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***The relationship between participative decision-making  
and employee perceptions of trust, psychological  
contract breach, and organization commitment in the  
Information Technology sector in Swaziland***

A research Report

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**Master of Business Leadership**



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## **Abstract**

*The intent of this research was to explore explicitly the relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perceptions about trust, psychological contract breach and organisational commitment. While most of these constructs have received a lot of attention in literature, little research exists on how they are interrelated as far as organisational studies are concerned. Therefore the main focus of this research was to explore these relationships. Participation in decision-making was hypothesized to have positive relationships with trust and organisational commitment, and a negative relationship with psychological contract breach. The research was conducted on a total of 50 information technology professionals. The results indicate there is no significant relationship between participation and trust as well as organisational commitment. However, there is a significant negative relationship between participative leadership and the perceived breach of the psychological contract at the organisational level.*



## Declaration

I declare that this research report is my original, unaided work.

This report is submitted in partial requirement for the degree of Masters in Business Leadership (MBL) at the Graduate School of Business Leadership (SBL) of the University of South Africa (UNISA). To the best of my knowledge it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at this or any other university.

A handwritten signature in black ink, enclosed within a hand-drawn oval border. The signature is stylized and appears to be 'Innocent M Dlamini'.

Innocent M Dlamini

November 2005



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## **Chapter 1: Orientation**

### **1.1 Introduction**

A number of studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of participative leadership especially in decision-making, but the findings have not been consistent (Lam, Chen & Schaubroek, 2002; Yukl, 2002; Miller & Monge, 2001; Leana, Locke & Schweiger, 1990; Parker, 1999), and therefore the effects of participative leadership are still unclear. Some studies have reported a direct relationship between participative leadership and subordinate performance while others have reported no relationship at all. Others have reported relationships between participation and such variables as job performance, employee satisfaction, employee productivity and organisational behaviour; the most widely adopted notion being that participation has a positive effect on employee performance.

However, other field experimental studies have found that the motivational effects of participative leadership do not affect performance (Latham, 1983). Several researchers have explanations for these inconsistencies in the findings of participative leadership. Lam *et al* (2002), states that the inconsistencies in the findings may be explained by the absence or presence of moderating variables. They also suggest that when studying the relationship between participation and performance, researchers should look beyond the situational and methodological moderators towards examining psychological predispositions. They studied individual difference variables associated with locus of identity and efficacy beliefs about participating as moderators of the effects of participative decision-making on individual and group performance. In turn they found self-efficacy in regard to participation in decision-making and idiocentrism moderated the relationship between perceived participative decision-making opportunity and individual performance.

This study therefore is directed towards examining other psychological predispositions based on the belief that participative leadership in decision-



making affects other psychological variables namely trust, organisational commitment and the psychological contract, which in turn affects employee performance. Hence this study is designed to examine the relationships between participative leadership in decision-making and employee trust, psychological contract as well as the organisational commitment in information technology teams.

### ***1.2 Research objective***

The primary objective of this research is to determine the relationship between participative leadership behaviour in decision-making and employee trust, perceptions of the psychological contract, and organisational commitment in information technology based teams in Swaziland. In essence, the research seeks to establish if there is a relationship between participative leadership behaviour in decision-making and the aforementioned affective employee variables.

### ***1.3 Definition of terms***

- Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done effectively and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2002).
- Participative leadership is the type of leadership behaviour whereby the leader makes efforts to encourage and facilitate participation in making important decisions (Yukl, 2002).
- A psychological contract is an individual's belief in mutual obligation between that person and another party, such as an employer (Rousseau, 1989). This belief is based on the perception that an exchange of promises has been made (e.g. of employment or career opportunities) to which the parties are bound. It is an unwritten set of expectation between everyone in an organisation and unlike the written contract is continually changing.



- Organisational commitment is concerned with feelings of attachment to the goals and values of the organisation, one's role in relation to this as well as attachment to the organisation in a manner other than instrumental value (Cook, 1980).
- Trust is defined as reflecting three facets, which are expectation or believe, involves a willingness to be vulnerable and there is some level of dependency between two people (Whitener, Korsgaard & Werner 1998).
- Autocratic decision-making is when the manager makes a decision alone without asking for opinions or suggestions from other people.
- Consultation is when the manager asks other people for their opinions and ideas then makes the decision alone.
- Joint decision is when a manager meets with other to discuss the decision problem and make a decision together.
- Delegation is when the manager gives an individual the authority and responsibility for making a decision.

### **1.4 Problem statement**

Does participative leadership have a positive relationship with employee perceptions of trust, the psychological contract, and organisational commitment?

#### **Sub Problems**

- What is the relationship between participation in decision-making and the psychological contract?
- What is the relationship between participation in decision-making and the trust of employees?
- What is the relationship between participation in decision-making and employee organisational commitment?



### ***1.5 Importance/benefits of the study***

Apart from generating interest and inciting more research on the effects of participation, this study is important in that it will shed ideas on the effect of participative leadership behaviour in shaping the antecedents of employee behaviour that have been discussed. When this is achieved, managers can use the findings as a guideline on whether to use participation to positively improve employee behavior and hence performance.

### ***1.6 Contribution of the study***

This study will help to give a new dimension to the measurement of effectiveness of participative leadership. A number of research studies have been conducted using a variety of methodologies and the results have been inconsistent. This study will add another dimension by examining a number of affective employee outcomes. The results of this study should incite further research in the measurement of effectiveness of participative leadership and its consequences. It will also help to improve leadership development programmes in technology management in Swaziland.

### ***1.7 Delimitations of the study***

This study is limited to Information Technology professionals and therefore, any findings cannot be assumed to apply to all other professionals. While the variables of concern may exhibit relationships as they are assumed, it is worth mentioning that it is rarely easy to diffuse relationships between psychological variables without taking into account any intervening variables. This implies that even if this study can show relationships between participation in decision-making and employee behaviour, the results, while sufficient, are not conclusive if the other intervening variables such as organisational culture, other dyadic relationships are not taken into account.

### ***1.8 Organisation of the report***

The first part of this document (Chapter 1) introduces what this research is all about and what is to be achieved through it. Chapter two covers the related



literature and reviews the relevant theories guiding this research. Chapter three explains in detail how this research was conducted and explains the intricacies of the research methodology adopted to carry out this research. Chapter four presents the findings while chapter five presents the discussions. The conclusion and recommendations from the study are presented in chapter six. The last chapter of this document presents a draft article for publication.



## **Chapter 2: Literature review**

### ***2.1 Participation in Decision Making***

Participative leadership, according to Yukl (2002) involves efforts by a leader to encourage as well as facilitate participation of followers in making decisions. Some refer to it as participative decision-making (PDM) (Sagie, Elizur & Koslowsky, 1995). Parnell and Crandall (2003) define participative leadership as processes that results in transfer of decision power from leader to subordinates. They also argue that the emphasis on specific techniques of PDM has not resulted in a clear understanding of this phenomenon.

Ryan (1999) defines participation as an opportunity to influence decisions, including structures and processes that encompass participation and involvement. In this study participative leadership is described as the actions undertaken by a leader to ensure that followers have a say in decisions. While participative leadership has been further broken down to include autocratic leadership, consultation, joint decision-making and delegation (Yukl, 2002), for purposes of this study it is taken to imply participative decision-making.

According to the Vroom and Yetton Model, the decision procedure used by a leader affects both the quality of the decision and the acceptance of the decision by those that have to implement it (Yukl, 2002). The model also identifies other aspects of the situation that render one decision effective in a situation and not effective in another. It identifies five procedures used for making decision namely, a leader makes a decision by him/herself using information available, subordinates provide the necessary information and then the leader makes the decision in such a way that the role of the subordinates is providing information, problem is shared with subordinates individually and then the leader makes the decision without necessarily reflecting subordinates influence, the problem is shared with subordinates in a group through which they provide ideas and suggestions and then the leader makes the decision and lastly the problem is shared with the subordinates in



a group and in a group alternatives are evaluated and a consensus reached. Each of these procedures reflects a certain amount of participation by the subordinates.

In the article of participation, satisfaction, and productivity, Lam, Chen and Schaubroek (2002) quote (Locke & Schweiger, 1979) as having defined participative decision making as joint decision-making or influence-sharing between leaders and their subordinates. They found that issues such as self-efficacy in regard to decision-making moderated the relationship between perceived participative decision-making opportunity and individual performance. Several other definitions of participative leadership as well as its relationship to other variables exist and as Greiner (1973) noted, the differing views among management educators and social theorists on what exactly is meant by participative leadership has resulted in considerable confusion.

The confusion around participative leadership has considerable effects on the studies of this phenomenon in relation to other variables. Miller and Monge (2001) suggested that the wide-ranging conceptualization and operational definitions of participation might have resulted in the varying strengths of the relationship between participation and satisfaction that researchers have identified. To eliminate conceptualization problems, for the purposes of this study, the researcher adopts a limited conceptualization of participative leadership to include delegation, consultation, joint decision-making and power sharing (Yukl, 2002). Even though there is confusion over this topic, the effects of participation in decision-making on employee attributes cannot be downplayed.

Vroom (2000) suggested that even under several different conditions, increasing participation leads to more decision acceptance (buy in), commitment to the decisions and better motivation to implement the decisions. It is also confirmed that having an input in a decision makes subordinates feel the leader values them and affirms that they are not only respected but, their status is of high order (Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza, 1995). Subordinates are also given some indirect control over decisions when



they are allowed voice in the decision-making process and, therefore, are likely increase their commitment towards organisational objectives. Participation, as some researchers have established, has some effect on psychological variables, which in turn affect performance. In this study, it is suggested that participation will affect employee behaviour through trust, psychological contract and the organisational commitment variables.

Preston, Bottger, Hallein and Yetton (1985) suggest that managers use participation as a means of protecting both the quality and acceptance of a decision. Comparing how managers respond to problems of low or high structure can test this they claim, and, that the use of participation will also depend on whether the manager has sufficient information to solve the problem. They conclude that problem structure will determine whether a manager does or does not use participation, and that participation is used more where the problem is unstructured and less where the problem is structured.

Information Technology (IT), according to Benamati and Lederer (2000) is continuously changing and causing difficulties for IT managers. Because of this continuous change and the expense associated with acquiring new IT solutions, selecting the wrong solution can be very costly. It is for this reason that it is a complex challenge to IT managers to realize the potential of the ever changing IT while avoiding the risk of failure (Benamati & Lederer, 2000). Again the new technology that comes with every change makes it difficult for IT managers to become experts in everything. This is further aggravated by the fact that in each solution of IT, there is usually different expertise needed to implement the solution. This implies that IT managers will generally not have all the information required to make the most critical decisions.

From the above, it can be suggested that information technology decisions are more likely to be unstructured and therefore need input from different experts. A problem is usually unstructured if the solution is a non-routine and the nature or source of information to the problem is unknown (Preston *et al*, 1985) and this typically represents IT problems. The decision has to be of



high quality because, as mentioned above, costs of making mistakes are very high. Using the Vroom's (2000) normative model, which suggests that participation is related to problem structure, it is proposed that IT managers will use more participation.

*H1. Information technology leaders will generally on average (4) use high levels of participation in decision-making.*

## **2.2 Psychological Contract**

Psychological contract of employees is based on the beliefs of what the employee owes the organisation and what the organisation owes the employee in return. It is the individual's belief regarding terms and conditions which define the exchange agreement between that individual and another party as defined by Robinson (1996) taking it from Rousseau (1989). It practically reflects what employees believe an employer owes the employees. By nature, this construct is highly flexible with undefined set of terms, which are interpretative. Robinson (1996) states that psychological contracts, unlike the formal contracts, are inherently perceptual in nature which means that one party's understanding of the contract may not be the same as the understanding of another party. This inherently makes the psychological contract subjective.

The psychological contract is not static and will change over time and hence employees will believe that the employer owes them different things at different times in the course of their employment. When the employees do not receive what they believe they ought to have, they are likely to feel that the employer has breached their psychological contract. Psychological contract breach occurs when the employees perceive that the employer has not fulfilled their expectations such as high salary, promotions, job security and sufficient power and responsibility (Robinson, 1996).



Employees who experience psychological contract breach may exhibit behavior that is not aligned to that required by their employers such as lower citizenship behavior, reduced commitment and performance (Robinson, 1996). For example employees may not take an active role in decision-making even when the opportunity has been availed to them. This creates a problem in trying to evaluate the relationship between participation and the psychological contract. It becomes difficult to establish the causality between participation and psychological contract breach because a breach may occur due to other variables resulting in employees deciding not to take part in decision making, while on the other hand, a breach may occur because employees are excluded in the decision-making process yet they feel they ought to participate.

In the study of trust, Robison (1996) found trust to have a moderating effect on the psychological contract. Like all contracts, trust forms the basis of the psychological contract and acts as a guideline in the interpretation of behaviours within this relationship. The existence of trust at the very beginning of this relationship will form a positive foundation for the way in which behaviour is going to be interpreted throughout the existence of this relationship. As a result, employees with low trust in the initial engagement of the employment contract will experience a decline in trust if they perceive that a psychological contract breach has occurred. However it is not the purpose of this study to evaluate the moderating effect of trust, so as far as the relationship between participation and the psychological contract, the following hypotheses are made:

*H2a: There is a negative relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.*

*H2b: There is no relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making.*



### **2.3 Trust**

The construct of trust, according to Zhu, May and Avolio (2004), has been given a considerable amount of attention in organizational sciences literature. This they attest is so because trust has potential consequences on organizational effectiveness and performance. In literature, trust has been defined to include willingness of one party to expect another party to perform a particular action that is important to the trusting party while in no position to control the actions of the trustee (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998; Brockner, Siegel, Daly & Martin, 1997; Cook & Wall, 1980). Robinson (1996) defines trust as "one's expectations of beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions will be beneficial, or at least not detrimental, to one's interest" (p. 576). This definition is adopted for this study.

The trusting party must be willing to be vulnerable to actions of the trustee and have confidence that the trustee will act in the interest of the trusting party. Whitener *et al* (1998), state that a combination of the agency and social exchange theories integrates economic factors and social processes that help in the understanding of the development of trust. According to the Social Exchange theory, trust develops through an exchange of benefits between two parties (Brockner, Siegel, Daly & Martin, 1997).

Zhu (2004) and his colleagues identify two types of trust namely conditional and unconditional trust. They describe conditional trust as one in which the two parties are willing to transact as long as both parties behave appropriately using similar understanding of situations. This trust they claim is usually sufficient to facilitate a number of social exchanges. Unconditional trust however they define as being characterized by shared values that structure the social situation becoming the primary vehicle through which trust is experienced.

Connell, Ferres and Travaglione (2003) cite a couple of writers who maintain that trust is developed through an organization's leaders. It is for this reason



that Whitener *et al* (1998) advises that it is better that managers be encouraged to make the first move to initiate trust and that the initiation process is a challenge of management. There are several ways in which managers can initiate trust and these include keeping promises, treating employees fairly and engaging in transparent behavior. Connell *et al* (2003) cite perceived organizational support, procedural justice and transformational leadership as predictors of trust.

