

## Public Confidence in Organizations

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**Abstract:** The aim of this study is two-fold within the broader context of organizational trust. Firstly, to build an organizational trust model for socio-political institutions in Jamaica (using confidence in 22-sociopolitical institutions in the society) as well as to examine the top five and the lower five institutions in regard to people's confidence in them. Secondly, from the model ascertain what is the explanatory power of the final model, and from the identify model examine the explanation of each of the significant factors as well as ascertain whether the model is a predictive one. The findings of this study were obtained from a nationally representative descriptive cross-sectional observational survey data of some 1,338 Jamaicans, with a sampling error of  $\pm 3\%$ : 95% confidence level. The observational data was stored and retrieved using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 17.0. Logistic regression was used to establish the predictive model for organizational trust, with factor analysis used to establish the variable referred to as trust in organization. Cronbach alpha was used to test the validity of the following variables-political participation and subjective psychosocial wellbeing. While we do not claim to provide all the answers with this single static study, it will be used assist future research in the area, as nothing exists on the topic at the moment.

**Key words:** Confidence in socio-political institution, distrust, organizational trust, trust

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### INTRODUCTION

People's behaviour is essentially influenced by their perception of what they believe reality is, not by reality itself. Despite the many anti-corruption measures, which have been implemented over the years, generally speaking, the critical findings of this CaPRI Taking Responsibility Survey revealed that there exists a broad consensus among many Jamaicans that corruption is still prevalent and persistent in all government institutions. (Waller *et al.*, 2007).

[Corruption] violates the public trust [i.e. confidence] and corrodes social capital (World Bank, 1997).

Traditionally, there is a perception that corruption was widespread and rampant in Jamaica, and scholars have found that this has remained the same in 2007 (Boxill *et al.* 2007; Waller *et al.*, 2007). In Waller *et al.* (2007) monograph titled 'A landscape assessment of political corruption in Jamaica', using sample survey research of some 1,140 Jamaica by way of probability sampling technique, find that 85% of the respondents report that it was easy to corrupt public officials. Based on current public perception, Jamaicans have a low level of trust in socio-political institutions (in particular government, police, customs) Powell *et al.* (2007) trust in government 8%; trust in police 46.7%; political parties 30.3%; local government 40.3%) and that this is due to perception of corruption, past performance of organizations, unmet expectations, injustices and

inequitable distribution of economic resources and the lack of transparency within the global context of increased accountability, credibility and transparency. The issues of unaccountability and low transparency are characteristics that led to violation of public trust (Uslaner, 2005), and that this breeds corruption, which erodes the public's confidence in socio-political institutions as well as the depletion of social capital. Uslaner (2005) argues that there is a strong reciprocal relation between corruption and trust. He added that countries with high levels of corruption have a low degree of trust and the opposite is true (Uslaner, 2005), and further offered that this affects gross domestic product (economic growth). In examining distrust, Uslaner (2005) finds that this is statistically association with tax evasion, and bureaucracy. Tax evasion is a clear case of corruption, and dishonesty; but how critical is it in a society?

A low social capital country is not only likely to have small, weak, and inefficient companies; it will also suffer from pervasive corruption of its public officials and ineffective public administration (Fukuyama, 1995).

In March 2006, in her inaugural address [to the nation], the Most Honourable Portia Lucretia Simpson-Miller, Jamaica's first female Prime Minister, made the following oath [that] "I want to pledge to the Jamaican people to work tirelessly to eradicate corruption and extortion. I am committed to their eradication" (Jamaica Information Service, 2003; Waller *et al.*, 2007).

The issue of corruption is no longer a perception, it is a reality; and the former Prime Minister of Jamaica admitted this in her inaugural address to the nation. Recently Jamaica has seen an unprecedented number of arrests of police officers for corruption, and a number of key public officials have been defamed due to - (1) falsification of academic qualifications ("Dr." Omer Thomas), (2) misuse of public funds (former Junior Minister in the Ministry of Energy – Kern Spencer; JAG Smith), (3) alleged 'wife beatings', and (4) confession of the falsification of statement (Detective police constable, Corey Lyn Sue) – and these have further reduce the public's trust in particular sociopolitical institutions as well as they are increased interpersonal distrust (or confidence). Those issues are not specialized to the geopolitical space of the Jamaica as they extend to the Caribbean, United States, Europe, Asia, Africa and the Oceania. Jamaica, Haiti, Iraq, Grenada, Dominica, and Guyana to name of few nations have continuously had to interface with crime and violence, and high distrust in sociopolitical organizations. Anthony Harriott, Christopher Charles, Don Robotham, Dillon Alleyne and Ian Boxill, Mark Figueroa and Amand Sives, Farley Brathwaite, and Scot Wortley have all contributed various scholarships on crime, criminal justice (or injustice), and victimization from a Caribbean perspective (Boxill *et al.*, 2007), but dearth of literature exists on organization trust despite the seemingly correlation between crime and different typologies of distrust. Hence, this study bridges the gap by examining organization trust (confidence), using sample survey research. The sample was a stratified random sample of some 1,338 Jamaicans, which was a nationally representative cross-sectional research. The aim of this study is two-fold. Firstly, to build an organizational trust model for socio-political institutions in Jamaica (using confidence in 22-socio-political institutions in the society) as well as to examine the top five and the lower five institutions based on particular demographic characteristics. Secondly, to ascertain what are some of the factors of organizational trust along with explanatory power of the final institutional trust model.

**Conceptual framework:** Perception is sometimes different from reality, and the truth is difficult to establish when there is the absence of knowledge, information and the cosmology of what is hidden from people, which means that the yardstick for interpreting what we see is skewed because the premise upon which knowledge is derived is deceptive and fallacious. But how do the perception of corruption, dishonesty, intent, capability, past performance and motives influence trust in an organization? And, how does trust influence organization productivity, profitability and success?

Diener (1984; 2000) began the discussion that subjective assessment of events is still a 'good'

measurement as an objective assessment. Although Diener's (1984; 2000) monologues have been specialized to wellbeing, he showed that there is a strong relation between subjective assessment of wellbeing and objective assessment of wellbeing. Using sample survey research observational data established a clear linkage between subjective and objective wellbeing. Other scholars have concurred with Diener and Suh (1997) and even some economists have now ventured into the discourse. Stutzer and Frey (2003), who are economists, studied wellbeing from the perspective of happiness (subjective assessment), which Edward Diener has been arguing for years that happiness (subjective assessment) of wellbeing is a better judge of quality of life compared to income, economic resources or per capita income. Another economist (Sen, 1982; 1998) argued that the use of Gross Domestic product per capita (economic resources) to evaluate wellbeing is focusing on the end and not the means. The author cites that using the means approach is multidimensional as it incorporates both economic as well as non-economic resources in the assessment of wellbeing.

Happiness, according to Easterlin (2003) is associated with wellbeing, and so does ill-being (for example, depression, anxiety, and dissatisfaction). Easterlin (2003) argued that material resources have the capacity to improve one's choices, comfort level, state of happiness and leisure, which mitigates against static wellbeing. Within the context that developing countries and developed countries had at some point accepted the economic theory that economic wellbeing should be measured by per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) – (total money value of goods and services produced within an economy over a stated period per person). Sen (1998), who is an economist, writes that plethora of literature exist that show that life expectancy is positively related to Gross National Product (GNP) per capita (Anand and Ravallion, 1993; Sen, 1998). Such a perspective implies that mortality is lower whenever economic boom exists within the society and that this is believed to have the potential to increase development, and by extension standard of living.

Sen (1998), however, was quick to offer a rebuttal that data analyzed have shown that some countries (i.e. Sri Lanka, China and Costa Rica) have had reduced mortality without a corresponding increase in economic growth (Sen, 1998), and that this was attained through other non-income factors such as education, nutrition immunization, expenditure on public health and poverty removal. The latter factors, undoubtedly, require income resources and so this is clear that income is unavoidable a critical component in welfare and wellbeing. Some scholars believe it that economic growth and/or development is a measure of welfare (Becker *et al.*, 2004).

People's moods and emotions reflect on-line reactions to events happening to them. Each individual also makes broader judgments about his or her life as a whole, as well as about domains such as marriage and work. Thus, there are a number of separable components of SWB [subjective well-being]: life satisfaction (global judgments of one's life), satisfaction with important domains (e.g., work satisfaction), positive affect (experiencing many pleasant emotions and moods), and low levels of negative affect (experiencing few unpleasant emotions and moods). In the early research on SWB, researchers studying the facets of happiness usually relied on only a single self-report item to measure each construct (Diener, 2000).

The discourse on perception in the measurement of wellbeing is current and real as human wanting oxygen for survival. Using the works of Sen, Diener, Easterlin, Diener and Suh and others, the debate is continuous and will continue in the further as there is no panacea for this disagreement nor is there a simple consensus. We would like to note here that the discussion of objective and subjective goes beyond wellbeing as there are some critical issues that formulate the crux of the matter in this reasoning. In a reading titled 'Objective measures of wellbeing and the cooperation production problem', Gaspard (1998) provided arguments that support the rationale behind the objectification. His premise for objective quality of life is embedded within the difficulty as it relates to consistency of measurement when subjectivity is the construct of operationalization.

