 0.3 for a reliable scale (Field 2005). Next, the internal consistency reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of each scale exceeded the commonly used threshold value of 0.7 (Hair et al. 1995; Nunnally 1978; Sekaran 2003)

Results of Convergent and Discriminant Validity Analysis

For both the WA and SIN data sets, the construct validity of all the ten scales was established through convergent and discriminant validity obtained by way of AVE (average variance extracted) method proposed by Fornell & Larcker (1981). Referring to Tables 5.6W and 5.6S below, convergent validity was affirmed for all constructs because all AVE indices exceeded 0.50 indicating that the variance captured by the underlying construct was greater than the variance due to

measurement error. Again, discriminant validity was affirmed for all constructs because each construct's AVE was greater than the construct's shared variance (i.e., the squared correlation) with every other construct. For example, the intention-to-return (ITR) construct in Table 5.6W below demonstrated discriminant validity because its AVE (0.814) was greater than its shared variance with every other construct. Its highest shared variance was 0.477 with job satisfaction (JS).

Table 5.4W Part 1 of 2: WA Study – Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Mean	S.D.	Communality	Loading
Top Management's Ability (TMA)	tma1_q1	4.78	.848	.537	.733
	tma2_q2	4.69	.800	.619	.787
	tma3_q3	4.75	.834	.483	.695
	tma4_q4	4.58	.853	.650	.806
	tma5_q5	4.48	.881	.515	.717
	tma6_q6	4.72	.863	.482	.694
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	tmb1_q7	3.84	1.253	.685	.828
	tmb2_q8	3.79	1.232	.706	.840
	tmb3_q9	4.57	.938	.255	.505
	tmb4_q10	3.70	1.155	.771	.878
	tmb5_q11	3.71	1.247	.778	.882
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	tmi1_q12	3.82	1.234	.635	.797
	tmi2_q13	3.65	1.390	.595	.771
	tmi3_q14	4.06	1.151	.742	.861
	tmi4_q15	4.06	1.284	.805	.897
	tmi5_q16	4.15	1.219	.688	.829
Trust in Top Management (TITM)	titm1_q17R*	2.89	1.140	.220	.469
	titm2_q18	2.85	1.297	.264	.514
	titm3_q19R*	3.02	1.222	.236	.486
	titm4_q20	3.62	1.221	.479	.692
	titm5_q21	3.92	1.067	.531	.729
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	smrm1_q22	4.28	1.181	.799	.894
	smrm2_q23	4.32	1.159	.878	.937
	smrm3_q24	4.38	1.113	.868	.932
	smrm4_q25	4.21	1.236	.803	.896
	smrm5_q26	4.09	1.335	.804	.897

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.4W Part 2 of 2: WA Study – Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Mean	S.D.	Communality	Loading
Group Cohesiveness (GC)	gc1_q27	4.73	.863	.530	.728
	gc2_q28	4.91	.856	.662	.814
	gc3_q29	4.87	.818	.650	.807
	gc4_q30	4.75	.875	.647	.804
	gc5_q31	4.63	.892	.742	.861
	gc6_q32	4.71	.912	.515	.717
Affective Commitment (AC)	ac1_q33	4.51	1.043	.754	.869
	ac2_q34	4.73	.933	.784	.886
	ac3_q35	4.37	1.074	.688	.830
	ac4_q36	4.59	1.032	.649	.806
	ac5_q37	4.08	1.213	.657	.811
Job Satisfaction (JS)	js1_q38R*	4.85	.999	.336	.580
	js2_q39	4.58	1.034	.651	.807
	js3_q40	4.48	1.074	.581	.763
	js4_q41R*	4.43	1.334	.256	.506
Turnover Intention (TI)	ti1_q42	2.88	1.462	.575	.758
	ti2_q43	2.45	1.320	.719	.848
	ti3_q44	3.15	1.639	.627	.792
	ti4_q45	2.67	1.609	.534	.731
Intention-to-Return (ITR)	itr1_q46	4.48	1.094	.755	.869
	itr2_q47	4.33	1.244	.776	.881
	itr3_q48	4.09	1.317	.688	.829
	itr4_q49R*	4.57	1.219	.432	.657

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.4S Part 1 of 2: SIN Study – Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Mean	S.D.	Communality	Loading
Top Management's Ability (TMA)	tma1_q1	4.45	1.058	.764	.874
	tma2_q2	4.51	1.021	.675	.822
	tma3_q3	4.46	1.097	.695	.834
	tma4_q4	4.42	1.057	.780	.883
	tma5_q5	4.23	1.026	.559	.747
	tma6_q6	4.64	1.041	.646	.804
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	tmb1_q7	3.95	1.233	.676	.822
	tmb2_q8	3.86	1.136	.636	.798
	tmb3_q9	4.47	.938	.389	.623
	tmb4_q10	3.81	1.184	.735	.857
	tmb5_q11	3.95	1.137	.669	.818
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	tmi1_q12	4.00	1.312	.764	.874
	tmi2_q13	4.01	1.241	.629	.793
	tmi3_q14	4.07	1.216	.743	.862
	tmi4_q15	4.05	1.201	.785	.886
	tmi5_q16	4.22	1.223	.696	.834
Trust in Top Management (TITM)	titm1_q17R*	3.10	1.307	.190	.436
	titm2_q18	3.60	1.295	.335	.579
	titm3_q19R*	3.22	1.260	.226	.475
	titm4_q20	3.99	1.239	.515	.718
	titm5_q21	4.25	1.196	.715	.845
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	smrm1_q22	4.58	.866	.788	.888
	smrm2_q23	4.62	.899	.795	.892
	smrm3_q24	4.62	.953	.775	.880
	smrm4_q25	4.55	.947	.784	.885
	smrm5_q26	4.56	.947	.777	.881

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.4S Part 2 of 2: SIN Study – Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Mean	S.D.	Communality	Loading
Group Cohesiveness (GC)	gc1_q27	4.62	.913	.651	.807
	gc2_q28	4.74	.918	.755	.869
	gc3_q29	4.76	.859	.707	.841
	gc4_q30	4.63	.862	.718	.847
	gc5_q31	4.58	.874	.680	.824
	gc6_q32	4.73	.859	.493	.702
Affective Commitment (AC)	ac1_q33	4.51	.987	.794	.891
	ac2_q34	4.64	.942	.822	.906
	ac3_q35	4.40	.865	.687	.829
	ac4_q36	4.66	.864	.628	.792
	ac5_q37	4.29	.941	.654	.809
Job Satisfaction (JS)	js1_q38R*	4.59	.983	.418	.647
	js2_q39	4.39	.857	.544	.738
	js3_q40	4.38	.919	.683	.827
	js4_q41R*	4.54	1.183	.533	.730
Turnover Intention (TI)	ti1_q42	2.80	1.267	.754	.868
	ti2_q43	2.61	1.294	.837	.915
	ti3_q44	2.86	1.348	.749	.865
	ti4_q45	2.51	1.310	.633	.796
Intention-to-Return (ITR)	itr1_q46	4.48	.909	.716	.846
	itr2_q47	4.24	1.110	.699	.836
	itr3_q48	4.14	1.097	.679	.824
	itr4_q49R*	4.19	1.326	.278	.528

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.5W Part 1 of 2: WA Study – Reliability Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Top Management's Ability (TMA)			0.878
	tma1_q1	.678	
	tma2_q2	.726	
	tma3_q3	.644	
	tma4_q4	.743	
	tma5_q5	.666	
	tma6_q6	.646	
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)			0.892
	tmb1_q7	.780	
	tmb2_q8	.785	
	tmb3_q9	.485	
	tmb4_q10	.819	
	tmb5_q11	.824	
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)			0.916
	tmi1_q12	.756	
	tmi2_q13	.736	
	tmi3_q14	.814	
	tmi4_q15	.843	
	tmi5_q16	.787	
Trust in Top Management (TITM)			0.709
	titm1_q17R*	.418	
	titm2_q18	.421	
	titm3_q19R*	.414	
	titm4_q20	.531	
	titm5_q21	.566	
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)			0.959
	smrm1_q22	.871	
	smrm2_q23	.911	
	smrm3_q24	.906	
	smrm4_q25	.877	
	smrm5_q26	.877	

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.5W Part 2 of 2: WA Study – Reliability Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Group Cohesiveness (GC)			0.907
	gc1_q27	.690	
	gc2_q28	.766	
	gc3_q29	.759	
	gc4_q30	.759	
	gc5_q31	.812	
	gc6_q32	.681	
Affective Commitment (AC)			0.920
	ac1_q33	.819	
	ac2_q34	.836	
	ac3_q35	.789	
	ac4_q36	.773	
	ac5_q37	.776	
Job Satisfaction (JS)			0.745
	js1_q38R*	.538	
	js2_q39	.627	
	js3_q40	.575	
	js4_q41R*	.457	
Turnover Intention (TI)			0.859
	ti1_q42	.679	
	ti2_q43	.758	
	ti3_q44	.724	
	ti4_q45	.675	
Intention-to-Return (ITR)			0.880
	itr1_q46	.795	
	itr2_q47	.799	
	itr3_q48	.765	
	itr4_q49R*	.621	

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.5S Part 1 of 2: SIN Study – Reliability Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Top Management's Ability (TMA)			0.929
	tma1_q1	.834	
	tma2_q2	.785	
	tma3_q3	.799	
	tma4_q4	.843	
	tma5_q5	.720	
	tma6_q6	.771	
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)			0.889
	tmb1_q7	.765	
	tmb2_q8	.746	
	tmb3_q9	.589	
	tmb4_q10	.794	
	tmb5_q11	.763	
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)			0.928
	tmi1_q12	.834	
	tmi2_q13	.762	
	tmi3_q14	.823	
	tmi4_q15	.843	
	tmi5_q16	.797	
Trust in Top Management (TITM)			0.744
	titm1_q17R*	.419	
	titm2_q18	.455	
	titm3_q19R*	.475	
	titm4_q20	.558	
	titm5_q21	.651	
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)			0.947
	smrm1_q22	.858	
	smrm2_q23	.862	
	smrm3_q24	.851	
	smrm4_q25	.856	
	smrm5_q26	.854	

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.5S Part 2 of 2: SIN Study – Reliability Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Group Cohesiveness (GC)			0.922
	gc1_q27	.768	
	gc2_q28	.825	
	gc3_q29	.803	
	gc4_q30	.806	
	gc5_q31	.788	
	gc6_q32	.673	
Affective Commitment (AC)			0.926
	ac1_q33	.846	
	ac2_q34	.861	
	ac3_q35	.793	
	ac4_q36	.760	
	ac5_q37	.775	
Job Satisfaction (JS)			0.818
	js1_q38R*	.600	
	js2_q39	.630	
	js3_q40	.697	
	js4_q41R*	.662	
Turnover Intention (TI)			0.919
	ti1_q42	.818	
	ti2_q43	.857	
	ti3_q44	.821	
	ti4_q45	.762	
Intention-to-Return (ITR)			0.824
	itr1_q46	.742	
	itr2_q47	.724	
	itr3_q48	.711	
	itr4_q49R*	.491	

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.6W: WA Study – Constructs' AVEs (Average Variance Extracted) & Constructs' Shared Variances*

	1 TMA	2 TMB	3 TMI	4 TITM	5 SMRM	6 GC	7 AC	8 JS	9 TI	10 ITR
1 Top Management's Ability (TMA)	0.740									
2 Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	0.373	0.799								
3 Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	0.442	0.582	0.832							
4 Trust in Top Management (TITM)	0.220	0.228	0.249	0.588						
5 Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	0.199	0.218	0.244	0.095	0.911					
6 Group Cohesiveness (GC)	0.107	0.058	0.067	0.028	0.127	0.790				
7 Affective Commitment (AC)	0.315	0.291	0.339	0.155	0.239	0.263	0.840			
8 Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.116	0.110	0.132	0.051	0.158	0.185	0.360	0.675		
9 Turnover Intention (TI)	0.074	0.119	0.085	0.042	0.097	0.069	0.205	0.377	0.783	
10 Intention-to-Return (ITR)	0.210	0.179	0.193	0.084	0.226	0.117	0.461	0.477	0.325	0.814

* AVEs are on the diagonal and below which are constructs' shared variance.

N.B. AVE calculation example:

AVE = SQRT (Average Communalities) (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005)

For Intention-to-Return,

Average Communalities = (0.755+0.776+0.688+0.432)/4 = 0.6628 (extracted from Table 5.4W)

AVE = SQRT (0.6628) = 0.814

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.6S: SIN Study – Constructs' AVEs (Average Variance Extracted) & Constructs' Shared Variances*

	1 TMA	2 TMB	3 TMI	4 TITM	5 SMRM	6 GC	7 AC	8 JS	9 TI	10 ITR
1 Top Management's Ability (TMA)	0.829									
2 Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	0.475	0.788								
3 Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	0.518	0.666	0.851							
4 Trust in Top Management (TITM)	0.219	0.157	0.331	0.629						
5 Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	0.276	0.221	0.274	0.140	0.885					
6 Group Cohesiveness (GC)	0.086	0.100	0.069	0.030	0.278	0.817				
7 Affective Commitment (AC)	0.377	0.307	0.389	0.319	0.319	0.156	0.847			
8 Job Satisfaction (JS)	0.228	0.164	0.234	0.194	0.210	0.099	0.420	0.738		
9 Turnover Intention (TI)	0.100	0.078	0.083	0.106	0.132	0.082	0.225	0.410	0.862	
10 Intention-to-Return (ITR)	0.309	0.258	0.308	0.278	0.251	0.120	0.558	0.526	0.415	0.770

* AVEs are on the diagonal and below which are constructs' shared variance.

N.B. AVE calculation example:

AVE = SQRT (Average Communalities) (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005)

For Intention-to-Return,

Average Communalities = (0.716+0.699+0.679+0.278)/4 = 0.5930 (extracted from Table 5.4S)

AVE = SQRT (0.5930) = 0.770

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.7W: WA Study – Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas#

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
		TMA	TMB	TMI	TITM	SMRM	GC	AC	JS	TI	ITR	AGE	GEN	EDU	JOB	BEMP	LEMP	TEN
1	Top Management's Ability (TMA)	.878																
2	Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	.611**	.892															
3	Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	.665**	.763**	.916														
4	Trust in Top Management (TITM)	.469**	.477**	.499**	.709													
5	Sr. Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	.446**	.467**	.494**	.309**	.959												
6	Group Cohesiveness (GC)	.327**	.240**	.259**	.168**	.357**	.907											
7	Affective Commitment (AC)	.561**	.539**	.582**	.394**	.489**	.513**	.920										
8	Job Satisfaction (JS)	.340**	.332**	.363**	.226**	.398**	.430**	.600**	.745									
9	Turnover Intention (TI)	-.272**	-.345**	-.292**	-.206**	-.311**	-.262**	-.453**	-.614**	.859								
10	Intention-to-Return (ITR)	.458**	.423**	.439**	.289**	.475**	.342**	.679**	.691**	-.570**	.880							
11	AGE	-.085	-.154**	-.131*	-.096	-.176**	-.171**	-.117*	-.019	-.117*	-.111	-						
12	GENDER	.049	.035	.022	.064	.075	-.013	.008	.043	.031	.013	-.142*	-					
13	EDUCATION	.056	.101	.141*	.080	.136*	.103	.112	.077	-.054	.108	-.164**	-.136*	-				
14	JOB	-.039	-.008	-.065	-.062	-.038	-.118*	-.025	-.059	.036	-.048	.041	.094	-.413**	-			
15	BAS EMPLOYMENT	.044	.036	.031	.068	.003	-.048	-.034	-.030	.057	-.008	-.109	.060	-.024	.085	-		
16	LEV EMPLOYMENT	.127*	.051	.102	.122*	.066	.108	.121*	.168**	-.120*	.098	.151**	-.172**	.221**	-.295**	-.236**	-	
17	TENURE	-.130*	-.223**	-.161**	-.104	-.102	.001	-.053	.055	-.115*	-.003	.497**	-.096	-.109	-.079	-.158**	.213**	-

Cronbach's Alphas are on the diagonal and below which are correlations

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.7S: SIN Study – Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas#

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
	TMA	TMB	TMI	TITM	SMRM	GC	AC	JS	TI	ITR	AGE	GEN	EDU	JOB	BEMP	LEMP	TEN
1	.929																
2	.689**	.889															
3	.720**	.816**	.928														
4	.468**	.396**	.575**	.744													
5	.525**	.470**	.523**	.374**	.947												
6	.293**	.316**	.263**	.173*	.527**	.922											
7	.614**	.554**	.624**	.565**	.565**	.395**	.926										
8	.477**	.405**	.484**	.440**	.458**	.314**	.648**	.818									
9	-.317**	-.280**	-.288**	-.325**	-.364**	-.287**	-.474**	-.640**	.919								
10	.556**	.508**	.555**	.527**	.501**	.347**	.747**	.725**	-.644**	.824							
11	.078	.006	.001	-.087	-.081	-.044	.006	-.081	-.016	-.042	-						
12	.056	.015	.016	.015	.085	.111	-.039	.029	.085	-.012	-.278**	-					
13	.078	-.045	-.015	-.049	-.008	.034	-.005	.097	.068	.018	-.012	.080	-				
14	-.032	.031	.032	.043	-.020	-.005	.048	.024	-.168*	.023	.117	-.310**	-.457**	-			
15	.035	.023	.060	-.058	.013	-.013	.009	.046	.021	-.027	-.006	-.019	.162*	-.031	-		
16	.124	.069	.086	.009	-.005	-.012	.027	.001	.010	.029	.475**	-.226**	.298**	-.235**	-.007	-	
17	.166*	.162*	.139*	.129	.030	.110	.086	.105	-.139*	.158*	.534**	-.099	-.135*	.095	-.200**	.391**	-

Cronbach's Alphas are on the diagonal and below which are correlations

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Analysis of survey data

In brief, the above results confirmed the reliability and construct validity of all the ten scales, and thus the goodness of data for both the WA and SIN studies. Having acquired a ‘good feel’ for the data and established the goodness of data, data analyses were performed on each data set to test the proposed hypotheses as described in the next section.

TESTS OF HYPOTHESES

The data analysis techniques for hypothesis testing described in chapter 4 were employed to test the twelve proposed hypotheses. These included the use of multiple regression analysis (for hypothesis 1a), simple regression analysis (for hypotheses 1b, 1c, 1d, 2a, 3a, 4a and 5a), and subgroup analysis (for hypotheses 2b, 3b, 4b and 5b).

Subgroup analysis was employed to detect the moderating effect of senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) between the dependent and independent variables as hypothesized in hypotheses 2b, 3b, 4b and 5b. The analytical procedure was carried out as follows. First, two subgroups were created by dividing the sample at the median of SMRM scores. Second, an independent groups t-test was done to confirm that the two subgroups are significantly different in SMRM scores. Third, separate regressions of the dependent variable on the independent variable were conducted for each subgroup, and the B Coefficients (slopes) were compared. To the extent that they differed significantly, there was moderating effect of SMRM. Test for significance of difference between the two B Coefficients was done using Arnold’s (1982) T-test formula, $t = (B_2 - B_1) \div \text{SQRT}(SE_2^2 + SE_1^2)$, with $(n_1 + n_2 - 4)$ df, described in chapter 4. That is, if the computed t value with $(n_1 + n_2 - 4)$ degrees of freedom is significant at the 0.05 level, the difference between the two B coefficients is significant.

Prior to testing the proposed hypotheses, a pre-test for the statistical significance of demographic variables in the regressions specified for hypothesis testing was conducted as outlined in the subsection that follows.

Pre-test for the Statistical Significance of Demographic Variables in the Regressions Specified for Hypothesis Testing

Chapter 4 indicated that the demographic variables, including age, gender, education, job type, basis of employment, level of employment, and tenure were not thought to have significant effect on the respondents' scores. However, a series of regression analyses was performed to pre-test their statistical significance in the regressions to be used for hypothesis testing.

The pre-test results (as in Appendix 3-13) revealed that the demographic variables aforesaid were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) in the regressions specified for hypothesis testing. Thus, there was no statistical evidence justifying their needs as control variables, and so they were not included in the actual regressions run to test the proposed hypotheses.

The results of hypothesis testing done on both the WA and SIN data sets are discussed in the two subsections that follow while their implications are discussed in chapter 6.

Results of Hypothesis Testing Done on the WA Data

Hypothesis 1a: Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.

To test this hypothesis, a standard (simultaneous) multiple regression analysis was done with top management's ability, top management's benevolence and top management's integrity as predictors of trust in top management. The regression results (Table 5.8 below) revealed that the three predictors accounted for 58.1 percent of the variance (R^2) in trust in top management, which was statistically significant – $F(3, 271) = 125.321, p < 0.001$. Top management's ability ($\beta = 0.372, t = 6.000, p < 0.001$) and top management's integrity ($\beta = 0.391, t = 4.836, p < 0.001$) were statistically significant as individual predictors while top management's benevolence was not ($\beta = 0.054, t = 0.733, p > 0.05$). Thus, the data supported top management's ability and integrity as predictors of trust in top management but did not offer support for top management's benevolence.

To assess if multicollinearity threatened the validity of the regression results, the correlation matrix, variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance (TOL) were examined. According to previous researchers, substantial correlations ($r > 0.9$) among predictors should be cause for concern (Field 2005); VIF equal to or above 10 (also, $TOL = 1/VIF$ equal to or below 0.10) should be cause for concern (Field 2005; Myers 1990); and finally, TOL below 0.2 indicates a potential problem and is worthy of concern (Field 2005; Menard 1995). Given no substantial correlations ($r > 0.9$) among the predictors (Table 5.7W above), no VIF equal to or above 10 and no TOL below 0.2 (Table 5.8 below), multicollinearity did not appear to be a problem.

Table 5.8: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	TOL	VIF
Constant	1.150	.116		9.912	.000		
Top management's ability	.248	.041	.372	6.000	.000	.401	2.493
Top management's benevolence	.033	.045	.054	.733	.464	.280	3.571
Top management's integrity	.237	.049	.391	4.836	.000	.237	4.223

Overall: Multiple $R = .762, R^2 = .581$, Adjusted $R^2 = .576, F(3, 271) = 125.321, p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.810

Source: Analysis of survey data

However, the failure of top management's benevolence to reach statistical significance was inconsistent with its significant correlation with trust in top management shown in Table 5.7W above ($r = 0.477$, $p < 0.01$) and was worthy of concern. As a further test, a hierarchical regression analysis was done with top management's ability and top management's benevolence (both entered first), as well as top management's integrity (entered last) as predictors of trust in top management. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 5.8A below. At the first step, it was noted that both top management's ability and top management's benevolence together explained 54.5 percent of the variance (R^2) in trust in top management, and top management's benevolence was a significant predictor ($\beta = 0.291$, $t = 4.995$, $p < 0.001$).

At the second step, it was noted that top management's integrity made a significant contribution to the variance of trust in top management ($\Delta R^2 = 0.036$, $p < 0.001$). Further examination of the table below revealed that top management's benevolence was no longer a significant predictor when top management's integrity was entered into the regression equation. In other words, these two variables were significantly and highly correlated such that top management's integrity subsumed top management's benevolence. Therefore, top management's benevolence was a salient predictor of trust in top management. However, in combination with top management's integrity, its effect was insignificant.

Table 5.8A: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management
Hierarchical Regression

Step 1 Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	Overall
Constant	1.179	.121		9.781	.000	Multiple R = .738 $R^2 = .545$ Adjusted $R^2 = .542$ $F(2, 272) = 162.885^*$
TMA ^a	.334	.039	.502	8.632	.000	
TMB ^b	.176	.035	.291	4.995	.000	
Step 2 Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	Overall
Constant	1.150	.116		9.912	.000	Multiple R = .762 $R^2 = .581$ Adjusted $R^2 = .576$ $F(3, 271) = 125.321^*$ $\Delta R^2 = .036^*$
TMA ^a	.248	.041	.372	6.000	.000	
TMB ^b	.033	.045	.054	.733	.464	
TMI ^c	.237	.049	.391	4.836	.000	

^a TMA = Top management's ability, ^b TMB = Top management's benevolence

^c TMI = Top management's integrity, * $p = .000$

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1b: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.

To test this hypothesis, a simple regression analysis was done with group cohesiveness as a predictor of top management's ability. The regression results (Table 5.9 below) indicated that group cohesiveness accounted for 15.7 percent of the variance (R^2) in top management's ability, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 298) = 55.628, p < 0.001$. Group cohesiveness was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.397, t = 7.458, p < 0.001$). Thus, the data offered support for Hypothesis 1b.

Table 5.9: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1b

Dependent Variable: Top management's ability

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	2.323	.269		8.626	.000
Group cohesiveness	.435	.058	.397	7.458	.000
Overall: $R = .397, R^2 = .157, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .154, F(1, 298) = 55.628, p = .000, \text{Durbin-Watson} = 1.903$					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1c: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.

This hypothesis was tested using group cohesiveness as a predictor of top management's benevolence. The regression results (Table 5.10 below) showed that group cohesiveness explained 8.2 percent of the variance (R^2) in top management's benevolence, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 299) = 26.656, p < 0.001$. Group cohesiveness was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.286, t = 5.163, p < 0.001$). Hence, the data offered support for Hypothesis 1c.

Table 5.10: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1c

Dependent Variable: Top management's benevolence

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	2.160	.310		6.972	.000
Group cohesiveness	.346	.067	.286	5.163	.000
Overall: $R = .286, R^2 = .082, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .079, F(1, 299) = 26.656, p = .000, \text{Durbin-Watson} = 1.737$					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1d: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.

For the test of this hypothesis, regression was done with group cohesiveness as a predictor of top management's integrity. The regression results (Table 5.11 below) revealed that group cohesiveness accounted for 12.4 percent of the variance (R^2) in top management's integrity, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 298) = 42.276$, $p < 0.001$. Group cohesiveness was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.352$, $t = 6.502$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the data offered support for Hypothesis 1d.

Table 5.11: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1d

Dependent Variable: Top management's integrity

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	2.032	.298		6.808	.000
Group cohesiveness	.421	.065	.352	6.502	.000
Overall: $R = .352$, $R^2 = .124$, Adjusted $R^2 = .121$, $F(1, 298) = 42.276$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.788					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 2a: Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.

This hypothesis was tested using trust in top management as a predictor of affective commitment. The regression results (Table 5.12 below) revealed that trust in top management explained 42.9 percent of the variance (R^2) in affective commitment, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 284) = 213.758$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.655$, $t = 14.620$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the data offered support for Hypothesis 2a.

Table 5.12: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2a

Dependent Variable: Affective commitment

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.328	.207		6.411	.000
Trust in top management	.893	.061	.655	14.620	.000
Overall: $R = .655$, $R^2 = .429$, Adjusted $R^2 = .427$, $F(1, 284) = 213.758$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.662					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 2b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.

To test this hypothesis, subgroup analysis was done according to the three-step procedure aforesaid. The results are presented in Table 5.13 below. The first thing noted was that the independent groups t-test confirmed the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -23.374$, $df = 220$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of affective commitment on trust in top management (TITM) for the two subgroups, the difference in the B coefficients of TITM between the low and high SMRM subgroups was statistically significant ($t = -2.623$, $df = 282$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, the moderating effect of SMRM as hypothesized in Hypothesis 2b was substantiated.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that trust in top management had a greater, positive impact on affective commitment when SMRM was perceived to be low. Alternatively, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a lesser impact on affective commitment. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 38.9 percent in the low SMRM condition to 22.7 percent in the high SMRM condition, indicating that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on affective commitment.

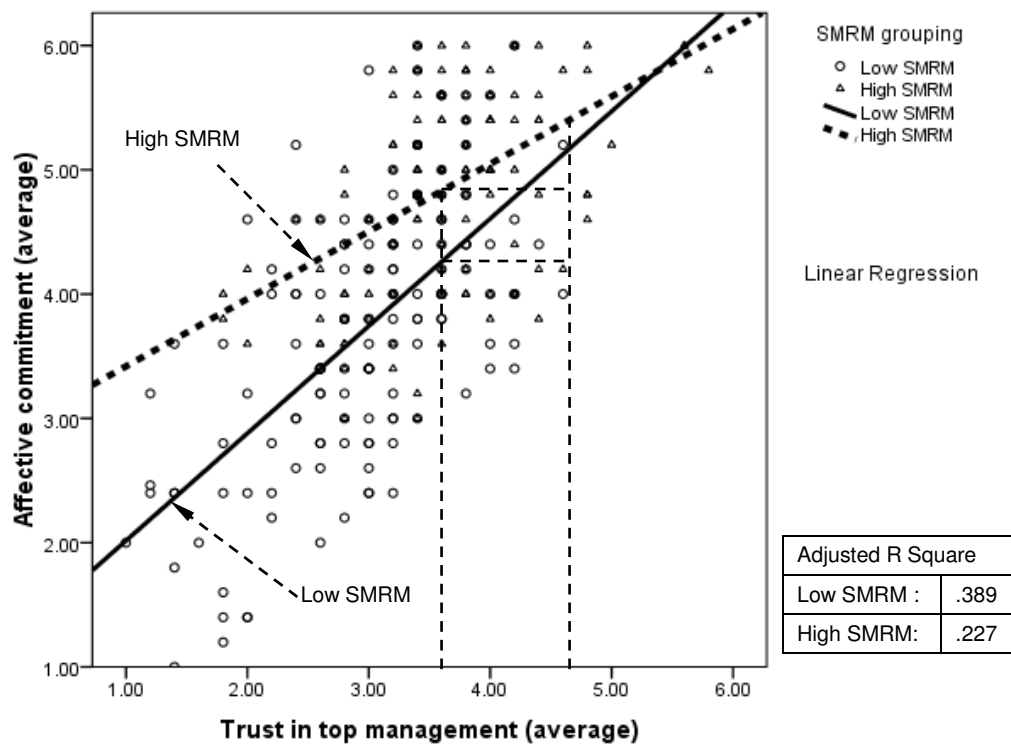
Table 5.13: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2b

Regressions of Affective Commitment (AC) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	SD	B	SE	
Low SMRM	147	2.980	.995	.864	.089	.389
High SMRM	139	5.148	.510	.543	.084	.227
Total	286	4.034	1.346			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -23.374$, $df = 220$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = -2.623$, $df = 282$, $p < .01$ (2-tailed)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, caused by SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.1). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of affective commitment (AC) in the high SMRM subgroup was higher than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding decrease in AC in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.1: WA Study – Regression of Affective Commitment on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 3a: Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.

For the test of this hypothesis, regression was done with trust in top management as a predictor of job satisfaction. The regression results (Table 5.14 below) showed that trust in top management explained 25.4 percent of the variance (R^2) in job satisfaction, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 277) = 94.199$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.504$, $t = 9.706$, $p < 0.001$). Hence, the data offered support for Hypothesis 3a.

Table 5.14: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3a

Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	2.798	.191		14.671	.000
Trust in top management	.546	.056	.504	9.706	.000
Overall: $R = .504$, $R^2 = .254$, Adjusted $R^2 = .251$, $F(1, 277) = 94.199$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.816					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 3b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.

To test this hypothesis, subgroup analysis was done according to the three-step procedure aforesaid. The results are presented in Table 5.15 below. The first thing noted was that the independent groups t-test confirmed the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -22.460$, $df = 222$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of job satisfaction on trust in top management (TITM) for the two subgroups, the difference in the B coefficients of TITM between the low and high SMRM subgroups was statistically significant ($t = -2.477$, $df = 275$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the moderating effect of SMRM as hypothesized in Hypothesis 3b was substantiated.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that trust in top management had a greater, positive impact on job satisfaction when SMRM was perceived to be low. Alternatively, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a lesser impact on job satisfaction. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 24.5 percent in the low SMRM condition to a mere 8.4 percent in the high SMRM condition, indicating that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on job satisfaction.

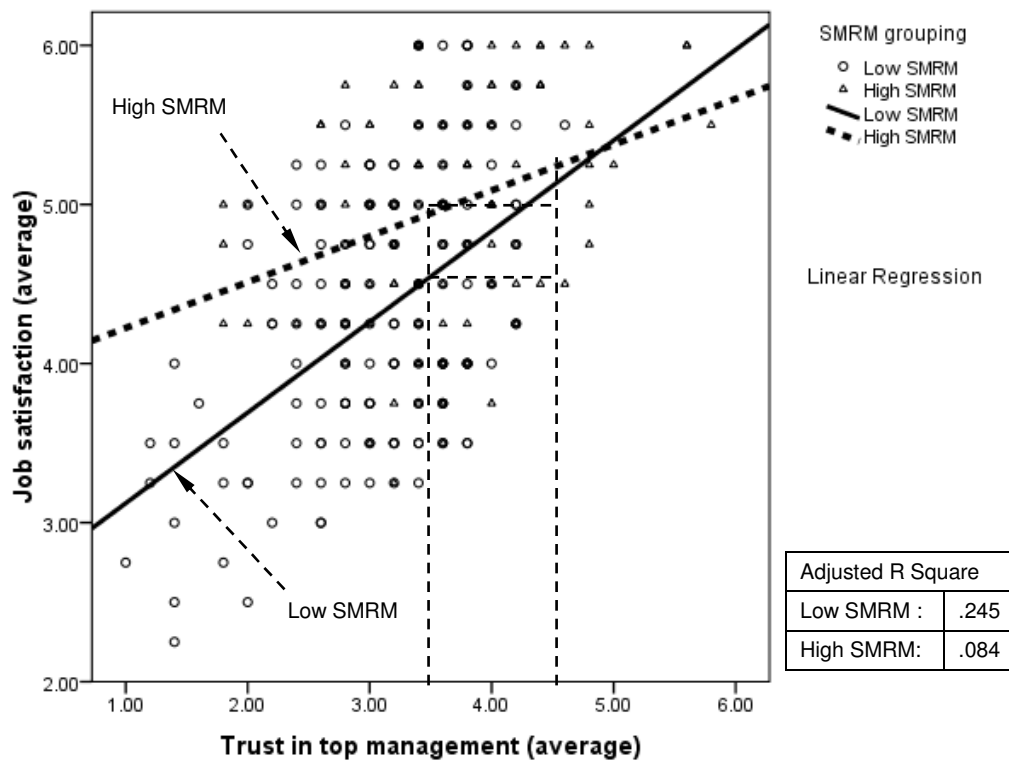
Table 5.15: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3b

Regressions of Job Satisfaction (JS) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	SD	B	SE	
Low SMRM	153	3.163	1.016	.570	.080	.245
High SMRM	126	5.230	.465	.288	.081	.084
Total	279	4.097	1.313			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -22.460$, $df = 222$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = -2.477$, $df = 275$, $p < .02$ (2-tailed)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, arising from SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.2). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of job satisfaction (JS) in the high SMRM subgroup was higher than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding decrease in JS in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.2: WA Study – Regression of Job Satisfaction on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 4a: Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.

This hypothesis was tested using trust in top management as a predictor of turnover intention. The regression results (Table 5.16 below) showed that trust in top management explained 19.4 percent of the variance (R^2) in turnover intention, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 278) = 66.717$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = -0.440$, $t = -8.168$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the data offered support for Hypothesis 4a.

Table 5.16: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4a

Dependent Variable: Turnover intention					
Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	5.412	.322		16.800	.000
Trust in top management	-.777	.095	-.440	-8.168	.000
Overall: $R = .440$, $R^2 = .194$, Adjusted $R^2 = .191$, $F(1, 278) = 66.717$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.492					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 4b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.

To test this hypothesis, subgroup analysis was done according to the three-step procedure aforesaid. The results are presented in Table 5.17 below. The first thing noted was that the independent groups t-test confirmed the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -23.018$, $df = 220$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of turnover intention on trust in top management for the two subgroups, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 15.4 percent in the low SMRM subgroup to a mere 5.7 percent in the high SMRM subgroup. This statistics suggested that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on turnover intention.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger negative B coefficient of trust in top management indicating that trust in top management had a stronger, negative relationship with turnover intention when SMRM was perceived to be low. Conversely, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a smaller negative B coefficient, and thus a weaker, negative relationship with turnover intention. Statistically, the difference in the B coefficients of trust in top management between the low and high SMRM subgroups was marginally significant ($t = 1.832$, $df = 276$, $p < 0.10$, or $p = 0.053$ by interpolation of t-values), thus lending marginal support for Hypothesis 4b.

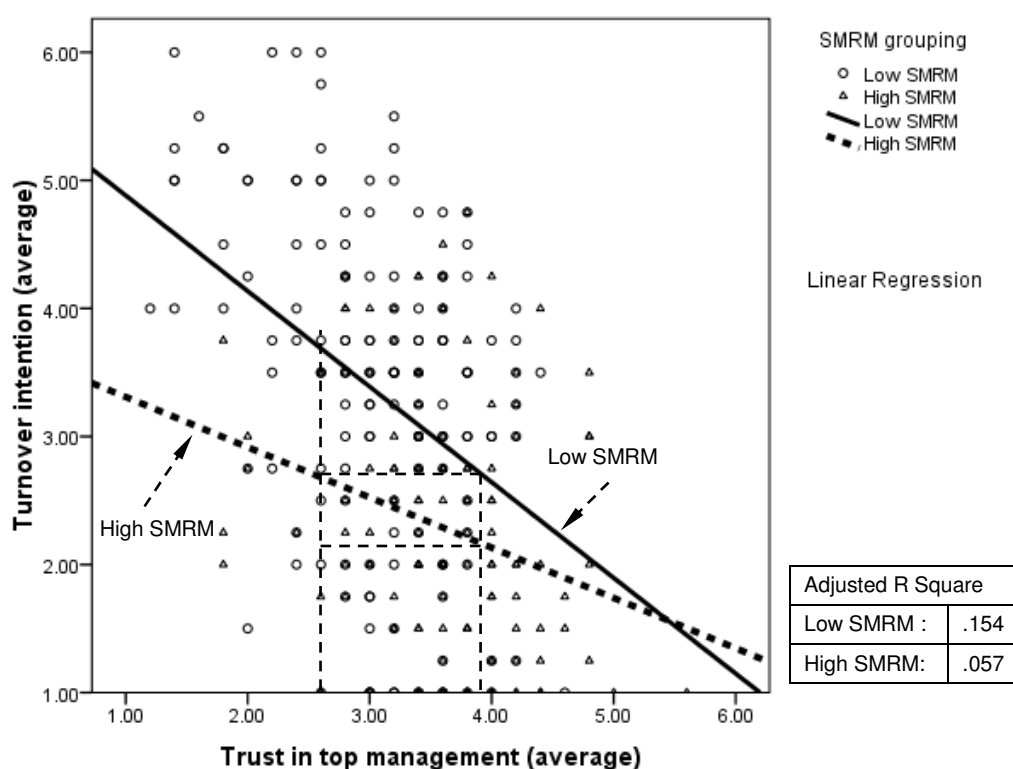
Table 5.17: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4b

Regressions of Turnover Intention (TI) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	SD	B	SE	
Low SMRM	145	3.029	.966	-.746	.143	.154
High SMRM	135	5.129	.505	-.392	.130	.057
Total	280	4.041	1.307			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -23.018$, $df = 220$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = 1.832$, $df = 276$, $p < .10$ (2-tailed) ($p = 0.053$ by interpolation of t-values)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, created by SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.3). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of turnover intention (TI) in the high SMRM subgroup was lower than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding increase in TI in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.3: WA Study – Regression of Turnover Intention on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 5a: Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.