Managerial behavior has an important influence on the development of trust in the relationships between managers and employees (Whitener *et al*, 1998). According to Whitener *et al* (1998) there are five managerial behaviors that influence employees' perception of managerial trustworthiness, these being behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, sharing and delegation of control, communication, and demonstration of concern. As far as the sharing and delegation of control, Whitener *et al* (1998) state that participation in decision-making and delegating control are key components of trustworthy behavior. They cite several researchers who found participation in decision-making to have an influence in the development of trust between managers and employees.

From definition of trust, it is proposed that managers who engage in participative decision-making must believe and trust that subordinates have the ability and potential to influence the decision positively. Managers therefore have to be willing to be vulnerable to the actions of the subordinate so as to allow participation in decision-making, with the basic assumption being that individuals act in self-interest. Because trust involves the willingness to remain vulnerable by setting out faith in another person with the hope that it will be reciprocated, a manager who initiates participation is likely build the trust of employees as indicated by the Social Exchange theory.

When managers engage in participation, they indicate a certain amount of trust on the subordinates and in turn, subordinates are more likely to return the trust. Ritchie and Miles (1970) found that where participation was valued and practiced, subordinates satisfaction with their managers was closely



related to the amount of trust and confidence, which managers have in them. This suggests that there is a relationship between participation and trust. Ideally, those employees who are afforded a chance to impact on the decision that affect their jobs and the organization are likely to believe that their leaders demonstrate concern and this should increase their level of trust in their leader (Whitener *et al*, 1998).

When employees have greater influence in decisions it is therefore proposed that they will be more trusting.

*H3: There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in their leader.*

#### **2.4 Organizational Commitment**

Cook and Wall (1980) state that the concept of organisational commitment is concerned with feelings of attachment to the goals and values of the organisation, one's role in relation to this as well as attachment to the organisation in a manner other than instrumental value. Another definition of organisational commitment is "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation", (Harrison & Hubbard, 1999: 611). Yousef (2000) states that organisational commitment has three basic components namely: a strong belief in and acceptance of organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation.

Organisational commitment is defined as the extent to which an organisation's workforce is willing and capable of carrying out their roles to the achievement of organisational objectives. Allen and Meyer (1990) identify three types of organisational commitment. These are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative attachment.



Affective commitment is emotional attachment to the organisation whereby the organisation has an emotional value to the individual. In such a case, the individual is strongly committed to the organisation such that the individual identifies with the organisation and is proud to be a part of it.

Continuance commitment is a result of the perception of costs associated with leaving the organisation. Allen and Meyer refer to Kanter's (1968) definition of continuance commitment as cognitive continuance commitment, which occurs when there is a profit associated with continued involvement in the organisation and cost associated with leaving. The higher the risk associated, the greater the chance that this kind of commitment will be substantial.

Normative commitment is when employees feel an obligation to remain with the organisation. This kind of commitment is attributed the social set-up of the individual which may make them to believe that it is the "right and moral" thing to stay with the organisation.

There are several researchers who have noted that participation in decision-making has a favorable influence on the organizational commitment of employees. Harrison and Hubbard (1999) concluded from their research that job satisfaction, participative decision-making, and age were predictive of organizational commitment of employees. Zhu, May and Avolio (2004) found that prior research had shown that organizational commitment was greater for employees whose leaders encouraged their participation in decision-making. They also cite Mathieu and Zajac (1990) as having suggested that leadership dimensions, such as initiation structure, consideration, communication, and participative leadership were all antecedents of organizational commitment at the individual level.

According to Yousef (2000), there is a lot of previous research that has been done to establish the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment but unfortunately there have been no consistent findings. In his study however, (Yousef, 2000) he found that subordinates who perceived their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership



behavior were more committed to their organizations, more satisfied with their jobs and were highly performing.

Allen and Meyer (1990) noted that there are differences in the conceptualization of organizational commitment and these differences can be attributed to the different psychological states reflected by commitment, the antecedents' conditions leading to its development and the behaviors resulting from it. They also state that the three types of organizational commitment can be viewed as types of attitudinal commitments reflecting different psychological states. This has led to some of these inconsistencies in establishing relationships involving organizational commitment.

Because of the conceptualization of the three types of organizational commitment, and the fact that they develop independently as Allen and Meyer (1990) put it, it is proposed that participation will have different relationships with each of these. Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that in their earlier research, there was strong evidence that affective organizational commitment was due to experiences that fulfill employee's psychological needs. Continuance commitment develops because of the magnitude of investments while normative commitment was influenced by individual's social experiences. Taking these findings into account, the following propositions are made:

*H4a: Participation in decision-making will have a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment in employees.*

*H4b: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with continuance organizational commitment.*

*H4c: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with normative organizational commitment.*



## Chapter 3: Research design

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a research design is a plan for selecting the sources and the types of information that will be used to answer the research questions. It acts as a framework for specifying and outlining the relationships among the variables of concern as well as being a blueprint for defining all the procedures to be used in arriving at the answers the research is aimed at finding. It therefore acts as a guideline to the researcher about how the data is to be collected, how it is to be analysed and how the results are to be presented. Another element of the research design is that it specifies the time dimension in which the research is to be carried out.

### 3.1 General design

Using the definition and classification of Cooper and Schindler (2003), the following table defines how this research has been constructed.

**Table 3.0-1 Research design strategies**

Category	Options	This research
Classification of design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Exploratory study</li><li>• Formal study</li></ul>	Formal study
Method of data collection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Monitoring/ observation</li><li>• Interrogation / communication</li></ul>	Communication
Power of researcher to produce effects in the variables	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Control – Experiment</li><li>• No control – ex post facto</li></ul>	Ex post facto
Purpose of study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Descriptive study</li><li>• Causal study</li></ul>	Descriptive study
Time dimension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Cross sectional study</li><li>• Longitudinal study</li></ul>	Cross sectional
The topical scope	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Statistical study</li><li>• Case study</li></ul>	Statistical study
The research environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Field conditions</li><li>• Laboratory conditions</li><li>• Simulations</li></ul>	Field conditions

Source Cooper and Schindler 2003 (P 147)



### **3.1.1 Classification of design**

The classification of the design specifies how the hypothesis is to be handled. In an exploratory study, the main aim is usually to develop a hypothesis while in the formal study the main aim is to test hypothesis resulting from research questions. This study is a formal and statistical one, aimed at testing the following hypothesis derived from the research questions:

H1. Information technology leaders will generally on average (4) use more participative leadership style in decision-making.

H2a: There is a negative relationship between participation and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

H2b: There is no relationship between participation and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

H3: There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust.

H4a: Participation in decision-making will have a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment in employees.

H4b: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with continuance organizational commitment.

H4c: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with normative organizational commitment.

### **3.1.2 Method of data collection**

The method of data collection defines how the data required to answer the research questions is be collected. Data can be collected by monitoring / observation whereby the researcher only inspects activities of objects or



nature to get data rather than eliciting responses from anyone. It can also be collected by communication/interrogation, which involves questioning subjects and collecting their responses by the researcher. For this research communication interrogation was selected because subjects had to report (self report) about their experiences.

### **3.1.3 Power of researcher to produce effects in the variables**

When the researcher has the ability to manipulate variables and/or control them, the resulting study can be classified as experimental. However if the researcher has no control over variables but can only report about them, as in the case of this study, the study is referred to as ex post facto.

### **3.1.4 Purpose of study**

The two options of the purpose of the study include descriptive and causal studies whereby the former is concerned with explaining relationships among variables while the latter is concerned with causality between variables. In this study, because it could not be established as to whether any of the variables causes another, it warrants that only the relationships be studied. Of prime importance was to establish any correlation between the variables.

### **3.1.5 Time dimension**

The time dimension defines the time frame in which the research is conducted. A research carried once representing a picture at one point in time is referred to as a cross sectional study. This is how the current study was conducted, as the picture defined was between May 2005 and November 2005. However this study examines variables such as the psychological contract that are ideally captured easily using longitudinal study, which is repeated in a long time. The reason why this had to be a cross sectional study is that this research is allowed only in the designated period as it has to be covered in the tuition period of the MBL programme.



### **3.1.6 Topical scope**

The topical scope defines the emphasis that the study is placing in terms of understanding the variables of interest. A statistical study like the current one for example, outlines the population's characteristics using sample characteristics to make inferences. In such a case a sample is used to make generalizations about the population based on validity and hypotheses tested quantitatively. The other alternative scope is a case study that emphasizes a complete analysis of fewer events and places less emphasis on hypotheses. The choice to make this study a statistical one was based on the fact that there are quantitative measures of analysing the variables of concern.

### **3.1.7 Research environment**

The environmental conditions under which a research is conducted can either be field conditions or laboratory conditions. Because the subjects of this research were in their field conditions this study was therefore done under field conditions.

## ***3.2 Measurement instrument and data collection***

### **3.2.1 Instrument design**

For this research, an instrument was developed to consist of already existing instruments for measuring trust, organisational commitment, psychological contract, and participative leadership. The questions were either on a five point or a seven point Likert scale. Questions for measuring the perceived breach of the psychological contract were taken from those of Rousseau (1990). Questions for the measurement of trust in the leader were those developed by Brockener, Siegal, Daly and Martin (1997). For organisational commitment measurement, the questionnaire items were those developed by Allen and Meyer (1990).

The last part of instrument was that of measuring participative leadership. Participative leadership was divided into two sets namely larger organisational participative leadership reflecting senior managers in the organisation and



that for departmental reflecting the immediate manager. The first set was used to measure the general participative decision opportunity in the company and it was sourced from Lam, Chen and Schaubroek (2002). The other set was used to measure perceived participation in relation to the line manager and was sourced from Heller and Wilpert (1977). The reasoning behind this was that, while the focus of this study's attention was on the immediate manager, the larger organisation leaders have an impact on the participative state of an organisation. The first set was therefore required as a control to give a larger understanding of the organisation wide state of participative leadership.

A set of questions was developed to capture demographic information. These variables include age, gender, education and income group. Other variables included in the questionnaire were the number of years under a current manager, number of years in the organisation and the level of position held in the organisation.

The questionnaire was combined to show

- Structured questions for measuring trust, psychological contract and organisational commitment (closed questions).
- Structured questions for measuring participative leadership (closed questions)
- Structured questions for collecting demographic variables

(See Appendix a for the full questionnaire)

### **3.2.2 Instrument Validity.**

Instrument validity is concerned with establishing whether the instrument is measuring what it has been designed to measure or how truthful the research results will be. Validity was not a concern for the measurement instrument designed for this research because it utilises already validated measures of trust, psychological contract, organisational commitment and participative leadership. This implies that issues of content validity, criterion related validity and construct validity were not to be worried about.



The scale for measuring the participative decision making opportunity, i.e. perceived participation, according to the initial users (Lam *et al*, 2000) has a Cronbach alpha of .95 and the other from Heller and Wilpert (1977) has a Cronbach alpha of .95. The scales for the measurement of organisational commitment are those designed by Allen and Meyer (2001) and were reported to have the following alphas: Affective commitment scale, .87; continuance commitment scale, .75 and normative commitment scale, .79. The coefficient alpha for the scale of measuring psychological contract breach was reported to be .78. Lastly the scale for measuring trust in the leader was reported to have a coefficient alpha of .75.

### **3.2.3 Reliability**

Reliability is concerned with whether the instrument is measuring the same thing time and time again. The extent to which results are consistent over time and are an accurate representation of the total population under study represents reliability. If the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. To test the reliability of the instrument, a test re test approach was used. Ten respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire and the answers were noted. Two weeks later the same 10 respondents were asked to complete the same questionnaire and the new answers were compared with the old answers. The results showed 93 percent reliability. These final 10 questionnaires were included in the total list of respondents used for the research.

### **3.2.4 Data Collection**

For data collection the researcher adopted the procedure of self- administered surveys, which was either mailed or hand delivered. The questionnaire was mailed or hand delivered to the head of the department to be issued out to staff. While this method provided a cost advantage, it posed disadvantages such as a large non- response error and poor response. To curb this, the researcher sent a follow up correspondence exactly 1 week after the



questionnaires had been dispatched. The questionnaires were also accompanied by a covering letter (appendix b) providing respondents with a chance to indicate interest in the findings of the study. This was aimed at generating interest and increasing the response rate. A total of 25 questionnaires were mailed while 45 were hand delivered. In total 57 were returned which indicated a response rate of 81%. Of the 57, 11 were incomplete which necessitated call backs. The eventual usable number was the targeted 50.

### **3.3 Sampling**

#### **3.3.1 Population**

Cooper and Schindler (2003) define the population as the entire collection of elements about which the researcher makes inferences. This research is aimed at making inferences about information technology workers in the Kingdom of Swaziland. The population element normally referred to, as the unit of analysis, is each information technology person.

#### **3.3.2 Sampling frame**

The sampling frame selected was the Computer Society of Swaziland list. However this list was almost 10 years old and therefore not accurate. It is for this reason that there were difficulties in generalising the findings across the population. This decreased the effectiveness of a probability sampling procedure.

#### **3.3.3 Sample type**

Due to old age of the sampling frame, the researcher opted to use a non-probability sampling procedure. It has been noted above that the benefits of a probability sampling procedure will diminish if the sampling frame is flawed. The sampling method adopted was a convenience quota sample. The quotas included representation from parastatals (15), non-governmental organisations (10), government departments (10) and private companies (15). While this sample procedure may not have been scientific, it was sufficient for



the purposes of this research. The only problem that arose was that it created difficulties in generalising findings for the entire population.

### **3.3.4 Sample size**

Because of the problems arising from the fact that there was no ideal sampling frame and that the sampling was non-probability sampling, it became necessary to increase the sample size for this research in order to get a good estimation of the characteristics of the population. While generalization of the population characteristics may not be achieved for the purpose of this research, a bigger sample lets the researcher make fair assessments about the population of interest. It is therefore, for that reason that the ideal sample size was targeted to be at 50. The total population was estimated to be around 200. This is because Information technology is relatively a new field and its adoption is slow in Swaziland and hence there are few IT professionals.

## ***3.4 Data analysis methods***

Because this is an exploratory study, the analysis of the data at first included using the basic statistical tools such as means and standard deviation. To test each of the five hypotheses, as the causality in each of the hypothesis is unknown, correlation was tested as well as analysis of variance. Testing hypothesis one (H1) involved testing the means of the perceived participation.

### **3.4.1 Editing**

Editing is aimed at detecting errors and omissions, eliminating them as much as possible to ensure that a minimum data quality standard is achieved. Editing did not pose a great challenge for this research, as most of the questions were closed questions. There was however, no field editing as the questionnaire was self-administered. It was necessary though to make call backs for incomplete or inconsistent answers so as to be able to get the required sample of 50.



### **3.4.2 Coding**

The questions were almost all designed in a five or seven point Likert scale as shown in appendix A, which renders coding unnecessary. Coding however was done for the demographic variables such as gender. A “1” represented a male while a “2” represented a female. For the age, a “1” represented less than 20 years of age, 2 represented ages between 20 and 30 years, 3 represented ages 31 to 40, 4 represented ages 41 to 50 and 5 represented ages above 50 years.

