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**ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB SATISFACTION,
CAREER MOBILITY AND STRESS LEVELS OF EMPLOYEES AT LESOTHO
HIGHLANDS DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY.**

BY

MAHLOANE WILIAM KATISO

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SUPERVISOR: MR. NEL, A.

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ABSTRACT

As we may be aware, we live in a world of change, where everything constantly has reformed. Organisations are also part of that big change especially in the new millennium where re-engineering, downsizing, outsourcing and restructuring have become common terms associated with many organisations. Although a number of studies have tried to determine how organisational restructuring benefits the organisation, little has been done to find out how the welfare of employees is affected by the restructuring initiatives.

This study investigates the perceptions that employees have of organisational restructuring. It investigates how their job satisfaction, career mobility and their stress levels are affected by restructuring process after the restructuring process as well the stress that such employees experience due to restructuring.

A survey was conducted at Lesotho Highlands Development Authority, where data was obtained from 121 respondents and statistically analysed. The findings reflect a negative association between restructuring and stress levels and career mobility. The findings show that job satisfaction was still experienced by the employees at LHDA and that most respondents see organisational restructuring as something that benefits the organisation and has little to do with the interests of the workers.

DECLARATION

I the undersigned declare that, “**Organisational restructuring and its impact on job satisfaction, career mobility and stress level of employees at Lesotho Highlands Development Authority**” is my own work, and that all the resources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference. This work has never been submitted by anyone at any university for a degree.

KATISO WILLIAM MAHLOANE

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God Bless You All

DEDICATION

Dedicated to all my late beloved ones, I'm sure they would have been proud!

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ABBREVIATIONS

AFR	: Absence Frequency Rate
BCEA	: Basic Conditions of Employment Act
CSM	: Career Self Management
CPW	: Career Planning Workshops
DCS	: Demand Control Support
EAPs	: Employee Assistance Programs
GAR	: Gross Absence Rate
GAS	: General Adaptation Syndrome
IT	: Information Technology
JDC	: Job Demand Control
JDI	: Job Description Index
JSS	: Job Satisfaction Survey
LHDA	: Lesotho Highlands Development Authority
LTO	: Labour Turnover Rate
MILOS	: Median Length of Service Leaves
MSQ	: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
SAFI	: South African Financial Institution
SAS	: Statistical Analysis System
USCB	: United States Conference Board

%V : Percentage of Voluntary Termination

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Organisations today are in a state of ever accelerating rate of change. Globalisation of the economy, increasing competition, technological innovation as well as global competition are seen to bring about the ever-accelerating pace of change in the working environment worldwide (Christen 2005:241). For this reason, employees are challenged by changes in their careers that they never anticipated, changes which in the long-run, result in stress conditions that bring negative consequences for both employees and the organisation in their wake. This chapter will provide the background to the topic of the study and survey what other studies have revealed about it. The objectives of the study, the research questions, the research objectives over and above the necessary hypotheses will also be mentioned and to conclude, the chapter will provide the theoretical framework in support of this study.

1.2 Background of the study

Re-engineering, downsizing, outsourcing and restructuring are in the very life-blood of organisations today (Cascio, 1993:40). As a result of these changes taking place within the business environment and their concurrent impact on corporate structure, recent decades have seen seemingly endless instances of organisational mergers and restructuring (Wyatt, 2004:50). At least since the mid 1980s, employment downsizing has been regarded as the preferred route to improving organisational performance. These efforts by companies to obtain a competitive leadership position through asset parsimony have successfully challenged the “*bigger – is – better*” corporate paradigm. Firms now feel compelled to restructure as a way of achieving a competitive advantage (Tucci & Sweo, 1996:89).

In Australia, as in other developed countries, organisational restructuring initiatives are often taking place within large organisations that had in the past enjoyed a degree of immunity from retrenchments. Moreover, a 2002 survey by the United States Conference Board (USCB) found that ninety percent of large companies surveyed had taken significant restructuring actions during the prior five years (1995 to year 2000). Similarly, Cameron *et al*, (1998) reported that between 1987 and 1991, an estimate of more than eighty-five percent of fortune 5000 corporations downsized their white collar staff. The emergent characteristic of restructuring, which hit Western firms a decade ago, has now moved to countries like Japan, Lesotho and South Africa, where human resource managers have begun to “hollow out” their workforce. During the first seven months of 1997 alone, more than 350 000 South Africans lost their jobs to restructuring initiatives (Bennet, 2002:15; Statsa, 2002).

Because of these organisational trends, an increasing amount of attention has recently been directed towards the phenomena of downsizing, restructuring and outsourcing, especially in the popular business press. The decade of the 1990s also witnessed the publication of a large number of articles, particularly at the individual level of analysis, demonstrating the negative effect on the “survivor” of organisational restructuring (Saurez-Gonzalez, 2001:303). The literature indicates that a vast number of organisational restructuring and change programs are rapidly formulated, not linked with the strategic plans of the organisations and unsuccessful in meeting employer objectives (Cascio, 1998:60; Cameroon 1994:20).

South Africa as one of the developing countries has invested in organisational restructuring to meet global competition and standards (Bridges, 2003:35). Nonetheless, a series of studies fails to provide an ideal opportunity to empirically examine the effect of organisational restructuring on employee job satisfaction and career development. The South African Financial Institution (SAFI) conducted a study in 1999, undertaken prior to the company embarking

on a radical restructuring exercise aiming at cutting company costs by significantly reducing the staff complement at the company.

The second study, undertaken in 2004, occurred after this restructuring had commenced. This only provided the opportunity to assess the impact of restructuring on the economic position of the company and failed to put into consider the wellbeing of employees (www.pitt.edu). This study confirm that as real world organisations are becoming complex and rapidly changing, employee satisfaction and commitment are crucial to organisational success.

1.3 Purpose of the research

The aim of the study is to:

- Investigate the impact of organisational restructuring on employees' welfare.
- Determine how flexible employees are in their careers following the restructuring process.
- Identify and explore the major challenges that are brought by restructuring that may lead to stress among employees.

1.4 Statement of the problem

Citizens of the 20th century have witnessed more change in their daily existence and environment than ever before, and the pace of change accelerates, and becomes more complex and turbulent. As this happens the concern of researchers is to determine on how restructuring cuts costs and increases organisational competitiveness and profitability. Little has been done to find out how restructuring affects the wellbeing of both retrenched and retained workers. Consequently, the study will fill a gap in determining the impact of restructuring

on employee satisfaction, employee career mobility as well and employee stress as affected by the process.

Due to changing business environments, many organisations in developing countries such as South Africa and Lesotho are forced to change their old ways of doing things in order to meet global competition and lower their production costs as much as possible. What remains uncertain is the degree to which the new practices are affecting employees. The following are the research objectives as well as the hypotheses informing the study:

1.6 Research objectives

The study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- To identify employees' perception of organisational restructuring.
- To examine whether organisational restructuring has any effect on employee satisfaction levels.
- To examine the effect of organisational restructuring on employees' career mobility.
- To determine the employees' stress levels associated with organisational restructuring.

1.7 Research hypotheses

In line with the problem statement and objectives, this study will concentrate on the following hypotheses:

- Employees are not comfortable with organisational restructuring.
- Organisational restructuring has a negative impact on employee satisfaction.

- Organisational restructuring has a negative impact on employees' career mobility.
- Employees experience stress due to organisational restructuring.

1.8 Theoretical framework

The research will be based on the two factor motivational theory of Frederick Herzberg. From as far back as 1954, Herzberg made use of the critical incident technique to identify factors that made employees feel exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs. From his findings, he was able to identify two sets of factors that influenced motivation and job satisfaction. He called the one set of factors hygiene factors and the other set motivators. According to Herzberg, the hygiene factors are more closely related to the working environment (working salary, status and so on) while motivators are said to be the only factors that can motivate employees and increase satisfaction, these include recognition, feedback and others (Robbins, 1997:140).

The second theory used to support this study will be Karasek's Job-Demand-Control model (1979). Karasek was able to identify job demands, and the working environment that contributed to job stress. His proposition was that while excessive work demands could be clearly linked to increased levels of strain, the actual importance of these demands was moderated by the level of control perceived by the individual. Karasek defines "active jobs" as those with high level demands and decision latitude, while "passive jobs" have low levels of demand and decision latitude (www.pitt.edu).

1.9 Significance of the study

This study will be important in its attempt to investigate the impact of organisational restructuring on employees' job satisfaction, career mobility and the stress associated with restructuring. It is important to investigate the challenges that employees in the Lesotho Highlands Development Authority (LHDA) face as a result of restructuring and it is assumed that the results may be generalised to the rest of the country. This will encourage management to consider the welfare of employees when implementing organisational restructuring. After all, regardless of any technology and machinery used today, organisations still depend on human resources for their survival. Moreover, the study will help management to understand that restructuring needs to be strategically planned so as to accommodate everyone during and subsequent to the process if employee commitment is to be enhanced.

1.10 Definition of concepts

- **Re-engineering:** Re-engineering means the use of technology to improve performance and to cut cost. Its main premise is to examine the goal of an organization and to redesign work and business processes from the ground up rather than simply to automate existing task and function.

- **Downsizing:** Downsizing refers to the reduction of the overall size and operating costs of a company, most directly through a reduction in the total number of employees. There are several pressures that can force an organization to engage in downsizing, the primary one being to make the daily operations of a business more efficient.

- **Outsourcing:** Outsourcing refers to a company that contracts with another company to provide services that might otherwise be performed by in-house employees. This outsourcing allows companies to focus on

core business to which their expertise and resources are geared, having other functions taken care of by outside experts.

- **Restructuring:** Restructuring is a significant change made to the depth, operation or structure of the organisation. This type of corporate action is usually made when there are significant problems in a company, that cause some form of financial harm and put the overall business in jeopardy. The hope is that through restructuring, a company can eliminate harm and improve the business.

- **Career mobility:** Career mobility may be defined as the upward or downward movement in an occupation or change from one occupation to another. Career mobility encompasses all those work-oriented opportunities which enable employees to update their skills, responsibilities or internal networks. It may take the form of a transformation within a given function, as individuals increase their expertise or of a radical job change to an entirely new function. However, mobility does not necessarily imply any significant geographical change.

- **Job satisfaction:** Job satisfaction refers to one's feeling or state-of-mind about the nature of one's work. Job satisfaction can be influenced by a variety of factors such as the quality of one's relationship with one's supervisor, the quality of the physical environment in which one works, the degree of fulfillment in one's work and so on. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation, although the two are clearly linked.

- **Stress:** Stress is the emotional and physical strain caused by the individual's response to pressure from the outside world. The events that provoke stress are called stressors, and they cover a whole range of situations.

- **Survivors:** These are employees who were not retrenched during the restructuring process, and are still part of the organizational workforce whether promoted, demoted or still in the same positions.

1.11 Limitations of the study

Because of limited time and budget, the research only concentrated on Lesotho Highlands Development Authority (LHDA) as it was impossible to conduct a survey for all restructured companies in Maseru. Moreover, the population of the study consists of both literate and illiterate respondents and that may influence the responses as some of the illiterate respondents may not fully comprehend the questionnaire.

1.12 Outline of the research report

The dissertation will be divided into the following chapters:

CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The chapter provides a detailed explanation of the following: Introduction, background of the study, research objectives, research questions and hypotheses, definition of concepts as well as the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO: ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING AS A MEANS OF CHANGE

Chapter two defines change in the organisation, and further links that change to organisational restructuring. The chapter concludes by explaining some of the possible causes of organisational restructuring in the modern era.

CHAPTER THREE: JOB SATISFACTION

The chapter first addresses what job satisfaction is, and reviews the different theories of job satisfaction along with the possible measures of job satisfaction. This chapter goes on to cover the factors that influence job satisfaction and the consequences of lack of satisfaction in the work place. Lastly, the discussion of the impact of job satisfaction on different personal characteristics is provided.

CHAPTER FOUR: CAREER

Chapter four mainly provides literature on different studies and theories of career. The definition of career is provided, followed by different concepts that contribute to the meaning career, considering various definitions of the term.

The issue of organisational change and how it influences the careers of employees is also explained and the chapter concludes by elaborating on modern day career patterns or types.

CHAPTER FIVE: STRESS IN THE WORKPLACE

The fifth chapter focuses on stress. It offers an explanation of what stress is and discusses its consequences. Moreover, possible stressors at work are discussed and in conclusion the researcher provides some of the possible ways of eradicating stress.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This entails an explanation of the following: Research design, data collection methods, research tool, sampling and data analysis.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter will involve the analysis and interpretation of research data collected from the respondents.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study will be concluded by a brief summary and recommendations will be made based on the findings.

1.13 Conclusion

In this chapter the study has been introduced, and the background provided along with the objectives for undertaking this research. The next chapter will review the literature on organisational restructuring and its causes.

CHAPTER TWO

ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING AS A MEANS OF CHANGE

2.1 Introduction

An organisation can only perform effectively through interactions with the broader external environment of which it is part. The structure and functioning of the organisation must reflect, therefore, the nature of the environment in which it is operating. Factors such as uncertain economic conditions, fierce global competition, the level of government intervention, scarcity of natural resources and rapid development in new technology create an increasingly volatile environment. In order to help ensure its survival and future success, the organisation must be readily adaptable to the external demands placed upon it. The organisation must be responsive to change as it may also originate within the organisation itself. Much of this change is part of a natural process of ageing.

Today, organisations may have different ways or means of adapting mainly to external pressures that induce change, these may be through techniques such as outsourcing, re-engineering, downsizing or even restructuring the structure altogether. For the purposes of the study, this chapter will mainly focus on explaining organisational restructuring, its historical background and development as well as some of its causes.

2.2 Change in Organisations

Organisational restructuring as a means of organisational change has become a popular concept for organisations in recent years. Many organisations are currently engaged in change initiatives though their experiences are mixed. When such a performance improvement program succeeds, significant benefits

are realised. All too often, however, companies fail to achieve the expected leaps in performance. What makes an organisation want to change?

According to Pettigrew (1985) as cited by Paton and McCalman (2000:9) there are a number of specific, even obvious factors which necessitate movement from the status quo. The most obvious of these relates to change in the external environment which triggers the reaction. Pettigrew (1985) states that environmental disturbances are seen as the main precipitating factors, but he also believed that these are not the sole causes or explanation of change.

To attribute change entirely to the environment would be a denial of extreme magnitude. This would imply that organisations are merely “bobbing about” on a turbulent sea of changes, unable to influence or exercise direction. This is clearly not the case. Paton and McCalman (2000:9) go on to argue that changes within an organisation take place in response to both business and economic events and to processes of management perception, choice and action. Managers in this sense see events taking place that, to them, signal the need for change. They also perceive the internal context of change as it relates to structure, systems of power and control. This gives them further clues about whether it is worth trying to introduce change. Senior (1997: 243) adds that internal changes can be seen as responses or reactions to the outside world which are regarded as external triggers. According to this author (Senior, 1997:244) there is a large number of factors which lead to what is termed internal triggers for change. Organisational redesign and restructuring to fit a new product line or new marketing strategy are typical examples, as are changes in job responsibilities to fit new organisational structure.

The other cause of change in organisations is where the organisation tries to be ahead of change by being proactive, for example, where the organisation tries to anticipate problems in the market place or negate the impact of worldwide recession on its own business, proactive change is taking place (Streubel,

1998:64). The above mentioned information clearly necessitates the need for organisations to engage in change through initiatives such as restructuring, re-engineering, downsizing and others, as there are many external triggers to organisational change which include global competition and technological innovations.

2.3 Organisational restructuring

Organisational restructuring and its many associated euphemisms became part of the managerial lexicon in the late 1980s, in the 90s and in the early days of the new millennium (Belout & Balkin, 2000:34). Organisational restructuring or simply “restructuring” seems to have become a way of life and a feature of many organisations in the industrial world (Ryan & Macky, 1998:29). The impetus behind of restructuring efforts appears to be a desire to reduce organisational costs and increase productivity and overall competitiveness (Cascio, 1998:97). According to Black and Edward (2000:567), corporate restructuring is a broad concept; however, it is defined as “a major change in the composition of a firm’s assets combined with a major change in its corporate strategy”. They add that corporate restructuring may further be divided into three distinct types, namely: portfolio, financial and organisational restructuring.

Regardless of the fact that many organisations view restructuring as a preferred way to increase organisational productivity and competitiveness, Ryan and Macky (1998:43) argue that cutting costs as a principal means of increasing a company’s effectiveness, efficiency, productivity and overall competitiveness may not turn out to be a panacea. The literature on restructuring portrays an overwhelmingly negative picture of restructuring. As Casio (1998:97) states, although restructuring initiatives intend to produce positive results they often do more harm than good to the organisation and its workforce. As organisations restructure, the survivors must redouble their efforts in order to accomplish the

remaining organisational tasks. In a typical scenario, survivors are left to carry their own workloads as well as the loads of their departed colleagues.

To make matters worse, specialist skills may have “walked out the door” and tasks that used to be completed quickly may now take much longer as survivors are left to discover how they should be accomplished. In addition, traditional job responsibilities may be redesigned as part of restructuring. The new job responsibilities may incorporate tasks, technologies and skill requirements that the surviving employees do not currently possess (Lewin and Johnston, 2000:60). Therefore, such organisations may find that they must heavily rely much on third-party specialists to provide a variety of products and services that were traditionally provided in-house.

Research from Statistics South Africa’s Labour Force Survey (March, 2003) indicates that only 11.6 million which is (25.6%) of the South African population are employed, and it is disturbing to note that one third of unemployment is as a result of recent restructuring initiatives. Research further indicates that previously, South African companies have been “fat” in their employment mechanisms, and the more insight they gain into their operations, the faster they are going to “diet”. Company cutbacks include retrenchments to prolong their revenue stream, progressive automation and technology allowing for fewer employees. Organisations go through restructuring and consequently people are retrenched instead of going through constructive dismissals.

In a more comparable argument, Lewin and Johnson (2000:50) show that emotionally, restructuring affects the whole organisation and it is equivalent to a divorce in the family. This ultimately causes unhappiness, fighting, insecurity and unproductivity. The “survivors” of the whole process experience a vast amount of guilt, often wondering why they were privileged enough to keep their jobs and when they may lose them. In accordance, Ryan and Macky (1998:44) add that many companies do not handle the restructuring process sensitively or with

compassion, and the instability, uncertainty and ineffectiveness caused can more often than not create undue turmoil. This may be as a result of management not having been given correct training or support and therefore not being able to deal with the situation.

2.4 Causes of organisational restructuring

There is no question that over the past decade a larger number of European, American, Japanese and African companies have undertaken restructuring. For example, Lewis (1990:200) estimates that nearly half of large United States corporations “restructured” in the 1980s. Similarly, a special report on corporate restructuring published in the (Wall Street Journal in (1985) found that out of 850 of North America’s largest corporations, 398 (47%) had undergone restructuring (see Lewis, 1990:45). Because of the fact that this restructuring has been accompanied by substantial job losses, it has drawn much public attention. Several academic studies have examined the antecedents and consequences of this restructuring. More specifically, the most prominent explanation that has been proposed in the scholarly literature to explain the restructuring wave of the 1980s is that of agency. According to this rationale, firms restructure to improve performance. Nonetheless, the following were found to be amongst the major causes of restructuring for many organisations:

2.4.1 Response to external forces

According to Harber (1997:214), firms “continuously” restructure in response to external forces such as globalisation, deregulation and strategic innovation on the part of global competitors. Thus, they restructure not because they are unprofitable at present, but in anticipation of the future. This implies that firms may be restructuring not because their performance is bad (they may actually be very profitable), but because the managers of those firms believe that given all the changes happening around them, they should restructure their firms to get

them ready for a more competitive future. The major external forces as mentioned are fully explained below:

2.4.2 Globalisation

On the subject of globalisation and how it is seen as a factor that persuades towards restructuring, Nel, *et al* (2004:498) gives the following explanation; “globalisation implies that the world is free from national boundaries”. The globalisation phenomenon is a challenge that spurs renewal in organisations. The increased movement across borders of people, products, services and capital are some of the driving forces behind the globalisation process. This pressure has changed businesses and their structures world-wide. Wing (1999) cited in Nel *et al* (2004:28) remarks that nations which earlier supplied manual labour have started to compete with Europe, Japan and North America (so-called developed countries) by offering competent intellectual work.

2.4.3 Deregulation / Privatisation

The South African government during the 80s announced plans to restructure the troubled economy. Privatisation can be used as an instrument to help realise this goal, but can never be an end in itself. When it does not lead to more productive use of resources, it can hardly be justified. The South African government was cautious in replacing public monopolies with private ones, because this could lead to a possible alienation of civil servants and a potential increase in unemployment. Privatisation involves changes in the relationship between the government and the private sector in the areas of control, ownership, production and finance. The result should be a reduction in the size and functions of government activities in the economy. The assumption is that private management is inherently more efficient than state management. Economists in favour of privatisation also see a social welfare benefit in the process, as the

spontaneous outcome of an economy organised by a network of competitive markets, free of government interference and social engineering (www.unisaonline.co.za).

Privatisation gained momentum in South Africa when the National Party government published its White Paper on Privatisation and Deregulation in 1987. Before that, the only major case of privatisation took place when the South African Coal, Oil and Gas Corporation (Sasol) was sold in 1979. By 1988 an Office for Privatisation had been established and numerous services, once provided by the government itself, were contracted out to private enterprises. These services included auditing, data processing, cleaning and maintenance, and repairs to official vehicles and equipment. There has also been a significant deregulation of private economic activity. Another industrial giant, South African Iron and Steel Corporation (Iskor Limited), was privatised in 1989 (ABSA Bank: 2--3), (www.unisaonline.co.za). The problem that still remains is, when companies privatise, they concentrate on profit maximisation rather than the well-being of employees.

2.4.4 Innovation and global competition

Companies in developing countries such as South Africa, Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Swaziland cannot avoid the increased requirements for better knowledge in the workplace to deliver competitive knowledge-intensive work. Demands have increased for customised and more sophisticated (innovative) products and services Nel, *et al* (2004:28). This has opened the gates for what is termed global competition, which puts much pressure on Africa because of economical disparities between African and Foreign countries.

2.4.5 Copying what other organisations are doing

Many firms may be restructuring simply because other firms are doing so. According to Harber (1997:214) such behaviour is not unusual in corporate life as the psychological and sociological attributes of senior managers and top managerial teams affects the occurrence and type of cooperate structure.

