

**THE EFFECT OF MILITARY ORGANISATION-SALIENT FACTORS ON
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN AIR FORCE**

By

GOODNESS NOKUBONGA SIBIYA



MINI-DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in

INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

in the

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

SUPERVISOR: Dr. O.S. Mthembu

March 2023

DECLARATION

I the undersigned, herewith declare to the Senate of the University of Stellenbosch that the work contained in this mini-dissertation is my own original work. I further declare that no information has been directly copied from other sources without acknowledging the source and that all wording is accompanied by a reference unless it is my own wording. I also acknowledge that I am aware of the University's plagiarism policy.

Signed: G.N. SIBIYA

March 2023

ABSTRACT

This research study seeks to explore the impact on Affective Commitment of four salient organisational factors, namely Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification. Affective Commitment This research was conducted in a public sector department, the Department of Defence (DOD), and specifically the South African Air Force (SAAF). A scientific research methodology was utilised to ascertain the reliability and validity of the suggested proposition to identify the impact of the selected variables on Affective Commitment. This research also explored the inter-relationship and its influence among the identified constructs through logical reasoning and comprehensive literature was provided to unpack these relationships. Explanatory research methodology was used to assess the identified hypotheses on the linkages between identified variables, and to construct and test a Structural Equation Model (SEM) that reflects the relationships among the variables.

Five instruments/scales were utilised to gather data for this research. Therefore, surveys were made up of Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) instrument of Organisational Justice, Rhodes and Eisenberger's (2002) instrument of Perceived Organisational Support, Mael and Ashfort's (1992) instrument of Organisational Identification, Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) instrument of Organisational Trust and Meyer et al.'s (1993) instrument of Affective Commitment.

The 480 military personnel were selected as a sample for this study, recruited by means of a convenience sampling method. This sample consisted of both scarce-skilled and non-scarce-skilled members from different military rank groups. In order to collect data, a survey study design with a quantitative approach was used. The measurement and structural models were assessed by means of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) after conducting item dimensionality and confirmatory factor analyses.

The dimensionality and item analyses were conducted in order to pinpoint the items that are poor and ascertain that the scales are unidimensional. Significant relationships were found between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust; Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification; Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification; Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Trust; Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification; Organisational Trust and Affective Commitment and Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment.

The study findings indicated that there is no significant relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment. Both measurement and structural model-fit statistics were generally sufficient. This study further highlighted the limitations and suggestions that were identified in completion of this study. The study findings present imperative insight for the SAAF and recommendations are also provided to better equip the organisation.

Keywords: SAAF, DOD, Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust, Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment

OPSOMMING

Hierdie navorsingstudie poog om die impak op Affektiewe Toewyding van vier belangrike organisatoriese faktore te ondersoek, naamlik Organisasoriese Regverdigheid, Waargenome Organisasoriese Ondersteuning, Organisasoriese Vertroue en Organisasoriese Identifikasie. Hierdie navorsing is gedoen in 'n departement van die openbare sektor, naamlik die Departement van Verdediging (DOD), en spesifiek die Suid-Afrikaanse Lugmag (SALM). Wetenskaplike navorsingsmetodologie is gebruik om vas te stel hoe betroubaar en geldig die voorgestelde aanbeveling is om die impak van die geselekteerde veranderlikes op Affektiewe Toewyding te identifiseer. Hierdie navorsing het ook die inter-verhouding en die invloed daarvan op die geïdentifiseerde konstruksie deur middel van logiese redenasie ondersoek. Omvattende literatuur is verskaf om hierdie verhoudings uiteen te sit. Verduidelikende navorsingsmetodologie is gebruik om die geïdentifiseerde hipoteses op die verband tussen die geïdentifiseerde veranderlikes te assesser, en om 'n strukturele vergelykingmodel (SEM) op te bou en te toets. Die doel van hierdie SEM is om die verhoudings tussen die veranderlikes te weerspieël.

Vyf instrumente / skale is gebruik om data vir hierdie navorsing in te samel. Daarom is opnames saamgestel uit: *Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) instrument of Organisational Justice*, *Rhodes and Eisenberger's (2002) instrument of Perceived Organisational Support*, *Mael and Ashfort's (1992) instrument of Organisational Identification*, *Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) instrument of Organisational Trust* and *Meyer et al.'s (1993) instrument of Affective Commitment*.

Die 480 militêre personeel wat gekies is as monster vir hierdie studie, is gewerf met behulp van 'n gerieflikheidsmonstermetode. Hierdie monster het bestaan uit sowel skaarsvaardigheid as nie-skaarsvaardigheid geskoolde lede, van verskillende militêre ranggroepe. Om data te versamel, is 'n opnamestudiemetode met 'n kwantitatiewe benadering gebruik. Die meting en strukturele modelle is deur middel van strukturele vergelykingmodellering (SEM) beoordeel nadat item-, dimensionaliteit- en bevestigende faktorontledings gedoen is.

Die dimensionaliteit- en itemontledings is uitgevoer om die items wat swak is te bepaal en te verseker dat die skale unidimensioneel is. Beduidende verhoudings is gevind tussen organisatoriese geregtigheid en organisatoriese vertroue; waargenome organisatoriese ondersteuning en organisatoriese identifikasie; organisatoriese regverdigheid en organisatoriese identifikasie; waargenome organisatoriese vertroue; organisatoriese vertroue en organisatoriese identifikasie; organisatoriese vertroue en affektiewe toewyding en organisatoriese identifikasie en affektiewe toewyding.

Die bevindings van die studie het aangedui dat daar geen beduidende verhouding tussen waargenome organisatoriese ondersteuning en affektiewe toewyding is nie. Sowel meting as strukturele modelpasstatistieke was oor die algemeen voldoende. Hierdie studie het ook die beperkings en voorstelle uitgelig wat tydens die voltooiing van hierdie studie geïdentifiseer is. Die studiebevindings bied noodsaaklike insig vir die SAAF en aanbevelings word ook gemaak om die organisasie beter toe te rus.

Sleutelwoorde: SALM, DVV, organisatoriese regverdigheid, waargenome organisatoriese ondersteuning, organisatoriese vertroue, organisatoriese identifikasie, en affektiewe toewyding

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to extend my sincere appreciation and also gratitude to the following people for positively contributing to the completion of this dissertation. To my husband, Ruud Ratseke, my children (Tumelo and Zanoluhle) and my sisters (Sbongile, Nonhlanhla, Nelly and Zinhle Sibiyi); thank you for your love, continuous support and encouragement throughout the process of this study. No words can describe the measure of gratitude I have. To my friends; thank you for your support.

My supervisor, Dr. Oscar Mthembu; thank you for being the pillar and the driving force throughout my studies. Thank you for giving me freedom to pursue this study and guidance, while allowing me to follow my own initiative. Your professionalism and dedication were impeccable and I have learnt so much in this academic relationship. Thank you for always showing confidence in my abilities; that kept me going even when I felt like giving up. It has not been an easy journey indeed. However, if given another chance, I would not change a single thing. *“It happened the way it was supposed to happen”*.

To Prof. A. Odendaal; thank you so much for affording me this opportunity and catering to my academic needs. I will be forever grateful. To the SAAF; thank you for awarding me a bursary towards furthering my studies at Stellenbosch University. This study at the state's expense initiative makes me truly proud to serve my country and an organisation that invests in the education of its members. With that said, my thanks and gratitude goes to all the Officer Commanding of the various units who encouraged their members to take part in this study. To the anonymous members in the SAAF who completed my survey; without you ladies and gentlemen my research would not have borne any fruit.

My last word of thanks goes to Stellenbosch University; it was truly an honour to be part of the academic institution that prides itself with providing quality education.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to
my beloved late parents (Johannes Sibiya & Daphney Mkhwanazi-Sibiya),
late sister (Nokuthula Sibiya) and brother (Sibonelo Sibiya),
who have been my source of inspiration. I know they are watching over me
and they are proud of my academic achievements. To my family, friends and
classmates who provided assistance and encouragement to complete this study.

I MADE IT!
WE MADE IT!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page:
DECLARATION	2
ABSTRACT	3
OPSOMMING	5
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	7
DEDICATION	8
CHAPTER 1	18
INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	18
1.1 Introduction and Background	18
1.2 Problem Statement	21
1.3 Objectives of the Study	22
1.4 Structure of this Research	23
1.5 Chapter Summary	23
CHAPTER 2	24
LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	24
2.1 Introduction	24
2.2 Theoretical Literature Review	24
2.2.1 Organisational Commitment Theory	24
2.2.2 Other Organisational Commitment Theories	26
2.2.2.1 Behavioural Commitment Theory	26
2.2.2.2 Obligatory Commitment Theory	26
2.2.2.3 Transactional Commitment Theory	26
2.2.2.4 Attitudinal Commitment Theory	27
2.2.2.5 Social Identity Theory	27
2.2.2.6 Affective Commitment Theory	28
2.2.2.7 Organisational Justice Theory	29
2.2.2.8 Perceived Organisational Support Theory	31
2.2.2.9 Organisational Trust Theory	32
2.2.2.10 Organisational Identification Theory	32
2.3 Conceptual Literature Review	33
2.3.1 Affective Organisational Commitment	33
2.3.2 Organisational Justice	34
2.3.3 Organisational Trust	36
2.3.4 Perceived Organisational Support	36
2.3.5 Organisational Identification	37

2.4	Empirical Literature Review	37
2.4.1	Relationship Between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust	37
2.4.2	Relationship Between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification	38
2.4.3	Relationship Between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification	39
2.4.4	Relationship Between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Trust	40
2.4.5	Relationship Between Organisational Trust and Organisation Identification	40
2.4.6	Relationship Between Organisational Trust and Affective Organisational Commitment	41
2.4.7	Relationship Between Organisational Identification and Affective Organisational Commitmen	41
2.4.8	Relationship Between Organisational Justice and Affective Organisational Commitment	42
2.4.9	Relationship Between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Organisational Commitment	43
2.5	Proposed Conceptual Model	44
2.6	Chapter Summary	45
	CHAPTER 3	46
	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	46
3.1	Introduction	46
3.2	Research Design	46
3.3	Data Collection	47
3.4	Population	47
3.5	Sample, Sampling Method and Participation	47
3.6	The Research Instruments	50
3.6.1	Organisational Justice Scale	51
3.6.2	Perceived Organisational Support Scale	51
3.6.3	Organisational Trust Scale	51
3.6.4	Organisation Identification Scale	52
3.6.5	Affective Commitment Scale	52
3.7	Missing Values	52
3.8	Statistical Hypothesis	53
3.9	Statistical Analysis	54
3.10.	Regression Analysis	58

3.11	Ethical Consideration	58
3.12	Chapter Summary	59
	CHAPTER 4	60
	PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	60
4.1.	Introduction	60
4.2	Item Analysis	60
4.2.1	Perceived Organisational Support Revised Scale Item Analysis	60
4.2.2	Procedural Justice Subscale	62
4.2.3	Distributive Justice Subscale Item Analysis	63
4.2.4	Interactional Justice Subscale Item Analysis	64
4.2.5	Organisational Trust Scale Item Analysis	66
4.2.6	Organisation Identification Scale Item Analysis	67
4.2.7	Affective Commitment Scale Item Analysis	69
4.3	Dimensionality Analysis	70
4.3.1	The Dimensionality Output of Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	70
4.3.2	The Dimensionality Output of Procedural Justice Subscale	72
4.3.3	The Dimensionality Output of Distributive Justice Subscale	73
4.3.4	The Dimensionality Output of Interactional Justice Subscale	75
4.3.5	The Dimensionality Output of Revised Organisational Trust	76
4.3.6	Dimensionality Output for Organisational Identification Scale	78
4.3.7	Dimensionality Output for Affective Organisation Commitment Scale	79
4.4	Evaluating the Fit of Measurement Models Using Confirmatory Factor Analysis in Lisrel	80
4.4.1	Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	81
4.4.1.1	The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix	83
4.4.1.2	The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	84
4.4.2	Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Procedural Justice Subscale	85
4.4.2.1	The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Procedural Justice Subscale	87
4.4.2.2	The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	87
4.4.3	Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale	89
4.4.3.1	The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale	91

4.4.3.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	91
4.4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Interactional Justice Subscale	93
4.4.4.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Interactional Justice Subscale	95
4.4.4.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	96
4.4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Organisational Trust Scale	97
4.4.5.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Revised Organisational Trust Scale	99
4.4.5.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	99
4.4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Organisational Identification Scale	101
4.4.6.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Organisational Identification Scale	103
4.4.6.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	104
4.4.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Affective Commitment Scale	105
4.4.7.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix	107
4.4.7.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	107
4.5 Overall Measurement Model Fit	108
4.5.1 Goodness-of-Fit	108
4.5.2 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Overall Measurement Model	111
4.5.3 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix of the Overall Measurement Model	113
4.6 The Evaluation of Structural Model Fit	114
4.6.1 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics	115
4.6.2 Parameter Estimates	117
4.6.3 The Gamma Matrix	117
4.6.4 The Beta Matrix	118
4.7 Relationship Between Latent Variable	118
4.8 Chapter Summary	123
CHAPTER 5	124
DISCUSSION OF STUDY RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	124
5.1 Introduction	124
5.2 The Aim and Objective of the Study	124
5.2.1 Primary Study Objectives	124

5.2.2	Secondary Study Objective or Sub-Objectives Study Objectives	125
5.3	Summary of Findings	125
5.3.1	Reliability Analysis Conclusion	125
5.3.2	Dimensionality Analysis Conclusion	126
5.3.3	Measurement Models Using Confirmatory Factor Analysis Conclusion	127
5.3.4	Overall Measurement Model Fit	130
5.3.5	The Evaluation of Structural Model Fit	132
5.4	Conclusions Regarding Relationship Between Latent Variable	132
5.5	Limitations	142
5.6	Contribution of the Study	142
5.7	Suggestion for Future Research	143
5.8	Practical Implications of Findings	144
5.9	Recommendations	144
5.10	Conclusions	148
5.11	Chapter Summary	149
	REFERENCES	150

LIST OF TABLES

	Page:
Table 3.1 Frequency Table for Sample Characteristics	49
Table 4.1 The Reliability analysis for the Perceived Organisational Support Scale	61
Table 4.2 The Reliability Analysis for the Procedural Justice Subscale	62
Table 4.3 The Reliability Analysis for the Distributive Justice Subscale	63
Table 4.4 The Reliability Analysis for the Interactional Justice Subscale	65
Table 4.5 The Reliability Analysis for the Organisational Trust Subscale	66
Table 4.6 The Reliability Analysis for the Organisational Identification Scale	68
Table 4.7 The Reliability Analysis for the Affective Commitment Scale	69
Table 4.8 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	71
Table 4.9 Factor Matrix for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	72
Table 4.10 Total Variance Explained for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	72
Table 4.11 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Procedural Justice Subscale	72
Table 4.12 Factor Matrix for Procedural Justice Subscale	73
Table 4.13 Total Variance Explained for Revised Procedural Justice Subscale	73
Table 4.14 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Distributive Justice Subscale	74
Table 4.15 Factor Matrix for Distributive Justice Subscale	74
Table 4.16 Total Variance Explained for Revised Distributive Justice Subscale	74
Table 4.17: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Interactional Justice Subscale	75
Table 4.18 Factor Matrix for Distributive Justice Subscale	75
Table 4.19 Total Variance Explained for Revised Distributive Justice Subscale	76
Table 4.20 Dimensionality Analysis for Revised Organisational Trust Scale	77
Table 4.21 Factor Matrix for Revised Organisational Trust Scale	77
Table 4.22 Total Variance Explained for Organisational Trust Scale	77
Table 4.23 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Organisational Identification Scale	78
Table 4.24 Factor Matrix for Organisational Identification Scale	78
Table 4.25 Total Variance Explained for Organisational Identification Scale	79
Table 4.26 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Affective Organisational Commitment Scale	79
Table 4.27 Factor Matrix for Affective Commitment Scale	80
Table 4.28 Total Variance Explained for Affective Commitment Scale	80
Table 4.29 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	82

Table 4.30 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale	83
Table 4.31 Completely Standardised Factor Loading Estimates for the Perceived Organisational Support Revised Scale	84
Table 4.32 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Procedural Justice Subscale	86
Table 4.33 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Procedural Justice Subscale	87
Table 4.34 Factor Loading Matrix for the Procedural Justice Subscale	88
Table 4.35 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale	90
Table 4.36 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale	91
Table 4.37 Factor Loading Matrix for Distributive Justice Revised Subscale	92
Table 4.38 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Interactional Justice Subscale	94
Table 4.39 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Interactional Justice Subscal	95
Table 4.40 Factor Loading Matrix Justice Subscale	96
Table 4.41 Goodness-of- Fit Statistics for the Revised Organisational Trust Scale	98
Table 4.42 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Organisational Trust Scale	99
Table 4.43 Factor Loading Matrix for the Organisational Trust Revised Scale	100
Table 4.44 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Organisational Identification Scale	102
Table 4.45 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Organisational Identification Scale	103
Table 4.46 Factor Loading Matrix for the Organisational Identification Scale	104
Table 4.47 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Affective Commitment Scale	106
Table 4.48 Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Affective Organisational Commitment Scale	107
Table 4.49 Factor Loading Matrix for the Revised Affective Commitment Scale	108
Table 4.50 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Overall Measurement Model	110
Table 4.51 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Overall Measurement Model	112
Table 4.52 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix	113
Table 4.53 Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for Structural Model	115
Table 4.54 The Gamma Matrix of Path Coefficients for Structural Model	117
Table 4.55 The Beta Matrix of Path Coefficients for Structural Model	118

Table 4.56 Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust	119
Table 4.57 Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Perceived Organisational Support On Organisational Trust	120
Table 4.58 Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Organisational Trust on Organisational Identification	121
Table 4.59 Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Organisational Trust on Affective Commitment	122
Table 5.1 Reliability Result of the Measurement Scales	128
Table 5.2 Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Statistics Cfa of he Various Scales Measurement Model	130

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page:
Figure 2.1 A Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment	25
Figure 2.2 The Proposed Conceptual Model	44
Figure 4.1 The Factor Loading Model for Perceived Organisational Support Revised Scale	85
Figure 4.2 The Factor Loading Model for Procedural Justice Subscale	88
Figure 4.3 The Factor Loading Model for Distributive Justice Revised Subscale	92
Figure 4.4 The Factor Loading Model for Interactional Justice Subscale	97
Figure 4.5 The Factor Loading Model for Organisational Trust Revised Scale	100
Figure 4.6 The Factor Loading Model for Organisational Identification	105
Figure 4.7 The Overall Measurement Model	111
Figure 4.8 The Fitted Structural Model	116

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.1 Introduction and Background

Organisations have the focal objectives of providing services or producing goods efficiently and effectively. To successfully accomplish one or both of these goals, organisations need skilled, competent and experienced human resources. Thus, management can either recruit highly-skilled candidates or recruit with the intention of developing them in order to achieve the organisational objectives. Retraining such employees would imply understanding the interrelatedness between what employees need and the organisational structures that will ensure that employees' needs are met.

High levels of Affective Commitment in the general public service, and in the Department of Defence specifically, can go a long way to addressing loyalty challenges faced by organisations striving to retain skills. Affective Commitment is assumed to be closely associated with to what extent employees want to remain with their organisation of choice, identify with the organisational vision and goals, feel that they fit into the organisation and are satisfied working for the organisation (Khan et al., 2021; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, it is the most desirable form of organisational commitment as it relates to workers' sense of belongingness and is reported to provide the largest set of benefits to the organisation (Grund & Titz, 2022; Hashmi et al., 2021; Mowday et al., 2013). This type of commitment is necessary to any organisation, especially the military, given the nature of work that the department is mandated with. The Chief of Defence highlighted that a strategic ideal for the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) is future soldiers who will act as its ambassadors (Defence Review, 2015). By implication, the Department of Defence needs a workforce that is aligned to its strategic goals.

There are gaps in the research on Affective Commitment that require further exploration. For example, the research study that was conducted by Marique et al. (2013) ascertains the effect of Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification on Affective Commitment, but does not include other important organisational factors such as Organisational Justice. In addition, literature identifies a number of constructs that facilitate the psychological state of emotional attachment and commitment, namely Organisational Trust (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000), Organisational Identification (Stinglhamber et al., 2015; Van Dick et al., 2006) and Organisational Justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Research also indicates that employee commitment is not solely dependent on remuneration, pay progression and incentives, but rather on the psychological state of employees' feelings about the organisation (Khan et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 2002).

Furthermore, theory on Affective Commitment has put limited focus on organisational variables. For example, side-bet theory (Georges, 2010, as cited in Becker, 1960) indicates that employees' organisational commitment is determined by the need to avoid the loss of "side bets" such as status, earnings and benefits. The side-bet theory of Affective Commitment identifies material and economic gains to be the determinants or precursors of continuing commitment to an organisation. This theory fails to acknowledge the potential role of organisational variables. Also, Shao et al.'s (2022), expanded theory of Affective Commitment identifies task-related factors such as role factors and supervision factors and structural factors as the antecedents of Affective Commitment. This empirically-tested integrated model also fails to include organisational factors as the determinants of commitment.

Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-factor model (TFM) recognises three dimensions of organisational commitment, namely continuance, normative and affective organisational commitment. This model refers to personal disposition and work conditions as the precedents of Affective Commitment and recognises the role of organisational variables, referred to as work experiences, in determining Affective Commitment. The theory clearly indicates the negative effect of Affective Commitment on intended turnover, actual turnover, withdrawal behaviours and all negative work outcomes, while having positive effects on work outcomes (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Nguyen et al., 2020). The current study focuses on Affective Commitment because of its close relatedness to loyalty, intention to stay and skill retention.

The salience of Organisational Justice in this research stems from its importance as a predecessor of Affective Commitment and its importance in a military organisation. Several studies have established that Organisational Justice and Affective Commitment, are correlated (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005; Ha & Ha, 2015; Derress et al., 2022; Lambert et al., 2007; Rhoades et al., 2001). Organisational Justice is associated with the feeling that the organisation treats employees with fairness and equity. Military organisations invest considerable financial resources in their personnel and are heavily reliant on them, hence the need to ensure that military personnel have strong positive experiences, including fairness and equity, i.e., high perceptions of Organisational Justice (Zhi-Weh, undated), Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Trust.

Theory indicates that Perceived Organisational Support predicts Affective Commitment through reciprocity, as employees who feel that their organisations support them, reciprocate that support by staying (Kim et al., 2016; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). In other words, organisations acquire favourable outcomes when employees perceive their treatment in the organisations to be favourable. Perceived Organisational Support is therefore a pivotal variable in military organisations.

It is logical and expected that organisations which value and support their employees and also strive to improve perceptions of fairness through distributive and procedural justice are likely to be highly trusted by their employees. Military organisations are expected to be highly trusted by their employees. Organisational Trust is therefore a salient variable in military organisations. The effect of Organisational Trust has been established by extensive previous empirical research (Bastug et al, 2016; Yilmaz, 2008). On the basis of this, Organisational Trust is deemed salient in military organisations and therefore important in this study.

The SANDF's mission and the associated values include loyalty as an important and pivotal value for its military employees (DOD, 2015). The concept of Organisational Identification is synonymous with loyalty (Tomic et al., 2018) and is also a very important variable in the military. Furthermore, literature indicates that Organisational Identification is related to organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 2004; Pomyalova et al., 2020). Organisational Identification is therefore another very important variable in military organisations, which accounts for its inclusion in this study.

Studies simultaneously investigating the effects of organisational factors such as Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification could not be established, especially in the military. Simultaneous inclusion of these antecedent variables provides information on their relative benefit, which may be vital in directing organisational efforts towards those activities that will improve Affective Commitment levels. Despite theoretical propositions, empirical research has not examined how organisational factors interplay to influence employees' Affective Commitment.

It is therefore imperative that this study unpacks the organisational factors that affects Affective Commitment. This will assist the organisation to develop the envisioned psychological state of commitment in which members who exhibit a strong sense of commitment will be less absent from work.

They will also be high performers which are always willing to apply extra effort to their work assignments and will be advocates for the organisation (Herrera & Heras-Rosas, 2021; Meyer et al., 2002), which is the desired state for the military. This makes Affective Commitment a worthwhile topic for the SANDF, since it can reduce costs associated with turnover and counter-work behaviours such as poor work quality, absenteeism and bullying.

1.2 Problem Statement

The primary goal of the South African public service is to make the most efficient use of the public budget in providing effective services. Currently, the public sector is disrupted by persistent social unrest resulting from poor or non-existent service delivery. The apparent inability of the South African public service to effectively provide services (Sefularo, 2022; Makhanya, 2022), is seen as an indication of an incompetent workforce (Antwerpen & Ferreira, 2016).

As a public service entity the SANDF is not immune to the afore-mentioned challenges. The turnover of skilled employees is reported to be above average in the SANDF (Department of Defence Annual report, 2019), particularly among those with scarce skills such as pilots, doctors and engineers, who are constantly exiting the organisation (Defence Review, 2015). This negatively impacts the Department of Defence (DOD) because of the large budget spent on training and developing individuals with scarce skills. These highlighted challenges bring the following questions to mind: Is the SANDF doing enough to retain its members? Do military personnel identify with the organisational values? What can the organisation do to ensure that its members are productively committed to it?

Given that employees' Affective Commitment plays a pivotal role in organisational effectiveness, it is important that extensive studies be carried out in an attempt to understand these constructs in depth and, furthermore, to equip the SANDF with knowledge on how to strategically plan for and facilitate a positive emotional bond between the members of the organisation and the organisation itself. Moreover, it is of high importance that research is conducted which seeks to explore the construct of Affective Commitment, so as to unpack its predictors and salient determinants.

Therefore, this paper is aimed at exploring organisational factors, namely Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust, Organisational Identification and Organisational Justice as predictors of Affective Commitment. First, these organisational factors will be included simultaneously in the Affective Commitment model.

Secondly, the mediation role played by Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification in strengthening or weakening its impact on each antecedent among SANDF members' Affective Commitment will be assessed. The research questions for this study are formulated as: Do the organisational factors of Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Justice have an effect on Affective Commitment? Do Organisational Identification and Organisational Trust mediate the effect of Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Justice on Affective Commitment?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The research objectives of this study are manifested in the specific goals that this research seeks to achieve, namely

- 1) to determine whether Organisational Justice has a significant positive impact on Organisational Trust;
- 2) to determine whether perceived Organisational Justice has a significant positive impact on Organisational Identification;
- 3) to determine whether Organisational Justice has a significant positive impact on Affective Commitment;
- 4) to determine whether Organisational Trust has a significant positive impact on Affective Commitment;
- 5) to determine whether Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive impact on Organisational Trust;
- 6) to determine whether Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive impact on Organisational Identification;
- 7) to determine whether Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive impact on Affective Commitment;
- 8) to determine whether Organisational Trust has a significant positive impact on affective Organisational Identification;
- 9) to determine whether Organisational Identification has a significant positive impact on Affective Commitment;
- 10) to fit the model;
- 11) to identify and evaluate relationships that exist between Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust, Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment;
- 12) to conceptualise these antecedents within the framework of a structural model, and
- 13) to conduct an empirical study to explore the relationship between these predictors of Affective Commitment in the Air Force Military Bases/Units.

1.4 Structure of this Research

Chapter 1 (Introduction)

This segment of the paper examines the importance of understanding Affective Commitment and describes the gap in research on this issue. The research question that arises from this is stated, followed by the objectives of this research.

Chapter 2 (Literature Review)

This segment of the paper examines literature study of the constructs of Affective Commitment, Organisational Trust, Organisational Identification, Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Justice.

Chapter 3 (Research Methodology)

This part of the paper provides information regarding the research methodology, sampling, data collection, research scales, statistical analysis and ethical consideration.

Chapter 4

This part of the research provides information regarding the expected results and the last section, time frames pertaining to the research study.

Chapter 5

The final chapter discusses and summarises the research results enumerated in the previous chapter. It includes the limitations of the study and provides the conclusion of this study.

1.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted the background of this study and identifies the research gap that necessitated the study, more especially in a military organisation. This was followed by the overarching research question arising from this background and the attendant research objectives as embodied in a list of the specific goals of the research. The chapter concluded with an outline of the remaining chapters. The next segment of the paper seeks to unpack the overarching literature for this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

2.1 Introduction

This segment of the paper seeks to unpack the literature on Affective Commitment and the other variables of the research. The theoretical background that forms the foundation of the study will be examined and explored first, followed by the potential predictors of Affective Commitment, namely Organisational Justice and Perceived Organisational Support and the intervenors, namely Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification. The first part of this section begins with a review of literature on concepts in the theoretical framework. The last part reviews the relationships among the constructs of interest, where the hypotheses are formulated and the model of the proposed associations that link them is developed and presented.

2.2 Theoretical Literature Review

This section is aimed at discussing this research's overarching theories; namely organisational commitment theory from a three-component model perspective, four organisational commitment theories (behavioural obligatory commitment, transactional commitment, attitudinal commitment, social identity and Affective Commitment), as well as the theories of Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification. These theories are discussed below.