Further coding was done for the number of years the respondents had been with the present employer which had the same scale as the number of years the respondents had been with a current manager and was classified as follows:

Less than 1 year was represented by a 1, 1 to 5 years represented by a 2, 6 to 10 years represented by a 3, 11 to 15 years represented by a 4 and above 15 years was represented by a 5.

Level of position in the company was coded as follows: technician was represented by a 1, supervisor by a 2, manager by a 3, senior manager by a 4 and other by a 5. Education was coded as follows: high school was represented by a 1, technikon by a 2, university degree by a 3, post graduate by a 4 and other by a 5. Lastly, salary level per annum was coded as follows: 1 for less than E20 000, 2 for E20 000 to 50 000, 3 for E50 001 to E100 000, 4 for E100 001 to E200 000 and 5 for greater than E200 000.

The aspect of coding that warranted attention of the researcher was the questions with reverse answers. These questions were used in the measurement of the extent to which respondents trusted their immediate managers as well as measuring respondents' organizational commitment. The questions were all on a seven point Likert scale which means that if a respondent had selected a 1, it was coded as a 7 and vice versa. A 2 was coded as a 6 and vice versa while a 3 was coded as a 5 and vice versa. A 4 remained unchanged as it represented a neutral point of the variables.



### 3.4.3 Analysis

While this is an exploratory study, all the constructs have been tried and validated. Each technique of measuring the variables was either a five-point or seven-point Likert scale representing interval data. The variables showing respondents' expectations from the employer were averaged to give the variable psychological contract expectations. The variables showing what was received from the employer were averaged to produce the variable - psychological contract met expectations. The perceived psychological contract breach measure was then created by taking the average value of each of the variables the respondents expected their employers to fulfill (psychological contract expectations) and then subtracting the average value of the variables that were met (or unmet) by the employer (psychological contract met expectations), as done by Robinson (1999). (See section A of Appendix A for the variables). For example let us assume that in the expectations (measured on a seven-point Likert scale) on the variable "expected promotion to a better job" a respondent scored 5 and on the met expectation variable (measured on a seven-point Likert scale) "received enough promotion to a better job" the respondent scored 3. Creating the psychological contract breach then involved taking the expected value (5) and subtracting the received value (3),  $5-3 = 2$ . This discrepancy represented a breach. If the values had been 3 and 5 for expectations and met expectations respectively the result would be a -2 showing that the variables was met more than expected. As a result the values of the psychological contract breach would range between -7 showing a variable not expected but highly met and 7 showing highly expected variable but not met at all.

To derive the construct of trust (trust in the immediate manager) the variables in section b of the questionnaire were averaged. (See appendix A for the variables). Variables in section c subsection 1 of the questionnaire were averaged to produce the affective organizational commitment construct. Section c subsection 2 was averaged to produce continuous organizational commitment while section c subsection 3 was averaged to produce the normative organizational construct. The same was done for section d



variables to obtain participative leadership and perceived participation constructs.

Once the data was in the right format, through the use of a statistical program (SPSS), the researcher used frequency tables, pie charts as well as histograms for the exploratory analysis. Hypotheses were tested using Pearson's (product moment) correlation coefficient for those that represent two constructs, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also tested. For those hypotheses representing more than two variables, the hypothesis was tested using multiple correlation and multivariate analysis of variance.

### ***3.5 Results presentation***

The results are presented in frequency tables, pie charts, histograms and tables.

### ***3.6 Limitations of the study***

Quantitative research requires skills in sampling design issues, sampling methods, survey design, instrument design, statistical techniques, and how they are all applied in a communications research context. The extent to which these skills are used in planning and carrying out a quantitative study determines both the quality of the data and the ability to generalize to the total population. For this reason, the lack of a suitable sample frame resulting in the use of non-probability sampling means that the results of this study cannot be generalized for the whole population of Information technology professionals.

The use of questionnaires and other standardized survey instruments may be inadequate for uncovering deep-seated reactions. Variables such as the psychological contract are better captured by a longitudinal study, as a cross sectional requires the respondents to respond about instances that happened a long time ago. The result is that there is a limitation in the capture and measurement of the psychological contract as well as its perceived breach.



Another limitation is caused by fact that some factors have not been taken into account in this study. For example personal attributes, values, education, organisational state, are factors necessary when evaluating the relationship between participative leadership and such constructs as psychological contract, organisational commitment and trust.



## Chapter 4: Research Results

As mentioned in the research design, a total of 50 questionnaires were used for data analysis. These 50 are from respondents in the following categories: parastatals (15), non- governmental (10) organisations, government departments (10) and private companies (15). Below are the results showing the demographic variables of the respondents.

### 4.1 Frequencies

#### 4.1.1 Total sample

Table 4.0-1 Total frequencies

		Age Groups	Gender	Years with Employer	Years with manager	Position held	Education	Salary
N	Valid	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

All the respondents completed the information required as shown in table 4.0-1.

#### 4.1.2 Age groups

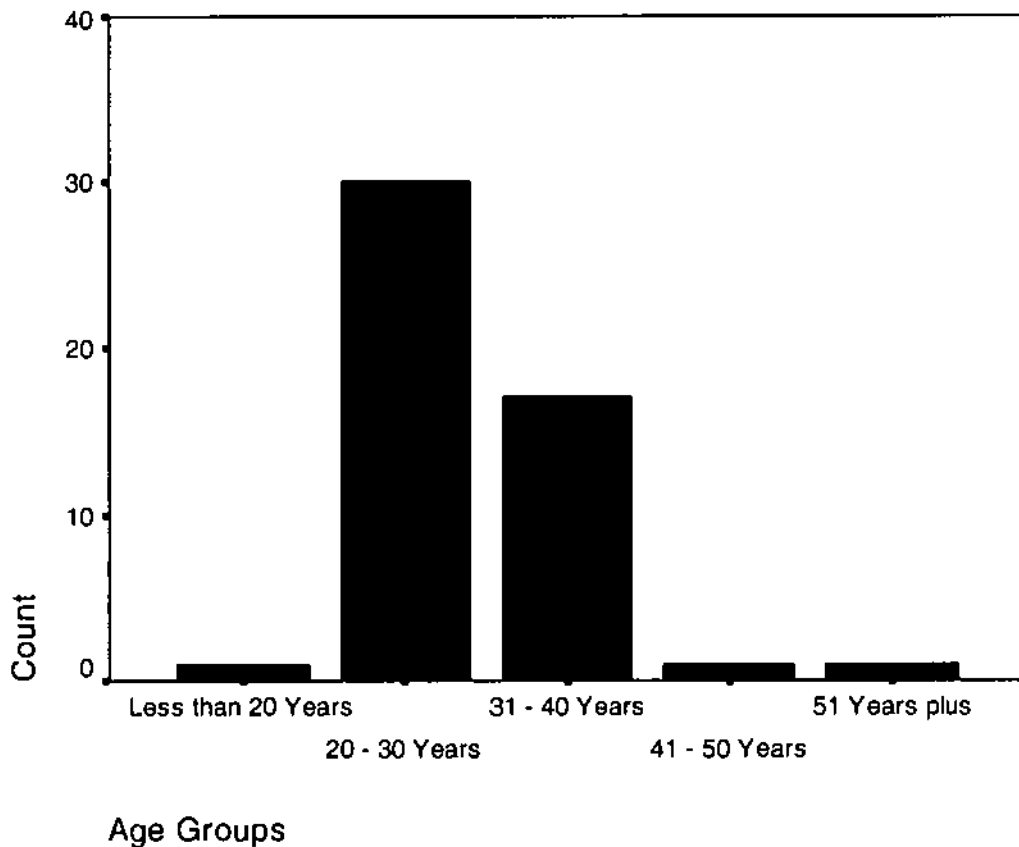
Table 4.0-2 Frequencies by Age groups

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 20 Years	1	2.0	2.0
	20 - 30 Years	30	60.0	62.0
	31 - 40 Years	17	34.0	96.0
	41 - 50 Years	1	2.0	98.0
	51 Years plus	1	2.0	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>	



A total of 30 respondents were between the ages of 20 – 30 years, 1 less than 20 years, 17 between 31- 40 years, 1 between 41-50 years and 1 over 51 years. Table 4.0-2 and figure 4.1 show the age distribution of the respondents.

**Figure 4.1. Graph showing age distribution**



### 4.1.3 Gender

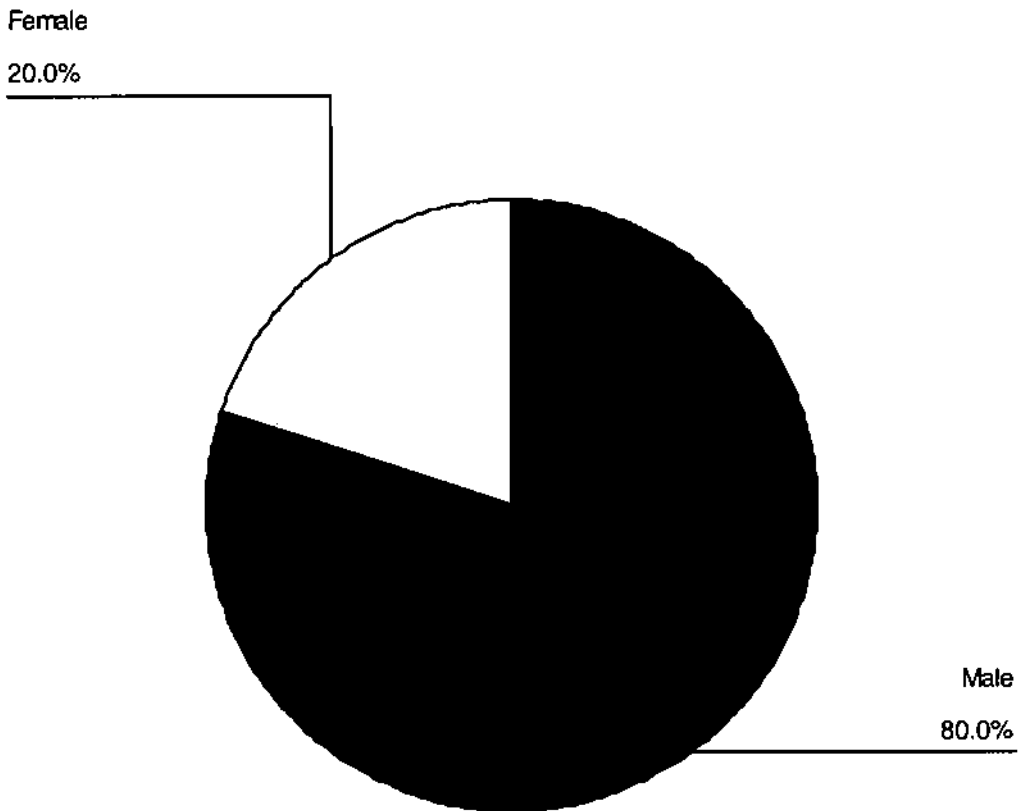
**Table 4.0-3 Frequency distribution by gender**

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	40	80.0	80.0
	Female	10	20.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	



The results show that of the 50 respondents, 40 were male and 10 were female which reflects a bias towards the males. This is depicted in table 4.0-3 above and figure 4.2 below.

**Figure 4.2 Pie chart showing gender distributions**





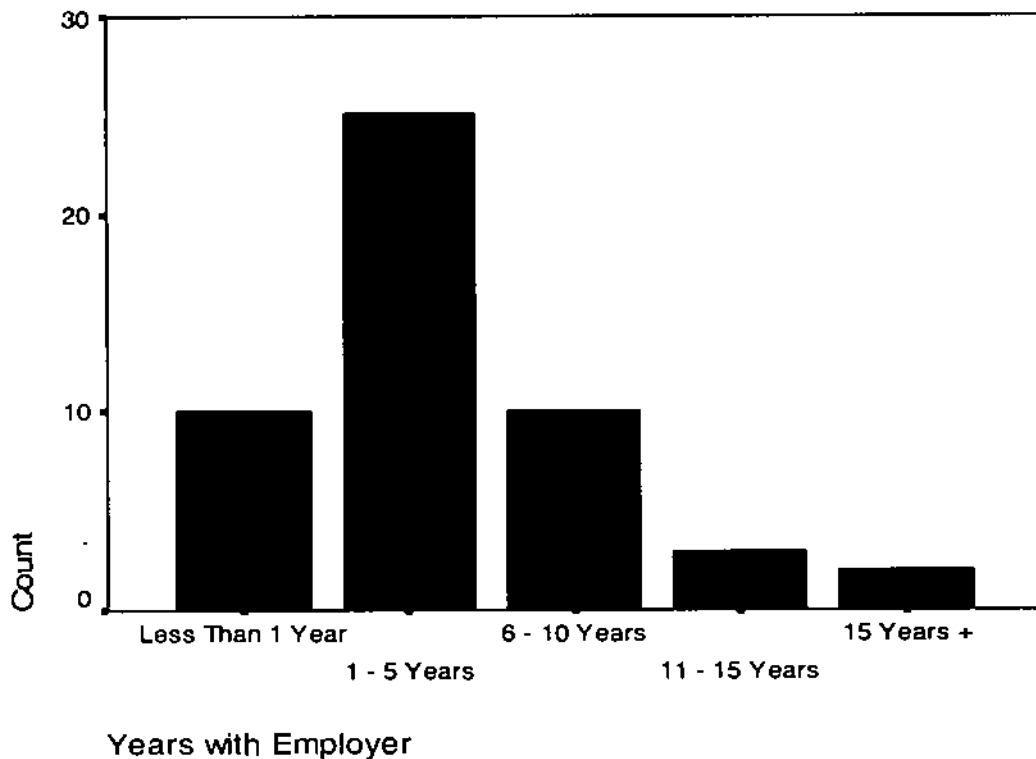
#### 4.1.4 Number of years with current employer

Table 4.0-4 Frequencies by number of years with employer

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less Than 1 Year	10	20.0	20.0	20.0
	1 - 5 Years	25	50.0	50.0	70.0
	6 - 10 Years	10	20.0	20.0	90.0
	11 - 15 Years	3	6.0	6.0	96.0
	15 Years +	2	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

As expected, the results showed that a big proportion of the respondents had been with their current employer for not more than 5 years. Actually, 10 % of the respondents had been with their current employer for over 19 years. 25 of the respondents had been with their current employer for years ranging between 1 to 5 as depicted in table 4.0-4 above and figure 4.3 below.

Figure 4.3 Graph of frequencies by number of years with employer





#### 4.1.5 Number of years with current manager

Table 4.0-5 Frequencies by number of years with current manager

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less Than 1 Year	12	24.0	24.0	24.0
	1 - 5 Years	33	66.0	66.0	90.0
	6 - 10 Years	5	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

The results show that most of the respondents (32) had been with their current manager for years ranging between 1 and 5 years. 12 had been with their current manager for less than a year while 5 had been with their current manager for years ranging between 6 – 10 years. As expected, none of the respondents had been with their manager for over 10 years.