For the test of this hypothesis, regression was done with trust in top management as a predictor of intention-to-return. The regression results (Table 5.18 below) revealed that trust in top management explained 35.0 percent of the variance (R^2) in intention-to-return, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 283) = 152.408$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.592$, $t = 12.345$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the data offered support for Hypothesis 5a.

Table 5.18: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5a

Dependent Variable: Intention-to-return					
Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.619	.226		7.179	.000
Trust in top management	.823	.067	.592	12.345	.000
Overall: $R = .592$, $R^2 = .350$, Adjusted $R^2 = .348$, $F(1, 283) = 152.408$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.880					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 5b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return.

To test this hypothesis, subgroup analysis was done according to the three-step procedure aforesaid. The results are presented in Table 5.19 below. The first thing noted was that the independent groups t-test confirmed the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -22.529$, $df = 211$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of intention-to-return on trust in top management (TITM) for the two subgroups, the difference in the B coefficients of TITM between the low and high SMRM subgroups was statistically significant ($t = -3.430$, $df = 281$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, the moderating effect of SMRM as hypothesized in Hypothesis 5b was substantiated.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that trust in top management had a greater, positive impact on intention-to-return when SMRM was perceived to be low. Alternatively, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a lesser impact on intention-to-return. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 33.5 percent in the low SMRM condition to 15.0 percent in the high SMRM condition, indicating that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on intention-to-return.

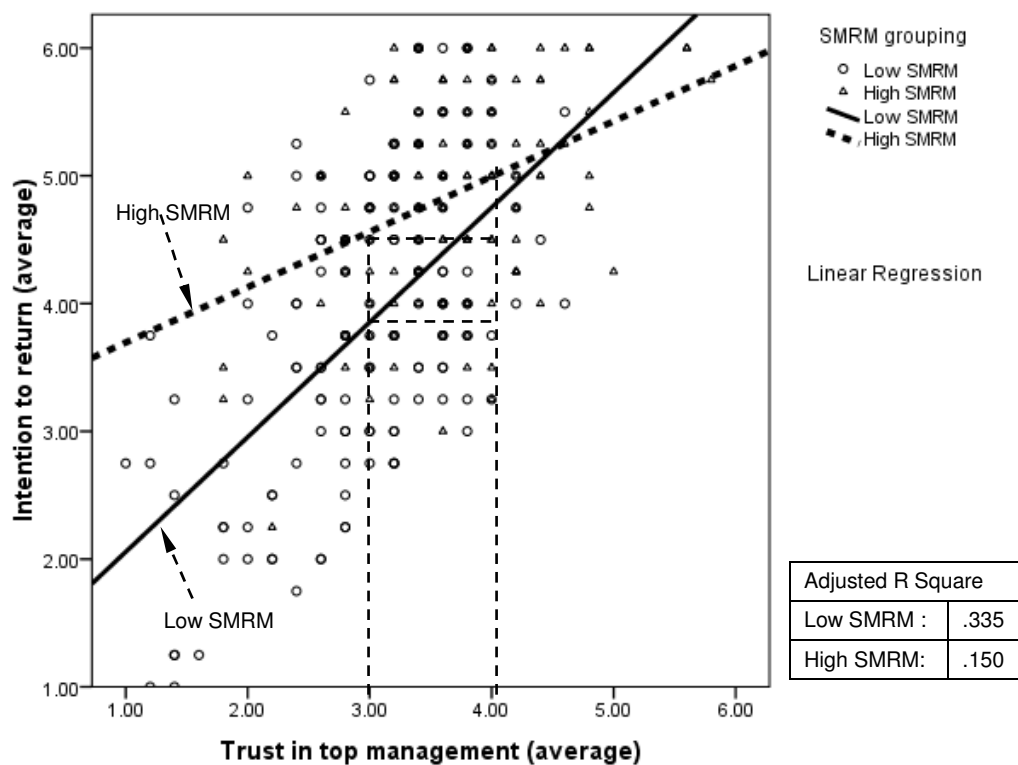
Table 5.19: WA Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5b

Regressions of Intention-to-Return (ITR) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	S.D.	B	SE	
Low SMRM	143	3.003	1.008	.899	.106	.335
High SMRM	142	5.135	.512	.433	.085	.150
Total	285	4.065	1.334			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -22.529$, $df = 211$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = -3.430$, $df = 281$, $p < .002$ (2-tailed)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, caused by SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.4). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of intention-to-return (ITR) in the high SMRM subgroup was higher than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding decrease in ITR in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.4: WA Study – Regression of Intention-to-Return on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Turning from the WA study to the SIN study, the hypothesis testing procedures above-mentioned were repeated on the SIN data set and the results of which are discussed in the next subsection.

Results of Hypothesis Testing Done on the SIN Data

Repetition of the foregoing hypothesis testing procedures on the SIN data yielded the following results.

Hypothesis 1a: Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.

The regression results (Table 5.20 below) showed that the three predictors explained 63.5 percent of the variance (R^2) in trust in top management, which was statistically significant – $F(3, 195) = 113.197$, $p < 0.001$. Top management's ability ($\beta = 0.195$, $t = 2.534$, $p < 0.05$) and top management's integrity ($\beta = 0.753$, $t = 7.683$, $p < 0.001$) were statistically significant as individual predictors while top management's benevolence was not ($\beta = 0.145$, $t = 1.666$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, the data supported top management's ability and integrity as predictors of trust in top management but did not offer support for top management's benevolence.

Table 5.20: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	TOL	VIF
Constant	1.018	.153		6.641	.000		
Top management's ability	.152	.060	.195	2.534	.012	.317	3.156
Top management's benevolence	.115	.069	.145	1.666	.097	.247	4.041
Top management's integrity	.582	.076	.753	7.683	.000	.195	5.138
Overall: Multiple R = .797, $R^2 = .635$, Adjusted $R^2 = .630$, $F(3, 195) = 113.197$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.432							

Source: Analysis of survey data

Further examination of the above table showed that the TOL for top management's integrity was below 0.2 indicating a potential multicollinearity problem and was worthy of concern (Field 2005; Menard 1995). As a further test, a hierarchical regression analysis was done with top management's ability and top management's benevolence (both entered first), as well as top management's integrity (entered last) as predictors of trust in top management. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 5.20A below. At the first step, it was noted that both top management's ability and top management's benevolence together

explained 52.5 percent of the variance in trust in top management, and top management's benevolence was a significant predictor ($\beta = 0.282$, $t = 3.710$, $p < 0.001$).

At the second step, it was noted that top management's integrity made a significant contribution to the variance of trust in top management ($\Delta R^2 = 0.110$, $p < 0.001$). Further examination of the table below revealed that top management's benevolence was no longer a significant predictor when top management's integrity was entered into the regression equation. In other words, these two variables were significantly and highly correlated such that top management's integrity subsumed top management's benevolence. Thus, top management's benevolence was a salient predictor of trust in top management. However, in combination with top management's integrity, its effect was insignificant.

Table 5.20A: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1a

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management
Hierarchical Regression

Step 1 Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	Overall
Constant	1.105	.174		6.344	.000	Multiple R = .724 R ² = .525 Adjusted R ² = .520 F(2, 196) = 108.241*
TMA ^a	.379	.059	.486	6.384	.000	
TMB ^b	.223	.060	.282	3.710	.000	
Step 2 Predictors						
Constant	1.018	.153		6.641	.000	Multiple R = .797 R ² = .635 Adjusted R ² = .630 F(3, 195) = 113.197* $\Delta R^2 = .110^*$
TMA ^a	.152	.060	.195	2.534	.012	
TMB ^b	.115	.069	.145	1.666	.097	
TMI ^c	.582	.076	.753	7.683	.000	

^a TMA = Top management's ability, ^b TMB = Top management's benevolence

^c TMI = Top management's integrity, * $p = .000$

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1b: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.

The regression results (Table 5.21 below) indicated that group cohesiveness accounted for 21.0 percent of the variance (R^2) in top management's ability, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 208) = 55.351, p < 0.001$. Group cohesiveness was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.458, t = 7.440, p < 0.001$). Thus, the data offered support for Hypothesis 1b.

Table 5.21: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1b

Dependent Variable: Top management's ability

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	2.173	.296		7.330	.000
Group cohesiveness	.482	.065	.458	7.440	.000
Overall: $R = .458, R^2 = .210, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .206, F(1, 208) = 55.351, p = .000, \text{Durbin-Watson} = 1.200$					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1c: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.

The regression results (Table 5.22 below) showed that group cohesiveness explained 21.5 percent of the variance (R^2) in top management's benevolence, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 209) = 57.372, p < 0.001$. Group cohesiveness was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.464, t = 7.574, p < 0.001$). Hence, the data offered support for Hypothesis 1c.

Table 5.22: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1c

Dependent Variable: Top management's benevolence

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.653	.302		5.481	.000
Group cohesiveness	.501	.066	.464	7.574	.000
Overall: $R = .464, R^2 = .215, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .212, F(1, 209) = 57.372, p = .000, \text{Durbin-Watson} = 1.471$					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1d: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.

The regression results (Table 5.23 below) revealed that group cohesiveness accounted for 21.5 percent of the variance (R^2) in top management's integrity, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 209) = 57.207$, $p < 0.001$. Group cohesiveness was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.464$, $t = 7.564$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the data offered support for Hypothesis 1d.

Table 5.23: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 1d

Dependent Variable: Top management's integrity

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.786	.310		5.756	.000
Group cohesiveness	.514	.068	.464	7.564	.000
Overall: $R = .464$, $R^2 = .215$, Adjusted $R^2 = .211$, $F(1, 209) = 57.207$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.193					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 2a: Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.

The regression results (Table 5.24 below) indicated that trust in top management explained 54.9 percent of the variance (R^2) in affective commitment, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 197) = 239.735$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.741$, $t = 15.483$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the data offered support for Hypothesis 2a.

Table 5.24: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2a

Dependent Variable: Affective commitment

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.321	.195		6.783	.000
Trust in top management	.801	.052	.741	15.483	.000
Overall: $R = .741$, $R^2 = .549$, Adjusted $R^2 = .547$, $F(1, 197) = 239.735$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.840					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 2b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.

The subgroup analysis results are presented in Table 5.25 below. The first thing noted was the independent groups t-test confirming the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -18.357$, $df = 169$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of affective commitment on trust in top management (TITM) for the two subgroups, the difference in the B coefficients of TITM between the low and high SMRM subgroups was statistically significant ($t = -1.985$, $df = 195$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the moderating effect of SMRM as hypothesized in Hypothesis 2b was substantiated.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that trust in top management had a greater, positive impact on affective commitment when SMRM was perceived to be low. Alternatively, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a lesser impact on affective commitment. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 45.0 percent in the low SMRM condition to 42.0 percent in the high SMRM condition, indicating that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on affective commitment.

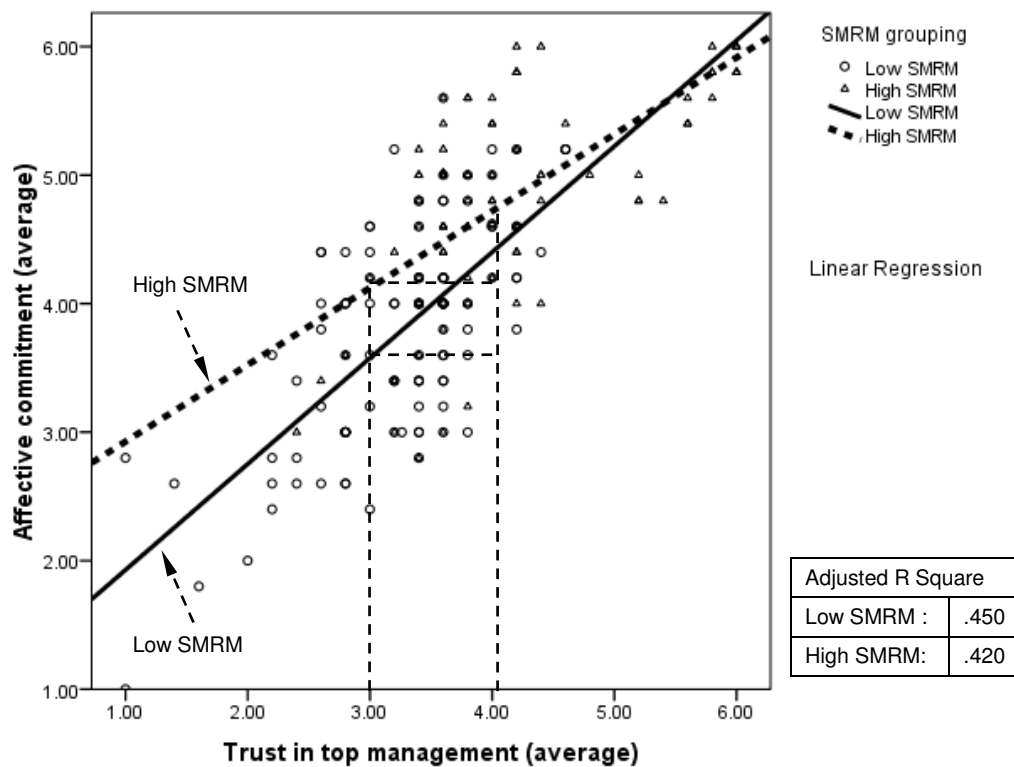
Table 5.25: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 2b

Regressions of Affective Commitment (AC) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	S.D.	B	SE	
Low SMRM	108	3.504	.861	.824	.088	.450
High SMRM	91	5.262	.459	.597	.073	.420
Total	199	4.308	1.126			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -18.357$, $df = 169$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = -1.985$, $df = 195$, $p < .05$ (2-tailed)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, arising from SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.5). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of affective commitment (AC) in the high SMRM subgroup was higher than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding decrease in AC in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.5: SIN Study – Regression of Affective Commitment on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 3a: Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.

The regression results (Table 5.26 below) indicated that trust in top management accounted for 51.1 percent of the variance (R^2) in job satisfaction, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 189) = 197.679$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.715$, $t = 14.060$, $p < 0.001$). Hence, the data offered support for Hypothesis 3a.

Table 5.26: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3a

Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction					
Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.595	.200		7.964	.000
Trust in top management	.744	.053	.715	14.060	.000
Overall: $R = .715$, $R^2 = .511$, Adjusted $R^2 = .509$, $F(1, 189) = 197.679$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.534					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 3b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.

The subgroup analysis results are presented in Table 5.27 below. The first thing noted was the independent groups t-test confirming the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -17.664$, $df = 152$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of job satisfaction on trust in top management (TITM) for the two subgroups, the difference in the B coefficients of TITM between the low and high SMRM subgroups was statistically significant ($t = -1.967$, $df = 187$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the moderating effect of SMRM as hypothesized in Hypothesis 3b was substantiated.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that trust in top management had a greater, positive impact on job satisfaction when SMRM was perceived to be low. Alternatively, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a lesser impact on job satisfaction. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 44.4 percent in the low SMRM condition to 37.4 percent in the high SMRM condition, indicating that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on job satisfaction.

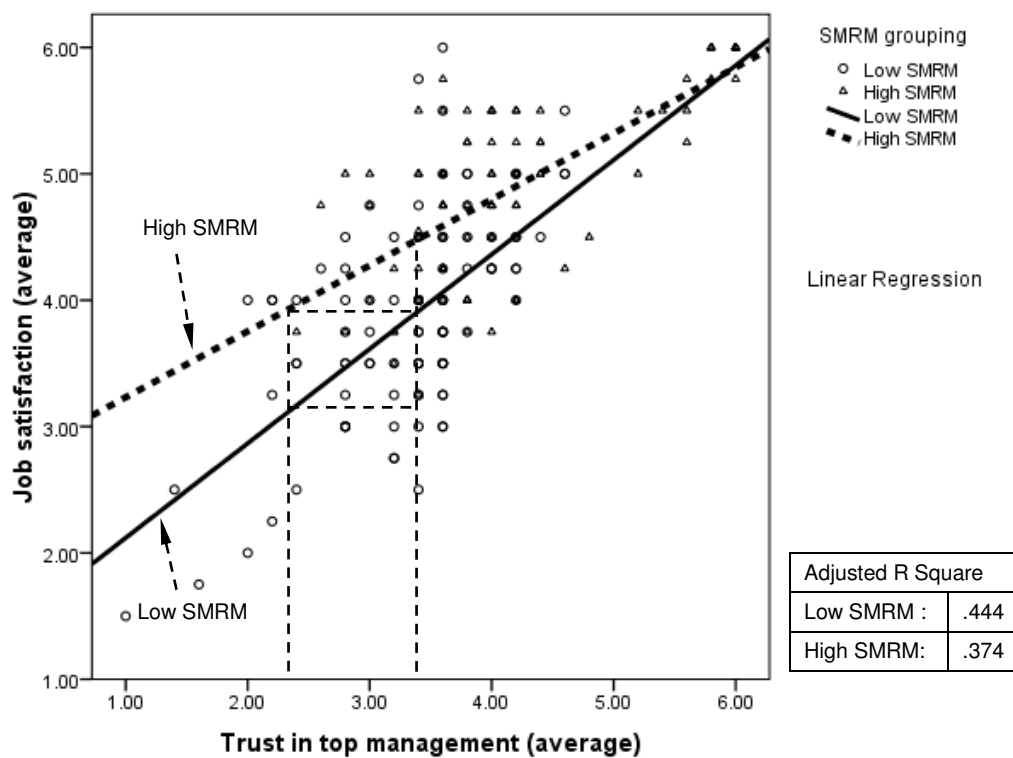
Table 5.27: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 3b

Regressions of Job Satisfaction (JS) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	S.D.	B	SE	
Low SMRM	96	3.367	.882	.748	.098	.444
High SMRM	95	5.203	.506	.522	.060	.374
Total	191	4.280	1.168			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -17.664$, $df = 152$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = -1.967$, $df = 187$, $p < .05$ (2-tailed)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, created by SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.6). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of job satisfaction (JS) in the high SMRM subgroup was higher than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding decrease in JS in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.6: SIN Study – Regression of Job Satisfaction on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 4a: Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.

The regression results (Table 5.28 below) revealed that trust in top management explained 38.0 percent of the variance (R^2) in turnover intention, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 189) = 115.888$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = -0.617$, $t = -10.765$, $p < 0.001$). Hence, the data offered support for Hypothesis 4a.

Table 5.28: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4a

Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	5.907	.306		19.290	.000
Trust in top management	-.871	.081	-.617	-10.765	.000
Overall: $R = .617$, $R^2 = .380$, Adjusted $R^2 = .377$, $F(1, 189) = 115.888$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 1.685					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 4b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.

The subgroup analysis results are presented in Table 5.29 below. The first thing noted was the independent groups t-test confirming the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -17.592$, $df = 150$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of turnover intention on trust in top management for the two subgroups, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 36.6 percent in the low SMRM subgroup to 24.4 percent in the high SMRM subgroup. This statistics suggested that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on turnover intention.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger negative B coefficient of trust in top management, indicating that trust in top management had a stronger, negative relationship with turnover intention when SMRM was perceived to be low. Conversely, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a smaller negative B coefficient, and thus a weaker, negative relationship with turnover intention. Statistically, the difference in the B coefficients of trust in top management between the low and high SMRM subgroups was marginally significant ($t = 1.841$, $df = 187$, $p < 0.10$, or $p = 0.053$ by interpolation of t-values), thus lending marginal support for Hypothesis 4b.

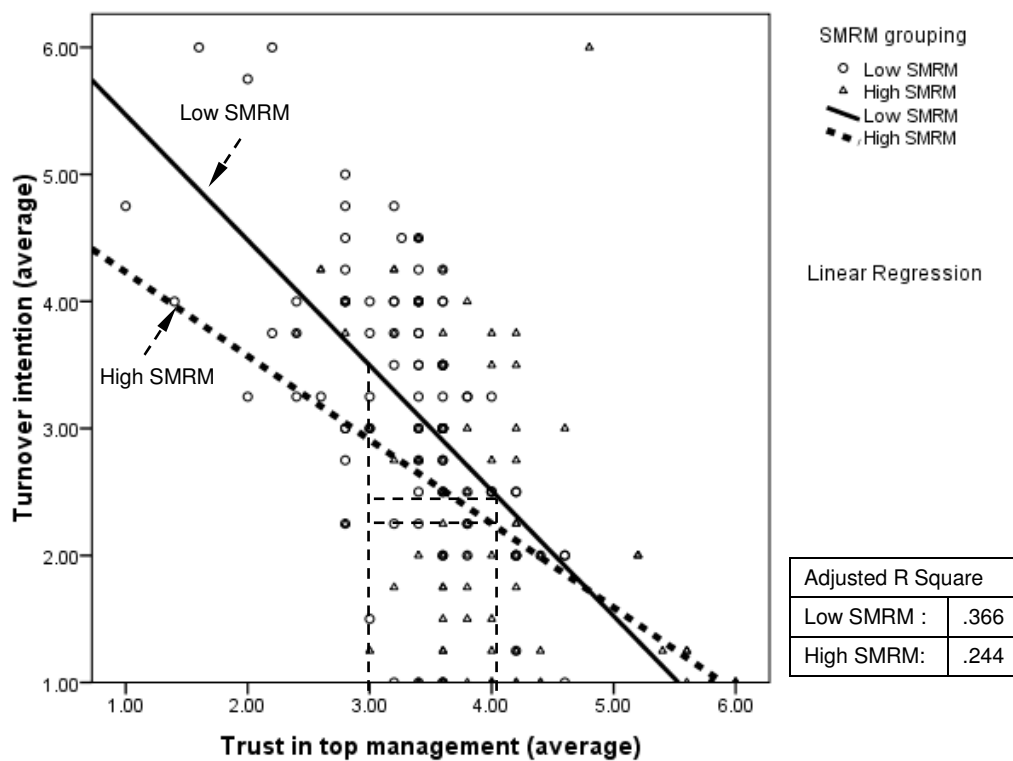
Table 5.29: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 4b

Regressions of Turnover Intention (TI) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	S.D.	B Coefficients	SE	
Low SMRM	96	3.360	.907	-.986	.132	.366
High SMRM	95	5.232	.511	-.660	.118	.244
Total	191	4.291	1.192			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -17.592$, $df = 150$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = 1.841$, $df = 187$, $p < .10$ (2-tailed) ($p = 0.053$ by interpolation of t-values)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, caused by SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.7). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of turnover intention (TI) in the high SMRM subgroup was lower than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding increase in TI in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.7: SIN Study – Regression of Turnover Intention on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 5a: Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.

The regression results (Table 5.30 below) showed that trust in top management explained 51.5 percent of the variance (R^2) in intention-to-return, which was statistically significant – $F(1, 198) = 210.297$, $p < 0.001$. Trust in top management was statistically significant as a predictor ($\beta = 0.718$, $t = 14.502$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the data offered support for Hypothesis 5a.

Table 5.30: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5a

Dependent Variable: Intention-to-return

Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Constant	1.260	.209		6.036	.000
Trust in top management	.802	.055	.718	14.502	.000
Overall: $R = .718$, $R^2 = .515$, Adjusted $R^2 = .513$, $F(1, 198) = 210.297$, $p = .000$, Durbin-Watson = 2.021					

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 5b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention to return.

The subgroup analysis results are presented in Table 5.31 below. The first thing noted was the independent groups t-test confirming the two subgroups to be significantly different in senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) scores as required ($t = -18.066$, $df = 157$, $p < 0.001$). Next, referring to the regressions of intention-to-return on trust in top management (TITM) for the two subgroups, the difference in the B coefficients of TITM between the low and high SMRM subgroups was statistically significant ($t = -2.296$, $df = 196$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the moderating effect of SMRM as hypothesized in Hypothesis 5b was substantiated.

Further, the low SMRM subgroup had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that trust in top management had a greater, positive impact on intention-to-return when SMRM was perceived to be low. Alternatively, when SMRM was perceived to be high, trust in top management had a lesser impact on intention-to-return. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 dropped from 48.2 percent in the low SMRM condition to 36.1 percent in the high SMRM condition, indicating that when SMRM was high, trust in top management had relatively lower influence on intention-to-return.

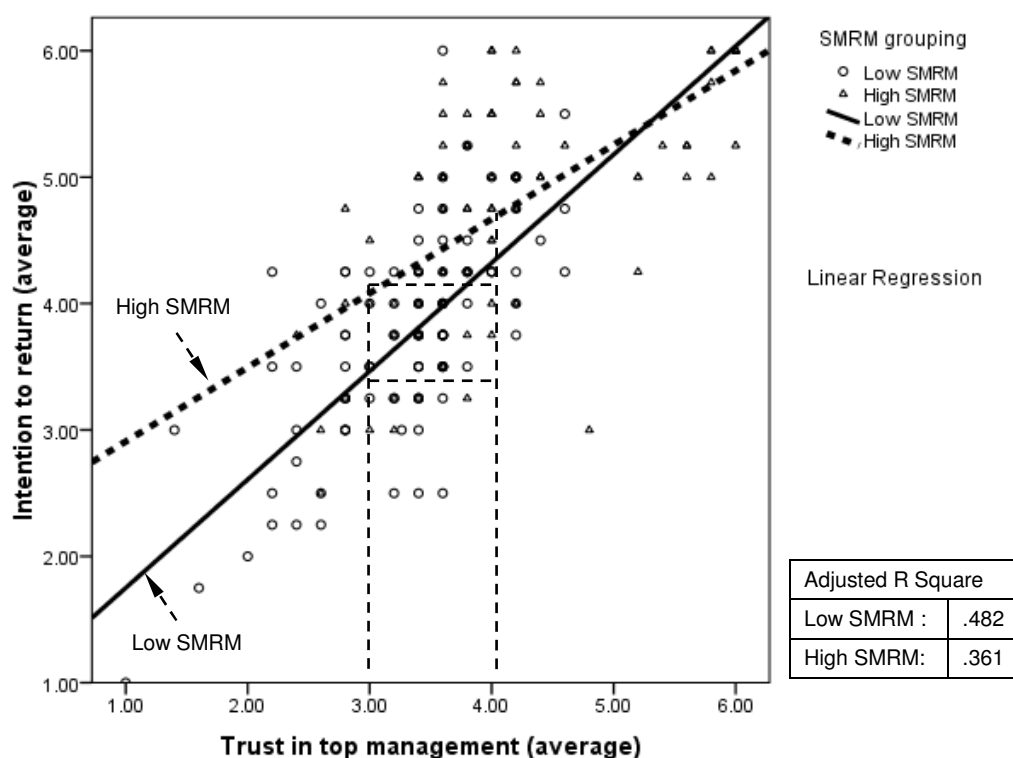
Table 5.31: SIN Study – Statistics for Hypothesis 5b

Regressions of Intention-to-Return (ITR) on Trust in Top Management (TITM) for Two Subgroups Divided at the Median of Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)						
Statistics of SMRM				Coefficients of TITM for Subgroups		Adj. R^2
Subgroups	N	Mean	S.D.	B	SE	
Low SMRM	101	3.333	.914	.857	.088	.482
High SMRM	99	5.217	.508	.587	.078	.361
Total	200	4.265	1.199			
Test for significance of difference in SMRM means between two subgroups:				Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients (Arnold's (1982) formula in chapter 4):		
$t = -18.066$, $df = 157$, $p = .000$ (2-tailed)				$t = -2.296$, $df = 196$, $p < .05$ (2-tailed)		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In addition, the improved trusting relationship between top management and employees, arising from SMRM, can be visualized in the interactive graph below (Figure 5.8). Particularly, at any level of trust in top management (TITM), the corresponding level of intention-to-return (ITR) in the high SMRM subgroup was higher than that in the low SMRM subgroup. Also, for every unit decrease in TITM, the corresponding decrease in ITR in the high SMRM subgroup was smaller than that in the low SMRM subgroup.

Figure 5.8: SIN Study – Regression of Intention-to-Return on Trust in Top Management for Low & High SMRM Subgroups



Source: Analysis of survey data

Having obtained the results of hypothesis testing done on both the WA and SIN data aforesaid, the next section compares the resulted regression models/lines for the relevant hypotheses across the two countries.

COMPARISONS OF REGRESSION MODELS/LINES BETWEEN WA AND SIN: ASSESSING THE EFFECTS OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES ACROSS WA AND SIN

This section employs statistical tests for equality of regression parameters described in chapter 4 to compare the resulted regression models/lines of hypothesis testing for WA and SIN (excluding hypotheses 2b, 3b, 4b and 5b) to assess the potential effects of cultural differences on the research findings. These included the use of Chow (1960) test, Arnold's (1982) T-test, and GLM (General Linear Model) procedure.

Hypothesis 1a: Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.

Referring to Tables 5.32 and 5.33 below, Chow test: $F(4, 466) = 15.279$, $p < 0.05$ confirmed that the regression models of trust in top management for WA and SIN differed significantly. This difference in models was clearly attributable to the significant difference in the slopes of top management's integrity ($F = 15.476$, $p < 0.001$). Of which, the SIN model had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that its top management's integrity had greater positive impact, and exerted a greater positive influence to the variance of trust in top management ($\Delta R^2 = 0.635 - 0.581$). Finally, the equality of error variance of trust in top management across countries [Levene's test: $F(1, 472) = 1.745$, $p > 0.05$] enhanced the reliability of the above tests.

Table 5.32: Test for Equality of Regression Models across Two Countries

Regressions of Trust in Top Management on Top Management's Ability, Top Management's Benevolence, and Top Management's Integrity									
Sample	R	R ²	Adj R ²	F	df1	df2	Sig.	n	RSS
WA+SIN dataset	.760	.578	.575	214.415	3	470	.000	474	115.751
1. WA sample	.762	.581	.576	125.321	3	271	.000	275	53.498
2. SIN sample	.797	.635	.630	113.197	3	195	.000	199	48.832

* Chow test: $F(4, 466) = 15.279$, $p < .05$, for critical value of $F(4, 466)$ at .05 level is 2.40

*Chow (1960) test: $F = [RSS - (RSS_1 + RSS_2)]/k \div [(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n - 2k)] \sim F(k, n - 2k)$ (Doran 1989; Seddighi, Lawler & Katos 2000) as described in chapter 4 where,
 RSS is residual sum of squares of the regression line for the WA & SIN combined dataset
 RSS₁ & RSS₂ are residual sum of squares of the regression lines for WA & SIN samples
 k = number of parameters of the regression model (including the intercept term)
 n = number of cases

If F is significantly large, a different regression model applies across the two countries

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.33: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management

Predictors	1. WA Sample		2. SIN Sample		Tests of Between-Countries Effects*		
	B ₁	SE ₁	B ₂	SE ₂	Source	F	Sig.
Constant	1.150	.116	1.018	.153	Country	.489	.485
TMA ^a	.248	.041	.152	.060	Country*TMA ^a	1.828	.177
TMB ^b	.033	.045	.115	.069	Country*TMB ^b	3.403	.066
TMI ^c	.237	.049	.582	.076	Country*TMI ^c	15.476	.000

^a TMA = Top management's ability^b TMB = Top management's benevolence^c TMI = Top management's integrity

* Extracted from GLM Procedure

Levene's Test of Equality of Error**Variances:** $F(1, 472) = 1.745, p = .187$

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1b: Group cohesiveness influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.

The results (Table 5.34 below) indicated no significant difference in the slopes ($t = 0.540, df = 506, p > 0.05$) of the regression lines of top management's ability for WA and SIN. Thus, the positive relationship of group cohesiveness with top management's ability for WA and SIN was not significantly different.

Table 5.34: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Top management's ability

WA Sample $n_1 = 300$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 210$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of GC ^a : t = .540, df = 506, p > .05 (2-tailed)
Predictors	B ₁	SE ₁	B ₂	SE ₂	
Constant	2.323	.269	2.173	.296	
GC ^a	.435	.058	.482	.065	
	Adj. R ² = .154		Adj. R ² = .206		

^a GC = Group cohesiveness

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1c: Group cohesiveness influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.

Referring to Table 5.35 below, it was noted no significant difference in the slopes ($t = 1.648$, $df = 508$, $p > 0.05$) of the regression lines of top management's benevolence for WA and SIN. Thus, the positive relationship of group cohesiveness with top management's benevolence for WA and SIN was not significantly different.

Table 5.35: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Top management's benevolence

WA Sample $n_1 = 301$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 211$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of GC ^a : $t = 1.648$, $df = 508$, $p > .05$ (2-tailed)
Predictors	B_1	SE_1	B_2	SE_2	
Constant	2.160	.310	1.653	.302	
GC ^a	.346	.067	.501	.066	
	Adj. $R^2 = .079$		Adj. $R^2 = .212$		

^a GC = Group cohesiveness

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 1d: Group cohesiveness influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.

The results (Table 5.36 below) revealed no significant difference in the slopes ($t = 0.989$, $df = 507$, $p > 0.05$) of the regression lines of top management's integrity for WA and SIN. Thus, the positive relationship of group cohesiveness with top management's integrity for WA and SIN was not significantly different.

Table 5.36: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Top management's integrity

WA Sample $n_1 = 300$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 211$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of GC ^a : $t = 0.989$, $df = 507$, $p > .05$ (2-tailed)
Predictors	B_1	SE_1	B_2	SE_2	
Constant	2.032	.298	1.786	.310	
GC ^a	.421	.065	.514	.068	
	Adj. $R^2 = .121$		Adj. $R^2 = .211$		

^a GC = Group cohesiveness

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 2a: Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.

The results (Table 5.37 below) showed no significant difference in the slopes ($t = -1.148$, $df = 481$, $p > 0.05$) of the regression lines of affective commitment for WA and SIN. Thus, the positive relationship of trust in top management with affective commitment was not significantly different across the two countries.

Table 5.37: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Affective commitment

WA Sample $n_1 = 286$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 199$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of TITM ^a : $t = -1.148$, $df = 481$, $p > .05$ (2-tailed)
Predictors	B_1	SE_1	B_2	SE_2	
Constant	1.328	.207	1.321	.195	
TITM ^a	.893	.061	.801	.052	
Adj. $R^2 = .427$			Adj. $R^2 = .547$		

^a TITM = Trust in top management

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 3a: Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.

The results (Table 5.38 below) revealed significant difference in the slopes ($t = 2.568$, $df = 466$, $p < 0.05$) of the regression lines of job satisfaction for WA and SIN. Thus, the positive relationship of trust in top management with job satisfaction differed significantly across the two countries. The SIN model had a larger positive B coefficient of trust in top management indicating that its trust in top management had greater positive impact on job satisfaction, and exerted a greater positive influence to the variance of job satisfaction ($\Delta \text{Adj. } R^2 = 0.509 - 0.251$).

Table 5.38: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

WA Sample $n_1 = 279$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 191$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of TITM ^a : $t = 2.568$, $df = 466$, $p < .05$ (2-tailed)
Predictors	B_1	SE_1	B_2	SE_2	
Constant	2.798	.191	1.595	.200	
TITM ^a	.546	.056	.744	.053	
Adj. $R^2 = .251$			Adj. $R^2 = .509$		

^a TITM = Trust in top management

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 4a: Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.

The results (Table 5.39 below) indicated no significant difference in the slopes ($t = -0.753$, $df = 467$, $p > 0.05$) of the regression lines of turnover intention for WA and SIN. Thus, the negative relationship of trust in top management with turnover intention was not significantly different across the two countries.

Table 5.39: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

WA Sample $n_1 = 280$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 191$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of TITM ^a : $t = -0.753$, $df = 467$, $p > .05$ (2-tailed)
Predictors	B_1	SE_1	B_2	SE_2	
Constant	5.412	.322	5.907	.306	
TITM ^a	-.777	.095	-.871	.081	
Adj. $R^2 = .191$			Adj. $R^2 = .377$		

^a TITM = Trust in top management

Source: Analysis of survey data

Hypothesis 5a: Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.

The results (Table 5.40 below) showed no significant difference in the slopes ($t = -0.242$, $df = 481$, $p > 0.05$) of the regression lines of intention-to-return for WA and SIN. Thus, the positive relationship of trust in top management with intention-to-return was not significantly different across the two countries.

Table 5.40: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients across Countries

Dependent Variable: Intention-to-return

WA Sample $n_1 = 285$			SIN Sample $n_2 = 200$		Use of Arnold's (1982) T-test formula in chapter 4 - Test for significance of difference between two B Coefficients of TITM ^a : $t = -0.242$, $df = 481$, $p > .05$ (2-tailed)
Predictors	B_1	SE_1	B_2	SE_2	
Constant	1.619	.226	1.260	.209	
TITM ^a	.823	.067	.802	.055	
Adj. $R^2 = .348$			Adj. $R^2 = .513$		

^a TITM = Trust in top management

Source: Analysis of survey data

For hypothesis 1a, the above results of hypothesis testing done on both the WA and SIN data indicated that top management's integrity subsumed the effects of top management's benevolence, and hence raised the question whether top management's benevolence should remain in the trust model as it is in the theoretical framework. This question is addressed in the section titled 'Tests of Modified Trust Model (MTM)' that follows.

TESTS OF MODIFIED TRUST MODEL (MTM)

To test whether top management's benevolence should remain in the trust model as it is in the theoretical framework, hierarchical regressions were done on both the WA and SIN Data as detailed in the two subsections that follow.

Regression Model for the MTM Based on the WA Data

A hierarchical regression analysis was done with top management's ability and top management's integrity (both entered first), as well as top management's benevolence (entered last) as predictors of trust in top management. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 5.41 below. At the first step, it was noted that both top management's ability and top management's integrity together explained 58.0 percent of the variance (R^2) in trust in top management, which was statistically significant – $F(2, 272) = 188.033, p < 0.001$. Top management's ability ($\beta = 0.381, t = 6.275, p < 0.001$) and top management's integrity ($\beta = 0.430, t = 7.067, p < 0.001$) were statistically significant as individual predictors.

At the second step, it was noted that top management's benevolence ($\beta = 0.054, t = 0.733, p > 0.05$) made insignificant contribution to the variance of trust in top management ($\Delta R^2 = 0.001, p > 0.05$). Moreover, Table 5.41 below revealed that the Step 1 regression model had its adjusted R^2 value closer to R^2 than did the Step 2 regression model, and so the former had better cross-validity than the latter. The closer the adjusted R^2 value to the R^2 , the better is the cross-validity of the regression model, and hence the better is the generalisability of the model to other samples from the same population (Field 2005). Accordingly, the results offered justifications for dropping top management's benevolence as a predictor of trust in top management, which led to the development of the modified trust model (MTM) retaining top management's ability, and top management's integrity as strong predictors.

To further assess the cross-validity of the regression model for the MTM, the sample was randomly split into two sub-samples of size $n_1 = 139$ and $n_2 = 136$, upon which Chow (1960) test was performed. Referring to Table 5.42 below, Chow test:

$F(3, 269) = 0.013$, $p > 0.05$ confirmed that the same regression model for the MTM applied across the two sub-samples. This means that the regression model for the MTM was stable and generalisable to other samples from the same population.