This approach takes precedence because an objective measurement of concept is of exactness as non-objectification; therefore, the former receives priority over any subjective preferences. He claimed that for wellbeing to be comparable across individuals, population and communities, there is a need for empiricism. Ringen (1995) in a paper titled 'Wellbeing, measurement, and Preferences' argued that non-welfarist approaches to measuring wellbeing are possible despite its subjectivity. The direct approach for wellbeing computation through the utility function according to Ringen (1995) is not a better quantification as against the indirect method (i.e. using social indicators). The stance taken was purely from the vantage point that *utility* is a function, 'not of goods and preferences', but of products and 'taste'. The constitution of wellbeing is based on choices. Choices are a function of individual assets and options. With this premise, Ringen (1995) forwarded arguments, which show that people's choices are sometimes 'irrational', which is the make for the departure from empiricism.

The foundation has already been established that subjective (i.e. perception) in the assessment of issues, yields the same degree of realism as empiricism (or the objectification of events). The issues that we forwarded earlier go beyond wellbeing as it relates to trust. Using the traditional (classical school of economists'

perspective), events must be investigated and thereby interpreted from a quantitative perspective, which is empiricism. This discourse commenced as prior to the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when Max Weber purported that social phenomena could be studied from a subjective (qualitative) perspective without scientificness. Following Weber's work, research is now done using quantitative techniques, qualitative methodologies, and mixed methodologies. Weber's perspective with that of Kuhn (1996) have laid the premise for that Social Science (arguable a soft science) can be studied with the same degree of scientific rigours as the Natural (or hard) Sciences. It follows that trust can be studied from a subjective perspective, and that this does not reduce the validity or reliability of the results.

Fukuyama (1995) outlines in his text "Trust" that trust social capita (Boxill *et al.*, 2007), development, productivity, profitability, cooperation and democracy (Blind, 2007) as well as civil and harmonious relationship, which are need for the effective function of modern societies. Many scholarships have concurred with Fukuyama (1995) that trust is dependent on confidence, cooperation, and a particular expectation (Deutsch, 1958, 1962; Gambetta, 1988) as well as conflict resolution (Deutsch, 1973; Lewicki, and Stevenson, 1998). Throughout Fukuyama's (1995) work, he did not distinguish between the different typologies of trust, but it was obvious from that text published in 1995 that trust is interpersonal, organizational, governmental, and that the crux of trust is confidence in an event, object or person.

Like Blind (2007) believes that democracy requires cooperation, which is the crux of the matter therein. Both scholars argue that without cooperation in a society it disintegrates into anarchy. Blind (2007) cannot be aptly summarized and produce the same meaning, as he does so well in this regard and so we use his own words to emphasize the crucible ingredient in a society, when he says that "Trust, in this regard, emerges as one of the most important ingredients upon which the legitimacy and sustainability of political systems are built". Even though it is sometimes over by some of us in our daily functioning in society, we continuously, having to rely on others, (in addition to some degree of cooperation is present) allow for the building of all types of relations. Using sample survey research, Almond and Verba (1963) collected data on political attitude of people who dwell in UK, US, Italy, Mexico and Germany that interpersonal trust is directly associated with democracy (Seligson, 2002; Putnam, 1993). The argument that was forwarded for this association was simply that interpersonal trust fosters cooperation between people, groups and organizations which is a central pillow upon which a stable democracy rest. Inglehart (1999) clarifies the association when he found that the relation between trust

and democracy was a very strong one. This means that democracy is fostered by adherence to laws, principles, structures and a particular system of governance. Thus, democracy requires consensus from a personal, civic, and societal level.

Despite the complexities of litigations in the contemporary societies, people will only oblige the system if they are cooperative. It has happened before in our annals that people have demonstrated against decisions handed down by the legislators and judiciaries. In some instances, these demonstrations have escalated into civil disobedience and civil protests against the state. Nevertheless, like Fukuyama (1995) we believe that litigations foster cooperation, which does not necessarily produce trust – example soldiers following the dictates of this superior, and this does not necessarily means that he/she trust the commander; the paying taxes (property, consumption or indirect taxes and even direct taxes). Embedded in this discourse is not only cooperation but tolerance. It is because people decide to cooperation that they become tolerant of others behaviour (Morgan, 2005; Zak and Knack, 2001).

People's confidence in sociopolitical institutions (proxy for trust) is build based on past performance, the intent, motives, and credibility of the trustor (the person carrying out the action) as well as based on the expectations of the trustee (person receiving the actions). Hence, some scholarships show that distrust emerged whenever the expectations of the trustee are not met (Covey and Merrill, 2006; Lewicki *et al.*, 2006; Fukuyama, 1995), which is referred to as negative expectations. Some intelligentsia believe that distrust occur when confidence is low (Markóczy, 2003). Simply put, distrust is the opposite of trust. This speaks to the unidimensional approach to the study of trust (Blind, 2007; Lewicki *et al.*, 2006). Hence, if someone's expectation is low, then it is not surprising when the individual's trust in low for the next person, organization or thing based on credibility issues with the trustor. Low expectations are not fashioned on a single occurrence. Although this is possible on the single visit because people formulate their opinion of someone or something from the first interaction, but this is likely to be modified with more interactions. As such, when a concrete position is taken because of repeated interactions, low expectations will emerge, and that this implies low confidence (or distrust). Credibility denotes keeping ones works (Blinder, 2000). And when credibility is questioned by the trustee, he/she is questioning trust, and distrust is usually ensured to replace confidence in the trustor. The United Nations (2007) in explaining social trust, states that it is people's confidence in other member of the community, which we believe covers socio-political institutions.

There are scholarships that have identified factors that influence trust. The examples here range from

studies in China (Tang, 2005, United States and England (Torney-Purta *et al.*, 2004) and the Caribbean in particular Jamaica (Boxill *et al.*, 2007; Bourne *et al.*, 2010). In a sample survey research that was conducted in China in 2004, Tang (2005) find the following – people reported the highest level of trust for family and relatives followed by friends, neighbours, schoolmates and people who dwell in the same geographic area; and that age was positively related to organizational trust; gender was not statistical related to local government trust, education was not a factor of trust ( $p>0.05$ ), civic trust is statistically associated with interpersonal trust, trust is inversely related to problem solving by violence as it encourages civic solutions, but ones party involvement increases ones level of trust (adjusted  $R^2 = 4.6\%$ ). Further examination of R-square revealed that they were very low. The  $R^2$  for United States was 10.8%, England (7.9%), Bulgaria (5%) and Chile (7.1%). However, the  $R^2$  in the study conducted by Bourne (2010) was 23.5%, with none given for Boxill *et al.* (2007) work.

**Measuring organizational trust:** Before we continue any discourse on the issue of organizational trust, we must define trust. The question is therefore, does confidence captures trust? Fukuyama (1995), in wanting people to understand the essence of this text on trust, he defined it as “the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest and cooperative behaviour based on commonly shared norms on the part of other members of that society”. Fukuyama (1995) stops short of saying that trust goes hand in hand with tolerance, cooperation, intent, honesty, and expectation. In addition to the aforementioned issues, although he did not refer to confidence, it is embedded in tolerance, cooperation, honesty and societal expectation. Unlike Fukuyama (1995), other scholars unequivocally stated that confidence in entities is an indicator of trust manifestation. (Dogan, 2002; O'Neill, 2002).

Trust is categorized into two main areas, (1) interpersonal trust, and (2) organizational trust (or political trust) (Kramer and Taylor, 1995; Duck, 1997; Blind, 2007). The latter refers to citizenry's trust (or distrust) in politicians and/or politics due to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with credibility of the various agents and their policies (Miller, 1974). Organizational trust is people's belief in political actors (prime ministers, party presidents or leaders and public officials) and political institutions (such as parliament, judiciary, political parties, army, civil service) to provide policies and programmes that will benefit them and protect their rights. Organizational trust (political trust) is at the nexus of cooperation and a relationship between citizenry and those who represent them, whereas interpersonal trust (or social trust) speaks to the confidence, cooperation, and that is shared between or among people (Putnam, 1993;

1995). ‘Thy word is thy bond’ is a critical property upon which social and political trust is based within various societies. There is another side to this discourse, as some degree of distrust stimulates fewer persons participating in socio-political institutions.

Scholars like Powell *et al.* (2007) measure interpersonal trust, as well as trust in government by way of ascertaining people’s perspective on generalized trust. Hence, they asked “Generally speaking, would you say that most people are essentially good and can be trusted, or that most people are not essentially good and cannot be trusted”. Powell *et al.* (2007) question to collect data on generalized trust differs marginally from that of James and Sykuta (2004) - “Generally speaking, do you believe that most people can be trusted or that you can’t be too careful in dealing with people?” Prior to Powell *et al.*, (2007), a similar approach was used by other academics like Hardin (1993) and Baier (1986). The operational definition of trust could be said to have begun with Almond and Verba (1963) and the World Values Survey in 1959 – “Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?” Two choices were given, “most people can be trust” (coded 1) and “need to be very careful” (coded 0). This is similar to how trust in government was operationalized, by way of the generalized approach. Furthermore, in the same nationally representative sample survey research of some 1,338 Jamaicans, Powell *et al.* (2007) used a likert scale items to garner data on the degree of confidence of residents. The researchers asked 22 different questions on particular sociopolitical institution, in an attempt to ascertain people’s confidence (trust) in these institutions (Nye, 1997).