2.2.1 Organisational Commitment Theory

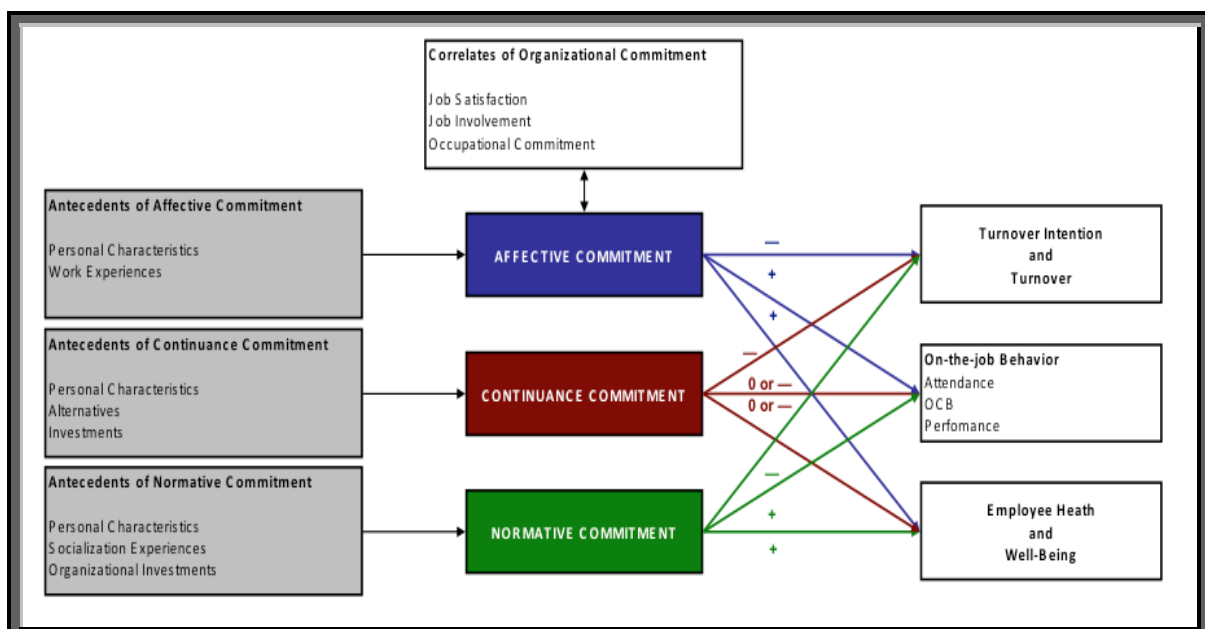
One of the prominent models of organisational commitment is the three-component model developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), depicted in Figure 2.1. This theoretical model postulates that there are three distinctive forms of organisational commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. The model also suggests that both work experiences and personal characteristics have an impact on Affective Commitment. According to this theory, personal characteristics such as employees' attitudes and intentions are precursors of behaviour (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). This means that employees with positive intentions and predisposed characteristics will exhibit appropriate workplace behaviours.

Affective Commitment leads to negative turnover intentions and positive on-the-job behaviour such as attendance, organisational citizenship behaviour and performance. Furthermore, this type of commitment leads to positive employee health and wellbeing (such as satisfaction and happiness). Members are said to be committed to the organisation when their goals are congruent with those of the organisation. This theory further posits that the correlations of Affective Commitment are job satisfaction, job involvement and occupational commitment (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

The three-component model also refers to the dimensions of organisational commitment — affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment — as employees' dispositions, while neglecting other prominent organisational variables that inform organisational commitment. This research aims to bridge this gap by conducting empirical research that will focus on the impact of selected organisational variables — organisational support, Organisational Justice, Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification — on affective organisational commitment.

Figure 2.1

A Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment



Note. This model was produced by Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model in 1991, it was aimed at unpacking the three forms of organisational commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. It also provides antecedents for each form of commitment and its outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 61(1), p.22.

2.2.2 Other Organisational Commitment Theories

Mercurio (2015) studied Affective Commitment as the essence of organisational commitment and identified a further four organisational commitment theories, namely behavioural, transactional, obligatory and attitudinal commitment, which are briefly explored and their relevance to this research is discussed.

2.2.2.1. Behavioural Commitment Theory

This theory is referred to as the process that makes employees become focused on or loyal to a specific organisation (Mowday et al., 1982 as cited in Mercurio, 2015). This commitment is based on the notion that the individual's actions will result in the development of the psychological state of commitment. In a nutshell, behavioural commitment develops mainly from three individual factors. Firstly, an individual's own freely chosen actions; secondly, a perceived obligation to follow through with these actions and lastly, an awareness of the cost of continuing or discontinuing these actions. This theory is not relevant in this study because it involves a behavior or action it manifest a psychological state of commitment, which is not the focus of this study.

2.2.2.2 Obligatory Commitment Theory

Numerous studies theorise that commitment to the organisation is founded on the individual's psychological state of feeling of obligation to remain in their organisation (Mercurio, 2015; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982). This obligation can be fostered by the individual's sense of internalised norms of the organisation (Mercurio, 2015). For example, in the military, becoming thoroughly accustomed to the military culture and its processes, creates an obligation to remain in the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991) referred to this as "normative commitment". This theory has overlapping principles with the ideas of continuance, behavioural and transactional theories.

2.2.2.3 Transactional Commitment Theory.

Some researchers contend that organisational commitment is derived from the individual's investment and expectation of resources and subsequent rewards (Cohen, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Transactional commitment theory views commitment as an employee's predisposition to maintain membership of the organisation on the expectation of rewards (pay, recognition, promotion) in exchange for investments in the organisation (time, generating revenues, etc.). In the transactional view, withholding such investments carries the risk of losing the rewards. Meyer and Allen (1991) refer to this as continuance commitment. Furthermore, Balfour and Wechsler (1996) posit that this type of commitment is formed directly due to the rewards received from the organisation.

Hence, if such results are no longer received, this organisational commitment will also diminish. This theory is not relevant to the study, given that it is based on transactional factors from both employee (investment of resources) and employer (rewards).

2.2.2.4 Attitudinal Commitment Theory.

Kenter (as cited in Mercurio, 2015) developed the notion of attitudinal commitment by hypothesising that the feeling of involvement in and cohesion with an organisation is most likely derived from the individual's commitment to the organisation. This theory was referred to as "Affective Commitment" by Meyer and Allen (1991). It is for this reason that exploration of attitudinal commitment is focused on the desire for the individual to remain in the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This theory is relevant to this research, which seeks to unpack and explore the role of an organisational variable, i.e. Organisational Identification and its impact on Affective Commitment.

2.2.2.5 Social Identity Theory

According to Postmes and Branscombe (2010) social identity theory maintains that behavior arising from one's social identity is markedly different from behavior arising from one's personal identity. According to this theory, people define themselves in terms of a specific social identity that becomes relevant in a given situation; people see themselves and other members of the same group (in-group) as relatively interchangeable; they underestimate the differences between them in a process called depersonalisation (Coyle-Shapiro, 2004; McLeod, 2019).

At the same time, people overemphasise differences between their in-group and people who do not belong to it (i.e., out-group members). When people's shared social identity is salient, group members also share a common perspective and start acting in accordance with emerging group norms; they act collaboratively to advance the interests of the group and accomplish its aims. A shared social identity does not automatically lead to good or bad behavior; it rather increases the importance of group norms, which can be good or bad.

However, the nature of a military organisation necessitates a shared social identity norm because tasks require collaboration and members working in teams. Consequently, when employees identify strongly with their work teams and the organisation, they will demonstrate more collaborative work ethic and more creativity and will perform the given tasks at a higher level. Van Knippenberg and Haslam (2007) argue that the extent to which people define themselves in terms of social identity determines their willingness to engage in behaviors that promote the interests of the group with which they identify.

This relates particularly to those behaviors which are more under their control, such as helping their colleagues. Organisational Identification is thus good for teams and organisations as it provides employees that are highly committed to their organisations and are more productive. Moreover, empirical studies have shown a positive relation between identification and creativity (Hirst et al., 2009), client orientation (Ullrich et al., 2007), and other positive variables (Van Knippenberg & Haslam, 2004).

In line with this reasoning, empirical research has found that employees who identify with their teams and organisations reported more social support, higher collective self-efficacy and, as a result, less stress and greater well-being (Steffens et al., 2015). High employee identification with teams and organisations positively relates to positive outcomes both for the individual (satisfaction, well-being) and the organisation (creativity, in-role and extra-role behavior) and negatively relates to negative outcomes (e.g. stress, turnover). It is therefore suggested that this be one of the key tasks for leaders to pay attention to.

2.2.2.6 Affective Commitment Theory

According to Jaros (1994, p. 954), Affective Commitment relates to an individual's psychological attachment to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure and so on. This state is normally viewed as loyalty that an employee has for the organisation. Employees high on affective organisational commitment ultimately feel devoted to the success of the organisation and believe that being in that specific organisation is in their best interest. Moreover, such employees carry the organisational values into their personal capacity, and they do not hesitate to apply themselves wholeheartedly in work assignments to ensure that the organisational goals are met. Meyer and Allen (1997) describe Affective Commitment as the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation, leading to identification with the organisation and a sense of involvement. Meyer et al. (2002) found that Affective Commitment is a stronger predictor of outcomes of interest to organisations, such as intended turnover, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, than either continuance or normative commitment.

Moreover, Affective Commitment is a form of organisational commitment that may influence employee well-being as a result of being negatively related to stress and counter-work behaviours such as poor work quality, stress and workplace bullying (Meyer et al., 2002). Therefore, it is undeniable that both employees and organisations may benefit from organisational initiatives that are aimed at positively influencing levels of Affective Commitment.

It is therefore imperative that this construct be studied to improve organisational functioning by employing strategies that will facilitate the Affective Commitment of employees. Employees with high levels of Affective Commitment in the workplace exhibit positive behaviours such as high involvement, positive work attachment, reduced absenteeism and presenteeism and increased loyalty (Kehoe et al., 2013). Moreover, there is reduced employee turnover, which has direct financial implications, given that the recruitment process is costly. Consequently, employees with high Affective Commitment demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviour that will in turn give the organisation or company increased productivity and a competitive advantage. Research studies by Liu (2009), Liu (2018) and Meyer et al. (2002) found that Affective Commitment is correlated positively with organisational citizenship behaviours.

This means that members who are loyal to the organisation will most likely display positive behaviours such as organisation citizenship behaviour, which will maximise their output. Porter et al. (1976) conducted a longitudinal study that reviewed 212 management trainees' attitudes over a 15-month period. The results indicated that employees who exhibited a lack of Affective Commitment to their organisation were most likely to leave the organisation. The negative consequence of low Affective Commitment is counter-productive behaviours such as an increasing rate of absenteeism and decreased job performance (Janoniene & Endriulaitiene, 2014; Meyer et al. (2002). It goes without saying that if employees lack attachment to the organisation, their efforts to ensure that the organisation keeps functioning diminish.

2.2.2.7 Organisational Justice Theory

According to Greenberg (1987), Organisational Justice relates to the impartiality of an organisation's treatment of its employees. The theory of Organisational Justice deals with employees' perceptions of whether or not they are trusted. Greenberg (1990) viewed Organisational Justice as the just and fair manner in which employees are treated by their organisation.

This suggests that employees' perceptions of a consistent application of work policies across the board is pivotal in ensuring that they feel that the organisation is indeed just and fair. Employees' perception of justice is influenced by outcomes received from the organisation pertaining to work policies, procedures and organisational practices (McDowall & Fletcher, 2004).

Greenberg (1987) posits that there are three different components of Organisational Justice theory, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Distributive justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness with which work and resources are allocated. This type of justice suggests that employees' perceptions regarding fairness pertaining to decisions taken about outcomes is normally based on a comparison with earlier decisions. For example, the employee concerned about the equity aspect of justice considers whether they got what they deserved in terms of workloads, work schedules, bonuses, promotions, salary levels, etc. Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of procedures that determine decisions about outcomes. Employees expect practices that are consistent, bias free and take into consideration the concerns of all parties. In this case, employees' concerns are based on the notion of fair and just decision-making processes. Interactional justice refers to the relation of organisational procedures to interpersonal communication and its fairness (McDowall & Fletcher, 2004). It is generally concerned with the courtesy and respect with which information is communicated top to bottom, bottom to top and laterally, with due regard for the dignity of those affected by it. This component is concerned with being treated with respect and dignity.

One explanation for the strong impact of perceived Organisational Justice at the workplace is that it builds trust. It is undisputed that employees value organisations that treat their work force with respect and whose Organisational Justice is perceived to be fair and just. The removal of uncertainty or the alleviation of the discomfort generated by uncertainty can be achieved by having a firm and solid perception of Organisational Justice. According to van den Bos and Lind (2002), the model posits there are that situations, whether social or not, that provoke feelings of uncertainty, confusion or doubt, and that provide the stimulus for seeking and using fairness judgements instead.

In addition, fairness heuristic theory postulates that authority over another person provides an opportunity for exploitation; people may feel uncertain about their relationship with authority (van den Bos & Lind, 2002).

This means that if one chooses to co-operate with others, sacrifice for the common good and allocate a lot of time and energy to work, then there is always a possibility that this significant effort will be exploited. This study further assesses the impact of distributive, procedural and interactional mediated by Organisational Trust on employee Affective Commitment.

2.2.2.8 Perceived Organisational Support Theory

Perceive Organisational Support has stimulated a great deal of research interest. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) the concept was a development of organisational support theory. It describes employees perceptions regarding the extent to which their contributions matter and their organisation cares about their well-being. Theorists argued that Perceived Organisational Support is strengthened when employees have favourable experiences about their work environment and when they believe that the favourable experiences are directly enhanced by decisions that the organisation made both purposefully and voluntarily (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shoss et al., 2013). Consequently, Perceived Organisational Support improves employees performance which ultimately leads to organisational success.

According to Alvi et al. (2014) social exchange theory posits that Perceived Organisational Support maintains that workers who view the organisation as more supportive¹, are more likely to reciprocate by improving their performance and becoming more emotionally attached to the organisation. Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) argue that social exchange theory can be viewed as the underpinning of organisational support, whereby workers tend to trade their hard work and dedication to the organisation for tangible benefits such as salaries, and also for non-tangible benefits such as self-esteem, approval and caring.

One can come to the conclusion that employees who have higher levels of Perceived Organisational Support will also have higher feelings of engagement and therefore exert the required effort to assist the organisation to achieve its stated objectives. Contrary to this, if employees perceive the organisational environment or hierarchal structure to lack support, it will lead to negative behaviours such absenteeism, lack of commitment, minimal effort and prevalent employee silence (Akcin et al. (2017).

2.2.2.9 Organisational Trust Theory

According to Van Den Akker et al. (2009, pg. 11) trust is “a psychological state comprising the positive expectation that another party will perform particular actions that are important to oneself, coupled with a willingness to accept vulnerability which may arise from the actions of that other party”. In simple terms this means that an employer will depend on the employee to perform certain duties in order to achieve the greater organisational goals, with accountability for failure falling on the employer. By implication, the threshold of input and output is vested in the trust between the employer and employee.

Trust is important in all aspects or spheres of social life. Therefore, trust facilitates negotiations and bargaining; it minimises transition costs in inter-firm exchange; it strengthens relationships and it even resolves conflict (Bharadwaj & Matsuno, 2006; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). If employees have a sense of trust in the organisation and of obligation to it, those employees are willing to compromise or to forego some immediate benefits on the promise of a later delivery. They will also be able to speak up or confront an arising issue that has the potential to hamper productivity, whether or not that issue affects them directly or indirectly. Trust has been found to be a predictor of work outcomes such as cooperative behaviour, organisational commitment and employee loyalty (Shockly-Zalabak et al., 2000).

It is also important to note that if employee trust is compromised, the following negative outcomes will manifest: 1) elevated feelings of vulnerability among staff, 2) reluctance to put energy into building relationships which will increase the “silo mentality”, 3) increased reluctance to exert effort in given tasks, 4) reduced communication, both horizontally and vertically, 4) an increase in risky and defensive or disruptive behaviour, 5) a loss of commitment and deteriorating morale and engagement at all levels of the organisation (Hope-Hailey et al., 2012).

2.2.2.10 Organisational Identification Theory

Organisational Identification occurs when employees define themselves as members of the organisation and when their self-concept corresponds with what they perceive as organisational identity (Hogg and Terry, 2000). Therefore, it is theoretically and practically important to understand the antecedents of Organisational Identification (Ashforth et al., 2008; Knights & Haslam, 2010). Given that a positive outlook of Organisational Identification by employees plays a vital role in increasing the overall productivity of an organisation, it stands to reason that an organisation should find ways of increasing employee identification with it

Organisational Identification stems from social identity theory and social exchange theory (Ashfort & Mael, 1989). Social identity develops from the individual's sense of belonging in a social group and how meaningful that membership is (Hogg & Terry, 2000). In the military this is vital since all operations are conducted by groups of people and all tasks are interdependent. Social identity theory has been widely applied to explain various phenomena, including employee-organisation relationships (Ferris et al., 2009). An organisation can become an important social entity with which employees can identify.

Social exchange theory posits that an employee-organisation relationship is built on unspecified obligations and the employees' perception of the quality of the social exchange relationship, which in turn is a function of benefits (i.e. pay, support, investment and recognition) and personal sacrifice or effort (Coyle- Shapiro et al., 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Ashforth et al. (2008), Organisational Identification based on commitment, satisfaction and well-being is vital in the employee-organisation relationship (e.g., Smith et al., 2010; Van Dick, 2004), leading to organisational benefits such as employee innovativeness, improved performance and financial benefits through increased productivity (e.g., Van Dick et al., 2006; Wang & Rode, 2010). Furthermore, Mdletye et al. (2014) argue that the stronger the organisational identity and employee identification are linked, the stronger employee identification leads to more positive employee behavior and conversely, the weaker the Organisational Identification, the more negative the employees' behaviour becomes.

2.3 Conceptual Literature Review

This section examines the definitions of the concepts and variables of the study and elaborates on them by examining their dimensions.

2.3.1 Affective Organisational Commitment

According to Allen and Meyer (1990) the concept of affective organisational commitment can be defined as the feeling of attachment that leads to a high degree of involvement in the organisation and that raises the level of Organisational Identification. Similarly, Amin et al. (2018, p. 49) define it as the "emotional involvement of an employee in the organisation" This definition suggests that affective organisational commitment is a feeling that is driven by emotion that translates to involvement. Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002, p. 698) define affective organisational commitment as a psychological aspect of the relationship between employees and their organisation.

It relates to their willingness to remain members of the organisation. Makanjee et al. (2006, p. 119) defines a state of Affective Commitment as a “psychological state which characterises an individual’s relationship with the organisation in accepting organisational goals and willingness to exert all sorts of efforts to achieve its goals”. From the above definitions it is obvious that Affective Commitment is the psychological bond that individuals have with their organisation and their willingness to remain with it. It is characterised by a sense of loyalty and an emotional attachment to the organisation.

2.3.2 Organisational Justice

The concept of Organisational Justice is well established. For example Greenberg (1994) defines it as “the degree to which workers are cognisant that they are treated fairly in the work place”. This definition is supported by earlier studies by Folger & Greenberg (1985, p. 23) where they assert that it is the fairness of treatment received by employees in their workplace. Similarly, Folger and Cropanzono (1998, p.115) define it as “employees’ perception of whether they are treated fairly or not”. Similarly, Foster (2010, p. 5) defines Organisational Justice as “employees’ perceptions of fairness in the organisation”. Based on these definitions, an inference can be made that Organisational Justice is when employees feel that the organisation treats them fairly. Organisation justice has three dimensions: procedural, distributive and interactional justice (Moorman, 1991; Strom et al., 2014).

- Distributive justice is defined as fairness associated with the decisions within an organisation (Colquitt, 2001, p 11). It is defined as the perception pertaining to whether employees are given responsibilities, services, opportunities, awards and statuses that are in proportion to their performance (Folger & Cropanzono, 1998, p.115). Choudhry et al (2011, p. 19) define distributive justice as “fair distribution of organisational resources among employees”. Similarly, Zwahlen & Li (2022, p. 182) defined it as “assessing the fairness of distribution resources between parties to a social exchange as an individual perceives it”. According to Greenberg and Colquitt (2005, p. 353) Organisational Justice refers to employees perceptions of the fairness with which resources are distributed.
- Procedural justice, the second dimension of Organisational Justice, is defined as “the individual’s perception of how fairness of procedural elements within a social system regulates the allocation of resources” (Folger & Cropanzono, 1998, p.115).

This dimension can also be defined as the decision-making process or the set of policies that is used to make decisions (Cropanzano & Malina, 2015, p. 16). Similarly, Butler (2012, p. 2) defined procedural justice as the perceived fairness of the procedures or decision-making process governing the monitoring process as a whole. Expanding on this dimension, Colquitt (2001, p. 7) defines procedural justice as the perceptions employees have of how fair the management policies and procedures are during the decision making process. Terzi (2017) conceptualised this dimension in relation with employees' perception of the methods used in the distribution of awards in an organisation. In addition, it is a perception of justice in the decision-making process at a workplace (Choudhry, 2011, p. 19). Similarly, this concept is defined as the perceived fairness of the procedures used as the basis for making decisions (Zwahlen, 2022, p. 182). From these definitions, it is apparent that procedural justice is the perception of fairness in terms of procedures used to distribute rewards and make decisions.

- Interactional justice is the third dimension of Organisational Justice. Colquitt (2001, p. 7) contends that it refers to how employees perceive the quality of the interpersonal treatment they received when procedures are implemented. Interactional justice can be defined as the perception of the quality of the interpersonal behaviour experienced by employees during the application of procedures (Yilmaz, 2004, p.3).
- Interactional justice can also be defined as people's perceptions of the manner in which outcomes and procedures is communicated (Greenberg, 2009, p. 182). It refers to the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity and respect by authorities or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001, p. 427). According to Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) interactional justice is defined as communication by the management to employees. Based on these definitions, it clear that this construct is associated with the perception of polite and favourable treatment in the enactment of organisational procedures.

2.3.3 Organisational Trust

Trust is defined as an “emotional state shared between committed employees and leadership” (Meyfield & Meyfield, 2002, p. 23). Personal commitment is related to the individual’s perception that the other person is trustworthy (Caldwell et al., 2012). According to Gilson (2003, p. 1453) trust means “to believe and expect that a partner of a relation will act in support of common interest”. According to Glinska-Newes, 2013, p. 124) Organisational Trust is defined as the perceived credibility of an organisation based on personal experience of their organisation’s transparency, integrity, competence, kindness and reliability.

Organisational Trust can also be defined as the belief of an individual or a group that the organisation will make every effort to honour its commitments (Cummings & Broomely (1996, p. 304). Some authors conceptualise this term as an emotional state between those in leadership and employees on the ground. This differs from Glinska-Newes’ (2013) definition, which views this concept as the perceived credibility of an organisation. This construct is conceptualised as the employees’ belief that the organisation supports their interests.

2.3.4 Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived Organisational Support can be defined as employees’ perceptions of how much an organisation supports their work and welfare (Shore & Shore, 2003). The study of Kurtessi et al. (2015, p. 12) defined the construct of Perceived Organisational Support as including all aspects related to relationships and assistance among working colleagues and peers, pertaining to the feeling of helping each other and support between superiors and the organisation.

Davis (1985, p. 179) posited that Perceived Organisational Support is the emotional participation and mental involvement of employees in a group situation that enables them to contribute to and be responsible for the group’s goals. According to Eisenberger and Stinglhamber (2001), organisational support is an abstract concept that develops in employees as a result of the organisation’s specific strategies and attitudes towards its workers. This relates positively to organisational performance. Perceived Organisational Support is also defined as employees being aware of their organisation’s contribution to them, of feeling safe and supported by the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). From these definitions it is apparent that Perceived Organisational Support is directly related to the perception of how much an organisation supports its employees.

2.3.5 Organisational Identification

Mael and Ashfort (1992) define Organisational Identification as “the perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organisation, where the individual defines him or herself in terms of the organisations in which he or she is member. Similarly, Armstrong and Cassidy (2019, p. 142) defines this construct as an “individual’s commitment to an organisation with a sense of belonging”, and (Dukerich et al., 2002, p. 232) defines it as an “individual identifying himself or herself with the main identity features of the organisation”. Organisational identification can also refer to situations where employees regard themselves as part of a whole and establish a psychological bond with the organisation (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). These definitions agree that Organisational Identification is the perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organisation.

2.4 Empirical Literature Review

This section presents an empirical literature review of the variables of the study gathered from previous studies so as to provide evidence or a record of other researchers’ findings that were analysed quantitatively or qualitatively (Read et al., 2010). The relationships between variables will be discussed below in conjunction with previous studies pertaining to empirical findings on the relationships.

2.4.1 The Relationship Between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust

Organisational Justice is described in terms of the perceptions of fairness with which employees feel treated regarding the procedures for reaching decisions as well as the rewards they receive (Vermeulen & Coetzee, 2006). If employees have high levels of fairness perceptions, they are likely to respect the decisions and the organisation and the levels of trust in an organisation are expected to increase.

A descriptive study conducted by Chen et al. (2015) that was aimed at exploring the effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust among nurses found that Organisational Justice (including three forms: procedural justice ($r=.82$; $p<0.001$), distributive justice ($r=.77$; $p<0.001$) and interactional justice ($r=.72$; $p<0.001$) had a significant positive effect on Organisational Trust ($r=0.49$, $p<.01$). A study conducted by Khiavi et al. (2016) found a positive, moderate and significant correlation ($r=.42$, $p<0.0001$) between Organisational Trust and Organisational Justice among employees of a hospital in Iran. A study by Terzi et al. (2017) analysed the relation between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust among the high-school teachers. The results showed that trust held positive relationships with distributive justice ($r=.32$), procedural justice ($r=.32$) and interactional justice ($r=.344$).

Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1: Organisational Justice has a significant positive effect on Organisational Trust.

2.4.2 The Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification

Perceived Organisational Support develops in employees because of organisation-specific strategies and attitudes towards its workers. In other words, Perceived Organisational Support is all of the positive and negative attitudes and behaviours of employees based on whether their organisation cares about their needs, shows them respect and values their contribution (Nayir, 2012). This means that if the employees perceive the organisation as being supportive, one can expect a greater degree of identification from them.

The relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification has been studied by many researchers. Dai and Qin (2016) conducted an empirical study in 52 companies from different provinces and regions in China, aimed at testing the impact of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Identification. The results indicated that organisational support has a substantial significant positive relationship with Organisational Identification ($r=.715$; $p<0.001$). Gok et al. (2015) conducted a study aimed at analysing the effect of Perceived Organisational Support on identification and job satisfaction. The data was collected among secretaries working at a private hospital in Istanbul. This study found that Perceived Organisational Support positively and significantly correlated with Organisational Identification ($t=9.884$, $p<.01$).

Thus, Chen et al. (2012) argue that Perceived Organisational Support prompts employees to perceive their own value, thereby enhancing the organisation's attractiveness through identification. Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H2: Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification.

2.4.3 The Relationship Between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification

Organisational Justice is concerned with perceptions employees have about the justness and fairness of the organisation in terms of practices, treatment and reward structures (Cropanzano & Stein, 2009; Ristig, 2009). If employees have high perceptions of Organisational Justice, it is expected that their level of identification with the organisation would also be high. Numerous studies on the relationship between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification found a significant positive correlation between these constructs.

Alev (2021) investigated the relationship between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification among 368 primary-school teachers. The study results showed positive relationships between Organisational Identification and distributive justice $r = .630$; $p < .01$; procedural justice $r = .560$; $p < .01$; and interactional justice $r = .490$; $p < .01$. Similarly, Chen et al. (2015) conducted a study among 400 registered nurses that was aimed at investigating the relationship between Organisational Justice and both Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification. The findings showed a significant positive correlation between Organisational Identification and distributive justice ($\beta = .49$, $p < .01$), procedural justice ($\beta = .59$, $p < .01$) and interactional justice ($\beta = .56$, $p < .01$). This means that if employees perceive the organisation as being fair and just, they tend to identify with the organisation. Conversely, a loss of trust by employees results in weaker identification.

This means that high Organisational Justice can make individuals feel respected and proud to be part of the organisation, which will in turn translate into identification with the organisation. This notion is supported by the work of Tyler & Blader (2004), whose study explored the relationship between Organisational Justice and identification, presuming that there is a positive association between these constructs and their impact on each other. As expected, the data revealed a positive relation between Organisational Justice and identification ($\beta = .688$, $p \leq 0.001$). Thus, as individuals feel supported by their superiors, they have a perception that their superiors care about their well-being and they identify increasingly with their organisation. Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H3: Organisational Justice has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification.

2.4.4 The Relationship Between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Trust

Perceived Organisational Support is described as how employees perceive the assistance or support given to them by the organisation when they are in need, whether in personal or professional matters (Ristig, 2009). Perceived Organisational Support is concerned with employees' beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation cares about their wellbeing and values their efforts or contributions. If employees have high perceptions of organisational support, they are likely to trust their organisation and they are to likely believe that decisions are taken in their best interests. Wyne et al. (2002) argued that Perceived Organisational Support contributes to Organisational Trust as the theory of Organisational Justice reciprocates and further highlights that employees who have been well supported by the organisation are more likely to develop trust in their organisation.

Wong et al. (2011) conducted a study aimed at analysing the effects of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Trust in the People's Republic of China, using a sample of 247 employees in three joint venture factories. The empirical results attested that Perceived Organisational Support is very significant positively related to Organisational Trust ($r=.857$; $p<0.01$). Recent research by Singh and Malhotra (2015) assessed the relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and trust in ten public and private educational institutions in North India. The researchers conducted a regression analysis to determine correlations amongst the construct of interest. The findings indicated that Organisational Trust is significant predicted by Perceived Organisational Support ($\beta =.326$; $p<0.01$; $t = 5.621$). Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H4: Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive effect on Organisational Trust.

2.4.5 The Relationship Between Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification

According to the social exchange theory, the more employees trust the organisation, the more effort they will expend for it (Cho & Park, 2011). Moreover, if employees perceive a climate of trust, they engage in more positive behaviors to benefit their organisation and identify with the said organisation.

In this respect, Kaya et al. conducted a qualitative study to determine the levels of trust of employees at a university hospital in Konya, Turkey have in their organisation, their level of identification with it and the relationship between the two levels. The findings that emerged revealed a very high positive relationship (89% significance level) between healthcare employees' trust and their level of identification. A study by Burcak et al. (2017) found that there is a moderate significant positive correlation between Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification ($r=.40$ $p<0.01$). Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H5: Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification.

2.4.6 The Relationship Between Organisational Trust and Affective Commitment

Hosmer (as cited by Caldwell et al., 2012) stated that the ethical framework of trust is related to the social contract between the organisation and the employee. If employees have high levels of trust in the organisation, levels of identification and Affective Commitment are expected to increase.

Organisational Trust and Affective Commitment were positively correlated, which implies that as Organisational Trust increased, Affective Commitment increased as well. Moreover, a study by Yilmaz (2008) found a low but significant positive relationship ($r=.31$; $p<0.01$) between trust and Affective Commitment with Turkish primary-school teachers. Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H6: Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment.

2.4.7 The Relationship Between Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment

Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment are closely related but different concepts/variables. In fact, Ellemers et al. (2004) argue that Affective Commitment is a component of Organisational Identification, whereas others view organisational identity as a part of the Affective Commitment construct (O'Reilly & Chatman, 2004).

Also, some researchers argue that organisational identity is an antecedent of Affective Commitment (Meyer et al. 2004). This view stems from the common conceptualisation of Organisational Identification; that it resonates from a cognitive construct referring to the self-definitional component. Self-defining as an organisational member might be a precursor to developing a positive attitude such as an emotional attachment to the organisation.