2.4.6 Restructuring as a way of improving performance

Another possibility is that firms restructure to improve their performance. Nonetheless, sub-optimal performance stems not from governance problem but from industry conditions. Moreover, one can think of many “mature” industries where stagnant demands require firms to undertake serious restructuring; this explanation could be enlarged to incorporate not only industry conditions as drivers of restructuring but also other environmental changes such as tax and antitrust policy changes, as well as recent developments in the capital market such as improvements in takeover technology. This also includes a larger supply of increasingly sophisticated legal and financial advisers, the growing availability of debt primarily due to financing innovations and a higher concentration of stock ownership primarily because individual’s interests withdrew from the stock market and their place has been taken by larger institutions (Lewin & Jonhson, 2000:50)

2.4.7 Financial difficulties

A financial perspective of restructuring may be that many firms face financial difficulties that require the restructuring medicine. This is in most cases a preferred option for most firms as it reduces unnecessary work force which leads to reduced organisational expenses (Lewin & Jonhson, 2000:51).

2.4.8 Technological structure and use of information technology (IT)

Organisational structure may be defined as “the established pattern of relationships between the component parts of an organisation, outlining communications, control and authority patterns (Wilson, 2000:49). Contingency theorists claim that certain types of structure enable organisations to adapt more favourably to environmental uncertainty, especially in turbulent market conditions. In the context of technology, they suggest that an optimal model of organisation structure exists which allows for the maximisation of its resources. One model which has been postulated is that of a decentralized, flatter structure focusing upon products and services as opposed to functional differentiation. Writing on the relationship between organisation structure and Information Technology (IT), the advocates of an optimal model suggest that structural inadequacies may affect how IT is utilised (Schnitt, 2003:19). Organisational restructuring may therefore improve the level of utilisation and effectiveness of the IT resource. According to some writers, restructuring is vital to the attainment of competition and information leverage. This introduces the perception that IT-based decentralisation may not be synonymous with devolution of power. Rather, it may enhance the power of management at the centre.

2.5 Conclusion

The Chapter has concentrated on organisational change; has described what organisational restructuring is as well as some of the possible factors contributing to organisational restructuring. It has shown that organisational restructuring was an exercise that began in Europe and in developed countries like the United States of America, thereafter hit most of the organisations in developing countries quite severely. The argument still remains that most organizations

embark on restructuring to reduce organisational costs and increase productivity as well as to secure overall competitiveness. The next chapter will concentrate on job satisfaction and its consequences.

CHAPTER THREE

JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 Introduction

The importance of job satisfaction to human beings is a phenomenon that has been widely studied. The popularity of this concept can be attributed to the relevance of job satisfaction to the physical and mental well-being of employees. As the preceding chapter has concentrated on organisational change and restructuring, the current chapter pays more attention to job satisfaction, theories related to job satisfaction and some of the consequences that dissatisfaction can have both for the organisation and the workers themselves.

3.2 Defining job satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction was proposed by Hoppock in 1935. According to him, job satisfaction is composed of what is felt in the working environment and what satisfies the employees both physically and psychologically. These factors are the employee's subjective reactions towards their working environment (Chang-Fei, *et al*, 2007:100). Subsequently, many different definitions of job satisfaction have come into play, some authors focusing on the job itself, others on all the related factors that influence satisfaction. Nel, *et al* (2004:552) defines job satisfaction as the individual's cognitive, affective and evaluative reaction towards his / her job. In addition, Robbins (1997:72) show that the term job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude to his or her job. According to Robbins definition, a person with high job satisfaction holds a positive attitude

towards the job, and one who is dissatisfied with his / her job holds negative attitudes about the job.

He further showed that in most cases when people speak of employee attitude more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In sum, job satisfaction can be defined in terms of difference between the expected and actual situation.

The definition of job satisfaction has visibly evolved through the decades, but most versions share the belief that job satisfaction is a work related positive affective reaction. Nonetheless, there seems to be less consistency when talking about the causes of job satisfaction. Nel, *et al* (2004:552) states that job satisfaction is influenced by many factors including personal traits and characteristics of the job. For better understanding of employee and job characteristics and their link to job satisfaction, various theories have emerged and provided the vital framework for future studies as far as job satisfaction is concerned.

Early traditional theories suggest that a single bipolar continuum, with satisfaction on one end and dissatisfaction on the other could be used to conceptualise job satisfaction. Later revisions of the theory included two continuum models that placed job satisfaction on the first scale and job dissatisfaction on the second (Brown, 2007:40). Subsequent theories focused more on the presence or absence of certain intrinsic and extrinsic job factors that could determine one's satisfaction level. The intrinsic factors are based on personal perceptions and internal feelings and include factors such as recognition, advancement and responsibility. Moreover, extrinsic factors are job related variables that would include salary, supervision and working conditions (Smith *et al*, 2006: 307). All these factors will be enlarged upon when

determinates and factors that influence job satisfaction are explained later in the chapter.

3.3 Theories of job satisfaction

There are a number of theories attempting to explain job satisfaction, but the following three conceptual frameworks predominate in the literature. The first is the **content theory**, which suggests that job satisfaction occurs when one's need for growth and self-actualisation are met by the individual's job. The second conceptual framework is often referred to as the **process theory**, which attempts to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's expectations and values. The third is the **situational theory**, which proposes that job satisfaction is a product of how well an individual's personal characteristics interact with or match the organisational characteristics (Vroom, 2002:114). Each of the three theories has been explored and reviewed by countless scholars and researchers in great detail. Therefore, this chapter need not provide an exhaustive review of job satisfaction theories. Instead, a skeletal outline of the main theories only will be offered to provide clarity, relevance and direction to our research of job satisfaction.

3.3.1 Content theories

When human needs, growth and self-actualisation are discussed, Abraham **Maslow and his "hierarchy of needs model"** are not to be missed. Maslow's (1954) traditionalist view of job satisfaction was based on his five-tier model of human needs. At the lowest tier, basic life sustaining needs such as food, water, air and shelter were identified. The second tier consisted of physical and financial

security, while the third tier included needs of social acceptance, belonging and love. The fourth tier incorporated self-esteem needs and recognition by one's peers and the top of the pyramid was reserved for self-actualisation needs such as personal autonomy and self-direction. According to Maslow, the needs of an individual exist in a logical order; the basic lower level needs must be satisfied before those at higher levels can be (Siegal & Lane, 1998:651)

Once the basic needs are fulfilled, they no longer serve as motivators for the individual (Vroom, 2002:60). The more a job allows for growth and acquisition of higher level needs, the more likely the individual is to report satisfaction with his or her job. Furthermore, success in motivating people depends on recognising the needs that are unsatisfied and helping the individual to meet those needs (Vroom, 2002:61).

Figure 3.1

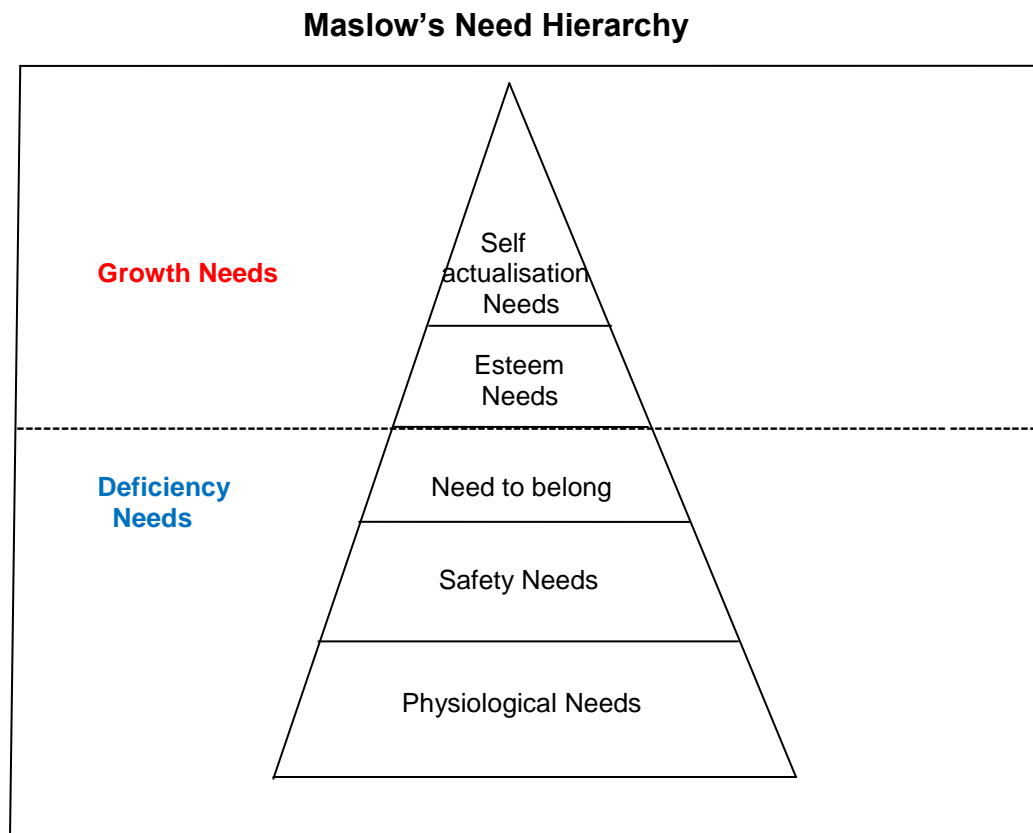


Figure 3.1: Based on Vroom, V.H. Work and motivation (2002)

Building on the theories of Maslow, Fredrick Herzberg in (1974) suggested that work itself could serve as principal source of job satisfaction. His approach led to the aforementioned two-continuum model of job satisfaction, where job satisfaction was placed on one continuum and job dissatisfaction was placed on the other. **Herzberg's theory**, which plays a vital role in the present research, recognised that work characteristics generated by dissatisfaction were quite different from those created by satisfaction (Siegal & Lane, 1998:659)

He identified the factors that contributed to each dimension as “motivators” and “hygienes”. The motivators are intrinsic factors that influence satisfaction based on fulfilment of higher level needs such as achievement, recognition and opportunity for growth. The hygiene factors are extrinsic variables such as work conditions, pay and interpersonal relationships that must be met to prevent dissatisfaction. When hygiene factors are poor, work will be dissatisfying (Malling, 1996:494).

Figure 3.2

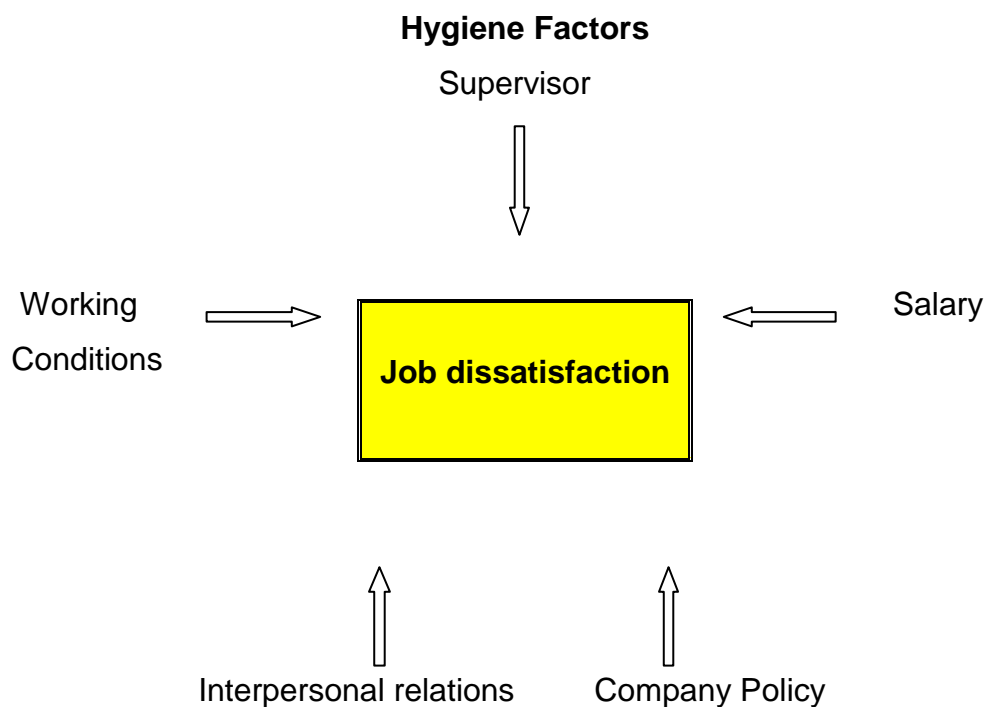


Figure 3.2: Based on L.J. Mallins, Management and Organisational Behaviour (1996).

However, simply removing the poor hygienes does not equate to satisfaction. Similarly, when people are satisfied with their job, motivators are present, but removing them does not automatically lead to dissatisfaction. Essentially, job satisfaction depends on the extrinsic characteristics of the job, in relation to the job's ability to fulfil one's higher level needs of self-actualisation. Hence the two continuum model of Herzberg's motivator-Hygiene theory. This theory will later be linked with organisational restructuring as the chapter progress.

Figure 3.3

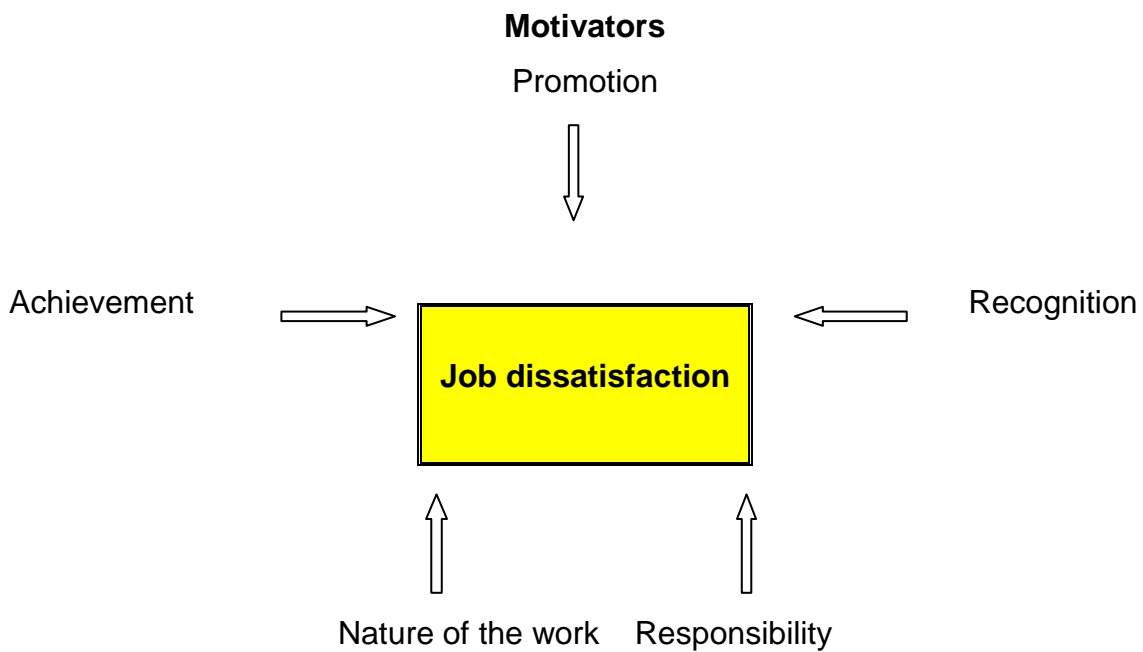


Figure 3.3: Based on L.J. Mallins, Management and Organisational Behaviour (1996).

3.3.2 Process theories

Process theories attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at expectancies and values (Graneberg, 1979) cited in Malling (1996:49). This theory of job satisfaction suggests that workers select their behaviour in order to meet their needs.

Within this framework, Adam (1963) and Vroom (1982) have become the most prominent theorists. Stacy, J. Adams suggested that people perceive their jobs as a series of inputs and outcomes. Inputs are factors such as experience, ability and effort, while outcomes include things like salary, recognition and opportunity (Matteson & Iva-cevich, 2000:50). The process theory is based on the premise that job satisfaction is a direct result of the individual's perception of how fairly he / she is treated in comparison to others. This “**equity theory**” proposes that people seek social equity in the rewards they expect for performance. In other words, people feel satisfied at work when the input or contribution to a job and the resulting outcome are commensurate with that of their co-workers. According to Siegal & Lane (1998:663) this social equity is not limited to others within the same workplace, the comparison in most cases the comparison reaches into other organisations that are viewed as similar places of employment.

Vroom's (1964) theory of job satisfaction is similar in that it looks at the interaction between personal and workplace variables; however, Vroom also incorporated the element of workers' expectations into his theory. The essence of this theory is that if workers put forth more effort and perform better at work, then they will be compensated accordingly. Discrepancies that occur between expected compensation and actual outcome lead to dissatisfaction.

If employees receive less than they expect or otherwise feel as if they have been treated unfairly, then dissatisfaction may occur. Conversely, overcompensation may also lead to dissatisfaction and employees may experience feelings of guilt. The compensation does not necessarily have to be exclusively monetary, but pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of outcome (Schultz, 1982). Vroom's theory also goes one step further by incorporating an individual's personal decision making with the workplace. In 1982 he explained that employees would choose to do or not to do job tasks based on their perceived ability to carry out the task and earn fair compensation. As a way of illustrating and clarifying his ideas, Vroom generated a three-variable equation for scientifically determining job satisfaction:

- i. Expectancy: This is the first variable and is the individual's perception of how well he/she can carry out a given task.
- ii. Instrumentality: this is the second variable of the equation, and refers to the individual's confidence that he/she will be compensated fairly for performing the task.
- iii. Valence: This is the third variable, which considers the value of the expected reward of the employee performance.

In Vroom's formula each variable is given a probability value, and when all three factors are high, workers will be more satisfied and have more motivation. If any of the factors is low, work performance and employee motivation will decline (Nel, *et al*, 2004:319).

3.3.3 Situational Theories

Situational occurrence theory emerged in 1992, when McAfee, Quarstein and Glassman stated that job satisfaction is determined by two factors, namely situational characteristics and situational occurrences.

- i. Situational characteristics are things such as pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities and company policies that are considered by the employee before accepting the job.
- ii. Situational occurrence are things that occur after taking a job that may be tangible or intangible, even positive or negative. Positive occurrence might include extra vacation time, while negative occurrence might entail faulty equipment or strained co-worker relationships. Within this theoretical framework, job satisfaction is a product of both situational factors and situational occurrence (www.coe.iup.edu).

3.4 Measuring Job Satisfaction

Different authors (Tett & Meyer 2003:263) showed that measuring job satisfaction has never been easy since it is an abstract personal cognition that exists only in an individual's mind. To measure job satisfaction one must have a conceptual understanding of the construct in order to decide on what indirect factors to measure. Since there is no widely accepted theoretical framework to explain job satisfaction, it is not surprising that there is no known best measure for it.

According to Weitz (1992:202) the most adequate form of measurement might include an interview, a single item measure, or a workplace observation. However, most researchers opt for a more objective and in-depth survey instrument. The most widely cited survey instruments found in the literature are the job satisfaction survey, the job descriptive index and the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire, which are fully elaborated below:

3.4.1 The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Paul E Spector to assess employee attitudes about the job and its aspects. The JSS is a 36 item questionnaire that targets nine separate facets of job satisfaction. These are pay, promotion, benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication (Spector, 1997:12). Each of these facets is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all 36 items. Responses to each question range from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

3.4.2 The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

The names Smith, Kendall and Hulin are commonly associated with Job Descriptive Index (JDI) in their publication of “The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement” in (1969). The JDI composed of 90-item scale designed to measure employees’ satisfaction with their jobs by looking at five important aspects or facets of job satisfaction which are present job, present pay and opportunity for promotion, supervision and co-workers. JDI has become to be one of the most popular job satisfaction survey instrument used today (Spector, 1997:18).

3.4.3 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist in 1967, and according to the literature (Smith, 1969:89) it has become a widely adopted instrument to evaluate job satisfaction. Three forms of the MSQ have been developed; two were a 100-item long questionnaire (the 1977 and 1967 versions) and a 20 item short questionnaire.

The MSQ is designed to measure specific aspects of a job rather than to effect a more general measure of job satisfaction. In addition, Adam and Bond (2000:543) indicate that the MSQ has been widely used in studies exploring client vocational needs, in counselling, follow up studies and in general information about the reinforcers in jobs. They further indicate that MSQ is a gender-neutral, self-administered paper and pencil inventory that is written at a fifth-grade level. This questionnaire can be used in an individual or group setting and standardised instructions for its administration are provided. Spector, (1997:23) adds that the 1977 revision of the MSQ uses a standard five-point response scale, response choices include “very satisfied” , “N”(neither satisfied nor dissatisfied), “dissatisfied” and “very dissatisfied” .

3.5 Modern ways of measuring job satisfaction

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire as explained in the preceding paragraph mainly focuses on four elements: the job itself, personal relationships in the workplace, compensation and promotion. Practically speaking the mentioned categories are not adequate for measuring the practical purpose of the firm. Hence thirteen elements were classified by current researchers (Landy & Trumbo, 2000:128). To be essential for measuring the constructs in many famous organisations, these elements were as follows:

- Salary and Benefits: This is the total compensation package as compared gained with other people in terms the tasks required by the job. Moreover, it includes the satisfaction gained from the benefit programs.
- Nature of work and pressure: Satisfaction and pressure of work, work time, decision making power and accomplishment.
- Career development: Satisfaction level with individual career development.
- Education and training: Satisfaction level with the firm's investment in education and training.
- Management style from the immediate manager: Satisfaction levels with management style and the superiors themselves.
- Safety and environment protection: Satisfaction level in the physical working environment provided by the firm including ventilation, safety and environmental projects.
- Performance evaluation systems: satisfaction levels with fairness and accuracy when performance is being assessed.
- In-firm promotional channels: satisfaction levels with the rules and time frame governing promotion.
- Discipline management: Satisfaction with the discipline practices.
- The overall working environment: Satisfaction level with working environment, such as geographical location, communication system, image of the firm, management and so on.
- Department environment: Satisfaction level at comparison of the employee's department with other departments.
- Support from the firm to personal well-being and family life
- Personal relationships with colleagues.

Clearly, employee satisfaction includes quite a number of factors. Not only elements such as salary, work itself or promotional possibilities go into satisfaction. Nonetheless, for the purposes of this study the researcher will focus

mainly on career development, relationships with colleagues and promotional channels amongst others as they are the major elements affected by restructuring which to a large extent impact the satisfaction of employees. The next section will discuss some of the factors that influence job satisfaction.

3.6 Factors that influence Job Satisfaction

Hoppock proposed the concept of job satisfaction in 1935 and considered that it was composed of what was felt in the working environment and what satisfied the employees both physically and psychologically. As Mitchel and Lee (2001:40) point out, these factors are employees' subjective reactions towards their working environment. As job satisfaction was summarised as the result of the difference between the expected and the actual situations, these authors show that the influencing factors for job satisfaction include: pay, the work itself, promotion, supervisor, the workgroup to which the individual belongs and working conditions. A clear elaboration of each factor is provided below.