#### 4.1.6 Position held

Table 4.0-6 Frequencies by position held

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Technician	20	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Supervisor	8	16.0	16.0	56.0
	Manager	10	20.0	20.0	76.0
	Other	12	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Regarding the positions held by respondents, the results show that the most position held was that of technician at 20 respondents. 12 respondents could not classify their position in the scale provided while 10 were managers. The remaining 8 held supervisory positions. According to this, the majority of the respondents are below supervisor level.



#### 4.1.7 Education Level

Table 4.0-7 Frequencies by education level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Technikon	15	30.0	30.0	32.0
	University degree	21	42.0	42.0	74.0
	Post graduate degree	5	10.0	10.0	84.0
	Other	8	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Most respondents were university graduates according to the results (21).15 of the respondents had attended technikon education while 5 had post graduate degrees. Only one respondent was a high school leaver.

#### 4.2 Descriptive statistics

Table 4.0-8 Descriptive statistics table

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	50	5.2573	1.0012	1.002	-.429
Psychological contract met expectations	50	3.7364	.9951	.990	.045
Trust in leader	50	4.8067	.7185	.516	.585
Psychological contract breach	50	1.5209	1.3716	1.881	.350
Affective Commitment	50	4.0800	.9829	.966	.209
Continuous Commitment	50	3.9500	.9459	.895	-.381
Normative commitment	50	3.9300	.8384	.703	-.193
Organization wide participation	50	2.7960	1.0988	1.207	-.124
Perceived participation	50	3.1686	1.2698	1.612	-.301
Valid N (list wise)	50				



An analysis of the data shows that on average most the respondents expected from the employer, things such as promotion to a better job, high pay, training, career development, long term job security and generous leave. They also expected, on average, to participate in decision making, to participate in job design as well as to be consulted about major activities of their companies. This is reflected by a mean of 5.257 on the psychological contract expectations. It was also observed that respondents, on average expected to participate in decision making as reflected by a mean of 5.46 on this variable. On the other hand, respondents marginally participated in decision making, with this variable having a mean of 3.76.

The results also reflect that on average most respondents marginally received less that they had expected from their employers as depicted by a mean of 3.736. This implies that most respondents perceived that there was a breach in their psychological contract and the mean of 1.521 confirms that. On average respondents generally trusted their immediate managers and this is reflected by a mean of 4.808. As far as organisational commitment is concerned (all three facets), respondents were moderately committed to their organisations. The results also show that the respondents were unsure of the extent of the participative leadership of their organisations. They also marginally participated in decision making as reflected by a mean of 3.1868.

### ***4.3 Correlations and other analyses***

Table 4.0-9 below depicts the correlation analysis of the constructs. From this analysis, the results reflected that at a 95% confidence level, the only significant correlations were between the following: affective organisational commitment and psychological contract expectations with  $r= 0.305$ , affective commitment and psychological contract met expectations with  $r= 0.352$ , organisation wide participative leadership perception and psychological contract met expectations with  $r= 0.566$  and the last one between organisation wide participative leadership perception and psychological contract breach with  $r= -0.428$ . The only important aspect of these correlations is that there is a negative relationship between participation in decision-making at the



organisational level and the perceived psychological contract breach. This means that senior managers' leadership style as far as participation in decision-making is concerned had an influence in the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees in the Information Technology sector.

Analysis of variance done for mean comparison of the three organisational commitment variables and age reflected that at 95% confidence level, there was no significant difference between the age groups. However age groups less than 20 years, 41-50 years and 51 years plus only had one respondent, which rendered the test to be limited in showing any significant difference. Analysis of variance done for mean comparison of the three organisational commitment variables and the number of years with current employer also did not show any significant difference at 95% confidence interval. Again the limiting factor is that the respondents were not evenly distributed among the number of years with the employer. Analysis of variance for mean comparisons between genders also reflected no significant difference between males and females. See Appendix E

Table 4.0-9 Correlation analyses

Correlations

		Psychological contract Expectations	Psychological contract met expectations	Trust in leader	Psychological contract breach	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative commitment	Organization wide participation	Perceived participation
Psychological contract Expectations	Pearson Correlation	1,000	.056	.143	.689**	.305*	.077	-.171	-.024	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.701	.323	.000	.031	.597	.235	.870	.952
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Psychological contract met expectations	Pearson Correlation	.056	1,000	.196	-.685**	.352*	-.115	.085	.566**	.042
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.701		.172	.000	.012	.427	.556	.000	.771
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Trust in leader	Pearson Correlation	.143	.196	1,000	-.038	.149	.021	.156	.076	.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.323	.172		.782	.301	.888	.278	.601	.390
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Psychological contract breach	Pearson Correlation	.689**	-.685**	-.038	1,000	-.033	.139	-.187	.428**	-.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.782		.820	.305	.194	.002	.867
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Affective commitment	Pearson Correlation	.305*	.352*	.149	-.033	1,000	.126	.228	.128	-.144
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.012	.301	.820		.381	.111	.374	.318
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Continuance commitment	Pearson Correlation	.077	-.115	.021	.139	.126	1,000	.109	-.086	.121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.597	.427	.888	.335	.381		.452	.554	.409
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Normative commitment	Pearson Correlation	-.171	.085	.156	-.187	.228	.109	1,000	-.012	.143
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.235	.556	.278	.194	.111	.452		.931	.323
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Organization wide participation	Pearson Correlation	-.024	.566**	.076	-.428**	.128	-.086	-.012	1,000	-.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.970	.000	.601	.002	.374	.554	.931		.391
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Perceived participation	Pearson Correlation	.009	.042	.124	-.024	-.144	-.121	.143	-.124	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.952	.771	.390	.887	.318	.403	.323	.391	
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)



## **4.4 Hypotheses Testing**

### **Hypothesis 1**

H1. Information technology leaders will generally on average (4) use more participative leadership style in decision-making. To test this hypothesis, the construct perceived participation was used. Because perceived participation was measured on a five-point Likert scale, high levels of participation were assumed to be at an average of 4.

This translates to the following:

$H_0$  Average perceived participation is not equal to 4.

$H_A$  Average perceived participation is equal to 4.

To test this hypothesis, the mean of perceived participation was tested as shown below.

When the

- Sample mean = **3.1686**
- The hypothesized mean = **4**
- Standard deviation = **1.2698**
- Sample size = **50**:

The observed t-value is **-4.63**.

Using the 95 % level of significance, the hypothesized value of 4 was rejected. This meant that the  $H_0$  holds and therefore the average perceived participation is not equal to 4 and as a result it cannot be proven statistically that information technology leaders will generally use more participative leadership. This is an unexpected result, as the decisions in this industry tend to be unstructured and therefore it would have been expected that leaders would generally use more participative leadership style in decision-making. While the sample mean was found to be 3.1686, it cannot be proven statistically that this mean implies that on average leaders would generally use more participative leadership style in decision-making.



## Hypothesis 2

H2a There is a negative relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

This translates to the following:

H<sub>0</sub> There is no negative relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

H<sub>A</sub> There is a negative relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

Before testing this hypothesis it was necessary to establish as to whether a breach had occurred or not. To do that, using the scale of the psychological breach the mean was estimated to be 1 for those who expected to participate in decision-making.

Testing the psychological contract breach mean.

By virtue of the way the breach is constructed, it was assumed that respondents who expected participation will experience a certain amount of breach = 1. The statistics show that breach had a mean of 1.5209. In order to test the hypothesis that the mean of breach would = 1, testing for the mean was necessary and the following is what was found

When the

- Sample mean = **1.5209**
- The hypothesized mean = **1**
- Standard deviation = **1.3716**
- Sample size = **50**:

The observed t-value is **2.69**.

Using the .05 level of significance, reject the hypothesized value, i.e. reject that the psychological contract breach of the respondents is = 1. It was established that the psychological contract breach could not be proven



statistically while a mean of 5.46 was found to show that most respondents expected to participate in decision-making.

From the above, hypothesis H2a was then tested using the correlation between perceived participation and the psychological contract breach found in table 4.0-9 and this shows that at 95% confidence level the correlation coefficient is -0.024 and was insignificant. This implied that the null hypothesis holds and therefore no relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract for those employees who believed they were entitled to participate in decision-making.

H2b: There is no relationship between participation and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

This translates to the following:

H<sub>0</sub> There is no relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

H<sub>A</sub> There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making.

This hypothesis was tested as the one above, except that instead of an estimated mean of 1 for the psychological contract breach, the mean was estimated to be a -1.

Testing the psychological contract breach at a mean of 0

By virtue of the way the breach is constructed, it was assumed that respondents who did not expect participation would not experience breach and therefore mean estimated at -1. The statistics showed that breach had a mean of 1.5209. In order to test the hypothesis that the mean of breach would = -1, testing for the mean was necessary and the following is what was found



When the

- Sample mean = **1.5209**
- The hypothesized mean = **-1**
- Standard deviation = **1.3716**
- Sample size= **50**:

The observed t-value is **12.100**.

Using the .05 level of significance, reject the hypothesized value, i.e. reject that the psychological contract breach of the respondents is = -1. It was established that the psychological contract breach could not be proven statistically while a mean of 5.46 was found to show that most respondents expected to participate in decision-making.

From the above, hypothesis H2b was then tested using the correlation between perceived participation and the psychological contract breach found in table 4.0-9 and this shows that at 95% confidence level the correlation coefficient is -0.024 and is insignificant. This implied that the null hypothesis holds and therefore no relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe they are entitled to participate in decision – making.

In summary, these results show there is no relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract, irrespective of whether the employees expect to participate in decision-making or not. At the organizational level however, using the 95% confidence level, participation in decision-making has a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract with a coefficient of -0.428.

### **Hypothesis 3**

H3: There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in their leader.

This translates to following:



$H_0$  There is no positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in their leader

$H_A$  There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in their leader.

Hypothesis 3 was tested from the correlation between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in the leader and according to table 4.0-9 at a 95% confidence level, the correlation between perceived participation and trust in the leader had a coefficient of 0.124 and was not significant. This implied that the null hypothesis holds and therefore no positive relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in the leader.

#### **Hypothesis 4**

**H4a:** Participation in decision-making will have a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment in employees.

This translates to following:

$H_0$  There is no positive relationship between participation in decision-making and affective organizational commitment.

$H_A$  There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4a was tested using Pearson's correlation between participation in decision-making and affective organizational commitment, and as shown in table 4.0-9, at a 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficient is -0.144 and was not significant. As a result the null hypothesis was accepted meaning there was no statistical positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the affective organizational commitment.

**H4b:** Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with continuance organizational commitment.

This translates to following:



$H_0$  Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with continuance organizational commitment

$H_A$  Participation in decision-making will have a relationship with continuance organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4b was tested using Pearson's correlation between participation in decision-making and continuance organizational commitment, and as shown in table 4.0-9, at a 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficient is -0.121 and was not significant. As a result the null hypothesis was accepted meaning there was no statistical positive relation between participation in decision-making and continuance organizational commitment.

**H4c:** Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with normative organizational commitment.

This translates to following:

$H_0$  Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with normative organizational commitment.

$H_A$  Participation in decision-making will have a relationship with normative organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4c was tested using Pearson's correlation between participation in decision-making and normative organizational commitment, and as shown in table 4.0-9, at a 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficient is 0.143 and was not significant. As a result the null hypothesis was accepted meaning there was no statistical positive relation between participation in decision-making and continuance organizational commitment.



## **Chapter 5: Discussions**

This study examined the relationship between participation in decision-making and perceptions of psychological contract breach, the relationship between participation in decision-making and trust in the leader and the relationship between participation in decision-making and organisational commitment. The main aim was to establish whether any relationships exist between these constructs as well as contributing to research on participative leadership.

The results show that while participating in decisions involving departmental issues has no influence on the issues of trust, psychological contract and organisational commitment, participating in decisions involving wider organisational issues has a bearing on how employees perceive a breach in their psychological contract. Participation in decisions involving wider organisational issues was found to have a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract. The results indicate no support for most of the hypotheses and a moderate support for one.

The study revealed that Information technology leaders do not necessarily use high levels of participation in decision-making. While Information technology decisions may have been assumed to be unstructured, according to the study there is no evidence to support the assumption that more participation in decision-making will result from the decision structure. This is not to suggest that the normative model Vroom (2000) did not apply but that there was no evidence to support it. It must be mentioned though that there was no attempt made to evaluate the structure of the decisions, as it was not part of this research.

The implication is therefore that it may not be true that IT decisions are unstructured as assumed. Another explanation is that while acquiring IT solutions may involve unstructured decisions, IT is still at its infancy in the country. As a result there may not be intense spending to acquire the resent solutions. An implication for IT leaders according to this finding is that they



need to be more participative. While the study may not reveal that participative leadership improves certain employee behaviours, there are several studies that have shown that participative leadership may improve employee satisfaction and therefore performance.

The study also revealed that at the departmental level, i.e. between subordinates and immediate manager, participation has no relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract. However, at the organisational level, participation in decision-making has a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract. When employees feel they are participating in organisational issues they feel that their psychological contract has not been breached. This is an important finding because senior managers are the ones who set the tone of an organisation.

This result is not surprising given the fact that senior managers are viewed as the ones who are responsible for steering the direction of organisations. Invariably they are also the ones who make (or do not make) offers or promises to employees and are certainly the ones who control things such as remuneration, company decisions and so forth. It therefore follows that their leadership style (especially participative leadership) will have an impact on the psychological contract of employees. As Robinson (1996) suggested, the effects of a psychological contract breach may be enduring, and hence it is difficult to undo the perceived breach such that it is possible that this relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract is negative in nature. This is so because any attempts by senior managers to practise participative decision-making may be rejected when there is a perceived psychological contract breach.

If managers' leadership styles (participative leadership) have a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees, it means that the less participative senior managers are, the greater likelihood that employees perceive their psychological contract to have been breached. The inverse is true i.e. the more participative senior



managers are, fewer and to a less extent is the number of employees who may perceive that their psychological contract has been breached. This has an important implication for senior managers. As Robinson (1996) found out, the psychological contract breach is negatively related employee performance, civic virtue behaviour and intentions to remain with the organisation, as such senior managers may want to ensure that their leadership practices do not result in a perceived psychological contract breach.

Another revelation from the study is that participation in decision-making has no relationship with perception of trust in the leader. While Whitener *et al* (1998) and other researchers have found participating in decision-making to have a relationship with trust in managers, this study reveals a different picture. There are explanations for this deviation. First of all, there are several predictors of employees' trust in managers including participation in decision-making. Participation in decision-making alone cannot be expected to cultivate trust if the other predictors are non-existent. It would be incorrect to assume that trust alone will determine the level of trust between managers and employees.

Secondly, as mentioned before, there are several ways which a leader can make decisions namely, a leader makes a decision by him/herself using information available, subordinates provide the necessary information and then the leader makes the decision in which case the role of the subordinates is providing information, problem is shared with subordinates individually and then the leader makes the decision without necessarily reflecting subordinates influence, the problem is shared with subordinates in a group through which they provide ideas and suggestions and then the leader makes the decision and lastly the problem is shared with the subordinates in a group and in a group alternatives are evaluated and a consensus reached. Each of these procedures reflects a certain amount of participation by the subordinates. It is therefore inherently logical that each of these decision-making procedures and how it is practiced will cultivate varying levels of trust.