Table 5.41: WA Study – Statistics for Modified Trust Model (MTM)

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management
Hierarchical Regression

Step 1 Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	Overall
Constant	1.154	.116		9.965	.000	Multiple R = .762
TMA ^a	.254	.040	.381	6.275	.000	$R^2 = .580$
TMI ^c	.261	.037	.430	7.067	.000	Adjusted $R^2 = .577$
Step 2 Predictors						
Constant	1.150	.116		9.912	.000	$F(2, 272) = 188.033^*$
TMA ^a	.248	.041	.372	6.000	.000	Multiple R = .762
TMI ^c	.237	.049	.391	4.836	.000	$R^2 = .581$
TMB ^b	.033	.045	.054	.733	.464	Adjusted $R^2 = .576$
						$F(3, 271) = 125.321^*$
						$\Delta R^2 = .001^{ns}$

^a TMA = Top management's ability, ^b TMB = Top management's benevolence

^c TMI = Top management's integrity, * $p < .001$, ^{ns} $p > .05$

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.42: WA Study –Test for Stability of Regression Model for MTM

Regressions of Trust in Top Management on Top Management's Ability and Top Management's Integrity									
Sample	R	R^2	Adj R^2	F	df1	df2	Sig.	n	RSS
Entire data set	.762	.580	.577	188.033	2	272	.000	275	53.604
Sub-sample 1	.775	.601	.595	102.284	2	136	.000	139	28.760
Sub-sample 2	.744	.554	.547	82.572	2	133	.000	136	24.836
* Chow test: $F(3, 269) = 0.013$, $p > .05$, for critical value of $F(3, 269)$ at the .05 level is 2.63									

* Chow (1960) test: $F = [RSS - (RSS_1 + RSS_2)]/k \div [(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n - 2k)] \sim F(k, n - 2k)$ (Doran 1989; Seddighi, Lawler & Katos 2000) as described in chapter 4 where,

RSS is residual sum of squares of the regression line for the entire data set

RSS_1 & RSS_2 are residual sum of squares of the regression lines for sub-sample 1 & 2

k = number of parameters of the regression model (including the intercept term)

n = number of cases

If F is significantly large, a different regression model applies across the two sub-samples

Source: Analysis of survey data

Regression Model for the MTM Based on the SIN Data

The procedures in the above subsection were repeated on the SIN data and yielded the following results.

The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 5.43 below. At the first step, both top management's ability and top management's integrity together explained 63.0 percent of the variance in trust in top management, which was statistically significant – $F(2, 196) = 166.896, p < 0.001$. Top management's ability ($\beta = 0.170, t = 2.242, p < 0.05$) and top management's integrity ($\beta = 0.649, t = 8.569, p < 0.001$) were statistically significant as individual predictors.

At the second step, it was noted that top management's benevolence ($\beta = -0.145, t = -1.666, p > 0.05$) made insignificant contribution to the variance of trust in top management ($\Delta R^2 = 0.005, p > 0.05$). Moreover, Table 5.43 below revealed that the Step 1 regression model had its adjusted R^2 value closer to R^2 than did the Step 2 regression model, and so the former had better cross-validity than the latter. As with the case of WA data, the results offered justifications for dropping top management's benevolence as a predictor of trust in top management, which led to the development of the modified trust model (MTM) retaining top management's ability, and top management's integrity as strong predictors.

To further assess the cross-validity of the regression model for the MTM, the sample was randomly split into two sub-samples of size $n_1 = 102$ and $n_2 = 97$, upon which Chow (1960) test was performed. Referring to Table 5.44 below, Chow test: $F(3, 193) = 0.476, p > 0.05$ confirmed that the same regression model for the MTM applied across the two sub-samples. That is, the regression model for the MTM was stable and generalisable to other samples from the same population.

Table 5.43: SIN Study – Statistics for Modified Trust Model (MTM)

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management
Hierarchical Regression

Step 1 Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	Overall
Constant	.986	.153		6.454	.000	Multiple R = .794 $R^2 = .630$ Adjusted $R^2 = .626$ $F(2, 196) = 166.896^*$
TMA ^a	.132	.059	.170	2.242	.026	
TMI ^c	.502	.059	.649	8.569	.000	
Step 2 Predictors	B	SE	β	t	Sig.	Overall
Constant	1.018	.153		6.641	.000	Multiple R = .797 $R^2 = .635$ Adjusted $R^2 = .630$ $F(3, 195) = 113.197^*$ $\Delta R^2 = .005^{ns}$
TMA ^a	.152	.060	.195	2.534	.012	
TMI ^c	.582	.076	.753	7.683	.000	
TMB ^b	-.115	.069	-.145	-1.666	.097	

^a TMA = Top management's ability, ^b TMB = Top management's benevolence

^c TMI = Top management's integrity, * $p = .000$, ^{ns} $p > .05$

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.44: SIN Study –Test for Stability of Regression Model for MTM

Regressions of Trust in Top Management on Top Management's Ability and Top Management's Integrity									
Sample	R	R^2	Adj R^2	F	df1	df2	Sig.	n	RSS
Entire data set	.794	.630	.626	166.896	2	196	.000	199	49.527
Sub-sample 1	.799	.639	.632	87.622	2	99	.000	102	26.272
Sub-sample 2	.788	.620	.612	76.832	2	94	.000	97	22.891
* Chow test: $F(3, 193) = 0.476$, $p > .05$, for critical value of $F(3, 193)$ at the .05 level is 2.66									

* Chow (1960) test: $F = [RSS - (RSS_1 + RSS_2)]/k \div [(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n - 2k)] \sim F(k, n - 2k)$
(Doran 1989; Seddighi, Lawler & Katos 2000) as described in chapter 4 where,
RSS is residual sum of squares of the regression line for the entire data set
RSS₁ & RSS₂ are residual sum of squares of the regression lines for sub-sample 1 & 2
k = number of parameters of the regression model (including the intercept term)
n = number of cases

If F is significantly large, a different regression model applies across the two sub-samples

Source: Analysis of survey data

Having obtained the regression models for the MTM based on both the WA and SIN data aforesaid, appropriate statistical tests for equality of regression parameters described in chapter 4 were employed to compare the regression models across the two countries. These included the use of Chow (1960) test and GLM (General Linear Model) procedure as presented in the next subsection.

Comparison of Regression Models for the MTM across WA and SIN

Referring to Tables 5.45 and 5.46 below, Chow test: $F(3, 468) = 19.112$, $p < 0.05$ confirmed that the regression models for the MTM across WA and SIN differed significantly. This difference in models was clearly attributable to the significant difference in the slopes of top management's integrity ($F = 12.886$, $p < 0.001$). Of which, the SIN model had a larger positive B coefficient indicating that its top management's integrity had greater positive impact, and exerted a greater positive influence to the variance of trust in top management ($\Delta R^2 = 0.630 - 0.580$). Finally, the equality of error variance of trust in top management across countries [Levene's test: $F(1, 472) = 2.019$, $p > 0.05$] enhanced the reliability of the above tests.

Table 5.45: Test for Equality of Regression Models for MTM across WA and SIN

Regressions of Trust in Top Management on Top Management's Ability and Top Management's Integrity									
Sample	R	R ²	Adj R ²	F	df1	df2	Sig.	n	RSS
WA+SIN dataset	.760	.578	.576	322.233	2	471	.000	474	115.766
1. WA sample	.762	.580	.577	188.033	2	272	.000	275	53.604
2. SIN sample	.794	.630	.626	166.896	2	196	.000	199	49.527
* Chow test: $F(3, 468) = 19.112$, $p < .05$, for critical value of $F(3, 468)$ at .05 level is 2.62									
*Chow (1960) test: $F = [RSS - (RSS_1 + RSS_2)]/k \div [(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n - 2k)] \sim F(k, n - 2k)$ (Doran 1989; Seddighi, Lawler & Katos 2000) as described in chapter 4 where, RSS is residual sum of squares of the regression line for the WA & SIN combined dataset RSS ₁ & RSS ₂ are residual sum of squares of the regression lines for WA & SIN samples k = number of parameters of the regression model (including the intercept term) n = number of cases If F is significantly large, a different regression model applies across the two countries									

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 5.46: Test for Equality of Regression Coefficients for MTM across WA and SIN

Dependent Variable: Trust in top management

Predictors	1. WA Sample		2. SIN Sample		Tests of Between-Countries Effects*		
	B ₁	SE ₁	B ₂	SE ₂	Source	F	Sig.
Constant	1.154	.116	.986	.153	Country	.797	.372
TMA ^a	.254	.040	.132	.059	Country x TMA ^a	3.029	.082
TMI ^b	.261	.037	.502	.059	Country x TMI ^b	12.886	.000
^a Top management's ability ^b Top management's integrity					* Extracted from GLM Procedure Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances: $F(1, 472) = 2.019$, $p = .156$		

Source: Analysis of survey data

In regard to the parametric assumptions underlying the analytical techniques employed in the foregoing analyses, tests of assumptions were undertaken accordingly as outlined in the section that follows.

ASSUMPTION TESTING

In carrying out assumption testing, it is noteworthy that researchers have established moderate violations of parametric assumptions to have little or no effect on substantive conclusions in most instances (e.g., Cohen 1969). Assumption testing was done on all data analyses involving parametric statistics according to the assumptions and associated test procedures described in chapter 4, and Appendices 2-14 and 3-14. A summary of which is outlined as in the following.

Firstly, assumption testing was done on all regression analyses with results showing minimal or no violation to the assumptions. In respect of outliers, no univariate outliers with standard deviations greater than 3 were detected by SPSS casewise diagnostics (Coakes & Steed 2005). Also, no multivariate outliers (or influential cases) were found having Mahalanobis distance values greater than the critical chi-square value of 16.268 at an alpha level of 0.001 with degrees of freedom equal to 3 for the regression models with three predictors. Likewise for the simple regression models, no influential cases were found having Mahalanobis distance values greater than the critical chi-square value of 10.827 at an alpha level of 0.001 with degrees of freedom equal to 1. In all regression models, Cook's distance values were less than 1 further substantiating the absence of extreme outliers and influential cases (Cook & Weisberg 1982; Field 2005).

In regard to multicollinearity and singularity, their absence in the WA data was detected given the facts that no substantial correlations ($r > 0.9$) were among the predictors (Field 2005), no VIF equal to or above 10 (Field 2005; Myers 1990), and no TOL below 0.2 (Field 2005; Menard 1995). However, in the SIN data, the TOL for top management's integrity was slightly below 0.2 indicating a potential multicollinearity problem and was worthy of concern (Field 2005; Menard 1995).

Moreover, the normality of residuals was tested using the histogram and normal P-P plot while the linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals were assessed using the ZRESID-ZPRED plot (Coakes & Steed 2005; Field 2005). The histogram looked like a normal distribution and the P-P plot a diagonal line suggesting the assumption of normality was tenable. Again, the ZRESID-ZPRED plot looked like a random array of dots and showed no patterns that would cause concern, consistent with the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. These are illustrated in Appendix 3-15 using the test of Hypothesis 1a done on the WA data. Further, the assumption of independent errors was tenable in all regression models given the facts that no Durbin-Watson values were less than 1 or greater than 3 (Field 2005).

Secondly, assumption testing was done on all Chow (1960) tests performed in relation to Hypothesis 1a, with results indicating that all the assumptions were tenable. The tests of normality of residuals and independent errors for each of the two groups were subsumed in the assumption tests done on the regression analyses. The assumption of same error variance for the two groups was assessed through Levene's test for equality of error variances in the GLM procedure.

Thirdly, assumption testing was performed on all independent groups t-tests with results suggesting minimal or no violation to the assumptions. The normality of scores for each of the two groups was tested using normality statistics, including skewness and kurtosis, and normal Q-Q plot (Coakes & Steed 2005; Field 2005). These are illustrated in Appendix 3-16 using WA Data obtained from the early and late respondents to estimate nonresponse bias. Again, the homogeneity of variance was assessed through Levene's test for equality of variances in the independent groups analysis.

Finally, for the assumptions underlying factor, reliability and correlational analysis, the results of assumption testing indicated that all the assumptions were tenable.

SUMMARY

This chapter covered the presentation and analysis of the collected data, with its central focus on the tests of hypotheses. It began with the general characteristics of the sample, including response rate, respondent characteristics, nonresponse bias, and bias caused by common method variance. This was then followed by the psychometric assessments of the constructs, and the concluding evidence for reliability and validity of the measures. Presented next was the core of the chapter, including the results of hypothesis testing done on both the WA and SIN data, the comparison of regression models/lines between WA and SIN, and the tests of modified trust model. Finally, the results of assumption testing were addressed.

The next chapter discusses the above findings within the context of the literature, and offers both the theoretical and practical implications of the results presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 covered the presentation and analysis of the collected data, with its central focus on the tests of hypotheses. This chapter discusses the findings of chapter 5 within the context of the literature, and their theoretical and practical implications. The chapter is organised around seven sections. The first section discusses and concludes the findings about the research questions/hypotheses, with two subsections delineating the development of the research outcome model, and the quality of the data. The second section presents the conclusions about the research problem. The third section describes the significant contributions of the research. The fourth section discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the findings. The fifth section addresses the limitations of the study. The sixth section outlines the future research directions. Finally, the last section presents the thesis conclusions.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS ABOUT THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS/HYPOTHESES

The results of hypothesis testing done on both the WA and SIN data, the generalisability of research findings for each hypothesis by country, the comparisons of regression models/lines between WA and SIN, and the test results for the modified trust model (MTM) are summarized, respectively, in Tables 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4 below. This section discusses the findings for each hypothesis or group of hypotheses within the context of prior theories and/or research discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

Table 6.1: Result Summary of Hypothesis Testing Done on WA & SIN Data

Hypotheses	Findings	
	WA Data	SIN Data
H1a Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.	Partially supported	Partially supported
H1b Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.	Supported	Supported
H1c Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.	Supported	Supported
H1d Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.	Supported	Supported
H2a Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.	Supported	Supported
H2b Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.	Supported	Supported
H3a Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.	Supported	Supported
H3b Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.	Supported	Supported
H4a Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.	Supported	Supported
H4b Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.	Marginally supported $t = 1.832$, $df = 276$, $p < 0.10$ ($p = 0.053$ by interpolation)	Marginally supported $t = 1.841$, $df = 187$, $p < 0.10$ ($p = 0.053$ by interpolation)
H5a Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.	Supported	Supported
H5b Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return.	Supported	Supported

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 6.2: Generalisability of Research Findings for Each Hypothesis by Country

Hypotheses		WA Data				SIN Data				4 PGO
		1 R ²	2 Adj R ²	1 - 2 Loss	3 Gen	1 R ²	2 Adj R ²	1 - 2 Loss	3 Gen	
H1a	Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.	.581	.576	.005	HPS*	.635	.630	.005	HPS*	HPS*
H1b	Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.	.157	.154	.003	Yes	.210	.206	.004	Yes	Yes
H1c	Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.	.082	.079	.003	Yes	.215	.212	.003	Yes	Yes
H1d	Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.	.124	.121	.003	Yes	.215	.211	.004	Yes	Yes
H2a	Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.	.429	.427	.002	Yes	.549	.547	.002	Yes	Yes
H2b	Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.				Yes				Yes	Yes
H3a	Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.	.254	.251	.003	Yes	.511	.509	.002	Yes	Yes
H3b	Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.				Yes				Yes	Yes
H4a	Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.	.194	.191	.003	Yes	.380	.377	.003	Yes	Yes
H4b	Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.				Yes				Yes	Yes
H5a	Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.	.350	.348	.002	Yes	.515	.513	.002	Yes	Yes
H5b	Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return.				Yes				Yes	Yes

1 - 2 Loss = Loss of predictive power, 3 Gen = Generalisable to other samples from the same population, 4 PGO = Possibly, generalisable to other settings

* HPS = Hypothesis partially supported

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 6.3: Comparisons of Regression Models/Lines between WA and SIN - Assessing the Effects of Cultural Differences across WA and SIN

Hypotheses	Summary of Comparisons
H1a Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.	Top management's integrity of the regression model for SIN had statistically greater positive impact, and hence greater positive influence on trust in top management.
H1b Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.	The positive relationship of group cohesiveness with top management's ability for WA and SIN was not significantly different.
H1c Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.	The positive relationship of group cohesiveness with top management's benevolence for WA and SIN was not significantly different.
H1d Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.	The positive relationship of group cohesiveness with top management's integrity for WA and SIN was not significantly different.
H2a Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.	The positive relationship of trust in top management with affective commitment was not significantly different across the two countries.
H3a Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.	Trust in top management of the regression line for SIN had statistically greater positive impact, and hence greater positive influence on job satisfaction.
H4a Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.	The negative relationship of trust in top management with turnover intention was not significantly different across the two countries.
H5a Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.	The positive relationship of trust in top management with intention-to-return was not significantly different across the two countries.

Source: Analysis of survey data

Table 6.4: Summary of Test Results for the Modified Trust Model (MTM)

Modified Relationships	A. Generalisability of Research Findings by Country								
	WA Data				SIN Data				4 PGO
Employee perceptions of top management's ability, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.	1 R ²	2 Adj R ²	1 - 2 Loss	3 Gen	1 R ²	2 Adj R ²	1 - 2 Loss	3 Gen	
	.580	.577	.003	Yes	.630	.626	.004	Yes	Yes
	Test for stability of regression model: Chow test: F(3, 269) = 0.013, p > .05, for critical value of F(3, 269) at the .05 level is 2.63				Test for stability of regression model: Chow test: F(3, 193) = 0.476, p > .05, for critical value of F(3, 193) at the .05 level is 2.66				
	B. Comparison of Regression Models between WA and SIN								
Top management's integrity of the regression model for SIN had statistically greater positive impact, and hence greater positive influence on trust in top management.									

1 - 2 Loss = Loss of predictive power

3 Gen = Generalisable to other samples from the same population

4 PGO = Possibly, generalisable to other settings

Source: Analysis of survey data

H1a: Employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management.

Hypothesis 1a assesses the effects of employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity on the level of trust in top management. According to Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), a trustor's trust in a trustee is contingent upon the trustor's perceptions of the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity. However, the test results for both the WA and SIN data consistently suggest only top management's ability, and integrity as the significant predictors of trust in top management. Top management's benevolence is not a significant predictor after accounting for the effect of top management's integrity. There are two possible explanations for this partial disagreement with the authors' theory. First, top management's integrity and top management's benevolence are significantly and highly correlated such that the former subsumes the latter. Next, given the parsimonious nature of the authors' model designed for any identifiable and specific person or team of people as the referent of trust, the trust-antecedent relationships may vary with trustee (referent of trust) types, for referent of trust moderates the trust-antecedent relationships (Dirks & Ferrin 2002).

The above results raise the question whether top management's benevolence should remain in the trust model as it is in the theoretical framework. This question has been addressed using hierarchical regression procedures and Chow (1960) test. The results for both the WA and SIN data sets have offered justifications for dropping top management's benevolence as a predictor of trust in top management, which lead to the development of the modified trust model (MTM) retaining top management's ability, and top management's integrity as strong predictors. Specifically, referring to Table 6.4 above, the WA regression model for the MTM captures 58.0 percent of the variance in trust in top management, and the SIN regression model for the MTM 63.0 percent. Most importantly, the regression models (WA and SIN) for the MTM have their adjusted R^2 value closer to R^2 than do the regressions for the original trust model (as in Table 6.2), and so the former have better cross-validity than the latter.

In respect to generalisation, good cross-validity of the regression model for each data set (as in Table 6.4), evidenced by little loss in predictive power (R^2 - adjusted R^2), indicates that the regression model for the MTM is generalisable to other samples from the same population, and so is the finding. This is further confirmed by Chow test suggesting the same regression model for the MTM applies across two randomly split-half sub-samples of each data set.

In addition, comparison of the regression models for the MTM between WA and SIN, based on Chow (1960) test and GLM (General Linear Model) procedure, reveals that top management's integrity of the regression model for SIN has statistically greater positive impact, and hence greater positive influence on trust in top management (similar finding for the original trust model). This finding suggests that Singapore employees value more on top management's integrity than do the Western Australia employees when making judgments about their top management's trustworthiness. While this difference in value can be generally ascribed to cultural differences between Australia and Singapore, statistical procedures have yet to be performed to identify where such a difference fits into Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) cultural dimensions presented in chapter 2, which are beyond the scope of this research.

All together, it is concluded that employee trust in top management (TITM) is contingent upon employee perceptions of top management's ability, and integrity. This finding is generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and perhaps to other settings based on the facts that the finding has been replicable across two culturally different countries. Notably, while the regression model of TITM for the modified trust model (MTM) is generalisable to other samples from the same population, the regression models across culturally different countries may differ significantly due to the differences in valuing top management's integrity when making judgments about top management's trustworthiness.

H1b: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's ability.

H1c: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's benevolence.

H1d: Group cohesiveness positively influences an employee's perception of the top management's integrity.

Given top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity as top management's trustworthiness factors, these hypotheses assess the new perspective suggesting group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness. The results for both the WA and SIN data sets consistently reveal that group cohesiveness is positively and significantly related to top management's ability (TMA), top management's benevolence (TMB), and top management's integrity (TMI), which offer support for hypotheses 1b, 1c and 1d, and hence the new perspective.

The new perspective has been deduced by synthesizing a number of prior theoretical perspectives and research. In particular, prior studies have suggested that group cohesiveness is positively associated with information sharing (Gilbert & Tang 1998; Kandula et al. 2009; Mennecke, Hoffer & Valacich 1995). The more individuals experience information sharing, the more they will experience greater shared understanding about their employer, and hence higher 'feeling of confidence in their employer' (Gilbert & Tang 1998). Since 'feeling of confidence in employer' is a reflection of "the belief that an employer will be straightforward and will follow through on commitments" (p. 322) or of the belief that an employer is trustworthy, it can be logically inferred that, on the whole, group cohesiveness may influence individuals' perception of employer's trustworthiness.

Moreover, group cohesiveness has been suggested having positive association with shared interpretations (Magni et al. 2009; Naumann & Bennett 2000). Since shared interpretations influence one's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours according to the social information processing perspective (Salancik & Pfeffer 1978; Zalesny & Ford 1990), they are likely to influence individuals' trust-related perceptions about their superior (Shamir & Lapidot 2003; Wech 2002). Taken

together, it has been inferred that group cohesiveness may influence employees' perception of their superior's trustworthiness.

Further, drawing on Shamir & Lapidot's (2003) study suggesting employees' perception of their superior's trustworthiness will be influenced by their 'shared interpretations' attributable to group processes, it has been justified that such 'shared interpretations' are mainly attributable to group cohesiveness. Particularly, group cohesiveness is the resultant of all forces acting on members to remain in the group (Festinger 1950). Again, group cohesiveness can be viewed as an indicator of synergistic group processes; and many of the group processes are reflected in the construct of group cohesiveness (Barrick et al. 1998). Accordingly, it has been inferred that employees' perception of their superior's trustworthiness may be influenced by their 'shared interpretations' mainly attributable to group cohesiveness. Simply put it, employees' perception of their superior's trustworthiness may be influenced by group cohesiveness.

Returning to the findings, good cross-validity of the regression models associated with hypotheses 1b, 1c, and 1d for each data set (as in Table 6.2), evidenced by little loss in predictive power (R^2 - adjusted R^2), indicates that the regression models are generalisable to other samples from the same population, and so are the findings for hypotheses 1b, 1c, and 1d. Further, comparisons of the regression lines (of TMA, TMB, and TMI) between WA and SIN, based on Arnold's (1982) T-test formula, suggest that the positive relationships of group cohesiveness with top management's ability, top management's benevolence, and top management's integrity for WA and SIN are not significantly different across the two countries. These results reveal that cultural differences between Australia and Singapore, generally, will not affect the influence of group cohesiveness on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness.

Accordingly, it is concluded that group cohesiveness influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness. This finding is generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings on the grounds that the finding has been replicable across two culturally different countries. Besides, it is noteworthy that cultural differences across countries may not affect the

influence of group cohesiveness on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness.

H2a: Trust in top management is positively related to affective commitment.

H3a: Trust in top management is positively related to job satisfaction.

H4a: Trust in top management is negatively related to turnover intention.

These hypotheses assess the effects of trust in top management on the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. The results for both the WA and SIN data sets consistently offer support for hypotheses 2a, 3a and 4a, which agree with the prior theories and research discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

Theoretically, the finding for hypothesis 2a is consistent with social exchange theory and the notion of reciprocity, suggesting when trust exists in a relationship, parties involved will choose to respond through greater commitment to their organisation (Blau 1964). This perspective has been advocated by several researchers such as Morgan & Hunt (1994), Eisenberger et al. (2001), Raabe & Beehr (2003), and Ramaswami & Singh (2003). Also, the finding for hypothesis 3a agrees with LMX (Leader-Member Exchange) theory suggesting trust leads to high LMX relationship, thereby increasing subordinate job satisfaction (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995; Sparrowe & Liden 1997). Advocates of this perspective are such researchers as Flaherty & Pappas (2000), and Brashear et al. (2003). Again, the finding for hypothesis 4a is congruous with several perspectives. For example, employees who trust their top management will develop an attachment to the organisation, and so they are likely to pursue a long-term career there, thereby lowering their intention to leave (Tan & Tan 2000). Similarly, employees who trust their manager will feel safer and develop loyalty towards the organisation leading to lower turnover intention (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006).

Moreover, the above trust–outcome relationships can be rationalized holistically by Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) and Dirks & Ferrin's (2001;

2002) theoretical treatments of trust. The former essentially suggests that high levels of trust in trustee (top management) increase trustor (employee) willingness to take risk with the trustee (top management), and such risk-taking behaviours, in turn, will lead to such positive outcomes as high affective commitment and job satisfaction, and low turnover intention. For the latter, trust operates in a straightforward manner so that higher levels of trust are expected to result in more positive attitudes and higher levels of desirable workplace behaviours manifested in higher affective commitment and job satisfaction, and lower turnover intention.

In regard to prior research, there is abundant empirical evidence (as discussed in chapter 2) suggesting trust in organisational authorities is related positively to affective commitment (AC) and job satisfaction (JS), but negatively to turnover intention (TI). Notably, they are Matthai (1990), Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991), Tan & Tan (2000), Flaherty & Pappas (2000), Cunningham & MacGregor (2000), Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian (2001), Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002), Brashear et al. (2003), Connell, Ferres & Travaglione (2003), Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander (2006), Ladebo (2006), Hopkins & Weathington (2006), and Gill (2008), just to name a few.

Accordingly, the above findings for hypotheses 2a, 3a and 4a confirm the replication of previously found trust–outcome relationships to ‘trust in top management’ in the context of WA and SIN. Such a replication is the prerequisite to testing of hypotheses 2b, 3b and 4b. For example, if hypothesis 2a were not substantiated, then it would be meaningless to test hypothesis 2b.

With respect to generalisation, good cross-validity of the regression models associated with hypotheses 2a, 3a and 4a for each data set (as in Table 6.2), evidenced by little loss in predictive power (R^2 - adjusted R^2), indicates that the regression models are generalisable to other samples from the same population, and so are the findings for hypotheses 2a, 3a and 4a. Moreover, comparisons of the regression lines (of AC, JS, and TI) between WA and SIN, based on Arnold’s (1982) T-test formula, show that the relationships of trust in top management with affective commitment, and turnover intention for WA and SIN are not significantly different across the two countries. These results suggest that cultural differences between

Australia and Singapore, generally, will not affect the impacts that trust in top management has on affective commitment and turnover intention.

On the other hand, trust in top management of the regression line of job satisfaction for SIN has statistically greater positive impact, and hence greater positive influence on job satisfaction. This result suggests that Singapore employees value more on trust in top management than do the Western Australia employees when evaluating their job experiences or work context. While this difference in value can be generally ascribed to cultural differences between Australia and Singapore, statistical tests have yet to be done to identify where such a difference fits into Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) cultural dimensions outlined in chapter 2, which are beyond the scope of this research.

Therefore, it is concluded that trust in top management is related positively to affective commitment and job satisfaction, but negatively to turnover intention. This finding is generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings based on the facts that the finding has been replicable across two culturally different countries. Notably, cultural differences across countries may not affect the impacts that trust in top management has on affective commitment and turnover intention. However, they may affect the impact that trust in top management has on job satisfaction due to the differences in valuing trust in top management, across countries, when evaluating job experiences or work context.

H5a: Trust in top management is positively related to intention-to-return.

This hypothesis assesses the new perspective suggesting that a positive relationship exists between trust in top management and intention-to-return. The results for both the WA and SIN data sets consistently offer support for this hypothesis, and hence the new perspective.

Having rationalized intention-to-return as an important organisational outcome, the new perspective has been deduced by reasoning from analogy of the other outcome variables proposed in hypotheses 2a, 3a and 4a. Accordingly, the theoretical perspectives underlying the hypotheses for affective commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (e.g., Brockner et al. 1997; Dirks & Ferrin 2001,2002; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), to a large extent, also apply to intention-to-return.

In respect to generalisation, good cross-validity of the regression model associated with hypothesis 5a for each data set (as in Table 6.2), evidenced by little loss in predictive power (R^2 - adjusted R^2), indicates that the regression model is generalisable to other samples from the same population, and so is the finding for hypothesis 5a. Further, comparison of the regression lines of intention-to-return between WA and SIN, based on Arnold's (1982) T-test formula, demonstrates that the positive relationship of trust in top management with intention-to-return is not significantly different across the two countries. This result indicates that, in general, cultural differences between Australia and Singapore will not affect the impact that trust in top management has on intention-to-return.

Accordingly, it is concluded that trust in top management is related positively to intention-to-return. This finding is generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and perhaps to other settings on the grounds that the finding has been replicable across two culturally different countries. Again, it is worthy of note that cultural differences across countries may not affect the impact that trust in top management has on intention-to-return.

- H2b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and affective commitment.**
- H3b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and job satisfaction.**
- H4b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and turnover intention.**
- H5b: Senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and intention-to-return.**

These hypotheses assess the new perspective suggesting senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return. The results for both the WA and SIN data sets offer support for hypotheses 2b, 3b, 4b and 5b, and hence the new perspective. Hypothesis 4b is accepted on the grounds that its significance level is near 0.05 (i.e., $p = 0.053$ by interpolation of t-values, as in Table 6.1 above).

The new perspective has been deduced by synthesizing a number of prior theories and research. In particular, prior studies have suggested that role-modelling is an important managerial behaviour to enhance employee trust (e.g., Bass 1985; Kanungo 1998; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Rich 1997,1998; Whitener et al. 1998). In this regard, managers 'role model' the value system of organisation for subordinates, providing an example of exemplary behaviour for subordinates to imitate, thereby instilling the value system of organisation into subordinates such that shared values are internalized in them (e.g., Bandura 1977; Bandura 1986; Bass 1985; Conger & Kanungo 1987; House 1977; Kouzes & Posner 1987; Schein 1985; Shamir, House & Arthur 1993; Sims & Brinkmann 2002; Yukl 1993). In turn, such shared values will contribute towards trust enhancement (e.g., Barber 1983; Jones & George 1998; Lewicki, McAllister & Bies 1998).

The above notion of 'shared values contributing towards trust enhancement' has received empirical support from several studies suggesting a positive relationship between shared values and trust (e.g., Brashear et al. 2003; Gillespie & Mann 2004; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Yilmaz & Hunt 2001). Theoretically, shared values change

the state of employees' trust from conditional trust to unconditional trust in which shared values create a common bond and fundamentally enhance the quality of trusting relationship (Jones & George 1998).

From the synthesis of the above concepts emerges the new perspective suggesting that senior manager role-modelling internalizes shared values (i.e., the value system of organisation) in employees leading to actualization of unconditional trust, which in turn improves the trusting relationship between the organisation (top management)¹⁴ and employees. Such an improved trusting relationship, in turn, is manifested in the trust–outcome relationships. Therefore, it is deduced that senior manager role-modelling provides the conditions under which the trust–outcome relationships will be more or less pronounced. Specifically, senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return.

Resuming to the findings, the results for both the WA and SIN data sets consistently demonstrate the following patterns of moderating effects caused by senior manager role-modelling (SMRM). Firstly, trust in top management has a greater positive impact on affective commitment when SMRM is perceived to be low. Conversely, when SMRM is perceived to be high, trust in top management has a lesser impact on affective commitment. In other words, in the condition of high SMRM, trust in top management has relatively lower influence on affective commitment. Secondly, trust in top management has a greater positive impact on job satisfaction when SMRM is perceived to be low. Conversely, when SMRM is perceived to be high, trust in top management has a lesser impact on job satisfaction. This means that in the condition of high SMRM, trust in top management has relatively lower influence on job satisfaction.

Thirdly, trust in top management has a stronger negative relationship with turnover intention when SMRM is perceived to be low. Conversely, when SMRM is perceived to be high, trust in top management has a weaker negative relationship

¹⁴ Trust in top management reflects employees' trust in the organisation that the top management represents (Shamir & Lapidot 2003).

with turnover intention. In other words, in the condition of high SMRM, trust in top management has relatively lower influence on turnover intention. Lastly, trust in top management has a greater positive impact on intention-to-return when SMRM is perceived to be low. Conversely, when SMRM is perceived to be high, trust in top management has a lesser impact on intention-to-return. This means that in the condition of high SMRM, trust in top management has relatively lower influence on intention-to-return.

In essence, it would seem that when there is appropriate role-modelling by senior managers, trust in top management is not so critical in terms of affective commitment, job satisfaction, intention-to-return, and low turnover intention. However, when appropriate role-modelling is lacking, trust in top management is far more critical, and is required if high levels of affective commitment, job satisfaction and intention-to-return, and low levels of turnover intention are to be attained.

Further, the results for both WA and SIN consistently show improved trusting relationship between top management and employees caused by SMRM, which is manifested in the trust–outcome relationships as follows. First, at any level of trust in top management, the corresponding levels of affective commitment, job satisfaction, and intention-to-return in the high SMRM condition are higher than those in the low SMRM condition. Next, at any level of trust in top management, the corresponding level of turnover intention in the high SMRM condition is lower than that in the low SMRM condition.

Therefore, it is concluded that senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return. Hereof, in the condition of high senior manager role-modelling, trust in top management has relatively lower influences on affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return. These findings are generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings based on the facts that the findings have been replicable across two culturally different countries.

Overall, the research findings have revealed a partial disagreement with hypothesis 1a, which leads to the development of the research outcome model depicted in the subsection that follows.

Development of the Research Outcome Model

The research outcome model, presented in Figure 6.1 below, reflects the exclusion of top management's benevolence construct from the theoretical framework developed in chapter 3. The model in Figure 6.1 is divided into two parts due to the complexity and scope of the applicable information, with both parts shown in a single outline view presented in Figure 6.2 below. For the purpose of clarity, the new perspectives are highlighted with bolded blocks and lines.