- **Pay**

In studying the influence of incentives on job satisfaction, Mitchel and Lee (2001:42) discovered that employees who perceive that they are fairly rewarded for their contribution, have the opportunity for mobility within the organisation, and receive adequate compensation are more satisfied than those who are not. In like vein Thornhill (1999:497) introduced recognition for desirable behaviour and reward equity as incentive variables. Despite the argument that Thornhill advance, mixed feelings still exist as to the relationship between incentives and satisfaction. The question still remains “can money provide satisfaction?”

- **The work itself**

Together with pay, the work itself is a very important factor. Kreitner and Kinichi (2001:677) state that employees do not want jobs that are boring. They like to have challenging work and a variety of tasks. As explained in chapter 3, a certain amount of variety in a job will increase worker satisfaction. Nonetheless, too much variety can become distressing and cause burnout. Another factor that increases job satisfaction is autonomy. Robbins (1997:182) explains that workers like to have a certain amount of autonomy; work that provides this yields the greater amount of satisfaction.

- **Promotion**

Kreitner and Kinichi (2001:678) in their study of job satisfaction prove that the effect of promotion varies in relation to the levels at which it occurs. The following examples were provided by the authors to link job satisfaction and promotion: a secretary who is promoted to assistant administrator may receive an increase of R12000 per year, yet not significantly experience increased job satisfaction. However, a manager who is promoted to company president, with an increase of R400 000 per year, will most likely experience increased job satisfaction.

- **Supervisor**

Recent studies by Snell (2004:501) show that supervision also has a moderate effect on job satisfaction. Snell was able to break down the supervisory style of management into two dimensions:

- i. Employee-centeredness - the degree to which the supervisor cares and supports the workers and takes an active interest in them increases job satisfaction; and

- ii. Participation - the degree to which the worker is able to participate in decision making. The higher the degree of participation, the higher the degree of job satisfaction.

According to Robbins (1997:64) a participative (democratic) leadership style tends to suit smaller organisations and does not always improve employee attitudes. Some employees are motivated by an employee-centred management style, others by the “high control” leadership style of large bureaucratic organisations.

- **The work group to which the individual belongs**

Research (Locke, 1996:312) on job satisfaction shows that friendly and cooperative co-workers provide only a moderate source of job satisfaction. While people like to have discussions with co-workers and prefer not to be separated from them, research proves that it is not a significant factor in job satisfaction. However, people that cannot get on with co-workers do experience poor job satisfaction.

- **Working conditions**

Although not most likely associated with job satisfaction by most researchers working conditions can also contribute to job satisfaction. Byars and Rue (2004:309) indicate that factors such as comfortable office, carpeting, ventilation, good lighting, hygienic work conditions and so on, can all affect job satisfaction. They further indicate that such factors can have an impact outside the organisation. They provide an example of a worker who is required to work in a noisy environment, which as they show may lead to stress, that can influence the worker’s family life.

3.7 Job Satisfaction: Some Major Causes

The saying that job satisfaction varies greatly from employee to employee and from organisation to organisation is very true. While some persons report overwhelmingly positive reactions to their work, others gripe continuously about real or imagined problems. Why is it precisely that way? The question is what factors contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Attempts to answer these questions have taken two basic forms. Baron (1993:208) found of the first, that several investigators have sought to develop comprehensive theories of job satisfaction, theories that both identify the major determinates of such reaction and account for their impact on worker attitude.

On to the second, Baron (1993:208) states that many researchers have adopted a more empirical approach, seeking to determine key factors affecting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Both strategies will now be considered:

3.7.1 Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's motivation hygiene approach

Maslow's need hierarchy was already described as one of the theories relevant to job satisfaction. As one may recall, this theory suggests that human beings have five basic categories of needs: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem and self-actualisation needs. Further, it proposes that these are arranged in a hierarchy and that only when more basic needs are met do individuals seek to satisfy needs at a higher level.

When applied to job satisfaction, the work of Wagner and Hollenbeck (1992:40) shows that Maslow's theory suggests that workers will be most satisfied with their jobs when they permit them to satisfy the needs corresponding to their current position in the hierarchy. For example, an individual seeking to satisfy physiological and safety needs, will report satisfaction with his or her job only to

the extent that it helps him or her to meet these needs. By contrast, an individual whose basic needs are already met might report satisfaction with his or her job only if it permits him to enhance his self-esteem or achieve self-actualisation.

A second major theory relied on in this study is the two-factor motivational theory of Herzberg. Studies (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 1992:42) indicate that Herzberg's theory developed out of a research project conducted with different employees, where the critical incident technique was used. Subjects were asked to describe times when they felt satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. Careful analysis of the incidents they reported then yielded an intriguing pattern of findings. Incidents involving the work-itself, achievement, promotion, recognition and responsibility were often mentioned as sources of satisfaction, but only rarely as sources of dissatisfaction. Herzberg termed such factors motivators. In contrast, incidents involving interpersonal relations, working conditions, supervisors, salary and company policies were frequently mentioned as causes of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg labelled this group of variables hygienes. In the light of Herzberg's work, Wagner and Hollenbeck (1992:43) show that job satisfaction stems from different causes. They also add that satisfaction is mainly derived from motivators, or aspects of the work-itself, while dissatisfaction stems primarily from the context in which work is performed.

3.7.2 The causes of job satisfaction: Consistent empirical findings

According to Kreitner and Kinichi (1995:128) many theories of job satisfaction still fail to provide a thorough account of the causes of employee satisfaction. They point out that much evidence on job satisfaction comes from empirical research. Which makes clear that a large number of factors play a role in enhancing (or preventing) job satisfaction? These variables are quite diverse in nature, but most falls into two main categories: Those relating to events and conditions in work settings and those pertaining more directly to the people in them.

With respect to the events and conditions in work settings, Kreitner and Kinicki, (1995:120) reflect that job satisfaction is enhanced by work that is mentally challenging and interesting, but not too tiring, by company policies that permit individuals to reach important work goals, by the presence of reward for good performance (including raise and promotion), by rewards that are fair and informative and by work conditions that are comfortable and facilitate the attainment of general work goals.

Turning to factors involving other persons, it has been found that job satisfaction is facilitated by supervisors, co-workers and subordinates who share the employee's major values, by verbal recognition from superiors, supervisor who aid employee in attaining major work goals, good relations with co-workers and participation in work related decisions and policies. Indeed Mallins (1996:521) observes that job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables relating to individual, social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors and gives a brief explanation of each factor as follows:

- Individual factors: These include the personality, educational level, intelligence and ability, age, marital status as well as orientation to work.
- Social factors: Social factors cover the relationships with co-workers, group working, norms, opportunity for interaction and informal organisation.
- Cultural factors: They are the underlying attitudes, beliefs and values.
- Organisational factors: Nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, employee relations, nature of the work and

technology, supervision, style of leadership, management systems and working conditions.

- Environmental factors: This last group of factors includes the economic, social, technical and governmental influences.

In support of the above mentioned factors, Nel, *et al* (2004:552) came up with a means of grouping the factors into personal and organisational factors. Their revision also showed that there are different levels of satisfaction between white collar personnel (managerial and professional) and blue collar workers, older people and younger people, more experienced and less experienced workers, women and men and people belonging to minority groups. According to these authors (*ibid*, 2004:552) personnel factors refer mainly to personality, status and seniority, general life satisfaction and the extent to which the job characteristics are congruent with personal characteristics.

Organisational factors contributing to job satisfaction based on the argument of Nel, *et al* (2004:553) are categorised as follows:

- Pay and benefits: As people perceive their remuneration as an indicator of what they are worth to the organisation, the principle of equitable pay is important because people compare what they put into the organisation with what they get in return, and to what other people put in and get out. Nel, *et al* (2004:553) show that perceived inequity leads to job dissatisfaction.
- The work itself: In this regard, Nel, *et al* (2004:553) argue that people have a preference opportunity for self-actualisation and recognition defined by Robbins *et al* (2004:131) defines self-actualization as the drive to become what one is capable of becoming in terms of growth, achievement of one's potential and self-fulfillment.

- The supervisor: Job satisfaction is influenced by the amount of technical and social support extended by the supervisor.
- Relationship with co-workers: Whereas the first three factors have a strong influence on job satisfaction, the relationship an employee has with co-workers influences job satisfaction only moderately. Research (Nel et al, 2004:554) proves that people with a strong career orientation place less emphasis on social relations, thus making the relationship with co-workers less important to them.
- Working conditions: The last factor is the working conditions. People do become dissatisfied if they work in an over-crowded, dark, dirty or noisy place.

In the long run the factors discussed are directly affected by restructuring and say much about employee satisfaction in the work place. If not properly managed and moderated, these factors will result in high stress among the employees, as will be fully discussed in chapter 5 of this study.

3.8 The consequences of Job dissatisfaction

This part will pay much attention to the organisational variables that are directly affected by job satisfaction. Since it is impossible to examine them all, only a subset of more important variables will be discussed. These include absenteeism, turnover, productivity, organisational commitment and early retirement.

3.8.1 Absenteeism

A search on the internet for information on absenteeism revealed more than 12 000 absenteeism related websites. This is an indication of the magnitude of this problem! Miller (1998:20) defines absenteeism as non-attendance of an employee when scheduled to work. Research on absenteeism is very important due to the potentially disruptive effects it has on operations within the organization and the related costs involved. Miller (1998:21) further adds that absenteeism is regarded as withdrawal behaviour when it is used as a way to escape an undesirable working environment. Similarly, Ivanchevich (2001:102) adds that absenteeism is costly and managers are constantly on the lookout for ways to reduce it. He points out that one recommendation has been to increase job satisfaction, with the emphasis that if this is valid, there should be a strong negative relationship (or negative correlation) between satisfaction and absenteeism. In other words, as satisfaction increases, absenteeism should decrease.

In more recent studies, Nel, *et al* (2004:548) came up with factors contributing to absenteeism, amongst them the following:

- Met expectation: New employees enter an organization with certain expectations relating to opportunities to apply their skills and abilities, equal treatment, receiving respect or enjoying satisfactory working conditions. They (Nel, *et al*, 2004:548) indicate that if employee's expectations are not met, the employee could abuse sick leave as a mechanism to withdraw temporarily from the job or the job situation.
- Job-person match: Nel, *et al* (2004:548) state that if an employee's personality, ability and skills are not congruent with the job requirements, the person becomes either bored or stressed and withdraws from the situation by being absent. In addition, they also

show that if there is a good match between the job characteristics and personal characteristics of the employee, the person will rather accept responsibility and stay committed to his / her job.

- Organisational culture: If the organisational culture is permissive towards absenteeism employees will consider sick leave as a benefit that need to be utilised or it will be lost. On the other hand, if unnecessary absence is frowned upon by either management or co-workers, the employee will think twice before abusing sick leave.

Inspite of the negative aspects of absenteeism, Litwin and Stringer (1998:256) argue that modern day organisations are result-driven, not behaviour-orientated adding that if that is the case, then in an emerging virtual environment the importance of absenteeism is minimised. Still, they were able to differentiate between sick absence, authorized absence and unexcused absence.

- Sick absence: Occurs when a person is absent due to a reported illness, whether genuine or not. The company policy states at what stage a medical certificate is required.
- Authorised absence: This occurs when the employee is absent for any reason other than illness and it is accepted by management. Employees should be encouraged to seek permission beforehand if the situation allows for it.
- Unexcused absence: This is considered as unacceptable behaviour that should not be tolerated, and in most cases, progressive discipline is used to handle this problem.

3.8.1.1 The measurement of absenteeism

According to Van der Merwe and Miller (1992:12), there are two measures used to measure absenteeism, namely: the Gross Absence Rate (GAR), which measures the extent of absence and the Absence Frequency Rate (AFR) which, as the name implies, measures the incidence of absence-taking.

3.8.1.2 The Gross Absence Rate (GAR)

This is equivalent to a time-lost index showing time as a percentage of total working time. The GAR is normally calculated at month end and the total possible working time (which forms the denominator) is arrived at by multiplying the average number in employment for that month by the total working days in the period (Van der Merwe & Miller, 1992:13). The formula is as follows:

$$\text{GAR} = \frac{\text{Total days lost through all absence}}{\text{Total possible ma-days}} * 100$$

Van der Merwe and Miller (1992:13) add that the Gross Absence Rate is often referred to as just the absence rate and that it is most widely used and often quoted. Where shift work is the norm, the GAR is expressed as follows:

$$\text{GAR} = \frac{\text{Shift lost}}{\text{Total possible shifts}} * 100$$

Chmiel (2000:338) identified weaknesses occurring to the GAR measure. He sees the Gross Absence Rate is just an overall figure which gives no indication of the sort of absence occurring, that is why reason and for how long the absence occurs.

This makes the GAR a less reliable measure than the Absence Frequency Rate explained below.

3.8.1.3 The Absence Frequency Rate (AFR)

Van der Merwe and Miller (1992:14) state that the Absence Frequency Rate consists of a count of the number of incidents of absence per employee, regardless of the length. Moreover, unlike the GAR, where weight is given to long absence, which may more often be unavoidable, the AFR lays stress on absences of shorter duration. As short unforeseen absence are likely to cause the most disruption. The AFR is a most useful measure. Other authors (Chadwick, *et al*, 1982:40) add that the AFR is more reliable. The AFR formula is as follows:

$$\text{AFR} = \frac{\text{Total number of absence incidents over period}}{\text{Average in employment for that period}} * 100$$

3.8.2 Turnover

According to Nel, *et al* (2004:551) turnover simply means the movement of employees in and out of the boundaries of the organisation. Accordingly transfer is not considered as labour turnover, while turnover is permanent withdrawal from the work situation. As this definition indicates turnover can be disruptive and very costly to an organisation Kretner and Kinicki (2001:162) suggest that turnover may be reduced by increasing employee job satisfaction as there is an inverse relationship between the two. They further argue that, a certain amount of labour turnover can be beneficial (functional turnover) as it allows the organisation to take in new, enthusiastic employees who bring creative ideas with them.

Nel, *et al* (2004:551) are of the opinion that labour turnover is influenced by the prevailing economic climate, the nature of the organisation and the type of employees. They again show that unmet expectations and person-work relationships may be other contributing factors. Furthermore, individual factors that have an effect on turnover include age, education, background and personality. As to individual factors they also add that employees sometimes remain in an organisation for a long period simply because they have built up good relationships with co-workers.

3.8.2.1 Measuring turnover

The first step in combating labour turnover is to measure it. There are many measures that provide long-term information, but the most useful, according to Van der Merwe and Miller (1992:16) is an objective, summarizing measure that indicates change over a relatively short period of time. Three measures based on Van der Merwe and Miller are as follows:

- Labour Turnover Rate (LTO)
- Median length of service of leavers (MILOS)
- Percentage of voluntary termination (%V)

(For this study the measure needs no further discussion as the kind of turnover experienced by workers at LHDA was not voluntary at all. Hence, to provide a measure for it will not be of any significance as this was a turnover planned by management).

3.8.2.2 Controllable and uncontrollable labour turnover

Some researchers distinguish between controllable and uncontrollable turnovers depending on the management's ability to prevent it or not. Voluntary resignation and dismissals are regarded as controllable turnovers in that a voluntary resignation may be controlled if management provides better leadership, wages, opportunities, working conditions and so on, highlighting that dismissals can be prevented through proper employment, training, policies and procedures. On the other hand, uncontrollable labour turnover includes death, permanent illness, pregnancy, retirement and retrenchments in the case of organisational restructuring. Unlike controllable turnover, uncontrollable turnovers are recorded, but not included in the measurements of turnover as no reasonable action from management can reduce or prevent it. (Nel, *et al*, 2004:552).

3.8.3 Productivity / Performance

According to Baron (1993:218) "a happy worker is a productive worker". Given the empirical evidence from different studies, this statement is true, but most studies designed to examine the possibility of a link between job satisfaction and productivity still fail to provide a clear relationship between the two. Baron notes that this is contrary to what "common knowledge" suggests. Productivity does not seem to rise with increased satisfaction or to fall with growing dissatisfaction. Baron (1993:218) offers the following evidence as proof that there is no link between productivity and job satisfaction. Firstly, he states that in many work settings, there is little room for large changes in performance or productivity. Jobs are structured so that persons holding them perform at a fixed level, so that there is little room for greater productivity. Even if a worker speeds up, the production line will continue to move at the same pace. Moreover, individuals are so dependent on others for some of their work materials that they cannot move ahead on specific jobs even if they wish to do so. Under these conditions, even extremely high levels of job satisfaction can do little to raise productivity, which

makes the link between these variables weak. Secondly, Baron indicates that any apparent relationship between job satisfaction and productivity may stem from the fact that both are related to a third factor, viz. the receipt of various rewards. Quoting Porter and Lawler (1988), Baron (1993:218) notes that levels of performance lead to the receipt of both extrinsic rewards (e.g. pay, promotion) and intrinsic rewards (e.g. feeling of accomplishment). If these rewards are judged to be fair and equitable by employees, they may come to perceive a connection between performance and such outcomes. This in turn may result in relatively high levels of effort in performance. At the same time, the belief that rewards are provided in a fair manner and are contingent on one's actual performance may generate high levels of job satisfaction. In short, it means that high productivity and high satisfaction may both stem from the conditions just outlined.

Figure 3.4: One explanation for the absence of a direct link between job satisfaction and productivity

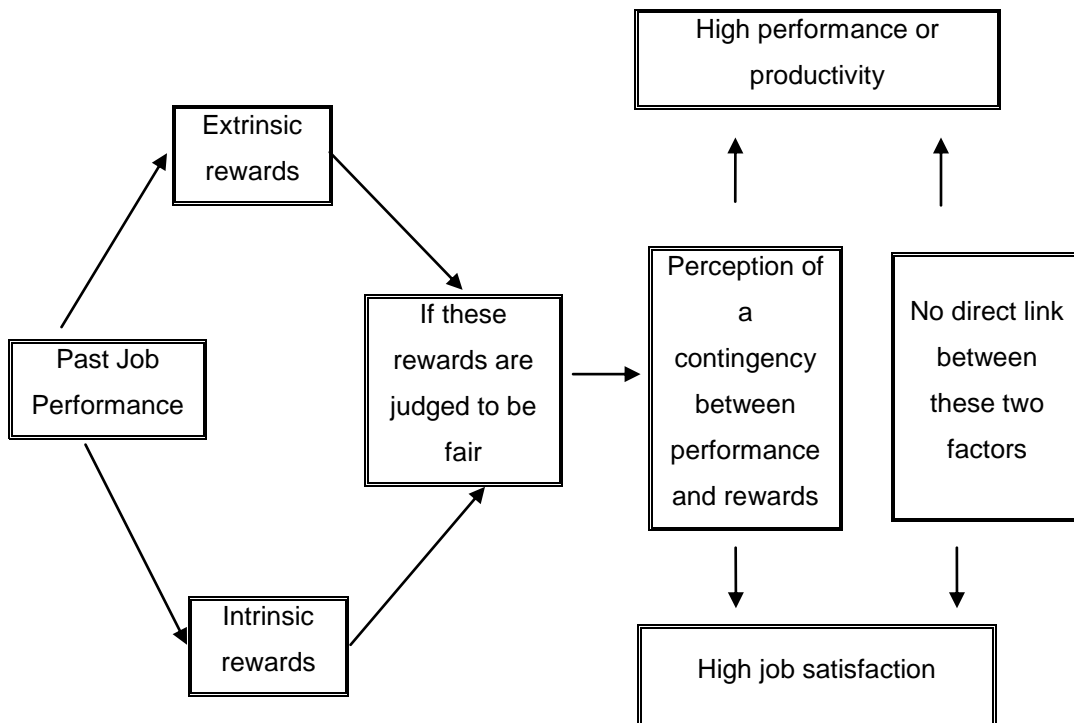


Figure 3.4: Based on A.B. Baron. Behaviour in organisations (1993).

3.8.4 Organisational commitment

Closely related to job satisfaction is organisational commitment, which is the intensity of a person's psychological identification with the job (Shultz & Schultz, 2002:250). These authors note that although organisational commitment correlates positively with job satisfaction and attendance and negatively with turnover, it has little direct influence on job performance. Research by other authors (Becker, 1998; Billings, 1996 & Gilvert, 1996) cited by Shultz and Shultz (2002:251) indicates that there is no significant relationship between job performance and commitment to the organisation, but there is the relationship between job performance and commitment to one's immediate supervisor. These results suggest that commitment may be directed in different ways, one of which would be loyalty to one's boss. This means that employee commitment to top management is seen as a better predictor of job satisfaction than is employee commitment to the organisation as a whole.

Shultz and Shultz (2002:254), citing the (Meyer & Allen, 1991) identified three kinds of organisational commitment: affective or attitudinal, behavioural or continuance as well as normative commitment.

- In affective commitment the employee identifies with the organisation, internalises its values and attitudes and complies with its demands. This kind of commitment correlates highly with perceived organisational support.
- In behavioural commitment the employee is bound to the organisation only by peripheral factors such as pension plans and seniority, which would not continue if the employee quit. It is further stated that there is no personal identification with organisational goals and values. Further research (Meyer & Allen, 1991) shows that affective commitment is positively

related to job performance, but behavioural commitment is negatively related to performance

- Normative commitment as Shultz and Shultz (2002:254) shows, involves a sense of obligation to remain with the employer. It is a feeling that develops when the employees receive benefits such as tuition reimbursements or specific skills training.

3.8.5 Job satisfaction and early retirement

Studies have been able to delineate a link between early retirement and job satisfaction. As Baron (1993: 219) pointed out:

“In recent years, a number of organisations in both public and private sectors have adopted early retirement plans. Employees participating in such programs can retire before reaching age 65 if they have accrued a minimum number of years of service (usually 30) and have reached some minimum age (often 55)”.

It seems reasonable to assume that attitudes towards or satisfaction with one's job might influence the decision of a person to either take advantage of this option to continue working or not. Evidence gathered by Schmitt and McLune (1988) cited by Baron (1993:219) suggest that this is the case. This investigation found that among a group of civil servants, those who chose to retire early held a less positive attitude about their jobs than those who continued working. Further, they found that individuals in lower-level, less challenging positions are more likely to choose early retirement than those in higher-level more challenging ones.

3.6 The Impact on personal characteristics

Many characteristics of the job and workplace affect job satisfaction. This means that by redesigning jobs and the work environment, it is possible for management to increase job satisfaction and productivity. Evidence given from job satisfaction theories suggests that, jobs can be redesigned to maximize opportunities to satisfy the needs for achievement, self-actualisation and personal growth. Moreover, jobs can also be enriched to enhance the motivator needs and the core job characteristics, and to provide higher levels of responsibility. Some of the personal characteristics linked with job satisfaction include: age, gender, race, cognitive ability, job experience, use of skills, job congruence, organisational justice, job control and occupational level.