Van Dick (2004) supported this view, arguing that identification "enhances support for and commitment to the organisation" (Van Dick, 2004, P. 26). Similarly, Meyer et al. (2002) suggest that Organisational Identification fosters Affective Commitment to the organisation.

Identification with a group often involves the adoption of attitudes toward this group, including commitment (Meyer et al, 2002). Park and Judd (2005, p.22) argue that "employees want to remain in the organisation (i.e. Affective Commitment) and are willing to exert effort on behalf of the organisation because of the benefits they derive from the relationship". To the extent that identification helps employees to maintain a positive self-image, organisational identity should benefit employees and reinforce their Affective Commitment toward the organisation. This perspective was favourably received in recent literature about organisational psychology as the dominant approach at the conceptual level. A study by Stinglhamber et al. (2015) found a significant positive relationship ($r=.71$; $p<0.01$) between trust and Affective Commitment. Similarly, a study by Deressa et al. (2022) found a significant positive effect between these constructs ($r=.68$; $p<0.01$). Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H7: Organisational Identification has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment.

2.4.8 The Relationship Between Organisational Justice and Affective Commitment

Perception of the members of the organisation pertaining to the construct of justice merely resonates from the outcomes received from the said organisation. Moreover, besides the organisation policies, procedures and practices, they are also influenced by the employees' characteristics such as biographical predispositions and individual personality (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Folger and Konovsky, 1989) maintain that Organisational Justice has a significant impact on global view such as commitment towards specific authority or institutions. The employees who perceive justice exhibit trust towards those who are in managerial positions/leadership roles make decisions and have a strong commitment to the organisation.

Lind (2001) posits that procedural justice is a prevalent effect of processes and procedure-related information. According to fairness heuristic theory, the information that is received first will have a greater impact on the general fairness judgment (Lind, 2001). Because information related to processes and procedures is received before outcomes, it exerts a stronger influence. Lambert et al. (2007) have shown that both distributive justice and procedural justice significantly influenced organisational commitment, although the effect of procedural justice was much larger. Research has examined the differential impacts of distributive justice and procedural justice on attitudinal outcomes, but has not focused on the indirect relationship of distributive justice with organisational commitment (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005).

Ha and Ha (2015) examined the relationship between Organisational Justice and Affective Commitment. The regression analysis result indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between Affective Commitment and all dimensions of Organisational Justice (procedural justice $\beta = .66$; distributive justice $\beta = .78$; interactional justice $\beta = .89$).

Similarly, the findings by Deressa et al. (2022) yielded similar significant positive relationships (procedural justice $r = .68$, $p < 0.01$; distributive justice $r = .60$, $p < 0.01$; interactional justice $r = .70$, $p < 0.01$). Based on the theoretical and empirical background provided above, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H8: Organisational Justice has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment.

2.4.9 The Relationship Between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Organisational Commitment

Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) suggest that organisations obtain favourable outcomes when employees perceive their treatment in the organisations as favourable. This suggests that if members of the organisation hold a view that the organisation is supportive, those employees will be loyal or attached to the organisation. Furthermore, employees who perceive that they are treated favourably, are more likely to be affectively committed to the organisation and in turn less likely to express negative behaviour such as withdrawal. Moreover, the more employees apply the reciprocity norm to their relationship with the organisation, the higher the levels of Perceived Organisational Support, the higher the levels of displayed obligation to the organisation and of subsequent Affective Commitment.

As a result, employees develop positive or negative global beliefs according to how much their organisation values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing. A strong interaction or association has been found between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment.

Bishop et al. (2005) collected data from 902 employees from diverse organisations to explore their commitment towards the organisation. Their findings suggested that there is a significant positive effect between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment ($\gamma=.67$, $p<.001$). Similarly, Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) conducted a study aimed at reviewing more than 70 studies regarding the universal belief that organisations value their employees' contributions and care about their wellbeing (Perceived Organisational Support). The study found a strong significant positive relation between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment ($r=.73$; $p<.001$). Arshadi and Hayavi (2013) investigated the effect Perceived Organisational Support has on the Affective Commitment of 318 employees in the National Drilling Company. The empirical research results indicated that Perceived Organisational Support has an impact on Affective Commitment ($\beta =.8$, $p<.001$).

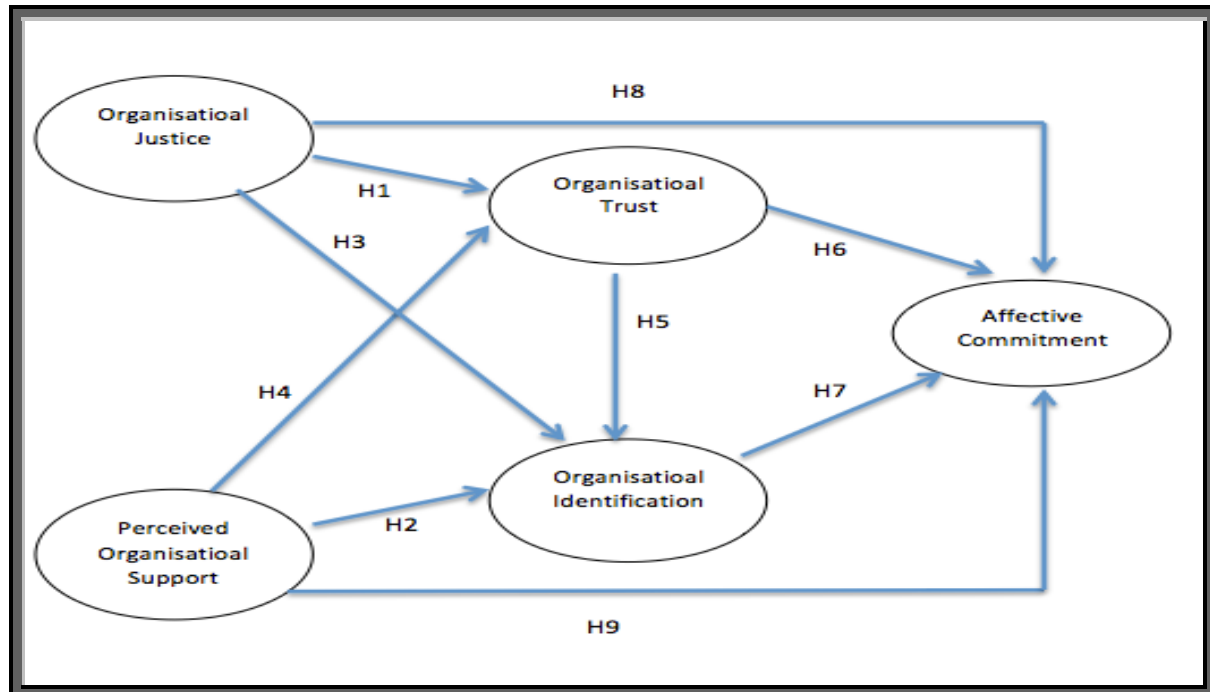
H9: Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment.

2.5 Proposed Conceptual Model

The above theory and empirical research findings lead to the formulation of this proposed research model as clearly indicated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2

The Proposed Conceptual Model



Note. This conceptual model is derived from the literature above. Own work.

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter unpacked the literature on the identified variables of the study. The key concepts of Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust, Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment were clearly defined. Moreover, a theoretical framework of these variables was provided. The relationships between the variables were theoretically and empirically established. This demonstrated positive associations on which to base the eight hypothesised relationships. Lastly, based on the hypothesised relationships and the theoretical background, a proposed conceptual model was formulated. The next chapter outlines the research methodology for the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This segment of the paper provides a comprehensive presentation of the research methodology utilised in this research study process to figure out answers to the overarching research questions. Research methodology provides information on the tools and procedures used during the research process (Mouton, 2002) and the research design which was employed. According to Mouton (2002) the credibility of the study results rests on research methodology, which, if compromised, jeopardises the chances of reaching valid conclusions. This chapter gives detailed information on the participants, on how data was collected and on the instruments used in collecting the data. The chapter concludes with the ethical considerations taken into account to ensure that this research does not infringe on participants' dignity, rights, safety or well-being.

3.2 Research Design

The research design refers to “the overall strategy that one chooses to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring that the research problem is effectively addressed” (De Vaus, 2001). It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Theron, 2013). To investigate the hypotheses about the constructs that influence affective organisational commitment, required empirical evidence that can be interpreted unambiguously for or against the operational hypotheses. Moreover, the research problem or topic determines the type of design you should employ, not the other way around (De Vaus, 2001). A mass target sample required the data to be obtained via a self-administered survey (Gurbz (2017).

For this research a quantitative cross-sectional design was used as method of collecting data from the sample. In cross-sectional research data is collected from many different individuals at a single point in time (Thomas, 2020). According to Zangirolami-Raimundo et al. (2018), this type of design is best suited for this research because it is less time consuming than other types of research designs. It allows one to collect data from a large pool of subjects and it provides useful insight into a population's characteristics and identity correlations. A quantitative approach was used in order to attach numerical values to the constructs under consideration (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

3.3 Data Collection

Data collection is the “process of gathering and measuring accurate data from a variety of relevant sources to find answers to research problems” (Simplilearn, 2022, p. 1). There are various ways that one can collect data, namely interviews, observations, focus groups and self-report questionnaires (Simplilearn, 2022). For this study, a self-report questionnaire was drawn and used to gather data.

It is important to note that the corona virus (COVID-19) had taken its toll in the country; as a result regulations and guidelines were enacted to flatten the spread of this pandemic in South Africa. When data was collected, the country was on level 2 lockdown regulations which limited conferences and meetings or any gatherings to 50 or fewer, excluding those who participate through electronic platforms (Disaster Management Act, 2020).

To collect data, consent forms and surveys were forwarded to various SAAF units across the country. Participants had to retrieve them on their T-drive, complete them manually and submit them in a secured drop box that was located at all service points at different units. These drop boxes were securely collected from various identified SAAF units.

3.4 Population

A population refers to a number of individuals that one is interested in when researching a specific phenomenon and on which conclusions are based (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Babbie and Mouton (2004) describe a population as a group of objects, events or individuals having common characteristics that the researcher is interested in exploring. In this case, the target population was members of the SAAF. Given the huge size of the SAAF, it would be impossible to conduct research on the organisation’s entire personnel corps. It is for this reason that a representative sample was drawn from which generalisations of the population can be made.

3.5 Sample, Sampling Method and Participation

Sampling entails the selection of a segment or sub-set of the population (Taherdoost, 2016). According to McDonalds and Ho (2016), when using SEM, there are three considerations that influence the appropriateness of sample size, namely sample size ratio to the number of parameters to be estimated, the statistical power associated with the close-fit hypothesis against the hypothesis of average fit and the logistical practicality associated with a sample. The minimum requirement for a sample size is 200, which is satisfactory for SEM application (McDonalds & Ho, 2016).

A non-probability convenience sampling method was used to select the 480 participants. This was informed by the availability of personnel in the given time in which the study would be taking place.

Another consideration that applies to sampling refers to the sample size. In general, the larger a sample size the more generalisable the conclusions would be (Theron, 2014). It was crucial to determine the sample size that would ensure that the end results were generalizable. Furthermore, statistical power, which refers to the probability of correctly rejecting the close-fit hypothesis (Theron, 2014), should also be taken into consideration. The practical implications of selecting a specific sample size should also be considered, which included the cost and the availability of suitable candidates. Table 3.1 provides a demographical outline of the respondents who participated in the study.

Table 3.1*Frequency Table for Sample Characteristics*

Demographics	Frequency	Percentage
GENDER		
Female	143	29.8
Male	337	70.2
Total	480	100.00
AGE		
Below 20yrs	10	2.1
20-24 yrs.	64	13.3
25-29 yrs.	75	15.6
30-34 yrs.	96	20.0
35-39 yrs.	69	14.4
40-44 yrs.	48	10.0
45-49 yrs.	64	13.3
50-yrs and above	54	11.3
Total	480	100.00
RACE		
Asian	39	8.1
Black	272	56.7
Whites	88	18.3
Coloureds	81	16.9
Total	480	100.00
TENURE		
Below 5 years	56	17
5-9 yrs	122	61
10-14 years	230	16
15 yrs and above	72	6
Total	480	100.00
OCCUPATIONAL CLASS		
Scarce Skill	206	45.2
Non- Scarce Skill	274	54.8
Total	480	100.00

The sample is the representative of the population the researcher seeks to study (Burns & Bush, 2006). The research sample consisted of 480 SAAF members from several different musterings and occupations. In terms of age distribution, 20.0% fell within the age range of 30–34 year-old category, followed by the 15.6% for the 25–29 year-old category. The following four categories were also represented: (14.4%) 35–39 year-old, (13.3%) 45–49 year-old, (13.3%) 20–24 year-old and (11.3%) 50 year-old and above. The below 20 year-old category made up 2.1% of the sample and the 40–44 year-old category 10.0%.

In terms of race, Blacks were in the majority with 56,7% followed by Whites at 18,3%, then 16,9% for Coloureds and Asians 8,1%. The majority of the population (61%) had been in the military for 5 to 9 years, followed by 17% for less than 5 years, 16% between 10 and 14 years and 6% 15 years or more. Although the majority of the sample is quite new to the organisation, they possess sufficient knowledge of the organisation to be abreast with the trends and developments in the global world of work. Regarding occupational class, both scarce-skill and non-scarce-skill members are almost equally represented in the research sample.

3.6 The Research Instruments

The research instrument consisted of a questionnaire with two sections. Section A dealt with biographical data including age, gender, tenure, rank, occupational class and mustering. Section B consisted of subscales used to measure the research variables. This survey was accompanied by the research information letter that explained the rights of the respondent and a comprehensive background of this paper.

Meeting the research objectives required reliable instruments to measure the constructs of interest. This notion was supported by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000), who confirmed that if the quality of research instrument is in question, any assessments conducted using that said instrument will be questionable and the substantive relationship of interest will be inaccurate.

For the purpose of this research, scales that were utilised demonstrated acceptable Cronbach's Alphas. The rule of thumb for Cronbach's Alpha is that it should reach .70 and have a maximum alpha value of .90 for the instrument to have an acceptable level of inter-item consistency and reliability (Adam & Wieman, 2011; Diamantopoulos, 2005; Tavokol & Dennick, 2011).

3.6.1. Organisational Justice Scale

Organisational Justice was measured by a three-dimensional scale developed by Niehoff & Moorman (1993). The three sub-scales (or dimensions) are distributive (5 items), procedural (6 items) and interactional (9 items) justice. The sample item for distributive justice subscale is “my work schedule is fair”; the sample item for procedural subscale is “job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner” and for interactional justice subscale (9 items), the sample item is “when decisions are made about my job the manager treats me with kindness and consideration”. The Alpha coefficient for the distributive justice subscale is .78, for the procedural justice subscale it is .87 and for the interactional justice subscale .91 (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Respondents were instructed to indicate their agreement with the series statement using a 5-point Likert scale which ranged from 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree.

3.6.2 Perceived Organisational Support Scale

Perceived Organisational Support was measured with an 8-item unidimensional scale developed by Rhodes & Eisenberger (2002), who extracted the 8 items that loaded the highest from the original version with 36 items initially developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The original scale was unidimensional and it had high internal reliability; the shorter version was found to be as reliable. The sample item is “this organisation values my contribution to its well-being”. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of this instrument was found to be $\alpha = .87$ (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2010). In this scale the respondents were instructed to indicate their agreement with the series statement using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree.

3.6.3 Organisational Trust Scale

The Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) 7-item unidimensional scale for Organisational Trust was used for this study. This scale is an improved version of the Mayer and Davis (1999) scale that had low reliability. The sample item of this scale is “my supervisor keeps my interest in mind when making decisions”. Its Cronbach’s Alpha is .84, indicating good internal consistency/reliability (Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006). In this scale the respondents were instructed to indicate their agreement with seven statements using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree.

3.6.4. Organisation Identification Scale

The instrument that was used to measure organisation identification is a 6-item unidimensional scale developed by Mael and Ashfort (1992). In this scale the respondents were instructed to indicate their agreement with the series statement “when someone criticises the organisation it feels like an insult”, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree. This scale has a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.89 (Mael & Ashfort, 1992).

3.6.5 Affective Commitment Scale

A 6-item unidimensional scale/instrument developed by Meyer et al. (1993) was used to measure Affective Commitment. The respondents were instructed to indicate their agreement with six statements, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree. The scale has excellent internal consistency, with a Cronbach’s Alpha of .91 (Meyer et al., 1993). The sample item of this scale is “I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation”.

3.7 Missing Values

When working with social data, problems such as missing values may arise because of a non-response from a respondent due to a mistake or from refraining to answer a specific item. The ethical consideration in research participation is that respondents should not be compelled to answer all questions. It was indicated on the consent form and in the instructions that should a respondent feel uncomfortable in answering an item it could be left open. Missing values necessitated attention before the data were analysed.

Graham (2009) argues that the conventional way of dealing with missing values is through list-wise deletion to create a data set that contains only the complete data sets. This approach reduces the data set. To counter this the researcher can adopt the multiple imputation (MI) and full information likelihood (FIML) procedures (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996), both of which are available in LISREL. The most suitable solution would be to use an MI procedure (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001) as it provides an estimate of missing values formulated for all data sets in the initial sample. It is important to note that FIML estimation is more useful and efficient than MI procedure. However, as the separate data set is not created as a result this might prevent preliminary analyses of the imputed data (Du Toit & Du Toit (2001).

The MI procedures available in LISREL 8.54 assume that the values are missing at random and that the observed variables are continuous and follow a multivariate normal distribution (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001; Graham, 2009). If they do, the FIML estimation procedure can be used to substitute missing values.

3.8 Statistical Hypotheses

In accordance with the literature study, the research problems below were identified and the structural model paths were tested based on the following research hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1:

Organisational Justice (ξ_1) has a statistically significant positive effect on Organisational Trust (η_1).

$$H_{01}: \gamma_{11} = 0$$

$$H_{a1}: \gamma_{11} > 0$$

Hypothesis 2:

Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) has a statistically significant positive effect on Organisational Identification (η_2).

$$H_{02}: \gamma_{22} = 0$$

$$H_{a2}: \gamma_{22} > 0$$

Hypotheses 3:

Organisational Justice (ξ_1) has a statistically significant positive effect on Organisational Identification (η_2).

$$H_{04}: \gamma_{12} = 0$$

$$H_{a4}: \gamma_{12} > 0$$

Hypotheses 4:

Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) has a statistically significant positive effect on Organisational Trust (η_1).

$$H_{03}: \gamma_{21} = 0$$

$$H_{a3}: \gamma_{21} > 0$$

Hypotheses 5:

Organisational Trust (η_1) has a statistically significant positive effect on Organisational Identification (η_2).

$$H_{05}: \beta_{21} = 0$$

$$H_{a5}: \beta_{21} > 0$$

Hypotheses 6:

Organisational Trust (η_1) has a statistically significant positive effect on Affective Commitment (η_3).

$$H_{06}: \beta_{31} = 0$$

$$H_{a6}: \beta_{31} > 0$$

Hypothesis 7:

Organisational Identification (η_2) has a statistically significant positive effect on Affective Commitment (η_3).

$$H_{07}: \beta_{32} = 0$$

$$H_{a7}: \beta_{32} > 0$$

Hypothesis 8:

Organisational Justice (ξ_1) has a statistically significant positive effect on Affective Commitment (η_3).

$$H_{08}: \gamma_{13} = 0$$

$$H_{a8}: \gamma_{13} > 0$$

Hypothesis 9:

Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) has a statistically significant positive effect on Affective Commitment (η_3).

$$H_{09}: \gamma_{23} = 0$$

$$H_{a9}: \gamma_{23} > 0$$

3.9 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis is the collection, examination, summarisation, manipulation and interpretation of quantitative data to discover its causes, patterns, relationship and trends (Lance & Vandenberg, 2009). Firstly, descriptive statistics was conducted to test that there were no violations of any assumption made by the individual test. Descriptive analyses were performed to describe the data distributions and to assess the normality of data. Factor analysis was applied to determine item loadings on the 5-point scales used to gather data. According to Hair et al. (2006a), when constructing the scale, the baseline intention is that the items selected in the scale should represent each variable exclusively. Therefore, unidimensionality means that a set of measured variables has only one underlying construct.

For this paper, dimensionality analysis was employed to investigate whether the number of factors satisfactorily explain the observed variable and to determine the factor loadings. This was achieved by interpreting the component output for each scale as well as verifying the factor analysis by checking that the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value together with the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2000).

In addition to that, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to evaluate the model fit and confirm the hypotheses of this research study. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a process of evaluating how well the constructs studied represent a smaller number of constructs (Pallant, 2000). According to Hair et al. (2006b) the purpose of carrying out the CFA is to provide statistical evidence on whether the identified variables are adequately defined in terms of the common variance among the items in a measurement model. Lastly, the comprehensive structural model was conducted to determine the model fit to assess all hypothesised relationships. These processes are discussed briefly below.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-IBM, 2020) was used for data screening, involving checking and dealing with missing values, checking for normality of the data and taking corrective action, analysing data regarding item analysis, dimensionality analysis and regression analysis for determining the significance or impact of the independent variables on the dependent variables (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996).

An item analysis was conducted to measure the validity of the instruments used to measure the constructs of this study, whereas dimensionality analysis was done to ascertain whether each of these identified instruments measures only one construct (Pallant, 2000). Also, item parcelling, a practice of aggregating two or more items, responses or behaviours, was done to derive a single indicator (Little et al. 2002). Each scale and subscale was item-analysed through SPSS reliability procedure to identify and eliminate items not contributing to the internal consistency of the subscales.

The main data analysis method was structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM is a "statistical methodology that takes confirmatory approach to the multivariate analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon" (Byrne, 2014, pg. 3). Davidson (2000) describes SEM as a collection of statistical techniques that examines the relationship between one or more independent and dependent variable or variables, independent latent variables and observed dependent variables. The SEM was carried out using the LISREL 8.80 program to conduct statistical analysis. SEM was adopted because of its many advantages over traditional statistical analysis methods.

For example, according to Dang et al. (2018) SEM provides flexibility in investigating the relationships among variables and posits latent constructs that are presumed to be the underlying causes of observed manifest variables. It also tests the hypothesised model statistically to determine the extent to which it is consistent with the data. Therefore, if goodness-of-fit is adequate, the model supports the plausibility of the stated relations among variables; if not adequate, the tenability of such relations is rejected (Byrne, 2014; Quintana & Maxwell, 1999). It also acknowledges and accounts for errors in construct measurements and provides for the strength of the relationships among constructs (Byrne, 2014).

Linear Structural Relations, or LISREL version 8.9 (Jöreskog & Sörborm, 2007) was used for performing the SEM analysis mentioned above. Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) refer to LISREL as a preferred software package that is in a commanding position for covariance structure analysis and has successfully defended itself against takeover by other emerging covariance packages.

This study will follow the five different but interrelated SEM steps of model specification, model identification, estimation of parameters/model estimation, model testing, model re-specification/modification and model cross-validation, which characterise most applications of SEM (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

- *Model specification.* This SEM step is aimed at explaining the nature and number of parameters to be estimated in terms of the specific indicators for each construct in the measurement model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Byrne, 2014). It involves four pieces of information, namely numbers of observed variables, latent variables, the form of each matrix to be analysed and the estimated status of each matrix (Byrne, 2014).
- *Model identification.* This step entails defining the structure and computation of the model parameters best suited regarding the sample data. During the model specification one defines the hypothesised relationships among variables in an SEM based on one's knowledge. During the stage of model identification one checks if the model is over-identified, just-identified or under-identified, by comparing the number of data points to the number of parameters to be estimated (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).
- *Estimation of model parameters.* This step entails using a statistical programme to determine the values of the unknown or free parameters and their associated

errors (Weston & Gore, 2006). ML was used for parameter estimation, using the LISREL package estimation given.

- *Testing model fit.* This is the overall fit assessment. The model fit step entails determining the extent to which the model represents the data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). In a nutshell, this is when one determines the degree to which the model as a whole is consistent with the empirical data. Model fit assessment will be done at three levels (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Firstly, at the comprehensive level, the overall model was tested as a whole for its consistency with the available data. Several goodness-of-fit indices are produced by SEM programmes LISREL generates a number of these indices, including Chi-square statistic, Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), PFI, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), to mention a few. The report includes a number of these indices. Secondly, at measurement model level, the model was tested for the validity and reliability of the measures or indicators of the model's latent variables. This was achieved by a detailed inspection of the magnitude and significance of the paths between the constructs and their measures or indicators from the un-standardised and standardised parameter solutions or loadings. Reliability was assessed in terms of the composite reliability values as well as average variance extracted. Thirdly, at structural model level, the model was tested for its plausibility in terms of the paths or the relationships between the constructs or variables of the study. LISREL was also used to generate the output of the t-values, which were then assessed in terms of magnitude, direction, whether they were positive or negative and the squared multiple correlations (R^2) (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Also, power assessment of the model was evaluated to assess "the extent to which the probability exists that an incorrect model will be rejected" (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 23).
- *Model re-specification or modification.* This step entailed ensuring the fit by improving the model fit if poor fit was detected. In LISREL the possible modification strategies for measurement and structural models include freeing parameters that were fixed during model identification and/or fixing parameters that were freed during model identification (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Modification indices, residual statistics, expected parameter change (EPC) values, standardised expected parameter change (SEPC) values, and a normal

probability, which all form part of LISREL output, were used for model modification purposes when a need for model modification arose.

- *Model cross-validation.* This is the last step in SEM and is associated with examining the extent to which a model reproduces the model in a sample other than the one that was used to derive it (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). This step would only be necessary when the initial model fit proved to be poor and was subsequently modified or re-specified.

3.10 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is the technique used to measure the relationship between two or more variables (Pallant, 2016). The different types of regression analysis include stepwise multiple regression, hierarchical multiple regression and standard regression (Babbie, 2007). Stepwise regression is used when the researcher seeks to select the variables that will proceed into the final analysis, whereas hierarchical multiple regression is applied when the predictor variables are in the model in a specific sequence for the said research theory. Standard regression is used when the researcher enters the selected number of variables into an equation simultaneously without any specification or sequence and the predictive power of all those identified variables is compared to others (Babbie, 2007) Therefore, for the purpose of this research a simple linear multiple regression was used only in instances where the LISREL could not perform the analysis.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Empirical behavioural research requires the active and passive involvement of individuals. Participating in research studies may impose on their dignity, rights, safety or well-being. On that note, Engelbrecht (2012) states that the researcher must reflect on the potential ethical risks and consider whether the purpose of the research endeavour justifies any compromises. In this research study no serious potential ethical risks or discomfort were anticipated. However, ethical clearance from the Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee (2006) as well as Chief Defence Intelligence in the DOD were prerequisites for commencing with this research.

The letter requesting authority to conduct research with the Department of Defence through the command structures was therefore drafted and forwarded to Defence Intelligence for internal screening and ensuring that the questionnaire and study proposal were vetted for potential security threats. The authority was granted and only then was the application forwarded to the Ethics Committee in Stellenbosch University for robust screening of the

impact that this research would have on the participants and to ensure that all protocol, regulations and stipulations were adhered to as required by the Research Council.

The Ethical Rules for Research (2006) stipulate that participation in a research study must be voluntary. Therefore, the data collection procedure, confidentiality, participation and withdrawal were to be discussed with research participants. Informed consent was obtained from individual participants before they completed the self-report questionnaires. They were assured that personal data would remain confidential and this information was also attached to the questionnaire explaining the purpose of the study.

This dissertation will be made available to the participants who are interested. Furthermore, this study adhered to the corona virus COVID-19 regulations and guidelines. It was for this reason that there was no interaction during the process of obtaining the questionnaire: respondents completed it in the comfort of their homes or offices for collection from secure drop boxes.

3.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the proposed structural model and highlighted the relevant hypotheses. It unpacked the research design that was employed in conducting this research and the instruments that were used to unpack the identified hypotheses. Lastly, it provided the statistical analysis approach that was employed to answer the overarching research question. The next segment of this paper will present the results of this study.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide results statistical results obtained from the different statistical analyses that were conducted on the completion of this study, namely

- descriptive statistics to check that there were no violations on any assumption made by the individual's test;
- item analysis to assess internal consistency/reliability of the measures;
- factor analysis to determine item loadings on the five scales that were used in order to gather data;
- confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the model fit and to confirm the hypotheses of this research study; and finally
- the comprehensive structural model to ascertain the model fit to assess all hypothesised relationships.

4.2 Item Analysis

Item analysis was conducted on all five scales that were used to measure the variables. The purpose was to determine the internal consistency with which the items of the scale were measuring the underlying attribute. SPSS (2020) was used to perform the item analysis.

4.2.1 Perceived Organisational Support Revised Scale Item Analysis

An 8-item Perceived Organisational Support Scale developed by Rhodes & Eisenberger (2010) was used to measure Perceived Organisational Support in this study. A Cronbach Alpha of .811 was obtained for an 8-item scale. This is considered to reflect good reliability (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The mean inter-item correlation values ranged between .141 and .646, depicting relatively low to moderate but definite correlations among the scale items and suggesting substantial relationships among the items. According to Meyers et al. (2013), the corrected-item-total correlation is a correlation between an item score and the remaining items in the set, corrected in such a way that the total does not include the total of the items in question. Item values below .30 suggest that the item could be measuring a different construct (Pallant, 2016). As indicated in Table 4.1, under item-total statistics all the corrected-item-total correlations were larger than .30, depicting that all items are measuring the same construct. None of the items would result in an increase in Alpha if deleted.