While the managers of the group studied may have practiced participative decision-making, there may have been other intervening variables of the organizational culture which may have prevented the development of trust. As such, without any attempts to establish how these intervening variables prevents or engender the development of trust, it is inconclusive to suggest that there is no relationship between participation in decision-making and trust. However, there are important implications of this finding as far as organizational dynamics are concerned.

Trust has been noted to play a big role in determining an organisation's character by influencing factors such organisational structure, control mechanism, job design, communication and job satisfaction (Connell *et al*, 2003). As organisations are being pushed towards flat, team-oriented structures whereby employees perform multidimensional work and are given autonomy to make decisions, there is a much wider requirement for trust between employees and managers (Whitener *et al*, 1998). It is therefore imperative for leaders to cultivate trust but it is of interest that participative leadership alone may not necessarily be sufficient to cultivate trust between managers and employees.

While participative leadership has its own merit, managers should not be disillusioned that because they encourage participation in decision-making, they are also cultivating trust. Instead managers are encouraged to cultivate trust through the whole list of behaviours such as procedural justice, communication, behavioural consistency, transformational leadership, behavioural integrity, demonstration of concern and participative decision-making, which are necessary to engender trust.

Lastly the study showed that participating in decision-making has no relationship with the organisational commitment of information technology employees. While some researchers have found participation in decision-making to have a favourable effect on organisational commitment, (Yousef, 2000) this study reflects a different relationship. There are quite a number of explanations for this condition. Firstly, the fact that IT is still a new field implies



that there is no sufficient skill pool of IT personnel. If that is the case, it means organisations have to compete for IT skill. If the supply of the IT skill is less than the demand for it, it therefore follows that according to the demand and supply economics, the price will play an important role on whether a person stays committed to an organisation.

Age is also predictive of organisational commitment and as it can be seen from the results, many of the respondents are in the 20-30 year bracket. At this stage people are usually not worried about their pension and more willing to explore new avenues. Again the fact that a majority of the respondents have not been with their current employer for more than five years means they have not accumulated much obligation to stay in the organisation. This is so because during this time, there usually is not enough investment in the organisation in terms of time, pension fund and other intrinsic personal sacrifices towards the organisation.



## **Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations**

As far as the aim of this study is concerned, which was to examine the relationship between participation in decision-making and perceptions of psychological contract breach, of the relationship between participation in decision-making and trust in the leader and of the relationship between participation in decision-making and organisational commitment, it can be concluded that this study was fairly successful. The results of this study showed an interesting finding as far as the relationships were concerned. While most the hypotheses were not supported by the results, the findings have a number of implications for leaders. This is so because the variables used in this study have been repeatedly established to have important effects and consequences for organisational effectiveness.

### ***Future research***

There are several limiting conditions which when improved upon can improve the results of future research. First of all, one of the limiting conditions was that the study was done on information technology professionals. While there was absolutely nothing wrong with that, this was a shortcoming for this research because as mentioned in the research design, information technology is relatively new in Swaziland. As a result, there were not enough respondents to carry out wider research on and on top that, there was no suitable sampling frame. This presented serious issues and it is therefore recommended that any future research be carried out with a wider population that has the necessary sampling frame. It also means that it would be incorrect to generalize the findings. Future research should broaden the sample beyond IT professionals as well as increase the sample size.

Although there is not enough previous research that looks at the constructs in the way it was done here, there is evidence to suggest that how senior managers handle decision has a bearing on the psychological contract of employees. It is therefore seen fit that any research that evaluates the



relationship between participation in decision-making and employee behaviour, take strong account of the way the senior managers handle decision –making as this will have an effect on the perception of psychological contract breach.

While the respondents studied had a chance to complete the questionnaires on their own without any interference, it is clear that such a study would have been done better with the researcher conducting face to face interviews. This is so because this would have allowed the researcher to find more information that ideally cannot be obtained through the use of a self-administered questionnaire.

In this study, there was no effort made to establish how culture may have intervened in shaping the relationships between the constructs. The mediation role of culture in such relationships cannot be overlooked. For example culture may be deterministic of how managers practise participation in decision-making. The effect of culture therefore is one such aspect that should be looked at in future research.



## Chapter 7: Article for publication

### *Abstract*

*The intent of this research was to explore explicitly the relationships between participation in decision-making and the employee perceptions about trust, psychological contract breach and organisational commitment. The main focus of this research was to act as a dipstick in exploring if there are any relationships. Participating in decision-making was hypothesized to have relationships with trust, psychological contract breach and organisational commitment. The results showed that there is no relationship between participation and trust as well as organisational commitment. However there is one significant finding, which is that participative leadership has a significant negative relationship with the psychological contract breach at the organisational level.*

### **Introduction**

The effectiveness of participative leadership has received a lot of attention in organizational literature. As a result, a number of studies have been conducted on this subject especially in decision-making but the findings have not been consistent (Lam, Chen & Schaubroeck, 2002; Yukl, 2002; Miller & Monge, 2001; Leana, Locke & Schweiger, 1990; Parker, 1999) and the effects of participative leadership are still unclear. Some studies have reported a direct relationship between participative leadership and subordinate performance while others have reported no relationship at all. Others yet have reported relationships between participation and such variables as job performance, employee satisfaction, employee productivity and organizational behavior, the most widely adopted notion being that participation has a positive effect on employee performance. While there is almost a clear indication that participation has effects on a number of employee attributes, the amount and nature of the influence has not been clearly identified. Relationships have also not been clearly identified. In pursuit of further information regarding the subject of participating in decision-making, this study was designed to evaluate the relationships between participation in



decision-making and employee attitudes namely the psychological contract, trust and organizational commitment.

### **Participation in Decision Making**

Participative leadership according to Yukl (2002) involves efforts by a leader to encourage as well as facilitate participation of followers in making decisions. Some refer to it as participative decision-making (PDM) (Sagie, Elizur & Koslowsky 1995). Parnell and Crandall (2003) define participative leadership as processes that result in transfer of decision power from leader to subordinates. They also argue that the emphasis on specific techniques of PDM has not resulted in clear understanding of this phenomenon. Ryan (1999) defines participation as an opportunity to influence decisions, including structures and processes that encompass participation and involvement. In this study participative leadership is described as the actions undertaken by leader to ensure that followers have a say in decisions.

There is much confusion around the construct of participative leadership. This confusion has considerable effects on the studies of this phenomenon in relation to other variables. Miller and Monge (2001) suggest that the wide-ranging conceptualization and operational definitions of participation might have resulted in the varying strengths of the relationship between participation and satisfaction that researchers have identified. To eliminate conceptualization problems, for the purposes of this study, the researcher adopts a limited conceptualization of participative leadership to include delegation, consultation, joint decision-making and power sharing (Yukl, 2002). Even though there is confusion over this topic, the effects of participation in decision-making on employee attributes cannot be downplayed.

While there may be confusion around this construct, it is widely accepted that it is important for organizational dynamics as it has effects on employees. Vroom (2000) suggested that even under several different conditions, increasing participation leads to more decision acceptance (buy in), commitment to the decisions and better motivation to implement the



decisions. It is also confirmed that having an input in a decision makes subordinates feel the leader values them and affirms that they are not only respected but their status is of high order (Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza, 1995). Subordinates are also given some indirect control over decisions when they are allowed voice in the decision making process and therefore are likely increase their commitment towards organizational objectives. Participation, as some researchers have found out, has some effect on psychological variables, which in turn affect performance. In this study, it is suggested that participation will affect employee behavior through trust, psychological contract and the organizational commitment variables.

Preston, Bottger, Hallein and Yetton (1985) suggest that managers use participation as a means of protecting both the quality and acceptance of a decision. They claim that the use of participation will also depend on whether the manager has sufficient information to solve the problem and that problem structure will determine whether a manager does or does not use participation, and that participation is used more where the problem is unstructured and less where the problem is structured.

Information technology (IT), according to Benamati and Lederer (2000) is continuously changing and causing difficulties for IT managers. Because of this continuous change and the expense associated with acquiring new IT solutions, selecting the wrong solution can be very costly. It is for this reason that it is a complex challenge to IT managers to realize the potential of the ever changing IT while avoiding the risk of failure (Benamati and Lederer, 2000). Again the new technology that comes with every change makes it difficult for IT managers to become experts in everything. This is further aggravated by the fact that in each solution of IT, there is usually different expertise needed to implement the solution. This therefore implies that IT managers will generally not have all the information required to make the most critical decisions.

It can be suggested that information technology decisions are more likely to be unstructured and therefore need input from different experts. A problem is



usually unstructured if the solution is a non-routine and the nature or source of information to the problem is unknown (Preston *et al*, 1985) and this typically represents IT problems. The decision has to be of high quality because, as mentioned above, costs of making mistakes are very high. Using the Vroom's (2000) normative model, which suggests that participation is related to problem structure, it is proposed that IT managers will use more participation.

*H1. Information technology leaders will generally on average (4) use high levels of participation in decision-making.*

### **Psychological Contract**

Psychological contract of employees is based on the beliefs of what the employee owes the organization and what the organization owes the employee in return. It is the individual's belief regarding terms and conditions which define the exchange agreement between that individual and another party, as defined by Robinson (1996) taking it from Rousseau (1989). By nature, this construct is highly flexible with undefined set of terms, which are interpretative. Robinson (1996) states that psychological contracts, unlike the formal contracts, are inherently perceptual in nature which means that one party's understanding of the contract may not be the same as the understanding of another party. This inherently makes the psychological contract subjective.

When the employees do not receive what they believe they ought to have, they are likely to feel that the employer has breached their psychological contract because of these unmet obligations. Psychological contract breach therefore, occurs when the employees perceive that the employer has not fulfilled their expectations such as high salary, promotions, job security and sufficient power and responsibility (Robinson, 1996). Employees who experience psychological contract breach may exhibit behaviors that are not aligned to those required by their employers such as lowered citizenship behavior, reduced commitment, satisfaction and invariably performance. For example employees may not take an active role in decision-making even when the opportunity has been availed to them.



It is proposed that if the employee believes that the organization owes to them, the involvement in decision-making, participation will affect the psychological contract. So as far as the relationship between participation and the psychological contract, the following hypotheses are made:

*H2a: There is a negative relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.*

*H2b: There is no relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making.*

### **Trust**

The construct of trust, according to Zhu, May and Avolio (2004), has been given a considerable amount of attention in organizational sciences literature. This they attest is so because trust has potential consequences on organizational effectiveness and performance. In literature, trust has been defined to include willingness of one party to expect another party to perform a particular action that is important to the trusting party while in no position to control the actions of the trustee (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998; Brockner, Siegel, Daly & Martin, 1997; Cook & Wall, 1980). Robinson (1996) defines trust as "one's expectations of beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions will be beneficial, or at least not detrimental, to one's interest" (p. 576). This definition is accepted for this study.

The trusting party must be willing to be vulnerable to actions of the trustee and have confidence that the trustee will act in the interest of the trusting party. According to the Social Exchange theory, trust develops through an exchange of benefits between two parties (Brockner, Siegel, Daly & Martin, 1997). Zhu (2004) and his colleagues identify two types of trust namely conditional and unconditional trust. They describe conditional trust as one in which the two parties are willing to transact as long as both parties behave appropriately using similar understanding of situations. This trust they claim is usually sufficient to facilitate a number of social exchanges. Unconditional



trust however they define as being characterized by shared values that structure the social situation becoming the primary vehicle through which trust is experienced.

Managerial behavior has an important influence on the development of trust in the relationships between managers and employees (Whitener *et al*, 1998). According to Whitener *et al* (1998) there are five managerial behaviors that influence employees' perception of managerial trustworthiness, these being behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, sharing and delegation of control, communication, and demonstration of concern. As far as the sharing and delegation of control, Whitener *et al* (1998) state that participation in decision-making and delegating control are key components of trustworthy behavior. They cite several researchers who found participation in decision-making to have an influence in the development of trust between managers and employees.

Connell, Ferres and Travaglione (2003) cite a couple of writers who maintain that trust is developed through an organization's leaders. It is for this reason that Whitener *et al* (1998) advises that it is better that managers be encouraged to make the first move to initiate trust and that the initiation process is a challenge of management. There are several ways in which managers can initiate trust and these include keeping promises, treating employees fairly and engaging in transparent behavior. Connell *et al* cite perceived organizational support, procedural justice and transformational leadership as predictors of trust. While there is not enough evidence in literature to support it, it is proposed that participative leadership will also act as a predictor for trust.

From definition of trust above, it is proposed that managers who engage in participative decision-making must believe and trust that subordinates have the ability and potential to influence the decision positively. Managers therefore have to be willing to be vulnerable to the actions of the subordinate so as to allow participation in decision-making, with the basic assumption being that individuals act in self-interest. Because trust involves the



willingness to remain vulnerable by setting out faith in another person with the hope that it will be reciprocated, a manager who initiates participation is likely build the trust of employees as indicated by the Social Exchange theory.

Managers therefore have to have a certain amount of trust on the subordinates so that participation can be used. When this happens, subordinates are more likely to return the trust. Ritchie and Miles (1970) found that where participation was valued and practiced, subordinates satisfaction with their managers was closely related to the amount of trust and confidence, which managers have in them. This suggests that there is a relationship between participation and trust. Ideally, those employees who are afforded chance to impact on the decisions that affect their jobs and organization are likely to believe that their leaders demonstrate concern and this should increase their level of trust in their leader. When employees will have greater influence in the decisions it is proposed that they will be more trusting.

*H3: There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in their leader.*

### **Organizational Commitment**

Cook and Wall (1980) state that the concept of organisational commitment is concerned with feelings of attachment to the goals and values of the organisation, one's role in relation to this as well as attachment to the organisation in a manner other than instrumental value. Another definition of organisational commitment is "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation", (Harrison & Hubbard, 1999: 611). Yousef (2000) states that organisational commitment has three basic components namely: a strong belief in and acceptance of organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation.

Organisational commitment is defined as the extent to which an organisation's workforce is willing and capable of caring out their roles to the achievement of



organisational objectives. Allen and Meyer (1990) identify three types of organisational commitment. These are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative attachment and are defined below.

Affective commitment is emotional attachment whereby the organisation has an emotional value to the individual. In such a case, the individual is strongly committed to the organisation such that the individual identifies with the organisation and is proud to be a part of it.

The next type of organisational commitment is continuance commitment. This is whereby commitment is a result of the perception of costs associated with leaving the organisation. Allen and Meyer refer to Kanter's (1968) definition of continuance commitment as cognitive continuance commitment, which occurs when there is a profit associated with continued involvement in the organisation and cost associated with leaving. The higher the risk associated, the greater the chance that this kind of commitment will be substantial.

The last type has been defined as normative commitment whereby employees feel an obligation to remain with the organisation. This kind of commitment is attributed the social set-up of the individual which may make them to believe that it is the "right and moral" thing to stay with the organisation.