Figure 6.1 Part 1: The Research Outcome Model Part 1

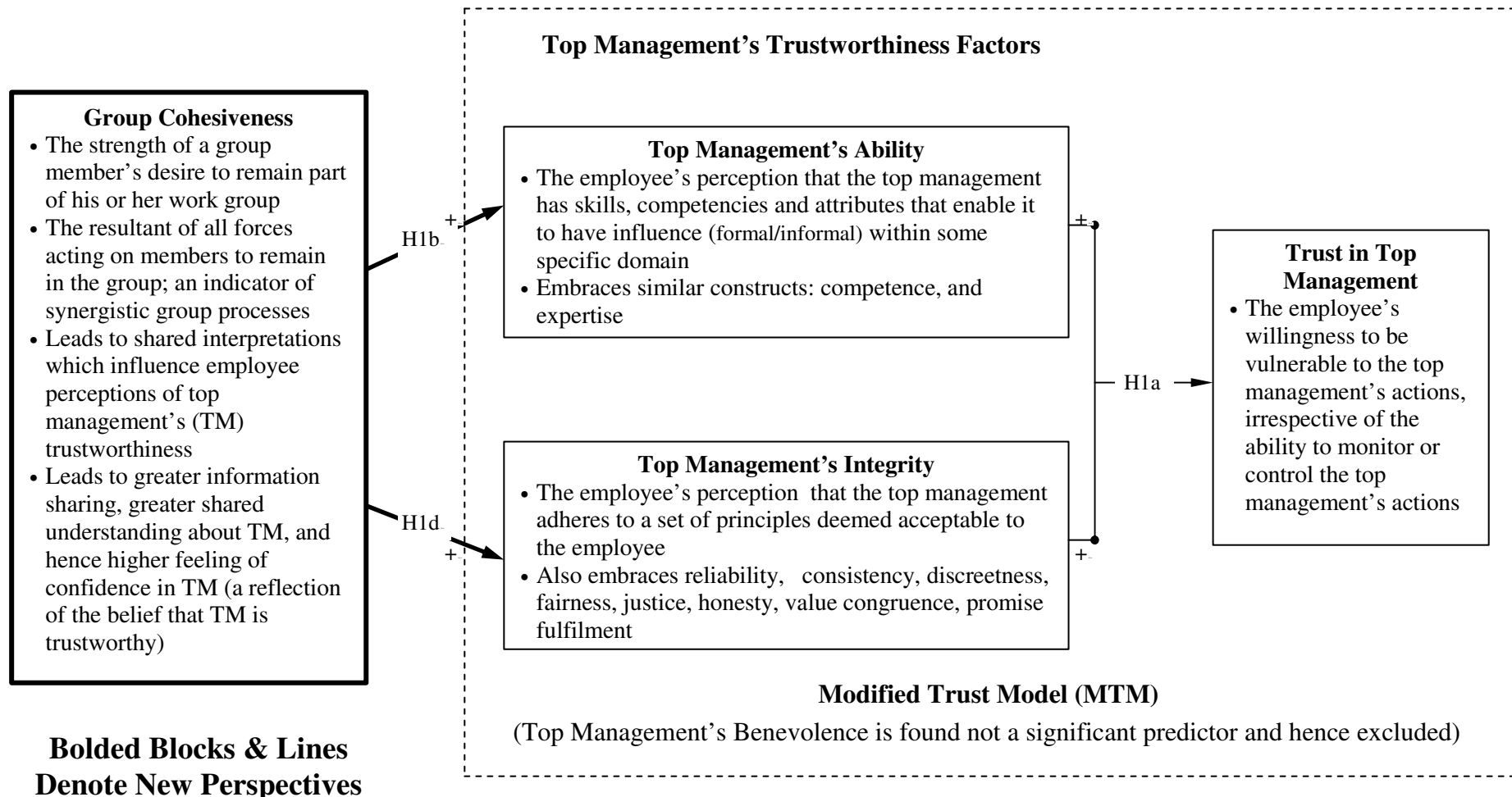


Figure 6.1 Part 2: The Research Outcome Model Part 2

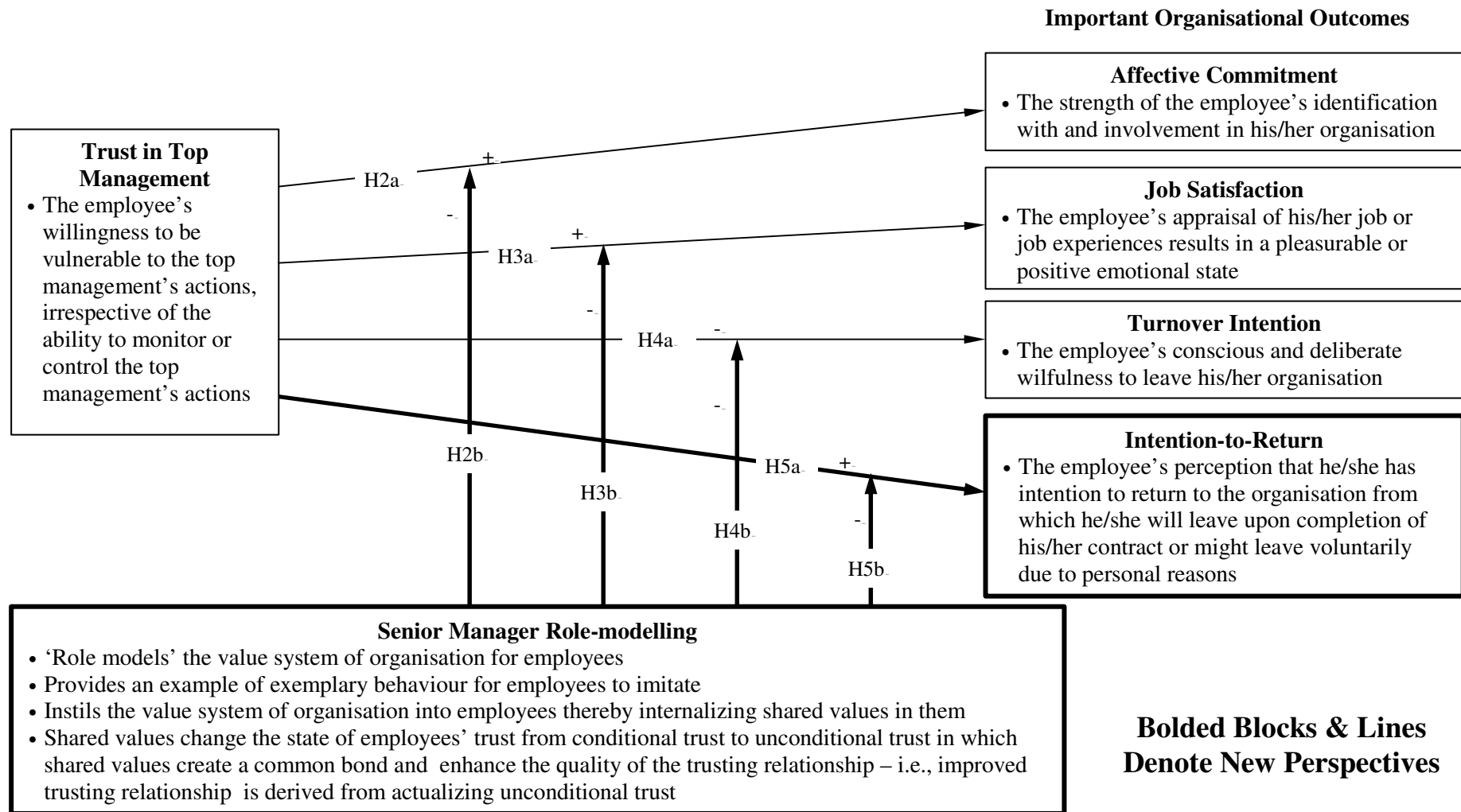
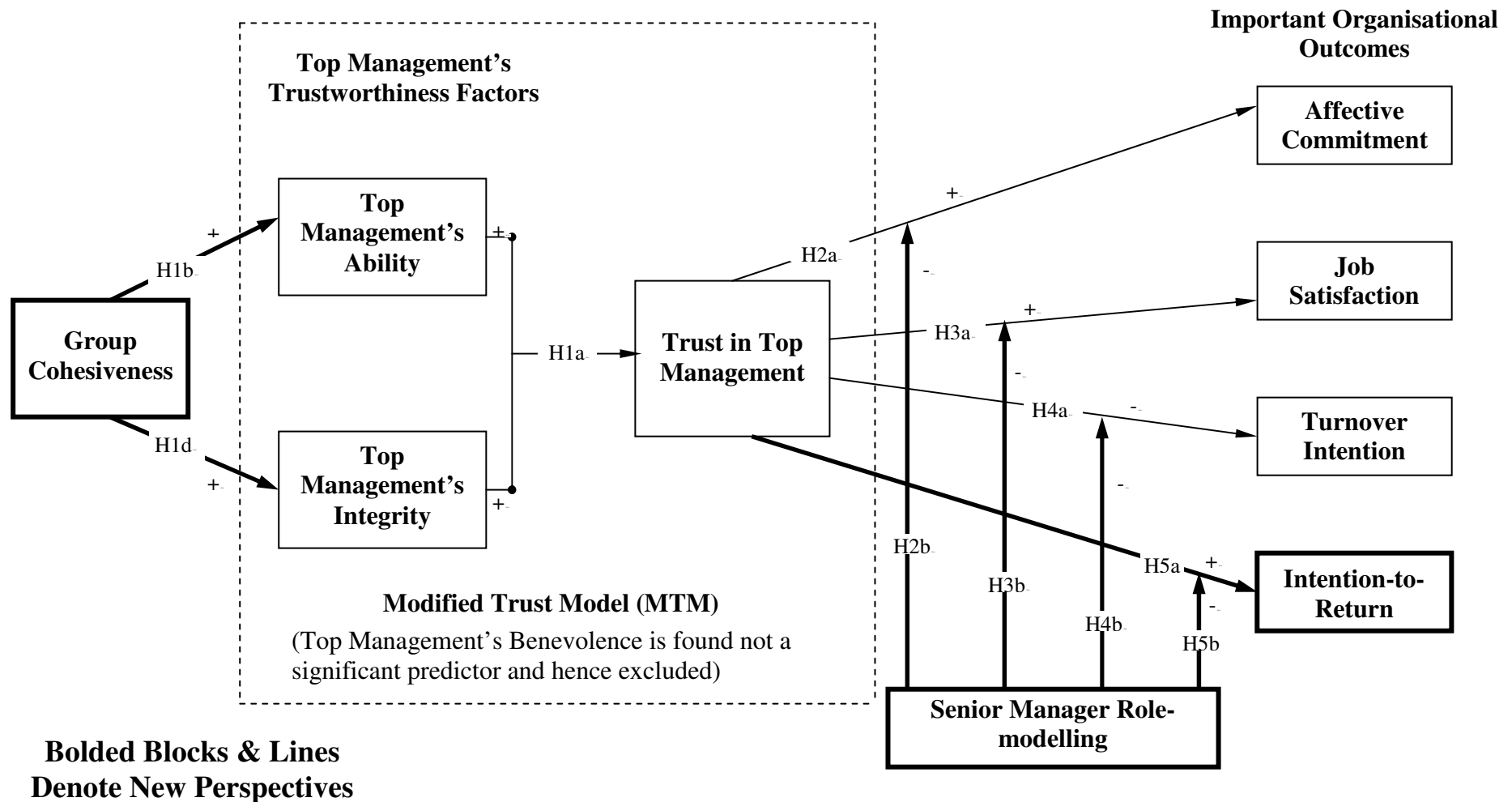


Figure 6.2: Outline View of the Research Outcome Model



The research outcome model incorporates the research findings aimed at providing valid answers to solve the research problem. The validity of such research findings has been assured considering the quality of the data discussed next.

Quality of the Data

The quality of the data collected is noteworthy in respect to biases, validity, and generalisability. Some salient points of each follow.

Biases: Response set biases (i.e., acquiescence bias, beginning–ending list bias, recall bias, central tendency bias) and nonresponse bias could be problematic for they might affect the survey results, and hence the study conclusions. Therefore, efforts to minimize such biases have been implemented in the study design. In this regard, Armstrong & Overton's (1977) procedure indicates that nonresponse bias is not a cause for concern. Also, the post hoc Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ 1986) shows that bias caused by common method variance is not of great concern.

Validity: The research findings would be meaningless if the measuring instruments employed in the study were not acceptable at a minimal level with respect to reliability and construct validity. Accordingly, the reliability and construct validity of all the scales have been assessed and established, and thus the goodness of data for the study. The former has been established through Cronbach's (1951) Alpha, and the latter through convergent and discriminant validity using Fornell & Larcker's (1981) AVE method. In addition, the validity of analysis has been assured by way of using appropriate data analysis techniques that comply with established practices in the relevant fields.

Generalisability: Generalisability of a regression model can be assessed by way of cross-validating it. However, prior to assessing its cross-validity, one must be sure that the assumptions underlying regression analysis are reasonably tenable. Since assumption testing has been done on all the data analyses involving parametric statistics with results indicating minimal or no violation to assumptions, the validity

concerning generalisability assessments discussed herein has been assured. The generalisability of research findings for each hypothesis by country is summarized in Tables 6.2 and 6.4 above. In fact, cross-validations of the regression models associated with all the hypotheses indicate that the research findings are generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings on the grounds that the findings have been replicable across two culturally different countries.

Taken together, the research findings have offered the essential answers to satisfactorily solve the research problem, and the conclusions about which are provided in the section that follows.

CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The patterns of relationships among the studied constructs, established by the research findings, have provided the essential solutions for the research problem. In particular, employee trust in top management is contingent upon employee perceptions of top management's ability, and integrity (i.e., perceptions of top management's trustworthiness). In this regard, the social context (e.g., groups) for trust, in which group processes play a major role in the social construction of trust in top management, must not be neglected. Notably, group cohesiveness, an indicator of synergistic group processes (Barrick et al. 1998), has significant positive influence on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness. Considering trust is not only an interpersonal phenomenon, but also a collective phenomenon attributable to group processes, promoting group cohesiveness is important and instrumental in improving trust in top management. In other words, group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness, which in turn improve trust in top management.

In addition, the strong associations of trust in top management (TITM) with affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return provide a representative pattern of TITM–outcome relationships important to

organisational performance and effectiveness. Given the moderating effects of senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) on these TITM–outcome relationships such that in the high SMRM condition, trust in top management has relatively lower influences on the aforesaid outcomes, senior manager role-modelling can effectively serve to minimize the impacts that trust in top management has on organisational outcomes.

These conclusions apply across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings on the grounds that the research findings have been replicable across two culturally different countries. In essence, facing the persistent problem of low trust in top management despite firms' efforts in building trust, firms can (1) promote group cohesiveness to improve employee trust in top management; and (2) promote senior manager role-modelling to minimize the impacts of trust in top management on organisational outcomes.

On the whole, the research effort has made a number of significant contributions to the body of knowledge as outlined in the section that follows.

SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The study contributes to the existing knowledge in four ways. **First**, it has established that the modified trust model (MTM) has better cross-validity in predicting employee trust in top management than does the original trust model adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995). Hereof, the former has two predictors: top management's ability, and integrity, whereas the latter has three: top management's ability, integrity, and benevolence. **Second**, it has concluded that group cohesiveness influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness, and added the collective phenomenon of trust which supplements Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model and others that deal only with the interpersonal phenomenon of trust. **Third**, it has extended the 'intention-to-return' construct into the inventory of organisational outcomes, and established its positive association with trust in top management. **Fourth**, it has demonstrated that senior manager role-modelling moderates the relationship between employee trust in top

management and each of the important organisational outcomes, namely affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return.

The aforesaid contributions are significant in respect to their relevance and importance to the practice of professionals, and the originality of the research outcome model. Some pertinent details follow.

Relevance and importance to the practice of professionals: Affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return are important organisational outcomes in view of their important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness. As such, the new perspectives will provide new knowledge about the relationship of group cohesiveness with trust in top management (TITM), and the moderating effects of senior manager role-modelling on the TITM–outcome relationships, which are crucial to organisational performance and effectiveness. In turn, this new knowledge assists understanding of the strategic roles of group cohesiveness and senior manager role-modelling in influencing organisational performance and effectiveness, which may lead to change in professional practices. Hereof, the new perspective concerning the positive association of intention-to-return with trust in top management is especially important for situations facing skill shortages and shift towards contract employments.

Originality of the research outcome model (ROM): The ROM is original in several aspects. In particular, the ROM is based on the research findings that have been replicable across two culturally different countries: Western Australia and Singapore. Respectively, the developed MTM (first contribution aforesaid) has been justified on similar findings (i.e., better cross-validity vis-à-vis the original trust model) across the two countries. Again, the second and fourth contributions are the new perspectives deduced by synthesizing prior theories and research, which have not been attempted by prior researchers. Finally, the third contribution is the new perspective (involving newly developed construct) deduced by reasoning from analogy of other outcome variables found in the literature.

All together, the value of the research outcome model lies on its originality, its unique development based on the research findings replicable across two culturally different countries, and its contribution to ‘moving forward the body of knowledge’.

In the section that follows, both the theoretical and practical implications of the research findings are addressed.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

Theoretical Implications

This subsection highlights the theoretical implications of the findings in respect to the predictors of trust in top management, the social context for trust, the relationships between trust in top management and important organisational outcomes, and the potential impacts of cultural differences on trusting relationships. Some salient points follow.

Predictors of trust in top management: Evidence from the study suggests that the modified trust model with two predictors: top management’s ability, and integrity has better cross-validity in predicting trust in top management vis-à-vis the original trust model with three predictors: top management’s ability, integrity, and benevolence. In the latter, benevolence is subsumed in the effect of integrity, and contributes to insignificant increase in R^2 vis-à-vis the former. This evidence offers two implications. Firstly, the two-predictor modified trust model is statistically desired over the original trust model for predicting trust in top management, and may be further improved by refining the integrity construct to include appropriate measurement items from the abandoned benevolence construct.

Secondly, referent of trust moderates the trust–antecedent relationships (Dirks & Ferrin 2002), such that the two-predictor modified trust model is statistically desired for predicting trust in top management, whereas the original trust model,

adapted from Mayer, Davis & Schoorman (1995), may be well-suited for predicting trust in other organisational authorities. This implication is also in corroboration of Tan & Tan's (2000) argument suggesting trust in different levels of organisational authorities will have different antecedents. And, this would seem to explain the inconsistent research findings on the antecedent–trust relationships underlying Mayer, Davis & Schoorman's (1995) trust model (e.g., Davis et al. 2000; Mayer & Gavin 2005).

Social context for trust: The research finding suggests that group cohesiveness influences employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness. Since group cohesiveness is an indicator of synergistic group processes (Barrick et al. 1998), the finding essentially implies that the social context for trust (e.g., groups), in which group processes play a major role in the social construction of trust, must not be neglected in the study of trust. That is, the framework for trust study should account for both the interpersonal phenomenon of trust and the collective phenomenon of trust. Since the latter is attributable to group processes, such a framework would facilitate discovery of group process variables that are instrumental in enhancing employee trust in organisational authorities. The implication of this part of the research findings is in corroboration of Wekselberg's (1996) argument suggesting that the social phenomenon of trust should be sufficiently treated in the study of trust.

Relationships between trust in top management and important organisational outcomes: Trust in top management has strong associations with organisational outcomes that have important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness. In situations where trust in top management is low, such strong associations become undesirable and would result in undesirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness.

Affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return are important organisational outcomes in view of their important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness. Hence, their strong associations with trust in top management (TITM) as evidenced in the study provides a representative pattern of TITM–outcome relationships important to organisational

performance and effectiveness. In this regard, the research evidence about the moderating effects of senior manager role-modelling (SMRM) on these TITM–outcome relationships is important and instrumental to the study of organisational performance and effectiveness.

In particular, in the high SMRM condition, trust in top management has relatively lower influences on affective commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and intention-to-return. This essentially means that in situations where trust in top management is low, senior manager role-modelling can serve to minimize the impacts that trust in top management has on organisational outcomes, thereby minimizing undesirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness. This research finding implies that study of organisational performance and effectiveness should not neglect potential moderator variables that can possibly minimize the strong impacts that trust in top management has on important organisational outcomes, which is especially important for situations where trust in top management is low.

Moreover, the aforesaid evidence about the moderating effects of senior manager role-modelling implies that study of trust should increase emphasis on potential moderator variables in trust–outcome relationships to enhance accuracy of research findings. In this regard, it is worthy of note that testing potential moderator variables in trust–outcome relationships will lead to meaningful scientific conclusions only in the presence of some plausible hypothesis (Arnold 1982). “A random search for moderator variables is no more justified and no more theoretically enlightening than a random search for statistically significant zero-order relationships between variables” (p. 146).

In addition, evidence from the study suggests that senior manager role-modelling improves the trusting relationship between top management and employees such that at any level of trust in top management, the corresponding levels of desirable outcomes are higher in the high SMRM condition vis-à-vis the low SMRM condition. An implication of this is that at any level of trust in top management, senior manager role-modelling can serve to improve the levels of

desirable outcomes, which in turn enhance desirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness.

Potential impacts of cultural differences on trusting relationships:

Evidence from the study suggests that the regression models of trust in top management for WA and SIN differ significantly due to the significant difference in the positive slopes of top management's integrity (same finding for both the modified trust model and original trust model). An implication of this is that the regression models of trust in top management across culturally different countries may differ significantly due to the differences in valuing top management's integrity when making judgments about top management's trustworthiness.

Also, evidence from the study reveals that the positive relationships of group cohesiveness with all the top management's trustworthiness factors for WA and SIN are not significantly different across WA and SIN. This implies that the positive influence of group cohesiveness on employee perceptions of top management's trustworthiness may not be affected by cultural differences across countries.

Again, the research evidence reveals that the relationships of trust in top management with affective commitment, turnover intention, and intention-to-return for WA and SIN are not significantly different across the two countries. An implication of this is that cultural differences across countries may not affect the impacts that trust in top management has on affective commitment, turnover intention, and intention-to-return.

Finally, the research evidence shows that the positive relationship of trust in top management with job satisfaction for WA and SIN are statistically different. This implies that cultural differences across countries may affect the impact that trust in top management has on job satisfaction due to the differences in valuing trust in top management when evaluating job experiences or work context.

While cultural differences may have impacts on the positive relationships of trust in top management with top management's integrity, and job satisfaction,

evidence from the study suggests that the research findings for the resolution of the broad research problem are replicable across WA and SIN.

Practical Implications

While trust in top management has been known to have strong impacts on organisational outcomes, many organisations have yet to resolve the problem of low trust in top management as evidenced in several reports concerning management–employee trust gap (as in chapter 1). The findings from the present study provide insights that might be helpful to firms who strive to deal with the persistence of such problems due largely to improper approach used in the treatments of trust.

This subsection highlights the practical implications of the research findings in respect to (1) promoting group cohesiveness to improve employee trust in top management; and (2) promoting senior manager role-modelling to minimize the impacts of trust in top management on organisational outcomes. Some salient points follow.

Promoting group cohesiveness to improve employee trust in top management: Considering trust is both an interpersonal and a collective phenomenon, promoting group cohesiveness is important and instrumental in improving trust in top management. In other words, group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management’s trustworthiness, which in turn improve trust in top management. In this regard, firms can build group cohesiveness by ways of team building activities, management actions, and use of cohesion messages as follows.

Team building activities have been found to be effective in increasing group climate and cohesiveness (Stroud 2006). They increase group engagement, decrease group conflict, improve interpersonal and communication skills, thereby enhancing group cohesiveness. To avoid holding up the process of getting things done, short team-building exercises, where possible, should be considered. Hereof, Miller (2007) provides a seven-step process for conducting effective team-building activities.

These are (1) choose a good activity for the team; (2) prepare for the team-building activity; (3) explain the activity to the team; (4) examine for understanding before commencing; (5) run the activity; (6) debrief the activity; and (7) reinforce the learning back on the job. Moreover, training needs for relevant personnel involved in leading team-building activities should be evaluated and duly considered. In particular, training on how to avoid the common pitfalls (e.g., refusal of participation from some people, absence of some participants at the debrief discussion, and failure to achieve training objectives by some participants) should not be neglected.

Management actions in the form of directive, and supportive leaderships directly influence group cohesiveness (Bartkus et al. 1997). Directive leadership is a leadership style that is task-oriented, with a strong focus on targets, close supervision and control (Wendt, Euwema & van Emmerik 2009). In contrast, supportive leadership is a leadership style that is relationship-oriented, with a strong focus on satisfying subordinates' needs, preferences, and welfare, and creating a psychologically supportive environment. Whereas supportive leadership increases group cohesiveness, directive leadership has negative impact on group cohesiveness. This essentially means that while directive behaviour usually is an essential part of managerial actions, managers limiting their behaviours to only this style would negatively affect group cohesiveness. Supportive behaviours must also be incorporated into managerial actions to foster group cohesion. It is worthy of note that managers worldwide do use supportive behaviours along with directive behaviours to foster group cohesion (Wendt, Euwema & van Emmerik 2009). In this regard, training needs for supervisory and managerial staff on effective leaderships should be assessed and duly considered.

Finally, since building group cohesiveness is grounded on effective and constructive communication about relationships as well as the task at hand, use of cohesion messages with appropriate source (e.g., top management), channel (e.g., face-to-face communication), and content (e.g., shared vision) should be effective (Friedley & Manchester 2005). To ensure effectiveness, cohesion messages must be clearly communicated and consistently reinforced starting with top-down leaders of the group. Such messages lay the foundation for a group vision and a group identity,

and create group cohesiveness once members clearly understand that vision and identity.

Moreover, it is noteworthy that choices of source, channel, and content would affect the effectiveness of cohesion messages. Particularly, message communicated face-to-face has the most powerful impact as it provides immediate interaction in real time and space. While electronic communications have tremendously improved workplace efficiency, face-to-face contact that preserves the ‘human moment’¹⁵ is still essential to true communication (Hallowell 1999). It is communication in the ‘human moment’ that most powerfully creates group synergy, and group cohesion (Friedley & Manchester 2005). Further, training needs for supervisory and managerial staff on effective communications should be assessed and duly considered.

Promoting senior manager role-modelling to minimize the impacts of trust in top management on organisational outcomes: Trust in top management has strong associations with organisational outcomes that have important consequences for organisational performance and effectiveness. When appropriate role-modelling by senior managers is lacking, trust in top management is very critical, and is required if high levels of affective commitment, job satisfaction, intention-to-stay, and intention-to-return are to be attained. However, when there is appropriate role-modelling by senior managers, trust in top management becomes less critical in terms of affective commitment, job satisfaction, intention-to-stay, and intention-to-return.

To implement and promote senior manager role-modelling, some helpful steps for firms to consider include: (1) top management to formalize an organisational value system that is consistent with the organisation’s goals and objectives; (2) top management to internalize the organisational value system as part of senior managers’ character, with role-modelling expert’s guidance; and (3) senior managers ‘role model’ the organisational value system for subordinates, provide an

¹⁵ The term “human moment” has been coined by Hallowell (1999) who defines it as “an authentic psychological encounter that can happen only when two people share the same physical space” (p. 59).

example of exemplary behaviour for subordinates to imitate, and thereby instilling the organisational value system into subordinates such that shared values are internalized in them. Having accomplished the first two steps, the third step would require senior managers to attend relevant trainings on how to carry out role-modelling effectively.

All together, the research findings have offered implications for several fields of study, including trust, organisational performance and effectiveness, group dynamics, leadership, management, and strategic management. In the next section, some limitations of the present study are addressed.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As with all other studies, this study has a number of limitations. While the fundamental limitations related to research methodology have been covered in chapter 4 – methodology, this section addresses the secondary limitations that were uncovered as the research process developed. Two secondary limitations in respect to refusal of participation from big companies, and low response rates are highlighted as follows.

Refusal of participation from big companies: The initial sampling frame was designed for company-based participants. However, in the process of data collection, many big companies in both Western Australia and Singapore declined to participate in the study. They typically indicated that they were unable to let their employees participate in the survey given the sensitive nature of some questionnaire items measuring turnover intention. As such, compromise was made for the sampling frame of Western Australia to include both company-based participants and a random sample of individual employees in a variety of industries. While such a compromise did not substantially affect the overall research process, it did result in increased difficulties and efforts in respect to data collection and follow-up. This limitation sheds light on refinement of the turnover intention construct for future research (as in Table 6.5 below – Topic No. 3).

Low response rates: As discussed in chapter 4, the mail survey approach selected for this study was rationally decided at the expense of lower response rates. Thus, as an effort to improve response rates, some effective techniques recommended by authorities (e.g., Mangione 1995; Sekaran 2003; Totten, Panacek & Price 1999) were implemented accordingly. These included providing each subject with an up-front incentive and a self-addressed pre-paid envelope, keeping the questionnaire brief with clear instructions, using Curtin University's letterhead for the one-page cover letter, avoiding holiday/vacation periods, and sending follow-up letters. As a consequence, the WA study yielded a response rate of 21.67 percent and the SIN study 22.6 percent. While these response rates are lower than Sekaran's (2003) recommended level of 30 percent, Armstrong & Overton's (1977) procedure has confirmed that nonresponse bias is not a cause for concern in both the WA and SIN studies.

From the research findings and their theoretical and practical implications emerges some implications for future research discussed in the next section.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The research findings and their implications lend themselves to a number of future research ideas. These ideas have been developed into four future research topics outlined in Table 6.5 below to recommend future research directions.

Table 6.5: Future Research Directions

No.	Descriptions
1.	Modify the Research Outcome Model by (a) replacing the group cohesiveness construct with communications, (b) refining the integrity construct to include appropriate measurement items from the abandoned benevolence construct, (c) refining the turnover intention construct to eliminate or reduce their sensitiveness, and (d) adding Hofstede's (1980; 2001; 2005) cultural dimensions. And, investigate into how the differences in various cultural dimensions between Western Australia and Singapore influence (1) the relationships between communications and top management's trustworthiness factors; (2) the relationships between top management's trustworthiness factors and trust in top management; and (3) the relationships between trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes.
2.	Refine the integrity construct to include appropriate measurement items from the abandoned benevolence construct, and test the two-predictor modified trust model in respect to (1) predictive power and stability for trust in top management and other referent of trust (e.g., manager, supervisor); and (2) relationships between trustworthiness factors and group process variables such as communications.
3.	Refine the turnover intention construct by rewording and rephrasing the sensitive questions to eliminate or reduce their sensitiveness, and investigate the moderating effects of other potential moderators on the relationships between trust in top management and each of the important organisational outcomes (as shown in the research outcome model).
4.	Verification of the notion suggesting trust is a sustainable competitive advantage: Given the findings suggesting senior manager role-modelling can minimize the impacts that trust in top management has on organisational outcomes, in conjunction with Mishra & Morrissey's (1990) and Gilbert & Tang's (1998) notion suggesting trust is a fragile thing that can be destroyed instantly.

THESIS CONCLUSIONS

While ‘trust in top management’ matters to organisational performance and effectiveness, low trust in top management remains an issue in many organisations despite their efforts in building trust. This study investigates into how organisations can strategise to deal with the persistent problem of low trust in top management. Backed by research evidence, the study provides insights for organisations to deal with such a persistent problem by ways of (1) promoting group cohesiveness to improve employee trust in top management; and (2) promoting senior manager role-modelling to minimize the impacts of trust in top management on organisational outcomes.

Specifically, evidence from the study concludes four key relationships. First, employee trust in top management is contingent upon employee perceptions of top management’s ability, and integrity (i.e., perceptions of top management’s trustworthiness). Second, group cohesiveness positively influences employee perceptions of top management’s trustworthiness, which in turn improve trust in top management. Third, in situations where trust in top management is low, senior manager role-modelling can serve to minimize the impacts that trust in top management has on organisational outcomes thereby minimizing undesirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness. Finally, at any level of trust in top management, senior manager role-modelling acts to improve the levels of desirable outcomes thereby enhancing desirable impacts on organisational performance and effectiveness. These research findings are generalisable across Western Australia and Singapore, and possibly to other settings on the grounds that the findings have been replicable across two culturally different countries.

Equally important, the contributions of the study are significant in respect to their originality, and relevance and importance to the practice of professionals. As well, the research findings have offered important implications for several fields of study, including trust, organisational performance and effectiveness, group dynamics, leadership, management, and strategic management. Above all, the value of the research outcome model lies on its originality, its unique development based

on the research findings replicable across two culturally different countries, and its contribution to ‘moving forward the body of knowledge’.

REFERENCES

- ABS 2002, 4102.0 - *Australian social trends 2002: Paid work, employment arrangements*, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Canberra.
- ABS 2007, 6359.0 - *Forms of employment, Australia, Nov 2006 (reissue): Summary of findings*, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Canberra.
- Abusabha, R & Woelfel, ML 2003, 'Qualitative vs quantitative methods: Two opposites that make a perfect match', *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, vol. 103, no. 5, pp. 566-569.
- Aimar, C & Stough, S 2006, 'Leadership. Does culture matters? Comparative practices between Argentina and United States of America', *Allied Academies International Conference. Academy of Educational Leadership. Proceedings*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 51-57.
- Ainsworth, S & Purss, A 2009, 'Same time, next year? Human resource management and seasonal workers', *Personnel Review*, vol. 38, no. 3, pp. 217-235.
- Ajzen, I & Fishbein, M 1980, *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Alameddine, M, Baumann, A, Onate, K & Deber, R 2011, 'Career transitions of inactive nurses: A registration database analysis (1993-2006)', *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, vol. 48, no. 2, p. 184.
- Alegre, J & Cladera, M 2009, 'Analysing the effect of satisfaction and previous visits on tourist intentions to return', *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 43, no. 5/6, pp. 670-686.
- Allen, NJ & Meyer, JP 1993, 'Organisational commitment: Evidence of career stage effects?' *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 49-61.
- Allen, NJ & Meyer, JP 1996, 'Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organisation: An examination of construct validity', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, vol. 49, no. 3, pp. 252-276.
- Ambition 2009, *The Ambition report: Job market trends - mid year 2009*, Singapore, Ambition, Singapore.
- Anderson, E & Weitz, B 1989, 'Determinants of continuity in conventional industrial channel dyads', *Marketing Science (1986-1998)*, vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 310-323.
- Anderson, JC & Narus, JA 1990, 'A model of distributor firm and manufacturer firm working partnerships', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 54, no. 1, pp. 42-58.
- Andersson, LM & Bateman, TS 1997, 'Cynicism in the workplace: Some causes and effects', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, vol. 18, no. 5, pp. 449-469.

- Argyris, C 1964, *Integrating the individual and the organisation*, Wiley, New York.
- Armstrong, JS & Overton, TS 1977, 'Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys', *Journal of Marketing Research (pre-1986)*, vol. 14, no. 3, pp. 396-402.
- Arnold, HJ 1982, 'Moderator variables: A clarification of conceptual, analytic, and psychometric issues', *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, vol. 29, no. 2, pp. 143-174.
- Aryee, S, Budhwar, PS & Chen, ZX 2002, 'Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organisational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 267-285.
- Ashford, S, Lee, C & Bobko, P 1989, 'Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 32, pp. 803-829.
- Atuahene-Gima, K & Li, H 2002, 'When does trust matter? Antecedents and contingent effects of supervisee trust on performance in selling new products in China and the United States', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 66, no. 3, pp. 61-81.
- Aulakh, PS & Gencurk, EF 2000, 'International principal-agent relationships: Control, governance and performance', *Industrial Marketing Management*, vol. 29, no. 6, pp. 521-538.
- Babin, BJ, Boles, JS & Robin, DP 2000, 'Representing the perceived ethical work climate among marketing employees', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 345-358.
- Bagozzi, RP 1980a, *Causal models in marketing*, John Wiley, New York.
- Bagozzi, RP 1980b, 'The nature and causes of self-esteem, performance, and satisfaction in the sales force: A structural equation approach', *The Journal of Business*, vol. 53, no. 3, pp. 315-331.
- Bagozzi, RP 1980c, 'Performance and satisfaction in an industrial sales force: An examination of their antecedents and simultaneity', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 44, no. 2, pp. 65-77.
- Bagozzi, RP, Yi, Y & Phillips, LW 1991, 'Assessing construct validity in organisational research', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 421-458.
- Bandura, A 1977, *Social learning theory*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Bandura, A 1986, *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

- Barber, B 1983, *The logic and limits of trust*, Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, N.J.
- Barney, JB 1986, 'Organisational culture: Can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage?' *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 656-665.
- Barney, JB 1991, 'Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage', *Journal of Management*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 99-120.
- Barney, JB 1995, 'Looking inside for competitive advantage', *Academy of Management Executive*, vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 49-61.
- Barney, JB & Hansen, MH 1994, 'Trustworthiness as a source of competitive advantage', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 15, pp. 175-190.
- Barrick, MR, Stewart, GL, Neubert, MJ & Mount, MK 1998, 'Relating member ability and personality to work-team processes and team effectiveness', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 83, no. 3, pp. 377-391.
- Bartkus, KR, Howell, RD, Parent, CRM & Hartman, CL 1997, 'Managerial antecedents and individual consequences of group cohesiveness in travel service selling', *Journal of Travel Research*, vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 56-63.
- Bartolome, F 1989, 'Nobody trusts the boss completely -- now what?' *Harvard Business Review*, vol. 67, no. 2, pp. 135-142.
- Bass, BM 1985, *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*, Free Press, New York.
- Bauer, TN & Green, SG 1996, 'Development of leader-member exchange: A longitudinal test', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 39, no. 6, pp. 1538-1567.
- BBC 2004, 'Romanian president re-confirms intention to return to Social Democrats', *Asia Africa Intelligence Wire*.
- Becker, HS 1960, 'Notes on the concept of commitment', *American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 66, pp. 32-40.
- Becker, TE & Eveleth, DM 1995, 'Foci and bases of employee commitment: Implications for job performance', *Academy of Management Journal*, pp. 307-311.
- Belasco, JA 1989, 'What Went Wrong?' *Executive Excellence*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 13-14.
- Bellah, RN, Madsen, R, Sullivan, WM, Swidler, A & Tipton, SM 1985, *Habits of the heart: Individualism and commitment in American life*, University of California Press, Berkeley, CA.

- Benkhoff, B 1997, 'Ignoring commitment is costly: New approaches establish the missing link between commitment and performance', *Human Relations*, vol. 50, no. 6, pp. 701-726.
- Bennis, W 1989, 'Why leaders can't lead', *Training and Development Journal*, vol. 43, no. 4, pp. 35-39.
- Benton, AA, Gelber, ER, Kelley, HH & Liebling, BA 1969, 'Reactions to various degrees of deceit in a mixed-motive relationship', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 170-180.
- Bernal, H, Wooley, S & Schensul, JJ 1997, 'The challenges of using Likert-type scales with low-literate ethnic populations', *Nursing Research*, vol. 46, no. 3, pp. 179-181.
- Bhattacharya, R, Devinney, TM & Pillutla, MM 1998, 'A formal model of trust based on outcomes', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 459-472.
- Bijlsma, K & Koopman, P 2003, 'Introduction: Trust within organisations', *Personnel Review*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 543-555.
- Blau, PM 1964, *Exchange and power in social life*, J. Wiley, New York.
- Blood, MR & Mullet, GM 1977, *Where have all the moderators gone: The perils of type II error*, ADA040598, College of Industrial Management, Georgia Institute of Technology, Technical Report No. 11.
- Blumer, H 1962, 'Society as symbolic interaction', in AM Rose (ed.), *Human behaviour and social processes*, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, pp. 179-192.
- Blumer, H 1969, *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Bollen, KA 1989, *Structural equations with latent variables*, Wiley, New York.
- Bolon, DS 1997, 'Organisational citizenship behaviour among hospital employees: A multidimensional analysis involving job satisfaction and organisational commitment', *Hospital & Health Services Administration*, vol. 42, no. 2, pp. 221-241.
- Boss, RW 1978, 'Trust and managerial problem solving revisited', *Group & Organization Studies*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 331-342.
- Bradach, JL & Eccles, RG 1989, 'Price, authority, and trust: From ideal types to plural forms', *Annual Review of Sociology*, vol. 15, pp. 97-118.
- Brame, R, Paternoster, R, Mazerolle, P & Piquero, A 1998, 'Testing for the equality of maximum-likelihood regression coefficients between two independent equations', *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, vol. 14, pp. 245-261.

- Brashear, TG, Boles, JS, Bellenger, DN & Brooks, CM 2003, 'An empirical test of trust-building processes and outcomes in sales manager-salesperson relationships', *Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 189-200.
- Bresnahan, MJ, Ohashi, R, Liu, WY, Nebashi, R & Liao, C-C 1999, 'A comparison of response styles in Singapore and Taiwan', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 342-358.
- Brockman, BK & Morgan, RM 2006, 'The moderating effect of organisational cohesiveness in knowledge use and new product development', *Academy of Marketing Science. Journal*, vol. 34, no. 3, pp. 295-307.
- Brockner, J, Siegel, PA, Daly, JP, Tyler, T & Martin, C 1997, 'When trust matters: The moderating effect of outcome favourability', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 558-583.
- Bromiley, P & Cummings, LL 1995, 'Transactions Costs in Organizations with Trust', *Research on Negotiation in Organizations*, vol. 5, pp. 219-250.
- Brown, SP & Peterson, RA 1993, 'Antecedents and consequences of salesperson job satisfaction: Meta-analysis and assessment of causal effects', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 63-77.
- Brown, SP & Peterson, RA 1994, 'The effects of effort on sales performance and job satisfaction', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 58, no. 2, pp. 70-80.
- Buchanan II, B 1974, 'Building organisational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organisations', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 533-546.
- Burke, SM, Carron, AV, Patterson, MM, Estabrooks, PA, Hill, JL, Loughhead, TM, Rosenkranz, SR & Spink, KS 2005, 'Cohesion as shared beliefs in exercise classes', *Small Group Research*, vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 267-288.
- Burleson, BR & Mortenson, SR 2003, 'Explaining cultural differences in evaluations of emotional support behaviours', *Communication Research*, vol. 30, no. 2, pp. 113-146.
- Burrell, G & Morgan, G 1979, *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis*, Heinemann, London.
- Burt, RS & Knez, M 1995, 'Kinds of third-party effects on trust', *Rationality and Society*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 255-292.
- Butler, JK & Cantrell, RS 1984, 'A behavioral decision theory approach to modeling dyadic trust in superiors and subordinates', *Psychological Reports*, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 19-28.