Table: 4.1*The Reliability Analysis for the Perceived Organisational Support Scale*

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix								
	POS1	POS4	POS6	POS8	POS2rev	POS3rev	POS5rev	POS7rev
POS1	1.000							
POS4	.541	1.000						
POS6	.540	.646	1.000					
POS8	.438	.535	.550	1.000				
POS2rev	.248	.192	.249	.253	1.000			
POS3rev	.169	.299	.232	.141	.423	1.000		
POS5rev	.262	.259	.260	.270	.535	.449	1.000	
POS7rev	.283	.237	.304	.170	.420	.407	.488	1.000

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Item-Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
POS1	23.2580	24.106	.532	.789
POS4	23.3945	23.684	.584	.782
POS6	23.5053	23.203	.601	.779
POS8	23.3326	24.624	.503	.793
POS2rev	23.5288	23.921	.496	.795
POS3rev	23.3241	24.980	.453	.800
POS5rev	23.4627	23.959	.548	.787
POS7rev	23.6119	23.964	.495	.795

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
26.7740	30.594	5.53119	8

4.2.2 Procedural Justice Subscale

The 6-item subscale of the Procedural Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) that was used in this study was one of the three dimensions of Organisational Justice. After entering the six items in the analysis, a compromised Cronbach's Alpha of .621 was obtained. An inspection of the Cronbach-Alpha-if-item-deleted column indicated that deleting item 6 would increase the Cronbach's Alpha to .874; it was subsequently deleted. As indicated in Table 4.2, a Cronbach Alpha of .874 was obtained for the five-item scale after deleting item 6. This is considered to be a good reliability (Pallant, 2016). The mean inter-item correlation values ranged between .464 and .759, depicting a moderate to good relationship, suggesting substantial relationships among the scale items. Table 4.2 also indicated scale-statistics that present the mean and standard deviation of the items of the Procedural Justice Subscale. All the corrected item-total correlations were larger than .30, indicating that they were all measuring the same construct. Of all the item statistics, only one item (PJ1) indicated a slight increase from .874 to .877 of the Cronbach-Alpha-if-item-deleted column. There is therefore is a substantial relationship among the items in the procedural justice subscale.

Table 4.2

The Reliability Analysis for the Procedural Justice Subscale

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.874	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix					
	OJ1	OJ2	OJ3	OJ4	OJ5
PJ1	1.000				
PJ2	.478	1.000			
PJ3	.523	.759	1.000		
PJ4	.506	.698	.703	1.000	
PJ5	.464	.556	.566	.588	1.000

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean	ifScale Variance	ifCorrected Total	Cronbach's Item-Alpha
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Correlation Deleted	if Item Deleted
PJ1	12.5870	16.356	.575	.877
PJ2	12.4528	14.874	.760	.834
PJ3	12.3564	14.965	.784	.829
PJ4	12.5828	14.744	.763	.833
PJ5	12.8134	15.266	.646	.863

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
15.6981	23.089	4.80514	5

4.2.3 Distributive Justice Subscale Item Analysis

The 5-item distributive justice sub-scale of Niehoff and Moorman (1993), as one of the three components to measure Organisational Justice, yielded a Cronbach Alpha of .822, as indicated in Table 4.3. This is considered to reflect good reliability (Pallant, 2016). The mean inter-item correlation values range between .303 and .732, indicating relatively low to substantial but definite small to good relationships, which suggests substantial relationships among the items. All the corrected item-total correlations were larger than .30, indicating that they were all measuring the same construct. The item-total statistics indicated that none of the items would result to an increase on Cronbach's Alpha coefficient if deleted.

Table 4.3

The Reliability Analysis for the Distributive Justice Subscale

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.822	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix					
	DJ1	DJ2	DJ3	DJ4	DJ5
DJ1	1.000				
DJ2	.303	1.000			
DJ3	.583	.389	1.000		
DJ4	.356	.624	.485	1.000	
DJ5	.570	.382	.732	.555	1.000

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale	Mean	ifScale	Variance	ifCorrected	Cronbach's
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Item-Alpha	if Item
				Correlation	Deleted	
DJ1	13.3920	12.331	.546	.807		
DJ2	14.3396	10.263	.538	.821		
DJ3	13.6184	10.926	.682	.769		
DJ4	14.0629	10.236	.664	.772		
DJ5	13.5346	11.060	.707	.764		

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
17.2369	16.400	4.04965	5

4.2.4 Interactional Justice Subscale Item Analysis

Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) 9-item subscale of interactional justice, as one of the three components Organisational Justice, produced a Cronbach Alpha of .970. as indicated in Table 4.4, indicates an excellent internal consistency reliability (Pallant, 2016). The mean inter-item correlation values range between .702 and .867, indicating relatively high good to excellent relationship correlation. All the item-statistics means exceeded .30, which is considered acceptable (Pallant, 2016). The item-total statistics indicated that none of the items would result in an increase on alpha coefficient if deleted.

Table 4.4*The Reliability Analysis for the Interactional Justice Subscale*

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's AlphaN of Items	
.970	9

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix									
	IJ1	IJ2	IJ3	IJ4	IJ5	IJ6	IJ7	IJ8	IJ9
IJ1	1.000								
IJ2	.849	1.000							
IJ3	.749	.795	1.000						
IJ4	.758	.823	.791	1.000					
IJ5	.767	.783	.782	.816	1.000				
IJ6	.720	.752	.752	.779	.766	1.000			
IJ7	.757	.739	.738	.787	.792	.823	1.000		
IJ8	.759	.783	.742	.794	.808	.808	.834	1.000	
IJ9	.766	.769	.702	.763	.771	.769	.829	.867	1.000

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Total Variance if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Item-Alpha if Item Deleted
IJ1	27.1828	61.013	.849	.967
IJ2	27.1176	61.161	.876	.966
IJ3	27.2899	60.863	.838	.967
IJ4	27.1807	60.742	.879	.965
IJ5	27.2836	60.646	.875	.966
IJ6	27.3004	60.320	.857	.966
IJ7	27.3403	60.684	.878	.965
IJ8	27.3214	59.604	.893	.965
IJ9	27.2773	60.125	.868	.966

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
30.6618	76.372	8.73909	9

4.2.5 Organisational Trust Scale Item Analysis

When all 7-items of Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) Organisational Trust scale were included in the item analysis, the scale obtained a Cronbach Alpha value of .583, which is considered questionable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The item-total statistics initially demonstrated a significant increase in the Cronbach Alpha value if items 5, 6 and 7 were to be deleted. After deleting item 6 the Cronbach Alpha had a slight increase to .686. The item statistics indicated that if item 7 were also deleted the Cronbach Alpha would substantially improve to a coefficient of .771, as illustrated in Table 4.5. Item 7 was then deleted, providing a significant increase on the Cronbach Alpha value to .775, which is regarded as acceptable. (Pallant, 2016). All the corrected item-total correlations were larger than .30, indicating that they were all measuring the same construct, except for item 5 (.251), which is below .30. Deleting item 5 would increase the Cronbach Alpha to .821, which was not warranted given that the increase is not substantial. The mean inter-item correlation values range between .484 and .627, depicting relatively low to moderate but definite correlations among the scale items and suggesting substantial relationships among items.

Table 4.5

The Reliability Analysis for the Organisational Trust Subscale

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.775	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix					
	OT1	OT2	OT3	OT4	OT5
OT1	1.000				
OT2	.555	1.000			
OT3	.575	.421	1.000		
OT4	.565	.489	.634	1.000	
OT5	.223	.145	.230	.221	1.000

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean	ifScale Variance	ifCorrected	Cronbach's	if	Item
	Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Total	Item-Alpha	Item	Deleted
OT1	13.4313	9.725	.671	.690		
OT2	13.9641	9.967	.545	.737		
OT3	13.0550	10.298	.642	.704		
OT4	13.4968	9.861	.663	.694		
OT5	13.3679	12.716	.251	.821		

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
16.8288	15.553	3.94376	5

4.2.6 Organisational Identification Scale Item Analysis

Mael and Ashfort's (1992) 6-item scale of organisation identification achieved an internal consistency reliability Cronbach's Alpha of .868, which is regarded as excellent (Pallant, 2016), as indicated in Table 4.6. The mean inter-item correlation values ranged between .484 and .630, indicating relatively low but definite small to good correlations and suggesting substantial relationships among the scale items. The corrected item-total correlations exceeded .30 which is considered acceptable (Pallant, 2016). The item-total statistics indicated that none of the items would result in an increase in Cronbach's Alpha coefficient if deleted.

Table 4.6*The Reliability Analysis for the Organisational Identification Scale*

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	
.868	6

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix						
	OI1	OI2	OI3	OI4	OI5	OI6
OI1	1.000					
OI2	.484	1.000				
OI3	.537	.591	1.000			
OI4	.542	.499	.612	1.000		
OI5	.494	.569	.630	.627	1.000	
OI6	.467	.413	.496	.439	.490	1.000

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Total Variance	Corrected Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Item
OI1	19.3200	14.589	.637	.851		
OI2	19.3853	14.550	.644	.850		
OI3	19.2821	14.017	.738	.833		
OI4	19.4126	14.158	.692	.841		
OI5	19.3958	14.181	.721	.836		
OI6	19.2884	14.581	.573	.863		

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
23.2168	20.128	4.48642	6

4.2.7 Affective Commitment Scale Item Analysis

Meyer et al.'s (2002) 6-item scale of Affective Commitment returned a Cronbach Alpha of .876, which is regarded as good (Pallant, 2016), as indicated in Table 4.7. The mean inter-item correlation values range between .407 and .714, suggesting moderate to high relationships among items. The corrected item-total correlations exceeded .30, which is considered acceptable (Pallant, 2016). The item-total statistics indicated that none of the items would result in an increase to the alpha coefficient if deleted.

Table 4.7

The Reliability Analysis for the Affective Commitment Scale

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	
N of Items	
.876	6

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix						
	AOC1	AOC2	AOC3	AOC4	AOC5	AOC6
AOC1	1.000					
AOC2	.714	1.000				
AOC3	.583	.563	1.000			
AOC4	.661	.651	.695	1.000		
AOC5	.532	.513	.465	.592	1.000	
AOC6	.461	.499	.407	.562	.536	1.000

Item-Total Statistics						
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Total	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Item-Mean
AOC1	18.8414	16.824	.727	.846		
AOC2	18.7442	17.564	.730	.848		
AOC3	18.4820	18.678	.658	.860		
AOC4	18.6047	17.468	.794	.839		
AOC5	19.0867	16.012	.652	.865		
AOC6	19.0317	16.955	.604	.870		

Scale Statistics			
Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
22.5581	24.239	4.92328	6

4.3 Dimensionality Analysis

According to Steenkamp and Van Trijp (1991), the purpose of a dimensionality analysis is to determine whether the measure or scale consists of a single dimension. In, other words, as Pallant (2016) puts it, to determine whether the number of factors, components and dimensions in the scale are unidimensional or multidimensional. According to Hair et al. (2006) when contracting the scale, the baseline intention is that the items in the scale should represent each variable exclusively.

Uni-dimensional means that a set of measured variables has only one underlying construct. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), was used to investigate whether the number of factors satisfactorily explain the observed variable and to determine the factor loadings. The SPSS (2020) Data Reduction and Factor Analysis function was used to interpret the component output for each scale and to verify the factor analysis by inspecting that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measures of Sampling Adequacy (KMO), together with the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, the degrees of freedom and the significant level which will result in either accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis and determining whether the factor is analysable based on the sufficient evidence provided by the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2016). According to Pallant (2016), to verify a data set that is suitable for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value should be .6 or above and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value would be significant when it is .05 or smaller. The EFA results are presented and discussed below.

4.3.1 The Dimensionality Output of the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale

The initial round of conducting exploratory factor analysis on the Perceived Organisational Support scale could not provide uni-dimensionality, indicating the existence of two factors. Items 2,3 and 5 of the scale were removed systematically and further rounds of EFA were performed. The subsequent revised Perceived Organisational Support scale KMO measure of sampling adequacy provided a value of .774, which exceed the recommended value of .6 (Pallant, 2016). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity achieved a statistical significance of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix with an acceptable degrees of freedom

(df = 21). After the deletion of items 2,3 and 5, the scale was unidimensional and reached a statistical significance of 0.00 with the acceptable degrees of freedom (df = .10) as shown in Table 4.8. The factor matrix loadings provided by Table 4.9 show that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily, as all loadings are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.10, there is only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 45,840% variance on the factor. The unidimensionality assumption is therefore supported.

Table 4.8

KMO and Bartlett's Test for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.810
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	730.462
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.9

Factor Matrix for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor 1
POS1	.678
POS4	.796
POS6	.819
POS8	.655
POS7rev	.313

Table 4.10*Total Variance Explained for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.753	55.053	55.053	2.292	45.840	45.840
2	.901	18.020	73.073			
3	.555	11.099	84.172			
4	.443	8.861	93.033			
5	.348	6.967	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.**4.3.2 The Dimensionality Output of Procedural Justice Subscale**

The dimensionality analysis of the procedural justice subscale produced a KMO value of .862, as shown in Table 4.11, which also exceeds the recommended value. The Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Moreover, EFA presented an acceptable df with the value of .10. The factor matrix loadings provided in Table 4.12 indicate that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily, as all loadings are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.13, there is only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 59.605% variance of the factor. The unidimensionality assumption is therefore supported.

Table 4.11*KMO and Bartlett's Test for Procedural Justice Subscale*

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1230.721
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.12*Factor Matrix for Procedural Justice Subscale*

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor 1
PJ1	.610
PJ2	.837
PJ3	.862
PJ4	.831
PJ5	.688

Table 4.13*Total Variance Explained for Revised Procedural Justice Subscale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.355	67.096	67.096	2.980	59.605	59.605
2	.594	11.879	78.976			
3	.500	9.996	88.971			
4	.313	6.258	95.229			
5	.239	4.771	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

4.3.3 The Dimensionality Output of Distributive Justice Subscale

The dimensionality analysis of the distributive justice subscale produced a KMO value of .769, as illustrated in Table 4.14, which also exceeds the recommended value; the Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Moreover, the EFA produced an acceptable df with the value of 10. The factor matrix loadings provided in Table 4.15 indicate that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily, as all loadings are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.16, there is only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 51,088% variance of the factor. The unidimensionality assumption is therefore supported.

Table 4.14*KMO and Bartlett's Test for Distributive Justice Subscale*

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.769
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1020.330
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.15*Factor Matrix for Distributive Justice Subscale*

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor
	1
DJ1	.635
DJ2	.562
DJ3	.810
DJ4	.691
DJ5	.838

Table 4.16*Total Variance Explained for Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.010	60.194	60.194	2.554	51.088	51.088
2	.906	18.111	78.304			
3	.481	9.621	87.926			
4	.354	7.077	95.003			
5	.250	4.997	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

4.3.4 The Dimensionality Output of Interactional Justice Subscale

The dimensionality analysis of the interactional justice subscale produced a KMO value of .952, as illustrated in Table 4.17, exceeding the recommended value of .6; the Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The EFA results presented an acceptable df with the value of 36. The factor matrix loadings in Table 4.18 indicate that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all loadings are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.19, there is only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 78.039% variance of the factor. The unidimensionality assumption is therefore supported.

Table 4.17

KMO and Bartlett's Test for Interactional Justice Subscale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.952
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5092.654
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.18

Factor Matrix for Distributive Justice Subscale

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor
	1
IJ1	.865
IJ2	.892
IJ3	.853
IJ4	.894
IJ5	.890
IJ6	.872
IJ7	.893
IJ8	.908
IJ9	.883

Table 4.19*Total Variance Explained for Revised Distributive Justice Subscale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.242	80.468	80.468	7.023	78.039	78.039
2	.411	4.572	85.039			
3	.313	3.476	88.515			
4	.231	2.563	91.078			
5	.200	2.226	93.304			
6	.194	2.160	95.464			
7	.169	1.881	97.345			
8	.122	1.356	98.701			
9	.117	1.299	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

4.3.5 The Dimensionality Output of the Revised Organisational Trust

The initial round of exploratory factor analysis of the Organisational Trust scale could not provide the unidimensionality as it indicated the existence of two factors. This resulted in the last 3 items of the scale (5,6 & 7) being removed systematically and another round performed after each deletion. The subsequent revised Organisational Trust scale KMO measure of sampling adequacy provided a value of .673, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Pallant, 2016). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix with acceptable degrees of freedom ($df = 6$). The loadings results indicated that most items loaded strongly on the first factors, whereas item 5, 6 and 7 cross-loaded poorly on two factors. To improve this scale, these items were then systematically deleted. After the deletion of these three items the scale was unidimensional. The factor matrix loadings of the revised scale portrayed in Table 4.21 shows that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all loading are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.22, there is one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 37.654% of variance of the factor. The unidimensionality assumption is therefore supported.

Table 4.20*Dimensionality Analysis for Revised Organisational Trust Scale*

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.673
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	146.949
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.21*Factor Matrix for Revised Organisational Trust Scale*

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor
	1
OT1	.779
OT2	.638
OT3	.748
OT4	.781

Table 4.22*Total Variance Explained for Organisational Trust Scale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.056	51.389	51.389	1.506	37.647	37.647
2	.792	19.788	71.177			
3	.718	17.954	89.131			
4	.435	10.869	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

4.3.6 Dimensionality Output for Organisational Identification Scale

Dimensionality analysis of the Organisational Identification scale produced a KMO value of .840, which exceeds the recommended value of .6, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Moreover, EFA results presented an acceptable df with the value of 15. The factor matrix loadings provided by Table 4.24 show that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all loadings are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.25, there is only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 78.039% variance of the factor. The unidimensionality assumption of this scale is therefore supported.

Table 4.23

KMO and Bartlett's Test for Organisational Identification Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.840
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	729.19
	df	15
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.24

Factor Matrix for Organisational Identification Scale

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor 1
IJ1	.865
IJ2	.892
IJ3	.853
IJ4	.894
IJ5	.890
IJ6	.872
IJ7	.893
IJ8	.908
IJ9	.883

Table 4.25*Total Variance Explained for Organisational Identification Scale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.242	80.468	80.468	7.023	78.039	78.039
2	.411	4.572	85.039			
3	.313	3.476	88.515			
4	.231	2.563	91.078			
5	.200	2.226	93.304			
6	.194	2.160	95.464			
7	.169	1.881	97.345			
8	.122	1.356	98.701			
9	.117	1.299	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.**4.3.7 Dimensionality Output for the Affective Commitment Scale**

Dimensionality analysis of the Affective Commitment scale produced a KMO value of .875, exceeding the recommended value and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2016). EFA results presented an acceptable df with the value of .15. The pattern matrix loadings provided in Table 4.27 indicate that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all loadings are larger than .5. As illustrated in Table 4.28, there is only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining the 56.936% variance of the factor. The unidimensionality assumption of the Affective Commitment scale is therefore supported.

Table 4.26*KMO and Bartlett's Test for Affective Commitment Scale*

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.875
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	1472.638
	Df
	15
	Sig.
	.000

Table 4.27*Factor Matrix for Affective Commitment Scale*

Factor Matrix^a	
	Factor 1
AOC1	.798
AOC2	.793
AOC3	.724
AOC4	.867
AOC5	.687
AOC6	.635

Table 4.28*Total Variance Explained for Affective Commitment Scale*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.827	63.786	63.786	3.416	56.936	56.936
2	.676	11.264	75.050			
3	.493	8.211	83.261			
4	.461	7.676	90.936			
5	.281	4.691	95.628			
6	.262	4.372	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

4.4 Evaluating the Fit of Measurement Models Using Confirmatory Factor Analysis in LISREL

According to Hair et al. (2006), the purpose of carrying out the CFA is to provide statistical evidence on whether the identified variables are adequately defined in terms of the common variance among the items in a measurement model.

Furthermore, CFA is used to ascertain whether the operationalisation of the latent variables comprising the measurement model in terms of items indicators was successful. The following section explores the CFA by providing the Goodness-of-Fit statistics, which should be at least above .9 or preferably above .95 (Hair et al., 2006), the unstandardised Lambda-X as well as the completely standardised solution, obtained from LISREL output. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000), RMSEA values of less than 0.05 are indicative of a good fit, between 0.05 and 0.08 of a reasonable fit, 0.10 a mediocre fit and >0.10 a poor fit.

4.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale

CFA was conducted on the items of the revised Perceived Organisational Support scale. The measurement model was treated as an exogenous model simply due to programming advantages when conducting CFA. The imputed data was captured first into PRELIS to compute a covariance matrix and an asymptotic covariance to serve as input for the LISREL analysis (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). All the variables were defined as continuous and robust maximum likelihood estimation was used to estimate the parameters set free in the model because of the lack of multivariate normality in the data. The measurement model converged in three iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown in Table 4.29, which shows that the degrees of freedom is 2 with a Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 26.49 ($P = 0.00$). In addition to that, RMSEA confirms a good fit with the value of 0.048. The lower RMSEA value and 90% confidence interval RMSEA in this case indicates good fit, since it is 0.0. The Standardised RMR 0.028 indicates an acceptable fit. GFI and AGFI as the indicator of the amount of covariance and variances accounted for in the model should range between 0 and 1. In this study $GFI = 0.99$ and $AGFI = 0.97$; thus all reflect an acceptable fit. However, the PGFI (0.33) failed to reach .90. The revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale measurement model achieved NNFI (0.99), CFI (0.99), IFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.98), all exceeding .90 threshold, suggesting a good fit. In general, Table 4.29 shows a good fit according to the above-mentioned indices.

Table 4.29*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 5
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 13.96 (P = 0.016)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 13.70 (P = 0.018)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 10.37 (P = 0.066)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 10.99 (P = 0.052)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 5.37
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (0.0; 18.69)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.029
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.011
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.0; 0.039)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.048
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.0; 0.089)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.48
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.064
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.053; 0.092)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.063
ECVI for Independence Model	= 1.90
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom	= 890.50
Independence AIC	= 900.50
Model AIC	= 30.37
Saturated AIC	= 30.00
Independence CAIC	= 926.33
Model CAIC	= 82.02
Saturated CAIC	= 107.48
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.49
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.98
Critical N (CN)	= 692.44
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.032
Standardised RMR	= 0.028
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.99
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.97
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.33

4.4.1.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix

Another important consideration that needed to be examined to reach a conclusion on the success of the operationalisation of the latent variables is the unstandardised Lambda-x matrix. This matrix provides an indication of the statistical significance of the slope of the regression of the observed variables onto their respective latent variables (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw 2000). The unstandardised Lambda-x matrix contains the regression coefficients of the regression of the manifest variables on the latent variables they were linked to. It also provides an indication of validity of measures by means of significance of indicator loadings. According to Anuwichanont & Mechinda (2011), the regression coefficients of these variables are significant ($p < .05$) if the t-values, as indicated in the matrix, exceed 1.65. As indicated in the Table 4.30, the t-values are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of indicators.

Table 4.30

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale

	POS
POS1	0.69 (0.05) 13.19
POS4	0.80 (0.05) 16.96
POS6	0.86 (0.05) 19.12
POS8	0.66 (0.05) 12.30
POS7rev	0.36 (0.07) 4.88

4.4.1.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Hair et al. (2006) reckoned that estimates loadings are significant because they provide a useful start in assessing the convergent validity of the measurement model. Table 4.31 provides results on the estimates for each Perceived Organisational Support item. Davis (2014) maintains that standardised estimates highlight the average changes in standard deviation in the observed variable directly resulting from one standard deviation change in a latent variable to which it is linked, holding the effect of all other variables constant.

The standard factor loading can also be interpreted as the correlation coefficient (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The Lambda-X matrix which specifies the links between exogenous variables and their indicators specifies that all loadings should be at least .5 and preferably .7 to be considered a threshold for reliability construct (Hair et al, 2006). Table 4.31 provides factor loadings of the items, which are generally large (>0.50) with the exception of the one item (POS7rev) which is still considered acceptable. Overall, there is enough evidence on fit of the revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale measurement model to corroborate a good fit. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

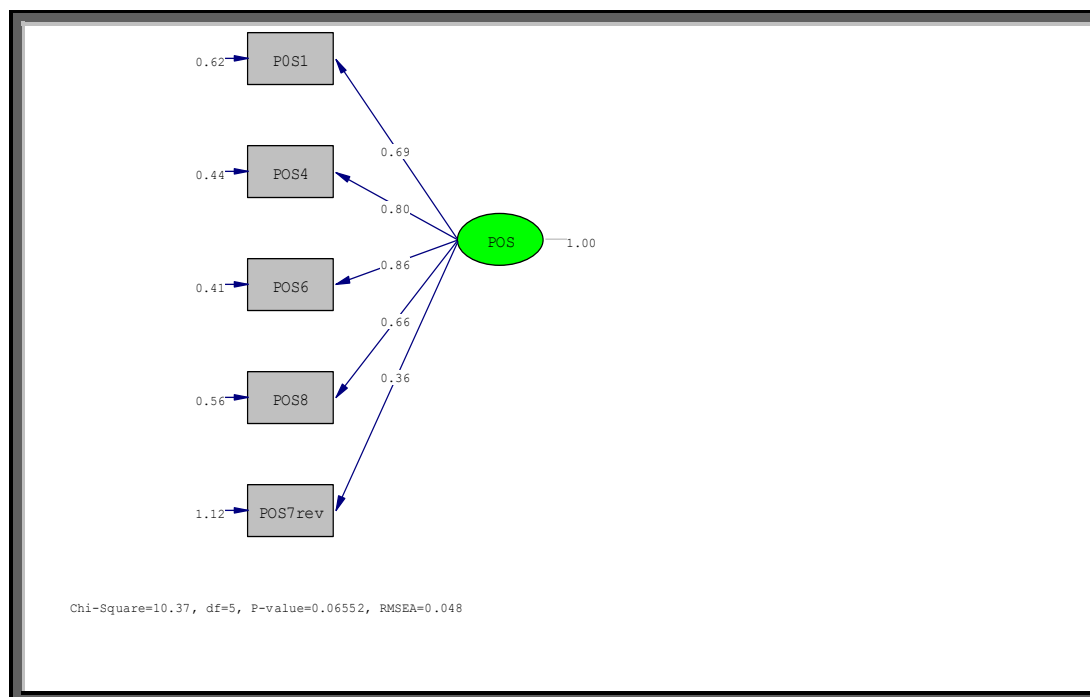
Table 4.31

Completely Standardised Factor Loading Estimates for the Perceived Organisational Support Revised Scale

	POS
POS1	0.66
POS4	0.77
POS6	0.80
POS8	0.66
POS7rev	0.32

Figure 4.1

The Factor Loading Model for Perceived Organisational Support Revised Scale



Note. A factor loading model produced by LISREL output provides item loadings for the Revised Perceived Organisational Support Scale.

4.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Procedural Justice Subscale

The measurement model converged in five iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown in Table 4.32, which 4.32 shows that the degrees of freedom is 5, with the Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 10.58 ($P = 0.060$). This indicates a poor fit, according to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000). The RMSEA indicates a good fit, with the value of 0.048 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The lower RMSEA 90% confidence interval RMSEA in this case indicates good fit since it is 0.0.

The Standardised RMR of 0.028 indicates an acceptable fit. GFI and AGFI, which indicate the amount of covariance and variances for the model, should range between 0 and 1. In this study $GFI = 0.99$ and $AGFI = 0.96$ all reflect an acceptable fit. This is supported by the PGFI, which is 0.33. The procedural justice subscale measurement model achieved NNFI (0.99), CFI (1.00), IFI (1.00), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.99), which exceeded the .90 threshold, suggesting a good fit. In general, Table 4.32 shows a good fit according to the above-mentioned indications.

Table 4.32*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Procedural Justice Subscale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 5
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 16.28 (P = 0.0061)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 17.04 (P = 0.0044)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 10.58 (P = 0.060)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 9.55 (P = 0.089)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 5.58
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (0.0 ; 19.03)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.034
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.012
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.0 ; 0.040)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.048
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.0 ; 0.089)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.46
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.064
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.052 ; 0.092)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.063
ECVI for Independence Model	= 3.53
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom	= 1674.80
Independence AIC	= 1684.80
Model AIC	= 30.58
Saturated AIC	= 30.00
Independence CAIC	= 1710.65
Model CAIC	= 82.28
Saturated CAIC	= 107.54
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.50
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 1.00
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 1.00
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.99
Critical N (CN)	= 681.11
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.031
Standardised RMR	= 0.022
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.99
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.96
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.33

4.4.2.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Procedural Justice Subscale

Table 4.33 presents the unstandardised Lambda-X matrix results of the factor loadings of the procedural justice subscale. Lambda-X matrix indicator loadings are significant in the current model, with highlighted t-values above the threshold (1.65). In Table 4.33 below the t-values are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of the indicators.

Table 4.33

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Procedural Justice Subscale

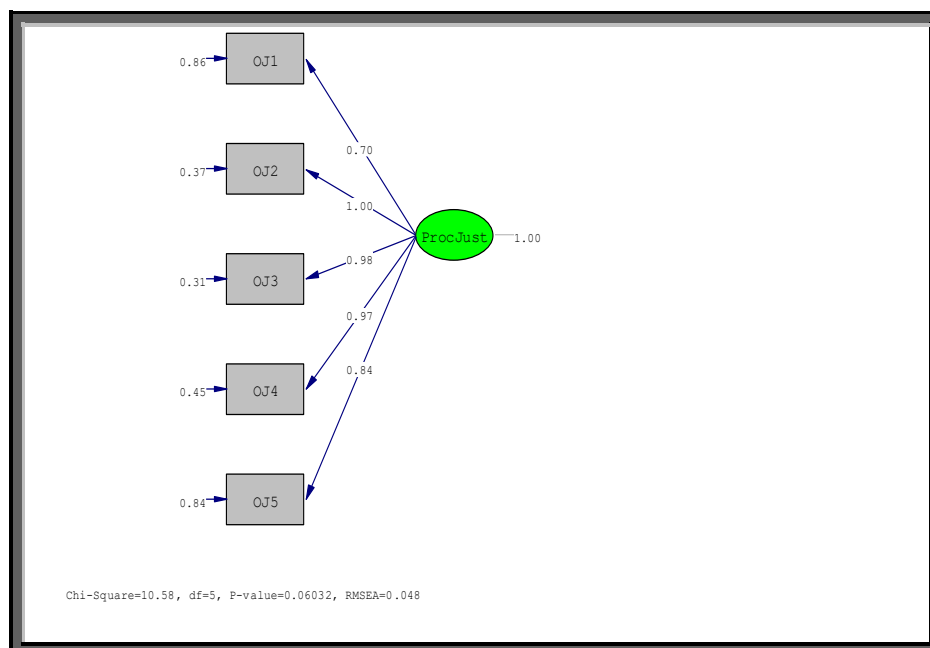
	ProcJust
PJ1	0.70 (0.05) 12.97
PJ2	1.00 (0.04) 26.78
PJ3	0.98 (0.04) 22.63
PJ4	0.97 (0.04) 24.74
PJ5	0.84 (0.05) 17.83

4.4.2.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Table 4.34 shows the results on the completely standardised solution estimates for the revised procedural justice subscale. Estimate factor loadings are ranging from .60 and to .87. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000), the validity of the indicators is confirmed by significant factor loadings. The values, all greater than .50, are considered acceptable. This model fits relatively well. Overall, there is enough evidence on the revised procedural justice subscale measurement model to corroborate a good fit. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

Table 4.34*Factor Loading Matrix for the Procedural Justice Subscale*

Procedural Justice	
PJ1	0.60
PJ2	0.85
PJ3	0.87
PJ4	0.82
PJ5	0.68

Figure 4.2*The Factor Loadings Model for Procedural Justice Subscale*

Note. A factor loading model produced by LISREL output. It provides item loadings for the procedural justice subscale.