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

This study utilizes primary observational data collected by the Centre of Leadership and Governance, Department of Government, the University of the West Indies at Mona, Kingston, Jamaica between July-August, 2006. The purpose of the survey was to collect observational data on Jamaican’s political culture, which included pertinent information of basic orientation of leadership, governance and democracy, perception wellbeing, trust and confidence in sociopolitical institutions, political participation and civic engagement, electoral preferences and leadership. The observational data were collected by way of a 166-item questionnaire. It was a stratified nationally representative sample of some 1,338 Jamaicans (18 years and older), from the 14 parishes with a sampling error of ±3%: 95% Confidence level. The questionnaire constitutes questions on civic culture and orientation to democracy, generalized trust which constitutes core variables such as - interpersonal trust, institutional trust, confidence, perception of

wellbeing, crime and corruption, and political participation as well as the standard demographic variables. The observational data were collected and stored using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences for Widows version 17.0 (SPSS Inc; Chicago, IL, USA). Dummy variables were created from some demographic and some other variables – sex, race, religiosity, area of residence, generalized trust, unemployed person, perceived social class and justice. Wellbeing and political participation were computed from a number of scale questions. Descriptive statistics were done to provide background information on the sample; tests were done for Cronbach alpha to examine the validity of the construct - i.e. wellbeing and political participation. Then, logistic regression was used to build a model. A goodness of fit statistics was done for the model.

Using data from the literature and the scope of the dataset, Equation (1) was tested with the available data:

$$T_{s,p} = f(R_i, E_i, RA_i, PPI_i, S_i, C_i, O_i, X_i, W_i, A_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_I) \quad (1)$$

Where:

- T<sub>s,p</sub> = Organizational Trust of person i
- R<sub>i</sub> = religiosity of person i
- E<sub>i</sub> = Education of individual i
- RA<sub>i</sub> = Denotes race of individual
- PPI<sub>i</sub> = Means political participation index of individual i
- X<sub>i</sub> = Sex of individual i
- S<sub>i</sub> = Represents self-reported social class of individual i
- W<sub>i</sub> = Wellbeing of person i
- A<sub>i</sub> = Age of person i
- J<sub>i</sub> = This is justice of person i
- AR<sub>i</sub> = Area of residence of person i
- T<sub>G</sub> = Trust in government
- T<sub>I</sub> = Interpersonal trust
- C<sub>i</sub> = Perceived corruption in Jamaica of individual i
- O<sub>i</sub> = Occupation of person i

Of the 14 predisposed variables that were chosen to be used in this model, from the observational data of the Powell *et al.* (2007), 9 of them were statistically significant ones (-2 Log likelihood = 885.024,  $\chi^2$  (26) = 119.438, p<0.05). The 9 variables explain 19.2% (i.e. Nagelkerke r square) of the variance in organizational trust. Hence, the final model is shown in Eq. (2).

$$T_{s,p} = f(R_i, PPI_i, C_i, S_i, O_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_I) \quad (2)$$

**Measure:** Subjective Psychological Wellbeing Index, ‘W’.  $W = \Sigma Q_i / \Sigma f$ ; where Q<sub>i</sub> is the selected value from each ladder of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Need, and ‘f’ being the frequency of the event. The Cronbach  $\alpha = 0.762$  for the 5-item variables, which are used to constitute this index.

Political Participation Index, 'PPI'. Based on Trevor Munroe's work, 'political participation' "...the extent to which citizens use their rights, such as the right to protest, the right of free speech, the right to vote, to influence or to get involved in political activity" (Munroe, 2002), We use the construct forwarded by Munroe to formulate a PPI =  $\sum b_i$ ,  $b_i \geq 0$ . The  $b_i$  represents each response to a question on political behaviour, such as voting, involvement in protest and  $0 \leq PPI \leq 19$  with a Cronbach  $\hat{u}$  for the five-item scale is 0.76. The interpretation of the scores are as follows – (1) low is between 0 and 7, (2) moderate ranges from 8 to 13, and (3) high means a score from 14 to 19.

Organizational Trust (using confidence in sociopolitical institutions),  $T_o$ . The  $T_o = \sum f_i \cdot c_i$ , where  $f_i$  indicates the frequency of the occurrence of the event, and  $c_i$  denotes the event.  $F_i$  ranges from 1 = no confidence, 2 = a little confidence, 3 = some confidence, and 4 = a lot of confidence or extended listing of the  $c_i$ ). Confidence index = summation of 22 items, with each question being weighted equally; and  $0 \leq \text{confidence index} \leq 88$ , with a Cronbach  $\alpha$  for the 22-item scale being 0.896. The higher the scores, the more people have confidence in sociopolitical institutions within the society. Thus, the confidence index is interpreted as from 0 to 34 represents very little confidence; 35 to 61 is low confidence; 62 to 78 is moderate confidence and 79 to 88 is most confidence.

Area of Residence, 'AR'. This variable is the parish in which the individual lives while the study was being conducted.

Sex, 'X'. Sex is a binary measure, where 1 = male and 0 = female.

Trust in Government,  $T_G$ , is a dummy variable which is based on the 1 = trust in government and 0 is otherwise.

Subjective Social Class, 'S'. This is people's perception of their social and economic position in life, based on social stratification.

Class1: 1 = Middle class, 0 = Other

Class2: 1 = Upper class, 0 = Other

The reference group is 'Lower Classes Educational Level, 'E'.

Edu\_level1: 1 = Primary/Preparatory, 0=Other

Edu\_level2: 1 = All age, secondary and vocational skills, 0=other

Edu\_level3: 1 = University, and professional training, 0=other

The reference group is 'No formal' education.

Justice, 'J'. This variable is a non-metric variable, which speaks to people's perception of the 'fairness' (or 'fairness, for that matter as it relates to system favouring

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the sampled population

Variable	N	%
Political participation index	4.02 ± 3.73, range = 17: from 0 to 17 max.	
<b>Gender:</b>		
Male	574	44.3
Female	723	55.7
<b>Age group</b>		
Youth	445	33.3
Other	810	60.5
Elderly	83	6.2
<b>Organizational Trust</b>		
Low	903	67.9
Moderate	396	29.8
High	31	2.3
<b>Subjective Social Class</b>		
Lower	766	59.0
Middle	476	36.6
Upper	57	4.4
<b>Ethnicity</b>		
African, Black	1088	82.0
Indian	32	2.4
Chinese	4	0.3
European, Caucasian	10	0.8
Mixed, Brown	189	14.2
Other	4	0.3

a few rich people within the society) as in relation to the governance of the country. The construct will be dummy coded as 1 = Yes, and 0 = No.

Governance of the country, G, is defined as people's perception of administration of the society by the elected officials. This is a dummy variable, where 1 denotes in favour of a few powerful interest groups or the affluent, 0 is otherwise

Political Party Preference, this variable is measured based on an individual's response to the question –"Thinking back to the times you've voted in the past... would you say that you always vote for the PNP candidate, or do you usually vote for the PNP and sometimes for the JLP, or do you usually vote for the JLP candidate, or do you always vote for the JLP" (Powell *et al.*, 2007)

## RESULTS

**Demographic characteristics of sample:** Of the sampled respondents (N = 1,338), the response rate for the gender question was 96.9% (N = 1,297). Of the valid respondents, 55.7% were females compared to 44.3% males (Table 1). Of the number of males (N = 574), 7.7% were elderly, 62.0% were other adults, compared to 30.3% youth. On the other hand, of the females respondents (N = 723), 5.1% elderly, 59.3% other adults, and 35.5% youth. Based on the findings in Table 2, 67.9% of Jamaicans distrust (i.e., low) sociopolitical institutions in the nations (Organizational distrust), with only 2.3% of the sample indicated a high organizational trust compared to 29.8% a moderate organizational trust. Disaggregating the organizational trust (or distrust) by

Table 2: Bivariate analysis between trust in sociopolitical institution and age group of respondents, N = 1,330

Organizational trust	Age group of respondents		
	Youth	Other adults	Elderly
Very low to low	72.2	66.2	61.4
Middle	26.7	30.8	36.1
High	1.1	3.0	2.4
Count	442	805	83

$\chi^2 (4) = 9.054, p = 0.060 > 0.05$

Table 3: Bivariate analysis between organizational trust and age group of respondents, N = 1,289

Organizational trust:	Sex of respondents	
	Female	Male
Very low to low	66.0	69.5
Middle	31.2	28.6
High	2.8	1.9
Count	568	721

$\chi^2 (2) = 2.325, p = 0.313 > 0.05$

gender revealed the following results that 69.5% of females indicated distrust in sociopolitical institutions compared to 66.0% males. On the other hand, with respect to a high trust in organizations, 2.8% reported yes compared to 1.9% females.

Of the sampled population who indicated a subjective state of social class (N = 1,299, 97.1%), most of them were in the lower class (59.0%) compared to 4.4% in the upper class (Table 1). Disaggregating these figures by gender revealed that 54.9% of the working class (i.e. lower) was females, with 56.7% of the middle class, with only 50.9% of the upper class being females. With respect to political participation, of the total population of 1,338, 1,289 people were used to evaluate this question with a mean participation in Jamaica is  $4.02 \pm 3.73$  (i.e., range 17: min 0 to maximum 17). Hence, average political participation is very low (i.e., 4 out of 17). Further examination of political participation controlled for gender revealed that on an average males have a higher participation (mean =  $4.56 \pm 3.9$ ) compared to their female counterparts (mean =  $3.60 \pm 3.5$ ). It should be noted here that females' political participation is lower than the national average of 4.56.

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a statistical relation between Organizational Trust (i.e. Organizational Trust) and age group of respondents.

We found that there is no statistical association between Organizational Trust and age group of respondents -  $\chi^2 (4) = 9.054, p = 0.060 > 0.05$  (Table 2). Hence, this denotes that Jamaicans trust in organization is not determined (or a factor) by age group of respondents, which suggested that irrespective of the sampled respondents age, their trust in organization is the same.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a statistical association between Organization Trust and sex of respondents.