3.6.1 Age

Research (Schmitz, *et al*, 2000:97) demonstrates that job satisfaction increases with age. Adding from the findings of Shultz and Shultz (2006:235) found that the lowest job satisfaction is reported by younger workers. They also indicate that this relationship holds for both men and women. In providing a better understanding of age and job satisfaction, Shultz and Shultz (2006:236) note that in most cases, younger people are disappointed with their first jobs because they fail to find sufficient challenge and responsibility.

As possible reasons as to why satisfaction increases with age they suggest:

- First, strongly dissatisfied young workers may drop out of the work-force or change so jobs frequently in their search for satisfaction that they may not be counted in surveys. Hence, that, the older the sample of employees studied, the fewer dissatisfied people are likely to be found.

- Second, a sense of resignation develops in some workers as they grow older, which, in the long-run stops them from looking for fulfilment and challenge in their work and seek such satisfaction anymore. Therefore, they tend to report less dissatisfaction with their jobs.
- Third, older workers have the greatest opportunity to find fulfilment and self-actualisation on the job. Age and experience in most cases bring increased confidence, competence, esteem and responsibility. In turn, these feeling lead to a greater sense of accomplishment. In other words, older workers are more likely to have satisfying jobs than are younger workers.

3.6.2 Gender

According to McCormick and Ilgen (1995:163), psychologists and other researchers still have not come up with a clear pattern of differences in job satisfaction between men and women. They argue that it may not be gender that relates to job satisfaction as much as the group of factors that vary with gender. They show that in most cases women are typically paid less than men for the same work, and that their opportunities for promotion are limited. As research indicates, most women employees believe that they have to work harder and perform better than men before they receive comparable rewards. These are some of the factors than can influence a person's satisfaction.

3.6.3 Cognitive ability

According to Ganzach (1998:530), cognitive ability is not really a significant determinant of job satisfaction, but it may be significant when related to the type of work a person chooses.

For many jobs, there is a range of intelligence associated with high performance and satisfaction. Evidence suggests that people who are too intelligent for their work may find insufficient challenge which leads to boredom and dissatisfaction. One other factor that is related to intelligence is level of education; studies (Ganzach, 1998:531) have shown that education has a slightly negative relationship to job satisfaction. The higher the level of formal education, the more likely a person is to be dissatisfied with the job.

3.6.4 Job experience

Researchers (Schiminke, Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2000) cited in Shultz and Shultz (2006:240) show that job satisfaction appears to increase after a number of years of experience and to improve steadily thereafter, indicating that the relationship between job satisfaction and length of work experience parallels the relationship with age. The explanation given is that during the initial stages of employment new workers tend to be satisfied with their jobs. This period involves the stimulation and challenge of developing skills and abilities, and the work may seem attractive just because it is new. This early satisfaction wanes, unless employees receive feedback on their progress and tangible evidence of their achievements. After a few years on the job, some are discouraged by the feeling that advancement in the company is too slow.

3.6.5 Use of Skills

Literature reveals that people are happier at work if they have a chance to use their abilities. Eklund (1995:17) reports that interviews with workers on an automobile assembly line in Sweden showed that a major factor in their job satisfaction was the opportunity to perform their work at a high level of quality. This shows that when working conditions or the actions of co-workers interfere with work quality, job satisfaction declines.

3.6.6 Job congruent

Job congruent as Eklund (1995:17) defines it refers to the match between the demands of a job and the ability of the employee. The higher the congruence - the closer the fit between a person's skill and attributes and the job's requirements – the greater the job satisfaction. Poor fit between job demands and personal skills reduces the potential job satisfaction.

3.6.7 Organisational justice

Chmiel (2001:35) defines organisational justice as how fairly employees perceive themselves to be treated by the company. When workers believe that they are being treated unfairly (a perceived lack of organisational justice) their job performance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are likely to decline.

3.6.8 Job control

Bond and Bunce (2003) cited by Shultz and Shultz (2006:238) are of the view that people who can exercise greater control over their job duties, are more highly motivated to perform well and as a result experience greater satisfaction.

3.6.9 Occupational level

As to one's level in the organisational hierarchy, Shultz and Shultz (2006:238) note that people with higher occupational status have higher job satisfaction. The idea is that executives express more positive job attitudes and feelings than do first-line supervisors, who in-turn, are usually more satisfied than their subordinates. Based on the supporting theories mentioned earlier on this chapter, the higher the job level, the greater the opportunity for satisfying

motivator needs. Also, higher-level jobs offer greater autonomy, challenge and responsibility.

3.6.10 Job satisfaction and losing of one's job

It is obvious that there is no job satisfaction without a job. However, losing one's job or being laid off is stressful for employees and their families. Luthans (1998:317) observed that in Japan lay-offs are considered so traumatic that they are called "*kubi kiri*", which means "beheading". The consequences of lay-off may include feelings of a guilt, resentment, depression and anxiety about the future, as well as physical complaints, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, divorce, spouse and child abuse and thoughts of suicide according to Luthans (1998:319)

Similarly Shultz and Shultz (2006:240) show that employees with higher-level jobs appear to suffer more greatly from loss of employment. Employees with lower-level jobs are said to be more adaptive. Losing a job typically leads to significant changes in lifestyle, expectations, goals and values. The psychological contract that these employees believed they had with their employer is breached. The unwritten agreement stating that if they worked hard and showed loyalty to the company, the company would respond with job security, pay-raise and promotion is no longer applicable.

Shultz and Shultz (2006:240) have found that negative reactions to lay-offs can be minimised if management is honest with employees about the reasons for dismissals. Well informed employees are more likely to view the layoffs as fair and may continue to speak positively about the company; they may also express no intentions of suing for wrongful termination. For these employees, finding a new position typically reverses the negative effects of losing one's job. However, how the new job relates to the old one can make a difference. Literature cited by Kinichi and Mckee-Ryan (2002:22) avers that in a study of 100 workers who were dissatisfied with their new jobs, the reason was that they continued to experience

negative effects associated with being dismissed from their previous jobs. Other literature also prove that people who take some time before looking for a new job after being laid-off, tend to report higher job satisfaction with their new jobs than those who begin their job search right away.

Shultz and Shultz (2006:240) also show that when large-scale lay-offs due to restructuring occur in an organisation, the employees who have kept their jobs are also affected. In most cases such employees fear and worry that they will be among the next dismissals. A report for the U.S. Department of Labour noted that half of the layoff survivors questioned reported increased stress, low morale and reduced job commitment (Times, 2005:13)

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter critically explained what job satisfaction is as a concept in the workplace. This concept was defined by Nel, *et al* (2004:552) as the individual's cognitive affection and evaluative reaction towards their jobs. Moreover, some of the relevant theories that help to elucidate the concept of job satisfaction were also discussed. These are, first the content theory which suggested that job satisfaction occurs when one's need for growth and self actualisation are met by the individual's job, as supported by Maslow's Hierarchy of needs as well as Herzberg's two-factor motivational theory. Secondly, the process theories argued that job satisfaction stems from how well the job meets one's expectations and values and are based on the Equity theory. Lastly, the situational theories as advocated by the work of McAfee, Quarstein and Glassman indicate that job satisfaction is determined by two factors, namely situational characteristics and situational occurrences.

The chapter also explained different factors that influence job satisfaction, the causes of job satisfaction. Finally, some of the possible consequences of job satisfaction which have serious costs on the monetary state of the organisation

and also affect the career aspirations of workers were outlined. That brings us to the next chapter on career.

CHAPTER FOUR

CAREER

4.1 Introduction

Thoughts about careers take on special relevance in the new workplace. People today live in a time when the implication of constant change pressures them to continually review and reassess their career progress. Organisations are becoming smaller and flatter, employing fewer people and moving beyond traditional organisational forms. Thus, there is increasing emphasis on horizontal and cross-functional relationships. The literature indicates the great importance of technical workers and that they are being treated almost like high-level managers in terms of perquisites and rewards. This chapter will fully discuss career, what it is and some of the relevant concepts that contribute to an understanding of career. The chapter will further explain the impact that organisational change can have on the career aspirations of employees. Lastly, the chapter will discuss the role which the employer can play in supporting and developing employees' careers.

4.2 What is a career?

Different authors attribute different meanings to the word career. Greenhaus *et al* (2000:8) defines a career in two ways, one approach views a career as a structural property of an occupation or an organisation, according to a career could also be seen as a mobility path within a single organisation. The other views a career as a property of an individual rather than an occupation or an organisation. Because of the fact that everyone accumulates a unique series of jobs, positions and experiences, Greenhaus *et al* (2000:8) emphasises that each person in effect, pursues a unique career.

Other authors (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983:7) write that a career is a path that something or someone has taken, adding that in occupational context, it may mean one's chosen occupation, craft or profession. Similarly, Drummond and Ryan (1995:40) argue that a career is a general course of actions a person chooses to pursue throughout his / her working life. With so many possible meanings of "career", the most useful definition seems to be the broadest. The shorter Oxford Dictionary (2002:301) defines career as follows "*a person's course or progress through life*"

Drummond and Ryan (1995:42) point out that the word career is derived from the French word "*career*" which means road or racetrack. They further argue that careerists are persons interested chiefly in achieving their own professional ambitions to the neglect of other things. By contrast, Kanchier (1991:25) points out that life-long careers are disappearing, people now change careers a number of times during their lifetime. On the assumption, a combination of psychological and sociological factors affect how and when change career takes place, the next paragraphs will explain the essential concepts in clarifying the word career.

4.3 Career concepts

The following career concepts may help to put more meaning into the definition of career as a concept. As observed there are different definitions by different authors. Hopefully, these concepts may link the diverse definitions.

4.3.1 Career planning

According to Kidd (1994:16) career planning is a phrase often used to describe actions by the individual owner of a career. He argues that few individuals are sensible or lucky enough to produce workable long-range career plans, even though such plans are always liable to be altered (for better or worse) by wants. For many people, he adds, career planning is principally a matter of ambition "I

intend to be a millionaire by the age 30”, “I want to get into Parliament” and so on. Kidd (1996:16) observes that such ambitions are characteristic of younger people, but some remain ambitious throughout their entire life. Arnold (1997:60) states that career planning is a process whereby an individual sets career goals and identifies the means by which to achieve them. It is, he explains a process whereby individuals analyse their interests, values, personality and capabilities and attempt to match them with realistically available career options.

4.3.2 Career development

Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:117) say that career development is an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes or tasks. Although the concept of life-development and career-development are compatible, there is a greater emphasis on work-related issues in career development including career development models. The following is one of the career development models based on Levinson’s view of adult life development. The five stages of this model, adapted from Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:117), are discussed below:

Stage 1: Occupational choice (preparing for work)

According to Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:117) the major tasks of this stage is to form and refine an occupational self-image, explore the qualities of alternative occupations, develop at least a tentative occupational choice and pursue the type of education or training required. The abovementioned authors further show that the accomplishment of these tasks requires considerable insight into one’s own talents, interests, values and desired lifestyles as well as the requirements, opportunities and rewards associated with alternative occupational fields. Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:117) state that the initial time frame of this stage from birth to 25 years, implies that the formation of self image and of the world of work takes place throughout childhood, adolescence and early adulthood.

Stage 2: Organisational entry

The organisational entry stage is summarised by Crites (1996:60) as the stage in which individuals make a selection of jobs or organisations in one's chosen career field. It is at this stage that a choice of a job that can satisfy one's career values and talents is made. Nonetheless, Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:118) indicates that many individuals' jobs selections are based on incomplete or unrealistic information, showing that such people may experience considerable disillusionment and dissatisfaction when the reality of the work environment does not live up to their inflated expectations. Crites (1996:60) claims that this stage takes place between the ages of 18 to 25 years, often depending on the number of years of education one has pursued.

Stage 3: The Early career

The early career which encompasses two periods reflects the dominant aim of early adulthood to find a niche for oneself in the adult world and to make it along the chosen path. Having selected an occupation and initial job, a critical first task of the early career is to become established in one's career and organisation. In this establishment period, the individual's major task is to learn about the job and the organisation and to become accepted as a competent contributor to the organisation; in other words, to make a place for oneself in the occupation and organisation (Greenhaus, *et al*, 2000:180). This stage usually extends all the way up to age 35-40.

Stage 4: The Mid-career

Harvey and Bowin (1996:200) write that the mid-career stage, in most cases, occurs after a few years on the job, when the productive employee begins to experience a loss of challenge in his / her career. They argue that the individual's career becomes a major consideration during this stage. At this stage the

individual may have had several promotions. In support of Harvey and Bowin, Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:121) argues that the major tasks in the middle career stage are to examine and reappraise the early career results, make changes in goals, and remain productive on the job. Additionally, Harvey and Bowin (1996:200) indicate that at this stage, the individual may need to cope with becoming “plateaued”. Plateau, they explain, refers to the point in a career at which the chance of further promotion appears to be very low. Other authors (Hall, 2002:73) add that during this stage individuals may also discover that their knowledge and skills are no longer enough to enable them to perform their jobs at a satisfactory level. In actual fact, such individuals may be in danger of losing their jobs and confronting the economic and emotional impact of being laid-off.

Marshall and Bonner (2003:282) in their study of career anchors found that as many organisations restructure and downsize, the number of people who are likely to receive promotion has increased dramatically, highlighting the need to better understand reactions to career plateaus. Marshall and Bonner observe that early perceptions of a career plateau may be viewed negatively and may motivate the individual to avoid it. Mid career employees in this position may suffer from depression, poor health, fatigue and hostility towards co-workers, which may result in lowered job performance. Other researchers (Joy-Matthews *et al*, 2004:112) found that it is at this stage during one’s career that there may be a decline in physical and mental processes or abilities. Many employees may fear that they will be replaced by brighter and younger employees and that they will become obsolete and be put out to pasture. This perception, as Hall (2002:75) puts it may influence both employee satisfaction and productivity levels. This stage takes place between the ages of 40-45 years.

Stage 5: Late career

According to Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:121) there has not been a great deal of research on the late career stage. They suggest that two major tasks dominate this stage. Firstly, the individual must continue to be a productive contributor to the organisation and maintain his/her sense of self-worth and dignity. Nonetheless, the maintenance of production and self-esteem may be hindered by changes within the individual and by society's bias against older people. Secondly, the individual in the late career stage must anticipate and plan for effective retirement, so that disengagement from work is not devastating to the individual and the postretirement years can be meaningful and satisfying, The stage roughly extends from the mid-50s to retirement

4.3.3 Career management

Career management as Schreuder and Coetzee (2006:60) puts it is an ongoing process whereby the individual:

- Obtains self-knowledge (interest, values, ability, personality, career patterns and career anchors)
- Obtains a knowledge of employment opportunities (jobs, work roles, skills demand, skill acquisition opportunities, venture creation possibilities and work place knowledge)
- Develops career goals
- Develops a strategy to achieve the goals
- Implements the strategy and experiments with various employment possibilities and
- Obtains feed-back on the effectiveness of the strategy and the relevance of the goals.

Greenhaus, *et al* (2000) cited by in Schreuder and Coetzee (2006:61) notes that the career management process involves making realistic choices which includes greater attention to one's own skills and the demand for those skills in the labour market. Rothwell, *et al* (2005:143) agree that career management is an ongoing process of preparing the individual and monitoring career plans undertaken by individuals alone or in consent with the organisation's career system. Evidence from the literature clearly highlights that career management is an individual rather than organisational activity. Jelinik (1979:52) writes:

“Career management is the shared responsibility of the employer and employee. Nonetheless, employees have the primary responsibility for taking control of their careers, while on the other hand the employer has just a supportive role to play”

The supportive role of the employer will be described later in this chapter. Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:24) was able to develop a model of career management. This model clearly indicates that not everybody manages a career in this fashion, but the activities represented in the model can lead to desirable outcomes for the individual. The career management model is portrayed in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

Career management model

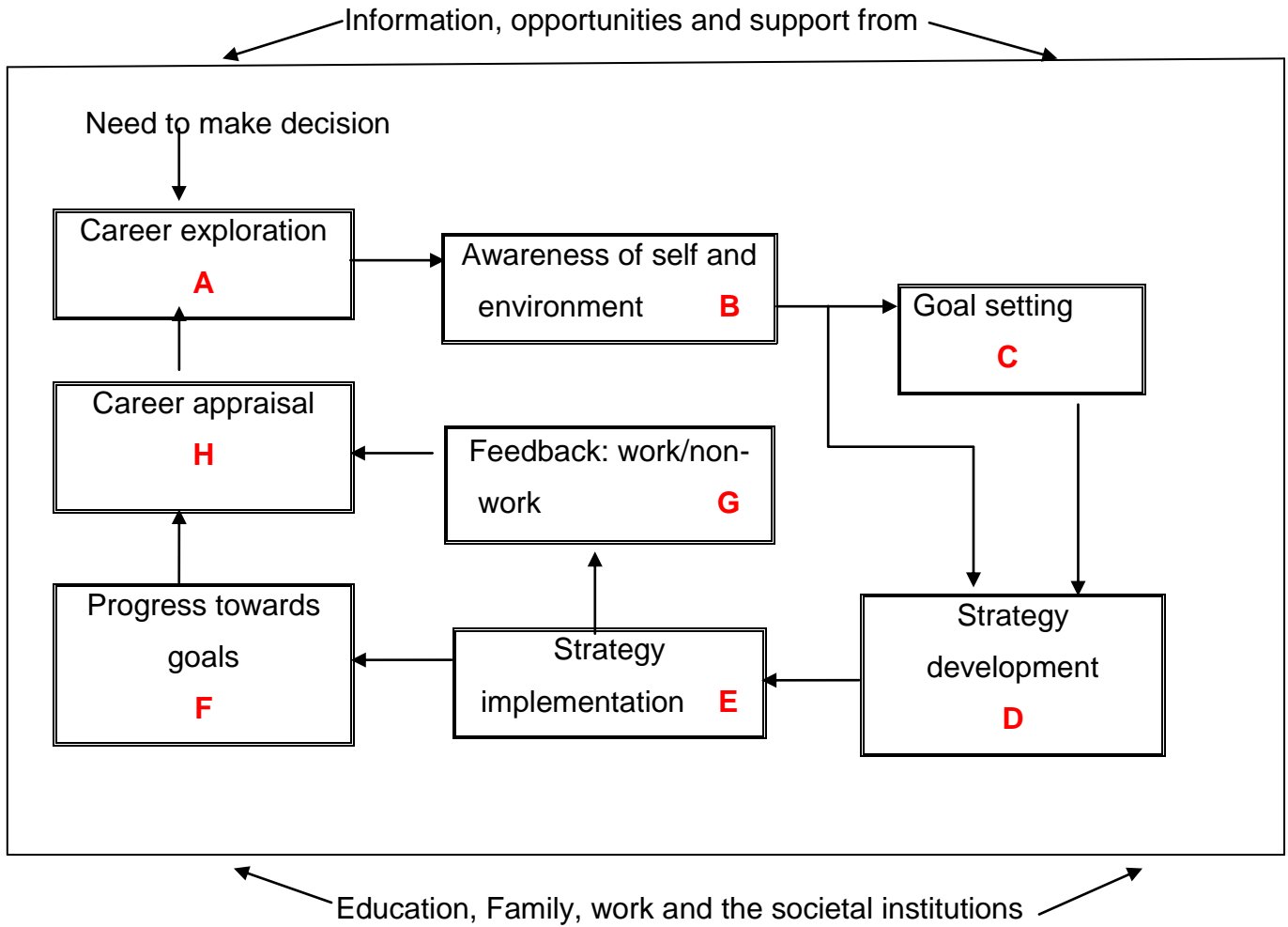


Figure 4.1: adapted from J.H, Greenhaus, G.A, Callaman and V. M. Goadshalh. Career Management, 3rd ed. (2000).

The concepts of this model are fully explained as follows:

The first step in the career management model indicates that potential employees should engage in career exploration. Such an employee should gather information regarding career related issues. Such exploration can be divided into self exploration (one's own qualities) and environmental exploration (occupations, jobs, organisations and family). A greater awareness of an individual and his/her environment can help such a person to choose a career goal to pursue (box B of Figure 4.1). After the career choice, the next step is to set goals (box C). When formulating career goals the individual decides what he/she wants to accomplish and then he/she formulates the strategies (box D). Once the strategy is in place, the implementation follows (box E) – i.e., a plan of activities designed to attain the desired goal.

The implementation of a career strategy can produce progress towards the stated career goal (box F). While on the other hand, the implementation of a career strategy provides feed-back to the person. This feed-back according to Greenhaus, *et al* (2000:25) in conjunction with feed-back from other work and non-work sources (box G), can enable an individual to appraise his/her career (box H). Supporting information derived from the career appraisal becomes another vehicle for career exploration (see the arrow from box H to box A) that continues the career management cycle.

The exploration above indicates that though employees may have the pattern illustrated by the model to follow in their careers, there can be constraints that can force them to revisit their career goals or change their strategies. A typical example is provided by this study, according to which most of the workers at Lesotho Highlands may need to revisit their models due to a change imposed by restructuring.

In conclusion it can be said that the career management cycle is a problem solving as well as decision making process. Greenhaus *et al* (2000:26) states that information is gathered to enable individuals to become more aware of themselves and the world around them. The abovementioned authors add that goals are established, plans or strategies developed and implemented, and feedback obtained to provide more information for ongoing career management.

As reflected in figure 4.1 individuals who follow this approach to career management do not live in a vacuum. As the borders on the diagram show, the usefulness of exploration, goal setting, strategies and feedback often depends on the support received from various people and organisations (Kidd, 1994:27).

4.3.4 Career Self Management

Career Self Management (CSM) is a concept very relevant for this study. Schreuder and Coetzee (2006:63) explain that CSM is closely related to the concept of career paths (the movement from one job to another that results in sequential patterns of jobs). Furthermore, they say that CSM is the ability of an employee to keep pace with the speed at which change occurs within the organisation and the industry, and to prepare for the future through continuous learning and career planning efforts. Views from other authors (Byars & Rue, 2004:60) also argue that CSM reflects the need of an individual to keep on learning, because jobs that are held today are likely to evolve into something different tomorrow, or may simply disappear entirely. Byars and Rue add that CSM involves identifying and obtaining new skills and competencies that allow the individual to move to a new position.

4.4 Organisational change and the impact on careers

Organisations worldwide are changing rapidly. These changes are in terms of structure, workforce composition, reward system, service contracts, technology

and information, all as a result of economic and political developments (Furnham, 2000:247). Studies show that in South Africa small organisations are being established due to the entrepreneurial explosion on the other hand large organisations are downsized and resort to outsourcing. Because of stiffer competition and a less stable business environment; organisations are increasingly under pressure to do more with less and to be more flexible. The following advert already appeared in the mid-nineties on the notice board of a company that experienced lay-off in United States of America:

“we can’t promise you how long we’ll be in business”

“we can’t promise you that there will be room for promotion”

“we can’t promise that the money will be available for your pension”

This illustrates the reality of the new work environment and should inspire individuals to take control of their careers (Hall & Mirvis, 1995:326). The above realities surely influence the traditional working relationship in which the employee offered loyalty, trust, conformity and commitment to the organisation in return for job security, promotional prospects and training opportunities. A different working relationship, which emphasises the individual’s responsibility and requires a broader range of skills, is becoming increasingly evident. According to Thite (2001:312), the characteristics of the contemporary working relationships are as follows:

- Less security
- Individuals managing their own careers
- Performance related pay
- A flexible environment scenario
- Little trust between employer and employee
- Substantially rewarded performance.