4.4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale

The measurement model converged in five iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown in Table 4.35, which shows the degrees of freedom of 2 with the Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 8.96 ($P = 0.011$). This indicates a poor fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). RMSEA indicates a reasonable to poor fit with the value of 0.086 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). The lower RMSEA 90% confidence interval of 0.035 indicates a good fit. The Standardised RMR 0.021 indicates an acceptable fit. Furthermore, the GFI = 0.99 and AGFI = 0.94 indices all reflect an acceptable fit. The revised Distributive Justice Subscale measurement model achieved NNFI (0.99), CFI (0.99), IFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.97), which exceeded the .90 threshold, suggesting a good fit. In general, Table 4.35 shows a reasonable to suspect fit according to the above-mentioned indications.

Table 4.35*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 2
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 11.12 (P = 0.0039)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 11.67 (P = 0.0029)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 8.96 (P = 0.011)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 6.75 (P = 0.034)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 6.96
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (1.14; 20.27)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.023
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.015
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.0024; 0.043)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.086
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.035; 0.15)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.11
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.052
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.040; 0.080)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.042
ECVI for Independence Model	= 2.00
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 6 Degrees of Freedom	= 943.05
Independence AIC	= 951.05
Model AIC	= 24.96
Saturated AIC	= 20.00
Independence CAIC	= 971.72
Model CAIC	= 66.31
Saturated CAIC	= 71.68
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.98
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.33
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.97
Critical N (CN)	= 490.08
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.021
Standardised RMR	= 0.021
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.99
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.94
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.20

4.4.3.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale

Table 4.36 below presents the unstandardised Lambda-X matrix results of the factor loadings of the revised distributive justice subscale. The Lambda-X matrix indicator loadings are significant in the current model with highlighted t-values which are above the threshold (1.65). As indicated in Table 4.36, the t-values which are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of the indicators.

Table 4.36

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Distributive Justice Subscale

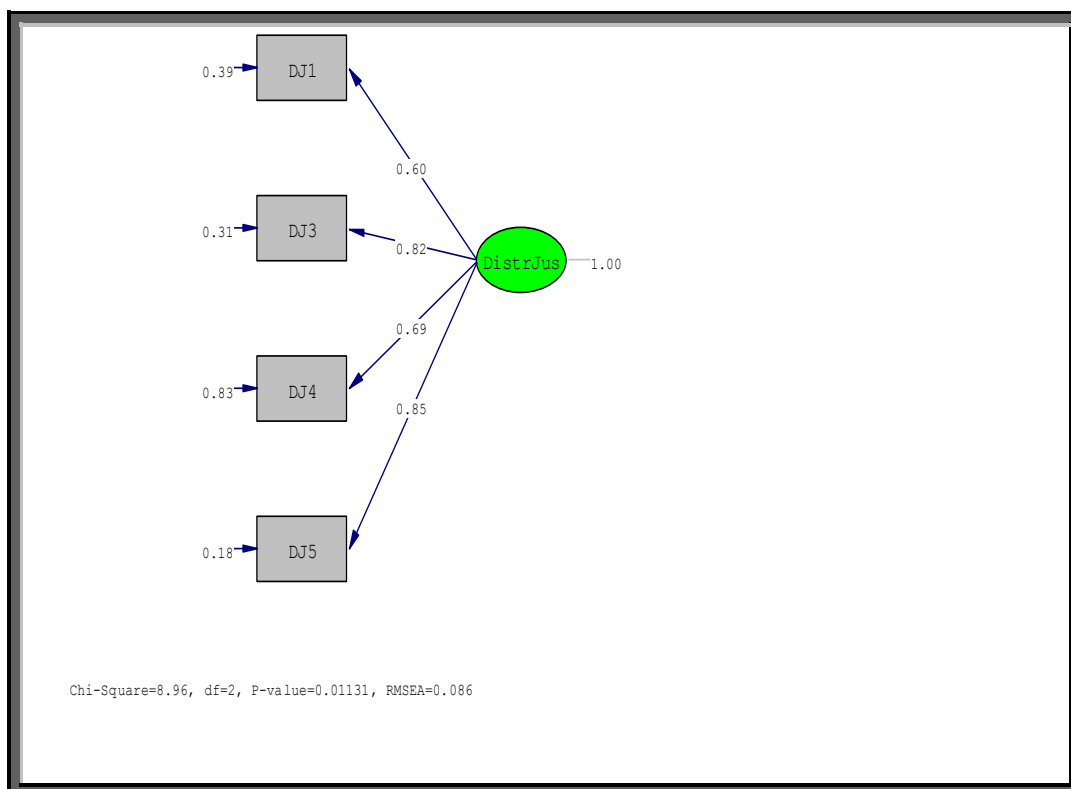
	DistrJus
DJ1	0.60 (0.05) 13.31
DJ3	0.82 (0.05) 16.33
DJ4	0.69 (0.06) 11.48
DJ5	0.85 (0.04) 19.60

4.4.3.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Table 4.37 provides results of the completely standardised solution estimates for the revised distributive justice subscale. Estimate factor loadings range from .61 to .89. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000), the validity of the indicators is confirmed by significant factor loadings. The values, which are all greater than .50, are considered acceptable. With this said, this model fits relatively well. Overall, there is enough evidence provided in the revised procedural justice subscale measurement model that a good fit can be corroborated. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

Table 4.37*Factor Loading Matrix for Distributive Justice Revised Subscale*

	DistrJus
DJ1	0.69
DJ3	0.83
DJ4	0.61
DJ5	0.89

Figure 4.3*The Factor Loading Model for Distributive Justice Revised Subscale*

Note. A factor loading model produced by LISREL output 2022 provides item loadings for the distributive justice subscale.

4.4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Interactional Justice Subscale

The measurement model converged in eight iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown in Table 4.38, which shows that the degrees of freedom is 20, with the Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 80.00 ($P = 0.00$), which does not support a good fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000).

RMSEA confirms a reasonable fit with the value of 0.079 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). The lower RMSEA 90% confidence interval of 0.062 indicates a reasonable fit. The Standardised RMR 0.025 indicates an acceptable fit. The GFI = 0.91 exceeded the .90 threshold, while AGFI = 0.84 marginally missed the cut-off level of .90, supported by PGFI = 0.71, which suggests a reasonable fit.

The revised interactional justice subscale measurement model achieved NNFI (0.99), CFI (0.99), IFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.99), which exceeds the .90 threshold, all of which suggest a good fit. Based on Table 4.38, the relative indices portray a reasonable positive picture of the model fit.

Table 4.38*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Interactional Justice Subscale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 20
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 181.59 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 187.97 (P = 0.0)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 80.00 (P = 0.00)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 71.86 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 60.00
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (36.17; 91.40)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.38
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.13
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.076; 0.19)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.079
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.062; 0.098)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.0040
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.23
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.18; 0.30)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.15
ECVI for Independence Model	= 16.51
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 28 Degrees of Freedom	= 7860.27
Independence AIC	= 7876.27
Model AIC	= 112.00
Saturated AIC	= 72.00
Independence CAIC	= 7917.63
Model CAIC	= 194.71
Saturated CAIC	= 258.11
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.71
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.99
Critical N (CN)	= 224.99
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.028
Standardised RMR	= 0.025
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.91
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.84
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.51

4.4.4.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Interactional Justice Subscale

Table 4.39 presents the unstandardised Lambda-X matrix results of the factor loadings of the revised interactional justice subscale. Lambda-X matrix indicator loadings are significant in the current model with highlighted t-values which are above the threshold (1.65). As indicated in Table 4.39, the t-values, are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of the indicators.

Table 4.39

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Interactional Justice Subscale

Interactional Justice	
IJ1	0.92 (0.04) 23.20
IJ2	0.91 (0.04) 24.65
IJ3	0.93 (0.04) 24.30
IJ4	0.94 (0.04) 24.64
IJ5	0.94 (0.04) 24.30
IJ6	0.96 (0.04) 24.48
IJ7	0.94 (0.04) 24.06
IJ8	1.01 (0.04) 27.64

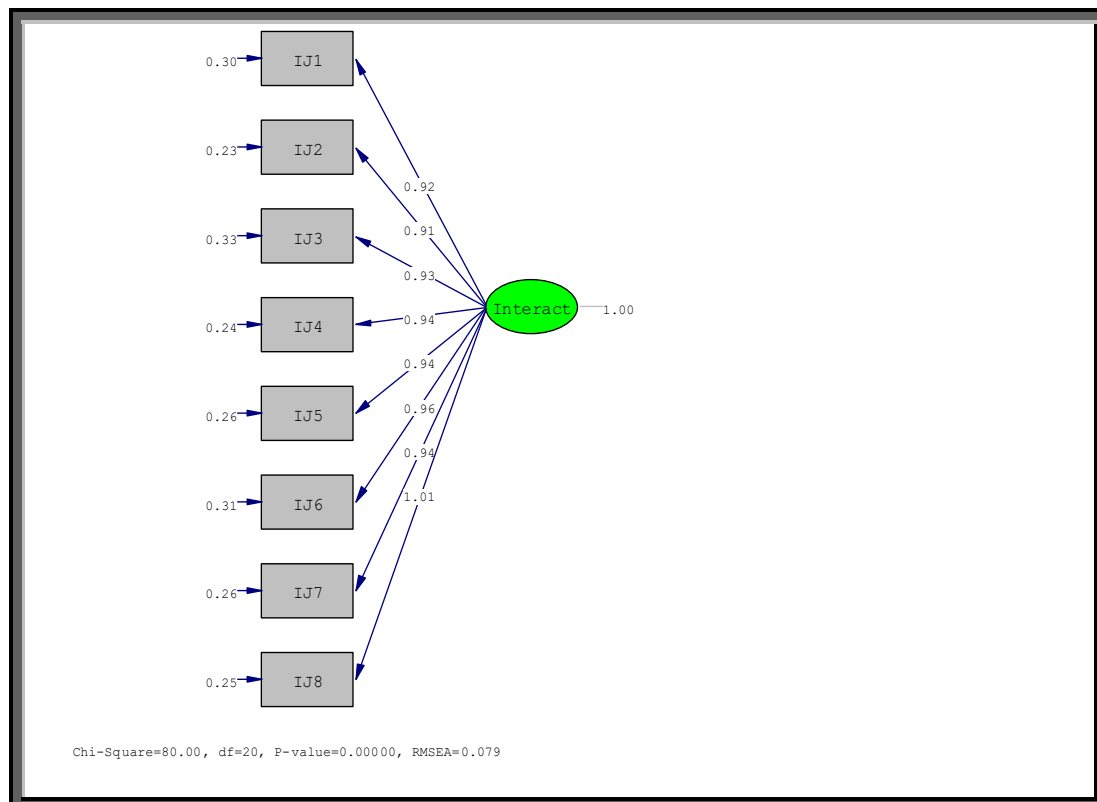
4.4.4.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Table 4.40 provides results on the completely standardised solution estimates for the revised interactional justice subscale. Estimate factor loadings range from .85 to .90. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw (2000), the validity of the indicators is confirmed by significant factor loadings. The values, which are all greater than .50, are considered acceptable. With this said, this model fits relatively well. Overall, there is enough evidence provided on the revised interactional justice subscale measurement model that a good fit can be corroborated. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

Table 4.40

Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix Justice Subscale

Interactional Justice	
IJ1	0.86
IJ2	0.88
IJ3	0.85
IJ4	0.89
IJ5	0.88
IJ6	0.87
IJ7	0.88
IJ8	0.90

Figure 4.4*The Factor Loading Model for Interactional Justice Subscale*

Note. A factor loading model produced by LISREL output 2022. It provides item loadings for the interactional justice subscale.

4.4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Organisational Trust Scale

The measurement model converged in four iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown below in Table 4.41. Table 4.41 shows that the degrees of freedom is 2, with the Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 26.49 ($P = 0.00$). This indicates a poor fit (Diamantopoulos & Sigua, 2000). The RMSEA confirms a good fit with the value of 0.12 (Diamantopoulos & Sigua, 2000). The RMSEA lower 90% confidence interval of 0.070 indicates a good fit. The Standardised RMR 0.028 indicates an acceptable fit. GFI and AGFI as the indicators of the amount of covariance and variances accounted for in the model should range between 0 and 1. In this study $GFI = 0.91$ exceeded the .90 threshold, while $AGFI = 0.86$ marginally missed the cut-off level of .90. The revised Organisational Trust scale measurement model achieved NNFI (0.95), CFI (0.98), IFI (0.98), NFI (0.95) and RFI (0.94) which exceeded the .90 threshold, all these suggests a reasonable fit. In general, Table 4.41 shows a poor fit according to the above-mentioned indications, especially the most informative index of the RMSEA.

Table 4.41*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Organisational Trust Scale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 2
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 26.15 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 26.49 (P = 0.00)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 15.83 (P = 0.00036)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 15.51 (P = 0.00043)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 13.83
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (4.68; 30.43)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.055
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.029
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.0099; 0.064)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.12
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.070; 0.18)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.013
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.067
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.048; 0.10)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.042
ECVI for Independence Model	= 1.65
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 6 Degrees of Freedom	= 775.62
Independence AIC	= 783.62
Model AIC	= 31.83
Saturated AIC	= 20.00
Independence CAIC	= 804.28
Model CAIC	= 73.16
Saturated CAIC	= 71.65
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.95
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.33
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.98
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 0.98
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.94
Critical N (CN)	= 277.35
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.046
Standardised RMR	= 0.037
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.97
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.86
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.19

4.4.5.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Revised Organisational Trust Scale

Table 4.42 presents the unstandardised Lambda-X matrix results of the factor loadings of the revised Organisational Trust scale. Lambda-X matrix indicator loadings are significant in the current model with highlighted t-values above the threshold (1.65). As indicated in Table 4.42, the t-values are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of the indicators.

Table 4.42

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Organisational Trust Scale

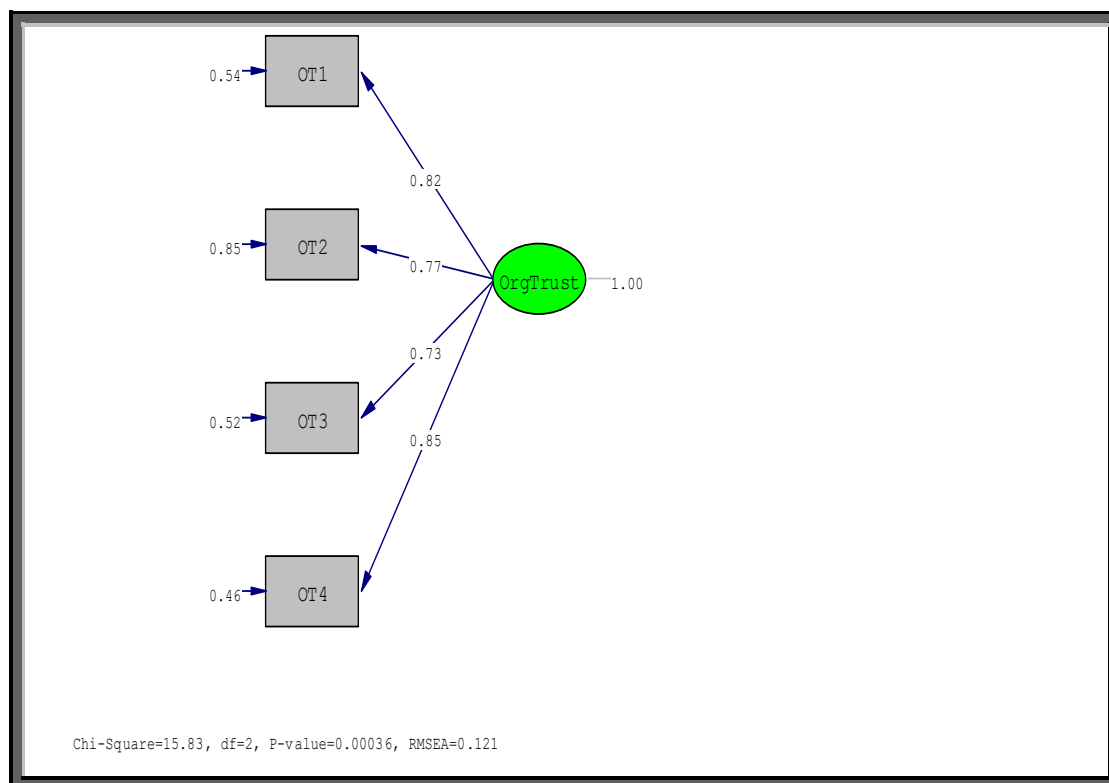
	OrgTrust
OT1	0.82 (0.05) 16.38
OT2	0.77 (0.06) 14.05
OT3	0.73 (0.05) 14.20
OT4	0.85 (0.05) 17.45

4.4.5.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Table 4.43 provides results on the completely standardised solution estimates for the revised Organisational Trust scale. Estimate factor loadings are range from .64 to .78. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) the validity of the indicators is confirmed by significant factor loadings. The values are all greater than .50, thus they are considered acceptable. This model fit is relatively good. Overall, there is enough evidence provided on the revised Organisational Trust measurement model that a good fit can be corroborated. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

Table 4.43*Factor Loading Matrix for the Organisational Trust Revised Scale*

	OrgTrust
OT1	0.74
OT2	0.64
OT3	0.71
OT4	0.78

Figure 4.5*The Factor Loading Model for Organisational Trust Revised Scale*

Note. A factor loading model produced by LISREL output 2022. It provides item loadings for the revised Organisational Trust scale.

4.4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Organisational Identification Scale

The measurement model converged in four iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown in Table 4.44, which shows that the degrees of freedom of 9 and the Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 9.61 ($P = 0.38$) indicate a good fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000).

In addition to that, RMSEA confirms an excellent fit, with the value of 0.012 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). The lower and upper RMSEA 90% confidence interval in this case indicates a good fit at 0.0 and 0.54, respectively. The Standardised RMR 0.028 indicates an excellent fit. The GFI = 0.99 and AGFI = 0.97 both reflect an excellent fit.

The Organisational Identification scale measurement model achieved NNFI (1.00), CFI (1.00), IFI (1.00), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.99) which exceeded the .90 threshold, suggesting a good fit. In general, Table 4.44 shows an excellent fit according to the above-mentioned indications.

Table 4.44*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Organisational Identification Scale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 9
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	=.04 (P = 0.035)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	=16.58 (P = 0.056)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	=9.61 (P = 0.38)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	=11.50 (P = 0.24)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 0.61
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (0.0; 12.40)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.038
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.0013
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.0 ; 0.026)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.012
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.0 ; 0.054)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.93
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.070
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.069 ; 0.095)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.088
ECVI for Independence Model	= 4.03
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 15 Degrees of Freedom	= 1915.78
Independence AIC	= 1927.78
Model AIC	=33.61
Saturated AIC	= 42.00
Independence CAIC	= 1958.81
Model CAIC	= 95.67
Saturated CAIC	= 150.61
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 1.00
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.60
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 1.00
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 1.00
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.99
Critical N (CN)	= 1078.64
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.018
Standardised RMR	= 0.019
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.99
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.97
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.42

4.4.6.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Organisational Identification Scale

Table 4.45 presents the unstandardised Lambda-X matrix results of the factor loadings of the revised Organisational Identification scale. Lambda-X matrix indicator loadings are significant in the current model, with highlighted t-values which are above the threshold (1.65). As indicated in the Table 4.45, the t-values are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of indicators.

Table 4.45

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Organisational Identification Scale

	OrgIdent
OI1	0.64 (0.04) 14.63
OI2	0.65 (0.05) 14.32
OI3	0.76 (0.04) 20.09
OI4	0.74 (0.04) 18.88
OI5	0.72 (0.04) 18.73
OI6	0.61 (0.05) 12.27

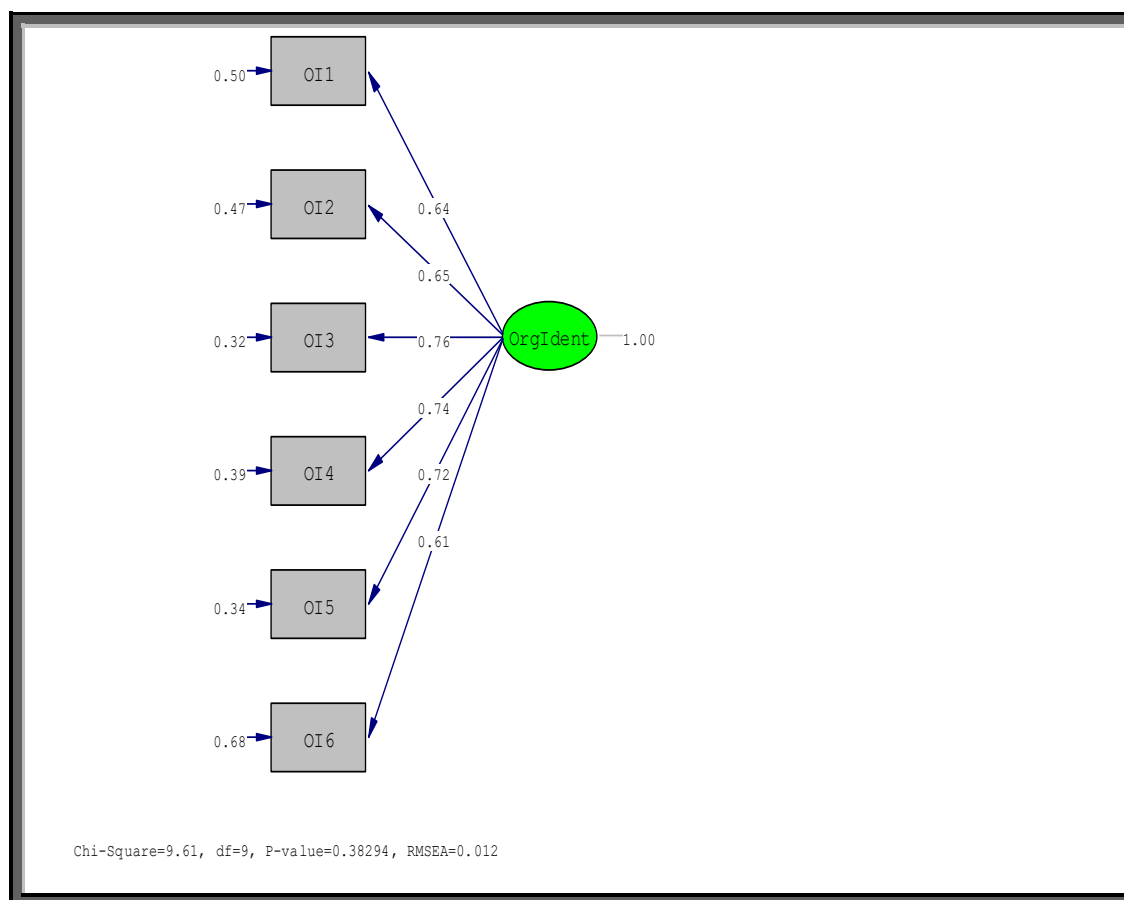
4.4.6.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Table 4.46 provides results on the completely standardised solution estimates for the revised Organisational Identification scale. Estimate factor loadings range from .59 to .80. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) the validity of the indicators is confirmed by significant factor loadings. The values are all greater than .50, which are considered acceptable. With this said, this model fit is relatively good. Overall, there is enough evidence in the revised Organisational Identification scale measurement model that a good fit can be corroborated. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

Table 4.46

Factor Loading Matrix for the Organisational Identification Scale

	OrgIdent
OI1	0.67
OI2	0.69
OI3	0.80
OI4	0.76
OI5	0.78
OI6	0.59

Figure 4.6*The Factor Loading Model for Organisational Identification*

Note. A factor loading model produced by LISREL output 2022. It provides item loadings for the Organisational Identification scale.

4.4.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Revised Affective Commitment Scale

The measurement model of the revised Affective Commitment scale converged in four iterations. The full spectrum of fit statistics is shown in Table 4.47. Table 4.47 shows that the degrees of freedom is 2 with the Satorra-Bentley Scaled Chi-square of 3.04 ($P = 0.22$), indicating a good picture of the model fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). Furthermore, the RMSEA indicates a good fit, with a value of 0.033 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000). The lower RMSEA 90% confidence interval in this case indicates a good fit at 0.0. The Standardised RMR of 0.014 indicates an acceptable fit. In this study $GFI = 1.00$ and $AGFI = 0.98$ all reflect an acceptable fit. The revised Affective Commitment scale measurement model achieved $NNFI (0.99)$, $CFI (1.00)$, $IFI (1.00)$, $NFI (1.00)$ and $RFI (0.99)$, which exceeded the .90 threshold, suggesting a good fit. In general, Table 4.47 shows a good fit according to the above-mentioned indications.

Table 4.47*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Revised Affective Commitment Scale*

Degrees of Freedom	= 2
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 4.72 (P = 0.094)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 4.67 (P = 0.097)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 3.04 (P = 0.22)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 4.85 (P = 0.088)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 1.04
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (0.0; 10.05)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.0100
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.0022
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.0; 0.021)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.033
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.0; 0.10)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.55
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.040
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.038; 0.059)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.042
ECVI for Independence Model	= 2.27
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 6 Degrees of Freedom	= 1066.73
Independence AIC	= 1074.73
Model AIC	= 19.04
Saturated AIC	= 20.00
Independence CAIC	= 1095.37
Model CAIC	= 60.33
Saturated CAIC	= 71.61
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 1.00
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 1.00
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.33
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 1.00
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 1.00
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.99
Critical N (CN)	= 1435.11
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.016
Standardised RMR	= 0.014
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 1.00
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.98
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.20

4.4.7.1 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix

Table 4.48 presents the unstandardised Lambda-X matrix results of the factor loadings of the revised Affective Commitment scale. Lambda-X matrix indicator loadings are significant in the current model with highlighted t-values which are above the threshold (1.65). As indicated in the Table 4.48, the t-values are highlighted and appear below the standard error estimates in brackets. The significant loadings confirm the validity of the indicators.

Table 4.48

Unstandardised Lambda-X for the Revised Affective Organisational Commitment Scale

AOC	
AOC2	0.70 (0.05) 15.21
AOC3	0.67 (0.04) 17.64
AOC4	0.83 (0.03) 24.09
AOC5	0.87 (0.05) 16.21

4.4.7.2 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

Table 4.49 provides results of the completely standardised solution estimates for the revised Affective Commitment scale. Estimate factor loadings range from .68 to .92. According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) the validity of the indicators is confirmed by significant factor loadings. The values are all greater than .50 and are considered acceptable. With this said, this model fits relatively well. Overall, there is enough evidence in the revised Affective Commitment Scale measurement model, that a good fit can be corroborated. The completely standardised factor loadings are generally acceptable.

Table 4.49*Factor Loading Matrix for the Revised Affective Commitment Scale*

	AOC
AOC2	0.74
AOC3	0.79
AOC4	0.92
AOC5	0.68

4.5 Overall Measurement Model Fit

The LISREL program (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2007) was employed to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis on the overall measurement model to determine the fit of the model. The robust likelihood estimate method was the utilised to produce the estimates. In this section the measurement model fit will be discussed, the measurement fit model will exclude Organisational Trust because the scale of this variable could not be proven to be valid. Hence, the relationships relating to this variable will be tested, employing the regression analysis method.

4.5.1 Goodness-of-Fit

The Chi-Square is a traditional measure of overall model fit in co-variance structure models (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). It provides a perfect test for a model fit. Therefore, if the Chi-Square is statistically significant, it results in the rejection of the null hypothesis which means it is not significant and the model is rejected (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). In Table 4.50, the Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square presented a value of 63.76 ($p=0.00$) which indicates the significant statistic ($p<.05$). According to Oehley (2007), for a smaller sample it is recommended that further inspection on CFI or IFI be taken into consideration which only has a small downward bias (2-4%). In Table 4.43 the RMR (0,025) and Standardised RMR (0.035) demonstrated a good fit, given that values less than 0.05 are interpreted as indicating a good fit of the data (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

The RMSEA reports how well the model with unknown but carefully chosen parameter values fits the population covariance matrix if it were available. In Table 4.43 the RMSEA of the value 0.065 of the overall measurement model which suggests a reasonable fit (Spangenberg & Theron, 2004). Both the GFI and the adjusted GFI measures should be near 1 for a perfect fit and 0 for a poor fit, values exceeding 0.9 indicate a good fit to the data (Krafft et al., 2004; Spangenberg & Theron, 2004). Both GFI and adjusted GFI indicate a favourable conclusion of good fit of the model.

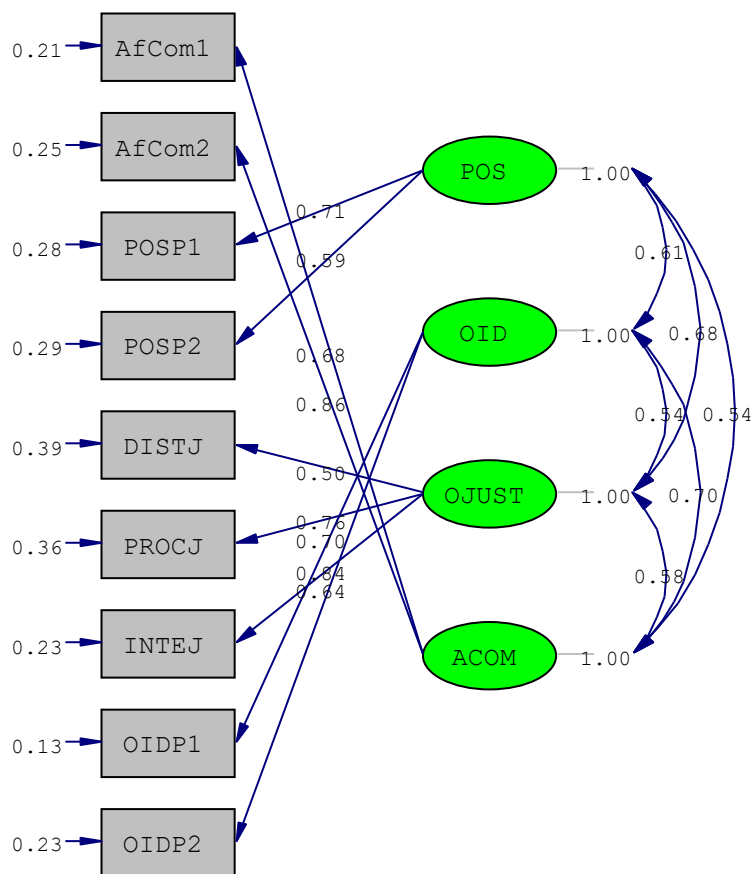
In Table 4.43 the NFI (0,98), NNFI (0.98), IFI (0.99), CFI (0.99) and RFI (0.97) all provide a picture of a good fit. Oehly (2007) stated that the PGFI adjusts the GFI for the degrees of freedom in the model, whereas the PNFI adjusts the NFI for parsimony model. These two indices have a range of 0 and 1 but unlike the other indices, they do not have the threshold in terms of how high the scores should be to be considered a fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). For this study both these indices as demonstrated in Table 4.50 are within the acceptable range. In conclusion, the overall measurement model demonstrates reasonable fit; therefore the null hypothesis of exact fit is rejected, but the null hypothesis of close fit is not rejected.