There are several researchers who have noted that participation in decision-making has a favorable influence on the organizational commitment of employees. Harrison and Habbard (1999) concluded from their research that job satisfaction, participative decision-making, and age were predictive of organizational commitment of employees. Zhu, May and Avolio (2004) found that prior research had shown that organizational commitment was greater for employees whose leaders encouraged their participation in decision-making. They also cite Mathieu and Zajac (1990) as having suggested that leadership dimensions, such as initiation structure, consideration, communication, and participative leadership were all antecedents of organizational commitment at the individual level.



According to Yousef (2000), there is a lot of previous research that has been done to establish the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment but unfortunately there have been no consistent findings. In his study however, (Yousef, 2000) he found that subordinates who perceived their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behavior were more committed to their organizations, more satisfied with their jobs and were highly performing.

Allen and Meyer (1990) noted that there are differences in the conceptualization of organizational commitment and these differences can be attributed to the different psychological states reflected by commitment, the antecedents' conditions leading to its development and the behaviors resulting from it. They also state that the three types of organizational commitment can be viewed as types of attitudinal commitments reflecting different psychological states. This has led to some of these inconsistencies in establishing relationships involving organizational commitment.

Because of the conceptualization of the three types of organizational commitment, and the fact that they develop independently as Allen and Meyer (1990) put it, it is proposed that participation will have different effects on each of these. Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that in their earlier research, there was strong evidence that affective organizational commitment was due to experiences that fulfill employee's psychological needs. Continuance commitment develops because of the magnitude of investments while normative commitment was influenced by individual's social experiences. Taking these findings into account, the following propositions are made:

*H4a: Participation in decision-making will have a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment in employees.*

*H4b: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with continuance organizational commitment.*

*H4c: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with normative organizational commitment.*



## **Method**

A self-administered survey approach was used to test the hypotheses in this study. The data was collected on participating in decision-making, psychological, trust and organisational commitment.

### *Sample*

The sampling used in this study was a convenience quota sample of 50 information technology professionals. 15 of the respondents were from parastatals, 10 from non-governmental organisations, 10 from government departments and 15 from private companies. Males dominated the sample at 40, while there were only 10 females. Five groups represented the ages of respondents, namely less than 20 years, 20 – 30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years and over 51 years. The sample included persons in positions ranging from technician to supervisor and ultimately manager. Some positions could not be classified. The education levels of respondents ranged from high school leaver to post graduate level.

### *Measures*

The measurement instrument consisted of inventory for measuring trust, organisational commitment, psychological contract, and participative leadership. The questions were either on a five point or a seven point Likert scale with the extreme ends being strongly agree and strongly disagree. Questions for measuring the perceived breach of the psychological contract were taken from those of Rousseau (1990) (Cronbach alpha = 0.78). One set showed expectations while another set showed how these had been met. Questions for the measurement of trust in the leader were sourced from those of Brockener, Siegal, Daly and Martin (1997) (Cronbach alpha = 0.75). For organisational commitment measurement, the questions were sourced from those of Allen and Meyer (1990) with coefficient alphas ranging from 0.75 to 0.87.

Participative leadership was divided into two sets namely larger organisational participative leadership reflecting senior managers in the organisation and that for departmental reflecting the immediate manager. The first set was used to measure the general participative decision opportunity in the company



and it was sourced from Lam, Chen and Schaubroek (2002) (Cronbach alpha=0.95). The other set was used to measure perceived participation in relation to the line manager and was sourced from Heller and Wilpert (1977) (Cronbach alpha = 0.95). The first set was required as a control to give a better understanding of the organisation wide state of participative leadership.

A set of demographic variables included age, gender, education and income group. Other variables included in the questionnaire were the number of years under current manager, number of years in the organisation and the level of position held in the organisation.

#### *Procedure*

Self administered questionnaires were either mailed (25) or hand delivered (45) to heads of departments. The questions were accompanied by a cover letter, which promised summary of the results in return for participation. A total of 57 questionnaires were returned and the required number (50) was eventually reached by call backs, as some were incomplete.

Psychological contract breach was constructed as follows. The variables showing respondents' expectations from the employer were averaged to give the variable -psychological contract expectations. The variables showing what was received from the employer were averaged to produce the variable -psychological contract met expectations. The perceived psychological contract breach measure was then created by taking the average value of each of the variables the respondents expected their employers to fulfill (psychological contract expectations) and then subtracting the average value of the variables that were met (or unmet) by the employer (psychological contract met expectations), as done by Robinson (1999). (See section A of Appendix A for the variables). For example let us assume that in the expectations (measured on a seven point Likert scale) on the variable "expected promotion to a better job" a respondent scored 5 and on the met expectation variable (measured on a seven point Likert scale) "received enough promotion to a better job" the respondent scored 3. Creating the



psychological contract breach involved taking the expected value (5) and subtracting the received value (3),  $5-3=2$ . This discrepancy represented a breach. If the values had been 3 and 5 for expectations and met expectations respectively the result would be a -2 showing that the variables was met more than expected. As a result the values of the psychological contract breach would range between -7 showing a variable not expected but highly met and 7 showing highly expected variable but not met at all.

To derive the construct of trust (trust in the immediate manager) the variables in section b of the questionnaire were averaged. (See appendix A for the variables). Variables in section c subsection 1 of the questionnaire were averaged to produce the affective organizational commitment construct. Section c subsection 2 was averaged to produce continuous organizational commitment while section c subsection 3 was averaged to produce the normative organizational construct. The same was done for section d variables to obtain participative leadership and perceived participation constructs.

## **Results**

### *Correlation*

From this analysis, the results reflected that at a 95% confidence level, the only significant correlations were between the following: affective organisational commitment and psychological contract expectations with  $r= 0.305$ , affective commitment and psychological contract met expectations with  $r= 0.352$ , organisation wide participative leadership perception and psychological contract met expectations with  $r= 0.566$  and the last one between organisation wide participative leadership perception and psychological contract breach with  $r= -0.428$ . These results mean that as far as the relationship between participation in decision-making the psychological contract, senior managers have an influence on it as compared to immediate managers.

Analysis of variance done for mean comparison of the three organisational commitment variables and age reflected that at 95% confidence level, there



was no significant difference between the age groups. However age groups less than 20 years, 41-50 years and 51 years plus only had one respondent that rendered the test to be limited and showing any significant difference. Analysis of variance done for mean comparison of the three organisational commitment variables and the number of years with current employer also did not show any significant difference at 95% confidence interval. Again the limiting factor is that the respondents were not evenly distributed among the number of years with the employer. Analysis of variance for mean comparisons between genders also reflected no significant difference between males and females.

### *Hypotheses Testing*

#### **Hypothesis 1**

*H1. Information technology leaders will generally on average (4) use more participative leadership style in decision-making.*

To test this hypothesis, the construct perceived participation was used. Because perceived participation was measured on a five point Likert scale, high levels of participation were assumed to be at an average of 4.

At the 95 % level of significance, the hypothesized value of 4 was tested and rejected.

#### **Hypothesis 2**

*H2a There is a negative relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who believe they are entitled to participation in decision-making.*

Before testing this hypothesis it was necessary to establish as to whether a breach had occurred or not. To do that, using the scale of the psychological breach the mean was estimated to be 1 for those who expected to participate in decision-making.

Testing the psychological contract breach mean.

By virtue of the way the breach was constructed, it was assumed that respondents who expected participation will experience a certain amount of breach = 1. The statistics show that breach had a mean of 1.5209. In order to



test the hypothesis that the mean of breach would = 1, testing for the mean was necessary and the following is what was found

When the

- Sample mean = **1.5209**
- The hypothesized mean = **1**
- Standard deviation = **1.3716**
- Sample size= **50**:

The observed t-value is **2.69**.

Using the .05 level of significance, reject the hypothesized value, i.e. reject that the psychological contract breach of the respondents is = 1. It was established that the psychological contract breach could not be proven statistically while a mean of 5.46 was found to show that most respondents expected to participate in decision-making.

From the above, hypothesis H2a was then tested using the correlation between perceived participation and the psychological contract breach and this shows that at 95% confidence level the correlation coefficient was -0.024 and is insignificant. This implies that no relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract for those employees who believed they were entitled to participate in decision-making.

*H2b: There is no relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe that they are entitled to participation in decision-making*

This hypothesis was tested as the one above, except that instead of an estimated mean of 1 for the psychological contract breach, the mean was estimated to be a -1.

Testing the psychological contract breach at a mean of -1.

By virtue of the way the breach was constructed, it was assumed that respondents who did not expect participation would not experience breach



and therefore mean estimated at -1. The statistics show that breach had a mean of 1.5209. In order to test the hypothesis that the mean of breach would = -1, testing for the mean was necessary and the following is what was found

When the

- Sample mean = **1.5209**
- The hypothesized mean = **-1**
- Standard deviation = **1.3716**
- Sample size= **50**:

The observed t-value is **12.100**.

Using the .05 level of significance, reject the hypothesized value, i.e. reject that the psychological contract breach of the respondents is = -1. It was established that the psychological contract breach could not be proven statistically while a mean of 5.46 was found to show that most respondents expected to participate in decision-making.

From the above, hypothesis H2b was then tested using the correlation between perceived participation and the psychological contract breach and this shows that at 95% confidence level the correlation coefficient was -0.024 and is insignificant. This implies that no relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees who do not believe they are entitled to participate in decision –making.

In summary, these results show that there is no relationship between participation in decision-making and the perceived breach of the psychological contract, irrespective of whether the employees expect to participate in decision-making or not. At the organizational level however, using the 95% confidence level, participation in decision-making has a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract with a coefficient of -0.428.



### Hypothesis 3

*H3: There is a positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in their leader.*

Hypothesis 3 was tested from the correlation between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in the leader and at a 95% confidence level, the correlation between perceived participation and trust in the leader had a coefficient of 0.124 and is not significant. This implies that no positive relationship was found between participation in decision-making and the employee perception of trust in the leader.

### Hypothesis 4

*H4a: Participation in decision-making will have a positive relationship with affective organizational commitment in employees.*

Hypothesis 4a was tested using Pearson's correlation between participation in decision-making and affective organizational commitment, and at a 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficient was -0.144 and is not significant. As a result there was no statistical positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the affective organizational commitment.

*H4b: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with continuance organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 4b was tested using Pearson's correlation between participation in decision-making and continuance organizational commitment, and at a 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficient was -0.121 and was not significant. As a result there was no statistical positive relation between participation in decision-making and continuance organizational commitment.

*H4c: Participation in decision-making will have no relationship with normative organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 4c was tested using Pearson's correlation between participation in decision-making and normative organizational commitment, and at a 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficient was 0.143 and was not significant. As a result there was no statistical positive relation between participation in decision-making and continuance organizational commitment.



## **Discussion**

The main aim of this study was to establish whether any relationship exists between participative leadership and subordinates' perceptions of psychological contract breach, trust and organisational commitment. The study revealed most of the hypotheses were not supported by the results.

According to the study Information technology leaders do not necessarily use high levels of participation in decision-making. While Information technology decisions may have been assumed to be unstructured, according to the study there is no evidence to support the assumption that more participation in decision-making will result from the decision structure.

The implication is therefore that it may not be true that IT decisions are unstructured as assumed. Another explanation is that while acquiring IT solutions may involve unstructured decisions, IT is still at its infancy in the country. As a result there may not be intense spending to acquire the recent solutions. An implication for IT leaders according to this finding is that they need to be more participative. While the study may not reveal that participative leadership improves certain employee behaviours, there are several studies that have shown that participative leadership may improve employee satisfaction and therefore performance.

The study also revealed that at the departmental level, i.e. between subordinates and immediate manager, participation has no relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract. However, at the organisational level, participation in decision-making has a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract. This result is not surprising given the fact that senior managers are viewed as the ones who are responsible for steering the direction of organisations. Invariably they are also the ones who make (or do not make) offers to employee and are certainly the ones who control things such remuneration, company decisions and so forth. It is therefore not surprising that their leadership style (especially



participative leadership) will have an impact on the psychological contract of employees.

If their leadership style (participative leadership) has a negative relationship with the perceived breach of the psychological contract of employees, it means that the less participative senior managers are, the greater the number and extent of employees who are going to perceive that their psychological contract have been breached. The inverse is true i.e. the more participative senior managers are, fewer and to a less extent is the number of employees who may perceive that their psychological contract has been breached. This has an important implication for senior managers. As Robinson (1996) found out, the psychological contract breach is negatively related employee performance, civic virtue behaviour and intentions to remain with the organisation, as such senior managers may want to ensure that they leadership practices do not result in a perceived psychological contract breach.

Another revelation from the study is that participation in decision-making has no relationship with perception of trust in the leader. While Whitener *et al* (1998) and other researchers have found participating in decision-making to have a relationship with trust in managers, this study reveals a different picture. There are explanations for this deviation. First of all, there are several predictors of employees' trust in managers including participation in decision-making. Participation in decision-making alone cannot be expected to cultivate trust if the other predictors are non-existent. It would be incorrect to assume that trust alone will determine the level of trust between managers and employees.

Secondly, as mentioned before, there are several ways in which a leader can make decisions namely, a leader makes a decision by him/herself using information available, subordinates provide the necessary information and then the leader makes the decision in which case the role of the subordinates is providing information, problem is shared with subordinates individually and then the leader makes the decision without necessarily reflecting subordinates



influence, the problem is shared with subordinates in a group through which they provide ideas and suggestions and then the leader makes the decision and lastly the problem is shared with the subordinates in a group and in a group alternatives are evaluated and a consensus reached. Each of these procedures reflects a certain amount of participation by the subordinates. It is therefore inherently logical that each of these decision-making procedures and how it is practiced will cultivate varying levels of trust.

While the managers of the group studied may have practiced participative decision-making, there may have been other intervening variables of the organizational culture which may have prevented the development of trust. As such, without any attempts to establish how these intervening variables prevent or engender the development of trust, it is inconclusive to suggest that there is no relationship between participation in decision-making and trust. However, there are important implications of this finding as far as organizational dynamics are concerned.

Trust has been noted to play a big role in determining an organisation's character by influencing factors such as organisational structure, control and mechanism, job design, communication and job satisfaction (Connell *et al*, 2003). As organisations are being pushed towards flat, team-oriented structures whereby employees perform multidimensional work and are given autonomy to make decisions, there is a much wider requirement for trust between employees and managers (Whitener *et al*, 1998). It is therefore imperative for leaders to cultivate trust but it is of interest that participative leadership alone may not necessarily be sufficient to cultivate trust between managers and employees.

While participative leadership has its own merit, managers should not be disillusioned that because they encourage participation in decision-making, they are also cultivating trust. Instead managers are encouraged to cultivate trust through the whole list of behaviours such as procedural justice, communication, behavioural consistency, transformational leadership,



behavioural integrity, demonstration of concern and participative decision-making, which are necessary to engender trust.