- Butler, JK, Jr. 1991, 'Toward understanding and measuring conditions of trust: Evolution of a conditions of trust inventory', *Journal of Management*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 643-663.
- Cai, DA, Wilson, SR & Drake, LE 2000, 'Culture in the context of intercultural negotiation: Individualism-collectivism and paths to integrative agreements', *Human Communication Research*, vol. 26, no. 4, pp. 591-617.
- Calza, F, Aliane, N & Cannavale, C 2010, 'Cross-cultural differences and Italian firms' internationalisation in Algeria', *European Business Review*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 246-272.
- Camerman, J, Cropanzano, R & Vandenberghe, C 2007, 'The benefits of justice for temporary workers', *Group & Organization Management*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 176-207.
- Campbell, DT & Fiske, DW 1959, 'Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 56, no. 2, pp. 81-105.
- Carkhuff, RR & Berenson, BG 1977, *Beyond counseling and therapy*, 2nd edn, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
- Carmines, EG & Zeller, RA 1979, *Reliability and validity assessment*, Sage, Beverly Hills.
- Carnevale, PJD, Pruitt, DG & Carrington, PI 1982, 'Effects of future dependence, liking, and repeated requests for help on helping behaviour', *Social Psychology Quarterly*, vol. 45, no. 1, pp. 9-14.
- Carron, AV 1982, 'Cohesiveness in sport groups: Interpretations and considerations', *Journal of Sport Psychology*, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 123-138.
- Carron, AV, Brawley, LR, Eys, MA, Bray, S, Dorsch, K, Estabrooks, P, Hall, CR, Hardy, J, Hausenblas, H, Madison, R, Paskevich, D, Patterson, MM, Prapavessis, H, Spink, KS & Terry, PC 2003, 'Do individual perceptions of group cohesion reflect shared beliefs?: An empirical analysis', *Small Group Research*, vol. 34, no. 4, pp. 468-496.
- Carsten, JM & Spector, PE 1987, 'Unemployment, job satisfaction, and employee turnover: A meta-analytic test of the Muchinsky model', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 72, no. 3, pp. 374-381.
- Cattell, RB 1966, 'The scree test for the number of factors', *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 245-276.
- Chan, K, Huang, X & Ng, P 2008, 'Managers' conflict management styles and employee attitudinal outcomes: The mediating role of trust', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 277-295.

- Chang, A & Bordia, P 2001, 'A multidimensional approach to the group cohesion-group performance relationship', *Small Group Research*, vol. 32, no. 4, pp. 379-405.
- Chang, K 2000, 'The impact of perceived physical environments on customers' satisfaction and return intentions', *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*, vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 75-86.
- Chang, L 1994, 'A psychometric evaluation of 4-point and 6-point Likert-type scales in relation to reliability and validity', *Applied Psychological Measurement*, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 205-215.
- Chansler, PA, Swamidass, PM & Cammann, C 2003, 'Self-managing work teams: An empirical study of group cohesiveness in "natural work groups" at a Harley-Davidson Motor Company plant', *Small Group Research*, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 101-120.
- Chen, H-M, Chen, Q & Kazman, R 2007, 'The affective and cognitive impacts of perceived touch on online customers' intention to return in the Web-based ECRM environment', *Journal of Electronic Commerce in Organizations*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 69-89.
- Chen, M, Zhou, J & Zhao, L 2008, 'The effect of virtual community culture and group cohesion on knowledge sharing: A case study of professional virtual community', in *2008 International Conference on Computer Science and Software Engineering*, IEEEExplore, pp. 105-108.
- Chow, GC 1960, 'Tests of equality between sets of coefficients in two linear regressions', *Econometrica (pre-1986)*, vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 591-605.
- Chu, PC, Spires, EE & Sueyoshi, T 1999, 'Cross-cultural differences in choice behaviour and use of decision aids: A comparison of Japan and the United States', *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, vol. 77, no. 2, pp. 147-170.
- Churchill, GA, Ford, NM & Walker, OC 1974, 'Measuring the job satisfaction of industrial salesmen', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 254-260.
- Churchill, GA, Jr. 1979, 'A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 64-73.
- Churchill, GA, Jr. 1991, *Marketing research: Methodological foundations*, 5th edn, Dryden Press, Chicago.
- Clark, MC & Payne, RL 1997, 'The nature and structure of workers' trust in management', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 205-224.

- Clawson, JG 1989, 'You can't manage them if they don't trust you', *Executive Excellence*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 10-11.
- CLMPC 1997, *Changing times, new ways of working*, Canadian Labour Market and Productivity Centre (CLMPC), Ottawa, Ontario.
- Clogg, CC, Petkova, E & Haritou, A 1995, 'Statistical methods for comparing regression coefficients between models', *The American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 100, no. 5, pp. 1261-1293.
- Coakes, SJ & Steed, L 2005, *SPSS: Analysis without anguish - version 12.0 for Windows*, John Wiley & Sons, Milton, Qld.
- Cohen, J 1969, *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*, Academic Press, New York.
- Cohen, J & Cohen, P 1975, *Applied multiple regression: Correlation analysis for the behavioural sciences*, Lawrence Erlbaum Ass., Hillsdale, New Jersey.
- Coleman, JS 1990, *Foundations of social theory*, Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.
- Columbia Uni 2002, *Provost Jonathan Cole announces his intention to return to teaching and research*, Columbia University, New York.
- Conger, JA & Kanungo, RN 1987, 'Toward a behavioural theory of charismatic leadership in organisational settings', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 637-647.
- Connell, J, Ferres, N & Travaglione, T 2003, 'Engendering trust in manager-subordinate relationships: Predictors and outcomes', *Personnel Review*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 569-587.
- Cook, J & Wall, T 1980, 'New work attitude measures of trust, organisational commitment and personal need non-fulfillment', *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, vol. 53, no. 1, pp. 39-52.
- Cook, RD & Weisberg, S 1982, *Residuals and influence in regression*, Chapman and Hall, New York.
- Cook, TD & Campbell, DT 1979, *Quasi-experimentation: Design & analysis issues for field settings*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston.
- Corey, G & Corey, MS 1982, *Groups: Process and practice*, Brooks/Cole, Monterey, CA.
- Costa, AC 2003, 'Work team trust and effectiveness', *Personnel Review*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 605-622.

- Costa, AC, Roe, RA & Taillieu, T 2001, 'Trust within teams: The relation with performance effectiveness', *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 225-244.
- Costigan, RD, Ilter, SS & Berman, J 1998, 'A multi-dimensional study of trust in organisations', *Journal of Managerial Issues*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 303-317.
- Covey, SR 1989, 'Seven chronic problems', *Executive Excellence*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 3-6.
- Craig, TY & Kelly, JR 1999, 'Group cohesiveness and creative performance', *Group Dynamics*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 243-256.
- Creswell, JW 1994, *Research design: Qualitative & quantitative approaches*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Creswell, JW 1998, *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Cronbach, LJ 1946, 'Response sets and test validity', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, vol. 6, pp. 475-494.
- Cronbach, LJ 1951, 'Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests', *Psychometrika*, vol. 16, pp. 297-334.
- Cummings, LL & Schwab, DP 1970, 'Evaluation of theories linking employee satisfaction and performance', *Proceedings of the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*, vol. 5(Pt 2), pp. 581-582.
- Cunningham, JB & MacGregor, J 2000, 'Trust and the design of work: Complementary constructs in satisfaction and performance', *Human Relations*, vol. 53, no. 12, pp. 1575-1591.
- Darrow, AL & Kahl, DR 1982, 'A comparison of moderated regression techniques considering strength of effect', *Journal of Management*, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 35-47.
- D'Aveni, RA 1994, *Hypercompetition: Managing the dynamics of strategic maneuvering*, Free Press, New York.
- Davenport, C 1990, 'Why the trust gap is getting wider', *Fortune*, vol. 121, no. 14, p. 12.
- Davis, JH, Schoorman, FD, Mayer, RC & Tan, HH 2000, 'The trusted general manager and business unit performance: Empirical evidence of a competitive advantage', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 21, no. 5, pp. 563-576.
- De Dreu, CK, Giebels, E & Van de Vliet, E 1998, 'Social motives and trust in integrative negotiation: The disruptive effects of punitive capability', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 83, no. 3, pp. 408-422.

- De Gilder, D 2003, 'Commitment, trust and work behaviour: The case of contingent workers', *Personnel Review*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 588-604.
- Deluga, RJ 1994, 'Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, vol. 67, no. 4, pp. 315-326.
- Dess, GG & Robinson, RB, Jr. 1984, 'Measuring organisational performance in the absence of objective measures: The case of the privately-held firm and conglomerate business unit', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 265-273.
- Deutsch, M 1958, 'Trust and suspicion', *Journal of Conflict Resolution (pre-1986)*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 265-279.
- Deutsch, M 1960, 'The effect of motivational orientation upon trust and suspicion', *Human Relations*, vol. 13, pp. 123-139.
- Deutsch, M 1962, 'Cooperation and trust: Some theoretical notes', in MR Jones (ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, vol. xiii, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, Nebraska, pp. 275-320.
- Deutsch, M 1973, *The resolution of conflict: Constructive and destructive processes*, Yale University Press, New Haven.
- Dickson, MW, Den-Hartog, DN & Mitchelson, JK 2003, 'Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress, and raising new questions', *The Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 14, pp. 729-768.
- Dirks, KT 1999, 'The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 84, no. 3, pp. 445-455.
- Dirks, KT 2000, 'Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 85, no. 6, pp. 1004-1012.
- Dirks, KT & Ferrin, DL 2001, 'The role of trust in organisational settings', *Organization Science*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 450-467.
- Dirks, KT & Ferrin, DL 2002, 'Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 87, no. 4, pp. 611-628.
- Dobbins, GH & Zaccaro, SJ 1986, 'The effects of group cohesion and leader behaviour on subordinate satisfaction', *Group & Organization Studies (1986-1998)*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 203-219.
- Doney, PM, Cannon, JP & Mullen, MR 1998, 'Understanding the influence of national culture on the development of trust', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 601-620.

- Doran, HE 1989, *Applied regression analysis in econometrics*, Marcel Dekker, New York.
- Drasgow, F & Miller, HE 1982, 'Psychometric and substantive issues in scale construction and validation', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 67, no. 3, pp. 268-279.
- Driscoll, JW 1978, 'Trust and participation in organisational decision making as predictors of satisfaction', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 21, no. 1, pp. 44-56.
- Dunegan, KJ, Tierney, P & Duchon, D 1992, 'Perceptions of an innovative climate: Examining the role of divisional affiliation, work group interaction, and leader/subordinate exchange', *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, vol. 39, no. 3, pp. 227-235.
- Duxbury, L & Higgins, C 1999, *Saskatchewan report '98*, School of Business, Carleton University, Ontario, Canada.
- Dwyer, FR & Oh, S 1987, 'Output sector munificence effects on the internal political economy of marketing channels', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 347-358.
- Earley, PC 1986, 'Trust, perceived importance of praise and criticism, and work performance: An examination of feedback in the United States and England.' *Journal of Management*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 457-473.
- Eisenberger, R, Armeli, S, Rexwinkel, B, Lynch, PD & Rhoades, L 2001, 'Reciprocation of perceived organisational support', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 86, no. 1, pp. 42-51.
- Elangovan, AR & Shapiro, DL 1998, 'Betrayal of trust in organisations', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 547-566.
- Ellis, K & Shockley-Zalabak, P 2001, 'Trust in top management and immediate supervisor: The relationship to satisfaction, perceived organizational effectiveness, and information receiving', *Communication Quarterly*, vol. 49, no. 4, pp. 382-398.
- Erdem, F & Ozen, J 2003, 'Cognitive and affective dimensions of trust in developing team performance', *Team Performance Management*, vol. 9, no. 5/6, pp. 131-135.
- Ettore, B 1995, 'Skeptical, disgruntled and mistrustful inc.' *Management Review*, vol. 84, no. 7, p. 7.
- Evans, CR & Dion, KL 1991, 'Group cohesion and performance: A meta-analysis', *Small Group Research*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 175-186.

- Eys, MA, Carron, AV, Bray, SR & Beauchamp, MR 2005, 'The relationship between role ambiguity and intention to return the following season', *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 255-261.
- Farnham, A 1989, 'The trust gap; corporate America is split by a gulf between top management and everybody else - in pay, in perks, in self-importance', *Fortune*, vol. 120, no. 14, pp. 56-63.
- Fernandez, DR, Carlson, DS, Stepina, LP & Nicholson, JD 1997, 'Hofstede's country classification 25 years later', *The Journal of Social Psychology*, vol. 137, no. 1, pp. 43-54.
- Ferraro, GP 2002, *The cultural dimension of international business*, 4th edn, Prentice Hall, NJ, USA.
- Festinger, L 1950, 'Informal social communication', *Psychological Review*, vol. 57, no. 5, pp. 271-282.
- Field, AP 2005, *Discovering statistics using SPSS*, 2nd edn, Sage, London.
- Finna, H 2004, 'Alternatives to traditional full-time permanent employment - temporary workers', *An Enterprise Odyssey. International Conference Proceedings*, pp. 200-214.
- Flaherty, KE & Pappas, JM 2000, 'The role of trust in salesperson-sales manager relationships', *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, vol. 20, no. 4, pp. 271-278.
- Foote, DA 2004, 'Temporary workers: Managing the problem of unscheduled turnover', *Management Decision*, vol. 42, no. 7/8, pp. 963-973.
- Forehand, GA & Gilmer, VH 1964, 'Environmental variation in studies of organisational behaviour', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 62, no. 6, pp. 361-382.
- Fornell, C & Larcker, DF 1981, 'Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error', *Journal of Marketing Research (pre-1986)*, vol. 18, no. 000001, pp. 39-50.
- Frazer, L & Lawley, M 2000, *Questionnaire design & administration: A practical guide*, John Wiley & Sons Australia Ltd, Brisbane, Australia.
- Frederiksen, N & Melville, S 1954, 'Differential predictability in the use of test scores', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, vol. 14, pp. 647-656.
- Friedlander, F 1970, 'The primacy of trust as a facilitator of further group accomplishment', *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 387-400.
- Friedley, SA & Manchester, BB 2005, 'Building team cohesion: Becoming "we" instead of "me"'. George Mason University, Virginia, USA,

- Frijda, NH 1988, 'The laws of emotion', *American Psychologist*, vol. 43, no. 5, pp. 349-358.
- Frost, T, Stimpson, DV & Maughan, MR 1978, 'Some correlates of trust', *Journal of Psychology*, vol. 99, no. 1, pp. 103-108.
- Fukuyama, F 1995, *Trust: Social virtues and the creation of prosperity*, H. Hamilton, London.
- Fulk, J, Brief, AP & Barr, SH 1985, 'Trust-in-supervisor and perceived fairness and accuracy of performance evaluations', *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 301-313.
- Gabarro, J & Athos, J 1976, *Interpersonal relations and communications*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Ganesan, S, Weitz, BA & John, G 1993, 'Hiring and promotion policies in sales force management: Some antecedents and consequences', *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 15-26.
- George, J & Jones, G 1997, 'Experiencing work: Values, attitudes, and moods', *Human Relations*, vol. 50, no. 4, pp. 393-416.
- Giffin, KIM 1967, 'The contribution of studies of source credibility to a theory of interpersonal trust in the communication process', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 68, no. 2, pp. 104-120.
- Gilbert, JA & Tang, TL-P 1998, 'An examination of organisational trust antecedents', *Public Personnel Management*, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 321-336.
- Gill, AS 2008, 'The role of trust in employee-manager relationship', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 98-103.
- Gillespie, NA & Mann, L 2004, 'Transformational leadership and shared values: The building blocks of trust', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, vol. 19, no. 6, pp. 588-607.
- Gioia, DA & Pitre, E 1990, 'Multiparadigm perspectives on theory building', *The Academy of Management Review*, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 584-602.
- Golembiewski, R & McConkie, M 1975, 'The centrality of interpersonal trust in group process', in CL Cooper (ed.), *Theories of group processes*, Wiley, London.
- Goodwin, R, Nizharadze, G, Luu, LAN, Kosa, E & Emelyanova, T 1999, 'Glasnost and the art of conversation', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 72-90.

- Goris, JR, Vaught, BC & Pettit, JD, Jr. 2003, 'Effects of trust in superiors and influence of superiors on the association between individual-job congruence and job performance/satisfaction', *Journal of Business and Psychology*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 327-343.
- Graen, GB & Uhl-Bien, M 1995, 'Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective', *Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 219-247.
- Griffin, RW 1980, 'Relationships among individual, task design, and leader behaviour variables', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 665-683.
- Griffith, J 1997, 'Test of a model incorporating stress, strain, and disintegration in the cohesion-performance relation', *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, vol. 27, no. 17, pp. 1489-1526.
- Grinnell, RM 1997, *Social work research & evaluation: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*, 5th edn, F.E. Peacock, Itasca, IL.
- Gulati, R 1995, 'Does familiarity breed trust? The implications of repeated ties for contractual choice in alliances', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 85-112.
- Gully, SM, Devine, DJ & Whitney, DJ 1995, 'A meta-analysis of cohesion and performance: Effects of levels of analysis and task interdependence', *Small Group Research*, vol. 26, no. 4, pp. 497-520.
- Hackman, JR 1980, 'Work redesign and motivation', *Professional Psychology*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 445-455.
- Hackman, JR & Oldham, GR 1975, 'Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 60, no. 2, pp. 159-170.
- Hair, JF, Jr. , Anderson, RE, Tatham, RL & Black, WC 1995, *Multivariate data analysis with readings*, 4th edn, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
- Hallowell, EM 1999, 'The human moment at work', *Harvard Business Review*, vol. 77, no. 1, pp. 58-66.
- Hammer, V & Craig, G 2008, 'The experiences of inactive nurses returned to nursing after completing a refresher course', *The Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing*, vol. 39, no. 8, pp. 358-368.
- Harrison, DA, Price, KH & Bell, MP 1998, 'Beyond relational demography: Time and the effects of surface- and deep-level diversity on work group cohesion', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 41, no. 1, pp. 96-107.

- Harrison, GL 1995, 'Satisfaction, tension and interpersonal relations: A cross-cultural comparison of managers in Singapore and Australia', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, vol. 10, no. 8, pp. 13-19.
- Hart, KM, Capps, H, Cangemi, JP & Caillouet, LM 1986, 'Exploring organisational trust and its multiple dimensions: A case study of General Motors', *Organization Development Journal*, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 31-39.
- Hatfield, JD & Huseman, RC 1982, 'Perceptual congruence about communication as related to satisfaction: Moderating effects of individual characteristics', *The Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 349 - 358.
- Heskett, JL, Sasser, WE, Jr. & Schlesinger, LA 1997, *The service profit chain: How leading companies link profit and growth to loyalty, satisfaction, and value*, Free Press, New York.
- Hills, P & Argyle, M 2002, 'The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire: A compact scale for the measurement of psychological well-being', *Personality and Individual Differences*, vol. 33, no. 7, pp. 1071-1082.
- Hofstede, GH 1980, *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*, Sage, Beverly Hills, CA.
- Hofstede, GH 2001, *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviours, institutions, and organisations across nations*, 2nd edn, Sage, London.
- Hofstede, GH & Hofstede, GJ 2005, *Cultures and organisations: Software of the mind*, 2nd edn, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Homburg, C & Stock, RM 2004, 'The link between salespeople's job satisfaction and customer satisfaction in a business-to-business context: A dyadic analysis', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 144-158.
- Hong, T 2004, 'The role of credibility on the intention to return or recommend a Web site', in *The annual meeting of the International Communication Association*, All Academic Inc., New Orleans Sheraton, New Orleans, LA.
- Hopkins, SM & Weathington, BL 2006, 'The relationships between justice perceptions, trust, and employee attitudes in a downsized organisation', *The Journal of Psychology*, vol. 140, no. 5, pp. 477-498.
- Horng, C 1993, 'Cultural differences, trust and their relationships to business strategy and control', *Advances in International Comparative Management*, vol. 8, p. 175.
- Horton, TR & Reid, PC 1991, *Beyond the trust gap: Forging a new partnership between managers and their employees*, Business One Irwin, Homewood, IL.

- Hosmer, LT 1995, 'Trust: The connecting link between organisational theory and philosophical ethics', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 379-403.
- House, RJ 1977, 'A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership', in JG Hunt & LL Larson (eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge: A symposium held at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, October 27-28, 1976*, Southern Illinois University Press, Carbondale, IL.
- Hovland, CI, Janis, IL & Kelley, HH 1953, *Communication and persuasion: Psychological studies of opinion change*, Yale University Press, New Haven, CT.
- Huang, C-C 2009, 'Knowledge sharing and group cohesiveness on performance: An empirical study of technology R&D teams in Taiwan', *Technovation*, vol. 29, no. 11, pp. 786-797.
- Hunt, SD, Sparkman, RD, Jr. & Wilcox, JB 1982, 'The pretest in survey research: Issues and preliminary findings', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 19, no. 2, pp. 269-273.
- Husted, BW 1989, 'Trust in business relations: Directions for empirical research', *Business & Professional Ethics Journal*, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 23-40.
- Hwang, P & Burgers, WP 1997, 'Properties of trust: An analytical view', *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, vol. 69, no. 1, pp. 67-73.
- IMF 2003, 'IMF: Economic Counsellor Kenneth Rogoff notifies IMF Management of intention to return to Harvard University in the autumn', *M2 Presswire*, p. 1.
- Ittrell, RFL & Valentin, LN 2005, 'Preferred leadership behaviours: Exploratory results from Romania, Germany, and the UK', *The Journal of Management Development*, vol. 24, no. 5/6, pp. 421-442.
- Jacoby, J & Matell, MS 1971, 'Three-point likert scales are good enough', *Journal of Marketing Research (pre-1986)*, vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 495-500.
- Jenkins, KM 1977, *A study of the relationship between organisational communication and worker performance*, 7805391 thesis, Arizona State University, Arizona, USA.
- Jiang, P & Rosenbloom, B 2005, 'Customer intention to return online: Price perception, attribute-level performance, and satisfaction unfolding over time', *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 39, no. 1-2, pp. 150-174.
- Jogulu, UD 2010, 'Culturally-linked leadership styles', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, vol. 31, no. 8, pp. 705-719.

- Johnson-George, C & Swap, WC 1982, 'Measurement of specific interpersonal trust: Construction and validation of a scale to assess trust in a specific other', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 43, no. 6, pp. 1306-1317.
- Jones, AP, James, LR & Bruni, JR 1975, 'Perceived leadership behaviour and employee confidence in the leader as moderated by job involvement', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 60, no. 1, pp. 146-149.
- Jones, GR & George, JM 1998, 'The experience and evolution of trust: Implications for cooperation and teamwork', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 531-546.
- Kaiser, HF 1960, 'The application of electronic computers to factor analysis', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, vol. 20, pp. 141-151.
- Kandula, N, Wen, M, Jacobs, E & Lauderdale, D 2009, 'Association between neighbourhood context and smoking prevalence among Asian Americans', *American Journal of Public Health*, vol. 99, no. 5, pp. 885-892.
- Kanter, RM 1977, *Men and women of the corporation*, Basic Books, New York.
- Kanungo, RN 1998, 'Leadership in organisations: Looking ahead to the 21st century', *Canadian Psychology*, vol. 39, no. 1/2, p. 71.
- Karson, EJ & Fisher, RJ 2005, 'Predicting intentions to return to the Web site: Extending the dual mediation hypothesis', *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 2-14.
- Kawaguchi, A, Yasukawa, F & Matsuda, Y 2008, 'An analysis of job search behaviour of inactive nurses in Japan', *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, vol. 17, no. 24, p. 3275.
- Kee, HW & Knox, RE 1970, 'Conceptual and methodological considerations in the study of trust and suspicion', *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, vol. 14, no. 3, pp. 357-366.
- Keller, RT 1986, 'Predictors of the performance of project groups in R & D organisations', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 715-726.
- Kent, RA 2001, *Data construction and data analysis for survey research*, Palgrave, New York.
- Kerlinger, FN 1986, *Foundations of behavioural research*, 3rd edn, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Fort Worth, TX.
- Kerlinger, FN & Lee, HB 2000, *Foundations of behavioural research*, 4th edn, Harcourt College Publishers, Fort Worth, TX.
- Kidder, LH & Judd, CM 1986, *Research methods in social relations*, 5th edn, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

- Kim, WC & Mauborgne, RA 1993, 'Procedural justice, attitudes, and subsidiary top management compliance with multinationals' corporate strategic decisions', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 502-526.
- Kimmel, MJ, Pruitt, D, Magenau, J, Konar-Goldband, E & Carnevale, P 1980, 'Effects of trust, aspiration, and gender on negotiation tactics', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 9-22.
- Klimoski, RJ & Karol, BL 1976, 'The impact of trust on creative problem solving groups', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 61, no. 5, pp. 630-633.
- Konovsky, MA & Cropanzano, R 1991, 'Perceived fairness of employee drug testing as a predictor of employee attitudes and job performance', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 76, no. 5, pp. 698-707.
- Konovsky, MA & Pugh, S 1994, 'Citizenship behaviour and social exchange', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 37, no. 3, pp. 656-669.
- Korsgaard, MA, Schweiger, DM & Sapienza, HJ 1995, 'Building commitment, attachment, and trust in strategic decision-making teams: The role of procedural justice', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 60-84.
- Kouzes, JM & Posner, BZ 1987, *The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organisations*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Koys, DJ 2001, 'The effects of employee satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, and turnover on organisational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 54, no. 1, pp. 101-114.
- Kramer, RM 1996, 'Divergent realities and convergent disappointments in the hierarchical relation, trust and the intuitive auditor at work', in RM Kramer & TR Tyler (eds.), *Trust in organisations: Frontiers of theory and research*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 216-246.
- Kramer, RM 1999, 'Trust and distrust in organisations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions', *Annual Review of Psychology*, vol. 50, pp. 569-598.
- Kramer, RM, Brewer, MB & Hanna, BA 1993, 'Collective trust and collection action: The decisions to trust as a social decision', in RM Kramer & TR Tyler (eds.), *Trust in organisations: Frontiers of theory and research*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 357-389.
- Kramer, RM & Tyler, TR (eds.) 1996, *Trust in organisations: Frontiers of theory and research*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Kumar, N, Scheer, LK & Steenkamp, J-BE 1995, 'The effects of supplier fairness on vulnerable resellers', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 54-65.

- Ladebo, OJ 2006, 'Perceptions of trust and employees' attitudes: A look at Nigeria's agricultural extension workers', *Journal of Business and Psychology*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 409-427.
- Lado, AA, Boyd, NG & Wright, P 1992, 'A competency-based model of sustainable competitive advantage: Toward a conceptual integration', *Journal of Management*, vol. 18, no. 1, p. 77.
- Lagace, RR 1991, 'An exploratory study of reciprocal trust between sales managers and salespersons', *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 49-58.
- Landers, DM, Wilkinson, MO, Hatfield, BD & Barber, H 1982, 'Causality and the cohesion-performance relationship', *Journal of Sport Psychology*, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 170-183.
- Lane, C & Bachmann, R 1996, 'The social constitution of trust: Supplier relations in Britain and Germany', *Organization Studies*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 365-395.
- Larson, B & Steinman, R 2009, 'Driving NFL fan satisfaction and return Intentions with concession service quality', *Services Marketing Quarterly*, vol. 30, no. 4, p. 418.
- Larson, CE & LaFasto, FMJ 1989, *Teamwork: What must go right, what can go wrong*, SAGE Publications, Newbury Park, CA.
- Larzelere, RE & Huston, TL 1980, 'The dyadic trust scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships', *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 595-604.
- Laschinger, HKS, Finegan, J & Shamian, J 2001, 'The impact of workplace empowerment, organisational trust on staff nurses' work satisfaction and organisational commitment', *Health Care Management Review*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 7-23.
- Lee, JSK 1992, 'Quantitative versus qualitative research methods: Two approaches to organisation studies', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 87-94.
- Lee, U-W 2008, 'Contract jobs becoming a trend: Survey', *The Business Times, Singapore*, 13 Dec., 2008.
- Lewicki, RJ & Bunker, BB 1995, 'Trust in relationships: A model of development and decline', in BB Bunker & JZ Rubin (eds.), *Conflict, cooperation, and justice*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, pp. 133-173.
- Lewicki, RJ, McAllister, DJ & Bies, RJ 1998, 'Trust and distrust: New relationships and realities', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 438-458.

- Lewis, JD & Weigert, A 1985, 'Trust as a social reality.' *Social Forces*, vol. 63, no. 4, pp. 967-985.
- Lewis-Beck, M, Bryman, AE & Liao, TF 2004, *The Sage encyclopedia of social science research methods*, Sage, USA.
- Lieberman, JK 1981, *The litigious society*, Basic Books, New York.
- Lincoln, YS & Guba, EG 2000, 'Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions and emerging confluences', in N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA., pp. 163-188.
- Lindsay, DR 1995, *A guide to scientific writing*, 2nd edn, Longman, Melbourne.
- Lindskold, S 1978, 'Trust development, the GRIT proposal, and the effects of conciliatory acts on conflict and cooperation', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 85, no. 4, pp. 772-793.
- Liou, KT 1995, 'Understanding employee commitment in the public organisation: A study of the juvenile detention center', *International Journal of Public Administration*, vol. 18, no. 8, pp. 1269-1295.
- Litwin, GH & Stringer, RA 1968, *Motivation and organisational climate*, Harvard University Press, Boston.
- Liu, AH, Leach, MP & Winsor, RD 2005, 'Why do conference goers return? A model of intentions to attend and recommend', *American Marketing Association. Conference Proceedings*, vol. 16, p. 126.
- Liu, Q-h & Hu, B 2007, 'The effects of organisational structure on technological innovation: An empirical study in Chinese automobile industry', in *International Conference on Wireless Communications, Networking and Mobile Computing, 2007. WiCom 2007*, IEEE Xplore, pp. 5792 - 5795.
- Locke, E 1976, 'The nature and causes of job satisfaction', in MD Dunnette (ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology*, Rand McNally, Chicago, pp. 1297-1350.
- Long, SA 1991, 'Pretesting questionnaires minimizes measurement error', *Marketing News*, vol. 25, no. 11, p. 12.
- MacKenzie, SB, Podsakoff, PM & Rich, GA 2001, 'Transformational and transactional leadership and salesperson performance', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 29, no. 2, pp. 115-134.
- Maddux, WW & Yuki, M 2006, 'The ripple effect: Cultural differences in perceptions of the consequences of events', *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 669-683.

- Madsen, TK 1989, 'Successful export marketing management: Some empirical evidence', *International Marketing Review*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 41-57.
- Magni, M, Proserpio, L, Hoegl, M & Provera, B 2009, 'The role of team behavioural integration and cohesion in shaping individual improvisation', *Research Policy*, vol. 38, no. 6, pp. 1044-1053.
- Man, DC & Lam, SSK 2003, 'The effects of job complexity and autonomy on cohesiveness in collectivistic and individualistic work groups: a cross-cultural analysis', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, vol. 24, no. 8, pp. 979-1001.
- Mangione, TW 1995, *Mail surveys: Improving the quality*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Marlowe, HA, Jr. & Nyhan, RC 1992, *Development and psychometric properties of the organisational trust inventory*, University of Florida.
- Matheson, D 2001, 'SPSS answernet solution 100009917: An easy way to perform a Chow test'. Enterprise Information Technology Services, University of Georgia, Athens,
- Mathieu, JE 1990, 'A test of subordinates' achievement and affiliation needs as moderators of leader path-goal relationships', *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 179 - 189.
- Matthai, JM 1990, 'Employee perceptions of trust, satisfaction, and commitment as predictors of turnover intentions in a mental health setting', *Dissertation Abstracts International*, vol. 51, no. 2-B.
- Matzler, K & Renzl, B 2006, 'The relationship between interpersonal trust, employee satisfaction, and employee loyalty', *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, vol. 17, no. 10, pp. 1261-1271.
- Mayer, RC & Davis, JH 1999, 'The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 84, no. 1, pp. 123-136.
- Mayer, RC, Davis, JH & Schoorman, FD 1995, 'An integrative model of organisational trust', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 709-734.
- Mayer, RC & Gavin, MB 1999, 'Trust for management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss?' in *Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management*, Chicago.
- Mayer, RC & Gavin, MB 2005, 'Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss?' *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 48, no. 5, pp. 874-888.

- Mayer, RC & Schoorman, FD 1992, 'Predicting participation and production outcomes through a two-dimensional model of organisational commitment', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 35, no. 3, pp. 671-684.
- McAllister, DJ 1995, 'Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organisations', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 24-59.
- McCauley, DP & Kuhnert, KW 1992, 'A theoretical review and empirical investigation of employee trust in management', *Public Administration Quarterly*, vol. 16, no. 2, pp. 265-284.
- McEvily, B, Perrone, V & Zaheer, A 2003, 'Trust as an organising principle', *Organization Science*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 91-103.
- McFall, L 1987, 'Integrity', *Ethics*, vol. 98, no. 1, pp. 5-20.
- McIntosh, B, Palumbo, MV & Rambur, B 2006, 'Does a 'shadow workforce' of inactive nurses exist?' *Nursing Economics*, vol. 24, no. 5, pp. 231-238.
- McKnight, DH, Cummings, LL & Chervany, NL 1998, 'Initial trust formation in new organisational relationships', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 473-490.
- McKnight, DH, Phillips, B & Hardgrave, BC 2009, 'Which reduces IT turnover intention the most: Workplace characteristics or job characteristics?' *Information & Management*, vol. 46, no. 3, pp. 167-174.
- McLean, T & Anema, M 2004, 'Reduce the nursing shortage: Help inactive nurses return to work', *The Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing*, vol. 35, no. 5, pp. 211-215.
- Meeker, BF 1984, 'Cooperative orientation, trust, and reciprocity', *Human Relations*, vol. 37, no. 3, pp. 225-243.
- Meirovich, G 2010, 'The impact of cultural similarities and differences on performance in strategic partnerships: An integrative perspective', *Journal of Management and Organization*, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 127-139.
- Mellinger, GD 1956, 'Interpersonal trust as a factor in communication', *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, vol. 52, no. 3, pp. 304-309.
- Menard, SW 1995, *Applied logistic regression analysis*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Mennecke, BE, Hoffer, JA & Valacich, JS 1995, 'An experimental examination of group history and group support system use on information sharing performance and user perceptions', in *28th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*, HICSS, Hawaii, pp. 153-162.

- Meyer, JP & Allen, NJ 1991, 'A three-component conceptualization of organisational commitment', *Human Resource Management Review*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 61-89.
- Michalos, AC 1990, 'The impact of trust on business, international security, and the quality of life', *Journal of Business Ethics*, vol. 9, no. 8, pp. 619-638.
- Miles, MB & Huberman, AM 1994, *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*, 2nd edn, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Milgrom, P & Roberts, J 1992, *Economics, organisation, and management*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
- Miller, B 2007, 'Quick activities to improve your team: How to run a successful team-building activity', *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 28-32.
- Misener, TR & Cox, DL 2001, 'Development of the Misener nurse practitioner job satisfaction scale', *Journal of Nursing Measurement*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 91-108.
- Mishra, AK 1996, 'Organisational responses to crisis: The centrality of trust', in RM Kramer & TR Tyler (eds.), *Trust in organisations*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 261-287.
- Mishra, AK & Spreitzer, GM 1998, 'Explaining how survivors respond to downsizing: The roles of trust, empowerment, justice, and work redesign', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 567-588.
- Mishra, J & Morrissey, MA 1990, 'Trust in employee/employer relationships: A survey of West Michigan managers', *Public Personnel Management*, vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 443-486.
- Mobley, WH, Horner, SO & Hollingsworth, A 1978, 'An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 63, no. 4, pp. 408-414.
- Moorman, C, Zaltman, G & Deshpande, R 1992, 'Relationships between providers and users of market research: The dynamics of trust within and between organisations', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 29, no. 3, pp. 314-328.
- Morehead, A, Steele, M, Alexander, M, Stephen, K & Duffin, L 1997, *Changes at work: The 1995 Australian workplace industrial relations survey*, Longman, South Melbourne.
- Morgan, RM & Hunt, SD 1994, 'The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 58, no. 3, pp. 20-38.
- Morris, MDS & Vekker, A 2001, 'An alternative look at temporary workers, their choices, and the growth in temporary employment', *Journal of Labor Research*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 373-390.

- Mowday, RT, Porter, LW & Steers, RM 1982, 'Nature of organisational commitment', in *Employee-organisation linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*, Academic Press, New York, pp. 19-65.
- Mowday, RT, Steers, RM & Porter, LW 1979, 'The measurement of organisational commitment', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 224-247.
- Muchinsky, PM 1977, 'Organisational communication: Relationships to organisational climate and job satisfaction.' *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 20, no. 4, pp. 592-607.
- Mulki, JP, Jaramillo, F & Locander, WB 2006, 'Effects of ethical climate and supervisory trust on salesperson's job attitudes and intentions to quit', *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 19-26.
- Mullen, B & Copper, C 1994, 'The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 115, no. 2, pp. 210-227.
- Myers, G & Bushnell, K 2007, 'Inactive nurses: Making a comeback', *Nursing Management*, vol. 38, no. 8, p. 16.
- Myers, RH 1990, *Classical and modern regression with applications*, 2nd edn, PWS-KENT, Boston.
- Naumann, SE & Bennett, N 2000, 'A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 43, no. 5, pp. 881-889.
- Netemeyer, RG, Boles, JS & McMurrian, R 1996, 'Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 81, no. 4, pp. 400-410.
- Niemi-Murola, L, Nieminen, JT, Kalso, E & Poyhia, R 2007, 'Medical undergraduate students' beliefs and attitudes toward pain: How do they mature?' *European Journal of Pain*, vol. 11, no. 6, pp. 700-706.
- Noone, B & Mount, D 2008, 'The effect of price on return intentions: Do satisfaction and reward programme membership matter?' *Journal of Revenue and Pricing Management*, vol. 7, no. 4, pp. 357-369.
- Norman, GR & Streiner, DL 1994, *Biostatistics: The bare essentials*, B.D. Decker, Hamilton, Ontario.
- Nunnally, JC 1978, *Psychometric theory*, 2nd edn, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Nyhan, RC 1999, 'Increasing affective organisational commitment in public organisations: The key role of interpersonal trust', *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 58-70.