We tested the aforementioned hypothesis (hypothesis 2), and no statistical relation was found between the two variables -  $\chi^2 (2) = 2.325, P = 0.313 > 0.05$  (Table 3). Thus, sex is not a factor in perception of trust (or distrust) in Jamaican organizations.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is a statistical association between Organizational Trust and Educational Level of respondents

From Table 4 (testing hypothesis 3), the results show that there was no statistical association between Organizational Trust and educational level of respondents -  $\chi^2 (8) = 11.070, P = 0.198 > 0.05$ . Thus, there is no statistical difference between the educational level of Jamaicans and how they trust Organizations.

**Hypothesis 4a:** There is a statistical association between Organizational Trust and Political Party Preference (i.e. PNP or JLP)

Using hypothesis 4a, from Table 5, the results show that there is statistical relation between Organizational Trust and political party preference -  $\chi^2 (8) = 33.280, P = 0.001 < 0.05$ , with a very weak association (i.e.  $c = 20.6\%$ ). From Table 5, Jamaicans who revealed that they have 'always voted for the People's National Party [PNP]' have a low degree of distrust (very low trust of 50.6%) compared to someone who declared that they have 'always voted for the Jamaica Labour Party [JLP]- 2.6%. Thus, it follows that the former group of respondents are approximately twice (1.7 times) as trust at the highest degree compared to the latter group of people. Further, the cross-tabulation revealed that people both have no political party preference indicated a higher level of organizational trust compared to those who had reported a preference for the JLP.

**Hypothesis 4b:** There is a statistical relation between Organizational Trust and Political Party one voted for in 2002 general elections (i.e. PNP, JLP or Other).

The cross-tabulation between organizational trust and who one voted for the 2002 general election revealed a statistical relation between the 2 aforementioned variables -  $\chi^2 (4) = 34.844, P = 0.001 < 0.05$  (Table 6). Approximately 44% (N = 587) of the observational data (1,338) were used for the analysis of the bivariate analysis between organizational trust and political party voted for in 2002 general elections, with a weak positive relation (contingency coefficient being 23.7%). We observed from Table 6 that those who voted for the Jamaica Labour Party (i.e. JLP) was more distrusting of sociopolitical institutions in the nation (i.e. 76.4%) compared to those who voted for the People's National Party (i.e. PNP) - 51.7%, but these were lower than those who voted other (77.8%).

Table 4: Bivariate analysis between organizational trust and age group of respondents, N = 1,283

Organizational trust:	Educational level				
	No formal	Primary	Secondary	Post-secondary	Tertiary
Very low to low	75.0	62.0	67.6	66.4	72.0
Middle	25.0	33.9	30.0	31.5	25.7
High	0.0	4.1	1.6	2.1	2.4
Count	20	242	447	235	339

$\chi^2(8) = 11.070, p = 0.198 > 0.05$

Table 5: Cross-tabulation between organizational trust and Political Party Preference (i.e. PNP or JLP), N = 817

Organizational trust:	Party Preference (PNP or JLP)				
	Always PNP	Always JLP	Both	Usually PNP	Usually JLP
Very low to low	50.6	73.3	65.3	65.2	72.8
Middle	45.1	24.1	31.3	31.9	22.2
High	4.3	2.6	3.5	2.8	0.0
Count	326	116	144	90	141

$\chi^2(8) = 36.280, p = 0.001 < 0.05, cc = 0.206$

Table 6: Bivariate between organizational trust and political party voted for, N = 587

Organizational trust	Political party voted in 2002 general election		
	PNP	JLP	OTHER
Very low to low	51.7	76.4	77.8
Middle	44.3	22.2	22.2
High	4.0	1.5	0.0
Count	375	203	9

$\chi^2(4) = 34.844, p = 0.001 < 0.05, cc = 0.237$

Table 7: Association between organizational trust and enumerated to vote, N = 1,195

Organizational trust	Enumerated to vote	
	No	Yes
Very low to low	74.0	64.7
Middle	24.7	32.5
High	1.4	2.8
Count	361	834

$\chi^2(2) = 10.334, p = 0.006 < 0.05$

Table 8: Cross-tabulation between organizational trust and enumerated to vote controlled by sex, N = 1,157

Organizational trust:	Enumerated to vote			
	Male*		Female**	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
Very low to low	74.8	62.0	73.3	67.4
Middle	23.0	35.4	25.7	29.8
High	2.2	2.6	1.0	2.8
Count	139	379	206	43

\*:  $\chi^2(2) = 7.474, p = 0.024 < 0.05, cc = 0.119$

\*\* :  $\chi^2(2) = 3.567, p = 0.168 > 0.05$

**Hypothesis 5:** People who are enumerated to vote are more likely to trust sociopolitical institutions than those who are not enumerated to vote.

We tested the aforementioned hypothesis (hypothesis 5), and found that there is a statistical relation between organizational trust and being enumerated to vote -  $\chi^2(2) = 10.334, p = 0.006 < 0.05$ . However, the association was a very weak one -  $cc = 0.093$  - i.e. the association between the two variables is 9.3%. The general level of distrust in organizations in Jamaica was 68.1%, but the level of distrust of those who indicated that they were enumerated to vote is less than the general

Table 9: Cross-tabulation between organizational trust and voted in the last general elections, N = 981

Organizational trust	Voted in last general elections (i.e. 2002)*	
	No	Yes
Very low to low	74.0	60.9
Middle	24.0	36.3
High	2.0	2.9
Count	350	631

$\chi^2(2) = 17.237, P = 0.001 < 0.05, cc = 0.131$

\*: The rationale for the 'voted in last general elections (i.e. 2002), even though the last one was in 2007 is because the observational data were collected in July to August of 2006 in preparation for understanding voting behaviour and wanting to forecast the 2007 general election - See Bourne (2007a, 2007b)

distrust (i.e., 64.7%, Table 7). With respect to those who were not enumerated to vote, 74% of them revealed that they have a low trust (i.e., distrust) in sociopolitical organizations in the country. In addition to the distrust, those who are enumerated to vote are 2 times likely to reveal a high degree of organizational trust compared to those who were not enumerated to vote.

**Hypothesis 6:** People who are enumerated to vote are more likely to trust sociopolitical institutions than those who are not enumerated to vote controlled for sex.

Further examination of organizational trust and enumerated to vote controlled for sex revealed that the relation between organization trust and enumerated to vote is explained by male (i.e.  $\chi^2(2) = 7.474, p = 0.024 < 0.05, cc = 0.119$ ) and not being female (i.e.,  $\chi^2(2) = 3.567, p = 0.168 > 0.05$ , Table 8).

**Hypothesis 7:** Those who participate in general elections (i.e., voted in 2002 general elections) are more likely to trust sociopolitical institutions than those who did not participate.

A cross-tabulation between organizational trust and those who voted in the 2002 general election found that there is a statistical relation between two aforementioned variables -  $\chi^2(2) = 17.237, p = 0.001 < 0.05$  (Table 9). However, the association was a very weak one -

cc = 0.131 - i.e. the association between the two variables is 13.1%. The general level of distrust in organizations in Jamaica was 68.1%, but the level of distrust of those who indicated that they had voted in the 2002 general elections was less than for those who did not vote (i.e., 60.9 and 74.0% respectively, Table 9). With respect to those who reported that they had not voted in 2002 general elections, 74% of them revealed that they had a low trust (i.e., distrust) in sociopolitical organizations in the country, compared to 60.9% of those who voted.

**Hypothesis 8:** People who are enumerated to vote are more likely to trust sociopolitical institutions than those who are not enumerated to vote controlled for sex.

An examination of organizational trust by those who voted in the last general election (i.e., 2002) controlled for sex revealed that the relation between organization trust and enumerated to vote is explained by both male (i.e.,  $\chi^2(2) = 14.183, p = 0.001 < 0.05$ ) and female (i.e.,  $\chi^2(2) = 7.143, p = 0.028 < 0.05$ , Table 10). In regard to the strength of the statistical relation, we found that it was higher for males (17.8%) compared to females (11.6%). The rationale behind the 13.1% (Table 9) is low because the relationship is weaker for female than male. An analysis of Table 9 showed that men who voted in the 2002 general reported are 4.2% less likely to distrust sociopolitical institutions (i.e. 58.6%) compared to their female counterparts (62.8%).

**Hypothesis 9:** Cross-tabulation between organizational trust and perception of corruption There is a statistical relation between Organizational Trust and people's perception as to whether or not there is corruption within the nation -  $\chi^2(2) = 6.442, p = 0.040 < 0.05$  (Table 11), with a very weak statistical association between the two

Table 10: Cross-tabulation between organizational trust and voted in last general elections controlled by sex, N = 953

Organizational Trust:	Voted in last general elections (i.e. 2002)			
	Male*		Female**	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
Very low to low	75.9	58.6	73.5	62.8
Middle	20.6	38.7	25.5	34.4
High	3.5	2.7	1.0	2.8
Count	141	292	200	320

\*:  $\chi^2(2) = 14.183, p = 0.001 < 0.05, cc = 0.178, N = 433$   
 \*\*:  $\chi^2(2) = 7.143, p = 0.028 < 0.05, cc = 0.116, N = 520$

Table 11: Bivariate analysis between organizational trust and perception of corruption, N = 1,290

Organizational trust	Perception of corruption in the nation	
	No	Yes
Very low to low	65.7	73.5
Middle	31.7	25.1
High	2.6	1.4
Count	1007	283

$\chi^2(2) = 6.442, p = 0.040 > 0.05, cc = 0.070$

Table 12: Cross-tabulation between Organizational Trust and Perception of Corruption, N = 1,290

Organizational trust	Perception of corruption in nation			
	Male*		Female**	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
Very low to low	62.1	74.7	68.0	74.2
Middle	34.9	23.3	29.7	25.0
High	3.0	2.1	2.3	0.8
Count	401	146	575	128

\*:  $\chi^2(2) = 7.471, p = 0.024 < 0.05, cc = 0.16, N = 547$   
 \*\*:  $\chi^2(2) = 2.551, p = 0.279 > 0.05, N = 703$

aforementioned variables (i.e. 7.0%). Of the number of respondents who indicated that corruption does exist within the nation (n = 283), approximately 8% more of them distrust organizations (low to very low trust in sociopolitical institutions) compared those who reported that there is no corruption in Jamaica. Approximately twice the number of respondents who indicated that corruption does not exist in Jamaica had a high organizational trust compared to those who reported that they believed that corruption was present in the nation (Table 11).