Lastly the study showed that participating in decision-making has no relationship with the organisational commitment of information technology employees. While some researchers have found participation in decision-making to have a favourable effect on organisational commitment, (Yousef, 2000) this study reflects a different relationship. There are quite a number of explanations for this condition. Firstly, the fact that IT is still a new field implies that there is no sufficient skills pool to draw from. If that is the case, it means organisations have to compete for IT skills. If the supply of the IT skill is less than the demand for it, it therefore follows that according the demand and supply economics, the price will play an important role on whether a person stays committed to an organisation.

Age is also predictive of organisational commitment and as it can be seen from the results, many of the respondents are in the 20- 30 year bracket. At this stage people are usually not worried about their pension and more willing to explore new avenues. Again the fact that a majority of the respondents have not been with their current employer for more that five years means they have not accumulated much obligation to stay in the organisation. This is so because during this time, there usually is not enough investment in the organisation in terms of time, pension fund and other intrinsic personal sacrifices towards the organisation.

### **Conclusion and Future Directions**

As far as the aim of this study is concerned, which was to examine the relationship between participation in decision making and perceptions of psychological contract breach, trust in the leader and organisational commitment, and it can be concluded that this study was fairly successful. While most the hypotheses were not supported by the results, the findings had a number of implications for leaders. This is so because the variables



used in this study have been repeatedly established to have important effects and consequences for organisational effectiveness.

There are several limiting conditions which when improved upon can improve the results of future research. First of all, one of the limiting conditions was that the study was done on information technology professionals. While there was absolutely nothing wrong with that, this was a shortcoming for this research because as mentioned in the research design, information technology is relatively new in Swaziland. As a result, there were not enough respondents to carry out a wider research on and there was no suitable sampling frame. This presented serious issues and it is therefore recommended that any future research be carried out with a wider population that has the necessary sampling frame. It also means that it would be incorrect to generalize the findings.

While the respondents studied had a chance to complete the questionnaires on their own without any interference, it is clear that such a study would have been done better with the researcher conducting face to face interviews. This is so because this would have allowed the researcher to find more information that ideally cannot be obtained through the use of a self-administered questionnaire.

In this study, there was no effort made to establish how culture may have intervened in shaping the relationships between the constructs. The mediation role of culture in such relationships cannot be overlooked. For example culture may be deterministic of how managers practise participation in decision-making. The effect of culture therefore is one such aspect that should be looked at in future research.



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## **10.0 Appendices**

### ***Appendix A. Questionnaire***

# **Participative Leadership Survey Questionnaire**

**A Research Survey  
Prepared by**

**Innocent Dlamini  
34408967**

**UNISA SBL**

**2005**



**SECTION A:** In this section you will be asked questions about the expectations you had of your employer and the extent to which those expectations have been met. Use the scale below to respond to each item.

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = somewhat disagree
- 3 = Disagree
- 4 = neither
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = somewhat agree
- 7 = strongly agree

Please indicate the extent to which you expected the following from your employer when you joined your org (Please mark with a cross 'X')							
1. Promotion to a better job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. High pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Pay based on current level of performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Training	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Long-term job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Career development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Support with personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Generous leave	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Participate in decision making	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Participate in job design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. To be consulted about major activities of the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Please indicate the extent to which you have received the above							
1. Received enough Promotion to a better job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Received enough High pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Received Pay based on current level of performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Received training	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



5. Received long term job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Received career development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Received support with personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Received generous leave	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Participated in decision making	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Participated in job design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Were consulted about major activities of the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**SECTION B:** In this section, you should indicate the extent to which you trust your immediate manager by responding to each of the items provided. Please use the scale below for your responses.

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = somewhat disagree
- 3 = Disagree
- 4 = neither
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = somewhat agree
- 7 = strongly agree

(please mark with a cross 'X')							
1. I feel quite confident that my leader will always try to treat me fairly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I have complete faith in the integrity of my manager/supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I feel a strong loyalty to my leader.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I would support my leader in almost any emergency.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have a divided sense of loyalty toward my leader.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**SECTION C:** In this section, please tell us how you feel about your organisation. . Use the scale below to respond to each item.

(Please mark with a cross 'X')

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = somewhat disagree
- 3 = Disagree
- 4 = neither
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = somewhat agree
- 7 = strongly agree

1							
1. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>2</b>							
1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>3</b>							
1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**SECTION D: In this section, we want your perceptions about the leadership in your organisation. Please use the scale below to respond to each item. P**

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = somewhat disagree
- 3 = Neither
- 4 = somewhat agree
- 5 = strongly agree

(Please mark with a cross 'X')					
1. In this organisation, I have a high degree of influence in company decisions	1	2	3	4	5
2. In this organisation, I often participate in decision regarding my job	1	2	3	4	5
3. In this organisation, I have a high degree of influence in decisions affecting me	1	2	3	4	5
4. In this organisation, I can participate in setting new company policies	1	2	3	4	5
5. In this organisation, my views have a real influence in company decisions	1	2	3	4	5
<p><b>Now tell us about how much you are involved in each of the items indicated Below. Use the scale provided.</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 = Always</li> <li>2 = Sometimes</li> <li>3 = Don't know</li> <li>4 = Rarely</li> <li>5 = Never</li> </ul>					
<p><b>Please tell us about your involvement in the following (please mark with a cross 'X')</b></p>					
1. A decision to increase the number of positions in your department	1	2	3	4	5
2. A decision to choose one of several applicants for a position within your department	1	2	3	4	5
3. A decision to purchase a piece of equipment (machine, computer, server)	1	2	3	4	5
4. A decision to promote someone in your department to a higher post	1	2	3	4	5
5. A decision to increase the money allocation for your department during preparation of the organisational budget	1	2	3	4	5
6. A decision to grant a merit wage increase to someone in your department	1	2	3	4	5
7. A decision to purchase operating supplies not called for in the budget	1	2	3	4	5



**SECTION E: In this last section, please tell us a bit about yourself.**

Age: (in years): (please mark with a cross 'X')

<20	20 - 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	> 51
-----	---------	---------	---------	------

Gender: (please mark with a cross 'X')

Male	Female
------	--------

How long have you worked for your present employer: (in years): (please mark with a cross 'X')

< 1	1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 15	> 15
-----	-------	--------	---------	------

How long have you worked with your current manager: (in years): (please mark with a cross 'X')

< 1	1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 15	> 15
-----	-------	--------	---------	------

Indicate the level your position is, in the company: (please mark with a cross 'X')

Technician	Supervisor	Manager	Senior Manager	Other
------------	------------	---------	----------------	-------

Please tell about your education: (please mark with a cross 'X')

High school	Technikon	University Degree	Post graduate	Other
-------------	-----------	-------------------	---------------	-------

Please tell about your salary per annum: (please mark with a cross 'X')

< 20 000	20 000 – 50 000	50 001 – 100 000	100 001-200000	> 200 000
----------	-----------------	------------------	----------------	-----------

Thank you for participation in this survey



## **Appendix B Cover Letter**



# **GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP UNISA**

Date

Dear Respondent

I need your assistance. I have attached a survey that I hope you will complete. I am a third year MBL candidate at the Graduate School of Business Leadership at the University of South Africa. This survey is part of the research requirements for the degree. The purpose of this research is to better understand leadership practices in Swaziland. There is very little research on this issue and the present study will contribute to filling that void. Specifically, the study aims to examine the relationship between leader behaviours and several employee outcomes including organisational commitment.

In return for your participation, I would be happy to provide you with an executive summary of the results of the research. If you are interested in receiving this summary, kindly fill in your name and address on the form provided on the next page and submit to the researcher by post or e-mail your details to the address below.

All information supplied in the questionnaire will be with treated anonymously and will be used for academic purposes only. Thank you for taking time to complete the survey. If you have any questions about the research, you can email me at

Sincerely

Innocent Dlamini  
MBL 3 Student  
UNISA SBL  
Return Address  
Box 204  
Mbabane



Email: [innocent.dlamini@swazilotto.com](mailto:innocent.dlamini@swazilotto.com)

To be filled by respondents interested in the findings of the study

Name:.....

Address:.....

.....

Email:.....

Tel:.....

Cell:.....



## Appendix C. Frequencies

Table C 1. Frequencies by gender

		Gender		
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	40	80.0	80.0
	Female	10	20.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	

Table C 2 Frequencies by age groups

		Age Groups		
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 20 Years	1	2.0	2.0
	20 - 30 Years	30	60.0	62.0
	31 - 40 Years	17	34.0	96.0
	41 - 50 Years	1	2.0	98.0
	51 Years plus	1	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	

Table C 3. Frequencies by number of years with current employer

		Years with Employer			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less Than 1 Year	10	20.0	20.0	20.0
	1 - 5 Years	25	50.0	50.0	70.0
	6 - 10 Years	10	20.0	20.0	90.0
	11 - 15 Years	3	6.0	6.0	96.0
	15 Years +	2	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	



**Table C 4. Frequencies by number of years with current manager**

		Years with manager			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less Than 1 Year	12	24.0	24.0	24.0
	1 - 5 Years	33	66.0	66.0	90.0
	6 - 10 Years	5	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

**Table C 5. Frequencies by position held**

		Position held			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Technician	20	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Supervisor	8	16.0	16.0	56.0
	Manager	10	20.0	20.0	76.0
	Other	12	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

**Table C 6. Frequencies by education**

		Education			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Technikon	15	30.0	30.0	32.0
	University degree	21	42.0	42.0	74.0
	Post graduate degree	5	10.0	10.0	84.0
	Other	8	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

**Table C 7. Frequencies by salary**

		Salary			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	E 20, 000 - E50, 000	6	12.0	12.0	12.0
	E51, 000 - E100, 000	23	46.0	46.0	58.0
	E100, 001 - E200, 000	13	26.0	26.0	84.0
	E200, 000 plus	8	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	



## Appendix D Descriptive Statistics

Table D 1. Descriptive statistics overall

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	50	5.2573	1.0012	1.002	-.429
Psychological contract met expectations	50	3.7364	.9951	.990	.045
Trust in leader	50	4.8067	.7185	.518	.585
Psychological contract breach	50	1.5209	1.3716	1.881	.350
Affective Commitment	50	4.0800	.9829	.966	.209
Continious Commitment	50	3.8500	.9459	.895	-.381
Normative commitment	50	3.8300	.8384	.703	-.193
Leader perception	50	2.7860	1.0988	1.207	-.124
per participation	50	3.1686	1.2898	1.612	-.301
Valid N (listwise)	50				

Table D 2. Descriptive statistics by gender = male

Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>					
	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	40	5.2830	1.0596	1.123	-.525
Psychological contract met expectations	40	3.8068	.9168	.840	.062
Trust in leader	40	4.7333	.7059	.498	.612
Psychological contract breach	40	1.4761	1.4587	2.122	.456
Affective Commitment	40	4.0000	.9494	.901	.143
Continious Commitment	40	3.8688	.9988	.998	-.288
Normative commitment	40	3.8219	.8650	.748	-.044
Leader perception	40	2.7150	1.0533	1.110	-.176
per participation	40	3.2500	1.2891	1.662	-.318
Valid N (listwise)	40				

<sup>a</sup>. Gender = Male



**Table D 3. Descriptive statistics by gender = female**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	10	5.1545	.7595	.577	.357
Psychological contract met expectations	10	3.4545	1.2806	1.640	.401
Trust in leader	10	5.1000	.7295	.532	.735
Psychological contract breach	10	1.7000	1.0014	1.003	-.475
Affective Commitment	10	4.4000	1.1005	1.211	.256
Continious Commitment	10	4.2750	.6341	.402	.601
Normative commitment	10	4.3625	.5696	.324	.477
Leader perception	10	3.1200	1.2726	1.620	-.277
por participation	10	2.8429	1.1961	1.431	-.560
Valid N (listwise)	10				

<sup>a</sup>. Gender = Female

**Table D 4. Descriptive statistics by age group = 20-30 years**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skowness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	30	5.1682	1.0191	1.039	-.512
Psychological contract met expectations	30	3.6939	1.1017	1.214	.151
Trust in leader	30	4.9111	.7875	.620	.741
Psychological contract breach	30	1.4742	1.3545	1.835	.059
Affective Commitment	30	3.8958	.9008	.812	-.208
Continious Commitment	30	3.6792	1.0168	1.034	-.653
Normative commitment	30	3.9792	.8135	.662	-.354
Leader perception	30	2.9487	1.1116	1.236	-.382
por participation	30	3.0000	1.3264	1.759	-.088
Valid N (listwise)	30				

<sup>a</sup>. Age Groups = 20 - 30 Years



**Table D 5. Descriptive statistics by age group = 30–40years**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	17	5.4332	1.0497	1.102	-.401
Psychological contract met expectations	17	3.7607	.8994	.809	-.069
Trust in leader	17	4.6078	.5861	.344	-.625
Psychological contract breach	17	1.6524	1.5469	2.393	.594
Affective Commitment	17	4.2426	1.0548	1.112	.605
Continous Commitment	17	4.0809	.8148	.684	.569
Normative commitment	17	3.7721	.9060	.821	.149
Leader perception per participation	17	2.6000	1.0050	1.010	.231
	17	3.2353	1.1528	1.329	-.509
Valid N (listwise)	17				

<sup>a</sup>. Age Groups = 31 - 40 Years

**Table D 6. Descriptive statistics by years with employer = less than 1 year**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	10	5.4909	1.0517	1.106	-.444
Psychological contract met expectations	10	3.9818	.8472	.718	.923
Trust in leader	10	4.9667	.5855	.320	-.234
Psychological contract breach	10	1.5091	1.1652	1.358	-.928
Affective Commitment	10	4.2125	1.1396	1.299	-.741
Continous Commitment	10	3.8875	1.2353	1.526	-1.527
Normative commitment	10	4.1875	.7003	.490	.152
Leader perception per participation	10	3.2600	1.1037	1.218	-.892
	10	2.8571	1.3452	1.810	-.114
Valid N (listwise)	10				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with Employer = Less Than 1 Year



Table D 7. Descriptive statistics by number of years with employer = 1-5 years

Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>					
	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	25	5.1145	1.0518	1.108	-.622
Psychological contract met expectations	25	3.7418	1.0234	1.047	.016
Trust in leader	25	4.8467	.8659	.750	.600
Psychological contract breach	25	1.3727	1.3247	1.755	.450
Affective Commitment	25	3.7800	.7580	.575	-.379
Continous Commitment	25	3.9150	.8740	.764	.382
Normative commitment	25	3.8250	.8012	.842	-.136
Leader perception	25	2.8400	.9916	.983	-.130
par participation	25	3.2800	1.2787	1.635	-.456
Valid N (listwise)	25				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with Employer = 1 - 5 Years

Table D 8. Descriptive statistics by number of years with employer = 6-10 years

Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>					
	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	10	5.3545	.9720	.945	.110
Psychological contract met expectations	10	3.5909	1.2047	1.451	-.011
Trust in leader	10	4.5000	.3849	.148	-.609
Psychological contract breach	10	1.7636	1.6978	2.882	.580
Affective Commitment	10	4.2500	1.2047	1.451	1.036
Continous Commitment	10	3.7250	.7542	.569	-.139
Normative commitment	10	3.5500	.9395	.883	.239
Leader perception	10	2.4000	1.0371	1.076	.066
par participation	10	3.0000	1.3333	1.778	.008
Valid N (listwise)	10				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with Employer = 6 - 10 Years