- Ohbuchi, K-I, Fukushima, O & Tedeschi, JT 1999, 'Cultural values in conflict management', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 51-71.
- Oldham, GR 1975, 'The impact of supervisory characteristics on goal acceptance', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 461-475.
- Olson, JM & Zanna, MP 1993, 'Attitudes and attitude change', *Annual Review of Psychology*, vol. 44, pp. 117-154.
- Onrec 2009, *Employee survey highlights fundamental lack of trust in UK plc senior management*, Online Recruitment Magazine, London.
- O'Reilly, CA 1978, 'The intentional distortion of information in organisational communication: A laboratory and field investigation', *Human Relations*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 173-193.
- O'Reilly, CA, III, & Chatman, J 1986, 'Organisational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behaviour', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 71, pp. 492-499.
- O'Reilly, CA & Roberts, KH 1974, 'Information filtration in organisations: Three experiments', *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 253-265.
- Paris, L, Howell, J, Dorfman, P & Hanges, P 2009, 'Preferred leadership prototypes of male and female leaders in 27 countries', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 40, no. 8, pp. 1396-1405.
- Parra, LF 1996, 'Trust in management and job satisfaction as predictors of turnover intention', *Dissertation Abstracts International*, vol. 57, no. 1-B.
- Paternoster, R, Brame, R, Mazerolle, P & Piquero, A 1998, 'Using the correct statistical test for the equality of regression coefficients', *Criminology*, vol. 36, no. 4, pp. 859-866.
- Patterson, PG 2004, 'A contingency model of behavioural intentions in a services context', *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 38, no. 9/10, pp. 1304 - 1315.
- Pearson, JB, Barker, GH & Elliott, RD 1957, 'Sales success and job satisfaction', *American Sociological Review*, vol. 22, pp. 424-427.
- Pedhazur, EJ & Schmelkin, LP 1991, *Measurement, design, and analysis: An integrated approach*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, N.J.
- Pett, MA, Lackey, NR & Sullivan, JJ 2003, *Making sense of factor analysis: The use of factor analysis for instrument development in health care research*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

- Petty, M, McGee, GW & Cavender, JW 1984, 'A meta-analysis of the relationships between individual job satisfaction and individual performance', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 712-721.
- Pillai, R, Schriesheim, CA & Williams, ES 1999, 'Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership: A two-sample study', *Journal of Management*, vol. 25, no. 6, pp. 897-933.
- Podsakoff, PM, MacKenzie, SB & Bommer, WH 1996, 'Transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organisational citizenship behaviours', *Journal of Management*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 259-298.
- Podsakoff, PM, MacKenzie, SB, Lee, J-Y & Podsakoff, NP 2003, 'Common method biases in behavioural research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 88, no. 5, pp. 879-903.
- Podsakoff, PM, MacKenzie, SB, Moorman, RH & Fetter, R 1990, 'Transformational leader behaviours and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organisational citizenship behaviours', *Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 107-142.
- Podsakoff, PM, Niehoff, BP, MacKenzie, SB & Williams, ML 1993, 'Do substitutes for leadership really substitute for leadership? An empirical examination of Kerr and Jermier's situational leadership model', *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, vol. 54, no. 1, pp. 1-44.
- Podsakoff, PM & Organ, DW 1986, 'Self-reports in organisational research: Problems and prospects', *Journal of Management*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 531-544.
- Podsakoff, PM, Todor, WD, Grover, RA & Huber, VL 1984, 'Situational moderators of leader reward and punishment behaviors: Fact or fiction?' *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 21-63.
- Pomini, V, Lemay, P, Dauwalder, J-P & Bersier, M 1996, 'Dynamics of daily life interactions between individuals and their environment', *Swiss Journal of Psychology*, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 49-60.
- Pornpitakpan, C & Francis, JNP 2000, 'The effect of cultural differences, source expertise, and argument strength on persuasion: An experiment with Canadians and Thais', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 77-101.
- Porter, LW & Lawler, EE 1968, *Managerial attitudes and performance*, Richard D. Irwin, Homewood, IL.

- Porter, LW, Steers, RM, Mowday, RT & Boulian, PV 1974, 'Organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 59, no. 5, pp. 603-609.
- Porter, ME 1985, *Competitive advantage: Creating and sustaining superior performance*, Free Press, New York.
- Porter, ME 1991, 'Towards a dynamic theory of strategy', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 12, pp. 95-117.
- Prapavessis, H & Carron, AV 1997, 'Cohesion and work output', *Small Group Research*, vol. 28, no. 2, pp. 294-301.
- Pruitt, DG 1981, *Negotiation behaviour*, Academic Press, New York.
- Qenani-Petrela, E, Mittelhammer, R & Wandschneider, P 2008, 'Permanent housing for seasonal workers? A generalised peak load investment model for farm worker housing', *Journal of Agricultural and Applied Economics*, vol. 40, no. 1, pp. 151-169.
- Raabe, B & Beehr, TA 2003, 'Formal mentoring, versus supervisor and coworker relationships: Differences in perceptions and impact', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 271-293.
- Ramaswami, SN & Singh, J 2003, 'Antecedents and consequences of merit pay fairness for industrial salespeople', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 67, no. 4, pp. 46-66.
- Rashid, MZA, Sambasivan, M & Johari, J 2003, 'The influence of corporate culture and organisational commitment on performance', *The Journal of Management Development*, vol. 22, no. 7/8, pp. 708-728.
- Raubenheimer, J 2004, 'An item selection procedure to maximize scale reliability and validity', *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, vol. 30, no. 4, pp. 59-64.
- Ravindran, N 2005, *The shift to contract employment*, Singapore Institute of Management, Singapore.
- Reagans, R & McEvily, B 2003, 'Network structure and knowledge transfer: The effects of cohesion and range', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 48, no. 2, pp. 240-267.
- Reichardt, CS & Rallis, SF 1994a, 'Qualitative and quantitative inquiries are not incompatible: A call for a new partnership', in CS Reichardt & SF Rallis (eds.), *The qualitative-quantitative debate: New perspectives*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA, pp. 85-92.
- Reichardt, CS & Rallis, SF (eds.) 1994b, *The qualitative-quantitative debate: New perspectives*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.

- Reichers, AE 1985, 'A review and reconceptualization of organisational commitment', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 465-476.
- Remenyi, D, Money, A & Price, D 2001, 'Getting published for academics', *International Journal of Management Education*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 27-35.
- Remenyi, D, Williams, B, Money, A & Swartz, E 1998, *Doing research in business and management*, Sage Publications, London.
- Rempel, JK, Holmes, JG & Zanna, MP 1985, 'Trust in close relationships', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 49, no. 1, pp. 95-112.
- Rich, GA 1997, 'The sales manager as a role model: Effects on trust, job satisfaction, and performance of salespeople', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 25, no. 4, pp. 319-328.
- Rich, GA 1998, 'The constructs of sales coaching: Supervisory feedback, role modelling and trust', *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 53-63.
- Ricketta, M 2002, 'Attitudinal organisational commitment and job performance: A meta-analysis', *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 257-266.
- Ring, PS & Van De Ven, AH 1992, 'Structuring cooperative relationships between organisations', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 13, no. 7, pp. 483-498.
- Roark, AE & Sharah, HS 1989, 'Factors related to group cohesiveness', *Small Group Behavior*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 62-69.
- Robert Half 2009, *Singapore employers proactive in plugging talent gap and retaining their top people*, Robert Half International, Singapore.
- Roberts, KH & O'Reilly, CA 1974, 'Failures in upward communication in organisations: Three possible culprits', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 205-215.
- Robie, C, Ryan, AM, Schnieder, RA, Parra, LF & Smith, PC 1998, 'The relation between job level and job satisfaction', *Group & Organization Studies (1986-1998)*, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 470-495.
- Robinson, SL 1996, 'Trust and breach of the psychological contract', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 41, no. 4, pp. 574-599.
- Rogers, CR 1970, *Carl Rogers on encounter groups*, Harper & Row, New York.
- Rokeach, M 1973, *The nature of human values*, Free Press, New York.

- Rosen, B & Jerdee, TH 1977, 'Influence of subordinate characteristics on trust and use of participative decision strategies in a management simulation', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 62, no. 5, pp. 628-631.
- Rotter, JB 1967, 'A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust', *Journal of Personality*, vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 651-665.
- Rotter, JB 1971, 'Generalized expectancies for interpersonal trust', *American Psychologist*, vol. 26, no. 5, pp. 443-452.
- Rotter, JB 1980, 'Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility', *American Psychologist*, vol. 35, no. 1, pp. 1-7.
- Rouse, MJ & Daellenbach, US 1999, 'Rethinking research methods for the resource-based perspective: Isolating sources of sustainable competitive advantage', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 20, no. 5, pp. 487-494.
- Rousseau, DM, Sitkin, SB, Burt, RS & Camerer, C 1998, 'Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 393-404.
- Rucci, AJ, Kirn, SP & Quinn, RT 1998, 'The employee-customer-profit chain at Sears (cover story)', *Harvard Business Review*, vol. 76, no. 1, pp. 82-97.
- Russette, J, Scully, R & Preziosi, R 2008, 'Leadership across cultures: A comparative study', *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 7, pp. 47-61.
- Salancik, GR & Pfeffer, J 1978, 'A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 224-253.
- Saunders, DR 1956, 'Moderator variables in prediction', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, vol. 16, no. 2, pp. 209-222.
- Scandura, TA & Williams, EA 2000, 'Research methodology in management: Current practices, trends, and implications for future research', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 43, no. 6, pp. 1248-1264.
- Scarborough, J 2000, *The origins of cultural differences and their impact on management*, Praeger Publishers, Santa Barbara, CA.
- Scarnati, JT 2002, 'Leaders as role models: 12 rules', *Career Development International*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 181-189.
- Schein, EH 1985, *Organisational culture and leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Schertzer, CB & Kernan, JB 1985, 'More on the robustness of response scales', *Journal of the Market Research Society*, vol. 27, no. 4, pp. 261-282.

- Schlenker, BR, Helm, B & Tedeschi, JT 1973, 'The effects of personality and situational variables on behavioural trust', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 419-427.
- Schoorman, FD, Mayer, RC & Davis, JH 1996, 'Empowerment in veterinary clinics: The role of trust in delegation', in *The 11th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, San Diego, CA.
- Schoorman, FD, Mayer, RC & Davis, JH 2007, 'An integrative model of organisational trust: Past, present, and future', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 344-354.
- Schriesheim, CA 1979, 'The similarity of individual directed and group directed leader behaviour descriptions', *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 345-355.
- Schriesheim, CA & Neider, LL (eds.) 2001, *Equivalence in measurement*, Information Age Publishing, USA.
- Schriesheim, JF 1980, 'The social context of leader-subordinate relations: An investigation of the effects of group cohesiveness', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 65, no. 2, pp. 183-194.
- Schuler, RS & Rogovsky, N 1998, 'Understanding compensation practice variations across firms: The impact of national culture', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 159-177.
- Schumann, J, Wangenheim, F, Stringfellow, A, Yang, Z, Praxmarer, S, Jiménez, F, Blazevic, V, Shannon, R, G, S & Komor, M 2010, 'Drivers of trust in relational service exchange: Understanding the importance of cross-cultural differences', *Journal of Service Research*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 453-468.
- Schurr, PH & Ozanne, JL 1985, 'Influences on exchange processes: Buyers' preconceptions of a seller's trustworthiness and bargaining toughness', *Journal of Consumer Research*, vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 939-953.
- Scott, D 1980, 'The causal relationship between trust and the assessed value of management by objectives', *Journal of Management*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 157-175.
- Scott, WE & Rowland, KM 1970, 'The generality and significance of semantic differential scales as measures of "morale"', *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, vol. 5, no. 6, pp. 576-591.
- Seddighi, H, Lawler, KA & Katos, AV 2000, *Econometrics: A practical approach*, Routledge, London.
- Seers, A & Graen, GB 1984, 'The dual attachment concept: A longitudinal investigation of the combination of task characteristics and leader-member

- exchange', *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, vol. 33, no. 3, pp. 283-306.
- Seitel, FP 1990, 'Leaping the 'trust gap'', *United States Banker*, vol. 100, no. 11, p. 61.
- Sekaran, U 1992, *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach*, 2nd edn, Wiley, New York.
- Sekaran, U 2003, *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach*, 4th edn, John Wiley & Sons Inc., New Jersey.
- Shamir, B, House, RJ & Arthur, MB 1993, 'The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory', *Organization Science*, vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 577-594.
- Shamir, B & Lapidot, Y 2003, 'Trust in organisational superiors: Systemic and collective considerations', *Organization Studies*, vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 463-491.
- Shane, S 1993, 'Cultural influences on national rates of innovation', *Journal of Business Venturing*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 59-73.
- Shao, L & Webber, S 2006, 'A cross-cultural test of the 'five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership'', *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 59, no. 8, pp. 936-944.
- Shaw, RB 1997, *Trust in the balance: Building successful organisations on results, integrity, and concern*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Shi, X & Wang, J 2011, 'Interpreting Hofstede model and GLOBE model: Which way to go for cross-cultural research?' *International Journal of Business and Management*, vol. 6, no. 5, pp. 93-99.
- Si, SX & Cullen, JB 1998, 'Response categories and potential cultural bias: Effects of an explicit middle point in cross-cultural surveys', *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 218-230.
- Simon, LS 1995, 'Trust in leadership: Its dimensions and mediating role', *Dissertation Abstracts International Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, vol. 56, no. 1-B.
- Sims, RR & Brinkmann, J 2002, 'Leaders as moral role models: The case of John Gutfreund at Salomon Brothers', *Journal of Business Ethics*, vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 327-339.
- Sirmon, DG & Lane, PJ 2004, 'A model of cultural differences and international alliance performance', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 306-319.

- Sitkin, SB & Pablo, AL 1992, 'Reconceptualizing the determinants of risk behavior', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 9-38.
- Sitkin, SB & Roth, NL 1993, 'Explaining the limited effectiveness of legalistic "remedies" for trust/distrust', *Organization Science*, vol. 4, no. 3, pp. 367-392.
- Sitzman, K 2002, 'Pre-testing questionnaires improves results', *AAOHN Journal*, vol. 50, no. 10, p. 480.
- Skinner, LJ, Berry, KK, Biro, M & Jackson, T 1991, 'Research ethicality: The perceptions of participants and their participation willingness', *Current Psychology: Research & Reviews*, vol. 10, no. 1-2, pp. 79-91.
- Slater, SF 1995, 'Issues in conducting marketing strategy research', *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 257 - 270.
- Smith, JB & Barclay, DW 1997, 'The effects of organisational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 61, no. 1, pp. 3-21.
- Smith, PC, Kendall, LM & Hulin, CL 1969, *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement: A strategy for the study of attitudes*, Rand McNally, Chicago, IL.
- Solomon, L 1960, 'The influence of some types of power relationships and game strategies upon the development of interpersonal trust', *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, vol. 61, pp. 223-230.
- Sonnenberg, FK 1994, *Managing with a conscience: How to improve performance through integrity, trust, and commitment*, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Sparrowe, RT & Liden, RC 1997, 'Process and structure in leader-member exchange', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 522-552.
- Spector, PE 1997, *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Spink, KS 1998, 'Mediational effects of social cohesion on the leadership behaviour-intention to return relationship in sport', *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 92-100.
- Spink, KS & Odnokon, P 2001, 'Examining the effect of team cohesion on male ice hockey players' intention to return', *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, vol. 23, pp. S33-S33.
- Steel, RP & Ovalle, NK 1984, 'A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioural intentions and employee turnover', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 69, no. 4, pp. 673-686.

- Steinberg, MH 1990, *The effects of employing different numbers of response alternatives on the reliability and validity of Likert scales for children in varied grade levels*, 9028109 thesis, St. John's University, New York.
- Stevens, J 1992, *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*, 2nd edn, L. Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, N.J.
- Stone, EF & Hollenbeck, JR 1984, 'Some issues associated with the use of moderated regression', *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, vol. 34, no. 2, pp. 195-213.
- Straub, D, Gefen, D & Boudreau, M-C 2005, 'Quantitative research', in D Avison & J Pries-Heje (eds.), *Research in information systems: A handbook for research supervisors and their students*, Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp. 221-238.
- Strickland, LH 1958, 'Surveillance and trust', *Journal of Personality*, vol. 26, pp. 200-215.
- Stroud, SM 2006, *Effects of team building activities on group climate and cohesion*, 1434152 thesis, The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, CA, USA.
- Summers, I, Coffelt, T & Horton, RE 1988, 'Work-group cohesion', *Psychological Reports*, vol. 63, no. 2, pp. 627-636.
- Tan, HH & Tan, CSF 2000, 'Toward the differentiation of trust in supervisor and trust in organisation', *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, vol. 126, no. 2, pp. 241-260.
- Tanaka, S, Serizawa, T & Sakaguchi, C 2008, 'Career redevelopment programmes for inactive nurses in Japan', *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, vol. 17, no. 24, p. 3296.
- Taylor, RG 1989, 'The role of trust in labour-management relations', *Organization Development Journal*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 85-89.
- Tett, RP & Meyer, JP 1993, 'Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 46, no. 2, pp. 259-293.
- Thoms, P, Dose, JJ & Scott, KS 2002, 'Relationships between accountability, job satisfaction, and trust', *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 307-323.
- Toner, P 2000, 'Trade apprenticeships in the Australian construction industry', *Labour and Industry*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 39-58.
- Totten, VY, Panacek, EA & Price, D 1999, 'Basics of research (part 14) survey research methodology: Designing the survey instrument', *Air Medical Journal*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 26-34.

- Trochim, WMK & Donnelly, JP 2007, *Research methods knowledge base*, 3rd edn, Thomson Custom Pub., Mason, OH.
- Trompenaars, F & Hampden-Turner, C 1997, *Riding the waves of culture: understanding cultural diversity in business*, 2nd edn, Nicholas Brealey, London.
- Tyler, TR 2003, 'Trust within organisations', *Personnel Review*, vol. 32, no. 5, pp. 556-568.
- Tyler, TR & Degoey, P 1996, 'Trust in organisational authorities, the influence of motive attributions on willingness to accept decisions', in RM Kramer & TR Tyler (eds.), *Trust in organisations: Frontiers of theory and research*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, C.A., pp. 331-357.
- Tzafrir, SS, Harel, GH, Baruch, Y & Dolan, SL 2004, 'The consequences of emerging HRM practices for employees' trust in their managers', *Personnel Review*, vol. 33, no. 5/6, pp. 628-647.
- Van Emmerik, I, Euwema, M & Wendt, H 2008, 'Leadership behaviours around the world: The relative importance of gender versus cultural background', *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 297-315.
- Vanderkolk, BS & Young, AA 1991, *The work and family revolution: How companies can keep employees happy and business profitable*, Facts on File, New York.
- Varner, II & Palmer, TM 2005, 'Role of cultural self-knowledge in successful expatriation', *Singapore Management Review*, vol. 27, no. 1, pp. 1-25.
- Wang, E, Chou, HW & Jiang, J 2005, 'The impacts of charismatic leadership style on team cohesiveness and overall performance during ERP implementation', *International Journal of Project Management*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 173-180.
- Ward, EA 1997, 'Autonomous work groups: A field study of correlates of satisfaction', *Psychological Reports*, vol. 80, no. 1, pp. 60-62.
- Watson, C 1991, 'Doing what's right and doing well in business', *Business Forum*, vol. 16, no. 2, pp. 28-31.
- Watson Wyatt 2009, *WorkAsia 2008/2009 country report: Singapore*, Watson Wyatt Singapore, Singapore.
- Wech, BA 2002, 'Trust context: Effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, supervisory fairness, and job satisfaction beyond the influence of leader-member exchange', *Business and Society*, vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 353-360.
- Wech, BA, Mossholder, KW, Steel, RP & Bennett, N 1998, 'Does work group cohesiveness affect individuals' performance and organisational

- commitment? A cross-level examination', *Small Group Research*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 472-494.
- Weiss, HM & Cropanzano, R 1996, 'Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work', *Research in Organizational Behavior*, vol. 18, pp. 1-74.
- Weist, MD, Sander, MA, Walrath, C, Link, B, Nabors, L, Adelsheim, S, Moore, E, Jennings, J & Carrillo, K 2005, 'Developing principles for best practice in expanded school mental health', *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 7-13.
- Weksberg, V 1996, 'Reduced "social" in a new model of organisational trust', *The Academy of Management Review*, vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 333-335.
- Wendt, H, Euwema, MC & van Emmerik, IJH 2009, 'Leadership and team cohesiveness across cultures', *The Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 358-370.
- Wernerfelt, B 1984, 'A resource-based view of the firm', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 171-180.
- Whitener, EM, Brodt, SE, Korsgaard, MA & Werner, JM 1998, 'Managers as initiators of trust: An exchange relationship framework for understanding managerial trustworthy behaviour', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 513-530.
- Wiener, Y 1982, 'Commitment in organisations: A normative view', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 418-428.
- Williams, JM & Widmeyer, W 1991, 'The cohesion-performance outcome relationship in a coacting sport', *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 364-371.
- Williams, KA, Stotts, RC, Jacob, SR & Stegbauer, CC 2006, 'Inactive nurses: A source for alleviating the nursing shortage?' *Journal of Nursing Administration*, vol. 36, no. 4, pp. 205-210.
- Williamson, OE 1993, 'Calculativeness, trust, and economic organisation', *Journal of Law and Economics*, vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 453-486.
- Wong, Y-T, Ngo, H-Y & Wong, C-S 2002, 'Affective organisational commitment of workers in Chinese joint ventures', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, vol. 17, no. 7/8, pp. 580-598.
- Wong, Y-T, Ngo, H-Y & Wong, C-S 2003, 'Antecedents and outcomes of employees' trust in Chinese joint ventures', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, vol. 20, no. 4, pp. 481-499.

- Yang, J, Mossholder, KW & Peng, TK 2009, 'Supervisory procedural justice effects: The mediating roles of cognitive and affective trust', *The Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 143-154.
- Yap, CS, Soh, CPP & Raman, KS 1992, 'Information systems success factors in small business', *Omega*, vol. 20, no. 5-6, pp. 597-609.
- Yilmaz, C & Hunt, SD 2001, 'Salesperson cooperation: The influence of relational, task, organisational, and personal factors', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 335-357.
- Yoon, S, Vargas, PT & Han, S 2004, 'I versus 'They' and 'East' versus 'West': Cross-cultural differences in perceived impact of source expertise', *Advances in Consumer Research*, vol. 32, p. 287.
- Yuki, M, Maddux, WW, Brewer, MB & Takemura, K 2005, 'Cross-cultural differences in relationship- and group-based trust', *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 48-62.
- Yukl, G 1993, 'A retrospective on Robert House's '1976 theory of charismatic leadership' and recent revisions', *The Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 4, no. 3-4, pp. 367-373.
- Yukl, G & Van Fleet, DD 1992, 'Theory and research on leadership in organisations', in MD Dunnette & LM Hough (eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology*, vol. 3, Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, C.A., pp. 147-197.
- Zaccaro, SJ, Blair, V, Peterson, C & Zazanis, M 1995, 'Collective efficacy', in JE Maddux (ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application*, Plenum Press, New York, pp. 305-328.
- Zaheer, A, McEvily, B & Perrone, V 1998, 'Does trust matter? Exploring the effects of interorganisational and interpersonal trust on performance', *Organization Science*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 141-159.
- Zaheer, A & Venkatraman, N 1995, 'Relational governance as an interorganisational strategy: An empirical test of the role of trust in economic exchange', *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 373-392.
- Zalesny, MD & Ford, JK 1990, 'Extending the social information processing perspective: New links to attitudes, behaviours, and perceptions', *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, vol. 47, no. 2, pp. 205-246.
- Zand, DE 1972, 'Trust and managerial problem solving', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 229-239.
- Zedeck, S 1971, 'Problems with the use of moderator variables', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 76, no. 4, pp. 295-310.

Zedeck, S, Cranny, C, Vale, CA & Smith, PC 1971, 'Comparison of 'joint moderators' in three prediction techniques', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 55, no. 3, pp. 234-240.

Zikmund, WG 2003, *Exploring marketing research*, 8th edn, South-Western, Ohio.

Zucker, LG 1986, 'Production of trust: Institutional sources of economic structure, 1840-1920', *Research in Organizational Behavior*, vol. 8, pp. 53-111.

Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Preliminary Documents

Appendix 1.1

References of Some Previous Studies Indicating Positive Relationships of Trust with a Variety of Organisational Outcomes

Table A1.1: Organisational Outcomes That Correlate Positively With Trust

Organisational Outcomes (References)
Absence of monitoring (e.g., Costa 2003)
Acceptance of decision/goal (e.g., Fulk, Brief & Barr 1985; Kim & Mauborgne 1993; Oldham 1975; Tyler 2003; Tyler & Degoey 1996)
Acceptance of influence (e.g., Blau 1964; Tyler & Degoey 1996)
Attribution of positive motives (e.g., Kramer 1996)
Enhanced communication (e.g., Boss 1978; De Dreu, Giebels & Van de Vliet 1998; Dirks 1999; Kimmel et al. 1980; Mellinger 1956; O'Reilly 1978; O'Reilly & Roberts 1974; Roberts & O'Reilly 1974; Smith & Barclay 1997; Zand 1972)
Extra-role behaviours (e.g., Tyler 2003)
Goal commitment (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin 2002)
High levels of cooperation and performance (e.g., Costa 2003; Costa, Roe & Taillieu 2001; Morgan & Hunt 1994)
Intention to stay (e.g., Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Costigan, Ilter & Berman 1998; Cunningham & MacGregor 2000; Davis et al. 2000; De Gilder 2003; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Konovsky & Cropanzano 1991; Matthai 1990; Parra 1996; Robinson 1996; Tan & Tan 2000)
Job performance (e.g., Atuahene-Gima & Li 2002; Davis et al. 2000; Dirks 1999,2000; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Earley 1986; Friedlander 1970; Kimmel et al. 1980; Klimoski & Karol 1976; Lagace 1991; Mayer & Gavin 2005; Oldham 1975; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer 1996; Rich 1997; Robinson 1996; Schurr & Ozanne 1985; Zaheer, McEvily & Perrone 1998)

Source: Extracted from literature review

Table A1.2: Organisational Outcomes That Correlate Positively With Trust

Organisational Outcomes (References)
Job satisfaction (e.g., Boss 1978; Brashear et al. 2003; Brockner et al. 1997; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Driscoll 1978; Flaherty & Pappas 2000; Goris, Vaught & Pettit 2003; Lagace 1991; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001; Matzler & Renzl 2006; Muchinsky 1977; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander 2006; O'Reilly & Roberts 1974; Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer 1996; Rich 1997; Roberts & O'Reilly 1974; Schurr & Ozanne 1985; Smith & Barclay 1997; Ward 1997; Zand 1972)
Low neglect (e.g., De Gilder 2003)
Loyalty (e.g., De Gilder 2003; Matzler & Renzl 2006)
Organisational citizenship behaviour (e.g., De Gilder 2003; Deluga 1994; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Konovsky & Pugh 1994; Mayer & Gavin 2005; McAllister 1995; Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams 1999; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Robinson 1996)
Organisational commitment (e.g., Brockner et al. 1997; Connell, Ferres & Travaglione 2003; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Flaherty & Pappas 2000; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian 2001; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer 1996; Tan & Tan 2000)
Perceived accuracy of information (e.g., Benton et al. 1969; Dirks & Ferrin 2002; Roberts & O'Reilly 1974)
Team commitment (e.g., De Gilder 2003)
Team satisfaction (e.g., Costa 2003)

Source: Extracted from literature review

Appendix 1.2

Instrument Development: 10 Items Considered Having Face Validity to Tap into the Intention-To-Return Domain

Intention-to-return is conceptualized as the employee's perception that he/she has intention to return to the organisation from which he/she will leave upon completion of his/her contract or might leave voluntarily due to personal reasons.

Ten items considered having face validity to tap the construct definition of intention-to-return are listed, in order of appropriateness, as follows:

1. I like working in this organisation.
2. If I leave this organisation voluntarily or upon completion of my contract, it is likely that I will return if the organisation is keen to re-employ me.
3. Overall, the environment of this organisation lives up to my expectation.
4. This organisation promotes an environment that supports a balance between work and personal/family life.
5. This organisation has a sincere interest in the well-being of its employees.
6. This organisation views its workforce as its most important resource.
7. This organisation offers a job appropriate to my training.
8. I am making good progress towards my occupational career goals in this organisation.
9. This organisation offers fair salary/wages.
10. This organisation offers adequate employee benefits.

Appendix 2: Pilot Study Documents

Appendix 2-1

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Top Management's Ability (Mayer & Davis 1999)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Top Management's Ability	1. Top management is very capable of performing its job.	1
	2. Top management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.	2
	3. Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.	3
	4. I feel very confident about top management's skills.	4
	5. Top management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.	5
	6. Top management is well qualified.	6

Note:

- Mayer & Davis (1999) selected these six items from Schoorman, Mayer & Davis's (1996) original ten-item ability scale, and altered them slightly to reflect a focus on top management. Cronbach's Alphas for this six-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were 0.85 (Wave 2) and 0.88 (Wave 3).

Appendix 2-2

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Top Management's Benevolence (Mayer & Davis 1999)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Top Management's Benevolence	1. Top management is very concerned about my welfare.	7
	2. My needs and desires are very important to top management.	8
	3. Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	9
	4. Top management really looks out for what is important to me.	10
	5. Top management will go out of its way to help me.	11

Note:

- Mayer & Davis (1999) selected these five items from Schoorman, Mayer & Davis's (1996) original twelve-item benevolence scale, and altered them slightly to reflect a focus on top management. Cronbach's Alphas for this five-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were 0.87 (Wave 2) and 0.89 (Wave 3).

Appendix 2-3

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Top Management's Integrity (Mayer & Davis 1999)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Top Management's Integrity	1. Top management has a strong sense of justice.	12
	2. I never have to wonder whether top management will stick to its word.	13
	3. Top management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.	14
	4. Top management's actions and behaviours are not very consistent. (R)	15
	5. I like top management's values.	16
	6. Sound principles seem to guide top management's behaviour.	17

Note:

- Mayer & Davis (1999) selected these six items from Schoorman, Mayer & Davis's (1996) original thirteen-item integrity scale, and altered them slightly to reflect a focus on top management. Cronbach's Alphas for this six-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were 0.82 (Wave 2) and 0.88 (Wave 3).
- (R) Denotes reverse-scored items

Appendix 2-4

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Trust in Top Management (Mayer & Gavin 2005)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Trust in Top Management	1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let top management have any influence over issues that are important to me.(R)	18
	2. I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company.	19
	3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management. (R)	20
	4. I would be comfortable giving top management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.	21
	5. If someone questioned top management's motives, I would give top management the benefit of the doubt.	22

Note:

- Mayer & Gavin (2005) slightly altered Schoorman, Mayer & Davis's (1996) original four-item trust scale to reflect a focus on top management (as in items 1-4 above), and added item 5. Cronbach's Alpha for this five-item instrument using five-point Likert scale was 0.72.
- (R) Denotes reverse-scored items.

Appendix 2-5

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Senior Manager Role-modelling - adapted from Rich (1997)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Senior Manager Role-modelling	1. My senior manager provides a good model for me to follow.	23
	2. My senior manager leads by example.	24
	3. My senior manager sets a positive example for others to follow.	25
	4. My senior manager exhibits the kind of work ethic and behaviour that I try to imitate.	26
	5. My senior manager acts as a role-model for me.	27

Note:

- The pilot study slightly altered Rich's (1997) original five-item manager role-modelling scale to reflect a focus on senior manager. The psychometric properties of Rich's original instrument using five-point Likert scale were reported as $\alpha = 0.96$, $\rho = 0.96$, $AVE = 0.84$, where

α = Cronbach's (1946) internal consistency reliability index.

ρ = Bagozzi's (1980) construct reliability index.

AVE = Fornell & Larcker's (1981) index of the average variance extracted by the Construct.

Appendix 2-6

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Group Cohesiveness (Podsakoff et al. 1993)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Group Cohesiveness	1. There is a great deal of trust among members of my work group.	28
	2. Members of my group work together as a team.	29
	3. The members of my work group are cooperative with each other.	30
	4. My work group members know that they can depend on each other.	31
	5. The members of my work group stand up for each other.	32
	6. The members of my work group regard each other as friends.	33

Note:

- The psychometric properties of this six-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were reported as Cronbach's Alphas (α) = 0.93, and Drasgow & Miller's (1982) fidelity coefficient = 0.95 (Podsakoff et al. 1993).

Appendix 2-7

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Affective Commitment (Brashear et al. 2003)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Affective Commitment	1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.	34
	2. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	35
	3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.	36
	4. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	37
	5. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	38
	6. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.	39
	7. For me, this is the best of all possible organisations to work for.	40

Note:

- Brashear et al. (2003) selected these seven items from Mowday, Steers & Porter's (1979) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The psychometric properties of this seven-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were reported as $\alpha = 0.92$, $\rho = 0.95$, $AVE = 0.72$, where
 α = Cronbach's (1946) internal consistency reliability index.
 ρ = Bagozzi's (1980) construct reliability index.
 AVE = Fornell & Larcker's (1981) index of the average variance extracted by the Construct.

Appendix 2-8

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Job Satisfaction (Brashear et al. 2003)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Job Satisfaction	1. This job is worse than most. (R)	41
	2. My job is very worthwhile.	42
	3. My job is better than most.	43
	4. I sometimes feel this job is a waste of time. (R)	44

Note:

- Brashear et al. (2003) adapted these four items from Brown & Peterson's (1994) five-item scale for assessing overall job satisfaction. The psychometric properties of this four-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were reported as $\alpha = 0.90$, $\rho = 0.87$, $AVE = 0.71$, where
 α = Cronbach's (1946) internal consistency reliability index.
 ρ = Bagozzi's (1980) construct reliability index.
 AVE = Fornell & Larcker's (1981) index of the average variance extracted by the Construct.
- (R) Denotes reverse-scored items.

Appendix 2-9

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Turnover Intention (Brashear et al. 2003)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Turnover Intention	1. I often think about quitting my present job.	45
	2. I intend to quit my present job.	46
	3. During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job.	47
	4. I have searched for a new job.	48

Note:

- Brashear et al. (2003) selected these four items from Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian's (1996) scales for assessing intention-to-leave-an-organisation and search-for-another-job. The psychometric properties of this four-item instrument using five-point Likert scale were reported as $\alpha = 0.91$, $\rho = 0.92$, $AVE = 0.74$, where

α = Cronbach's (1946) internal consistency reliability index.

ρ = Bagozzi's (1980) construct reliability index.

AVE = Fornell & Larcker's (1981) index of the average variance extracted by the Construct.

Appendix 2-10

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Intention-to-Return (Newly Developed for This Research)

As discussed in chapter 4, the instrument development process resulted in the following measurement items to be further tested in the pilot study.

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Intention-to-Return	1. I like working in this organisation.	49
	2. If I leave this organisation voluntarily or upon completion of my contract, it is likely that I will return if the organisation is keen to re-employ me.	50
	3. Of all of the organisations I have worked for, this one is the one that I would most like to work for.	51
	4. If I had a choice I would never want to work for this organisation again. (R)	52
Note:		
○ (R) Denotes reverse-scored item.		

Appendix 2-11

Pilot Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Demographic Data

Demographic Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Age	20-25 () 26-30 () 53
	31-35 () 36-40 ()
	41-45 () 46-50 ()
	Over 50 ()
Gender	Male () 54
	Female ()
Highest education completed	Year 10 () 55
	Year 12 ()
	Technical college ()
	Trade qualification ()
	Tertiary qualification ()
	University ()
Job type	White collar job () 56
	Blue collar job ()
Basis of employment	Permanent () 57
	Contract ()
Level of employment	Employee () 58
	Supervisor ()
	Middle manager ()
	Senior manager ()
Number of years with the company	59

Appendix 2-12

Pilot Study: Cover Letter and Survey Questionnaire

7 May 2008

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: Study of organisational performance and effectiveness

The Graduate School of Business, Curtin University of Technology, is currently sponsoring a research project designed to explore the factors that contribute to organisational performance and effectiveness. This survey is an integral part of the research process to identify employees' experiences in their current workplace. All survey data will be aggregated prior to analysis and all information provided by respondents will be treated as strictly confidential and anonymous. No information or subsequent publication of the research results will be able to be traced to any company or individual. Respondents may withdraw from the study at any time, prior to data analysis.

Your kind participation in the survey will contribute to the success of the project and is much appreciated. Kindly help us by completing the survey as follows:

- Please complete each of the 59 items by indicating only one most appropriate answer.
- If you have any comments or suggestions about this survey, please feel free to do so in the attached 'Optional Respondent Comment Form'.
- Please return the completed survey to A/Professor Peter Galvin, Graduate School of Business.

Thank you very much for taking your time and effort to complete this survey.

Yours faithfully,

Ngiam J ENG, M.B.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
Graduate School of Business
Curtin University of Technology
Ph: (08) 9459 0772
Email: robineng1@gmail.com

Peter GALVIN, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Graduate School of Business
Curtin University of Technology
Ph: (08) 9266 3389
Email: Peter.Galvin@gsb.curtin.edu.au

This study has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. If needed, verification of approval can be obtained by either writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/- Office of Research & Development, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845, or telephone 9266 2784.

Survey of Employees' Workplace Experiences

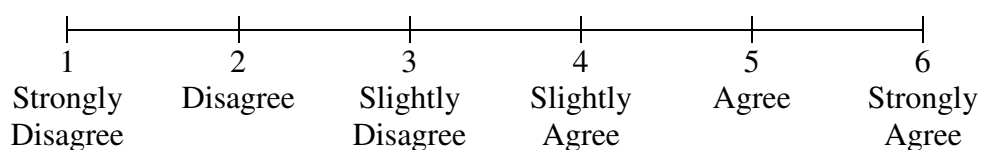
Section I

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about your company's **Top Management Team**. Please use the following scale numbers (example: 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1	Top management is very capable of performing its job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	Top management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I feel very confident about top management's skills.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	Top management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Top management is well qualified.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	Top management is very concerned about my welfare.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	My needs and desires are very important to top management.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Top management really looks out for what is important to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Top management will go out of its way to help me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	Top management has a strong sense of justice.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	I never have to wonder whether top management will stick to its word.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	Top management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	Top management's actions and behaviours are not very consistent.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I like top management's values.	1 2 3 4 5 6

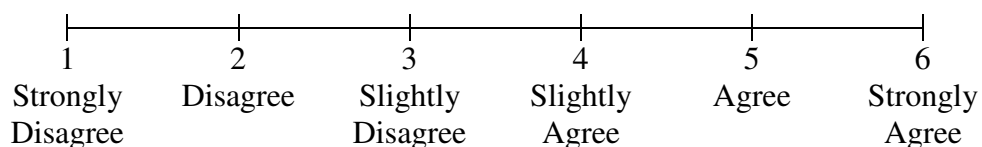
Section I (cont'd)



17	Sound principles seem to guide top management's behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	If I had my way, I wouldn't let top management have any influence over issues that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I would be comfortable giving top management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	If someone questioned top management's motives, I would give top management the benefit of the doubt.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section II

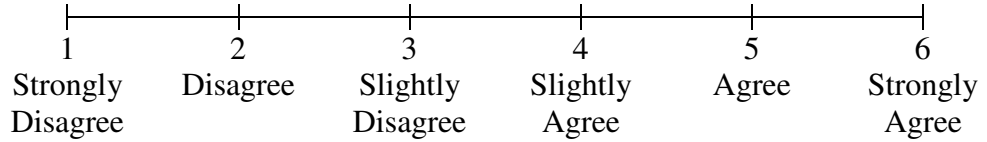
Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about your **Senior Manager** (i.e., the manager who reports directly to the top management). Please use the following scale numbers to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.



23	My senior manager provides a good model for me to follow.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My senior manager leads by example.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	My senior manager sets a positive example for others to follow.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	My senior manager exhibits the kind of work ethic and behaviour that I try to imitate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	My senior manager acts as a role-model for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section III

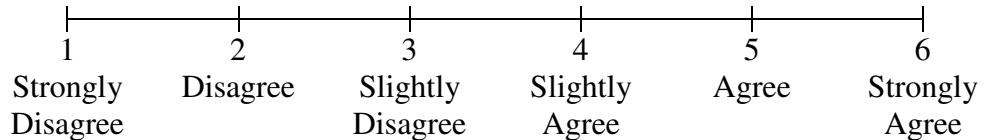
Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about your **Work Group**. Please use the following scale numbers to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.