**Hypothesis 10:** There is a statistical association between organizational trust and people's perception as to whether or not corruption exists in the society.

Further examination of organizational trust and perception of corruption controlled for sex revealed that the relation between organization trust and perception of corruption is explained by male (i.e.  $\chi^2(2) = 7.471, p = 0.024 < 0.05$ , Table 12) and not being female (i.e.  $\chi^2(2) = 2.55, P = 0.279 > 0.05$ ). The findings, in Table 3, revealed that 12.6% more males who indicated that corruption existed in Jamaica distrust sociopolitical institutions (using very low to low trust as a proxy for distrust) compared to those who said that it did not exist.

The findings displayed in Fig. 1 (i.e. hypothesis 1.11, below) revealed that a statistical relation existed between Organizational Trust and Parish of Residence of the respondents -  $\chi^2(26) = 191.776, p = 0.001$ . The relation between two aforementioned variables was a statistically weak one (i.e. contingency coefficient = 0.356 or 35.6%), with a 1% change in parish of residence explaining a 12.7% change in organizational trust. Further perusal of Fig. 1 showed that people who resided in St. James and Clarendon reported the greatest degree of distrust (83.9% and 83.3% low organizational trust respectively), with those dwelling in Kingston reporting the highest level of trust for sociopolitical institutions in the nation (i.e. 54.9%) followed by those who lived in Westmoreland (51%) then by those who resided in St. Mary (48.5%). Approximately 57% of the those people who resided in the various parishes reported a distrust that was in excess of 70% (low degree of organizational trust) – in addition to St. James and Clarendon, they were Manchester (76.8%), Portland (73.5%), St. Andrew (72.3%), St. Ann

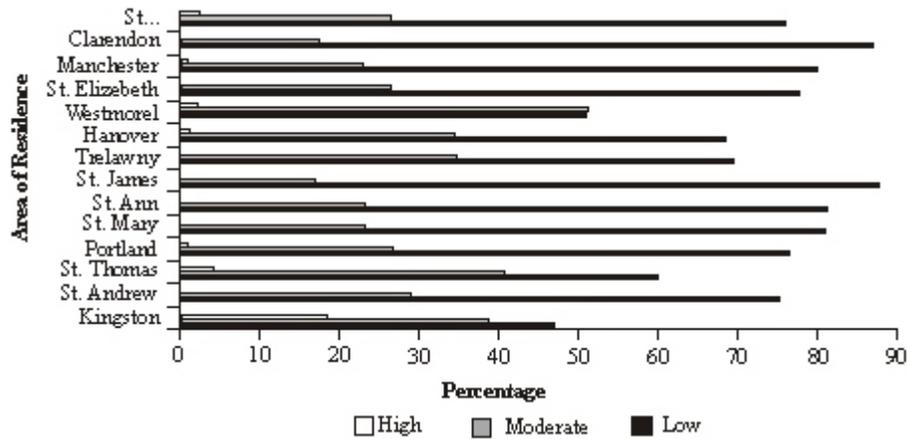


Fig. 1: Organizational trust by parish of residence

Table 13: The 10- most distrusting socio-political Institutions in Jamaica, N = 1,338

Institutions	Count	Percentage
Private sector	534	41.3
Large corporations	593	46.0
Armed forces	598	46.1
Trade unions	606	49.8
Police	702	53.3
Judiciary, courts	716	55.4
Government	734	56.2
People's national party	757	59.1
Local government council	771	59.7
Parliament	803	62.2
Political parties	910	69.7
Jamaica labour party	894	70.0*

Compiled by Paul Bourne from dataset of Powell *et al.* (2007)  
 \*: Jamaica Labour Party level of distrust was significantly more than that of the People's National Party, and the observational data were collected during when the People's National Party was in government (July-August, 2006)

(77.7%), St. Catherine (72.8%), and St. Elizabeth (74.8%), (Fig. 1). It should be noted here that although Kingston is bordered by St. Thomas, St. Andrew and St. Catherine, it shares a low trust in sociopolitical institutions like St. Thomas (57.5%) unlike St. Catherine and St. Andrew that had high distrust, with those who lived in St. Catherine and St. Andrew sharing a relatively high distrust (or a high trust) in organizations in the nation (Fig. 1).

**Hypothesis 11:** There is a statistical relation between organizational trust and parish of residence

The 10 most distrusting socio-political institutions in Jamaica (using low trust) in ascending are listed below in Table 13. The study found that Jamaicans level of confidence in the judiciary is very low, which is even lower for Central Government, Local Government, Parliament, and Political Parties.

In Jamaica, the level of organizational distrust is very high (67.9%). However, there are particular institutions in

Table 14: The 6-least distrusting sociopolitical institutions in Jamaica, N = 1,338

Institutions	Count	Percentage
Families	95	7.2
Schools	107	8.1
Universities	127	9.8
Churches	227	17.1
Banks	368	27.9
Prime Minister	507	40.0*

Compiled by Paul Bourne from dataset of Powell *et al.* (2007)  
 \*: This response was during the time when the People's national Party was in power and Mrs. Portia Simpson-Miller was the prime minister of Jamaica - July-August, 2006.

families, schools, universities and colleges, churches, and the least being the prime minister. Findings from Table 14 reveal that Jamaicans have the greatest confidence (trust) in families (i.e. 92.3%), with trust in schools being 91.9%, universities and colleges (90.2%), banks (72.1%) compared to the prime minister (60% trust).

**Hypothesis 12:** Organizational trust (i.e. Sociopolitical Trust) by ethnicity of the 6-most trusting sociopolitical organizations in Jamaica, the sample population trusts the prime minister the least (Fig. 2). Jamaicans of 'Other' ethnicities reported the highest level of trust in organizations, with the least reported being in the Prime Minister (i.e. 75% at the time Mrs. Portia Simpson-Miller was prime minister), and banks (75%).

**Hypothesis 13:** Organizational trust (Sociopolitical Trust) by education attainment.

Generally, when we examined trust in selected (6-most trusting) organizational institutions by educational attainment (Fig. 3), we found that irrespective of educational attainment of the individual the most trusted socio-political institution was the family followed by schools, and the institution that was the least trusted was the Prime Minister. Interestingly, tertiary level educated respondents trusted the Prime Minister the least (55.7%).

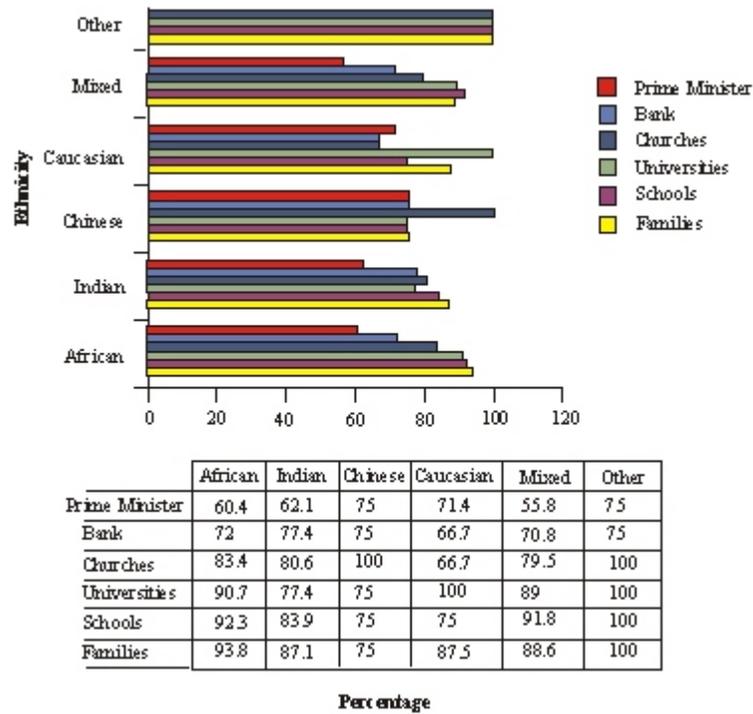


Fig. 2: The 6-most trusting institutions by Ethnicity

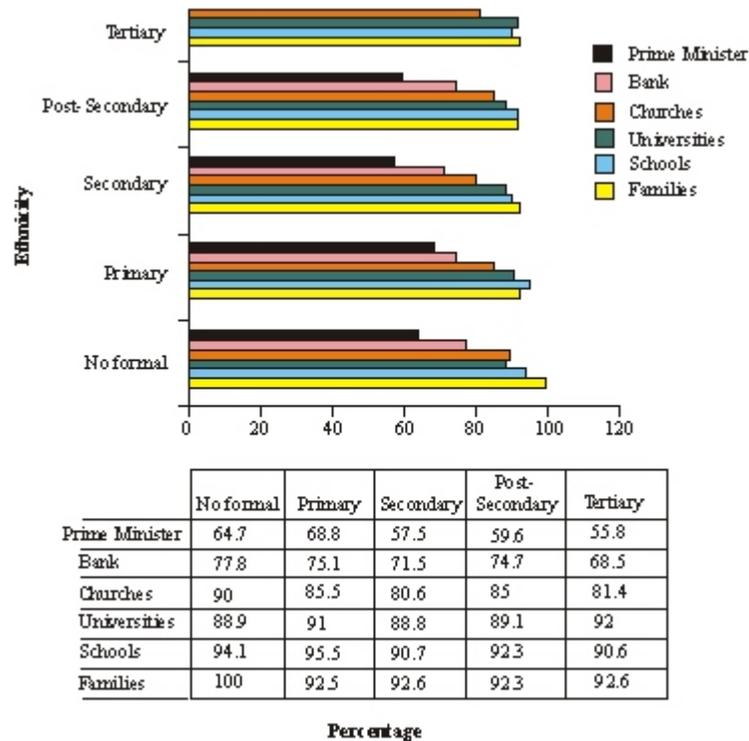


Fig. 3: Trusting of selected organizations by educational attainment

Table 15: Bivariate analysis between trust in families and gender of respondents, N = 1,277