**Table D 9** Descriptive statistics by number of years with employer = 11-15 years

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	3	5.5455	1.0484	1.099	-1.373
Psychological contract met expectations	3	3.3030	1.0769	1.160	1.718
Trust in leader	3	5.0000	.7265	.528	-1.630
Psychological contract breach	3	2.2424	2.1073	4.441	-1.674
Affective Commitment	3	4.6250	.5728	.328	.935
Continious Commitment	3	4.9167	.8323	.693	-1.058
Normative commitment	3	4.7083	.6884	.474	-.271
Leader perception per participation	3	2.3333	1.6289	2.653	1.815
per participation	3	3.0000	1.0000	1.000	-1.574
Valid N (listwise)	3				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with Employer = 11 - 15 Years

**Table D 10.** Descriptive statistics by number of years with employer = 15+ years

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	2	4.9545	.5785	.335	.
Psychological contract met expectations	2	3.8182	.3857	.149	.
Trust in leader	2	4.7500	.8250	.681	.
Psychological contract breach	2	1.1364	.1928	3.719E-02	.
Affective Commitment	2	5.5000	.7071	.500	.
Continious Commitment	2	4.3750	1.2374	1.531	.
Normative commitment	2	4.6875	.8187	.383	.
Leader perception	2	2.6000	2.2627	5.120	.
per participation	2	4.4286	.8081	.653	.
Valid N (listwise)	2				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with Employer = 15 Years +



**Table D 11. Descriptive statistics by years with manager = less than 1 year**

Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>					
	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	12	5.5720	.8952	.990	-.591
Psychological contract met expectations	12	4.0682	.8039	.648	.585
Trust in leader	12	4.9722	.5310	.282	-.243
Psychological contract breach	12	1.5038	1.1133	1.239	-.829
Affective Commitment	12	4.3125	1.0573	1.118	-1.030
Continous Commitment	12	3.9688	1.1348	1.287	-1.785
Normative commitment	12	4.1667	.7237	.524	.068
Leader perception	12	3.4167	1.0667	1.138	-.866
per participation	12	2.6786	1.3038	1.700	.198
Valid N (listwise)	12				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with manager = Less Than 1 Year

**Table D 12 Descriptive statistics by number of years with manager = 1-5 years**

Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>					
	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	33	5.1680	1.0223	1.045	-.427
Psychological contract met expectations	33	3.5372	1.0451	1.092	.198
Trust in leader	33	4.7828	.8031	.645	.696
Psychological contract breach	33	1.6309	1.5251	2.326	.317
Affective Commitment	33	3.8371	.7903	.624	-.193
Continous Commitment	33	3.9470	.8960	.803	.351
Normative commitment	33	3.7386	.8514	.725	-.027
Leader perception	33	2.5818	1.0421	1.088	.078
per participation	33	3.1775	1.2531	1.570	-.269
Valid N (listwise)	33				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with manager = 1 - 5 Years



**Table D 13 Descriptive statistics by number of years with manager = 6-10 years**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skowness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	5	5.0909	.8930	.798	-.744
Psychological contract met expectations	5	4.2545	.7883	.621	1.399
Trust in leader	5	4.5667	.4802	.231	1.217
Psychological contract breach	5	.8364	.5871	.345	-.404
Affective Commitment	5	5.1250	1.3229	1.750	.361
Continious Commitment	5	3.9250	.9984	.997	.374
Normative commitment	5	4.6250	.5449	.297	.181
Leader perception	5	2.7200	1.1967	1.432	-.451
per participation	5	4.2857	.4845	.235	.962
Valid N (listwise)	5				

<sup>a</sup>. Years with manager = 6 - 10 Years

**Table D 14 Descriptive statistics by Position held = Technician**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skowness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	20	5.0091	1.1051	1.221	-.321
Psychological contract met expectations	20	3.5727	1.1166	1.247	.181
Trust in leader	20	5.0833	.7541	.569	.996
Psychological contract breach	20	1.4364	1.3070	1.708	.736
Affective Commitment	20	4.1875	.9138	.835	.571
Continious Commitment	20	4.1313	.9437	.891	-.784
Normative commitment	20	4.1375	.6488	.421	-.646
Leader perception	20	2.5300	1.2351	1.525	.432
per participation	20	3.4857	1.2414	1.541	-.830
Valid N (listwise)	20				

<sup>a</sup>. Position held = Technician



Table D 15 Descriptive statistics by Position held = Supervisor

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	8	5.4318	.7725	.597	-1.209
Psychological contract met expectations	8	3.5114	.8217	.675	.800
Trust in leader	8	4.5208	.7840	.615	.752
Psychological contract breach	8	1.9205	1.4028	1.968	-1.229
Affective Commitment	8	3.7500	.4532	.205	.000
Continous Commitment	8	4.1583	.6187	.383	1.592
Normative commitment	8	4.1719	.4815	.232	-.001
Leader perception	8	2.5500	.7071	.500	-.889
per participation	8	3.6984	.8133	.661	-.136
Valid N (listwise)	8				

<sup>a</sup>. Position held = Supervisor

Table D 16 Descriptive statistics by Position held = Manager

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	10	5.4318	1.0695	1.144	-.488
Psychological contract met expectations	10	4.0727	.8084	.653	-1.195
Trust in leader	10	4.6500	.6058	.367	-1.187
Psychological contract breach	10	1.3591	1.4593	2.130	.944
Affective Commitment	10	4.3375	.7707	.594	-1.480
Continous Commitment	10	3.6250	.6038	.365	-.081
Normative commitment	10	3.4875	.7107	.505	.455
Leader perception	10	3.3200	1.0207	1.042	-1.540
per participation	10	2.2286	.8939	.799	.187
Valid N (listwise)	10				

<sup>a</sup>. Position held = Manager



**Table D 17 Descriptive statistics by Position held = Other**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	12	5.4091	.9234	.853	-.004
Psychological contract met expectations	12	3.8788	1.0404	1.082	.343
Trust in leader	12	4.6667	.6195	.384	.344
Psychological contract breach	12	1.5303	1.5107	2.282	.347
Affective Commitment	12	3.9063	1.4323	2.051	.403
Continious Commitment	12	3.7813	1.2992	1.688	-.189
Normative commitment	12	3.7917	1.2344	1.524	.228
Leader perception	12	2.9667	1.0577	1.119	-.419
per participation	12	3.0714	1.4989	2.247	-.119
Valid N (listwise)	12				

<sup>a</sup>. Position held = Other

**Table D 18 Descriptive statistics by Education = Technikon**

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	15	5.2242	1.0376	1.077	-.328
Psychological contract met expectations	15	3.5939	.9898	.980	.671
Trust in leader	15	4.7556	.8972	.805	.199
Psychological contract breach	15	1.6303	1.2909	1.668	-.398
Affective Commitment	15	4.1687	.7569	.573	.838
Continious Commitment	15	4.1167	.6756	.456	.087
Normative commitment	15	4.0667	.5955	.355	.692
Leader perception	15	2.8533	.9149	.837	-.530
per participation	15	3.3819	1.2168	1.481	-.478
Valid N (listwise)	15				

<sup>a</sup>. Education = Technikon



**Table D 19** Descriptive statistics by Education = University degree

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	21	5.3815	1.1013	1.213	-.792
Psychological contract met expectations	21	3.8139	1.1169	1.248	-.212
Trust in leader	21	4.9286	.7160	.513	1.250
Psychological contract breach	21	1.5476	1.4687	2.157	.633
Affective Commitment	21	3.8988	1.1317	1.281	.361
Continious Commitment	21	3.6250	1.0940	1.197	-.133
Normative commitment	21	3.7857	.8733	.763	.106
Leader perception	21	2.5048	1.1910	1.418	-.005
per participation	21	3.1361	1.3706	1.879	-.263
Valid N (listwise)	21				

<sup>a</sup>. Education = University degree

**Table D 20** Descriptive statistics by Education = Post graduate degree

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	5	5.1091	.6377	.407	.445
Psychological contract met expectations	5	4.3818	.6505	.423	-1.258
Trust in leader	5	4.8000	.2173	4.722E-02	-.541
Psychological contract breach	5	.7273	.4979	.248	-1.445
Affective Commitment	5	3.9500	.9747	.950	-.230
Continious Commitment	5	4.0000	1.0769	1.164	.257
Normative commitment	5	3.6750	1.1168	1.247	-.472
Leader perception	5	3.7200	.8438	.712	-1.166
per participation	5	2.9143	1.2960	1.680	-.186
Valid N (listwise)	5				

<sup>a</sup>. Education = Post graduate degree



Table D 21 Descriptive statistics by Education = Other

**Descriptive Statistics <sup>a</sup>**

	N	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Psychological contract Expectations	8	5.2273	1.0205	1.041	-.231
Psychological contract met expectations	8	3.4205	.8288	.687	.217
Trust in leader	8	4.5208	.5735	.329	.140
Psychological contract breach	8	1.8068	1.7094	2.922	-.260
Affective Commitment	8	4.3594	1.0382	1.078	.363
Continous Commitment	8	4.2969	.7132	.509	.429
Normative commitment	8	4.0625	.9728	.946	-.556
Leader perception per participation	8	3.1000	.9381	.880	.133
Valid N (listwise)	8	2.8214	1.1190	1.252	-.724

<sup>a</sup>. Education = Other



## Appendix E ANOVA

Table E 1 One way ANOVA (commitment vs. age)

Affective Commitment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean					
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum		
Less than 20 Years	1	4.0000	.	.	.	.	4.00	4.00		
20 - 30 Years	30	3.8958	.9008	.1645	3.5595	4.2322	1.88	6.00		
31 - 40 Years	17	4.2426	1.0546	.2558	3.7004	4.7849	2.50	6.88		
41 - 50 Years	1	6.0000	.	.	.	.	6.00	6.00		
51 Years plus	1	5.0000	.	.	.	.	5.00	5.00		
Total	50	4.0800	.9829	.1390	3.8007	4.3593	1.88	6.88		
Continuous Commitment	Less than 20 Years	1	3.0000	.	.	.	3.00	3.00		
20 - 30 Years	30	3.8782	1.0188	.1856	3.4995	4.2589	1.00	6.25		
31 - 40 Years	17	4.0809	.8148	.1976	3.6619	4.4998	3.00	5.63		
41 - 50 Years	1	3.5000	.	.	.	.	3.50	3.50		
51 Years plus	1	5.2500	.	.	.	.	5.25	5.25		
Total	50	3.9500	.9459	.1338	3.6912	4.2188	1.00	6.25		
Normative commitment	Less than 20 Years	1	3.6250	.	.	.	3.63	3.63		
20 - 30 Years	30	3.9792	.8135	.1485	3.6754	4.2829	2.25	5.50		
31 - 40 Years	17	3.7721	.9060	.2197	3.3063	4.2379	2.25	5.38		
41 - 50 Years	1	4.2500	.	.	.	.	4.25	4.25		
51 Years plus	1	5.1250	.	.	.	.	5.13	5.13		
Total	50	3.9300	.8384	.1186	3.6917	4.1683	2.25	5.50		



**Table E 2 Test of Homogeneity of Variances (commitment vs. age)**

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Affective Commitment	1,092	4	45	.372
Continuous Commitment	1,093	4	45	.371
Normative commitment	1,413	4	45	.245

**Table E 3 ANOVA (commitment vs. age)**

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	6,006	4	1,502	1,635	.182
	Within Groups	41,330	45	.918		
	Total	47,336	49			
Continuous Commitment	Between Groups	3,237	4	.809	.897	.474
	Within Groups	40,607	45	.902		
	Total	43,844	49			
Normative commitment	Between Groups	2,120	4	.530	.738	.571
	Within Groups	32,322	45	.718		
	Total	34,442	49			



**Table E 4 Oneway ANOVA (commitment vs. years with employer)**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval								
					Mean								
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum					
<b>Psychological contract</b>													
<b>Expectations</b>													
Less Than 1 Year	10	5.4909	1.0517	.3326	4.7386	6.2432	3.55	6.82					
1 - 5 Years	25	5.1145	1.0516	.2103	4.6805	5.5486	2.91	6.73					
6 - 10 Years	10	5.3545	.9720	.3074	4.6592	6.0499	3.82	6.73					
11 - 15 Years	3	5.5455	1.0484	.6053	2.9410	6.1499	4.36	6.36					
15 Years +	2	4.9545	.5785	.4091	-.2434	10.1525	4.55	5.36					
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>5.2573</b>	<b>1.0012</b>	<b>.1416</b>	<b>4.9727</b>	<b>5.5418</b>	<b>2.91</b>	<b>6.82</b>					
<b>Psychological contract mot</b>													
<b>expectations</b>													
Less Than 1 Year	10	3.6818	.8472	.2879	3.3758	4.5879	2.91	5.82					
1 - 5 Years	25	3.7418	1.0234	.2047	3.3194	4.1642	1.91	5.64					
6 - 10 Years	10	3.5909	1.2047	.3810	2.7291	4.4527	1.73	5.55					
11 - 15 Years	3	3.3030	1.0769	.6218	.6278	5.9783	2.64	4.55					
15 Years +	2	3.6182	.3857	.2727	.3529	7.2835	3.55	4.09					
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>3.7364</b>	<b>.9951</b>	<b>.1407</b>	<b>3.4536</b>	<b>4.0192</b>	<b>1.73</b>	<b>5.82</b>					
<b>Psychological contract broach</b>													
Less Than 1 Year	10	1.5091	1.1652	.3895	.6756	2.3426	-.82	2.64					
1 - 5 Years	25	1.9727	1.3247	.2649	.6259	1.9195	-.91	4.55					
6 - 10 Years	10	1.7636	1.6976	.5366	.5492	2.9780	-.09	4.36					
11 - 15 Years	3	2.2424	2.1073	1.2167	-.29924	7.4773	-.18	3.64					
15 Years +	2	1.1384	.1928	.1384	-.5963	2.8690	1.00	1.27					
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>1.5209</b>	<b>1.3716</b>	<b>.1940</b>	<b>1.1311</b>	<b>1.9107</b>	<b>-.91</b>	<b>4.55</b>					



**Table E 5 Test for homogeneity (commitment vs. years with employer)**

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Lovans Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Psychological contract Expectations	.329	4	45	.857
Psychological contract met expectations	1.009	4	45	.413
Psychological contract breach	1.947	4	45	.119

**Table E 6 ANOVA (commitment vs. years with employer)**

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Psychological contract Expectations	Between Groups	1.582	4	.396	.374
	Within Groups	47.532	45	1.056	
	Total	49.114	49		
Psychological contract met expectations	Between Groups	1.392	4	.348	.332
	Within Groups	47.125	45	1.047	
	Total	48.517	49		
Psychological contract breach	Between Groups	2.897	4	.749	.378
	Within Groups	89.190	45	1.982	
	Total	92.187	49		