28	There is a great deal of trust among members of my work group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Members of my group work together as a team.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	The members of my work group are cooperative with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	My work group members know that they can depend on each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	The members of my work group stand up for each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	The members of my work group regard each other as friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

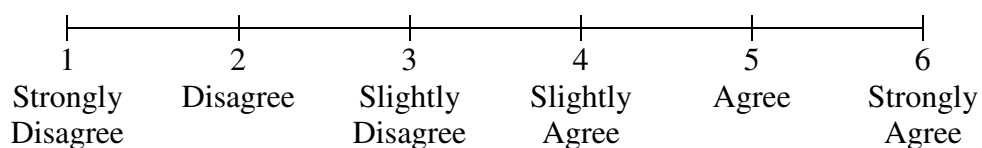
Section IV

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about working for your company. Please use the following scale numbers to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.



34	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section IV (cont'd)



36	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	For me, this is the best of all possible organisations to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	This job is worse than most.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	My job is very worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	My job is better than most.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	I sometimes feel this job is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	I often think about quitting my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	I intend to quit my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	I have searched for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	I like working in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	If I leave this organisation voluntarily or upon completion of my contract, it is likely that I will return if the organisation is keen to re-employ me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	Of all of the organisations I have worked for, this one is the one that I would most like to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	If I had a choice I would never want to work for this organisation again.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section V

Listed below is general information about you. Please tick against the appropriate item.

53 Age: 20-25 () 26-30 () 31-35 () 36-40 ()
 41-45 () 46-50 () Over 50 ()

54 Gender: Male () Female ()

55 Highest education completed:

Year 10 () Year 12 () Technical college ()

Trade qualification () Tertiary qualification () University ()

56 Job type: White collar job () Blue collar job ()

57 Basis of employment: Permanent () Contract ()

58 Level of employment:

Employee () Supervisor ()

Middle manager () Senior manager ()

59 Please write the number of years you work in the company: _____ Years

Survey Completion

Thank you very much for your time and effort in this study. Please complete all 59 items and return the completed survey to Associate Professor Peter Galvin at the Graduate School of Business.

Re: Study of organisational performance and effectiveness

Survey of Employees' Workplace Experiences

Optional Respondent Comment Form

If you have any comments or suggestions about this survey, please feel free to do so in the space provided below.

Appendix 2-13

Full Pilot Study Report

Objectives of Pilot Study

The objectives of the pilot study are twofold. First, pre-testing of the survey questionnaire to ensure appropriateness of the question wordings and their comprehension such that measurement error can be minimized (Long 1991; Sekaran 2003; Sitzman 2002). Next, assessment of the reliability and construct validity of all measuring instruments so that necessary changes can be made to improve their psychometric characteristics.

Administering the Pilot Study

The cover letter and survey questionnaire used for the pilot study are presented in Appendix 2-12. The questionnaire was pre-tested using 160 respondents comprising 43 postgraduate students from Curtin Graduate School of Business, and 117 employees from a variety of Western Australian industries. Respondents were encouraged to place their comments and suggestions in the evaluation form appended to the questionnaire. Such feedback aimed at providing clues to the potential problems so that necessary improvements to the questionnaire could be made. Results of the pilot study are discussed next.

Discussion of the Pilot Study Results

A handful of genuine comments were received from the respondents. A couple of them proposed some minor wording changes to improve comprehension. Others suggested category codes be added alongside each demographic item to facilitate data entry. Most fruitful were the assessment results pertaining to the reliability and construct validity of the measuring instruments. Some pertinent details follow.

Factor and reliability analysis

Factor and reliability analysis were performed on the pilot data set according to the procedures described in chapter 4 instrumentation validity subsection. The complete process is illustrated in Appendix 2-15 below using the intention-to-return scale.

The initial results revealed that the internal consistency reliability coefficients of two scales, top management's integrity and affective commitment, could be improved through the exclusion of less desired measurement items. Accordingly, the 6-item top management's integrity scale (Appendix 2-3), after removal of item 4 (tmi4_q15), was amended to a 5-item scale ($\alpha = 0.924$) for the main study. Again, the 7-item affective commitment scale (Appendix 2-7), after deletion of item 1 (ac1_q34) and item 3 (ac3_q36), was altered to a 5-item scale ($\alpha = 0.907$). For all the other scales, their measurement items remain status quo. The analysis results after the exclusion of these less desired items are presented as follows.

The factor analysis results did confirm the underlying factor structure of each of the ten scales. First, a single factor with eigenvalue greater than 1 was extracted for each scale as predicted. Next, the results (Table A2-13.1 below) showed that the communalities and loadings associated with the items measuring each construct exceeded Stevens's (1992) proposed minimum threshold of 0.16 communality or 0.4 loading, indicating that all items measuring each construct tapped well into the predicted construct. The desired communalities across each set of measurement items also substantiated the desired relationships among the items measuring each construct. That is, no item with a low communality (< 0.16) causing concern that a construct might not work well.

Moreover, the reliability analysis results (Table A2-13.2 below) did substantiate the desired reliability of each scale. First, all items measuring each construct had item-total correlations above the minimum threshold of 0.3 for a reliable scale (Field 2005). Next, the internal consistency reliability coefficient (Cronbach's α) of each scale was well above the commonly used threshold value of 0.7 (Hair et al. 1995; Nunnally 1978; Sekaran 2003). Table A2-13.3 below

provides a ‘snapshot’ of the pilot study’s Alphas versus the developers’ or authors’ Alphas for all scales.

Table A2-13.1 Part 1 of 2: Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Mean	S.D.	Communality	Loading
Top Management's Ability (TMA)	tma1_q1	4.67	.789	.613	.783
	tma2_q2	4.60	.848	.561	.749
	tma3_q3	4.64	.878	.607	.779
	tma4_q4	4.59	.867	.720	.848
	tma5_q5	4.45	.864	.367	.606
	tma6_q6	4.73	.793	.361	.601
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	tmb1_q7	3.74	.986	.572	.756
	tmb2_q8	3.67	.945	.671	.819
	tmb3_q9	4.15	1.225	.523	.723
	tmb4_q10	3.59	.981	.808	.899
	tmb5_q11	3.61	1.021	.680	.825
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	tmi1_q12	3.99	1.152	.726	.852
	tmi2_q13	3.64	.998	.680	.825
	tmi3_q14	4.05	1.092	.728	.853
	tmi5_q16	3.92	1.147	.718	.848
	tmi6_q17	4.05	1.059	.601	.775
Trust in Top Management (TITM)	titm1_q18R*	3.30	1.409	.245	.495
	titm2_q19	2.76	1.178	.359	.599
	titm3_q20R*	3.01	1.250	.242	.492
	titm4_q21	3.75	1.152	.452	.672
	titm5_q22	3.94	.985	.440	.663
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	smrm1_q23	4.03	1.268	.862	.929
	smrm2_q24	4.05	1.316	.812	.901
	smrm3_q25	4.01	1.319	.893	.945
	smrm4_q26	3.89	1.333	.817	.904
	smrm5_q27	3.71	1.411	.756	.869

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Table A2-13.1 Part 2 of 2: Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Mean	S.D.	Communality	Loading
Group Cohesiveness (GC)	gc1_q28	4.75	.762	.594	.771
	gc2_q29	4.85	.782	.727	.853
	gc3_q30	4.87	.784	.732	.856
	gc4_q31	4.80	.870	.754	.868
	gc5_q32	4.64	.810	.593	.770
	gc6_q33	4.69	.800	.553	.744
Affective Commitment (AC)	ac2_q35	4.74	.785	.624	.790
	ac4_q37	4.92	.771	.583	.763
	ac5_q38	4.58	.837	.736	.858
	ac6_q39	4.75	.772	.686	.828
	ac7_q40	4.42	.868	.667	.817
Job Satisfaction (JS)	js1_q41R*	4.71	1.223	.278	.527
	js2_q42	4.61	.785	.479	.692
	js3_q43	4.51	.845	.705	.840
	js4_q44R*	4.67	1.159	.439	.663
Turnover Intention (TI)	ti1_q45	2.62	1.436	.530	.728
	ti2_q46	2.40	1.472	.788	.888
	ti3_q47	2.82	1.667	.805	.897
	ti4_q48	2.68	1.710	.549	.741
Intention-to-Return (ITR)	itr1_q49	4.86	.763	.681	.825
	itr2_q50	4.69	.843	.684	.827
	itr3_q51	4.49	.962	.584	.764
	itr4_q52R*	5.29	.737	.440	.663

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Table A2-13.2 Part 1 of 2: Reliability Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Initial No of Items	Final No of Items	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Top Management's Ability (TMA)		6	6		.872
	tma1_q1			.725	
	tma2_q2			.684	
	tma3_q3			.725	
	tma4_q4			.780	
	tma5_q5			.569	
	tma6_q6			.565	
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)		5	5		.900
	tmb1_q7			.719	
	tmb2_q8			.777	
	tmb3_q9			.694	
	tmb4_q10			.837	
	tmb5_q11			.762	
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)		6	5		.924
	tmi1_q12			.837	
	tmi2_q13			.783	
	tmi3_q14			.837	
	tmi5_q16			.809	
	tmi6_q17			.748	
Trust in Top Management (TITM)		5	5		.712
	titm1_q18R*			.442	
	titm2_q19			.483	
	titm3_q20R*			.442	
	titm4_q21			.507	
	titm5_q22			.506	
Senior Manager Role- modelling (SMRM)		5	5		.959
	smrm1_q23			.904	
	smrm2_q24			.876	
	smrm3_q25			.917	
	smrm4_q26			.885	
	smrm5_q27			.850	

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Table A2-13.2 Part 2 of 2: Reliability Analysis Results

Construct	Item	Initial No of Items	Final No of Items	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Group Cohesiveness (GC)		6	6		.920
	gc1_q28			.740	
	gc2_q29			.804	
	gc3_q30			.812	
	gc4_q31			.830	
	gc5_q32			.739	
	gc6_q33			.713	
Affective Commitment (AC)		7	5		.907
	ac2_q35			.746	
	ac4_q37			.728	
	ac5_q38			.802	
	ac6_q39			.789	
	ac7_q40			.768	
Job Satisfaction (JS)		4	4		.754
	js1_q41R*			.506	
	js2_q42			.519	
	js3_q43			.627	
	js4_q44R*			.625	
Turnover Intention (TI)		4	4		.884
	ti1_q45			.666	
	ti2_q46			.809	
	ti3_q47			.834	
	ti4_q48			.697	
Intention-to-Return (ITR)		4	4		.849
	itr1_q49			.738	
	itr2_q50			.735	
	itr3_q51			.693	
	itr4_q52R*			.613	

* R denotes reverse-scored items

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Table A2-13.3: Pilot Study's Alphas vs. Developers' or Authors' Alphas

Constructs	Pilot Study's Alphas	Developers' or Authors' Alphas	Developers or Authors
Top Management's Ability (TMA)	.872	.88	Mayer & Davis (1999)
Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	.900	.89	Mayer & Davis (1999)
Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	.924	.88	Mayer & Davis (1999)
Trust in Top Management (TITM)	.712	.72	Mayer & Gavin (2005)
Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	.959	.96	Rich (1997)
Group Cohesiveness (GC)	.920	.93	Podsakoff et al. (1993)
Affective Commitment (AC)	.907	.92	Brashear et al. (2003)
Job Satisfaction (JS)	.754	.90	Brashear et al. (2003)
Turnover Intention (TI)	.884	.91	Brashear et al. (2003)
Intention-to-Return (ITR)	.849	Newly developed for this research	

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Convergent and discriminant validity analysis

Applying Fornell & Larcker's (1981) AVE (average variance extracted) method described in chapter 4 instrumentation validity subsection, the construct validity of all the ten scales was established through convergent and discriminant validity as follows. Referring to Table A2-13.5 below, convergent validity was demonstrated for all constructs because all AVE indices were above 0.50 indicating that the variance captured by the underlying construct was greater than the variance due to measurement error. Also, discriminant validity was demonstrated for all constructs because each construct's AVE was greater than the construct's shared variance (i.e., the squared correlation) with every other construct. For example, the intention-to-return (ITR) construct demonstrated discriminant validity because its AVE (0.773) was greater than its shared variance with every other construct. Its highest shared variance was 0.604 with affective commitment (AC).

Analysis of correlations among the study constructs

The correlations between each pair of constructs in the theoretical framework (as in Table A2-13.4 below) provided strong support for several hypothesized relationships. First, top management's ability (TMA), benevolence (TMB), and integrity (TMI) correlated positively and significantly with trust in top management (TITM) ($r = 0.539, 0.590, \text{ and } 0.624$, respectively, $p < 0.01$). This result supported the hypothesis suggesting employee perceptions of top management's ability, benevolence, and integrity affect the level of trust in top management. Next, as hypothesized, group cohesiveness (GC) correlated positively and significantly with top management's ability (TMA) ($r = 0.244, p < 0.01$), benevolence (TMB) ($r = 0.226, p < 0.01$), and integrity (TMI) ($r = 0.216, p < 0.05$). Again, as hypothesized, trust in top management (TITM) correlated positively and significantly with affective commitment (AC) ($r = 0.467, p < 0.01$), job satisfaction (JS) ($r = 0.214, p < 0.05$), and intention-to-return (ITR) ($r = 0.411, p < 0.01$). Finally, the result supported the hypothesis suggesting trust in top management (TITM) is negatively related to turnover intention (TI) ($r = -0.199, p < 0.05$).

Conclusion

The above results did confirm the reliability and construct validity of all the ten scales, and hence established the level of confidence in using the amended survey questionnaire for the main study. Confidence was further established through the correlation results which offered support for several hypothesized relationships in the theoretical framework.

Table A2-13.4: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas[#]

		Mean	S.D.	1 TMA	2 TMB	3 TMI	4 TITM	5 SMRM	6 GC	7 AC	8 JS	9 TI	10 ITR
1	Top Management's Ability (TMA)	4.410	.866	.872									
2	Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	3.854	.995	.641**	.900								
3	Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	3.987	.989	.677**	.867**	.924							
4	Trust in Top Management (TITM)	3.458	.704	.539**	.590**	.624**	.712						
5	Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	4.033	1.162	.401**	.436**	.495**	.494**	.959					
6	Group Cohesiveness (GC)	4.617	.796	.244**	.226**	.216*	.186*	.286**	.920				
7	Affective Commitment (AC)	4.479	.848	.582**	.604**	.645**	.467**	.356**	.354**	.907			
8	Job Satisfaction (JS)	4.609	.759	.344**	.288**	.345**	.214*	.190*	.277**	.646**	.754		
9	Turnover Intention (TI)	2.427	1.213	-.186*	-.372**	-.386**	-.199*	-.241**	-.228**	-.550**	-.592**	.884	
10	Intention-to-Return (ITR)	4.525	.933	.512**	.547**	.581**	.411**	.334**	.337**	.777**	.624**	-.594**	.849

[#] **Cronbach's alphas are on the diagonal and below which are correlations**

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Table A2-13.5: Constructs' AVEs (Average Variance Extracted) & Constructs' Shared Variances*

	1 TMA	2 TMB	3 TMI	4 TITM	5 SMRM	6 GC	7 AC	8 JS	9 TI	10 ITR
1 Top Management's Ability (TMA)	.734									
2 Top Management's Benevolence (TMB)	.411	.807								
3 Top Management's Integrity (TMI)	.458	.752	.831							
4 Trust in Top Management (TITM)	.291	.348	.389	.590						
5 Senior Manager Role-modelling (SMRM)	.161	.190	.245	.244	.910					
6 Group Cohesiveness (GC)	.060	.051	.047	.035	.082	.812				
7 Affective Commitment (AC)	.339	.365	.416	.218	.127	.125	.812			
8 Job Satisfaction (JS)	.118	.083	.119	.046	.036	.077	.417	.689		
9 Turnover Intention (TI)	.035	.138	.149	.040	.058	.052	.303	.350	.817	
10 Intention-to-Return (ITR)	.262	.299	.338	.169	.112	.114	.604	.389	.353	.773

* AVEs are on the diagonal and below which are constructs' shared variance.

N.B. AVE calculation example: AVE = SQRT (Average Communalities) (Straub, Gefen & Boudreau 2005)

For Intention-to-Return, Average Communalities = (0.681+0.684+0.584+0.440)/4 = 0.5973 (extracted from Table A2-13.1), AVE = SQRT (0.5973) = 0.773

Source: Analysis of pilot study data

Appendix 2-14

Assumptions Underlying Factor, Reliability, and Correlational Analysis, and Their Test Procedures

Factor Analysis

Underlying the application of PAF factor analysis are a number of assumptions and practical considerations related to sample size, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity, absence of outlying cases, absence of extreme multicollinearity and singularity, factorability of the correlation matrix, and absence of outliers among variables (Coakes & Steed 2005). Some details follow.

Sample size

Sample size affects the reliability of factor analysis because correlation coefficients (on which factor analysis rests) fluctuate from sample to sample (Field 2005). While there is no scientific answer about the necessary sample size for factor analysis, much has been written about it resulting in many 'rules of thumb'. According to Coakes & Steed (2005), "a minimum of five subjects per indicator variable is required for factor analysis; a sample of 100 subjects is acceptable, but sample sizes of 200+ are preferable" (p. 154).

Normality

Factor analysis is robust to assumption of normality, but the solution is enhanced if variables are normally distributed (Coakes & Steed 2005). While normality is an assumption of correlation on which factor analysis technique rests, the normality assumption pertaining to correlation significance testing is not considered critical if one is just interested in clustering (correlating) factors. However, the assumption of normality becomes important if one wishes to generalise the results of analysis beyond the sample collected (Field 2005). The assumption of normality is tenable when both skewness z-score (skewness/std. error) and kurtosis z-score (kurtosis/std.

error) are within ± 2 for most samples, and within ± 2.58 for small samples. In any case, the upper threshold is ± 3.29 .

Linearity and homoscedasticity

Factor analysis is based on correlation which assumes linearity and homoscedasticity of data (Coakes & Steed 2005). If linearity is not present, the solution may be degraded. The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity are tenable when the Scatterplot matrix shows a pattern reflecting that the scores are randomly, evenly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot (Field 2005).

Absence of outlying cases

Outlying cases can attenuate correlation coefficients (Field 2005). These cases can distort factor analysis and thus need to be either removed from the data set or brought into the distribution by transformation or recode options (Coakes & Steed 2005). Examination of Boxplots is one way to identify outliers among cases.

Absence of extreme multicollinearity and singularity

Although mild multicollinearity is not a problem for factor analysis, it is important to avoid extreme multicollinearity (i.e., variables that are very highly correlated) and singularity (i.e., variables that are perfectly correlated) (Field 2005). At the early stage, one should look to eliminate any variables that correlate very highly with other variables (e.g., $r > 0.9$).

Factorability of the correlation matrix

This step determines the appropriateness of the factor analytical model by examining the correlation matrix, the anti-image correlation matrix, and the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and Bartlett's test statistics (Coakes & Steed 2005). For an appropriate application of the PAF factor analytical model, a number of criteria must be satisfied. First, the correlation matrix must show several sizeable correlations in excess of 0.3. Second, in order to determine the factorability of the correlation matrix as a whole,

the KMO and Bartlett's test statistics must show that Bartlett's test of sphericity is large and significant, and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is greater than 0.6. Third, variables with a measure of sampling adequacy (displayed on the diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix) below the acceptable level of 0.5 should be excluded from the analysis.

Absence of outliers among variables

"A variable with a low squared multiple correlation with all other variables, and low correlations with all important factors, is an outlier among the variables" (Coakes & Steed 2005, p. 155). These outliers may need to be deleted from the analysis.

Reliability Analysis and Correlational Analysis

Normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of outlying cases as outlined above are also the underlying assumptions of both reliability analysis and correlational analysis (Coakes & Steed 2005).

Appendix 2-15

Pilot Study Illustration

Factor and Reliability Analysis of the Intention-to-Return Scale

Factor Analysis

As missing values are a problem for factor analysis like most other procedures (Field 2005), the 'missing values replace with mean' option was specified prior to running the analysis. Using Kaiser's (1960) criterion of extracting factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, the output for the **intention-to-return scale** is presented below. Examination of the Correlation Matrix (Output A2-15.1) found no variables which correlated very highly with other variables (e.g., $r > 0.9$) indicating that extreme multicollinearity and singularity were absent. Further inspection of the Correlation Matrix indicated that all correlations exceeded 0.3 and so the matrix was suitable for factoring (Coakes & Steed 2005). The factorability of the Correlation Matrix as a whole was determined by KMO and Bartlett's Test (Output A2-15.2) showing that the Bartlett's test of sphericity was large and significant, and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was greater than 0.6. Moreover, the sampling adequacy of each variable (displayed on the diagonal of the Anti-image Correlation Matrix – Output A2-15.3) was above the acceptable level of 0.5 and so no variable ought to be excluded from the analysis.

Output A2-15.1: Correlation Matrix

		Intention to return item 1	Intention to return item 2	Intention to return item 3	Intention to return item 4
Correlation	Intention to return item 1	1.000	.703	.638	.513
	Intention to return item 2	.703	1.000	.603	.557
	Intention to return item 3	.638	.603	1.000	.534
	Intention to return item 4	.513	.557	.534	1.000

Output A2-15.2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.805
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	195.474
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Output A2-15.3: Anti-image Matrices

		Intention to return item 1	Intention to return item 2	Intention to return item 3	Intention to return item 4
Anti-image Covariance	Intention to return item 1	.429	-.204	-.159	-.054
	Intention to return item 2	-.204	.435	-.095	-.133
	Intention to return item 3	-.159	-.095	.514	-.138
	Intention to return item 4	-.054	-.133	-.138	.621
Anti-image Correlation	Intention to return item 1	.770 ^a	-.472	-.338	-.105
	Intention to return item 2	-.472	.780 ^a	-.201	-.256
	Intention to return item 3	-.338	-.201	.831 ^a	-.244
	Intention to return item 4	-.105	-.256	-.244	.863 ^a

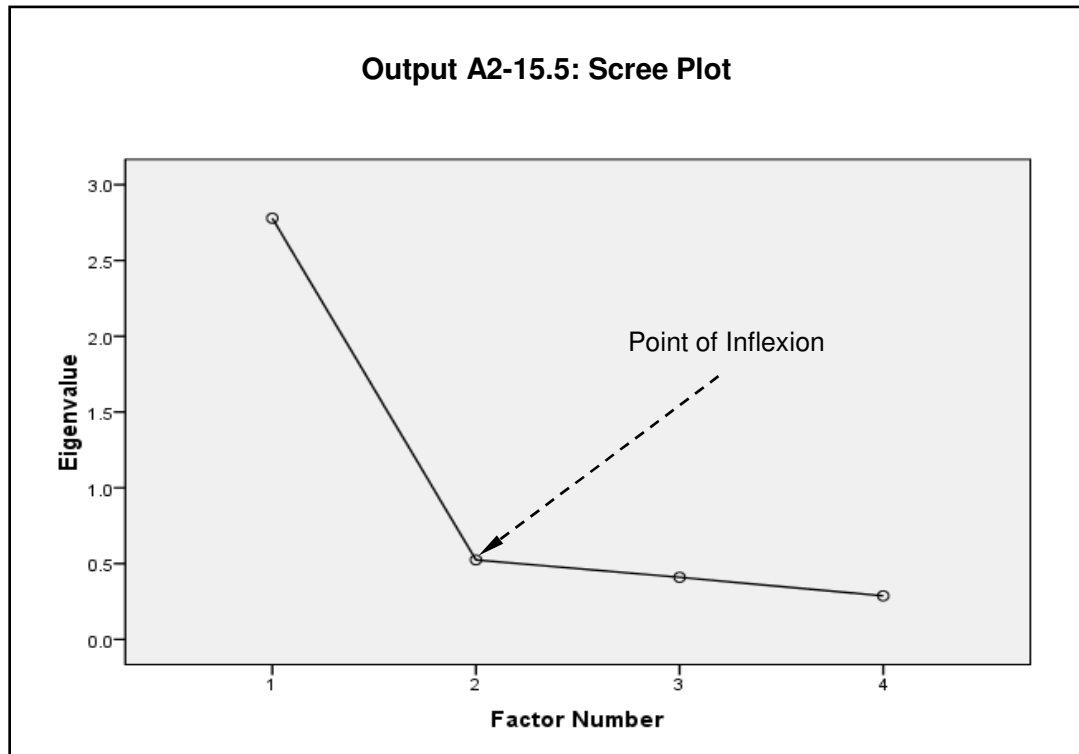
a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Examination of the Total Variance Explained table (Output A2-15.4) showed that factor 1 was the only factor bearing an eigenvalue greater than 1 and so it was extracted according to Kaiser's (1960) criterion. Once extracted, the eigenvalue associated with factor 1 was 2.389 representing 59.716% of total variance explained. These statistics confirmed that a one-factor solution was most appropriate as predicted. The Cattell's (1966) Scree Plot Test (Output A2-15.5), based on the point of inflexion as the cut-off point for retaining factors, also confirmed a one-factor solution for the four measurement items.

Output A2-15.4: Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.779	69.473	69.473	2.389	59.716	59.716
2	.524	13.106	82.579			
3	.410	10.238	92.817			
4	.287	7.183	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.



Further, inspection of the Communalities chart (Output A2-15.6) revealed desired communalities across the four measurement items, and hence the desired relationships among the items. In fact, the Communalities chart (Output A2-15.6) in conjunction with the Factor Matrix (Output A2-15.7) showed no single variable bearing (1) a low squared multiple correlation with all other variables, and (2) a low correlation with the extracted factor, and so outlier among the variables was nonexistent (Coakes & Steed 2005). Finally, outputs A2-15.6 and A2-15.7 revealed that the extracted communality and factor loading, associated with each measurement item, demonstrated the substantive importance of each item to the extracted factor. All communalities (ranging from 0.440 to 0.684) and factor loadings (ranging from 0.663 to 0.827) exceeded Stevens's (1992) proposed minimum threshold of 0.16 communality or 0.4 loading, indicating that all measurement items tapped well into the extracted factor.

In brief, the factor analysis results confirmed that all measurement items in the four-item **intention-to-return scale** tapped well into the same construct as hypothesized on the basis of content validity.

Output A2-15.6: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Intention to return item 1	.571	.681
Intention to return item 2	.565	.684
Intention to return item 3	.486	.584
Intention to return item 4	.379	.440

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Note: The squared multiple correlation of each variable with all other variables is the most widely used estimate of communality value for each variable (Field 2005)

Output A2-15.7: Factor Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Intention to return item 1	.825
Intention to return item 2	.827
Intention to return item 3	.764
Intention to return item 4	.663

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factor extracted. 6 iterations required.

Reliability Analysis

The output for the **intention-to-return scale** is presented below. Examination of the Item-Total Statistics (Output A2-15.9) revealed that all measurement items had item-total correlations above the acceptable level of 0.3, which is essential for a reliable scale (Field 2005). The Cronbach's alpha (Output A2-15.8) for the overall scale was equal to 0.849. Inspection of the 'Alpha if Item Deleted' column (Output A2-15.9) indicated that no removal of items would improve this reliability measure.

In sum, the reliability analysis results confirmed the internal consistency reliability of the four-item **intention-to-return scale** based on Cronbach's alpha equal to 0.849, which well exceeded the commonly used threshold value of 0.7 (Hair et al. 1995; Nunnally 1978).

Output A2-15.8: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.849	.853	4

Output A2-15.9: Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Intention to return item 1	14.47	4.605	.738	.571	.790
Intention to return item 2	14.64	4.321	.735	.565	.788
Intention to return item 3	14.84	4.010	.693	.486	.813
Intention to return item 4	14.04	5.033	.613	.379	.839

Appendix 3: Main Study Documents

Appendix 3-1

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Top Management's Ability - adapted from Mayer & Davis (1999)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Top Management's Ability	1. Top management is very capable of performing its job.	1
	2. Top management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.	2
	3. Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.	3
	4. I feel very confident about top management's skills.	4
	5. Top management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.	5
	6. Top management is well qualified.	6

Note:

- Cronbach's Alphas for Mayer & Davis's (1999) six-item instrument (as above) using five-point Likert scale were 0.85 (Wave 2) and 0.88 (Wave 3).
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the above six items using six-point Likert scale was 0.872

Appendix 3-2

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Top Management's Benevolence - adapted from Mayer & Davis (1999)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Top Management's Benevolence	1. Top management is very concerned about my welfare.	7
	2. My needs and desires are very important to top management.	8
	3. Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	9
	4. Top management really looks out for what is important to me.	10
	5. Top management will go out of its way to help me.	11

Note:

- Cronbach's Alphas for Mayer & Davis's (1999) five-item instrument (as above) using five-point Likert scale were 0.87 (Wave 2) and 0.89 (Wave 3).
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the above five items using six-point Likert scale was 0.900.

Appendix 3-3

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Top Management's Integrity - adapted from Mayer & Davis (1999)

Construct	Measurement Items**	Numbering in Questionnaire
Top Management's Integrity	1. Top management has a strong sense of justice.	12
	2. I never have to wonder whether top management will stick to its word.	13
	3. Top management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.	14
	4. I like top management's values.	15
	5. Sound principles seem to guide top management's behaviour.	16

Note:

- Cronbach's Alphas for Mayer & Davis's (1999) six-item instrument (as in Appendix 2-3) using five-point Likert scale were 0.82 (Wave 2) and 0.88 (Wave 3).
- In the pilot study, one item was deleted and the resulted Cronbach's Alpha for the above five items using six-point Likert scale was 0.924.
- ** Question 15 of the pilot study questionnaire was removed.

Appendix 3-4

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Trust in Top Management - adapted from Mayer & Gavin (2005)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Trust in Top Management	1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let top management influence issues that are important to me.(R)**	17
	2. I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company.	18
	3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management. (R)	19
	4. I would be comfortable giving top management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.	20
	5. If someone questioned about top management, I would prepare to believe something good about top management**.	21

Note:

- Cronbach's Alpha for Mayer & Gavin's (2005) five-item instrument (as in Appendix 2-4) using five-point Likert scale was 0.72.
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the same five items using six-point Likert scale was 0.712.
- (R) Denotes reverse-scored items.
- ** Minor changes of wordings to improve comprehension according to the pilot study respondents' feedback.

Appendix 3-5

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Senior Manager Role-modelling - adapted from Rich (1997)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Senior Manager Role-modelling	1. My senior manager provides a good model for me to follow.	22
	2. My senior manager leads by example.	23
	3. My senior manager sets a positive example for others to follow.	24
	4. My senior manager exhibits the kind of work ethic and behaviour that I try to imitate.	25
	5. My senior manager acts as a role-model for me.	26

Note:

- The pilot study slightly altered Rich's (1997) original five-item manager role-modelling scale to reflect a focus on senior manager. Cronbach's Alpha for Rich's original five-item instrument using five-point Likert scale was 0.96.
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the above five items using six-point Likert scale was 0.959.

Appendix 3-6

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Group Cohesiveness - adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1993)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Group Cohesiveness	1. There is a great deal of trust among members of my work group.	27
	2. Members of my group work together as a team.	28
	3. The members of my work group are cooperative with each other.	29
	4. My work group members know that they can depend on each other.	30
	5. The members of my work group stand up for each other.	31
	6. The members of my work group regard each other as friends.	32

Note:

- Cronbach's Alpha for Podsakoff et al.'s (1993) six-item instrument (as above) using five-point Likert scale was 0.93.
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the above six items using six-point Likert scale was 0.920.

Appendix 3-7

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Affective Commitment - adapted from Brashear et al. (2003)

Construct	Measurement Items**	Numbering in Questionnaire
Affective Commitment	1. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	33
	2. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	34
	3. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	35
	4. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.	36
	5. For me, this is the best of all possible organisations to work for.	37

Note:

- Cronbach's Alpha for Brashear et al.'s (2003) seven-item instrument (as in Appendix 2-7) using five-point Likert scale was 0.92.
- In the pilot study, two items were deleted and the resulted Cronbach's Alpha for the above five items using six-point Likert scale was 0.907.
- ** Questions 34 & 36 of the pilot study questionnaire were removed.

Appendix 3-8

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Job Satisfaction - adapted from Brashear et al. (2003)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Job Satisfaction	1. This job is worse than most. (R)	38
	2. My job is very worthwhile.	39
	3. My job is better than most.	40
	4. I sometimes feel this job is a waste of time. (R)	41

Note:

- Cronbach's Alpha for Brashear et al.'s (2003) four-item instrument (as above) using five-point Likert scale was 0.90.
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the above four items using six-point Likert scale was 0.754.
- (R) Denotes reverse-scored items.

Appendix 3-9

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Turnover Intention - adapted from Brashear et al. (2003)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Turnover Intention	1. I often think about quitting my present job.	42
	2. I intend to quit my present job.	43
	3. During the next 12 months, I intend to search for other things to do (examples: other job, full-time student, etc.).**	44
	4. During the past 12 months, I have actively searched for a new job.**	45

Note:

- Cronbach's Alpha for Brashear et al.'s (2003) four-item instrument (as in Appendix 2-9) using five-point Likert scale was 0.91.
- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the same four items using six-point Likert scale was 0.884.
- ** Minor changes of wordings to improve comprehension according to the pilot study respondents' feedback.

Appendix 3-10

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Intention-to-Return (Newly Developed for This Research)

Construct	Measurement Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Intention-to-Return	1. I like working in this organisation.	46
	2. If I leave this organisation voluntarily or upon completion of my contract, it is likely that I will return if the organisation is keen to re-employ me.	47
	3. Of all of the organisations I have worked for, this one is the one that I would most like to work for.	48
	4. If I had a choice I would never want to work for this organisation again. (R)	49

Note:

- In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha for the above four items using six-point Likert scale was 0.849.
- (R) Denotes reverse-scored item.

Appendix 3-11

Main Study: Questionnaire Items Measuring Demographic Data

Demographic Items	Numbering in Questionnaire
Age	(1) 20-25 [] (2) 26-30 [] 50 (3) 31-35 [] (4) 36-40 [] (5) 41-45 [] (6) 46-50 [] (7) Over 50 []
Gender	(1) Male [] 51 (2) Female []
Highest education completed	(1) Year 10 [] 52 (2) Year 12 [] (3) Technical college [] (4) Trade qualification [] (5) Tertiary qualification [] (6) University []
Job type	(1) White collar job [] 53 (2) Blue collar job []
Basis of employment	(1) Permanent [] 54 (2) Contract []
Level of employment	(1) Employee [] 55 (2) Supervisor [] (3) Middle manager [] (4) Senior manager []
Number of years with the company	(1) Less than 1 year [] 56 (2) 1 to less than 3 years [] (3) 3 to less than 6 years [] (4) 6 to less than 9 years [] (5) 9 years & over []

Appendix 3-12A

Main Study: Cover Letter and Survey Questionnaire

Sep/Oct 2008

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: Study of organisational performance and effectiveness

The Graduate School of Business, Curtin University of Technology, is currently sponsoring a research project designed to explore the factors that contribute to organisational performance and effectiveness. As an integral part of the research process, this survey of employees' workplace experiences provides a basis for analysing the impact of management behaviours on employees' commitment to the organisation. All survey data will be aggregated prior to analysis and all information provided by respondents will be treated as strictly confidential and anonymous. No information or subsequent publication of the research results will be able to be traced to any company or individual. Respondents may withdraw from the study at any time, prior to data analysis.

Your kind participation in the survey will contribute to the success of the project and is much appreciated. Kindly help us by completing the survey as follows:

- Please complete each of the 56 items by indicating only one most appropriate answer.
- Please complete the survey within two weeks of receipt if possible, and return it to us in the self-addressed pre-paid envelope provided.

Thank you very much for taking your time and effort to complete this survey. In appreciation of your contribution to this research, we are presenting you a little gift that goes along with each survey questionnaire distributed.

Yours faithfully,

Ngang J ENG, M.B.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
Graduate School of Business
Curtin University of Technology
Ph: (08) 9459 0772
Email: robineng1@gmail.com

Peter GALVIN, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Graduate School of Business
Curtin University of Technology
Ph: (08) 9266 3389
Email: Peter.Galvin@gsb.curtin.edu.au

This study has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. If needed, verification of approval can be obtained by either writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/- Office of Research & Development, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845, or telephone 9266 2784.

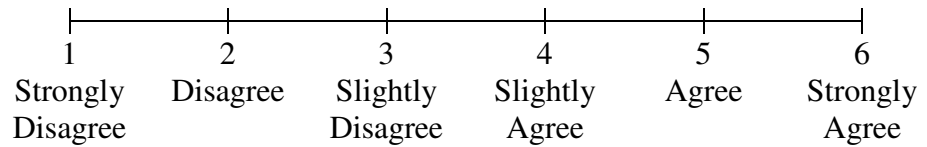
Survey of Employees' Workplace Experiences

Section I

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about your company's **Top Management Team**. Please use the following scale numbers (example: 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Top management is very capable of performing its job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Top management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I feel very confident about top management's skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Top management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Top management is well qualified.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Top management is very concerned about my welfare.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	My needs and desires are very important to top management.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Top management really looks out for what is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Top management will go out of its way to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Top management has a strong sense of justice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I never have to wonder whether top management will stick to its word.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Top management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I like top management's values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Sound principles seem to guide top management's behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	If I had my way, I wouldn't let top management influence issues that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management.	1	2	3	4	5	6

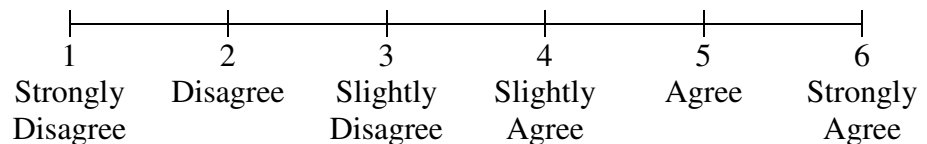
**Section I
(cont'd)**



- | | | |
|----|---|-------------|
| 20 | I would be comfortable giving top management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 21 | If someone questioned about top management, I would prepare to believe something good about top management. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |

Section II

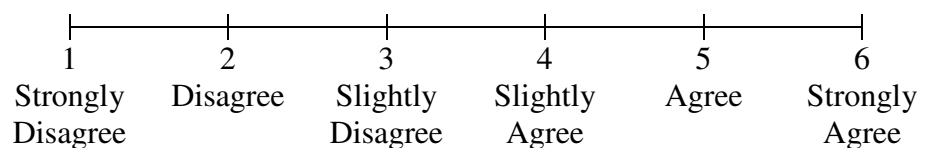
Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about your **Senior Manager** (i.e., the manager who reports directly to the top management). Please use the following scale numbers to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.



- | | | |
|----|--|-------------|
| 22 | My senior manager provides a good model for me to follow. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 23 | My senior manager leads by example. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 24 | My senior manager sets a positive example for others to follow. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 25 | My senior manager exhibits the kind of work ethic and behaviour that I try to imitate. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 26 | My senior manager acts as a role-model for me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |

Section III

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about your **Work Group**. Please use the following scale numbers to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.