Trust in families:	Gender of respondents	
	Male	Female
Trust	92.9	92.4
Distrust	7.1	7.6
Count	562	715

$\chi^2 (1) = 0.087, p = 0.427 > 0.05$

Table 16: Bivariate analysis between trust in families and age groups of respondents, N = 1,318

Trust in families	Age group of respondents		
	Youth	Other adults	Elderly
Trust	92.0	93.0	95.1
Distrust	8.0	7.0	4.9
Count	438	799	81

$\chi^2 (2) = 1.073, p = 0.585 > 0.05$

Table 17: Bivariate analysis between trust in schools and gender of respondents, N = 1,280

Trust in schools:	Gender of respondents	
	Male	Female
Trust	91.8	91.8
Distrust	8.2	8.2
Count	562	715

$\chi^2 (1) = 0.087, p = 0.427 > 0.05$

**Hypothesis 14:** There is a statistical difference between the gender of respondents and trust in family.

We have found that there is no statistical relation between bivariate analysis between trust in families and gender of respondents -  $\chi^2 (1) = 0.087, p = 0.427 > 0.05$ . (Table 15).

**Hypothesis 15:** There is a statistical difference between the age group of respondents and trust in family. The findings revealed that there is no statistical relation between bivariate analysis between trust in families and age group of respondents -  $\chi^2 (2) = 1.073, p = 0.585 > 0.05$ . (Table 16).

**Hypothesis 16:** There is a statistical difference between the gender of respondents and trust in school.

A cross-tabulation between trust in schools and gender of respondents reveal that there is no statistical association between the two aforementioned variables -  $\chi^2 (1) = 0.001, P = 0.970 > 0.05$  (Table 17).

**Hypothesis 17:** There is a statistical difference between age group of respondents and trust in family.

An examination of the cross-tabulation between trust in schools and age group of respondents show that there is no statistical relations between trust in schools and age group of people in the sampled population (N = 1,321) -  $\chi^2 (2) = 3.469, P = 0.176 > 0.05$ . (Table 18).

**Hypothesis 18:** There is a statistical difference between the gender of respondents and trust in church.

Table 18: Bivariate analysis between trust in families and age groups of respondents, N = 1,321

Trust in families:	Age group of respondents		
	Youth	Other adults	Elderly
Trust	92.7	91.0	96.3
Distrust	7.3	9.0	3.7
Count	440	799	82

$\chi^2 (2) = 03.469, p = 0.176 > 0.05$

Table 19: Bivariate analysis between trust in churches and gender of respondents, N = 1,282

Trust in Churches:	Gender of respondents	
	Male	Female
Trust	78.7	85.8
Distrust	21.3	14.2
Count	562	715

$\chi^2 (1) = 11.029, p = 0.001 < 0.05$

Table 20: Bivariate analysis between trust in churches and age groups of respondents, N = 1,323

Trust in churches	Age group of respondents		
	Youth	Other adults	Elderly
Trust	84.7	81.3	88.0
Distrust	15.3	18.7	12.0
Count	438	802	83

$\chi^2 (2) = 3.939, p = 0.140 > 0.05$

Based on Table 19, we found a statistical relation between trust in churches (i.e. confidence in) and gender of respondents -  $\chi^2 (1) = 11.029, p = 0.001 < 0.05$ . Approximately 7% more males distrust the church compared to 14.2% females. This means that 78.7% of males had a high confidence in the church compared to 85.8% of females.

**Hypothesis 19:** There is a statistical difference between age group of respondents and trust in church.

The cross-tabulation between trust in churches and age group of respondents show that there is no statistical relations between the two aforementioned variables (N=1,323) -  $\chi^2 (2) = 3.939, p = 0.140 > 0.05$  (Table 20). Based on Table 20, there is no statistical difference between the various age groups and the sampled respondents' perception of trusts or distrust in churches.

**Hypothesis 20:** There is a statistical relation between trusting the government and trust in sociopolitical organizations (i.e. organizational trust).

An examination of organizational trust and trust in government reveal that there is a statistical relation between the two aforementioned variables -  $\chi^2 (3) = 58.51, p = 0.014 < 0.05$ . The statistical association is a very weak one (contingency coefficient = 21.3%). Further inquiry of Table 21 reveals, that of the 8% of those who reported that they trust the government, approximately 44% of them have a low trust in organization, with only 12.1% having a high trust in organization. Some 8 times more of those who trust

government have a high trust for sociopolitical institutions (organizational trust or confidence), with approximately 2 times more of those indicated that they trust the government revealed a moderate trust in organization.

**Hypothesis 21:** There is a statistical relation between organizational trust and economic state of an individual

A cross-tabulation between organizational trust and the economic situation of the individual in being able to cover his/her needs reveal that there is statistical relation between the two aforementioned variables -  $\chi^2(3) = 10.803, p = 0.013 < 0.05$  (Table 22). Further examination of the bivariate relationship reveals that there is a very weak positive one (contingency coefficient = 9.2%), which means that the more people perceive that their economic situation can cover their needs the more they will trust organizations, with 32.3% of the respondents trusting the different organizations. Based on the findings in Table 4, an individual who is able to cover his/her needs with some savings, he/she will trust socio-political institutions (38.5%) more than another who reported that all he/she is able to 'just' cover his/her needs (37.1%) compared to 28.6% for those who indicated that they cannot cover their needs.

**Modeling Organizational Trust: Correlates and predictors:** The second aspect to this study is a model organizational trusts in Jamaica, which is to identify and state the degree of each variables impact on organizational trust. Thus, we will use logistic regression to test Eq. (1), from which a final model will emerge on what constitute organizational trust in Jamaica, and the extent of influence of each of the identified variables as well as ascertain the overall influence of the final model.

Modeling Organizational Trust in Jamaica by selected predisposed Variables, which is based on the observational data collected in study carried by Powell *et al.* (2007) on the behalf of the Centre of Leadership and Governance, Department of Government, the University of the West Indies at Mona, Jamaica, is shown below.

Of the 14 predisposed variables that were chosen to be used in this model, from the observational data of the Powell *et al.* (2007), 9 were statistically significant (-2 Log likelihood = 885.024,  $\chi^2(26) = 119.438, p \text{ value} < 0.05$ ). The 9 variables explain 19.2% (Nagelkerke  $r^2$ ) of the variance in organizational trust (Table 22). Hence, the final model is shown in Eq. (2).

$$T_{s-p} = f(R_i, PPI, C_i, S_i, O_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_i) \quad (2)$$

Before we are report on the findings of the model, we will evaluate whether or not the model fits the observational data. "The Classification of Table" was used to compare the predicted to the observed outcomes. The Table 23 reveals that two-hundred and forty-eight

Table 21: Bivariate analysis between organizational trust and trust in government, N = 1,232

Organizational trust	Trust in government	
	No	Yes
Very low	3.0	3.0
Low	67.5	41.4
Moderate	27.9	43.4
High	1.6	12.1
Count	1133	99

$\chi^2(3) = 58.51, p = 0.014 < 0.05$

Table 22: Bivariate analysis between organizational trust and economic situation of an individual N = 1,270

Organizational trust	Economic situation of individual to cover needs			
	Can save	Cover	Can't cover with difficulty	Can't cover great difficulty
No	61.5	62.9	71.4	70.7
Yes	38.5	37.1	28.6	29.3
Count	169	337	518	246

$\chi^2(3) = 10.803, p = 0.013 < 0.05$

Table 23: Classification table of organizational trust

Observed	Predicted organizational trust			Percentage correct
	No	Yes		
Organizational trust No	524	47		91.8
Organizational trust Yes	167	81		32.7
Overall percentage				73.9

respondents were incorrectly classified: 167 of these who reported that they trust in sociopolitical institutions and 81 who did not. Overall, 73.9% of the 571 respondents were correctly classified: 32.7% of those with 'trust organizations in nation' and 91.8% of those who had no trust in sociopolitical institutions (Table 23).

Having established that the model is a fit for the observational data, we will now analyze the various single variables as well as their extent on the dependent variable (organizational trust). The 3 most substantial variables in Eq. (2) are the administration of justice in the country (Wald statistic = 13.46), followed by living in Clarendon (Wald statistic = 9.45) or dwelling in St. James (Wald statistic = 9.3), which are in reference to St. Mary, then by subjective social class (Wald statistic = 7.6) - with is middle class in reference to working class (Table 22).