In the light of the preceding paragraph, the implications of the present changing work environment for career and career management are examined below in terms of: Protean careers, boundaryless careers, composite careers, entrepreneurial careers, career resilience and employability.

4.4.1 Protean Career

The word “*protean*” derives from the name of the Greek god called Proteus, meaning the god who could change shape at will. This research provides evidence that careers will have to become more protean, due to the changing nature of organisations. According to Hall (1996: 9), in a protean career, an individual pursues his or her personal conception of what is important in work and life. Other authors (Higgins, 2001:600) believe that a protean career consists of all the person’s varied experiences in education, training, work in several organisations, change in occupational field and so forth. It is further stated by Douglas (2003:7) that the protean career is not what happens to the person in any one organisation, but that the protean career is shaped more by the individual than by the organisation and may be redirected from time to time to meet the needs of the person. Other evidence provided by Hall (1996:10) shows that a protean career management has greater mobility, lively perspective and developmental progression and is characterised by the following:

- Psychological success
- Being managed by the individual
- A series of identity changes
- Continuous learning
- Chronological age being unimportant
- Employability and work challenges provided by the organisation

- High levels of self-awareness
- Personal responsibility
- Freedom and growth valued
- A high degree of mobility
- Internal career thinking being emphasised

4.4.2 Boundaryless Career

Boundaryless careers contrast with the traditional or organisational views of a career, in which the organisation plays host to the individual's career (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006:39). Similarly, Jon, *et al* (2006:602) show that today individuals pursue boundaryless careers in an effort to see themselves as self-directed "free agents" who develop a portfolio of employment opportunities by proactively moving from employer to employer, simultaneously developing and utilizing their marketable skills. As Mayo, (1991:302) explains, employees pursuing a boundaryless career develop their human capital along dimensions of industry and occupational knowledge. That is, they may be experts in computer programming; at the same time have great insight into trends in the banking industry. By contrast, individuals pursuing a more traditional career develop their knowledge in ways specific to a given firm only.

Schreuder and Coetzee (2006: 40) note that both approaches can be beneficial, though they differ. They argue that, in the new boundaryless career model, success depends on continually learning new skills, developing new relationships and capitalizing on existing skills and relationships. Despite that fact, the boundaryless career does not necessarily apply to all occupations and work settings - it may be applicable to technical occupations, knowledge and professional occupations but not to the boundaries that affect middle-managers in medium-sized organisations.

4.4.3 Composite Careers

In the 21st century world of careers, individuals are likely to have more than one working role, and hold more than one job. Screuder and Coetzee (2006:43) support the above statement by stating that the composite career is a way to express those parts of one's multiple possible selves that are excluded from the narrow world of one-job-for-life. They underline the fact that today (21st century), people create careers across a wide range of possibilities. People can no longer afford to limit themselves to only taking or passing up jobs. For this reason, workers in the 21st century will stop thinking of themselves as "having" a job and they will be more secure being employable rather than being employed. Screuder and Coetzee indicate that people will increasingly think of themselves as "experimenting" with work opportunities which allow them to discover more about themselves and to live meaningful lives - lives that are in line with their unique life purpose.

4.4.4 Entrepreneurial careers

Almost everyone at some stage in life dreams of owning his or her own business. Many such people actually make this dream a reality by becoming entrepreneurs. Dibbs and Ferrell (1997:424) define entrepreneurship as managing a business of one's own, requiring personal sacrifice, innovation, and the taking of steps to create something of value to society. Di-Masi (2000:3) explains that entrepreneurs are agents of change, who play an important role in the overall welfare of society by spurring economic growth, creating new jobs and serving as role models for future generations (www.gdrc.org). Not only do entrepreneurs own their own businesses, they as Dibb and Ferrell (1997:424) shows also willing to take risks in terms of failure, which requires them to pursue or have good business management skills; they further explain that successful entrepreneurs display the following qualities and personality traits:

- Need for autonomy and independence
- Need for achievement, for being successful
- High initiative and self-leadership
- Flexibility, creativity and self confidence
- Ability to cope with adversity and change
- Commitment to their goals and life purpose
- Optimistic mindsets
- High level of motivation
- Positive outlook on life

Also, many people may become entrepreneurs for different reasons that exist in their countries. Because of a high rate of unemployment, people entering the work market may do so through entrepreneurship. Not only unemployment but also other organisational dynamics like outsourcing, downsizing, restructuring and the like can be possible causes of entrepreneurship.

4.4.5 Career Resilience

According to Collard, *et al* (1990) quoted in Durcan and Oates (1995:216) there are several definitions of career resilience. According to one career resilience is the ability to adapt to changing circumstances even when the circumstances are discouraging and disruptive. According to another career resilience is the result or outcome of being career self-reliant. Although most studies use self-reliance and career resilience as interchangeable terms, Durcan and Oates (1995:216) provide a clear distinction between the two. According to them career self-reliance refers to individual career and growth, while remaining committed to an

organisation's success. On the other hand, career resilience refers to individual career development - developing the knowledge and skills required to make a visible and personally motivated contribution to the organisation and its customers. Obviously employees faced with change from restructuring can make use of career resilience practices in order to adapt and still remain productive and stress-free.

4.4.5.1 The need for career resilience

In the past the agreement / contract between the employer and the employee resembled that between parent and child, the organisation providing employment in jobs that are narrowly defined to require the employee's hard work, loyalty and good performance. Today, as Lerner (2005:20) puts it, the employment contract is more of a partnership. The emphasis now is on worker employability rather than job security. Lerner points out that in today's contract, employers provide opportunities, tools and support to help employees develop their skills and maintain their employability. Also employees have the primary responsibility to manage their careers and take advantage of the provided opportunities, making them more career self-reliant as mentioned earlier. What Lerner (2005:20) is saying is that, employees have the main responsibility to continually update their skills, look to the future, to market trends and to the current demands of the workplace. Moreover, employees need to have a plan for enhancing their performance and employability.

The most important "term" that the literature employs in trying to clarify the concept of career resilience is "employability"; hence, the next paragraph will be dedicated to discuss the concept of employability.

4.4.6 Employability

Simply stated, employability means the capability of an individual to get and keep fulfilling work. More comprehensively, employability is the capability to be more self-sufficient in the labour market, to realise potential through sustainable employment. For individuals employment depends on the knowledge and skills they possess, on the way they use such skills and present them to employers and the context within which they seek work. Harvey and Bowin (1996:64) provides a more explanatory definition of employability as follows: “the combination of factors and processes which enable people to progress towards or get into employment, to stay in employment and to move in the workplace”. Clearly, the concept of employability is very important when one talks of career resilience.

4.5 Careers and organisational support

Career management in the contemporary workplace is regarded very differently from the way it was regarded in the past. This is because of the fact that the business context has changed extremely. Employees now have the managerial privilege to change the content of tasks as the situation demands and such employees can no longer rely on the organisation to provide clarity and direction regarding their career paths (Hall, 2002: 64). So many changes have taken place which causes employees to be responsible for their own careers. However, that is something they cannot do alone; hence this section will explain some of the methods adopted by the organisation in trying to assist their employees in career planning and development.

4.5.1 Career planning workshops

According to Mayo (1991:144) Career Planning Workshops (CPW) are general career development programmes, offered by organisations themselves, or by professionals to assist individuals in career planning. Some authors (Roberts

1998:335) argue that in such workshops, workers obtain self-knowledge, are introduced to the world of work opportunities in the organisation, and even develop their own career plans. In providing a summarised explanation of the advantages of CPW, Mayo (1991:144) explains that in such workshops workers are:

- Helped to manage their own careers
- Helped to learn how to make career decisions
- Helped to set their career goals
- Helped to create career options
- Helped to find career-planning information

These workshops can also enhance the employability of participants, thus contributing to their career resilience.

4.5.2 Career Counselling

Career counselling is a process in which counselling activities and interventions are used to work with people who seek help in career exploration, planning and transition decisions. Hankin (2005:32) defines career counselling as a process which enables people to recognise and utilise their resources to make career related decisions and manage career related problems. Some authors like Brown (2007:18) argue that career counselling is simply a term used most often in trying to describe how counsellors and psychologists work to help individuals develop self-understanding and articulate a career direction that allows them to achieve their potential and find purpose in their daily activities. This kind of counselling can be done by trained line managers or by professional experts either inside or outside the organisation.

4.5.3 Career workbooks

One of the easiest ways in which an organisation can provide support in career planning is the use of career work books. The literature (Drummond & Ryan, 1995: 80) indicates that most organisations undermine the effectiveness of these workbooks. Career workbooks as these authors puts it are intended to fulfill the same basic objective as a group career workshop, but in an individual, self directed fashion rather than on a participative, interactive basis (*ibid*, 1995:81). Workbooks use a series of exercises and reference materials to guide employees through the individual assessment process. Moreover, these workbooks are designed to be completed by individuals alone, at their own pace.

4.5.4 Psychological testing and assessment techniques

Matteson and Iva-cevich (2000:173) defines psychological tests as “written, visual or verbal evaluations administered to assess the cognitive and emotional functioning of children and adults”. Information from (www.cipd.co.uk) show that the term psychological testing is often interchanged with the terms occupational testing or psychometric testing. All these are sophisticated tools to measure individual differences in a number of areas such as intelligence and ability. These tests are used for a number of purposes in various circumstances including:

- Career counselling
- Team building
- Development and
- Recruitment (www.cipd.co.uk).

Matteson and Iva-cevich (2000:173) describes the two most popular tests in the workplace as follows:

- Achievement and ability test

Matteson and Iva-cevich (2000:175) show that in children, academic achievement, ability and intelligence tests are used as tool in school placement, in determining the presence of learning disability or a developmental delay in identifying giftedness or tracking intellectual development. By contrast, for adults, intelligence testing is used to determine vocational ability (for example, career counselling).

- Personality test

Personality tests according to Matteson and Iva-cevich (2000:177) are administered for a wide variety of reasons, from diagnosis of psychopathology (for example, personality disorder, depressive disorder) and also for job screening of new candidates.

4.5.5 Assessment Centres

According to Drummond and Ryan (1995:73) assessment centres were traditionally used to assess employee career potentials, the focus being on quantifying the promotability of selected employees. More recent evidence (Hall, 2002: 74) suggests a growing tendency for companies and individuals to use the centres for career and job development purposes. In these centres, employees may gain feed-back about their personality styles, proficiencies and weaknesses.

4.5.6 Retirement preparation programmes

Retirement preparation programmes as an organisational career management practice are directed at employees who are approaching retirement and who are about to leave the organisation (Crites, 1996:24). Crites indicates that in the modern workplace many people will leave the organisation at an earlier age than the legal retirement age (which in South Africa is 65). He further shows that an investment in this practice of providing retirement programmes manifests high commitment of the organisation to its employees. In simple words, these programmes help employees to deal with the consequences of retirement, trying to show employees that retirement does not necessarily mean the end of life. By contrast Arnold (1997:105) is against these programmes as he finds that some organisations misuse them to provide incentives for early retirement.

4.6 Conclusion

This present chapter has discussed what career is, and has explained some of the concepts that contribute to the full comprehension of the term career. The career development model and how individuals progress through its five stages was explained. Moreover, the chapter provided a discussion of the career management model and how individuals manage their careers throughout the whole model. Later on the chapter clarified the impact that organisational change has on employees' careers and how employees are forced to change their old career patterns in order to adopt to latest patterns such as protean careers to meet the demands of change. This chapter has also reviewed the literature that magnifies the need for employees to take control of their own career and to advance them in such a way as to become and remain employable. Lastly, the chapter discussed some of the secondary support that the organisation can provide to enhance the careers of their employees. The following chapter discuss stress in the workplace, both its causes and how it can be curbed.

CHAPTER FIVE

STRESS IN THE WORKPLACE

5.1 Introduction

People in the modern era are increasingly threatened by psychological stress, due to aspects such as over-population, competition, economic crises, lack of meaningful relationships, time pressure, organizational change and so forth. Cascio (1998:41) observe “stress is a reality of life; it is unavoidable, good and bad, constructive and destructive”. Work stress has greatly contributed to corporate health costs. Various authors (Manning & Jackson, 1996:142; Tenant, 2001:699) are of the view that stress in the workplace is ubiquitous and very costly and they add that the proportion of workers who describe themselves as “highly stressed” has increased significantly over the past two decades.

As McGowan (2001:89) has argued, rapid change in organisations increasingly causes occupational stress and affects the workforce. This is the theme of this chapter which focuses mainly on stress among employees. Copious literature reveals that an influencing factor over one’s behaviour and thus one’s relations with others at work is stress. Aamodt (1999:569) indicates that not only does stress affect one’s interpersonal style, but it can have serious health implications if ignored and not properly managed. This makes stress an important topic for research, not only because it impacts on the financial state of the organisation, but also because stress affects the employees’ state of health. To gain a better understanding of stress, the chapter starts by defining stress, then provides a distinction between stress and burnout, elaborates on different employment stressors and, lastly, ends by explaining ways in which employees can cope with stress.

5.2 Defining Stress

The literature indicates that psychologists cannot agree on a simple one definition of the word stress. For our purposes, Aamodt's (1999:569) definition of stress as the psychological and physical reaction to certain events or situations called stressors in one's life is useful. Stress in the workplace is serious as it not impacts on the attitudes of employees, but to a large extent also on the physical behaviour of employees.

According to Manning and Jackson (1996:142) the original meaning of the term "stress" is derived from engineering; by analogy with physical force it refers to external pressure that is exerted on a person, which in turn result in tension or "strain". Within certain limits, people are able to deal with this pressure and adapt to the situation, and to recover when the stressful period is over, this is analogous to the bending and springing back of a metal bar (*Ibid*, 1996:143). However, as Manning and Jackson (1996:143) indicate, when the pressure is too great, the bar will bend so much that it cannot return to its original position anymore. This may possibly be the case in restructuring, if the stress is too severe. Coping with work after the process may then be impossible. Statt (2004:602) point out that the term "stress" is used to refer to the cause as well as to the accompanying state of tension and the negative consequences of this state.

Statt (2004:605) avers that one of the main reasons for lack of agreement in the definition of stress lies in the large number of disciplines with different perspectives involved in stress research, such as Biology, Psychology, Occupational Medicine and Epidemiology. Nonetheless, most researchers (Manning & Jackson, 1996:143; Statt (2004:607); Rice, (2000:4) in the field of stress agree that three different meanings of the term stress can be distinguished, namely: stress as a stimulus, stress as a response and stress as a meditational process between stressor (stimulus) and reaction (response). Each

of these perspectives is discussed below, with concentration on job related stress.

5.2.1 Stress as a stimulus

The historical background of stress as a stimulus as derived from Rice (2000:7), indicates that, in the 1960s, psychologists became interested in applying the concept of stress to psychological experience. Masuda and Holmes (1967) as well as Holmes and Rach (1967), stimulated by their interest in what happens when a person experiences “change” in life circumstances, proposed a stimulus-based theory of stress. Their stimulus approach treats life changes or “life events” as the stressors to what a person responds. Generally in the fields of experimental psychology and ergonomics, stress is primarily regarded as a stimulus. Accordingly, negative situations or anxiety generating events that act on the individual and have negative effects. For job stress, Chmiel (2002:152) categories stress into four kinds:

Job content	Work load / under load, complex work, monotonous work, too much responsibility, dangerous work, conflicting / ambiguous demands
Working condition	Toxic substance, poor conditions (e.g. noise, light), physically demanding work, dangerous situations, lack of hygiene and lack of protective devices
Employment conditions	Shift work, low pay, poor career prospects, flexible labour contract and job insecurity
Social relations at work	Poor leadership, low social support, low participation in decision making, liberties and discrimination

The amount of stress is defined in terms of the extent of exposure to a noxious stimulus, for example, the higher the working pace, the higher the level of stress.

5.2.2 Stress as a response

The response-based orientation was initially developed and examined by Hans Selye and summarised in “The Stress of Life (1956)”. Selye saw stress as a response to noxious stimuli or environment stressors and defined it as the “non-specific response of the body to noxious stimuli” (Rise, 2000:5). Furthermore Selye defined stress as a response, and it became the dependent variable in stress research. In related fashion, Chmiel (2002:152) notes that in Psychophysiology and Occupational Medicine, stress is seen as a psychological and /or physiological response of the organism to some kind of threat.

This notion is based on Selye’s (1978)’s classical General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). According to Selye as quoted in Chmiel (2002:153), exposure to a noxious stimulus triggers a complex of non-specific physiological reactions, which are intended to protect the individual against harmful consequences. The GAS consists of three stages: the alarm reaction (mobilisation by means of physiological and hormonal change), the resistance stage (optimal adaptation by activating appropriate systems) and exhaustion (depletion of adaptation energy).

5.2.3 Stress as a meditational process

Unlike the first two approaches to emphasize directly measurable factors (characteristics of the environment and measurable stress reactions), this approach focuses on the cognitive, evaluative and motivational process that intervenes between the stressful stimulus and the reaction (response). Rees (1997: 36) argue that, according to the meditational approach, stress reactions are a result of interaction between person and environment, and that potentially stressful stimuli may lead to different type of stress reactions in different individuals, depending on their cognitive evaluations (appraisals) of the situation

and the resources they have at their disposal to cope with the stressful situation. This may also apply in restructuring, where employees may have different perceptions and reactions to the process, regardless of the fact that restructuring affects the organisation as a whole. Hence, based on the individual's cognitive analysis of the situation, what may be considered as a stressor to one person may not be stressful to another person.

5.2.4 Eustress vs Distress

Many authors (Robbins *et al*, 2001:420; Aamodt, 1999:569) indicate that stress is not necessarily bad in itself so that one must distinguish between eustress and distress. As Aamodt (1999:569) explains, **eustress** occurs when stress is converted to positive energy and becomes motivating, these may also be called desirable outcome of stress. Think of the anxiety that one can feel before taking a test or examination, which may serve to motivate to studying for such a test. However, if one becomes too stressed, it means performance will decline and stress then moves beyond the optimal level of arousal.

Buchanan and Hucznski (2004:688) note that bad or negative stress is known as distress. According these authors show that **distress** occurs when there is too much stress and when nothing is done to eliminate, reduce or counteract its effects. This is said to happen in situations or events to which one attaches great importance, like an interview for a job. This may be what employees may experience during the restructuring process which significantly influences their future with the organisation, while they have little or no control of the situation.

5.2.5 Stress vs Burnout

Some authors use the words stress and burnout as interchangeable terms. It is important to be clear about the distinction between the two. As defined earlier in this chapter, **stress** simply means a psychological or physical reaction to certain

events or situations called stressors in one's life. Burnout, however, is a situation that comes as a result of prolonged stress. Nel, *et al* (2004:291) define **burnout** as the total exhaustion of physical and mental resources as a result of excessive effort in trying to reach an unrealistic work-related goal, combined with an overload of job stress. Research offers further support for the above assertion. Schein (1980: 94) show that burnout is far more than feeling blue or having a bad day. They point out that burnout is a chronic state of being out of synch with one's job, and that can be a significant crisis in one's life. According to Schein, burnout consists of the following three characteristics:

- Burnout is lost enthusiasm: One's original passion fades and is replaced by negative cynicism. Everything about the job rubs him / her the wrong way-clients are a burden, bosses a threat, and colleagues a chore. Moreover, the special qualities that one brings to work such as expertise, creativity, and sensitivity become state.
- Burnout is lost energy: One becomes overwhelmed, stressed and exhausted; a good night's sleep is hard to come by. One may try to escape and get away for a while but when he or she returns, the relationship with the job is still as bad as ever.
- Burnout is lost confidence: Without energy and active involvement in work, it is hard to find a reason to keep going, hence the less effective one feels, the more he/she will have nagging doubts about self-worth.

Clearly, burnout is more serious to one's state of health and unlike stress, which may come from one specific stressor at work, burnout makes the employee lose interest in all job activities.

The current study focuses on employment stress that is generated by change (restructuring) as the major stressor. The term "stressor" will be clarified and some of the common work stressors will be reviewed.

5.3 Sources of work stress

There are many aspects of the work environment that can induce stress. But as it is mentioned earlier, such aspects can affect individuals differently in their cognition of them as stressors. Some common work stressors are:

- Nature of the work: Although all work may be potentially stressful, certain types of work are recognised as being more likely to induce stress. According to Schabracg, *et al* (2003:142) occupations such as the police force, ambulance services and health care may be very stressful. Their study shows that in such fields of work, there is a continual demand for empathy, the worker may be placed in life-threatening situations and may be frequently exposed to physical and emotional trauma experienced by others. Sauter and Murphy (1996:59) add that other types of work which are inherently stressful are jobs associated with frequent deadlines, short response times and no room for errors.

- Culture and structure: Not only is the nature of the job a significant factor, but also the culture of the organisation. Sauter and Murphy (1996:59) argue that many organisations where the work undertaken is not intrinsically stressful but conducted in find a higher incidence of disease, They also point out that management style, communication structures, objective-setting and appraisal systems may be perceived as unfair or at best unrealistic.

- Job overload: Job overload may be seen as the most common cause of stress in the work place. The most important contribution to the understanding of job overload as a stressor was made by Schultz and Schultz (2002:367). They define job overload as too much to do in too

little time (quantitative overload) or as work which is qualitative beyond the individual's capacity (qualitative overload). They further add that where there is quantitative overload the problem will be compounded if the employee has little or no control over the load.