Table 4.50*Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for the Overall Measurement Model*

Degrees of Freedom	= 21
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 86.48 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 81.03 (P = 0.00)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	= 63.76 (P = 0.00)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	= 73.64 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 42.76
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (22.47; 70.69)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.18
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.089
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.047; 0.15)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.065
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.047; 0.084)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.079
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.23
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.19; 0.29)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.19
ECVI for Independence Model	= 7.20
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 36 Degrees of Freedom	= 3432.74
Independence AIC	= 3450.74
Model AIC	= 111.76
Saturated AIC	= 90.00
Independence CAIC	= 3497.31
Model CAIC	= 235.94
Saturated CAIC	= 322.82
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.98
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.57
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.97
Critical N (CN)	= 293.46
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.025
Standardised RMR	= 0.035
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.96
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.92
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.45

Figure 4.7

The Overall Measurement Model



Chi-Square=63.76, DF=21, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.065

Note. An overall measurement model produced by LISREL output 2022. It provides item loadings for the Procedural Justice Subscale. POS, Perceived Organisational Support; ORGJUST, Organisational Justice; OID, Organisational Identification; ACOM, Affective Commitment; DISTJ, Distributive Justice; PROCJ, Procedural Justice; INTEJ, Interactional Justice.

4.5.2 The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Overall Measurement Model

Table 4.51 presents an examination of the unstandardised Lambda-x matrix. All indicator variables with the item parcels loaded significant on the latent variables that they were designed to reflect. Significant factor loadings are indicated by t-values. All indicators loaded satisfactorily, with factor loadings ranging from 12.37 to 23.49.

Table 4.51*The Unstandardised Lambda-X Matrix for the Overall Measurement Model*

	POS	OID	OJUST	ACOM
AfCom1				0.68 (0.03) 19.70
AfCom2				0.86 (0.04) 23.49
POSP1	0.71 (0.04) 16.80			
POSP2	0.59 (0.04) 14.72			
DISTJ			0.50 (0.04) 12.37	
PROCJ			0.76 (0.04) 18.90	
INTEJ			0.84 (0.04) 21.47	
OIDP1		0.70 (0.03) 21.69		
OIDP2		0.64 (0.03) 18.51		

4.5.3 The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix of the Overall Measurement Model

According to Hair et al. (2006) estimates loadings are significant because they provide a useful start in assessing the convergent validity of the measurement model. Table 4.52 provides results on the estimates for each variable. Davis (2014) indicated that standardised estimates highlight the average changes in standard deviation in the observed variable directly resulting from one standard deviation change in a latent variable to which it is linked, holding the effect of all other variables constant.

The standard factor loading can also be interpreted as the correlation coefficient (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The Lambda-X matrix which specifies the link between exogenous variables and their indicators are that all loadings should be at least .5 and preferably .7 to be considered a threshold for reliability construct. Table 4.52 indicates that ACOM (AfCom1 = 0.83; AfCom2 = 0.86) together with OID (OID1 = 0.89; OID2 = 0.80) Lambda coefficients were statistically strong. In addition to that, Table 4.51 also indicates that the first POS parcel, POSP1 (0.80), has the strong estimate loading whereas the second item, parcel POSP2 (0.74), has an above acceptable unit. The same applies to the OJUST loadings, consisting of DISTJ (0.62) that has an acceptable loading, whereas both PROCJ (0.78) and INTEJ (0.87) have strong loadings.

Table 4.52

The Completely Standardised Factor Loading Matrix

	POS	OID	OJUST	ACOM
AfCom1				0.83
AfCom2				0.86
POSP1	0.80			
POSP2	0.74			
DISTJ			0.62	
PROCJ			0.78	
INTEJ			0.87	
OIDP1		0.89		
OIDP2		0.80		

4.6 The Evaluation of Structural Model Fit

The structural model is the component of the general model that indicates the relationship between latent variables and observed variables that are not indicators of latent variables (Oehley, 2007). The purpose of this model is to ascertain whether the theoretical hypothesised relationship identified on the conceptual model indeed supported by the data. This model also gives an indication of parameters that represent the identified paths between latent variables to determine whether the directions of the hypothesised relationship are positive or negative. Furthermore, it further provides details in terms of the strengths of hypothesised relationship. Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) postulate that the structural model shows the amount of variance for each endogenous latent variable that is accounted for by the independent latent variable that is expected to have an effect upon it.

This section is aimed at determining whether a structured equation model on the studied variables excluding one variable (Organisational Trust), which regression model will be used to measure its significant is representing a good fit with data could be built. The original model that was established from the literature is then explained below using the GAMMA and PHI matrix. In this table, the gammas needed to interpret the various path coefficients are indicated with t-values. This model will help us accept or reject the hypothesised relationships in this research study. LISREL (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) was once again used to evaluate the fit of the comprehensive structural model. The robust likelihood method was used to provide the estimates. The model converged after nine iterations. Table 4.46 provides a full spectrum of the indices obtained from LISREL to evaluate the goodness-of-fit of the data.

4.6.1 Goodness of Fit Statistics

Table 4.53

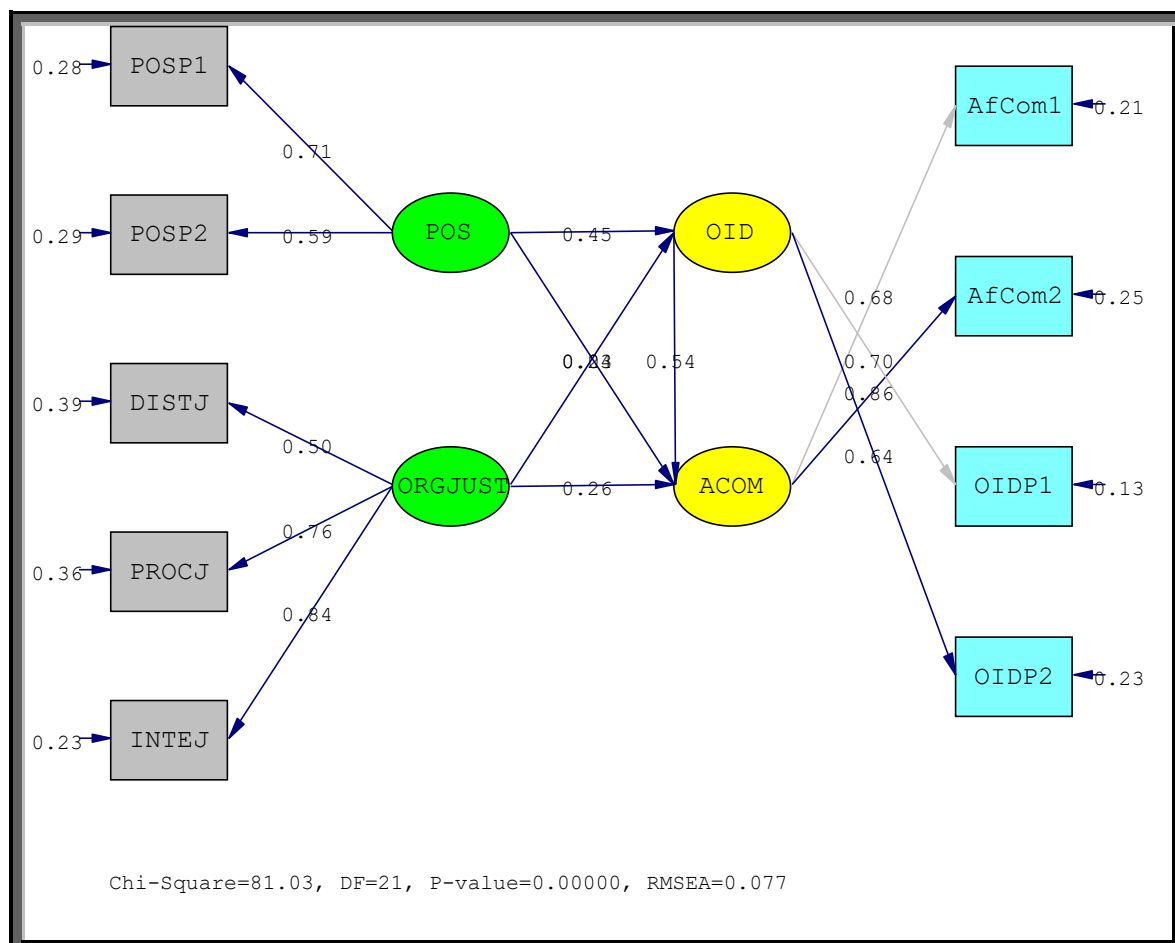
Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for Structural Model

Degrees of Freedom	= 21
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	= 86.48 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	= 81.03 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	= 60.03
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	= (36.10; 91.54)
Minimum Fit Function Value	= 0.18
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	= 0.13
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	= (0.075; 0.19)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.077
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	= (0.060; 0.095)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	= 0.0058
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	= 0.27
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	= (0.22; 0.34)
ECVI for Saturated Model	= 0.19
ECVI for Independence Model	= 7.20
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 36 Degrees of Freedom	= 3432.74
Independence AIC	= 3450.74
Model AIC	= 129.03
Saturated AIC	= 90.00
Independence CAIC	= 3497.31
Model CAIC	= 253.20
Saturated CAIC	= 322.82
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.97
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	= 0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	= 0.57
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.98
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	= 0.98
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	= 0.96
Critical N (CN)	= 216.64
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	= 0.025
Standardised RMR	= 0.035
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	= 0.96
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.92
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	= 0.45

The sample RMSEA estimate is 0.77, which is an indication that the model fits the data reasonably well (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000). The Standardised RMR of 0.025, which is less than 0.05, is interpreted as indicating a good fit. GFI is regarded as the most reliable measure of absolute fit (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000) and in this study GFI = .96 and AGFI = .92. This reflects indices are exceeding 0.9, indicating a good fit to the data. This is supported by the comparative fit statistics, namely the NNFI (0.97), CFI (0.98), IFI (0.98), NFI (0.97) and RFI (0.96). They indicate a good fit, as values close to 1 represent good fit (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000),

Figure 4.8

The Fitted Structural Model



Note. A structural model produced by LISREL output 2022. It provides item loadings for the Procedural Justice Subscale. POS, Perceived Organisational Support; ORGJUST, Organisational Justice; OID, Organisational Identification; ACOM, Affective Commitment; DISTJ, Distributive Justice; PROCJ, Procedural Justice; INTEJ, Interactional Justice.

4.6.2 Parameter Estimates

The aim of conducting a structural model is to ascertain whether the relationships that are specified on the conceptual model are substantiated by data (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). In a nutshell, the spotlight is on the structural paths between the various endogenous and exogenous latent variables and between the various endogenous latent variables. The relevant matrices for direct effects between the constructs are the Gamma (Γ) and Beta (B) matrices (Spangenberg & Theron, 2004). Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) highlighted four important issues that are relevant when evaluating the structural model. Firstly, it is crucial to evaluate the signs of the parameters that represent the directions between the latent variables to ascertain whether the direction of the hypothesised relationship is as predicted. Secondly, it is vital to determine the magnitude of estimated parameters because it provides important information on the strength of the relationship. Thirdly, parameter estimates are significant at $p < .05$ as demonstrated by t-values greater than 1.65, based on one-tailed tests (Parasuraman, 2005). Lastly, it is crucial to evaluate the squared multiple correlations that indicate the amount of variance in each endogenous latent variable that is explained by the latent variables linked to it in the hypothesised structural model. The gamma and beta matrices are presented in Table 4.54 and 4.55, respectively.

4.6.3 The Gamma Matrix

Table 4.54

The Gamma Matrix of Path Coefficients for the Structural Model

	POS	ORGJUST
OID	0.45 (0.08) 5.75	0.24 (0.08) 3.18
ACOM	0.03 (0.08) 0.38	0.26 (0.07) 3.87

4.6.4 The Beta Matrix

Table 4.55

The Beta Matrix of Path Coefficients for the Structural Model

	OID	ACOM
OID	--	--
ACOM	0.54 (0.07) 8.01	--

4.7 Relationships Between Latent Variables

In this section the relationships postulated in the hypotheses in Chapter 3 and their results are presented and discussed. The assessment of the hypotheses are based on the t-values displayed on both gamma and beta matrices in Table 4.54 and Table 4.55, respectively. In a situation where relationships that could not be tested by the structural model, linear regression model results are provided below the hypotheses.

4.7.1 Hypothesis 1: Organisational Justice (ξ_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Trust (η_1)

Hypothesis 1 could not be tested with the structural equation model because LISREL software could not converge the solution with Organisational Trust as part of the model. Linear regression was then employed to test the effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust. Table 4.56 provides the results where it is indicated that 35.4=5% variance on Organisational Trust (R Square = .35.4) was explained by the model and the variance presented by the model appears to be significant ($b=.595$; $t= 16.193$; $p<.00$). Based on these results, Hypothesis 1 which posits that Organisational Justice has a significant positive effect on Organisational Trust, is therefore sustained.

Table 4.56*Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust*

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.595 ^a	.354	.353	.52599

a. Predictors: (Constant), OJUSTIC

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.661	.104		15.939	.000
	OJUSTIC	.490	.030	.595	16.193	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: OTRUST

4.7.2 Hypothesis 2: Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Identification (η_2)

Hypothesis 2 proposed that Perceived Organisational Support has statistical significance on Organisational Identification. The results indicate that $H_{02}: \gamma_{22} = 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{a2}: \gamma_{22} > 0$, given that the t-value of 5.75 ($p < .05$) associated with this path is greater than 1.65 in the gamma matrix in Table 4.54. A significant positive relationship is evident between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification. Therefore, research Hypothesis 2 is corroborated.

4.7.3 Hypotheses 3: Organisational Justice (ξ_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Identification (η_2)

The null hypothesis is that Organisational Justice has no statistical influence on Organisational Identification. In Table 4.54 the t-value of 3.18 ($p < .05$) in the gamma matrix indicates values. Therefore, $H_{03}: \gamma_{12} = 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{a3}: \gamma_{12} > 0$, given that the t-value is associated with this path is greater than 1.65 in the gamma matrix in Table 4.54. A significant positive relationship is evident between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification. Consequently, research Hypothesis 3 is therefore corroborated.

4.7.4 Hypothesis 4: Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Trust (η_1)

Hypothesis 4 could not be tested with structural equation model because LISREL software could not converge the solution with Organisational Trust as part of the model. Linear regression was then employed to test the effect of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Trust. Table 4.57 provides results, where it is indicated that a 7.2% variance on Organisational Trust (R Square = .072) is explained by Perceived Organisational Support and the variance presented in the model is significant ($b=.268$; $t= 6.089$; $p <.05$). Based on these results, Hypothesis 4, which posits that Perceived Organisational Support has a significant positive effect on Organisation Trust, is therefore sustained.

Table 4.57

Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Perceived Organisational Support on

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.268 ^a	.072	.070	.63054

a. Predictors: (Constant), POS

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.446	.143		17.055	.000
	POS	.256	.042	.268	6.089	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: OTRUST

4.7.5 Hypotheses 5: Organisational Trust (η_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Identification (η_2)

Hypothesis 5 could not be tested with structural equation model because LISREL software could not converge the solution with Organisational Trust as part of the model. Linear regression was then employed to test the effect of Organisational Trust on Organisational Identification.

Table 4.58 provides the results, which indicate that 15.2% variance on Organisational Trust explained by Organisational Identification (R Square = .152) and that the variance presented by the model appears significant ($b=.417$; $t=10.036$; $p<.05$). Based on these results, Hypothesis 5, which posits that organisation trust has significant effect on Perceived Organisational Support, is therefore sustained.

Table 4.58

Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Organisational Trust on Organisational Identification

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.417 ^a	.152	.172	.67743

a. Predictors: (Constant), ORGTRUST

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.721	.119		22.900	.000
	ORGTRUST	.345	.034	.417	10.036	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ORGIDENTIF

4.7.6 Hypotheses 6: Organisational Trust (η_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

Hypothesis 6 could not be tested with structural equation model because LISREL software could not converge the solution with Organisational Trust as part of the model. Linear regression was then employed to test the effect of Organisational Trust on Affective Commitment. Table 4.59 provides results, which indicate that 21.6% variance on Affective Commitment is explained by Organisational Trust (R Square = .216) and that the variance presented by the model appears to be significant ($b=.464$; $t=11.465$; $p<.01$). Based on these results, hypothesis 6, which posits that Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment, is therefore sustained.

Table 4.59

Linear Regression Results of the Effect of Organisational Trust on Affective Commitment

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.464 ^a	.216	.214	.74565

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.773	.175		10.112	.000
	Trust	.597	.052	.464	11.465	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: AffectCom

4.7.7 Hypothesis 7: Organisational Identification (η_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

In Table 4.55 above the t-value of 8.01 ($p < .05$) in the gamma matrix indicates the null hypothesis, which is that Organisational Identification has no statistically significant effect on Affective Commitment. The results indicate that $H_{07}: \beta_{32} = 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{a7}: \beta_{32} > 0$, given that the t-value 8.01 ($p < .05$) associated with this path is greater than 1.65 in the gamma matrix in Table 4.54. A significant positive relationship is evident between Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment. Consequently, research Hypothesis 7 is therefore corroborated.

4.7.8 Hypothesis 8: Organisational Justice (ξ_1) Has a statistically significant positive effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

The null Hypothesis 2 proposed that organisational support has no statistical significance on Affective Commitment. The results indicate that in Table 4.54 that $H_{03}: \gamma_{13} = 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{a3}: \gamma_{13} > 0$ given that the t-value of 3.87 ($p < .05$) associated with this path is greater than 1.65 in the gamma matrix in Table 4.54. A significant positive relationship is evident between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification. Consequently, research Hypothesis 8 is therefore corroborated.

4.7.9 Hypothesis 9: Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Organisational Commitment (η_3)

Null Hypothesis 9 proposed that Perceived Organisational Support has a statistically significant effect on Affective Commitment. The results indicates that $H_{a9}: \gamma_{23} > 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{09}: \gamma_{23} = 0$, given that the t-value 0.38 ($p < .05$) is associated with this path is less than the threshold value of 1.65 in the gamma matrix in Table 4.54. An insignificant positive relationship is evident between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment. Research hypothesis 9 is therefore not corroborated. The question invariably arises to what extent this is due to the inability to successfully operationalise one of the variables in this hypothesised path.

4.8 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a report on the results obtained from this study. Item and dimensional analyses were embarked on in order to ascertain the psychometric properties of the scale and furthermore to identify and remove poor items. In addition, CFA was employed to affirm the measurement structure underlying measure of the variables assessed by the various scales. The overall measurement and structural model-fit indices were confirmed, and the consequences were briefly explained. Numerous fit indices were scrutinised to assess model fit. The findings generally indicated a good fit of both measurement and structural models. The null hypothesis of close-fit was not rejected in the structural model (see p-value in Table 4.43). The majority of the fit statistics demonstrates a good fit and a small percentage of large modification calculated for Lambda-x matrixes also shows a good fit. The latent dimension in the sample affects the other variables in an adequate manner, with the exception of Organisational Trust, which was then excluded from the models. However, a linear regression model was then conducted to test Organisational Trust paths. This model indicated significant relationships.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF STUDY RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapters were aimed at providing an introduction pertaining to the research problem and also focus on the variables that determine Affective Commitment. In Chapter 2 the literature review demonstrated that affective organisational commitment is dependent on numerous personal and organisational factors, such as Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Justice, Organisational Trust and organisational identity. Based on previous studies that corroborated the research stance, hypotheses were then formulated and a conceptual model was designed in order to answer the research questions. In addition to that, the subsequent formulated paths (provided in Chapter 2) that focused on the research question were tested with SEM and multiple regression analysis. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the different statistical analyses that were presented in the previous chapter. This chapter will also present a summary of findings, conclusions, limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.

5.2 The Aim and Objective of the Study

The aim of the study was to determine whether Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Justice, Organisational Identification and Organisational Trust have an effect on Affective Commitment. The objective of the study was to integrate the findings on these organisational factors in a model so as to determine to what extent the latent variables have a statistical significance on the hypothesised structural paths of the model. Below is the list of study objectives that were tested.

5.2.1 Primary Study Objectives

The primary objectives for this research were to

- develop a structural model that explores the impact of Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Identification and Organisational Trust on Affective Commitment among members of the South African Air Force (SAAF);
- determine the relationships between these constructs through logical reasoning based on a comprehensive literature research study of the constructs; and make use of explanatory research methodology to test specific hypotheses on the causal links between the identified variables and to develop and test a structural equation model that reflects the relationships between them.

5.2.2 Secondary Study Objectives

The secondary objectives of this study were to

- identify and evaluate the relationships that exist between Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust, Organisation Identification and Affective Commitment;
- conceptualise these antecedents within the framework of a structural model, and conduct an empirical study to explore the relationships among these predictors of Affective Commitment in the Air Force Military Base/Unit.

5.3 Summary of Findings

The point of departure for this research study after the conceptual model was formulated was to ascertain that the measurement scales used to test the relationships were valid and reliable. This necessitated a careful and deliberate test to establish the validity and reliability of the chosen measurement scales to ensure that accurate statistical results would be attained when further analyses were performed. Therefore, item and exploratory factor analyses were conducted before determining the fit of the models (measurement and structural model). The fundamental purpose of conducting item analysis was to determine the internal consistency of the items of the scales measuring the underlying attributes. This process was achieved by employing SPSS to extract the reliability analysis output. Items that resulted in an exceptional increase of the Cronbach coefficient when deleted, as well as items that correlated below .30, were eliminated from the research study. However, if the reliability was low even after deleting the problematic item/s, an exception to this rule was made with the intention of keeping as many items as possible.

5.3.1 Reliability Analysis Conclusion

The reliability analysis was conducted to ensure that items from the different scales were internally consistent with the said scale. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient, which ranged from adequate (.775) to excellent (.970) were all considered acceptable, confirming the reliability of the scales. Table 5.1 provides a summary of the reliability coefficient attained for each scale, indicating that, with the exception of the organisation trust scale, all were above the recommended value of .70. The Organisational Trust scale attained a Cronbach Alpha of .583, which is considered questionable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). It demonstrated in the item-total statistics Cronbach Alpha's if-item-deleted indicated a significant increase for item 5, 6 and 7. After deleting item 6 the Cronbach Alpha increased to .686, still below the .70 threshold. Item 7 was then also deleted, providing a significant increase on the Cronbach Alpha value to .771, which is regarded acceptable.

Total-item correlation also demonstrated an acceptable internal consistency, which is above the threshold .30, with the exception of the Organisational Trust scale where one item did not make the cut-off value. This scale was retained and monitored closely when performing the dimensionality analyses.

Table 5.1

Reliability Result of the Measurement Scales

Scale	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Total-Item correlation
Perceived Organisational Support	8	.811	.453 - .800
Procedural Justice	5	.874	.575 - .784
Distributive Justice	5	.822	.538 - .701
Interactional Justice	9	.970	.838 - .893
Organisational Trust	5	.775	.251 - .821
Organisational Identification	6	.868	.573 - .738
Affective Commitment	6	.876	.604 - .794

5.3.2 Dimensionality Analysis Conclusion

The dimensionality analysis was conducted to determine whether the measure or scale consisted of a single dimension. This was carried out using exploratory factor analysis to investigate whether the number of factors satisfactorily explained the observed variable and also to determine the factor loadings. The Data Reduction and Factor Analysis function of SPSS (version 21, IBM, 2021) was used. This was achieved by interpreting the factor output for each scale and verifying the factor analysis by checking that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measures of Sampling Adequacy (KMO), together with the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, the degrees of freedom and the significance level would result in accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis. This would determine whether the factor was analysable, based on the evidence provided by the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2016).

According to Pallant (2016), to verify a data set that is suitable for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value should be .6 or above; the Bartlett's test of Sphericity value is significant when it is .05 or smaller. The KMO values for the scales were all above the recommended value, with the exception of the Perceived

Organisational Support and Organisational Trust scales. The initial round of the exploratory factor analysis of the Perceived Organisational Support could not provide the unidimensionality; it rather suggested the existence of two factors. This resulted in removing items 2,3 and 5 of the scale and performing another round.

The subsequent amended Perceived Organisational Support scale KMO measure of sampling adequacy provided a value of .774, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Pallant, 2016). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached a statistical significance of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix with the acceptable degree of freedom (df=21). To improve this multi-dimensional scale, items 2,3 and 5 were then deleted, after which the scale was unidimensional.

The initial round of the exploratory factor analysis of the Organisational Trust scale could also not provide unidimensionality, suggesting the existence of two factors. To deal with this, items 5,6 and 7 were deleted and another round was performed. The subsequent amended Organisational Trust scale KMO measure of sampling adequacy provided a value of .673, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Pallant, 2016); Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached a statistical significance level of .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix with acceptable degrees of freedom (df=6).

The factor matrix loadings for the scales showed that all items loaded on one factor satisfactorily as all loadings were larger than .5. None of the residual correlations were larger than .05; suggesting that the factor solution provides a credible explanation for the inter-item correlation matrix. Therefore, the unidimensionality assumption was corroborated.

5.3.3 Measurement Models Using Confirmatory Factor Analysis Conclusion

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in order to test how well variables measured by different scales, represented a smaller number of constructs using LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). Initial results for CFA for each scale were discussed using the fit indices output.

According to Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) values for RMSEA less than 0.05 are indicative of a good fit, between 0.05 and 0.08 of a reasonable fit, 0.10 a mediocre fit and >0.10 of a poor fit. Other indices were discussed, namely GFI, NFI, NNFI, CFI, IFI and RIF. The results of all seven measurement scales provided a generally acceptable fit; the measurement models converged as demonstrated in Table 5.2.

The Goodness-of-Fit properties for the Perceived Organisational Support scale measurement model demonstrated an overall good fit with the data. The RMSEA provided a value of 0.048, which indicates a good model fit, whereas the P-value of the close-fit index is greater than the 0.05 threshold, which suggests a mediocre fit. However, the NNFI (0.99), CFI (0.99), IFI (0.99), GFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.98) indices are all above .90, which represents a good fit.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the factor structure and the measurement model fit of the procedural justice subscale, as shown in Table 5.2. This demonstrates the Goodness-of-Fit properties that were attained by the subscale. The RMSEA provided a value 0.048, which indicates a good model fit, whereas the P-value of the close-fit index is greater than the 0.05 threshold, which suggests a mediocre fit. However, the NNFI (0.99), CFI (1.00), IFI (1.00), GFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.99) indices are all above .90, which represents a good fit. Overall, this subscale model suggested a good model fit.

In addition to the item and dimensionality analysis, the process of confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine the factor structure and the fit of the measurement model of the distributive justice subscale. The Goodness-of-Fit properties for this subscale measurement model demonstrated an overall good fit with the data. The RMSEA provided a value 0.086, which indicates a reasonably good model fit, whereas the P-value of the close-fit index is greater than the 0.05 threshold, which suggests a mediocre fit. However, the NNFI (0.98), CFI (0.99), IFI (0.99), GFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.97) indices are all above .90, which represents a good fit.

The confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted to assess the factor structure and the measurement model fit of the interactional justice subscale. Table 5.2 demonstrates the Goodness-of-Fit properties that were attained by the subscale. The RMSEA provided a value 0.079, which indicates a good model fit; the P-value of the close-fit index is less than the 0.05 threshold which also suggests a good model fit. This is further supported by the following indices: NNFI (0.99), CFI (0.99), IFI (0.99), GFI (0.91), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.99), which are above .90, representing a good fit. Overall, this subscale model suggests a good model fit.

In addition to the item and dimensionality analysis, the process of confirmatory analysis was done in order to determine the factor structure and the fit of the measurement model of the revised Organisational Trust scale.

The Goodness-of-Fit properties for this scale measurement model demonstrated an overall good fit with the data. However, the RMSEA provided a value 0.12, which indicates a poor model fit, whereas the P-value of the close-fit index is less than the 0.05 threshold, which suggests a good model fit. This model fit is further supported by the following indices: NNFI (0.95), CFI (0.98), IFI (0.98), GFI (0.97), NFI (0.98) and RFI (0.94). They are all above .90, which represents a good fit.

Confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted to assess the factor structure and the measurement model fit of the Organisational Identification scale. Table 5.2 demonstrates the Goodness-of-Fit properties that were attained by the scale. The RMSEA provided a value 0.012, which indicates a good model fit, whereas the P-value of the close-fit index is greater than the 0.05 threshold, which suggests a mediocre fit. However, the NNFI indices: (1.00), CFI (1.00), IFI (1.00), GFI (0.99), NFI (0.99) and RFI (0.99), are above .90, which represents a good fit. Overall, this subscale model suggests a good model fit.

Lastly, the confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted to assess the factor structure and measurement model fit of the Affective Commitment scale. Table 5.2 demonstrates the Goodness-of-Fit properties that were attained by the scale. The RMSEA provided a value 0.033, which indicates a good model fit, whereas the P-value of the close-fit index is greater than the 0.05 threshold, which suggests a mediocre fit. However, the NNFI (1.00), CFI (1.00), IFI (1.00), GFI (1.00), NFI (1.00) and RFI (0.99) indices are above .90, which represents a good fit. Overall, this subscale model suggests a good model fit.