In addition to the significance of particular variables identified in the aforementioned paragraph, some revealing findings will now be discussed. We found negative statistical associations among 4 of the 9 factors that were statistically significant variables. These variables were (1) perception of corruption, (2) administration of justice in the society, (3) religiosity, and (4) area of residence. Further examination revealed that each of the 4 negative variables would reduce the level of trust in organization in the country. With regard to religiosity, the less an individual attends church outside of special occasions (i.e. baptism, christening, wedding, funerals, et cetera); he/she will trust organization less in the society.

On the other hand, 5 of the 9 factors do positively influence organization trust (Table 9) and these are as follows-trust in government, interpersonal trust, occupation, political participation, and social class. We found that an individual who trust the government in reference to those who do not are 2 times more likely to trust organizational institutions in the society (OD = 2.1, 95% CI: 1.2 to 3.7). Furthermore, a person who classify him/herself as in the lower professions is 1.5 times (OD = 1.5, 95% CI: 1.03 to 2.20) more likely to trust sociopolitical organization in referent to those in the high professions – for example managers, medicine, teaching et cetera. Interpersonal trust was the same as occupation (OR = 1.5, 95% CI: 1.06 to 2.13).

In addition to aforementioned positive factor is subjective social class. We found that those in the middle class with referent to lower class is 1.7 times (OR = 1.7, 95% CI: 1.16 to 2.36) more likely to trust organizational institutions in nation (Table 24).

Is the model identified in Eq. (2) a predictive one? We will use the log formula to establish whether or not our model in Eq. (2) is a predictive one.

$$T_{S-P} = f(R_i, PPI_i, C_i, S_i, O_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_l) \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Prob (event)} = 1 / (1 + e^{-z}) \quad (3)$$

$$Z = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4 + \dots + B_pX_p \quad (4)$$

where  $B_0$  is the value for the constant and  $B_1$  to  $B_p$  are the coefficients estimated from the data,  $X$  is the independent variable and  $Z$  is a component within the probability of the event occurring. We will now illustrate the use of  $Z$  below as follows – let us replace each  $X$  with the variable that is statistically significant from the model in along with the constant and the estimators (Table 25):

$$Z = -1.075 + 0.745(T_G) + 0.409(O_i) + 0.056(PPI_i) - 0.456(C_i) + 0.404(T_i) - 0.700(J_i) - 0.103(R_i) + 0.503(S_i) + \beta(AR_i) \quad (5)$$

$Z = -0.747$  (Table 25)

We will use the log formula in Eq. (5):

$$\text{Prob (event)} = 1 / (1 + e^{-z}) \quad (3)$$

As the formula that will test the predictive power of the predisposed factors

**Option 1:** In each cases, 1 denotes that the individual trust the government as well as other people, lower occupation, corruption, administration of justice that benefits all equally, middle class with referent to lower class and the area of residence that will be used is Portland because it has the least impact on the

Table 24: Logistic Regression: Public confidence in organizations by some demographic, and political variables

Political variables	Coefficient	p-value	Odds ratio	CI (95%)	
				Lower	Upper
Trust (gov't)	0.745	0.009	2.11	1.20	3.70
Race1	0.390	0.631	1.48	0.30	7.28
Race2	- 0.111	0.881	0.90	0.21	3.80
Occupation	0.409	0.035	1.51	1.03	2.20
Political participation	0.056	0.030	1.06	1.01	1.11
Sex	0.200	0.243	1.22	0.87	1.71
Perceived corruption	- 0.456	0.030	0.63	0.42	0.96
Wellbeing	0.079	0.146	1.08	0.97	1.20
Interpersonal Trust	0.404	0.023	1.50	1.06	2.13
Justice	- 0.700	0.000	0.50	0.34	0.72
Religiosity	- 0.103	0.012	0.90	0.83	0.98
socialcl1	0.503	0.006	1.65	1.16	2.36
socialcl2	0.732	0.069	2.08	0.94	4.58
Age	0.007	0.309	1.01	0.99	1.02
Clarendon	- 1.449	0.002	0.24	0.09	0.59
Hanover	- 0.102	0.784	0.90	0.44	1.87
Kingston	0.244	0.565	1.28	0.56	2.94
Manchester	- 1.048	0.009	0.35	0.16	0.77
Portland	- 0.969	0.010	0.38	0.18	0.80
St Andrew	- 1.096	0.010	0.33	0.15	0.77
St Ann	- 0.444	0.291	0.64	0.28	1.46
St Catherine	- 0.634	0.105	0.53	0.25	1.14
St Elizabeth	- 1.039	0.006	0.35	0.17	0.74
St James	- 1.320	0.002	0.27	0.11	0.63
St Thomas	0.014	0.968	1.01	0.51	2.00
Trelawny	- 0.143	0.745	0.87	0.37	2.05
Constant	- 1.075	0.257	0.34		

-2 Log Likelihood = 885.024  
Nagelkerke R square = 0.192 (or 19.2%)  
Chi-square (26) = 119.438, p-value = 0.001,  
N = 819, 61.2%

Table 25:

Variable	Option 1	Option 2
$T_G$	0.745	0
$O_i$	0.409	0
$PPI_i$	0.392	
$C_i$	- 0.456	0
$T_i$	0.404	0
$J_i$	- 0.700	0
$S_i$	0.503	0
$AR_i$	- 0.969	- 1.449
Constant	- 1.075	- 1.075
$Z =$	- 0.747	- 2.524

organizational trust, 7 is used for political participation because it indicates the highest value for the lowest degree of political participation, and

**Option 1 (Table 3):**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob (event)} &= 1 / (1 + e^{-0.747}) \\ &= 1 / (1 + 0.47378578) \\ &= 1 / 1.47378578 = 0.678 (\sim 0.7) \text{ (for option 1)} \end{aligned}$$

hence, the model is a predictive one for option 1 (Table 25).

**Option 2:** In each cases, 0 denotes that the person does not trust government or other persons, upper occupation, believe that there is no corruption, administration of justice that does not benefits all equally, the individual is in lower class and the area of residence that will be used is Clarendon because it has the least impact on the organizational trust, 7 is used for political participation because it indicates the highest value for the lowest degree of political participation and Option 2 (Table 3):

**Option 2(Table 3):**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob (event)} &= 1 / (1 + e^{-2.524}) \\ &= 1 / (1 + 0.080138411) \\ &= 1 / 1.080138411 = 0.925 \text{ (for option 2)} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the model is a predictive one for option 2.

We can now conclude that  $T_{s,p} = f(R_i, PPI_i, C_i, S_i, O_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_i)$  is a predictive model for organization trust and more than more factors.

**Limitation of the model:** The initial Model [ $T_{s,p} = f(R_i, PPI_i, C_i, S_i, O_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_i)$ ] assumes that trust is continuous over time, which is furthest from the reality as organization trust is continually change based on people’s perception of the various sociopolitical organization at a static ‘snapshot’ time. But the dataset from which the Model is derived is at a static ‘snapshot’ moment in time and this does not take into consideration different time intervals. Trust is fluid; and therefore, any measure of this construct must include the fact that trust is continuously changing over ones lifetime based on the perception of trustor (the decision maker) or trustee (receiver of the trust) and this may even change over short periods of time. Hence, we must make a modification to the initial model to include time intervals,  $t$ , as an important factor:

$$T_{s,p} = f(R_i, PPI_i, C_i, S_i, O_i, J_i, AR_i, T_G, T_i, t)$$

**DISCUSSION**

The aim of this study was two-fold within the broader context of organizational trust. Firstly, to build an organizational trust model for socio-political institutions in Jamaica (using confidence in 22-socio-political institutions in the society) as well as to examine the top five and the lower five institutions in regard to public confidence (trust) in them. Secondly, from the model ascertain what is the explanatory power of the final model, and from the identify model examine the explanation of each of the significant factors as well as ascertain whether the model is a predictive one. In summary, the literature has shown perception is a ‘good’ evaluation of reality as people are best able to determine what affects them. Hence, using Jamaicans’ perception, this paper has modeled trust in organizations. We have found that 9-factor influence organizational trust, with an explanation of 19.2% - Nagelkerke  $R^2 = 19\%$ .

One of the delimitation of a snapshot study is that information is specialized to the time period and that trust is not static, hence we have included time,  $t$ , as an additional variable to address the issue of continuity. Why did we choose to use only the number of predisposed variables in this study and not more? The answer to this question is primarily because the observational data

gathered; and so, we do not claim to provide all the answers to the organizational trust discourse but this model provides a premise for which we can understand the debate. It should be noted here that in this study, the model only explain 19.2% of the variance in organizational trust compared to Tang’s work (2005) that identified 13 variables and that they explain 4.6% of the model (adjusted  $R^2$ ). In a five country study on trust in government and related institutions among adolescents, Torney-Purta *et al.* (2004) found that each of the model had a low R-square - Bulgaria (0.05); Chile (0.071); Colombia (0.054); England (0.071) and the United States (0.108). Thus our model is a very good one. Furthermore, the factors identified in this research are predictive in nature.

In recent times, there is a widespread perception that corruption is rampant in Jamaica, and with the unprecedented number of police officers that have been charged for corruption coupled with upsurge of crime and violence in nation is making people highly suspicious (distrusting) of organization, and other persons in the society. For some time now, people have been arguing that corruption does not influence trust; the findings of this research have disproved this notion as perception of corruption does affect organization trust. The finding in this research concurs with Uslaner’s work (2005) that corruption is inversely related to trust. Unlike Uslaner, we found that the relation between the two aforementioned variables to be a weak negative one (single correlation coefficient,  $\phi = -0.069$ ). Furthermore, he forwards the perspective that there is no evidence to support that a change in corruption will result in changes in trust. This study is offering some clarification as we have found that the more people believe that corruption exist in the society, the less they will trust organizations ( $B = -0.456$ ,  $\text{Exp}(B) = 0.634$ , 95% CI-0.420 to 0.958,  $p = 0.030 < 0.05$ ).