- **Job underload:** In the past most studies and researchers only found job overload to be a stressor. Nonetheless, recent studies (Newstrom and Davis, 2007:473) have come to realize that job underload may also be a possible stressor at work. Job under load is seen as the total opposite of overload - having work that is too simple or insufficient to fill one's time or to challenge one's abilities.(See Figure 5.1)

Figure 5.1 The under load / overload continuum

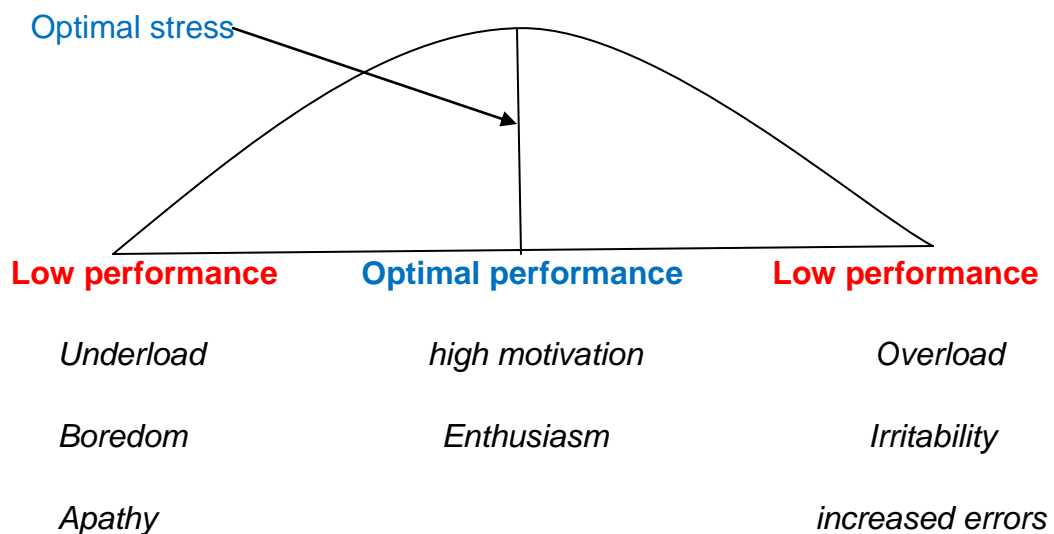


Figure 5.1: Adapted from D, Schultz and S.E, Schultz. Psychology and work today. 9th ed. (2000).

- Lack of communication: For years poor communication has hindered good performance in many organisations (Nel, *et al*, 2008:131). According to these writers the problem of poor communication is more serious for larger than smaller companies. Buchana and Hucznski (2004:226) adds that smooth communication between management and employees visa versa, is very important. Especially in times of change, when jobs may seem to be at risk, lack of information and consequent rumours only increases anxiety. They also note that efficient communication should be upward, downward as well as sideways.

- Role ambiguity and role conflict: An employee's role within the organisation can be a source of stress. More than obvious factors like job overload may result in stress. If the role of each individual in the organisation or department is not clearly defined, it may in time result in role ambiguity and role conflict. Buchana and Hucznski (2004:317) explain that **role ambiguity** arises when the scope and responsibilities of the job are unstructured or poorly defined. Then the employee may not be sure of what is expected or even what to do. They further point out that this may be cruel, particularly for new employees whose job guidelines may be unclear. The literature indicates that adequate orientation and socialisation programs for new employees can reduce role ambiguity In support of this argument, Industrial Organisational (I-O) psychologists have proposed three components of role ambiguity:
 - Performance criteria ambiguity – Uncertainty about the standards used to evaluate a worker's job performance.
 - Work method ambiguity – Uncertainty about the method or procedures appropriate to the successful performance of the job.

- Scheduling ambiguity – Uncertainty about the timing or sequencing of the work (Cooper *et al*, 2001:535).

This clearly shows that for most jobs it cannot be difficult for supervisors to alleviate role ambiguity by establishing and promoting consistent standards and procedures. **Role conflict** on the other hand, arises from a disparity that may exist in job requirements or between the job's demands and the employee's values and expectations (Nel, *et al*, 2008:380).

- Change: More and more organisations today face a dynamic environment that requires them to adapt. “Change or Die” is the rallying cry among today's managers worldwide. Evidence given by Nelson and Quick (1997:14) shows that change can be exciting and challenging to some workers, while other employees who see it as a challenge become very vulnerable to stress consequences. Those who resist change may succumb more easily to stress, as they prefer familiar situations (Nel, *et al*, 2004:290).
- Workforce diversity: According to Nel, *et al* (2004:290), many older workers find the growing number of younger workers, more females (and female managers) and a culture of transformation and diversity stressful. Nel suggest that in South Africa this is a problem amongst older, white and male workers. This group of employees is also found to be very resistant to change.
- Home / work conflict: Extended working hours, unsocial hours and shift work all tend to disturb family and social life. From previous studies, it is very difficult to say exactly as to what is the correct balance, although the eight-hour working day (Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997 of

South Africa) does seem to have many credentials. Organisations as profit makers strive hard to make little extra cash. Nonetheless, some sort of balance needs to be struck between the compartmentalization of different aspects of one's life and sharing the workday world with one's partner. Few organisations approach this problem realistically; the involvement of partners is usually perfunctory (BCEA, 1997).

The variety of stressors indicates that there is quite a number of factors at work today that can be very stressful to individuals' health. The above mentioned are not the only stressors, but they do stand out in the literature as the most common factors.

Cartwright and Cooper (1997:37) mention other stressors such as:

- Inadequate leadership: Cartwright and Cooper acknowledges that people vary in the extent to which they want strong leadership, but he does approve that weak or inadequate leadership or even a leadership style which is unsuitable to the needs of people may lower the hierarchy or create a power vacuum, once this happens, unpleasant things are apt to fill it, like attempts to bring pressure upon the leader.
- Conflict with colleagues: According to Cartwright and Cooper (1997:43) this conflict arises as a result of different interests that individuals bring to. An atmosphere of conflict may lower the thinking and the positive attitude of employees towards their work and co-workers.
- Inability to finish the job: Cartwright and Cooper (1997:43) mention this as a last possible stressor and indicate that inability to finish the job may be due to a number of aspects such as time pressure, poor general organisation at higher levels, or poor communication. He adds that much job satisfaction comes from seeing a finished product at the end of one's efforts.

Many events and factors can be considered as stressors. However, as previously stated what determines whether something will be a stressor depends a great deal on its importance and on its of perceived controllability. One other explanation of these differences arises from the fact that people differ in nature, an element that makes them to have unique personalities and characters. As a result, the next section will expand on personal stressors as well as stress and personality.

5.4 Individual differences and individual reaction to stress

There appear to be individual differences in the extent to which people are susceptible to stress or are predisposed to tolerate stressors. For example, rates of coronary heart disease exacerbated by stress are higher for divorced persons than for married people (Tehrani, 2002: 14). Tehrani observes that married people report higher satisfaction and less stress than do unmarried people, top corporate executives have lower mortality rates than second-level executives and people who live in suburban environments may have more stress related illnesses than people who live in rural environments. These individual tolerances can be explained by the following factors:

5.4.1 Stress personalities

If all the causes of stress in the job are to be thoroughly examined, then personal factors must be taken into account. This is because such factors can render employees vulnerable to stress. Not all stressors at work affect people the same way. A source of stress that can ruin the health of one worker may have no noticeable effects on that of a colleague. Two factors according to Schultz and Schultz (2002:357) that may reduce a person's susceptibility to stress are high job satisfaction and control over the conditions of one's work. On the other hand a Violanti and Aron (1993:67) state that one important factor in coping with stress is social support, the network of family and social ties.

The person who lives alone or who is emotionally alienated from others is more likely to be sensitive to stress than someone who has strong ties to family, friends and colleagues. According to Ganzach (1998:528) our level of ability to perform our jobs can make us more or less resistant to stress. Employees with high skill levels usually find their work less stressful than do employees with lower skill levels. In all, the explanation for such behaviour rests in the different personalities that people have, this includes Type A and Type B personalities.

5.4.2 The Type A personality

Some personalities are more apt to respond negatively to stressors. These, according to research Cascio (1998:111), include individuals with type A personalities and pessimists. On the other hand, type B personalities and optimists respond more positively towards stressors. Manning and Jackson (1996:309) explain that Type A's have two primary characteristics: they are highly competitive and have a constant sense of time urgency. This group of people is described by Cascio (1998:11) as intensely ambitious and aggressive, always striving to achieve, racing against the clock, rushing from one self-imposed deadline to another.

Statt (2004:97) adds that this type of personality is impatient and quick to get angry if they believe subordinates or colleagues are working too slowly. Such personalities are thought to be in a continual state of tension, perpetually under stress, even when their work environment is relatively free of stressors.

5.4.3 Type B personality

Type B personalities on the other hand may be as ambitious as Type A, but they have few of the others' characteristics. As Cascio (1998:112) states, Type B's experience less stress at work and at leisure. They may work as hard and in equally stressful environments, but they suffer fewer harmful effects as compared

to Type A's. Statt (2004:104) note that Type Bs are more laid back, that is, when a potentially stress-producing event occurs, they are better able to keep it in perspective and use positive ways to deal with it.

5.4.4 Pessimists and Optimists

Unlike the two mentioned above, pessimists are very negative people who do not respond appropriately to stress. They tend to ignore the problem or source of the stress, often give up on goals blocked by stress and they do not attempt to develop positive ways to deal with the problem (Cascio, 1998: 112). Optimists, conversely, deal with stress head on! In fact, they are more likely to seek proactive means of dealing with stress, such as exercise or obtaining advice from others.

5.4.5 Gender, ethnicity and race

Much of the research on gender and stress is conflicting. Numerous studies (Violanti & Aron, 1993:67) suggest that women have more stress than men and that depression is twice as common among women as among men. Other studies (Poton *et al*, 2000:182) claim that gender is not a contributor to stress. From the literature on stress, only minor differences in reaction to stress have been found among racial and ethnic groups. It need not be an explained that personalities may suffer different consequences as well as organisations during times of stress; hence the next section will discuss the consequences of stress.

5.5 Consequences of stress

Stress may result in different consequences that may be detrimental to the health of those affected in the long run. There are many psychosomatic disorders arising from prolonged exposure to stressful conditions. Moreover, there may be psychological consequences such as tension, depression, irritability, anxiety, low

esteem, resentment, psychological fatigue and neuroticism (Brown, *et al*, 2006: 33). Research has also linked high work-related stress to spouse abuse, child abuse and aggressive behaviour in the workplace such as overt hostility and sabotage. Other effects of work stress include mass psychogenic illness, burnout as defined and explained earlier and some type of work holism. To provide a more complete explanation of these consequences, the researcher has divided them into two categories, namely the personal consequences and the organisational consequences, both of which are detailed below.

5.5.1 Personal consequences

Individuals' response to stress can have devastating consequences. For instance, responding with anger or rage can lead to family members being hurt, loss of jobs or perhaps trouble with the law. In the same vein, Aamodt (1999:575) observes that responding by abuse of alcohol and drugs can lead to addiction, broken relationships and even death. Fateful action taken while stressed can, clearly have negative consequences. Repetti and Wood (1997:54) indicate that there are numerous physical responses to stress. Some people sweat under extreme stress, others may experience headaches and body aches.

Stress has been labeled the "silent killer" because of the fact that it can quietly chip away at one's immune system, weakening the body's ability to prevent or fight off illness and diseases (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997:115). Other studies (Hyun, *et al*, 2007:423) have found that in most cases, stress is the source of debilitating ulcers, escalating blood pressure, heart attacks, stroke or even worse – death. Depression may also be another with stress. According to (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997:115) depression can be very serious if early counselling is not provided.

5.5.2 Organisational consequences

Organisational consequences of stress should be of interest to most managers and supervisors. This is because such consequences negatively affect the production rate within the company. Common consequences include burnout, absenteeism, turnover and alcohol abuse.

- Burnout: As defined earlier burnout is a type of job stress experienced by professionals who are highly motivated and faced with high work demands. Burnout is said to occur in professions where there is a lot of contact between professionals and customers (Stevenson and Harper, 2006: 172). Initially studies on burnout targeted people in the health care fields as employees most likely to experience burnout. But over the years, the definition has expanded to include other types of workers who become emotionally exhausted and no longer feel they have a positive impact on other people or their job. According to Stevenson and Harper employees suffering from burnout become less energetic and less interested in their jobs. They further point out that such people become emotionally exhausted, apathetic, depressed, irritable and bored. They tend to find fault with all aspects of their work environment including co-workers and react negatively to suggestions of others, the quality of their work deteriorates but not necessarily the quantity.

Evidence given by Buchanan and Hucznski (2004:635) reflects that employees suffering from burnout tend to become rigid about their work, following rules and procedures compulsively because they are too exhausted to be flexible or to consider alternative approaches. Three components of the burnout syndrome as described by Buchanan and Hucznski are:

- i. Emotional exhaustion – the feeling of being drained and empty, caused by excessive psychological and emotional demands,

often brought about by work overload or unrealistically high expectations.

- ii. Depersonalisation – A feeling of callousness and cynicism and a reduced sensitivity towards others.
- iii. Reduced sense of personal accomplishment – The feeling that one's actions and efforts are wasted and worthless.

The Maslach burnout inventory was developed to measure these conditions. It consists of four subscales to assess the components of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment as well as a related factor called involvement. Manning and Jackson (1996:145) proved that the test has high reliability and validity and some of the sample items from the Burnout Inventory include the following:

- i. *“I feel emotionally drained by my work”*
- ii. *“I feel used up at the end of the workday”*
- iii. *“I feel like I'm at the end of my rope”*
- iv. *“I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally”*

Tehrani (2002:39) notes that women managers show more frequent and intense effects from the emotional exhaustion component of burnout than do male managers. Moreover, Tehrani found that single and divorced persons have been found to be more likely than married persons to experience emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion has also been related to lack of opportunities for promotion.

- Absenteeism and turnover: Absenteeism and turnover, resulting in loss of productivity and subsequently revenue, are highest during times of burnout and increased stress. This is because employees struggle to deal with physical and emotional elements (Tehrani, 2002:44).

Cooper, *et al* (2001:97) found that two percent of the workforce is absent each day, and many of these absences are attributed to stress. They also found that when stress increases, so does absenteeism and that if nothing is done about the work stressors, then in most cases such employees will end up contributing to turnover.

- Drug and alcohol abuse: It may be common knowledge that as stress levels rise, anger increases, as often does the abuse of drugs and alcohol. In their study Manning and Jackson (1996:140) show that most incidents of domestic and other types of violence occur after an individual has been drinking or using drugs. Because of the increasing problem of drug and alcohol abuse in organisations today, many companies have set up the Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) to which they refer employees suspected of drug or alcohol abuse, as well as those who are depressed and experiencing other problems. EAPs will be fully discussed in the next subsection.

- Workaholism: Many writers (Schabracg, *et al*, 2003:267) mention that there are employees who get addicted to their work, commonly known as workaholism. Such employees, in most cases, do not strive to perform well because of being driven by anxiety and insecurity. Some workaholics genuinely like their work and derive satisfaction from it. Schultz and Schultz (2006:309) state that to them (workaholics) work is not an unhealthy compulsion that gradually wears them down. Rather, their work provides a healthy enriching and stimulating focus for their lives. Such

people are usually happy and enjoy their jobs. Workaholics tend not to take vacations as they see no need to escape from their work. However, because of their intense sense of commitment, they can be a source of stress to others, especially their family members. Nonetheless, Quick and Quick (1994:478) observe that workaholics who lack the necessary skills, knowledge or ability to perform their work suffer from serious stress and are more susceptible to burnout and the negative effects of stress (such as known as unhealthy workaholics).

The literature discloses that stress is a serious issue that has negative consequences if a quick response or treatment is not provided. For this reason it is important to mention some of the possible ways in which stress may be treated or minimised in the work place.

5.6 Mechanisms for stress reduction

Quick and Quick (1994:481) explains that although some stressors can be removed, it is not likely that people will ever live in a stress free world. The results of uncontrolled stress are serious and costly both to the individual and the organisation. Here are some of the ways in which stress can be controlled or reduced in the workplace. There may be quite a number of ways, but the following are reflected in the literature as common and effective.

5.6.1 Organisational techniques

According to Schultz and Schultz (2006:373) organisational stress management interventions include altering the organizational climate and providing treatment by Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs). Efforts by management to eradicate stress in the work place include:

- Controlling the organisational climate – Schultz and Schultz (2006:373) argue that one of the stressors of modern organisational life is planned change; hence the organisations should provide sufficient support to enable employees to adapt to change. They emphasize that stress can be prevented or reduced by allowing employees to participate in decisions about change in work practices and in the organisational structure.
- Providing control – On the issue of control, Schultz and Schultz (2006:373) argue that the belief that people can exercise some control over their work, greatly reduces the effect of stress. These authors believe that organisations can improve the employee's sense of control by enriching, enlarging and expanding jobs to provide greater responsibility and decision-making authority.
- Defining employee roles – To reduce the stress caused by role ambiguity, managers should fully explain to the subordinates what is expected of them by way of job responsibilities (Nel, *et al*, 2004:112).
- Eliminating work overload and underload – Nel, *et al* (2004:293) indicate that appropriate employee selection and training programs, equitable promotion decisions, fair distribution of work and good matching of job requirements with employee abilities can help eliminate the stress of work.
- Providing social support – In their study to provide a better understanding of workplace stress, Schultz and Shultz (2006:374) found that social support networks can reduce personal vulnerability of stress effects, and that organisations can enhance social support by promoting cohesive

work groups and by training supervisors to show empathy and concern for subordinates.

- Providing stress management programs – One method that organisations are using to respond to employee health issues is the **Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs)**, which provide counseling and other means of assistance to employees having emotional, physical or other personal problems. Seyle (1999:149) indicate that, in such programmes, employers establish a liaison relationship with a social service counseling agency. Employees who have problems may then contact the agency, either voluntarily or by employers' referral. In most cases, counseling costs are covered by the employer. The only problem with the topic under investigation is that stressed employees may not be easily noticed unlike alcohol or drug abusers, and some employees may deny that they are stressed. That lowers the effectiveness of EAPs.
- Providing fitness programs – Many companies today offer wellness or physical fitness programs to promote occupational health. By enhancing physical and emotional well-being, employees may become less vulnerable to the effects of stress (Schultz & Schultz, 2006:374). Although such programs are sponsored by the organisation, the responsibility for healthy behaviour – such as exercise, proper diet and stopping to smoke – rests with the employees.

5.6.2 Individual techniques

Not only is the organisation responsible for trying to minimize the effects of stressors in the work place. In the same way, employees too are also expected to take responsibility for their own health in order to avoid vulnerability to stress-related diseases. The following are some of the possible employee / individual efforts to reduce or manage stress.

- Exercise – According to Gardner (2002:309) exercising not only keep one's heart strong and resistant to the effects of stress, but it can also help reduce the stress level during stressful moments. As a result it is a good idea for people to participate in some kind of exercise program, at least three or four times a week.
- Laughter – Though many people may have doubts about it, humour is one of the remedies for stress relief. A brief explanation by Manning and Jackson (1996:143) is that laughter can lower blood pressure. Studies also prove that laughing of a funny movie or event has the same effect on one's heart as ten minutes on a rowing machine.
- Diet – Food that has been shown to counteract the effects of stress includes fruits and vegetables, whole grains and non-fat yoghurt Gardner (2002:312). According to Carpi, a daily dose of one or more of these can help one to meet stress head on! The author further adds that a low intake of fat can help since the body works overtime in trying to digest fatty foods, something that adds to stress levels. Moreover, an intake of water (at least eight glasses a day) helps keep the body hydrated and able to cope with daily stressors.

- Smoking reduction – Many smokers may argue that smoking decreases their feeling of stress, but in actual fact smoking only magnifies stress. Research from the University of Maryland Medical Center shows that smoking cessation leads to reduced levels of stress. This is an important finding because many smokers increase their smoking when they feel stressed. Thus, smoking and stress become a vicious cycle in which people smoke because they are stressed and at the same time become more stressed because they smoke (www.umm.edu).
- Sleep – The literature has little to say about the correct length of time an individual needs to spend sleeping. What studies do show is that sleep deprivation or lack of sleep can cause negative behaviour such as irritability, fatigue, lack of concentration and depression (www.umm.edu).
- Support groups – According to Gardner (2002:315) people who have someone to talk to, like a family member or friend, are better able to manage stress, and add that it is best for people not to bottle-up what they feel inside as that in many cases leads to a situation where one may commit suicide. As a result, support groups are important because people are able to share their problems with others, and they also realize that they are not the only ones with problems, this may eventually reduce their stress.
- Self empowerment – Much of the evidence provided by the literature, especially on workplace stress, looks at empowerment from the managerial point of view. These studies explain how management can empower their subordinates by giving them more control over important decisions that affect their jobs. What most of the literature does not

discuss is how employees can and need to learn to empower themselves. Rice (2000:364) provides a better understanding of empowerment, where they indicate that about ninety percent of workers think employers must act to reduce stress. They emphasize that as employees cannot control what organisations do, it is important for them to find their own way to reduce stress (this being another form of self-empowerment). Moreover, employees can take the initiative and volunteer to participate in committees or group projects and stop complaining about having no decision making in power organisations. This gives them some control they thought they lacked.

- Coping skills – Coping skills, as Gardner (2002:315) points out, are conflict handling skills. Part of it is to learn to accept what one cannot change. Hendricks (2005:24) argues that people / employees should learn to cope with the dynamics of organisations today to minimizing stress. He says:

“I often tell workers who participate in stress management classes that they can’t change the fact that restructuring is the trend for today’s companies. Spending energy and time on worrying about it or being angry is a waste of time. The best solution for them is to find areas that they can control to meet organisational change”

The preceding paragraphs clearly show that though stress in the work place is a very serious subject, there are ways in which it can be managed and minimised. The next section will explain the different models and relevant theories of stress.

5.7 Models and theories of stress

As there is little agreement as to how exactly stress should be defined, there is no general theory of stress. Therefore, the following section will explain some of the popular theories and models of stress.

5.7.1 Early Michigan model and the Person Environment (P-E) fit model

Arnold (2000:312) state that most general job stress models were developed at the Institute for Social Research (IRS) of the University of Michigan (hence the designation “ISR” or “Michigan models” The Michigan model reflects four main groups or variables, arranged in a causal sequence (see figure 5.2). Organisational characteristics such as company size, hierarchical structure and job description may lead to psychological stressors, including role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. Role conflict, as previously explained arises when expectations and demands are difficult to meet or are mutually incompatible.

Role ambiguity occurs when an employee does not have sufficient or adequate information about the nature of the role itself. Finally, role overload is simply having too much to do or perceiving the role as being too difficult (Cascio, 1998:94). The stressors in turn may lead to stress reactions or strains. Strains according to Rothman, (2003:18) are affective, physiological and behavioural responses of the individual (e.g. job dissatisfaction, high blood pressure, high heart rate, absenteeism). Moreover, these strains may possibly result in both mental and physical illness, such as depression, cardiovascular diseases, cancer and gastric ulcers.