Table 5.2*Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Statistics CFA of the Various Scales Measurement Model*

Scale	RMSEA	P-value	NNFI	CFI	IFI	GFI	NFI	RFI
Close fit								
POS1	0.048	0.48	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98
PJ	0.048	0.46	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
DJ	0.086	0.11	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.97
IJ	0.079	0.0040	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.91	0.99	0.99
OT	0.12	0.013	0.95	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.94
OI	0.012	0.93	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
AC	0.033	0.55	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99

Note. Perceived Organisational Support (POS) (, Procedural justice (PJ), Distributive justice (DJ), Interactional justice (IJ), Organisational Trust (OT), Organisational Identification (OI), Affective Commitment (AC).

5.3.4 Overall Measurement Model Fit

Measurement model fit provides sufficient data about the validity and reliability of the observed indicators and it also provides detailed information about the consistency of a hypothesised model with the data collected (Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2000). For the purpose of this study, confirmatory analysis for the measurement model was conducted using the LISREL program (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2007). The robust likelihood estimate method was employed to provide the estimates. It was found that the Organisational Trust variable was problematic and it resulted in it being excluded from the overall measurement model. Therefore, the relationships which comprise this variable were assessed utilising the regression analysis method.

The Goodness-of-Fit statistics provided an overall model fit on all the indices. The Chi-Square indices presented a value of 63.76 ($p=0.00$), which demonstrates a significant statistical value of ($p<.05$). The RMR (0.025) and Standardised RMR (0.035) presented a good fit. An RMSEA index of 0.065 was obtained, which suggests a reasonable fit. The ratio of the sum of squared discrepancies to the observed variance is determined by the GFI, whereas the adjusted GFI adjusts the GFI to the degrees of freedom in the model (Spangenberg & Theron, 2004).

Both these measures should be near 1 for a perfect fit and 0 for a poor fit. Values exceeding 0.9 indicate good fit to the data (Krafft et al., 2004; Spangenberg & Theron, 2004). Both GFI and adjusted GFI indicated a favourable conclusion of good fit of the model. The study results are as postulated in the previous chapter (Table 4.43). The indices, namely, NFI (0.98), NNFI (0.98), IFI (0.99), CFI (0.99) and RFI (0.97), all provided good fit. Oehley (2007) stated that the PGFI adjusts the GFI for the degrees of freedom. For this study, PNFI and NFI demonstrated in Table 4.43 are both within the specified range. In conclusion, the overall measurement model demonstrates a reasonable fit.

Table 4.44 in the previous chapter presented an assessment of unstandardised Lambda-X matrix. From the results given, all indicator variables with the item parcels loaded significant on the latent variables that were designed to reflect. Significant factor loadings were indicated by t-values. All indicators loaded satisfactorily, with factor loadings ranging from 12.37 to 23.49. Hair et al. (2006) argue that these estimates loadings are significant because they provide a useful start in assessing the convergent validity of the measurement model.

The Lambda-X matrix, which specifies the link between exogenous variables and their indicators, specifies that all loadings should be at least .5 and preferably .7, in order to be considered a threshold for a reliability construct. Table 4.45 indicates that the ACOM (for affective organisational commitment) (AfCom1 = 0.83; AfCom1 = 0.86) together with OID (OID1 = 0.89; OID2 = 0.80) exceeded the threshold. Lambda-X coefficients were statistically strong. In addition to that, Table 4.52 also indicates that the first Perceived Organisational Support parcel POSP1 (0.80) has a strong estimate loading, and that the second item parcel POSP2 (0.74) has an above acceptable unit. The same applies to the OJUST loadings and DISTJ (0.62) that has an acceptable loading that of both PROCJ (0.78) and INTJ (0.87) have strong loadings.

5.3.5 The Evaluation of Structural Model Fit

Lastly, the structural model was conducted in order to determine the relationships between all the identified latent variables. This part of the statistics was mainly aimed at determining whether a structural equation model on the studied variables, excluding one variable (Organisational Trust), in which the regression model was used to measure its significant relationship, represents a good fit with the data. The original model that was established from the literature is explained using the GAMMA and BETA matrix. This model assisted in determining whether to accept or reject the hypotheses for this research study. LISREL (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) was once again employed to assess the fit of the comprehensive structural model. The robust likelihood method was used to provide the estimates. The model converged after nine iterations. Table 4.46 provides a full spectrum of the indices obtained from LISREL to evaluate the goodness-of-fit of the data.

RMSEA provided an estimate of .077, which is an indication that the model fits the data reasonably well. The Standardised RMR 0.025, which is below the threshold of 0.05, demonstrates a good fit. This is supported by GFI = .96 and AGFI = .92 indices exceeding 0.9 and close to 1.00, thus indicating a good fit to the data. The comparative fit statistics supports the assertion that the model has a very good fit. The NNFI (0.97), CFI (0.98), IFI (0.98), NFI (0.97) and RFI (0.96) indicate a good fit (values close to 1 represent good fit).

5.4. Conclusions Regarding the Relationship Between Latent Variables

The overarching structural model research hypotheses were broken down into more detailed path-specific hypotheses based on the conceptual model. The findings of the relationships postulated in the form of hypotheses in Chapter 3 are discussed below. The assessment of the hypotheses is based on the t-values displayed on both gamma and beta matrices in the previous chapter (Table 4.47 and Table 4.48).

5.4.1 Hypothesis 1: Organisational Justice (ξ_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Trust (η_1)

Linear regression was used to test the effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust. The reasons behind this are that the scale was found to be problematic, since when it was tested with the structural equation model via LISREL software, it could not converge the solution with Organisational Trust as part of the model. The regression results indicated a 35.4 = .5% variance of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust ($R^2 = .354$). The model fit was significant ($b = .595$; $t = 16.193$; $p < .00$).

Based on these results, Hypothesis 1, which posited that Organisational Justice has a significant positive effect on Organisational Trust, was corroborated. The relationship between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust was therefore sustained.

This significant result means that if employees have a perception of organisational fairness regarding procedural fairness, interactional fairness and distributive fairness, they are most likely to trust their organisation. If employees have high perception levels of fairness, they are likely to accept the decisions of the organisation. Put in another way, if employees have high perceptions of Organisational Justice, it is expected that their levels of trust in the organisation will increase.

These study findings are consistent with other research conducted in different contexts. For example, a study by Chen et al. (2015) also found a significant positive correlation between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust. This study was focused on exploring the effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Trust among nurses. The findings indicated that Organisational Justice including three forms: procedural justice $r=0.69$; $p<.01$, distributive justice $r=.86$; $p<.01$ and interactional justice $r=0.53$; $p<.01$ had a significant positive effect on Organisational Trust.

Similarly, a study conducted by Khiavi et al. (2016) based on both these variables yielded the same results of a significant positive correlation between Organisational Trust and Organisational Justice (distributive justice, $r=.42$, $p<0.001$; interactional justice $r=.62$, $p<0.001$; procedural justice $r=.25$, $p<0.001$). The study was conducted among the employees of a hospital situated in Iran. Given the validity of these research findings and research studies, it is safe to conclude that Organisational Justice indeed plays a pivotal role in Organisational Trust. This means that if employees perceive the existence of justice in their organisation, they are more likely to trust it.

5.4.2 Hypothesis 2: Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Identification (η_2)

The t-value of 5.75 ($p<.05$) in the gamma matrix demonstrated that the null hypothesis, which proposed that Perceived Organisational Support has no statistical significance on Organisational Identification, was rejected (refer to Table 4.47). Therefore, $H_{02}: \gamma_{22} = 0$ was rejected in favour of $H_{a2}: \gamma_{22} > 0$, given that the t-value associated with this path is greater than 1.65.

It was therefore evident that a significant positive relationship exists between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification, thus validating Hypothesis 2.

This finding is consistent with the empirical research findings of Dai & Qin (2016), who conducted a study aimed at testing the impact of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Identification. This empirical study was conducted in 52 companies from different provinces in China. The study findings illustrated that Perceived Organisational Support significant, substantially and positively affects Organisational Identification ($r=.715$; $p<0.001$). Similarly, Gok et al. (2015) conducted a study aimed at analysing the effect of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Identification. The data was collected among secretaries working at a private hospital setting in Istanbul. It was found that Perceived Organisational Support is positively, highly and significant correlated with Organisational Identification ($t=9.884$, $p<.01$).

It is therefore apparent that if employees perceive that their organisation supports their individual efforts, they are likely to identify with it. The SANDF's mission and its associated values contain loyalty as an important and pivotal value for its military practitioners/employees (DOD, 2015). The concept of loyalty remains the cornerstone that results in organisational effectiveness. It should also be noted that Organisational Identification stands as one of the core values that the military upholds, as contained in the value statement of the DOD (DOD, 2015). Therefore, if the organisation supports its members as illustrated by the research findings, there is an increased possibility of members identifying with the organisation.

5.4.3 Hypothesis 3: Organisational Justice (ξ_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Identification (η_2)

The t-value of 3.18 ($p<.05$) in the gamma matrix indicates that the null hypothesis, which postulated that Organisational Justice has no statistical significance on Organisational Identification, is rejected (refer to Table 4.47). Therefore, $H_{03}: \gamma_{12} = 0$ is rejected in favour of $H_{a3}: \gamma_{12} > 0$, given that the t-value associated with this path is greater than 1.65. A significant positive relationship is evident between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification. Consequently, research Hypothesis 3 is supported.

This significant finding can be interpreted to mean that if members of the SAAF perceive that the organisation treats everyone fairly and equally, their identification with the organisation will be high. Chen et al (2015) reckoned that an organisation which is impartial in determining

its standard working procedures and general practices and reacting in a way that is expected, will increase its members' Organisational Identification. In the same way, if the organisation's procedures and distribution of work or resources are deemed to be unfair, it will result in a low level of organisation identification. By implication, Organisational Justice plays an imperative and fundamental role in the identification of employees with their organisation.

These results corroborate other research findings that looked at the effect of Organisational Justice on Organisational Identification. The study by Chen et al. (2015) as well as that by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), found that there was a significant positive correlation between these constructs. This means that if employees perceive the organisation as being fair and just, they will identify with the organisation. Arguably, if employees' perceptions of Organisational Justice are low, it will result in weaker identification with the organisation. Similarly, Olkkonen and Lipponen's (2006) empirical research study on Organisational Justice concluded that justice and the distribution of justice are imperative factors for the identification of employees with the organisation. The study findings also indicated a significant positive relationship between Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust.

5.4.4 Hypothesis 4: Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Trust (η_1)

A linear regression analysis was done to test the effect of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Trust. The results provided in Table 4.50 indicated 7.2% variance on (R Square = .072). The variance presented by the model appears to be significant ($b=.268$; $t=6.089$; $p<.05$). Based on these results, Hypothesis 4, which posits that Perceived Organisational Support has a significant effect on Organisational Trust, is therefore sustained. Therefore, if Perceived Organisational Support has a positive effect on Organisational Trust, the implication is that if members perceive high organisational support, they will in turn trust the organisation.

According to these research findings, when SAAF employees feel that their organisation supports them, it will contribute to constituting a trusting environment. A drop in Perceived Organisational Support by members of the SAAF is likely to have a detrimental effect on Organisational Trust. Webber et al. (2012) argued that broken trust in top management (which is deemed as the organisation) creates an environment where employees perceive low organisational support.

In a nutshell, if the members of the SAAF perceive the organisation as being unsupportive, it is a direct result of the lack of support from those in senior positions, and this consequently breaks their trust. Perceived Organisational Support can improve Organisational Trust. Thus the SAAF should extend adequate support for all members in the organisation, regardless of the positions they hold.

This study finding is consistent with the research results of Dirks & Ferrin (2002) and Podsakoff et al. (2006). They argued that Organisational Trust contributes to Perceived Organisational Support as Organisational Justice reciprocates. This research also highlighted that employees who are supported by the organisation are most likely to develop trust in their organisation. This is evidence that Perceived Organisational Support creates a positive atmosphere in the organisation. Moreover, they contend that in organisations which support their employees or are perceived to do so, the culture of trust is created (Ristig, 2009).

This study's findings support the study results of Wong & Ngu (2011) which were conducted to analyse the effects of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Trust. The findings confirmed that perceptions of organisational support have a significant impact on Organisational Trust. Consequently, if members perceive a high level organisational support in the SAAF, they are most likely to trust the organisation. The previous study's results support Shukla and Rai's (2015) research that assessed the effect of Perceived Organisational Support on Organisational Trust. Their study found that Organisational Trust is significant predicted by Perceived Organisational Support. On the basis of all these results, it is clear that if members perceive support from the organisation, they reciprocate by trusting the organisation. Therefore, efforts aimed at constituting a trusting environment should be pursued by the SAAF.

5.4.5 Hypothesis 5: Organisational Trust (η_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Organisational Identification (η_2)

A linear regression was used to test Hypothesis 5, concerning the effect of Organisational Trust on Organisational Identification. As provided by Table 4.51, the results indicate that a 17.4% variance in Organisational Identification is explained by Organisational Trust (R Square = .151) and that the variance presented by the model appears to be significant ($b=.417$; $t=10.036$ $p<.05$). Based on these results, Hypothesis 5, which posits that Organisational Trust has a significant effect on Organisational Identification, is therefore sustained.

This finding can be interpreted to mean that Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification. In a nutshell, employees who have high levels of trust in the organisation will have significant higher levels of identification with the organisation.

This significant finding means that the extent to which members of the SAAF identify with the organisation is an important predictor of the perception members have of the trustworthiness of the organisation. Currall and Inkpen (2002) argue that trust may diffuse within an organisation over a long period of time, especially where the senior leaders and members maintain the trust-based relationship with one another within the organisation. It is therefore important for the organisation to establish relationships that are based on trust to optimise the members' identification, given that it is empirically proven that optimal trust will increase identification.

This finding is corroborated and resonates with the social exchange theory, which suggests that the more employees trust the organisation, the more effort they will expend for the organisation (Cho & Park, 2011). If the SAAF members perceive a climate of trust, they are more likely to engage in more positive behaviour to benefit their organisation. Ristig (2009) stated that if members of an organisation perceive organisational support, they feel obligated to reciprocate by trusting the organisation and being loyal. Similarly, the research findings by Burcak et al. (2017) found a significant positive correlation between Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification, consistent with the results of this research study. The conclusion can therefore be made that Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification.

5.4.6 Hypothesis 6: Organisational Trust (η_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

A linear regression analysis was used to test the effect of Organisational Trust on Affective Commitment. The results displayed in Table 4.52 indicated a 21.6% variance on Affective Commitment as explained by Organisational Trust (R Square = .216). The variance presented by the model appears to be significant ($b=.464$; $t=11.46$; $p<.01$). Based on these results, Hypothesis 6 posits that Organisational Trust has a significant effect on Affective Commitment; this relationship is therefore sustained. This finding can be interpreted to mean that Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment.

This significant finding that there is an important relationship between Organisational Trust and Affective Commitment indicates that if positive views of members of the SAAF on Organisational Trust and its sub-dimensions increase, the levels of Affective Commitment will increase accordingly. It is important to note that if SAAF members have high Affective Commitment, they will consequently show commitment to the organisation by means of strong attitudes and inclinations.

In addition, trust is clearly a fundamental principle that holds leaders and followers together. Conversely, if there is a lack of trust, employees accuse each other of mistakes, avoid taking any responsibility and develop defence mechanisms, which ultimately results in low Affective Commitment (Asunakutlu, 2007). This study finding resonates with the theory that states that one aspect of organisational ethics is interconnected to the employee's perceived trustworthiness of those in leadership positions in the organisation (Grant & Sumanth, 2009). This means organisational commitment and Affective Commitment were positively correlated, which postulates that if Organisational Trust is increased, Affective Commitment also increased. Similarly, the finding of this study is consistent with the results of the study by Yilmaz (2008) which found a significant positive relationship ($r=.31$; $p<0.01$) between Organisational Trust and Affective Commitment on Turkish primary-school teachers. Based on the above theoretical and empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is supported.

5.4.7 Hypothesis 7: Organisational Identification (η_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

The t-value of 8.01 ($p<.05$) in the gamma matrix presented in Table 4.48 indicates that the null hypothesis, which states that Organisational Identification has no statistical significance on Affective Commitment, can be rejected. Therefore, $H_{07}: \beta_{32} = 0$ is rejected in favour of $H_{a7}: \beta_{32} > 0$, given that the t-value associated with this path is greater than 1.65. A significant positive relationship is evident between Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment. Consequently, Hypothesis 7 is corroborated. This finding can be interpreted to mean that Organisational Identification has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment. This means that employees who are reporting high levels of identification with the organisation will report significant higher levels of Affective Commitment.

This significant finding ascertains that if SAAF members have the perception of oneness with or belongingness to the organisation, they will most likely have a sense of emotional attachment to identify with the organisation.

This result resonates with a variety of theoretical perspectives that have been proposed on how Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment are related and highlighted the significant relationship. Some authors have argued that Affective Commitment is a fragment of Organisational Identification (Ellemers et al., 2004), whereas others view Organisational Identification as part of the Affective Commitment construct (O'Reilly & Chatman, 2006). Finally, the research provides evidence that Organisational Identification is an antecedent of Affective Commitment. Several scholars' literature supported this view, arguing that identification "enhances support for and commitment to the organisation" (Van Dick, 2004, P. 26). In the same breath, Meyer et al. (2002) suggested that Organisational Identification fosters Affective Commitment toward the organisation.

Similarly, the study of Park and Judd (2005, pg.22) argued that "employees want to remain in the organisation (i.e., Affective Commitment) and are willing to exert effort on behalf of the organisation because of the benefits they derive from the relationship", to the extent that identification helps employees to maintain a positive self-image. Organisational identity should benefit employees and, as such, reinforce their Affective Commitment toward the organisation. This perspective was favourably received in recent literature about organisational psychology, so this is currently the dominant approach at the conceptual level. On the basis of the above theoretical and empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is supported.

5.4.8 Hypothesis 8: Organisational Justice (ξ_1) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

In Table 4.47 the t-value of 3.87 ($p < .05$) in the gamma matrix indicates the null hypothesis, which is that Organisational Justice has no statistical significance on Affective Commitment. Therefore, $H_{03}: \gamma_{13} = 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{a3}: \gamma_{13} > 0$ given that the t-value is associated with this path is greater than 1.65. A significant positive relationship is evident between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification. Consequently, research Hypothesis 8 is corroborated.

The perceived justice by employees is influenced by outcomes received from the organisation, as well as by the policies, procedures and practices, as well as the characteristics of the perceiver, such as demographic characteristics and personality traits (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

However, the two justice constructs differ in their relationships with specific criterion variables or links to different criterion variables (Hauenstein et al., 2001). One proposition provides (Folger & Konovsky, 1989) that Organisational Justice has strong effects on global attitudes for specific authority or institutions, such as commitment. The employees who perceive justice, exhibit commitment and trust in supervisors or in those making allocation decisions. This is explained by the referent cognitions theory, which argues that under conditions of procedural fairness, employees would be unable to envision more positive outcomes.

Another explanation provided for the stronger effect of procedural justice is due to the primacy effect of process and procedure-related information (Lind, 2001). According to the fairness heuristic theory, the information that is received first will have greater impact on the general fairness judgment (Lind, 2001). Because information related to processes and procedures is received before outcomes, it exerts a stronger influence. Lambert, Hogan and Griffin (2007) have shown that both distributive justice and procedural justice significantly influenced organisational commitment. However, the effect of procedural justice was much larger. While much research has examined the differential impacts of distributive justice and procedural justice on attitudinal outcomes, the research has not focused on the indirect relationships of distributive justice with organisational commitment and procedural justice on pay satisfaction (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005).

While studying the differential effects of different types of justices has its relevance in explaining their differential effects, a comprehensive view that studies the indirect effects is critical, as different forms of justice are not exclusive but significantly correlated with each other. Meyer and Allen (1997, as cited in Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001) noted that work experiences, such as organisational rewards, procedural justice and supervisor support, have stronger associations with Affective Commitment than structural aspects of the organisational or personal characteristics. Ha & Ha (2015) conducted a study to examine the relationship of Organisational Justice and Affective Commitment.

The regression analysis result indicated that there is a significant relationship between all dimensions of Organisational Justice (procedural justice $\beta = .66$; distributive justice $\beta = .78$; interactional justice $\beta = .89$). Based on the above theoretical and empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is suggested:

5.4.9 Hypothesis 9: Perceived Organisational Support (ξ_2) Has a Statistically Significant Positive Effect on Affective Commitment (η_3)

In Table 4.47 the t-value of 0.38 ($p < .05$) in the gamma matrix indicates that the null hypothesis, which is that perceived Organisational Justice has a statistical significance on Affective Commitment. Therefore, $H_{a9}: \gamma_{23} > 0$ can be rejected in favour of $H_{09}: \gamma_{23} = 0$ given that the t-value is associated with this path is less than the threshold value of 1.65. An insignificant positive relationship is evident between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment. Thus, research Hypothesis 9 is not corroborated. The question invariably arises to what extent this is due to the inability to successfully operationalise one of the variables in this hypothesised path.

According to this study's findings, Perceived Organisational Support has no bearing on Affective Commitment, this means that if SAAF members were to view the organisation as supportive or unsupportive, have strong emotional ties or not, identify with or not, it will have no effect on the levels of Affective Commitment within the organisation. This study is not consistent with numerous studies that found a strong interaction or association between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment (i.e. Bishop et al., 2005; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002; Lee & Peccei, 2007). All these studies results found a significant positive relationship between these constructs. Moreover, research had been conducted that perceived that Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment have similar antecedents (e.g.). Yet, these two concepts are empirically distinct.

In addition, in the study by Rhodes et al. (2001) Organisational Justice found a strong positive relationship with Affective Commitment. Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) also suggested that organisations obtain favourable outcomes when employees perceive their treatment in the organisations as favourable. Also, the research of this study does not corroborate with the study findings of Arshadi and Hayavi (2013) which were conducted in order to investigate the that effect Perceived Organisational Support has on Affective Commitment in the National Drilling Company in which 318 employees from this company participated.

The result confirmed a significant positive relationship between these two variables. Which means, if members of the SAAF perceive the SAAF organisation as supportive, they will most likely be loyal or attached to the organisation. Despite this sound argument, this effect of Perceived Organisational Support on Affective Commitment was not supported by the data of this study. The results might have been caused by either random error, interaction between these variables or the operationalisation of the constructs.

5.5 Limitations

The limitation of this study was the sample size of 480 participants that was used and thus caution should be taken when making generalisation about the overall population which is the South African Air Force members. Racial representation was another limitation of the study, in that the sample comprised of more African participants as compared to other races. The English used in the questionnaires on the scales that were employed in the study was grade A, which might have had a negative impact on participants' comprehension of the meaning of the questions asked. The time factor when the questionnaires were administered was another limitation. It is somewhat pivotal when one is administering such questionnaires to conduct it in person. The reason being that as a researcher you are then able to engage with the respondents and provide context and support by answering questions that might arise. It is undisputed that some respondents partake in the study without any commitment rather than to provide insights into the items on the questionnaire.

Moreover, another limitation to self-report research is application. Social desirability may have negatively impacted some responses. Furthermore, the study sample representativity did not consist of a fair distribution of all musterings, which affects the generalisability of the findings. However, ex post-facto design excludes the drawing of casual inferences on the findings.

5.6 Contribution of the Study

The theoretical contribution of this research study is that it identified a gap in the public sector, particularly the Department of Defence and focused on one of its branches, which is the SAAF. It unpacked the topic that has been avoided by the organisation, specifically the seniors. This is rather a sensitive issue because it somehow implicates the work environment in which the members of the SAAF find themselves.

The theoretical framework was centred around the premise of salient organisational variables which impacts Affective Commitment in the organisation. With that said, the conceptual framework that was developed was tested and found to be valid. The practical contribution is that, if the organisation understands the consequences of Affective Commitment and its benefit to the organisation and moreover, implements the recommendations that stem from this research, it will lead to a win-win situation where organisational effectiveness is fostered while members are highly motivated, loyal and function at their best.

5.7 Suggestions for Future Research

All the unanswered questions on the present study is an excellent source for future research. In this study most questions were answered in terms of the hypothesised relationships. The study had nine hypothesised relationships or paths that were initially formulated on a conceptualised model. Eight relationships were corroborated or validated with an exception of the relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment. The first suggestion, it resonates from this relationship or path, although empirical evidence highlights that there is no relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment. Numerous studies found a significant relationship between these variables. Based on that, it will be expected if military members have a perception that the organisation supports them, it will in turn result in them being effectively committed. It will be interesting to conduct a further study where this hypothesis is validated, utilising different scales. Additional study in this area where biographical information is also integrated in the study to carefully study patterns within the category of tenure, age and also different musterings, will also be helpful. A second suggestion is that there presently are very few studies which seek to unpack Affective Commitment in isolation as opposed to studying organisational commitment. As a result, there is limited research that targets the antecedents of Affective Commitment. Therefore, studies should be conducted on these factors, besides the overall focus on organisational commitment. A third suggestion for future research would be to unpack or study individual or organisational outcomes other than the ones identified in this research, that impact on Affective Commitment. Lastly, it would be interesting to expand the model by incorporating dispositional factors and external environmental factors that may have an impact on Affective Commitment. These are all interesting aspects that should be explored in future.

5.8 Practical Implications of the Findings

The practical implication of this research finding is that it provided a comprehensive theoretical overview of the salient organisational variables that impact Affective Commitment. As a result, this theoretical overview capacitates the SAAF with a predictive and integrative model that predicts the employees' Affective Commitment. This model can be regarded as an important tool which gives the SAAF's human resources managers, career managers and those in leadership positions a toolkit which provides a valid and credible psychological explanation of Affective Commitment. Furthermore, possible interventions could be derived from this model to optimise psychological state of being of SAAF employees or members affectively committed to the organisation.

The members' perception relating to organisational support and Organisational Justice plays a significant role in Affective Commitment and therefore should be addressed carefully. The research findings shed a light on the general Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification in the SAAF. Management was assisted by the snapshot profile of current perceptions of the members' Affective Commitment. This research has pivotal practical implications for HR practitioners or department heads who are developing strategic HR systems or conducting activities where members' Organisational Trust is of interest. This study offers a theoretical background that may be used as a reliable prediction tool for assessing the capabilities of the SAAF to increase the potential of HR activities in reaching the strategic vision and mission of the organisation. Moreover, it may contribute to examining whether there is an alignment and coordination between the Human Resources Management and Human Resources Development in order to achieve competitive integrated HR systems.

5.9 Recommendations

In this research study of eight hypothesised relationships, seven relationships were corroborated which are between; Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust, Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification, Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification. Perceived Organisational Support has a positive effect on Organisational Trust, Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification, Organisational Trust has a significant positive effect on Affective Commitment and Organisational Justice has a significant positive effect on Organisational Identification. On the contrary, one insignificant positive relationship was evident between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment.

The following are practical recommendations that can assist the SAAF in ensuring that its members are affectively committed to the organisation.

- Firstly, Organisational Justice was identified and empirically proven to have a significant positive relationship with Organisational Trust. Consequently, this means that a significant increase in perceived Organisational Justice will result to a significant increase in members' trust in the organisation. This has a direct positive impact on Affective Commitment. If the SAAF intends to enhance Affective Commitment amongst its members, it must ensure that the organisation is deemed as fair, transparent and just. According to Choudhry, Phillip & Kamar (2011), for the organisation to reach the state where its members perceive the organisation to have strong Organisational Justice, there should be apparent fair procedures and fair treatment.
- Secondly, Perceived Organisational Support has been empirically shown to have a significant impact on Organisational Identification. This means members' perception of organisational support impacts their identification. Therefore, to create a sense of internalised Perceived Organisational Support, members perception in terms how the organisation supports them should increase. Employees or members of the SAAF should receive positive support from the organisation, especially when it involves their supervisors. The organisation should firstly develop a fair and just work environment. By creating this fair and just environment at the workplace, members will in turn identify with the organisation. According to Eisenberger, Malone and Presson (2016) the organisation can optimise and enhance Perceived Organisational Support by using the following eight tactics;
 - (1) The organisation must implement supportive workforce services that are discretionary and refrain from "just doing things you are required to do". In a nutshell this means favourable treatment received by members of the SAAF which varies eg. such as recognition for good work and opportunities for growth in the field. A study by Jacobson, Jones and Bowers (2011) posits that Employee Assistance Programs (EAP) often better improve psychological, social and more importantly occupational functioning, which positively impacts Perceived Organisational Support. Therefore, the SAAF should look at putting up EAP services that are tailor-made to address the shortcomings and challenges of their members.

(2) Monitoring and enforcement of management practices in a fair and equitable manner should take place. This means fair application of policies and fair organisational procedures are a strong predictor of the perception of Organisational Justice which in turn results in a strong perception of organisational support (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Organisations that treat their employees fairly and equally thus transcend to a sense of concern for well-being. This narrative is supported by the empirical finding between Organisational Justice and Organisational Identification. Strong evidence of fair treatment which includes procedural justice (fairness of processes used to determine pay, promotions, job distribution and resources allocated), distributive justice (concern that outcomes are addressed fairly), interpersonal justice (all employees treated with respect and dignity) and informational justice (which involves the provision and disseminating job-related information).

(3) Support supervisors so that they will foster support for their subordinates. It is of utmost importance for the organisation to provide support to the supervisors. Given that, supervisors act as representatives of the organisation responsible for coaching, directing and evaluating the goals and objectives of the organisation. The SAAF needs to provide support to those in supervisory roles. When supervisors feel supported by the organisation, they report increased Perceived Organisational Support. Moreover, engage in more voluntary behaviour helpful for the organisation (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

(4) Promote social networks. Social networks in the workplace provide strong bonds of interpersonal relationships, offering information that will lead to work-life experience that will directly result in Organisational Trust and the perception of organisational support (Hayton, Carnabuci & Eisenberger, 2016).

(5) Train subordinates to be supportive. The organisation should use training institutions and courses to provide programs such as mentorship, coaching, etc. which are aimed at equipping members with a toolkit which will ensure that they support one another. Organisational support theory was extended to tap into supervisory perceptions about the group support they receive from subordinates and it was proven that there is a norm of reciprocity.