Corruption destroys integrity and credibility. People do not trust blindly forever, and so they will modify their trust in times based on past performance, integrity and credibility of the trustor. If people have come to expect disingenuous behaviour, unfulfilled promises, misappropriate of funds, inequality and injustices, graft, dishonesty, kleptocracy, cronyism, poor, bride, deception and collusion, and management practices, one thing that this will change is people’s trust in others and in organizations. Thus, Jamaicans high probability of evading taxes is a by-product of low trust society (Uslaner, 2005). Although it appears difficult for some people to comprehend ‘tax evasion’, this is coming from people’s perception of the injustices, dishonesty, the ‘broken’ promises and inequalities within the society. People do not void themselves of their sociopolitical milieu in how they act, and this helps to fashion their behaviour. And this should inform human resource practitioners, publicists and others that people will reduce

their confidence in an organization, if they believe that corruption exists therein.

This study has found that general organization trust (i.e. confidence in sociopolitical institutions) is very low - that is, 7 out of 10 persons do not trust organizations in the nations - however, there a particular institution in which people still reported great trust. These organizations are like (1) family (9 out of 10); (2) Church (8 out of 10); (3) schools (9 out of 10); universities (9 out of 10); banks (7 out of 10). Nevertheless, some institutions do not seem to be resonating with the public as they distrust these organizations. The examples here are political parties; parliament, local government, and central government (Table 10). Those findings are not unique as the literature shows that the family is the most trusting in organization, followed the schools and the least trusting being local government and political parties. We would like to forward here that although general organizational is very low in Jamaica. we need to contextualize this finding. Using the European Values Survey, the average interpersonal trust in Europe is 30.7% (i.e. 3 out of 10 persons trust each other), compared to that in Belarus (41.9% or 4 out of 10 person), Ukraine (27.2%, that is, 3 out of 10), Lithuania (23.7% or 2 out of 10), Russia (23.7%, 2 out of 10) and that in Poland (18.9%, or 2 out of 10 persons). Even though this is not organizational trust, people will not trust institutions more than how they trust themselves or others. Hence, using interpersonal trust in Europe we now know that the level of organizational trust in Jamaica, despite it being low, is highly comparable with like in the rest of the world.

It is, therefore, not surprising that there is a credibility issue for the distrusting organizations, and the difficulty with which they must execute their tasks coupled with the uncooperative atmosphere between themselves and people. Organization trust is not a simple phenomenon as it builds cooperation, tolerance, productivity, production, lower unit and transactional cost and strengthens harmonious relationship (Fukuyama, 1995). With the high levels of distrust in Jamaica, the high degree of crime and violence are also fostering and deepening this distrust. People are not tolerant of each other. And people believe that the intentions, motives and purpose of others is to do them harm. Hence, at the first act of another they will retaliation in self - defense and preservation. A factor that this study identified within the model is justice (or injustice), and the fact that there is an inverse association between the administration of justice favouring the rich and organizational distrust, which further our claim of self defense instead of through the courts or by the police. Powell *et al.* (2007) study, find that the police are the third least trusting institution in Jamaica, with the judiciary being the fifth least trusting organization. With this reality, self-protection, crime and violence are preferred alternatives to (1) reporting a

matter to the police, (2) taking an issue to court, (3) adhering to the dictates of judiciary, (4) 'buying' into a vision of change and socioeconomic advancement from political parties as there is a credibility issue from past performance, (5) seeing institutions as having 'good' intents or motives, and (6) interpreting actions from organizations are equally beneficial to all.

The researcher recommend, within what obtains, that a study be done on 'trust development in Jamaica' as it holds the answer for many of the current sociopolitical dilemmas in the society. Like the literature outlined, we believe that organizational trust (or distrust) explains the crux of the matter on social cooperation and the low social capital in the society. Hence, the restoration of trust is pivotal to the establishment tolerance, cooperation, democracy, civility, credibility, confidence, and forgiveness. Embedded in organizational trust, here, is the personal aspect to this. A personal variable that we found did not relation to organizational trust was wellbeing ( $p>0.05$ ). It means here that Jamaicans will not trust organizations because of a change in their personal wellbeing, but it will be based on other conditions.

Self-trust (or interpersonal trust) is positively associated with organizational trust. As such, when people have a low personal trust, interpersonal trust is low and so does organizational trust. The implications are extensive as people interpret other people's motives, and intents and credibility based on their self-trust. It goes beyond interpretations to actions of others. A number of companies' executives continuously have to transact business with other companies' executives in different transactions, and the process becomes highly complex when there is no self-test and this is even intensive when there is an issue of credibility. The process is expanded when there is no trust; and this increases transactional costs (Fukuyama, 1995), lower production, and increases frustration. Hence, this explains why high trust companies outperform low trust organization. Companies that are in a high trust milieu create a 'good' working environment, which encourages friendly competitions. Then, in this discussion so far we have not addresses the restoring trust when it has been lost. We will avoid examining this aspect because there is no study within our geographic space that has investigated trust development and building.

The findings of this research concur with the literature that there is a high distrust for political parties. In the study carried out by Tang (2005), the researcher identified that a positive statistical relation exists between political party involvement and trust, which was concurred on by this study. In this study we found that an individual is 1.1 times more likely to trust an organization, if he/she becomes more involved in political activities. Based on the findings of this research, we have found that no statistical association exists between trust

and gender, trust and age group. However, this was not the case in the literature (in particular China). We will note here for Boxill *et al.* (2007) study, they found a statistical relation between interpersonal trust and age, but this was not the case for this study as the dependent variable was organizational trust and not interpersonal trust. However, in this study we disagreed with Tang (2005) that interpersonal trust is associated with corporate (or organizational) trust. Here, we found that not only a positive relation between the two aforementioned variables but that organizational trust will increase by approximately by 1.5 times, if an individual reported that he/she trust other persons. Furthermore, we examine whether trust in government is associated with corporate (or organizational) trust and we found that a person who trust the government is 2 times more trusting in an organization. On the issue of trust and area of residence, Boxill *et al.* (2007) study revealed that a statistical association exists between parish of residence and trust in particular interpersonal trust, we our findings noted that this is also the case for organizational trust.

### **CONCLUSION**

In concluding, companies' executives are stewards, which are not only assessed based on profitability but on transparency and accountability, thereby fostering resourcefulness, and creating dividends for sustainability. These are accomplished whenever people trust an organization. This becomes even stronger when there is transparency, as it is a byproduct of reputation. Trust fosters heightened loyalty for the company's and its brands, and any perceive question of credibility due to corruption or disingenuousness means reduced trusting of the institution. On the other hand, if people are able to trust the organization and its product, it (the company) is able to build partnership, deepens collaborations, increase sales, productivity and profitability (Fukuyama, 1995). This improved collaboration is attained through cooperation. As we have found that credibility, which can be measured by way of corruption and perception of justice influence organizational trusted, distrust disconnects the people from the institution.

High trusting companies are able to execute their policies than low trusting companies because people will allow them to do so. As people will be supportive of the policies and programmes of institutions that have a strong reputation, transparency, honesty, credibility, delivers services and product on times based on their promises, clarify their expectations, responsibility and accountability. A human resource personnel needs to understand that an organization is a family, and families are organizations. People will adhere and follow organizational objectives and mandate because they are confident with their credibility, past performance and

intent of the institutions, which is the collective conscience of commitment. Embedded in high trust organizations are easy with which we share information, allow others to make mistakes, high loyalty, transparency and accountability are important, people are authentic and people feel a sense of positive expectation for each other.

An organization that holds everything together is using trust as the company's experience goes beyond the operational apparatuses, tutelage and mission statement. Achieving an organizational goal and mission are carried out by civic commitment of employers, customers, and external publics. It should be noted that what holds all of this together is the 'social glue' called trust. Trust, therefore, is the core of human relationships, and like human relationships, the organization is a likened to a family with different individuals, systems and structures that must come together as a single unit for the holistic nature of the common good. This can only be attained through cooperation, civic engagement, confidence, positive expectation, which are all within the purview of trust. Once gains, while we do not claim to provide all the answer with this single static study, it will be used assist future research in the area as nothing exists on the topic at the moment.

Human resource practitioners, policy makers and general public need to be cognizant that interpersonal distrust, distrust in government and related institutions dates back as earlier as to slavery, and that any cooperation between the publics and organizations must be done within the context of trust as the level of distrust is increasing and it is not expected to be lowered in any time soon. Many factors affect trust in socio-political institutions, and so trust building must be driven by our current knowledge of trust (or distrust). With the low organizational confidence (which is used as a synonym for trust throughout this work) that the nation is now undergoing, this explains why some company are faced with lawsuits, sabotage, grievances, militant stakeholders, unhealthy working environment, unhappy working environment, intense socio-political environment, excessive time wasted due to bureaucracy and defending positions and decisions, slow approvals of issues, and unnecessary hierarchy as many companies seek to protect themselves against distrusting employees, the public and other stakeholders. The costs of dishonesty, fraud, corruption and deception are enormous; and further add to the cost of doing business in a society (in terms of profit/bottom-line). While companies must survive within these milieus, institutions need to understand that they need to aid people, employees and stakeholders through these challenging times as they can generate trust by their actions throughout the society. Organizations are, therefore, built on trust and not on force. As a result, it is imperative that their intent reflects motives, mission and principles that will build trust.

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