Figure 5.2

The Michigan Model

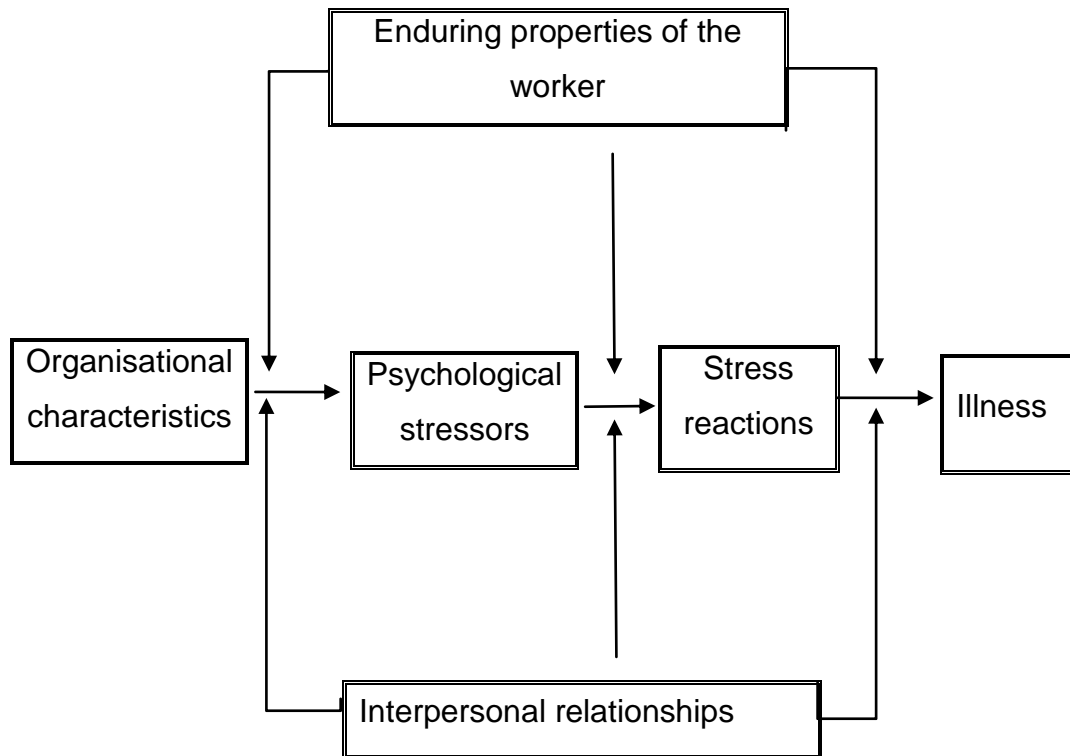


Figure 5.2: Adapted from Chmiel. Introduction to work and organisational psychology. (2002).

Even though the Michigan model contributed significantly to the understanding of stress in the workplace, studies (Schein, 1980:103) do contain some criticisms of this model. The most important criticism is that the model is not based on a theoretical perspective that leads to specific hypotheses. Therefore, it is difficult to validate the model empirically. The model needs to be refined.

5.7.2 The Person-Environment (P-E) fit model

The person-environment (P-E) fit model is an example of such refinement (Cascio, 1998:96). According to this model, occupational stress is primarily a result of an inadequate person-environment fit. Figure 5.3 on page 106 depicts the P-E model graphically. One kind of fit is the extent to which the individual's skills and abilities match the demands and requirements of the job. The second fit is the extent to which the job environment provides support to meet the individual's needs. The resulting stress and stressors are major contributors to psychological and physical strains (Stevenson & Harper, 2006:172). Hence, based on the model, job stress can be defined as either a misfit between the person's opportunities and environmental resources or a misfit between the person's abilities and environment demands.

Figure 5.3

The Person environment fit model

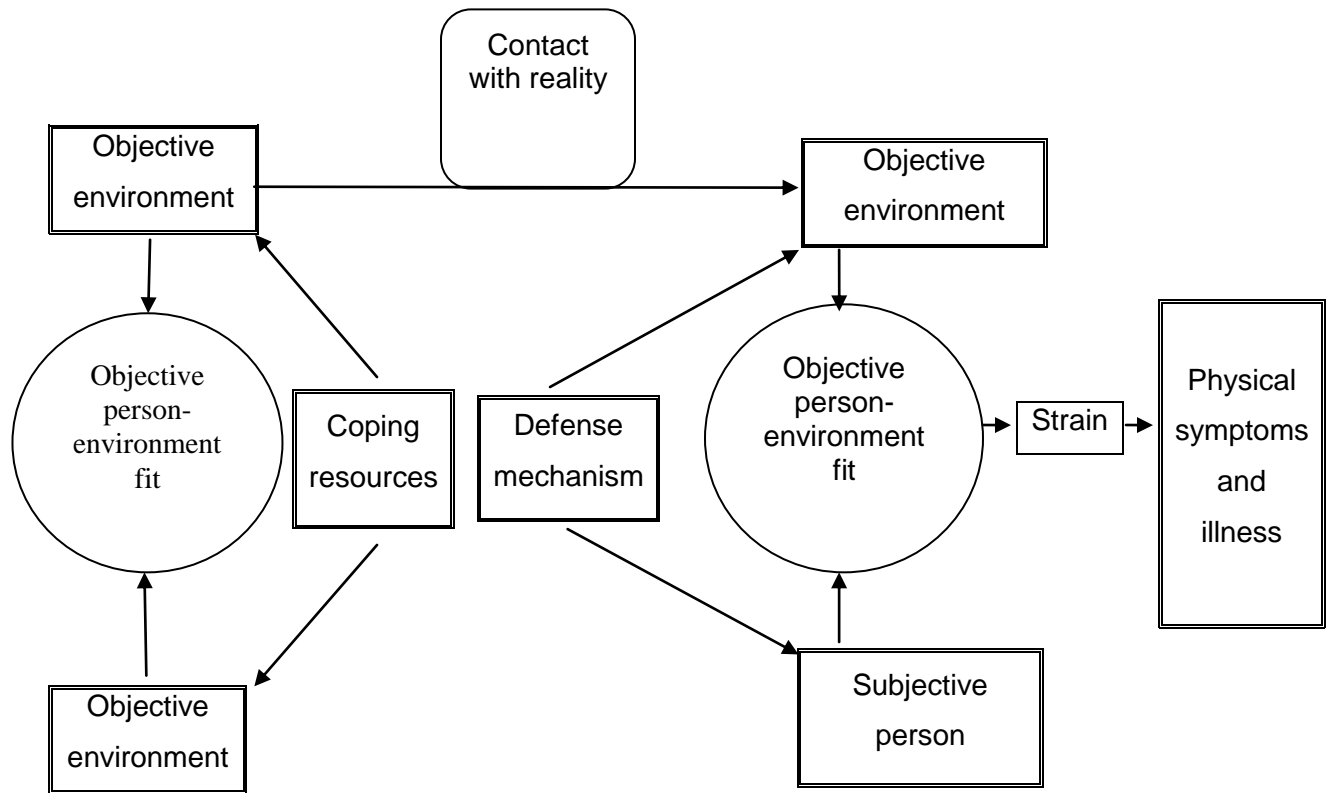


Figure 5.3: Adapted from W.F, Cascio. Applied psychology in personnel management. (1998).

5.7.3 Demand – Control – Support – Model

Karasek introduced the Job Demand Control (JDC) model in 1979. His demand-control model suggests that two factors are prominent in producing job stress: job demands and control (also known as decision latitude). In this model as Frank and Jeffery (2007:435) explain, job demands are defined according to two different criteria: workload and intellectual requirements of the job. They add that job control is defined as a combination of autonomy in the job and discretion in using different skills. Rice (2000:477) says that Karasek proposed that the

combination of high work demands and low control results in “high strain” jobs that may result in a variety of health problems. Jobs like food service worker, nurse’s aide, assembly-line worker, and computer help desk operator are considered high strain jobs. Machine-paced jobs, in particular, were highlighted as having high demands and low control. Frank and Jeffery (2007:435) show that jobs characterised by high demands and allowing sufficient control create an “active” job situation that is stimulating and health promoting. Active jobs according to the model include those of lawyers, engineers, managers and physicians. Chmiel (2002:163) point out that, jobs with low control and low demands like those of janitors and night watchmen are labeled as “passive” jobs. Finally, jobs with high control and low demands (like architect or dentist) are considered to be low strain jobs (see figure 5.4). In a series of surveys involving United States and Swedish male workers Karasek (1979) as cited in Chimiel (2002:164) found that the combination of low control and heavy job demands correlated positively with mental strain (that is, depression and exhaustion) as well as job dissatisfaction.

More recently, Karasek and Theorell (1990) found an increased risk of illness (two to four times more likely) for individuals whose lives or jobs make high demands on them but allow little control (Rothman, 2003:18). Thus, an individual who has a demanding work schedule or environment and does not have much decision latitude or control will have an increased risk for stress-related illnesses, both physiological and psychological.

By contrast as Aamodt (1999:272) shows, individuals in active jobs that have high demands but high control maintains good health and have high job satisfaction. Karasek and Theorell noted that individuals in active jobs appear to participate actively in a variety of leisure activities as well, despite their high work demands. This exemplifies the benefit of developing or designing jobs that allow workers to have control over decisions, resources and the skills that they can use (Xie, 1996:1601).

Johnson and Hall (1988) elaborate the JD-C model by adding the dimension of workplace social support. In their own understanding, Johnson and Hall (1988) as cited in (www.ncbi.nih.gov) shows that the Demand – Control –Support (DCS) model examines the joint effects of three instead of two basic characteristics of the work organisation, i.e. job demands, job control and workplace social support.

In this extended model as Leiter and Maslach (2001:402) says, both the strain and activity assumptions are split up into isolated and collective conditions and the processes are consequently redefined. It is for instance assumed that the most unfavorable effects are expected for a combination of high demands, low decision latitude and low social support “called iso-train”. They further indicate that social support is assumed to buffer psychological strain, depending on the degree of social and emotional integration, help and trust between supervisor, colleagues and others. The general function of workplace social support is discussed below.

Ganster, Fox and Dwyer (2001) as cited in Frank and Jeffery (2007:436) tested the demand-control model in a sample of 105 full-time nurses. They found that nurses with the lowest perceptions of personal control and highest workload demands were ill more often and incurred the highest cumulative health costs. It can therefore be concluded that jobs that have high demands and low control are costly to both individuals and the organisation for which they work.

Figure 5.4

Job Demand Control Model

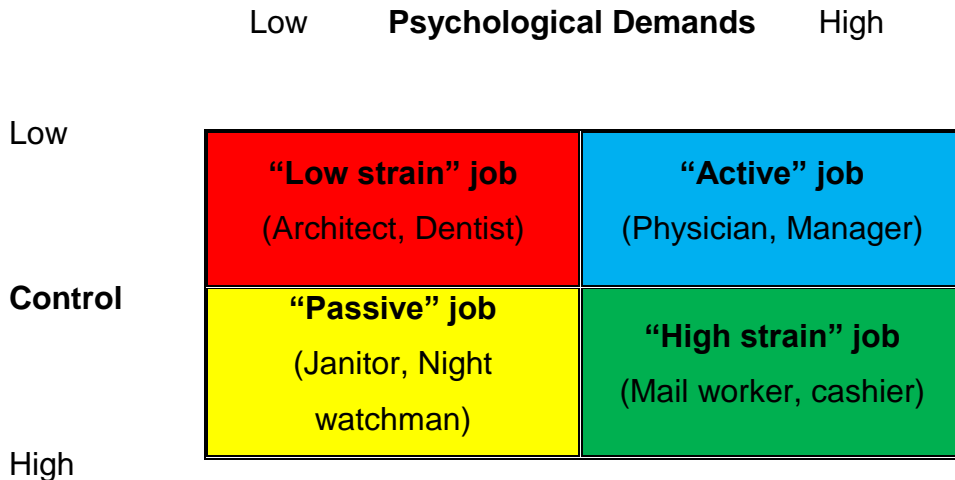


Figure 5.4: Adapted from J.L, Frank and M.C, Jeffery. Work in the 21st Century, 2nd edition. (2007).

5.7.3.1 Workplace Social Support and Job Stress

Workplace social support provided by supervisors, colleagues and subordinates, as Schabracg *et al* (2003:309) note may have an important stress-reducing function. There are quite a number of definitions of the concept of "social support". According to Schabracg *et al* (2003:309) social support may refer to the existence of good, pleasant relationships with others in the case of problems. All in all, social support in the work context includes the following regardless of how social support is defined:

- Social integration – the number and strength of the connection of the individual worker to others in his or her social network.
- Satisfying relationships – a good organisational climate and pleasant, close working relationships with superiors, colleagues and subordinates.

- Perceived available support – the appraisal that others can be relied on for direct aid or assistance, information, advice, guidance and empathic understanding.
- Actual received support – once a stressor has come into existence, superiors, colleagues or subordinates may perform supportive acts to reduce job stress (www.coping.org).

With regard to the content of workplace social support House (1998:105) emphasizes that a distinction is usually made between four types:

- Emotional support - for example, through empathy, caring, love, trust and concern.
- Instrumental support - for example, direct help provided by others.
- Informational support - for example, advice, information, suggestion or directions.
- Appraisal support - for example, feedback or social comparison relevant to a person's self evaluation (www.entrepreneur.com).

5.8 Conclusion

The main aim of chapter five was to give a clear explanation of what stress is, particularly in the workplace. Stress was defined by Aamodt (1999:569) as the psychological and physical reaction to certain events called stressors; this is the most suitable definition of stress for our purposes as different authors and different areas of study have different understandings of the word stress. Moreover, some of the possible sources of work stress were indicated upon. It is obvious that people react differently to known stressors, for that reason the chapter discussed diverse individual reactions to stress, this included Type A's,

Type B's, Pessimists vs Optimists, as well as gender, ethnicity and race differences. Personal and organisational consequences of stress were discussed, both having a negative impact on the psychological and physical wellbeing of employees and the financial status of the organisation. Finally, the chapter provided the models and theories of stress that are applicable to this study and the JDC model was found to be the most significant for this study. Chapter six will explain of the methodology adopted in this study.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to describe the research design that was employed during the study. Different aspects of the design are outlined, covering the population, sampling as well as reliability of the study tools. Moreover, the data collection method and the reason why it was relevant for use in this study are included. The chapter concludes by describing the different statistical tests used in the analysis of data.

Before we discuss the research design, it is important to define research, and to describe the unique characteristics of good research. Leedy and Ormrod (2001:4) define a research as a systematic process of collecting and analyzing information (data), in order to increase understanding of the phenomenon in which the researcher is interested. These authors add that collecting and interpreting information to solve small problems in our daily living does not result in formal research. They also show that even though research projects vary in complexity and duration, research typically has eight characteristics:

- Research originates with a question
- Research requires a clear articulation of a goal
- Research follows a specific plan of procedure
- Research usually divides the principal problem into more manageable sub-problems
- Research is guided by specific research problems, questions or hypotheses
- Research accepts certain critical assumptions

- Research requires the collection and interpretation of data in an attempt to resolve the problem that initiates the research
- Research is, by its nature, cyclical or, more exactly, helical.

6.2 Research Design

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001:91) a research design is the complete strategy of tackling on the central research problem. They add that this strategy provides the overall structure for the procedures that the researcher follows, the data that the researcher collects, and the data analysis methods that the researcher employs. Other authors (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:71) describe the research design as a direction towards testing of the hypotheses. According to them, the design means the specification of the most adequate operations to be performed in order to test a specific hypothesis in given conditions. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:71) emphasize that research design should not be confused with research management, which is a plan to guide the researcher through the research process. Studies (Denscombe, 2005:45) have shown that the important question that most researchers face is, “what steps should be taken in order to demonstrate that a particular hypothesis is true and that all other possible hypotheses are rejected?”

Denscombe (2005:45) states that in order to answer such a question, one should understand the following:

- Condition: Conditions are studied when the researcher wishes to explore the current state of the research. For example, a researcher who measures the unemployment rate in twenty West African cities is interested in the current condition of the labour market in those cities.

- Orientation: With orientation, the researcher is concerned with the subjects' attitudes and beliefs. Researchers interested in religious and political views for example are interested in orientation.
- Action: Actions are also very often the focus of research. These actions may be observed directly or may be reported by the actor or others who have observed the actor.

Looking at all these characteristics that constitute good research, the researcher made use of a scientific research method to study the phenomenon under investigation. Bless and Higson (2000:73) provide the following characteristics that make up scientific research:

- First, scientific research is empirical, since its main aim is to know and understand the reality. Each step is based on observation, whether in collecting the basic facts or in testing the explorative notion or assessing the value of predictions or the results of an investigation.
- Secondly, scientific research is systematic and logical. Not only must the observation be done systematically, but a certain logical order must also be followed all along.
- Scientific research is replicable and transmittable. Since observation is objective and the explanation logical, anyone placed in exactly the same circumstances can observe the same event and follow the reasoning leading to the same explanation and prediction. Moreover, it is possible to communicate each step of research and to transmit the acquired knowledge.
- Scientific research is reductive to grasp the main relationships of laws, the complexity of reality is reduced. For this reason, all details which are not essential or which have little influence on the process under investigation are omitted.

- Lastly, a scientific claim, statement or theory must be falsifiable. This simply means that a scientific claim must be stated in such a way that it can be demonstrated to be false. For this to be the case the claim must be testable, that is, it must withstand empirical scrutiny. In making a prediction, a scientific theory should not only tell us what should happen but also what should not happen.

For the purposes of this study, a non-experimental survey was conducted. Weiers and Ronald (1996:124) defines a survey as including a cross-sectional and longitudinal study using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection with the intent of generalising from a sample to a population. Leedy (1989:109) defines a survey as a detailed and quantified description of a population - a precise map or a precise measurement of population. The author adds that surveys involve the systematic collecting of data, whether by means of interview, questionnaire or observation. Before conducting a survey, it is essential to understand the phases and steps involved. They show that conducting a survey is much more than just a process of designing a questionnaire and collecting data (see figure 7.1). Steps involved in a survey as extracted from Czaja and Blair (1996:63) are summarized below:

Stage1: Survey design and preliminary planning

As Czaja and Blair (1996:63) point out, with most research strategies, the first step involves the specification of central research question that the survey needs to address. These might be articulated in a number of different ways including a hypothesis, a casual hypothesis or a description.

Stage 2: Pre-testing

According to Gray (2006:106) this stage involves the testing or piloting of elements such as the sampling frame (is it representative of the target population?), survey questions and data collection tools. It is likely that several drafts of the research tool be tested before a satisfactory version is reached. This will be fully discussed as the chapter advances.

Step 3: Final survey design and planning

Czaja and Blair (1996:64) indicate that at this stage, the pre-testing of stage 2 informs the planner as to what changes need to be made to the various elements, such as the choice and size of sampling frame, the questionnaire itself, interviewer training, data coding and plans for data analysis.

Stage 4: Data collection

As Czaja and Blair (1993:63) observe, apart from the data collection and the coding process itself, at this stage one of the most important activities is to monitor the rate of completion of interviews and the rate of non-response. The latter should be measured by specific categories, each of which has different implications for the research, namely:

- Non-contacts (try to re-contact)
- Refusals (try to ascertain reasons for refusal)
- Ineligibles (replace by eligible respondents)

Stage 5: Data coding, analysis and reporting

Stage 5 involves the coding of collected data, where a number is assigned to the responses of each survey question, and these are then entered into a data record that includes all the responses from the respondents. Moreover, before data can be analysed, it should be “cleaned”, that is, checked for obvious errors (Leedy, 1989:110).

Figure 7.1 Stages in the survey planning process

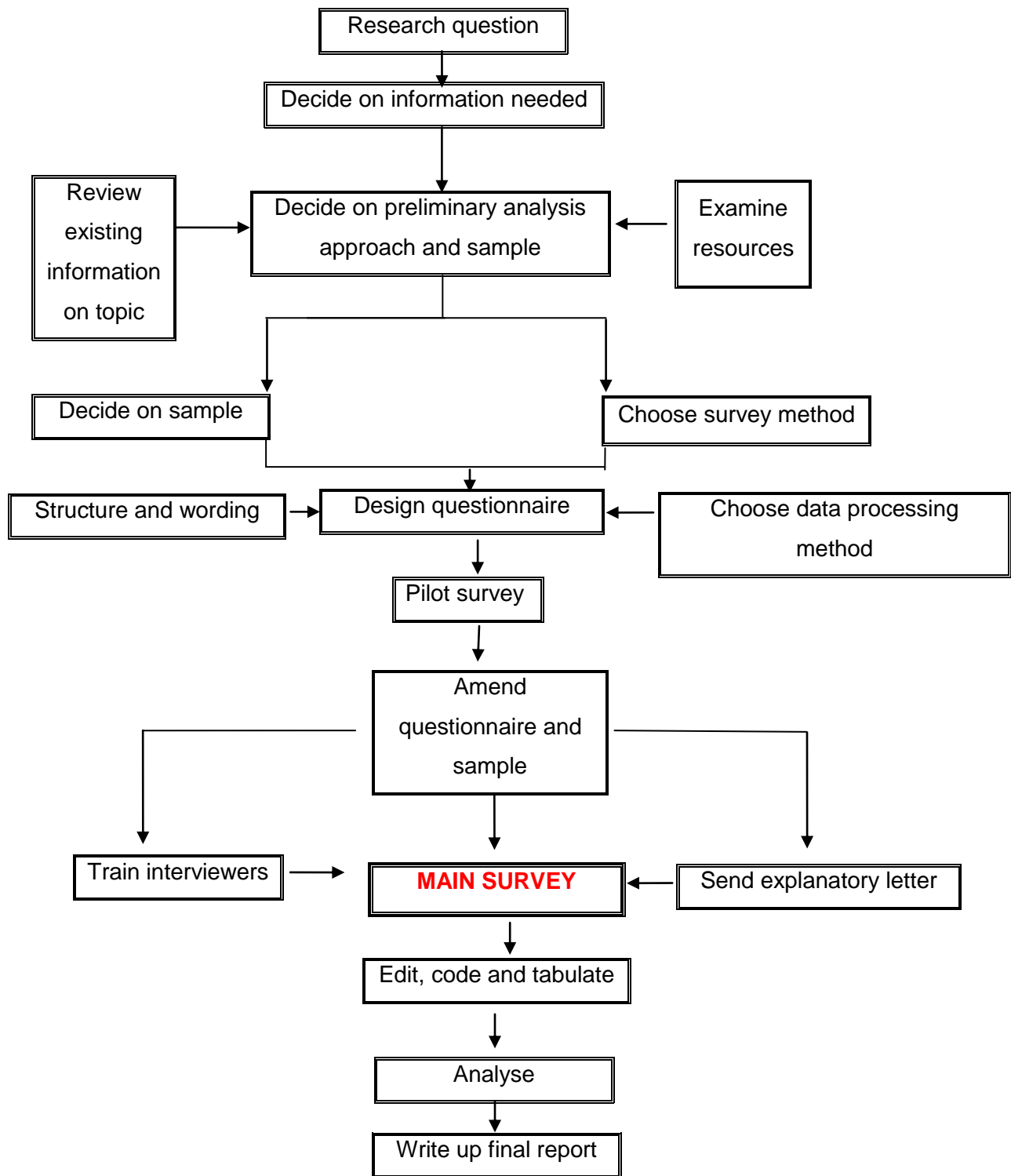


Figure 7.1: Based on R,Czaja and J,Blair. Designing surveys: A guide to decision and procedures. (1996).