- | | | |
|----|---|-------------|
| 27 | There is a great deal of trust among members of my work group | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 28 | Members of my group work together as a team. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |

**Section III
(cont'd)**

		1	2	3	4	5	6
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
29	The members of my work group are cooperative with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	My work group members know that they can depend on each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	The members of my work group stand up for each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	The members of my work group regard each other as friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section IV

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings you might have about working for your company. Please use the following scale numbers to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by **Circling** one of the scale numbers alongside each statement.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
33	I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	For me, this is the best of all possible organisations to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	This job is worse than most.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	My job is very worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	My job is better than most.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I sometimes feel this job is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	I often think about quitting my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	I intend to quit my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	During the next 12 months, I intend to search for other things to do (examples: other job, full-time student, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	During the past 12 months, I have actively searched for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section IV (cont'd)		1	2	3	4	5	6
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
46	I like working in this organisation.						1 2 3 4 5 6
47	If I leave this organisation voluntarily or upon completion of my contract, it is likely that I will return if the organisation is keen to re-employ me.						1 2 3 4 5 6
48	Of all of the organisations I have worked for, this one is the one that I would most like to work for.						1 2 3 4 5 6
49	If I had a choice I would never want to work for this organisation again.						1 2 3 4 5 6

Section V

Listed below is general information about you. Please tick against the most appropriate item.

50 Age: (1) 20-25 [] (2) 26-30 [] (3) 31-35 [] (4) 36-40 []
 (5) 41-45 [] (6) 46-50 [] (7) Over 50 []

51 Gender: (1) Male [] (2) Female []

52 Highest education completed:
 (1) Year 10 [] (2) Year 12 [] (3) Technical college []
 (4) Trade qualification [] (5) Tertiary qualification [] (6) University []

53 Job type: (1) White collar job [] (2) Blue collar job []

54 Basis of employment: (1) Permanent [] (2) Contract []

55 Level of employment:
 (1) Employee [] (2) Supervisor []
 (3) Middle manager [] (4) Senior manager []

56 Number of years you work in the company
 (1) Less than 1 year [] (2) 1 to less than 3 years []
 (3) 3 to less than 6 years [] (4) 6 to less than 9 years []
 (5) 9 years & over []

Survey Completion

Kindly check that all 56 items are duly completed

Thank you very much for your time and effort in this study

Optional Respondent Comments

If you have any comments or suggestions about this survey, please feel free to do so in the space provided below.

Appendix 3-12B

Main Study: Follow-up Letter for the Random Sample of Employees in a Variety of WA Industries

October/November 2008

Survey of Employees' Workplace Experiences

Dear Sir/Madam

Recently, a survey pack soliciting your kind participation in the above captioned survey was dropped into your letter box. You were included in the population of employees from a diverse range of industries in WA.

The survey provides a basis for analysing the impact of management behaviours on employees' commitment to the organisation. In turn, it will lead to new theories and practical guidelines for management that benefit both employers and employees.

If you have already returned the completed survey to us, please accept our sincere thanks. If not, we would appreciate your completing the survey now. It is extremely important that your workplace experiences be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the population of employees in the WA industries. The survey should take no more than 10 minutes of your time to complete.

Thank you very much for taking your time and effort to complete the survey.

Yours faithfully,

Ngiam J ENG, M.B.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
Graduate School of Business
Curtin University of Technology
Ph: (08) 9459 0772
Email: robineng1@gmail.com

Peter GALVIN, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Graduate School of Business
Curtin University of Technology
Ph: (08) 9266 3389
Email: Peter.Galvin@gsb.curtin.edu.au

Appendix 3-13

Pre-test for the Statistical Significance of Demographic Variables in the Regressions Specified for Hypothesis Testing

The following pre-test results (Tables A3-13.1 through A3-13.16) indicated that the demographic variables, including age, gender, education, job type, basis of employment, level of employment, and tenure were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) in the regressions to be used for hypothesis testing. Thus, there was no statistical evidence justifying their needs as control variables, and so they were not included in the actual regressions run to test the hypotheses.

Table A3-13.1: WA Study – Regression of Trust in Top Management on Top Management’s Ability, Top Management’s Benevolence, Top Management’s Integrity, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.919	.247		3.723	.000
	Top management's ability	.243	.042	.365	5.778	.000
	Top management's benevolence	.047	.046	.078	1.025	.306
	Top management's integrity	.233	.050	.384	4.701	.000
	Age	.003	.015	.011	.229	.819
	Gender	.081	.056	.059	1.447	.149
	Education	.005	.018	.012	.268	.789
	Job type	-.081	.064	-.056	-1.259	.209
	Basis of employment	.085	.074	.047	1.144	.254
	Level of employment	-.009	.031	-.012	-.277	.782
	Tenure	.029	.023	.060	1.269	.206

a. Dependent Variable: Trust in top management

Table A3-13.2: WA Study – Regression of Top Management's Ability on Group Cohesiveness, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.930	.552		3.495	.001
Group cohesiveness	.426	.060	.388	7.060	.000
Age	.013	.028	.027	.457	.648
Gender	.082	.113	.040	.725	.469
Education	.019	.036	.031	.519	.604
Job type	.096	.131	.044	.732	.465
Basis of employment	.163	.150	.059	1.081	.280
Level of employment	.162	.122	.077	1.332	.184
Tenure	-.268	.143	-.107	-1.880	.061

a. Dependent Variable: Top management's ability

Table A3-13.3: WA Study – Regression of Top Management's Benevolence on Group Cohesiveness, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.086	.393		5.314	.000
Group cohesiveness	.349	.069	.288	5.037	.000
Age	-.100	.145	-.043	-.690	.491
Gender	.059	.127	.026	.467	.641
Education	.098	.149	.041	.662	.508
Job type	.141	.146	.059	.971	.332
Basis of employment	.150	.170	.049	.882	.379
Level of employment	.326	.270	.068	1.204	.230
Tenure	-.325	.168	-.115	-1.931	.054

a. Dependent Variable: Top management's benevolence

Table A3-13.4: WA Study – Regression of Top Management's Integrity on Group Cohesiveness, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	2.269	.582		3.897
	Group cohesiveness	.386	.066	.324	5.863
	Age	-.265	.188	-.082	1.406
	Gender	.066	.124	.029	.528
	Education	.229	.165	.081	1.385
	Job type	-.045	.143	-.019	.313
	Basis of employment	.107	.166	.036	.648
	Level of employment	.094	.152	.037	.622
	Tenure	-.286	.159	-.104	1.794

a. Dependent Variable: Top management's integrity

Table A3-13.5: WA Study – Regression of Affective Commitment on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	1.450	.436		3.326
	Trust in top management	.876	.062	.642	14.025
	Age	-.044	.027	-.085	1.619
	Gender	.013	.100	.006	.126
	Education	.023	.032	.036	.716
	Job type	.122	.117	.054	1.041
	Basis of employment	-.217	.136	-.074	1.600
	Level of employment	.075	.056	.068	1.328
	Tenure	-.016	.041	-.021	.389

a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment

Table A3-13.6: WA Study – Regression of Job Satisfaction on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	3.155	.408		7.730
	Trust in top management	.545	.058	.503	9.423
	Age	-.021	.024	-.053	-.864
	Gender	-.037	.090	-.022	-.410
	Education	-.014	.030	-.028	-.463
	Job type	-.080	.105	-.046	-.766
	Basis of employment	-.149	.122	-.066	-1.230
	Level of employment	.033	.049	.039	.674
	Tenure	.029	.036	.049	.802

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Table A3-13.7: WA Study – Regression of Turnover Intention on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	6.014	.652		9.227
	Trust in top management	-.816	.097	-.462	-8.437
	Age	-.310	.160	-.117	-1.930
	Gender	-.114	.141	-.044	-.809
	Education	-.074	.323	-.013	-.231
	Job type	.032	.161	.012	.197
	Basis of employment	.167	.191	.048	.876
	Level of employment	-.004	.078	-.003	-.048
	Tenure	-.098	.056	-.108	-1.738

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Table A3-13.8: WA Study – Regression of Intention-to-Return on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	1.263	.480		2.633
	Trust in top management	.818	.069	.588	11.918
	Age	-.160	.116	-.073	-1.378
	Gender	.111	.109	.050	1.019
	Education	.017	.036	.026	.464
	Job type	-.022	.130	-.009	-.166
	Basis of employment	.007	.151	.002	.044
	Level of employment	.026	.061	.023	.426
	Tenure	.063	.042	.080	1.492

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to return

Table A3-13.9: SIN Study – Regression of Trust in Top Management on Top Management's Ability, Top Management's Benevolence, Top Management's Integrity, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	1.290	.314		4.112
	Top management's ability	.164	.062	.210	2.633
	Top management's benevolence	-.121	.070	-.153	-1.744
	Top management's integrity	.585	.077	.756	7.612
	Age	-.101	.091	-.059	-1.115
	Gender	.006	.082	.004	.074
	Education	-.004	.024	-.008	-.161
	Job type	-.009	.101	-.005	-.088
	Basis of employment	-.179	.117	-.070	-1.533
	Level of employment	-.008	.042	-.011	-.196
	Tenure	-.002	.032	-.003	-.059

a. Dependent Variable: Trust in top management

Table A3-13.10: SIN Study – Regression of Top Management's Ability on Group Cohesiveness, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.825	.575		3.174	.002
Group cohesiveness	.484	.066	.461	7.366	.000
Age	.049	.039	.090	1.248	.214
Gender	.004	.144	.002	.030	.976
Education	.039	.041	.069	.959	.339
Job type	-.041	.178	-.017	-.228	.820
Basis of employment	.066	.202	.021	.326	.745
Level of employment	.047	.153	.023	.305	.761
Tenure	-.059	.196	-.020	-.304	.762

a. Dependent Variable: Top management's ability

Table A3-13.11: SIN Study – Regression of Top Management's Benevolence on Group Cohesiveness, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.370	.582		2.356	.019
Group cohesiveness	.486	.068	.450	7.158	.000
Age	-.048	.045	-.087	-1.077	.283
Gender	.000	.147	.000	.002	.998
Education	-.033	.042	-.058	-.785	.433
Job type	.051	.182	.021	.283	.778
Basis of employment	.183	.209	.056	.877	.382
Level of employment	.082	.077	.087	1.065	.288
Tenure	.078	.058	.107	1.348	.179

a. Dependent Variable: Top management's benevolence

Table A3-13.12: SIN Study – Regression of Top Management's Integrity on Group Cohesiveness, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	1.457	.602		.016
	Group cohesiveness	.505	.069	.456	.000
	Age	-.062	.046	-.108	.178
	Gender	-.056	.152	-.026	.711
	Education	-.044	.044	-.074	.316
	Job type	.049	.188	.020	.796
	Basis of employment	.319	.214	.095	.138
	Level of employment	.115	.079	.117	.149
	Tenure	.073	.059	.098	.218

a. Dependent Variable: Top management's integrity

Table A3-13.13: SIN Study – Regression of Affective Commitment on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	.790	.426		.065
	Trust in top management	.809	.053	.748	.000
	Age	.058	.034	.109	.091
	Gender	.045	.108	.023	.678
	Education	.012	.030	.022	.700
	Job type	.190	.133	.084	.154
	Basis of employment	.004	.148	.001	.978
	Level of employment	-.009	.057	-.010	.877
	Tenure	-.012	.042	-.018	.770

a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment

Table A3-13.14: SIN Study – Regression of Job Satisfaction on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	1.090	.416		2.619
	Trust in top management	.745	.055	.717	13.658
	Age	-.009	.034	-.019	-.275
	Gender	.016	.107	.009	.150
	Education	.187	.116	.090	1.610
	Job type	.070	.125	.034	.556
	Basis of employment	.188	.148	.068	1.271
	Level of employment	-.019	.055	-.023	-.340
	Tenure	.034	.042	.055	.817

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Table A3-13.15: SIN Study – Regression of Turnover Intention on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	6.409	.628		10.200
	Trust in top management	-.857	.082	-.607	-10.504
	Age	-.032	.049	-.048	-.645
	Gender	.155	.158	.063	.983
	Education	-.062	.045	-.093	-1.388
	Job type	-.364	.195	-.129	-1.870
	Basis of employment	.160	.231	.041	.694
	Level of employment	.072	.081	.065	.886
	Tenure	-.083	.062	-.097	-1.340

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

Table A3-13.16: SIN Study – Regression of Intention-to-Return on Trust in Top Management, and Demographic Variables (Extracted from SPSS Coefficients Table)

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.123	.444		2.530	.012
	Trust in top management	.797	.056	.713	14.188	.000
	Age	.001	.033	.001	.016	.988
	Gender	-.008	.111	-.004	-.069	.945
	Education	.033	.031	.062	1.044	.298
	Job type	.023	.137	.010	.166	.868
	Basis of employment	-.082	.159	-.027	-.516	.606
	Level of employment	-.010	.057	-.011	-.168	.867
	Tenure	.193	.115	.099	1.672	.096

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to return

Appendix 3-14

Assumptions Underlying Regression Analysis, and Their Test Procedures

A number of assumptions underlying the application of regression analysis are outlined as follows:

Ratio of cases to independent variables: The minimum number of cases should be at least five times more than independent variables (Coakes & Steed 2005). For standard or hierarchical regression, twenty times more cases than predictors would be ideal.

Absence of outliers: Extreme outliers must be deleted or modified because they bias the mean and inflate the standard deviation (Field 2005). Also they affect the regression coefficients, and thus bias the regression model. Univariate outliers can be detected using SPSS casewise diagnostics and residuals statistics. Multivariate outliers can be found using residual scatterplots. They can also be detected using Mahalanobis distance or Cook's distance displayed in SPSS residuals statistics with case details saved in SPSS data editor. Outliers may be a problem in the data if the maximum Mahalanobis distance exceeds the critical chi-square value at an alpha level of 0.001 with degrees of freedom equal to the number of predictors (Coakes & Steed 2005). For Cook's distance, values greater than 1 may be cause for concern (Cook & Weisberg 1982; Field 2005). Deletion of outliers must be made with care because any deletion might generate further outlying cases (Coakes & Steed 2005)

Absence of extreme multicollinearity and singularity: Whereas multicollinearity refers to very high correlations among independent variables, singularity refers to perfect correlations among independent variables (Coakes & Steed 2005). Their presence affects how one interprets any relationships between the predictors and the dependent variable. Some guidelines have been used to assess if multicollinearity poses a threat to the validity of multiple regression analysis by ways of examining the correlation matrix, variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance (TOL) (Field 2005). Substantial correlations among independent variables (e.g., $r >$

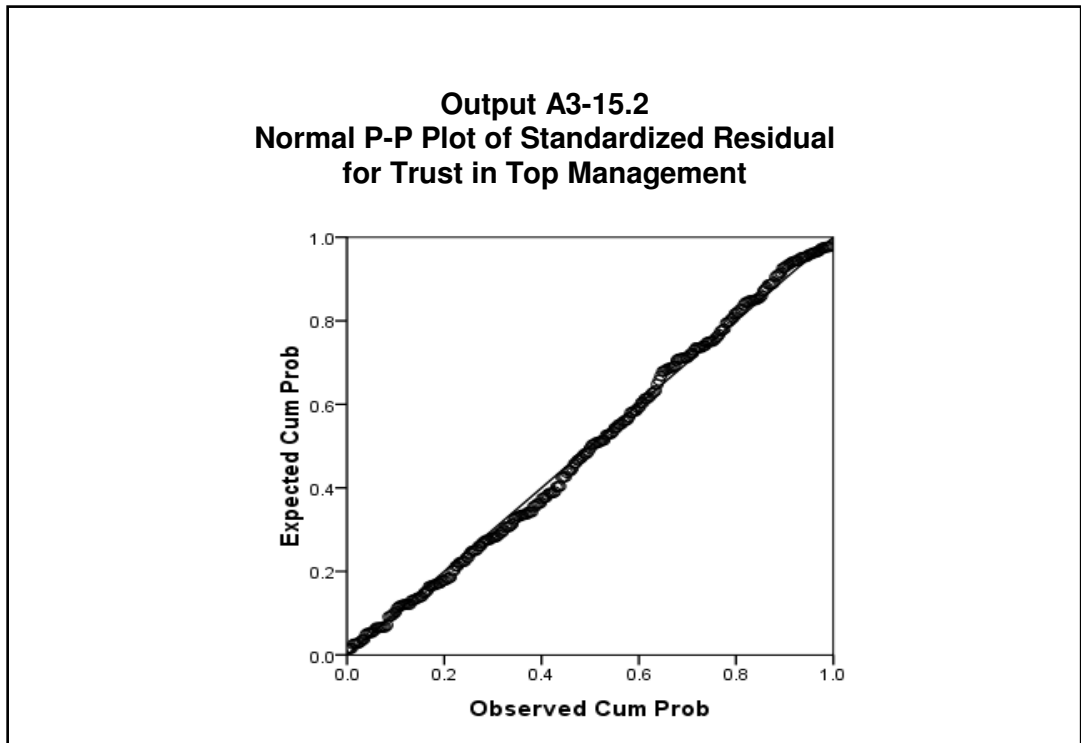
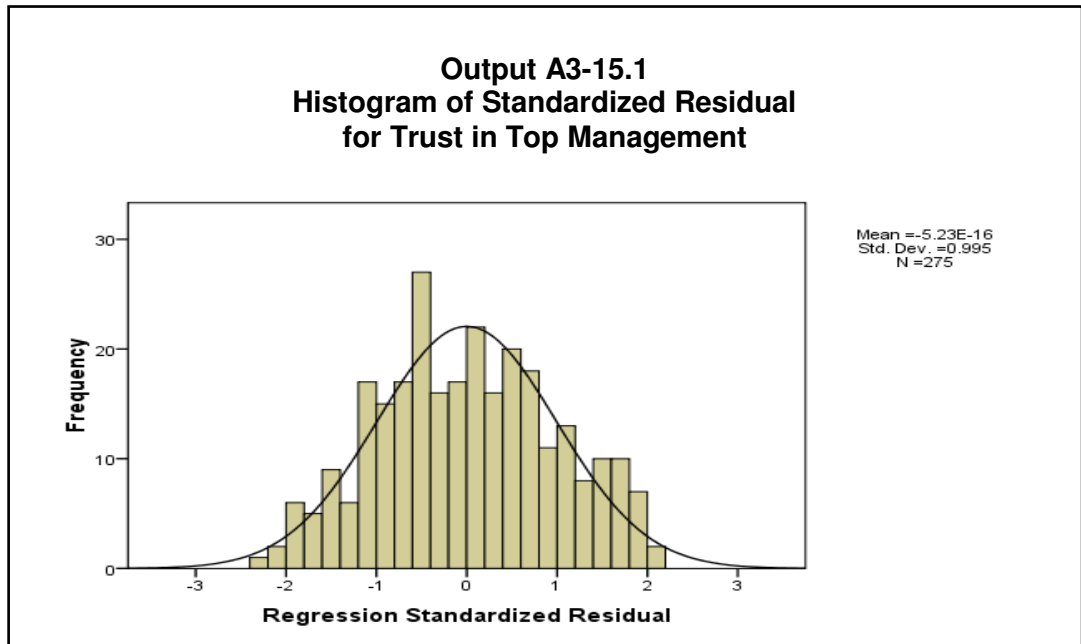
0.9) should be cause for concern. VIF indicates whether a predictor has a strong linear relationship with the other predictor(s). VIF equal to or above 10 (also, $TOL = 1/VIF$ equal to or below 0.1) should be cause for concern (Field 2005; Myers 1990). TOL values below 0.2 indicate potential problems and are worthy of concern (Field 2005; Menard 1995).

Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals: The residuals (differences between observed and predicted values) should be normally distributed, and this can be tested by examining the histogram and normal P-P plot (Coakes & Steed 2005; Field 2005). If the histogram looks like a normal distribution and the P-P plot a diagonal line, the assumption of normality is tenable. Moreover, the residuals should have a linear relationship with the predicted values (i.e., linearity), and the variance of the residuals should be constant for all predicted values (i.e., homoscedasticity). This can be tested by looking at the ZRESID-ZPRED plot. If it looks like a random array of dots, the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity are tenable. Violations of these assumptions are evidenced if (a) the dots show a pattern to them like a curved shape (i.e., non-linearity), (b) the dots appear more or less spread out like a funnel (i.e., heteroscedasticity), or (c) the dots have both (a) and (b) characteristics (i.e., non-linearity and heteroscedasticity).

Independent errors: The residual terms for any two observations should be uncorrelated, and this can be tested with the Durbin-Watson statistic (Field 2005). The statistic varies between 0 and 4 with a value of 2 indicating that the residuals are uncorrelated. Values less than 1 or greater than 3 are cause for concern.

Appendix 3-15 Part 1 of 2

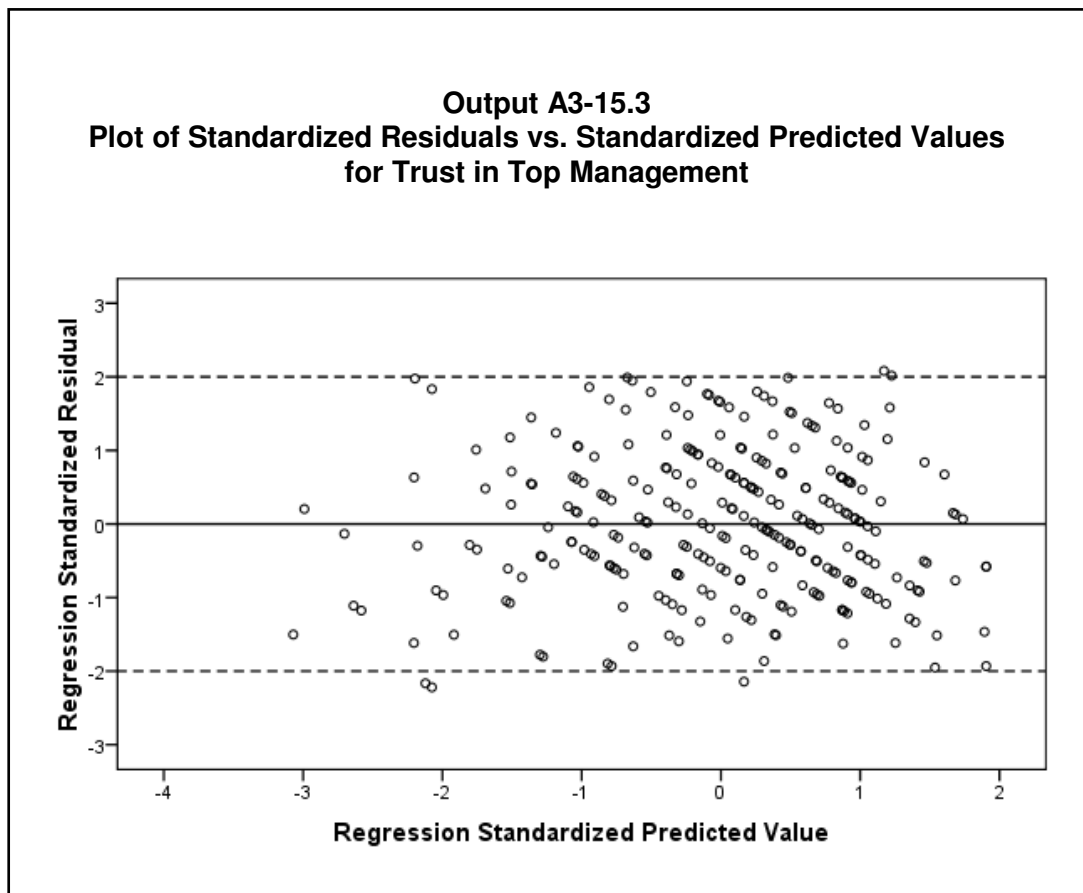
Illustration Using Test of Hypothesis 1a Done on WA Data Tests of Normality of Residuals Underlying Regression Analysis



Test Results: The histogram looked like a normal distribution and the P-P plot a diagonal line suggesting the assumption of normality was tenable.

Appendix 3-15 Part 2 of 2

Illustration Using Test of Hypothesis 1a Done on WA Data Tests of Linearity and Homoscedasticity of Residuals Underlying Regression Analysis



Test Result: The ZRESID–ZPRED plot looked like a random array of dots and showed no patterns that would cause concern, suggesting the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were tenable.

Appendix 3-16 Part 1 of 2

Illustration Using Nonresponse Bias Estimate Done on WA Data

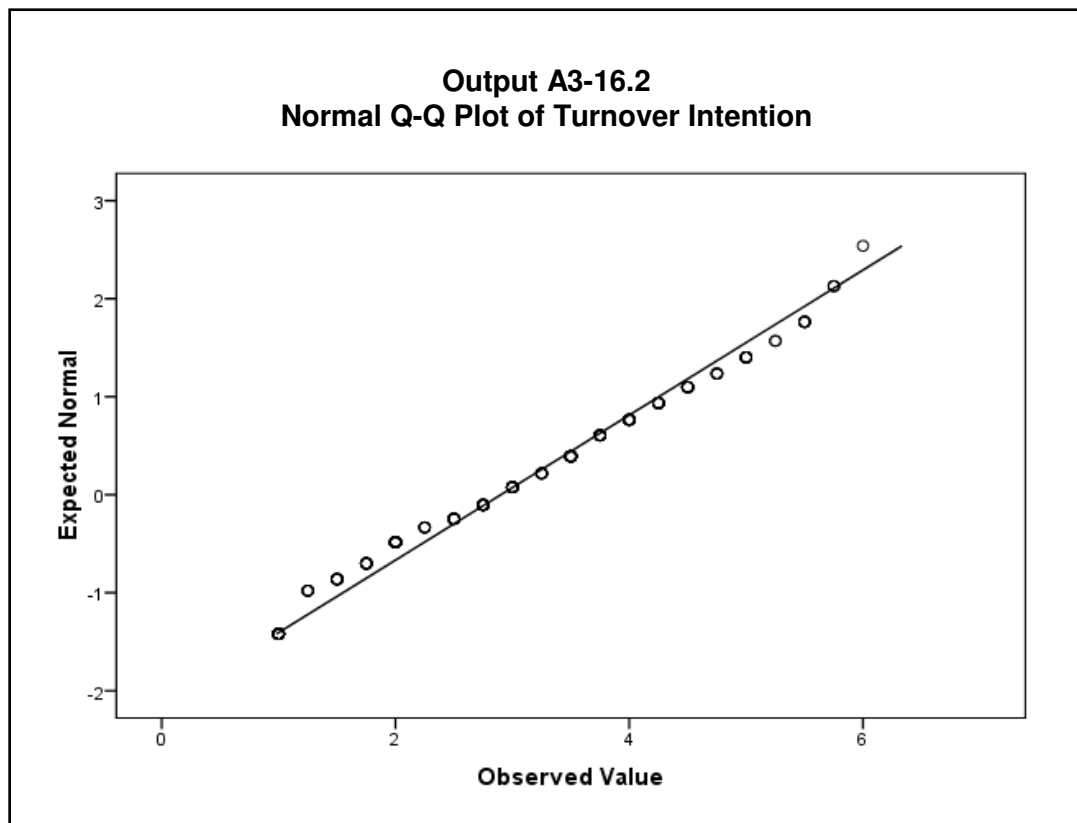
Tests of Normality Assumption Underlying Independent Groups T-Test

Early Respondents' Turnover Intention

Output A3-16.1: Descriptive Statistics							
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Turnover intention	179	2.9022	1.35158	.246	.182	-.847	.361

Computations: Skewness z-score = Skewness/Std. Error = 1.352

Kurtosis z-score = Kurtosis/Std. Error = -2.346



Test Results: Both the skewness z-score and kurtosis z-score were within ± 2.58 (Field 2005) and the Normal Q-Q plot looked like a diagonal line, suggesting the assumption of normality was tenable.

Appendix 3-16 Part 2 of 2

Illustration Using Nonresponse Bias Estimate Done on WA Data

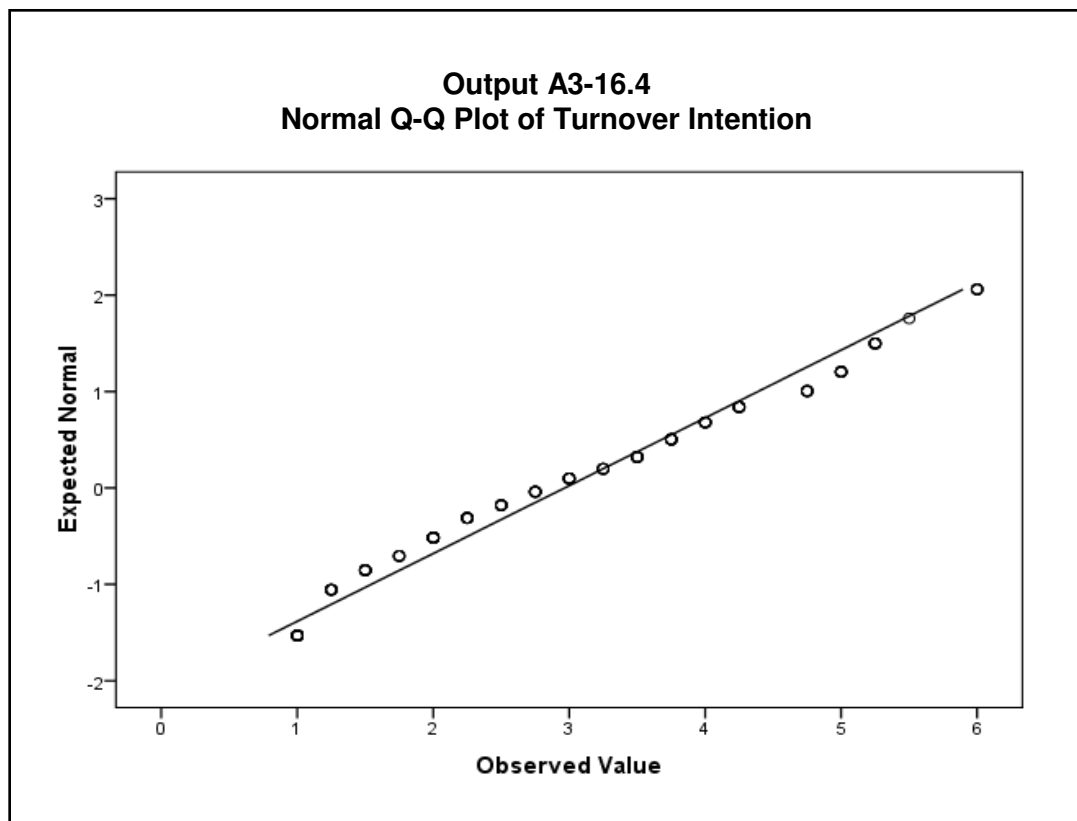
Tests of Normality Assumption Underlying Independent Groups T-Test

Late Respondents' Turnover Intention

Output A3-16.3: Descriptive Statistics							
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Turnover intention	126	2.9663	1.42209	.326	.216	-.911	.428

Computations: Skewness z-score = Skewness/Std. Error = 1.509

Kurtosis z-score = Kurtosis/Std. Error = -2.128



Test Results: Both the skewness z-score and kurtosis z-score were within ± 2.58 (Field 2005) and the Normal Q-Q plot looked like a diagonal line, suggesting the assumption of normality was tenable.

Appendix 4

Ethics Approval

GSB Research & Development Ethics Committee Approval Form



To	Ngiang Jiang ENG
From	Jan McDonald, for GSB Ethics Committee
Subject	PROTOCOL APPROVAL, GSB119
Date	28 November 2007
Copy	P. GALVIN

Graduate School of Business
R&D Ethics Committee

TELEPHONE +61 8 9266 3460
FACSIMILE +61 8 9266 3368
EMAIL des.klass@gsb.curtin.edu.au
WEB www.gsb.curtin.edu.au

Thank you for the Application for Approval of Research with Minimal Risk (Ethical Requirements) Form C, for the project entitled **"The relationships between trust in top management and organisational outcomes: Implications for the influence of senior manager role-modelling and group Cohesiveness in the Construction Industry"**.

On behalf of the Human Research Ethics Committee, I am authorised to inform you that the project is approved.

Approval of this project is for a period of twelve months, from **26th Nov to 25th Nov 2008**.

If, at any time during this period, changes and/or amendments occur, or if a serious or unexpected adverse event occurs, please advise the Graduate School immediately.

The approval number for your project is **GSB 119**. Please quote this number in any future correspondence.

Please note that the following standard statement must be included on the information sheet given to participants - *"This study has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. If needed, verification of approval can be obtained by either writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/- Office of Research & Development, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845, or telephone 9266 2784."*

Please find attached your protocol details, together with the approved application form/cover sheet.

Regards

Jan McDonald
for
GSB Ethics Committee

Some research, particularly undergraduate research, may be regarded as minimal risk. If this is the case, the applicant should normally complete a Form C "Application for Approval of Research with Minimal Risk (Ethical Requirements)" to be submitted to the ethics coordinator or reviewer in the relevant School. In assessing the application the reviewer will decide whether the application can be approved or whether amendment is required. Alternatively, if the reviewer believes the risk associated with the research is not minimal, the applicant may be instructed to complete the more extensive Form A for submission to the Secretary, HREC for assessment by other reviewers.

Further information for applicants is contained in the respective application forms.

Confidentiality - The applicant must indicate in detail how confidentiality and privacy will be maintained, for example, what procedures and safeguards will be employed. A simple statement of intent to maintain confidentiality is not sufficient.

Anonymity and Identifiable Participants - researchers have a responsibility to take all reasonable steps to protect participant's privacy and to fully inform participants, prior to participation, of any possible risks regarding identification in published material. Researchers should give participants the opportunity to review draft material before it is published, including interview transcripts, to further ensure that the rights and privacy of participants is protected.

Access to Curtin Staff and Students - researchers who would like permission to have access to the personal details of staff or students of Curtin for the purposes of directly inviting them to participate in a research study (e.g. contact details) will require both the approval of (i) the Human Research Ethics Committee and (ii) the Pro Vice-Chancellor, Academic Services, in that order.

Informed Consent - The application must provide details of how consent will be obtained and must include copies of the **Consent Form** and **Information Sheet**. See Q 3 of Form A and section below.

Risks/Benefits - The proposed benefits of the study must outweigh any potential risk, and any such risks to participants must be minimised and fully communicated to participants before consent is obtained. See Q 1 of Form A.

Adequacy of Method - Applicants should ensure that proposals provide sufficient detail in order to demonstrate to the Committee that the project is justified, relevant and that all methods are clearly outlined.

Invasive Techniques - Any proposals involving invasive techniques should automatically be referred to the Human Research Ethics Committee in order to be vetted by a suitably qualified expert.

External Institutional Approval - Proposals that require external institutional approval, ie approval from institutions outside Curtin University of Technology should be referred by formal submission to the Human Research Ethics Committee.

CONSENT FORM and INFORMATION SHEET

A *Consent Form* and *Information Sheet* must be provided to participants in all but exceptional circumstances. In preparing these documents reference should be made to the *NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (see paragraph on **Consent** 1.7 1.12). Paragraph 1.7 of the *National Statement* says:

Before research is undertaken, whether involving individuals or collectivities, the consent of the participants must be obtained, except in specific circumstances defined elsewhere in this Statement [see paragraphs 1.11, 6.9, 14.4, 15.8, 16.13]."

So as to conform with ethical and legal requirements, obtaining consent should involve:

- (a) *provision to participants, at their level of comprehension, of information about the purpose, methods, demands, risks, inconveniences, discomforts, and possible outcomes of the research (including the likelihood and form of publication of research results); and*
- (b) *the exercise of a voluntary choice to participate.*

Other main points to note from the *National Statement* are:

- A participant may refuse to participate without giving a reason or justification (paragraph 1.8).
- A participant's consent must be clearly established, and the consent of all properly interested parties obtained (paragraph 1.9). When appropriate, consent may need to be sought at both an individual and an organisation level.
- Consent must not be the subject of coercion, or to any inducement or influence which could impair its voluntary character (paragraph 1.10).
- Circumstances in which consent from participants may not be necessary include: the use of de-identified data in epidemiological research, observational research in public places, or the use of anonymous surveys (paragraph 1.11).
- A participant must be free at any time to withdraw consent to further involvement in the research.

Consent Form

A consent form would normally include the details listed below:

- title of project
- statements of confirmation, such as -
 - "I have been informed of and understand the purposes of the study."
 - "I have been given an opportunity to ask questions."
 - "I understand I can withdraw at any time without prejudice."
 - "Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published material."
 - "I agree to participate in the study as outlined to me."
- name of participant, signature and date.

Information Sheet

The main purpose of the *Information Sheet* is to provide participants with a plain language statement that clearly describes the aims of the project and the nature of involvement of participants. Participants should be clearly informed of their rights and any risks associated with participation. At all times the researcher must observe the welfare of the participants and respect the dignity and personal privacy of the individual.

An Information Sheet must include the following:

- The aims of the project;
- A description of what will be required of the participants (include details of amount of time required of participants);
- A statement which addresses confidentiality and security of information. Details of who will have access to personal information and the purpose(s) for which participant information will be used, including whether participants would be potentially identifiable in any published material;
- A statement that advises participation is completely voluntary; participants are at liberty to withdraw at any time without prejudice or negative consequences; non-participation will not affect an individual's rights/access to other services/care (eg in the case of patients);
- Any risks / benefits to participants;
- The contact details of the investigators (and supervisor where the principal investigator is a student) should the participant require further information;
- The contact details of the Human Research Ethics Committee (Secretary) should participants wish to make a complaint on ethical grounds (phone: 9266 2784 or S.Darley@curtin.edu.au or in writing C/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845);
- Confirmation that the project has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee.

Use of Sensitive Tests

- Researchers have a duty of care if their research uncovers information about individual subjects that has a bearing on their wellbeing. If the data are valid at the individual level, the researcher has a duty of care to those discovered to be at risk.
- Diagnostic tests and procedures should only be used if they are specific to the research questions asked. Diagnostic tests should only be analysed by persons with the appropriate qualifications and competence to interpret the results.
- If the instrument used in collecting information from the participant is a diagnostic test, and has been collected by someone professionally able to interpret it diagnostically, then the duty of care may require feedback to the individual concerned or to someone responsible for the individual (such as their physician or in the case of school children, the school principal) if the individual is identified as being at risk.
- If the instrument is not diagnostic, but is still indicative or raises concerns about the individual's well-being (eg traits, states, conditions or tendencies), then feedback may still be necessary if a participant's score is extreme.
- If the instrument is non-diagnostic or non-indicative, it is recommended that data should be collected in ways that would not allow an individual's score to be identified, ie, collected anonymously.
- The Information Sheet to participants should clearly state whether the information is to be collected anonymously. If collected anonymously, it should state clearly that individual scores will not be identifiable or made available for any purpose. If not collected anonymously, the researcher should "inform potential subjects of the possibility of diagnosis and the way the results will be handled. In particular, the researcher must outline to whom and how results, which indicate that the subject of the research is 'at risk', will be communicated."
- Where feedback to an individual or carer of the individual is warranted, extreme care is necessary to avoid possible negative consequences such as 'false alarms'.
- The researcher's duty of care to participants pertains only to the information that is central to the purpose of the research.