- Thirdly, it is indisputable that Organisational Identification plays a pivotal role in ensuring that members are affectively committed to the organisation. As said by the former Chief of Defence (Defence Review, 2015), it is a wish to have highly-committed soldiers who are intensely loyal and act as ambassadors for the Defence Force. In particular, in the SAAF, given the nature in which the organisation functions, it is pivotal to have aviators and airmen who are ambassadors for the organisation. A person's sense of being part of the organisation can be beneficial both to the SAAF and the member. The organisation benefits by having committed employees who put extra effort into their daily tasks and workers benefit by increased morale and an improved sense of satisfaction. Therefore, optimising and strengthening Organisational Identification remains a responsibility of organisational management. The organisation can start early when the members are accepted into the organisation. It is important for them to be assimilated into the organisational culture, not only concerning the functioning of the military environment, but also to incorporate lessons or courses that assimilate the organisational culture which includes being familiar with personal roles and co-worker roles. Furthermore, the organisation should adopt a participative leadership which allows members to have an input into organisational decision-making processes. This might seem to be absolutely impossible, given the nature of the organisation where orders are given from the top down. This doesn't mean that the leaders have to consult with those in lower ranks about every decision, but rather set parameters about when input will be welcomed and implement the process for soliciting other ideas. This type of leadership style can increase Organisational Identification because members feel that their views are being valued. One of the most important complaints in the organisation concerns policies that are unfairly applied. Members want to become part of the organisation where decision-making is fair and the organisation values honesty. Therefore, if those in senior positions or ranks cultivate a culture of fairness, honesty and sound ethics, the organisation will have members who are more likely to identify with the organisation, even when an unpopular decision is made. According to Ryckman (2019), "the perception that decisions are fair and ethical can oftentimes offset the bad news itself".

- Fourthly, trust is a cornerstone of organisational effectiveness and a key component of work relationships. It is also a fundamental requirement in creating a great place to work. When employees do not form part of the bigger picture, in this instance the overall SAAF, the vision and strategy is that the organisation will run into challenges such as poor work quality or even demotivated and disengaged members. Trust includes reciprocal expectations of dependability such as integrity, honesty, support, loyalty, respect and more importantly, care between co-workers. According to Ruder (2003) there are four ways to build trust in the organisation, namely, communication, maintaining moral standards, avoiding punitive people programs and creating norms of trust.
- Putting it all together, this research studied organisational variables that have a salient impact on Affective Commitment. In order for the organisation to have affectively committed members, it requires optimisation of the following variables namely, Organisational Justice, Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification. The SAAF must establish the organisational practices that are geared towards improving the identified variable. The SAAF will in turn benefit from the interventions such as training, workshop, mentoring, coaching and seminars.

5.10 Conclusions

This research study was aimed at assessing the effect of organisational salient factors on Affective Commitment. It is without a doubt that every organisation's ideal state is to have affectively committed employees. Affective Commitment is also associated to loyalty. Loyal employees are said to go over and above in terms of deliverables in the workplace. Integrity is their fundamental principle, and they display discretionary behaviour. Moreover, they act as ambassadors of the organisation. In addition to this, such employees can easily identify with the organisation which results in reduced turnover interventions and enhanced dedication. Affective Commitment does not only impact the employees' attitude, but also results to overall Organisational Functioning, specifically in the field of productivity.

This study also identified four salient organisational factors that result in Affective Commitment, namely Perceived Organisational Support, Organisational Justice, Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification. The proposed conceptual model has proved to make a meaningful contribution. The highlights of the results of the model analysis suggest the adequate to good fit of the model. Moreover, the significant model parameters and paths were established, whilst the inability to confirm Organisational Trust using the model was disappointing. However, regression came in handy to confirm all parts that include the variable of Organisational Trust. In summary, it can be said that this model showed a close fit as seven parts were corroborated. Therefore, it can confidently be concluded that the model was meaningful and further research can be conducted with a focus on including mediating variables on the model.

The pivotal findings of this research are the confirmation of the significant link between the endogenous latent variables. Significant relationships were confirmed between: Organisational Justice and Organisational Trust; Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Identification; Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Trust; Organisational Trust and Organisational Identification; Organisational Trust and Affective Commitment; Organisational Identification and Affective Commitment; Organisational Justice and Affective Commitment.

Study findings suggested that there is no significant relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Affective Commitment. The limitation of this study was highlighted that this might have an impact on the findings. The findings of this research provide pivotal insights for the SAAF into what needs to be in place in order to ensure that its members remain affectively committed to the organisation.

5.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter was aimed at highlighting the conclusion attained from this study, starting by firstly providing a background of the study aim and objectives. It further provided a summary of the findings such as reliability analysis, dimensionality analysis, measurement analysis and overall measurement analysis. Additionally, it unpacked the structural model and relationships between latent variables. The limitations of the study were also addressed, with the emphasis on the methodology and the narrow pool of sample.

References

- Adams, W. K. & Wieman, C. E. Development and validation of instruments to measure learning of expert-like thinking. *International Journal of Social Science Education*, 1, 1-24.
- Akcin, K., Erat, S., Alniacik, U. & Ciftioflu, A. B. (2017). Effects of Perceived Organisational Support on organisational silence and task performance: A study on academicians. *Journal of Global Strategic Management*, 11(1), 035-044.
- Alev, S. (2021). The relationship between Organisational Justice, professional motivation and Organisational Identification: A study on teachers. *Educational Policy Analysis and Strategic Research*, 16(1).
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organisation. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
- Alvi, A. K., Meyer, J. S., & Haider, R. (2014). Relationship of Perceived Organisational Support and employee engagement. *Science International*, 26(2), 949-959.
- Ambrose, M. L. & Arnuad, A. (2005). Are procedural justice and distributive Justice conceptually distinct? J. Greenberg & J. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of Organisational Justice* (p.59-84). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Amin, W., Akram, U., Shahzad, F., Amir, M. (2018). Impact of transformation on affective employee's commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 7(1). 48-57.
- Antwerpen, S., & Ferreira, E. (2016). Contributing factors to poor service delivery by administrative employees in the Gauteng public service in South Africa. *Africa Development, Council for the Development of Social Science Research in South Africa*, 1, 81-89.
- Armstrong, E. & Cassidy, T. (2019). Psychological capital, authentic leadership and Organisational Identification and stress in voluntary sector workers. *American Journal of Business and Society*, 49(1), 9-15.

- Arshadi, N. & Hayavi, G. (2013). The effect of Perceived Organisational Support on Affective Commitment and job performance: mediating role of OBSE. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 84, 739-743.
- Ashforth, B., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. (2008). Identification in organisations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management*, 34(3), 325-374.
- Asunakutlu, T. (2007). Trust, culture and organisational reflections. In: Managerial-organisational behaviour in cultural context, Erdem, R. and C.S. Cukur (Eds.). *Turkish Psychological Association Publishing, Ankara*, 231-265.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The Practice of Social Rresearch*. South Africa. Oxford University Press, Cape Town
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2004). *The Practice of Social Research*. South Africa. Oxford University Press. Cape Town.
- Bastug, G., Pala, A., Kumartasli, M. Gunel, L. & Duyan, M. (2016). Investigation of the relationship between Organisational Trust and organisational commitment. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 4(6), 1418-1435.
- Baumgartner, H., & Homburg, C. (1996). Applications of structural equation modelling in marketing and consumer research: A review. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 13(2), 139-169.
- Bharadwaj, N., & Matsuno, K. (2006). Investigating the antecedents and outcomes of customer firm transaction cost savings in a supply chain relationship: *Journal of Business Research*, 59, 62-72.
- Bishop, J. W., Scott, K. D., Goldby, M. G. & Cropanzano, R. (2005). A construct validity study of commitment and perceived support variables. *Group and Organisation Management*, 39(2), 153-180.
- Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2009). Testing and extending the group engagement model: Linkages between social identity, procedural justice, economic outcomes, and extrarole behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 445-464.

- Breslin, C. B. (2000). *Organisational Culture and the Military*. U.S. Army War College, Carlisle Barracks. PA.
- Burcak, Alptekin & Yunus, B. (2017). Organisational Trust, organisational identification and organisational cynicism. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention ISSN (Online)*. 6(3), 2319-8105.
- Butler, A. (2012). The effect of organisational justice perceptions associated with the use of electronic monitoring on employees' organisational citizenship and withdrawal behaviors: A social exchange perspective - *Unpublished Master's Thesis*, University of Windsor, Canada.
- Byrne, B.M. (2014). *Structural Equation Modelling with Lisrel, Prelis, and Simplis: Basic Concepts, Applications and Programming (Multivariate Applications Series)* (1st ed.). Psychology Press.
- Caldwell, C., & Floyd, L. A. (2014). *High Performance Work Systems: Building Commitment to Increase Profitability*. Graziado Business Review, 17(3).
- Caldwell, C., Floyd, L. A., Atkins, R., & Holzgrefe, R. (2012). Ethical duties of organisational citizens: Obligations owed by highly committed employees. *Journal of Business*, 8,100-111.
- Casimir, G., Ng, Y. K., & Ooi, G. (2014). The relationship among leader-member exchange, perceived organisational support, affective commitment, and in-role performance: A social-exchange perspective. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 35, 366-385.
- Chen, S, Yu, H, Hsu, H., Lin, F. & Lou, J. (2013). Organisational support, organisational identification and organisational citizenship behaviour among male nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 21(8), 1072-1082.
- Chen, S., Wu, W., Chang, C., Li, C., Kung, J., Weng, H., Lin, Y. & Lee, S. (2015). Organisational justice, trust and identification and their effects on organisational commitment in hospital nursing staff. *BMC Health Services Research*, 15, 363.

- Chen, Z. X., Aryee, S., & Lee, C. (2005). Test of a mediation model of perceived organisational support. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 66,456-469.
- Cho, Y. J., & Park, H. (2011). Exploring the relationships among trust, employee satisfaction, and organisational commitment. *Public Management Review*, 13, 551-573.
- Choudhry, N., Phillip, P. J. & Kumar, R. (2011). Impact of organisational justice on organisational effectiveness. *Industrial Engineering Letters*. 1(3).
- Coetzee, M. & Vermeulen, L. P. (2006). Perceptions of the dimensions of the fairness of affirmative action. *African Journal of Business Management*, 37, 53-65.
- Cohen-Charash, Y. & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organisations: A meta-analysis. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Process*, 86(2), 278-321.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M.J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Yee N. K. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organisational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(2), 425-444.
- Cotterell, N., Eisenberger, R., & Speicher, H. (1992). Inhibiting effects of reciprocity wariness on interpersonal relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(4), 658-668.
- Coyle- Shapiro, J. A. M., Kessler, I., & Purcell, J. (2004). Exploring organisationally directed citizenship behaviour: Reciprocity or it's my job? *Journal of Management Studies*, 41(1), 85-106.
- Cropanzano, R., & Molina, A. (2015) Organisational justice. *International Encyclopedia of Social & Behavioral Science*, 17(2), 379-384.
- Cropanzano, R. & Stein, J. H. (2009). Organisational justice and behavioural ethics: Promises and prospects. *Business Ethic Quarterly*, 19(2), 193-233.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.

- Cummings, L., & Broomely, P. (1996). The organisational trust inventory (OTI). In R. Kramer & T Tyler (Eds.). *Trust in organisations: Frontiers of Theory and Research*. Thousand Oaks Sage Publishers, 302-330.
- Currall, S. C., & Inkpen, A. C. (2002). A multilevel approach to trust in joint ventures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Palgrave MacMillan; Academy of International Business, 33(3), 479-497.
- Dai, K. L. & Qin, X. Y. (2016). Perceived organisational support and employee engagement. Based on the research of organisational identification and organisational justice. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 4, 46-47.
- Dang, L., Yang, M. & Marcoulides, K.M. (2018). Structural equation model with many variables: A systematic review of issues and development. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10(1), 1-14.
- Davis, W (2015). All the happy workers. The Atlantic. Retrieved Feb 18, 2020. <https://www.theatlantic.com/business/archives/2015/6/allhappyworkers/394907>.
- Derress, B., Adugna, K., Bezane, B., Jebessa, G., & Demissie, Y. (2022). The relationship between organisational commitment and organisational justice among health care workers in Ethiopian Jimma Zone health facilities. *Journal of Healthcare Leadership*, 14(2), 5-18.
- Department of Defence, (2015). Defence Review 2015. Retrieved Feb 18, 2020. <https://pmg.org.za/committee-meeting/29084/>
- Department of Defence. (2019). Annual Report FY2018/19. Retrieved Feb 18, 2020. https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/202002/DoD-annual-
- De Vaus, D. A. (2009). *Research Design in Social Research*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Diamantopoulos, A., & Siguaaw, J. A. (2000). *Introducing LISREL*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Diamantopoulos, A. (2005). The C-OAR-SE procedure for scale development in marketing: A comment: *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 22(1), 1-9.

- Dirks, K. & Ferrin, D. (2002). Trust in leadership. Meta-analytic findings and implication for research practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(5),812-820.
- Disaster Management Act (2020). Regulations: Alert level 2 during Coronavirus COVID-19 lockdown. Government Gazette 43620, 17 August, 2020. Retrieved Aug 18, 2000. <https://www.gov.za/coronavirus/alert-level-2>
- Dukerich, J. M. Golden, B. R. & Shortell, S.M. (2002). Beauty is in the eye of the beholder: The impact of organisational identification, identity, and image on the cooperative behaviours of physicians. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47, 507-533.
- Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhodes, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organisational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 42-51.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., and Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organisational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.
- Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. (1997). Perceived organisational support, discretionary treatment, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 812-820.
- Eisenberger, R., Malone, G. P., & Presson, W. D. (2016). Optimising perceived organisational support to enhance employee engagement. *Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(9).
- Eisenberger, R., & Stinglhamber, F. (2011). Perceived organisational support: Fostering enthusiastic and productive employees. Washington, DC, US: *American Psychological Association*, 80, 450-485.
- Ellemers, N, De Gilder D. & Haslam, S.A. (2004). Motivating individuals and groups at work: A social identity perspective on leadership and group performance. *Academic Management Review*, (29), 459–478.
- Engelbrecht, L. (2012). Research ethical consideration. *Academic Management Review*, 6(1), 12-16.

- Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., & Heller, D. (2009). Organisational supports and organisational deviance: The mediating role of organisation-based self-esteem. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 108(2), 279-286.
- Folger, R. & Cropanzano, R. (1998). *Organisational justice and Human Resource Management*, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Folger, R. & Greenberg, R. (1985). Organisational justice at workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 4(5), 113-123.
- Folger, R. & Konvsky, M.A. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice reactions to pay raise decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 115-130.
- Foster, R. D. (2010). Resistance, justice and commitment to change. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 21(1), 3-39. Doi:10.1002/hrdq.20035.
- Georges, T. (2010). Organisational commitment: A review of the evolution from side-bets to the three-component conceptualisation model. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 20(5), 27-32.
- Gliem, R.R., & Gliem, J. A. (2003). Calculating interpreting and reporting Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient for Likert-type scale. *Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education*.
- Glinska-News, A., (2013). Employee interpersonal relationships, managing the areas of itive organisational potential for company success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*., 14(2), 125-154.
- Gilson, L. (2003). Trust and the development of health care as a social institution. *Social Science and Medicine*, 54(7), 1453-1468.
- Gok, S., Karatuna, L., & Karaca, P. O. (2015). The role of perceived supervisor support and organisational identification in job satisfaction. *Procidia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 177, 38-42.
- Graham, J. W. (2009). Missing data analysis: making it work in the real world. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(1), 581-590.

- Grant, A. M., & Sumanth, J. J. (2009). Missionsible? The performance of pro-socially motivated employees depends on manager trustworthiness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 927-944.
- Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organisational justice theories. *The Academy of Management Review, 12* (1), 9-22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/257990>.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organisational justice yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*, 399-432.
- Greenberg, J. (2009). Everybody talks about organisational justice, but nobody does anything about it. *Industrial and Organisational Psychology, 2*(2), 181-195.
- Grund, C., & Titz, K. (2022). Affective commitment through further training: the roles of firm provision and employee participation. *Review Managerial Science, 16*, 1195-1226.
- Ha, J. & Ha, J. (2015). Organisational justice – affective Commitment relationship in a term of sport setting: The moderating effect of group cohesion. *Journal of Management & Organisation, 21*(1), 107-124.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tantham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (Eds.). (2006a). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (10th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R.E. & Tantham, R.L. (2006b). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education Incorporated.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W. C. & Babbin, B. J. (2010), Anderson, R.E. *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hashmi, A., Ahmad, M.A., & Nawaz, M, A. (2021). The role of coordination, decision making and special data infrastructure on the disaster management in Parkistand: Moderation role of information system. *Review of Applied Management and Social Sciences, 4*(1), 79-91.

- Hauenstein, N. M. A., McGonigle, T. & Flinder, S. W. (2001). A meta-analysis of the relationship between procedural justice and distributive justice: Implications for justice research. *Employee Responsibilities and Right Journal*, 13(1), 39-56.
- Hayton, J., Camabuci, G., & Eisenberger, R. (2011). With a little help from my colleagues: A social embeddedness approach to perceive organisational support. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 33, 235-308.
- Herrera, J. & Heras-Rosas, C. (2021). The organisational commitment in the company and its relationship with the psychological contract. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11(609211).
- Hirst, G., van Dick, R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2009). A social identity perspective on leadership and employee creativity. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 30(7), 963-982.
- Hogg, M.A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization process in organisational contexts. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 121-140.
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J. & Mullen, M. R. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Journal on Business Research Methods*, 6(1), 53-60.
- Hope-Hailey, V., Dietz, G., & Searle, R. (2012). Where has all the trust gone? CIPD.
<https://www.simplypsychology.org-identity-theory.html>
- Jacobson, J. M., Jones, A. L., & Bowers, N. (2011). Using existing employee assistance relations to inputs and outcomes. *Journal of Workplace Behavioural Health*, 23(3), 263-282.
- Janonien, G. G. & Endriulaitiene, A. (2014). Employee organisation commitment: Its negative aspects for organisations. *Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 140, 558-564.
- Jaros, S. J., (1994). Effects of continuance, affective, and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(5), 951-995.

- Khan, A. J., Bashir, F., Nasim, I., & Ahmad, R. (2021). Understanding affective, normative & continuance commitment through the lens of training and development. *Irasd Journal of Management*, 3(2), 105-113.
- Khiavi, F., Shakhi, F., Dehghani, K., Zahiri, R. (2016). The correlation between organisational justice and trust among employees of rehabilitation clinics in hospitals of Ahvaz, Iran. *Electronic Physician*, 8, 1904-1910.
- Kim, K. Y., Eisenberger, R. & Baik, K. (2016). Perceived organisation support and affective organisational commitment: Moderating influence of perceived organisational competence. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 37(4), 558-583.
- Knights, C. P. & Haslam, S. A. (2010). Your place or mine? organisational identification and comfort as mediators of relationship between the managerial control of workspace and employee's motivation and well-being. *British Journal of Management*, 33(2), 234-245.
- Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2015). Perceived organisational support: A meta-analytic evaluation of organisational support theory. *Journal of Management*, 20(5), 1-31.
- Lambert, E. G., Hogan, N. L. & Griffin, M. L. (2007). The impact of distributive and procedural justice on correctional staff job stress, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 35(10), 644-659.
- Lance, E. C. E. & Vandenberg, R. J. (2009). *Statistical and methodological myth of research legends*, New York: Routledge.
- Lee, J. & Peccei, R. (2007). Perceived organisational support and affective commitment: the mediating role of organisation-based self-esteem in the context of job security. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour: The international Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organisational Psychology and Behaviour*, 28(6), 661-685.
- Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgements as pivotal cognitions in organisational relations. In: Greenberg, J. & Crapanzano, R., Eds., *Advance in Organisational Justice*, Stanford University Press, Standford, 56-68.

- Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G. & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modelling*, (2), 151-173.
- Liu, Y. (2009). Perceived organisational support and expatriate organisational citizenship behaviour: The mediating role of Affective Commitment towards the parent company. *Personnel Review*, 38, 307-319.
- Liu, S.Y. (2018). The study of impact of perceived organisational support on job involvement: The mediation effect of organisational trust (*Unpublished Thesis*). Guanxi University, China.
- Mael, F. A. & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organisational identification. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 13(2), 103-123.
- Makanjee, C. R., Harzer, Y. F., & Uys, I. L. (2006). The effect of perceived organisational support on organisational commitment, *Journal of Diagnostic Imaging Radiographers*, 12(2), 118-126.
- Makhanya, L. (2022, May 30). One killed in KZN's N3 protest. EWN. <https://thewitness.co.za/2022/05/30/one-killed-in-KZN's-N3-protest>
- Marique, G., Stinglhamber, F., Desmette, D., Caesns, G., & De Zanet, F. (2013). The relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment. A social identity perspective. *Group and Organisation Management*, 38, 68 – 100.
- Mayer, R. C. & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 123-136.
- McDonald, R. P. & Ho, J. (2016). Principles and practice in reporting structural equation analyses. *Psychology Methods*, 7, 64-82.
- Mcdowall, A. & Fletcher, C. (2004). Employee development: An organisational justice perspective. *Personnel Review*, 33(1), 8-29.

- McLeod, S. A. (2019). Social identity theory. *Simply psychology*.
- Mercurio, Z. A. (2015) Affective commitment as a core essence of organisational commitment. *Human Resource Development Review*, 14(4), 389-414.
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective continuance, and normative commitment to the organisation: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 61, 20-52.
- Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E. & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: A conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(2): 991–1007.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). *Commitment in the Workplace Theory, Research, and Application*. Thousand Oaks, CA Sage.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). A three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-69.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organisations and originations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualisation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538-551.
- Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behavior: do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(1), 845-856.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steer, R. M. (2013). *Employee-organisation linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. Academic Press.
- Nayir, F. (2012). The relationship between Perceived organisational support and teachers' organisational commitment. *Egitim Arastirmalari - Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 48, 97-116.
- Nguyen, H. D, Tran, D, M., Ba Vu, T. & Thi Le, P. T. (2020). An emperical study of affective commitment: The case of machinery enterprises in Hochiminh City. *Organisations and Markets in Emerging Economics*. 11(22)429-445.

- Niehoff, B. & Moorman, P. R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organisational citizenship behaviour. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3), 527-566.
- Olkomen, M. E. & Lipponen, J. (2006). Relationships between organisational justice, identification with organisation and work unit, and group-related outcomes. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 100(2), 202-215. <https://doi.org/20.1016/j.obhdp.2005.08.007>.
- Oehley, A. M. (2007). The development and evaluation of a partial talent management competency model. *Unpublished Master's Thesis*. Stellenbosch University.
- O'Reilly C & Chatman J. (2006). Organisational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalisation on pro-social behaviour. *Journal in Applied Psychology*. 2006, 71: 492–499.
- Pallant, J. F. (2000). Development and validation of a scale to measure perceived control of internal states. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 75(2), 308-337.
- Pallant, J. F. (2016). *SPSS survival manual: A Step by Step to Data Analysis Using SPSS*. (5th ed.). NSW, Australia: Allen Unwin.
- Pomyalova, V. O., Vlkova, N. V. & Kalinina, O. V. (2020). Effect of the university organisational culture perception on student's commitment: the role of organisational identification. Industrial and Organisational Psychology Publishing, 940.
- Parasuraman, A, (2005). Technology Readiness Index (TRI): A multiple item scale to measure readiness to embrace new technologies, *Journal of Services Research*, 2 (4), 307-320.
- Park B, & Judd, C. M. (2005). Rethinking the link between categorization and prejudice within the social cognition perspective. *Perspective Social Psychology Review*, 9: 108–130. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0902_2 [PubMed].
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B. & Bommer, W. (2006). Relationships between leader reward and punishment behaviour and subordinate attitude, perceptions, and

- behaviours: A meta-analytic review of existing and new research. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 99(2),113-142.
- Porter, L. W., Crampon, W. J., Smith, F. J. (1976). Organisational commitment and managerial turnover: A longitudinal study. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 15, 87-98.
- Postmes, T. & Brandscombe, N. (2010). Sources of social identity. In T. Postmes & Brandscombe (Eds). *Rediscovering Social Identity: Core Sources*. Psychology Press.
- Quintana, S. M. & Maxwell, S. E. (1999). Implications of recent developments in structural equation modelling for counselling psychology. *The Counselling Psychologist*, 27(4),485-527.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organisational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698–714.
- Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organisation and the contribution of perceived organisational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 5, 825-836.
- Ristig, K. (2009). The impact of perceived organisational support and trustworthiness on trust. *Management Research News*, 32(6), 659-669.
- Ruder, G. J. (2003). The relationship among organisational justice, trust, and role breadth self-efficacy. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Virginia, USA.
- Rupp, D. E. & Cropanzano, R. (2002). The mediating effects of social exchange relationships in predicting workplace outcomes from multifocal organisational justice. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 89, 925-946.
- Ryckman, M. (2019). How to strengthen organisational identification. *Time Management: Newsletter*.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). A beginner's guide to structural equation research (2nded.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

- Sefularo, P. (2022, June, 02). The impact of of municipal infrastructure in basic service delivery in South Africa. <https://ewn.co.za/2022/06/02/the-impact-of-municipal-infrastructure-in-basic-service-delivery>
- Shao, H., Fu, H., Ge Y, Jia, W., & Wang, J. (2002). Moderating effects of transformational leadership, Affective commitment, job performance and job security. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13(34), 1-10.
- Shanock, L. R., & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates perceived supervisor support, perceived organisational support and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 689-695.
- Shockley-Zalabak, P., Ellis, K, & Winograd, G. (2000). Organisational trust: what it means, why it matters. *Organisational Developmental Journal*, 18(4), 35-48.
- Shore, L. M., & Shore, T.H. (2003). Perceived organisational support and organisational justice. In R. S. Cropanzano & K. M. Kacmar (Eds.), *Organisational politics, justice and support: Managing the social climate in the workplace*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Shoss, M., Eisenberger, R., Restubog, S. & Zagenczyk, T. (2013). Blaming the organisation for abusive supervision: The roles of Perceived organisational support and supervisors organisational research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(1), 158-168.
- Shukla, A. & Rai, H. (2015). Linking Perceived organisational support on organisational trust and commitment: Moderating role of psychological Capital. *Global Business Review*, 16(6), 981-996.
- Singh, B. S. P. & Malhotra, M. (2015). The mediating role of trust in the relationship between Perceived organisational support and silence. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publication*, 5(9). 1-10.
- Steffens, N. K., Haslam, S. A., Schuh, S. C., Jettenm, J., & van Dick, R. (2015). Of the groups and for the groups: How fellowship is shaped by leaders prototypically and group identification. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 45(2), 180-190.

- Stellenbosch University. Research Ethics Committee: Social Behavioural and Education Research. *Ethical Rules of Research*. (2006). South Africa.
- Stinglhamber, F., Marique, G., Caesens, G., Desmette, D., Hansez, I., Hanin, D. & Bertrand, F. (2015). Employees organisational identification and affective organisational commitment: An integrative approach. *PLOS One*, 10(4), 1-23.
- Strom, D. L. , Sears, K. L., & Kelly, K. M. (2014). Work engagement: the roles of organisational justice and leadership style in predicting engagement among employees. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 21(1), 71-82.
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling methods in research methodology; How to choose a sampling technique for research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*. 5(2), 18-27.
- Tavakol, M. & Dennick, R. (2011). Perceived organisational support examination analysis of objective tests. *Medical teacher*, 33, 447-458.
- Terzi, A. R., Dulker, A. P., Altin, F., Celik, F. Dalkiran, M., Yulcu, N. T., Tekin, S. & Deniz, U. (2017). An analysis of organisational justice and organisational identification relation based on teachers' perceptions. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 5(3).
- Theron, C. C. (2013). *Research Methodology*. Unpublished class notes (Industrial Psychology 776), Stellenbosch University, South Africa.
- Theron, C. C. (2014). *Research Methodology & Statistics*. Unpublished class notes (Industrial Psychology 776), Stellenbosch University, South Africa.
- Thomas, L. (2020, May 8). What is a cross-sectional study? Scribbr.Com. <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/cross-sectional-study/>
- Tomic, I., Tesic, Z., Kuzmanovic, B., & Tomic, M. (2018). An emperical study of employee loyalty, service quality, cost reduction and company performance. *Economic Research*, 31(1), 827-847.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2004). Justice and egotiation. In M.J. Gelfand & J.M. Brett. (Eds.). *Handbook of Notiation and Culture*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

- Ullrich, J., Wieseke, J., Christ, O., Schulze, M., & van Dick, R. (2007). The identity-matching principle: Corporate and organisational identification in a franchising system. *British Journal of Management*, 18(1), 29-44.
- Van den Bos, K., & Lind, E. A. (2002). Uncertainty management by means of fairness judgements. In M.P. Zanna (Eds.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 34,1-60. San Diego, CA, US: Academic Press.
- Van den Akker, J., de Boer, W., Folmer, E., Kuiper, W., Letschert, J. & Thijs, A. (2009). Curriculum in Development. Enschede.
- Van Dick, R. (2004). My job is my castle: Identification in organisational contexts. *International Review Industrial and Organisational Psychology*. 171–203.
- Van Dick, R., Grosjean, M. W., Christ; O., & Wieseke, J. (2006). Identify and the extra mile: Relationship between organisational identification and organisational citizenship behaviour. *British Journal of Management*, 17(4), 283-301.
- Van Knippenberg, D, D, & Haslam, S. A. (2007). Realising the diversity dividend: exploring interplay between identity, ideology, and reality. In Social identity at work: Developing theory for organisational practice. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 66(7).
- Wang, P., & Rode, J. C. (2010). Transformational leadership and follower creativity: The moderating effects of identification with leader and organisational climate. *Human Relations Journal*, 63(8), 1105-1128.
- Webber, S., & Bishop, K., & O'Neil. T. (2012). Trust repair. The impact of perceived organisational support and issue-selling. *Journal of Management Development*, 31(7),724-737.
- Weston, R., & Gore, P. A., Jr. (2006). A brief guide to structural equation modelling. *The Counselling Psychologist*, 34(4), 719-751.
- Wiener, Y. (1982). Commitment in organisations: A normative view. *Academy of Management Review*, 7,418-428.

Yilmaz, K. (2008). The relationship between Organisational trust and organisational commitment in Turkish primary schools. *Journal of Applied Science*, 8(12).

Zangirolami-Raimundo, J., Echeimberg, J. O, & Leone, C. (2018). Research methodology topics: Cross-sectional studies. *Journal of Human Growth and Development*, 28(3), 356-360.

Zhi-When, C. N. (not dated). Available at: Fairness Matters: Research on Organisational justice in the SAF. <https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/read/3565134/research-on-organisational-justice-in-the-international-military->

Zwahlen, C. & Li, I. (2022). Workplace fairness at forefront: Organisational justice wins and losses in 2022. *Journal of Talent Management*, 3(2).