6.2.1 Why a non-experimental design (descriptive research)

The non-experimental research design is appropriate for this study for the following reason:

- The nature of the research problem does not allow for the manipulation of any independent variable.
- There is no control over extraneous variables.
- Respondents were selected on the basis of their convenient availability
- Some questionnaires were given to different branches (Maseru, Mohale, 'Muela and Katse) of the company.

6.2.2 The rationale for the survey method

- The researcher was interested in collecting data from a large group of respondents within a short period of time.
- The survey method allows collected data to be quantitatively analyzed.
- Data was easily grouped (coded) for analysis by the statistics department at Fort Hare.
- The method was considered as convenient, as it allows the expression of opinion and past or present behaviours without much bias.
- A pilot study was conducted which enabled the researcher to amend the questionnaire before the main collection of data.

6.3 Population

Singleton, *et al* (1998:40) define a population as the total collection of elements about which one wishes to make some inferences. These authors add that, the population consists of the entire set of objects or people which is the focus of the researcher and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. They distinguish between a population and census. A census “is a count of all the elements in a population” In the study under investigation the census is comprised of all the employees at LHDA, from a tea-lady up the ladder to top management. But because of the fact that the investigation focused on restructuring, it is highly unlikely that blue-collar workers would be affected. As a result, the population was made up of employees only in top, middle and lower management and the operational staff. These totaled to 380 employees altogether.

6.4 Sample vs Population

For most research it is not feasible to conduct a study using the entire population. Singleton *et al* (1998:42) provide the following reasons as to why the use of a sample is preferable to use of the entire population:

- Lower cost: There are limited costs incurred while using a sample because of a limited representative number of respondents taking part in the study.
- Greater Accuracy of results: Kerlinger (1992:235) argues that the quality of a study is often better with sampling than with the entire population. He suggests that “sampling possesses the possibility of better interviewing (testing), more thorough investigation of missing, wrong or suspicious

information, better supervision and better processing than is possible with complete coverage.

- Greater speed of data collection: Sampling's speed of execution reduces the time between the recognition of a need for information and the availability of that information.
- Availability of population elements: Some situations require sampling, Singleton, *et al* (1998:45) provide a marketing example where they show the need to crash-test cars to see bumper strength or efficiency of airbags. To gain such knowledge, cars tested are destroyed (crushed); a census approach would mean complete destruction of all cars manufactured. Moreover, sampling is the only process possible if a population is infinite.

Based on the above mentioned advantages of the use of a sample over that of the entire population, it is necessary to give a full explanation of what a sample is, and what makes up a good sample and also to draw up a sample for the study.

6.4.1 Sample

A sample as explained by Arka and Lane (1983) quoted in De vos, *et al* (2004:199) is defined as comprising of the elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study. It can be seen as a subset of measurement drawn from a population in which the researcher is interested. De Vos, *et al* (2004:199) add that a sample is studied in an effort to understand the population from which it is drawn. Most importantly, the researcher is interested in describing the sample not as an end in itself, but rather as a means of helping to provide an explanation for some facets of the population.

6.4.2 What is a good sample?

According to Singleton, *et al* (1998:53), the ultimate test of a sample design is how well it represents the characteristics of the population it purports to represent. In measurement terms, the sample must be valid. Their study indicates that validity of a sample depends on two considerations, accuracy and precision.

- **Accuracy**

Accuracy according to Singleton, *et al* (1998:55), is the degree to which bias is absent from the sample. When the sample is drawn properly, they say, the measure of behaviour, attitudes or knowledge (the measurement variable) of some sample elements will be less than (thus, will underestimate) the measure of those same variables drawn from the population. Also, the measure of the behaviour, attitudes or knowledge of other sample elements will be more than the population values (thus, will overestimate them). Variations in these sample values offset each other, resulting in a sample value that is close to the population value. For these offsetting effects to occur, however, the sample must be drawn in a way that favours neither overestimation nor underestimation.

- **Precision**

A second criterion of a good sample design according to Singleton, *et al* (1998:55), is precision of estimate. Researchers accept that no sample will fully represent its population in all aspects. However, in interpreting the findings of research, the researcher needs to measure the extent to which the sample represents the population. The precision is measured by the standard error of estimate, which is a type of standard deviation measurement; the smaller the standard error of estimate, the higher is the precision of the sample.

Bearing in mind the abovementioned facts, the researcher drew up a sample size of 200 employees, with the help of a database of all different employees at the different positions and levels at LHDA.

6.4.3 Sampling method

As the researcher has described the sample and its advantages over the population, it is important at this point to distinguish and give a detailed account of how the researcher determined a precise and accurate sample as described in the preceding paragraph. Before the researcher decides on a sampling method chosen for this study, various other methods are explained. De Vos, *et al* (2004:203) distinguished between two main sampling procedures, namely probability and non-probability sampling.

6.4.4 Probability sampling

In the most general sense, according to Seaberg (1988) as cited in De Vos, *et al* (2004:203), a probability sample is one in which each person or sampling unit in the population has the same known probability of being selected. In addition, the selection of persons from the population is based on some form of random procedure. The best-known types of probability sampling include:

- Simple Random Sampling: In this sampling type, as De Vos, *et al* (2004:204) state, each individual case in the population theoretically has an equal chance of being selected for the sample. When such a random sample is selected, the researcher can assume that the characteristics of the sample approximate the characteristics of the total population.
- Systematic Sampling: Systematic sampling involves selecting individuals (or perhaps clusters) according to a predetermined sequence. The sequence must originate by chance. All subsequent cases are selected

according to a particular interval. For example, each fifth (5th) or tenth (10th) case on a list of names, depending on the percentage of sample needed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:214).

- Stratified Random Sampling: De Vos, *et al* (2004:205) provide the following explanation of stratified random sampling: “this type of sampling is suitable for a heterogeneous population because the inclusion of small subgroups percentage-wise is uncertain. Such sampling consists of the universe divided up into a number of “strata” that are mutually exclusive, and the members of which are homogeneous with regard to some characteristics such as gender, home-language or age.
- Cluster sampling: The work of De Vos, *et al* (2004:205) shows that cluster sampling is sometimes used when a sampling frame such as a list of names is not available, but only a map of the relevant geographical area. This method of sampling is also employed when economic considerations and cluster criteria are significant for a study. Cluster sampling also has the advantage of concentrating the field study in a specific section of the greater geographical area, and thus helps save cost and time.
- Panel sampling: A panel sample means that a fixed panel of persons is selected from the population of persons involved in a particular issue. This panel naturally has to be proportionately representative of the relevant population (De Vos, *et al*, 2004:206).

6.4.5 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is viewed by Leedy and Ormrod (2001:218) as the method where the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. Here a discussion of three types of non-probability sampling is provided:

- Convenience / Accidental sampling: Convenience or accidental sampling as it is sometimes called makes no pretense of identifying a representative subset of a population. It takes people, or other units, that are readily available (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:218). De Vos, *et al* (2004:207) explain that any case that happens to cross the researcher's path and has anything to do with the phenomenon is included in the sample until the desired number is obtained. This sampling method is also known as availability or haphazard sampling.
- Quota sampling: Quota sampling involves drawing a sample that has the same proportion of characteristics as the population. The sampling procedure relies on accidental choice instead of a random selection (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997: 282).
- Purposive or Judgemental sampling: Brynard and Hanekom (1997: 282) mention that, this sampling method is based on the judgement of a researcher regarding the characteristics of a representative sample. They add that a sample is chosen on the basis of what the researcher considers to be typical units. The strategy is to select units that are judged to be the most common in the population under investigation.

Having acquired the knowledge of the different sampling methods, the researcher was able to determine the most suitable sampling method to select an

organisation to participate in the study, as well as a method of selecting the most convenient employees to be included in the sample.

Through purposive or judgemental sampling, LHDA was selected as an organisation convenient for the study. This followed a search to for an organisation that had undergone restructuring. As the research intended to have a large employee sample, accidental sampling was chosen over other sampling techniques. Because of the fact that the researcher was working on a large sample of employees that were all affected by a restructuring process, accidental sampling, even though it falls under non-probability sampling methods, was still representative enough.

6.4.6 Sample size

When answering the question of how large do the sample has to be. Brynard & Hanekom, (1997: 294) indicate that “It depends on the kind of data analysis that the researcher plans, on how accurate the sample has to be for the researcher’s purpose, and on population characteristics. They add that, though costly, the larger sample is more representative. Nonetheless, They indicates that a large sample size alone does not guarantee a representative sample, hence, the “rule of thumb” for choosing a sample size is five percent of the population remains quite an inaccurate guideline, though certainly usable when precise formulae are lacking. According to these authors, the researcher’s decision about the best sample size depends on three things:

- The degree of accuracy required
- The degree of variability or diversity in the population, and
- The number of different variables examined simultaneously in data analysis.

Accordingly, the population frame required for this study was estimated as between 150 and 200 elements. As a result, a survey size of about 100 employees was required to fully represent the respondents.

6.4.7 Sampling error

As has been repeatedly mentioned, the purpose of sampling theory is to select samples which reproduce as closely as possible the characteristics of a population. However, Cooper and Emory (1995:108) state that this aim is never completely achieved due to three types of errors:

- Chance factors – It may happen that in a particular sample, one element and not another has been included.
- Bias in selection – Arises primarily from faulty technique. Nonetheless, as Cooper and Emory (1995:108) indicate, these biases are frequently avoidable.
- Non-response error – This error type comes about when an element of the sample does not respond to a measurement instrument for some unknown reasons. Consequently, such elements are excluded from the group, a move which changes the constitution and eventually the representativeness of the sample. Cooper and Emory add that the following may be some of the reasons for non-response:
 - It may not be possible to interview or test a person because of reasons such as illness, language difficulty etc.
 - It may be that the chosen respondent cannot be found because of changes in residence or name, even death.

- The selected person may be absent when the interviewer calls, purely by chance or,
- The person can refuse to collaborate and not answer questions or give information.

The researcher considered all the possible errors in making a decision about the research sample. This was one of the reasons why the researcher decided on a larger sample for this study.

6.5 Questionnaire

The Oxford dictionary (2002:1397) defines the word questionnaire as follows: “a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondents in respect of a research project” De Vos, *et al* (2004:172) state that the questionnaire can be open (such as “do you have any comments on this matter”) or closed, with an option to respond, either “yes” or “no”. They further distinguished two commonly used types of questionnaire, namely self-administered, which is completed by respondents themselves, without the assistance of an interviewer. This is done either by distributing the questionnaires and collecting them once they have been completed. Secondly there is the mail questionnaire, which is sent by mail, with the hope that the respondents will complete and return it. As the researcher conducted a survey, quantitative in nature, the researcher preferred the self administered questionnaire as the best data collection instrument, for the following reasons:

- To collect a large amount of data in a short period of time
- It would be too time consuming to interview over 100 workers
- The use of a questionnaire is cost effective in terms of time and money

- Use of the questionnaire enable the respondents to remain anonymous, and this increases the likelihood of honest response by them
- Respondents were able to complete the questionnaire in their own time and space
- There was no need for the researcher to be trained as in the case of interviews
- Data analysis is relatively simple and the questions were quickly coded
- Lastly the questionnaire avoids interviewer bias.

6.5.1 Development of the questionnaire

A pilot questionnaire usually helps to eliminate questions that are likely to mislead. But it is also important to understand that people may read and interpret questions quite differently. It is naïve to believe that standardized question will always receive standardized, rational, responses. Even so, it helps if the questions are phrased in ways that are clear, concise and unambiguous for everyone in the sample, and are free from jargon and abbreviations.

Arksey and Knight (1999) as quoted in Leedy (1989:189) provide a useful list of what to avoid when constructing individual questions:

- Prejudicial Language – The researcher must avoid language that is prejudicial or contains sexist or racist stereotyping. A question that annoys irritates or insults a respondent may affect the responses that follow.
- Imprecision – The researcher should avoid vague terms such as “average”, “regularly” and “a great deal” since they are likely to be interpreted in different ways by different respondents.

- Leading questions – Leading questions may suggest a possible answer and hence promote bias (example may be “most women are good drivers, yes or no”).
- Double questions – In most cases, double questions are difficult to answer and to interpret. Questions such as “Do you like chocolate and strawberry ice-cream” should be avoided.
- Assumption questions – The researcher should avoid questions that make assumptions about people’s beliefs or behaviours.
- Hypothetical questions – The questionnaire should not have hypothetical questions such as; “suppose you were asked to” since they have been shown to be poor predictors of people’s actual behaviour.
- Knowledge – The researcher should always ensure that the group that has been targeted to answer the questions has the knowledge to do so.
- Memory recall – People may have difficulty recalling even what has occurred recently (Leedy, 1989:189). For this reason, if the researcher constructs questions around recent news-worthy events, it would be appropriate to present respondents with a list of such events before asking questions about them.

The questionnaire used in this study was highly structured (see Appendix 3). The researcher considered all the precautions for a good questionnaire as mentioned above. The questionnaire was divided into five sections as outlined below:

- SECTION A – This section required the respondents to provide their biographical as well as their work information. For the purpose, open-ended, multiple-choice and the dichotomous questions were used to elicit the data.

- SECTION B – Section B was inquired after the perceptions of employees of organisational restructuring, and how the process affected their positions and levels of employment. Some dichotomous question as well as the seven-point ordinal scale were utilised to procure the data in this section. Most statements in this section were formatted according to a five point Likert scale in the following manner:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

- SECTION C – This section concentrated mainly on the satisfaction levels of employees, how employees perceived organisational restructuring in connection with their job satisfaction. The five point Likert scale was also used for this section.
- SECTION D – Section D made use of the five point Likert scale and some dichotomous questions to try and find out how the career developments of employees were affected by restructuring.
- SECTION E – This last section of the questionnaire focused primarily on the stress associated with restructuring. Dichotomous questions, true or false questions and the five point Likert scale were used by the researcher here.

6.5.2 Validity and Reliability of the questionnaire

6.5.2.1 Validity

Leedy and Ormrod (2001:31) define validity of a measurement instrument as the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Just so, Kerlinger (1992:171) indicates that a valid measuring instrument does what it is intended to do, measure what it is supposed to measure, and yields scores whose differences reflect the true differences of the variable being measured, rather than random or constant errors. This is to say that the definition of validity can be divided into two parts; the instrument actually measures the concept in question and the concept is measured accurately.

Leedy and Ormsrod (2001:32) state that validity takes different forms, each of which is important in different situations:

- Face Validity – This is the extent to which, on the surface, an instrument looks like it is measuring a particular characteristic (*ibid*, 2001:32). Leedy and Ormsrod state that face validity is often useful for ensuring the cooperation of people who are to participate in a research study. Kerlinger (1992:172) states that, because face validity relies on the subjective judgment of respondents, it does not convince that an instrument is truly measuring what the researcher wants to measure.
- Content Validity – “Is the extent to which a measuring instrument is a representative sample of the content area (domain) being measured” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:32).

- Criterion Validity – Criterion validity involves multiple measurement and is established by comparing scores on an instrument with an external criterion known, or believed to measure the concept, trait or behavior being studied (De vos *et al*, 2004:167).
- Construct Validity – According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001:78) construct validity is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed, but must instead be inferred from patterns in peoples' behaviour. Motivation, creativity, racial bias and stress (the focus of this study) all can be directly observed and measured.

Bostwick and Kyte (1981) as cited in De Vos, *et al* (2004:168) argue that, when one asks how valid an instrument is, one is really posing the following three questions:

- How well does the instrument measure what it is intended to measure? (content validity)
- How well does this instrument compare with one or more external criteria purporting to measure the same thing? (criterion validity)
- What does this instrument mean – what is it in fact measuring, and how and why does it operate the way it does? (construct validity)

Not only does the instrument need validity to be accurate. A good instrument also requires reliability to produce the best results in any study or research.

6.5.2.2 Reliability

According to De Vos, *et al* (2004:168) reliability is the accuracy or precision of an instrument as the degree of consistency or agreement between two independently derived sets of scores and as the extent to which independent administration of the same instrument yield the same (or similar) results under comparable conditions.

Leedy and Ormsrod (2001:41) note that like validity, reliability takes different forms in different situations:

- Interpreter reliability – This is the extent to which two or more individuals evaluating the same product or performance give identical judgment.
- Internal reliability – As Leedy and Ormsrod (2001:41) state, internal reliability is the extent to which all the items within a single instrument yield similar results.
- Equivalent forms reliability – Is the extent to which two different versions of the same instrument yield similar results.
- Test-retest reliability – Is the extent to which the same instrument yields the same results on two different occasions.

The researcher took special caution in constructing the questionnaire in order to ensure that the questionnaire would meet all the requirements of validity and reliability

6.5.4 Covering letter of the questionnaire

Churchill and Brown (2004:307) believe that the main purpose of the covering letter with a questionnaire is to win the co-operation of respondents. Leedy and Ormsrod (2001:200) also emphasize the importance of a covering letter by stating that its primary role lies in addressing the respondent's concerns and conveying a sense of authority for the research project. According to Churchill and Brown (2004:307) the covering letter should include the following:

- Importance of research project and its purpose.
- Contact details of the researcher.
- How the recipient may benefit from the research.
- Appreciation of the sender.
- Stating that the completion of the questions will only consume a short time only
- Confidentiality must be assured.
- Lastly the researcher must thank the respondents.

The researcher was able to meet all these requirements in his the covering letter. (See Appendix 3).

6.5.5 Pretesting the questionnaire

Welman and Mitchel (2005:148) point out that when a new measurement instrument is developed, it is useful to “test it” before administering it to the actual sample of study. This process of “testing” is done by means of a pilot study, which entails administering the instrument to a limited number of subjects from the same population as that for which the eventual project is intended. The purpose of the pilot study according to Welman and Mitchell (2005:148) is as follows:

- To detect possible flaws in the measurement procedure – The possible errors in the measurement procedure may include ambiguous instruction, inadequate time limits and so on, as well as the operationalisation of the independent variable (s)
- To identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items - In the pilot study, the actual questions are put to the “participants” and they are then asked to indicate how they have interpreted the formulated questions.
- An opportunity for the researcher and assistants to notice non-verbal behaviour (on the part of the participants) that may possibly indicate discomfort or embarrassment about the content or wording of the questions.

Likewise, Cooper and Emory (1995:307) explain that a pilot study is particularly useful if the researcher has compiled the measuring instrument specifically for the purposes of the research project. In such a situation, they add, it may even be necessary to investigate the validity and reliability of the instrument in an independent project. The same study (pilot) was conducted by the researcher to assist in identifying the weaknesses of the questionnaire, so that necessary corrections and additions could be made where possible. The researcher had a

meeting (on 26 October 2007) with one of the managers at Standard Bank in East London, Eastern Cape. The idea was to conduct a pilot study there as Standard Bank is a restructured organisation. Permission for the study was granted on the 30th of October, and 15 questionnaires were distributed to 15 members of staff.

After the pilot study, with help from the Statistics Department at the University of Fort Hare, the research data was analysed and the validity as well as the reliability of the study were tested. Moreover, the researcher was able to reconstruct some of the questions, as they appeared not to be very comprehensible to the respondents. Based on the results of the pilot study, the researcher eliminated open-ended questions, because of the discomfort that the respondents showed towards such questions (of the 15 questionnaires distributed only 2 respondents answered the open questions).

6.5.6 Administration of the questionnaire

In administering the questionnaire, the researcher was aided by a person from the human resource section (Mrs.'Malebusa) of LHDA. With her help, 200 questionnaires were distributed and respondents asked to complete and return them within 2 days. As De Vos, *et al* (2004:174) observe, it is important that for hand delivered questionnaires an appointment be made for the collection of the questionnaires, and this should preferably not be more than 48 hours of delivery. During the distribution, the respondents were made aware of a box-outside Mrs 'Malebusa's office, where they were to drop the questionnaires at their own convenience during office-hours. During those two days, the researcher was available most of the time to assist with questions that might not be clear to the respondents. This was the procedure at all the branches of the company, there was a box and an employee to assist in collection, and then all the questionnaires were transported to head office in Maseru for the attention of Mrs. Malebusa.

Finally, the researcher adhered to the guidelines relating to the development of the questionnaire and the covering letter. There were also clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire, and simple and precise questions were used.

6.6 Data analysis

The collected data was analysed by a computer. The researcher made use of Statistical Analysis System (SAS) to analyse data with help from the Statistics Department at the University of Fort Hare. Data analysis entails that the analyst breaks data into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions and to test the hypotheses (Kerlinger, 1992:94). Data analysis on its own was not enough, interpretation of data was also necessary. Once the data was analysed and findings stated on the basis of quantitative analysis, these findings as well as the whole procedure leading to them must be thoroughly and critically reviewed to detect errors of measurement, bias, and mistakes which could have distorted the description of aspects of the social reality under study.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the planning of the research and the way data was collected and analysed. The quantitative method was found to be most convenient for use in this study. The researcher looked at different sampling techniques and purposive sampling was used to select the organization under investigation while accidental sampling was used to select the participants in the study. The validity and reliability of the data collection tool were also outlined. The next chapter focuses on the analysis of the research findings.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an explanation of the methodology that was applied in the study. That discussed the population for the study as well as the best sampling procedure to be used. The data collection instrument, its advantages and reliability were also outlined. The current chapter presents the data analysis as well as the interpretation of the results in a very clear, concise and comprehensive manner. The findings are to be presented in relation to research questions and objectives. Moreover, the research findings are expressed in relation to the content of the questionnaire, which was the key instrument used to obtain the primary data from the respondents. The questionnaire utilised made use of various types of questions, which included dichotomous questions and the five point Likert scale.

6.2 Reliability of the questionnaire

The reliability of the questionnaire is mainly concerned with the consistency of the measure. According to Babbie (1998:126), reliability of a measurement is the degree to which an instrument produces equivalent results for repeated trials. That is, reliability is not concerned with what is being measured but rather with how well it is measured. To determine the reliability of this study, the coefficient alpha (Crombach's alpha) was used. This is one of the most familiar internal consistency reliability estimates. Pattern (2001:282) states that Crombach alpha provides a sound under-estimate (i.e., conservative or safe estimate). Moreover, Pattern observes that the Crombach alpha is used to estimate the proportion of variance that is systematic or consistent in a set of test scores. This ranges from 0.00 if no variance is consistence, to 1.00 if all variance is consistenct. This means that a value of 6 or less indicates unsatisfactory internal consistency

reliability. For this study, the Cronbach alpha co-efficient ranged from 0.60 to 0.95 indicating an acceptable level of reliability for the measuring instrument.

The chi-square was used as a test for the study. In finding the perceptions of restructuring, the researcher took two variables and tested them in relation to different questions at the four sections of the questionnaire. The first variable that the researcher concentrated on was the effect of restructuring on different positions of employees. From the questionnaire, there were four options to choose from in indicating how one's position was affected as seen on chart 6.7.

6.3 Presentation and analysis of data

Section A: Demographical Information

Chart 6.1: Responses according to gender

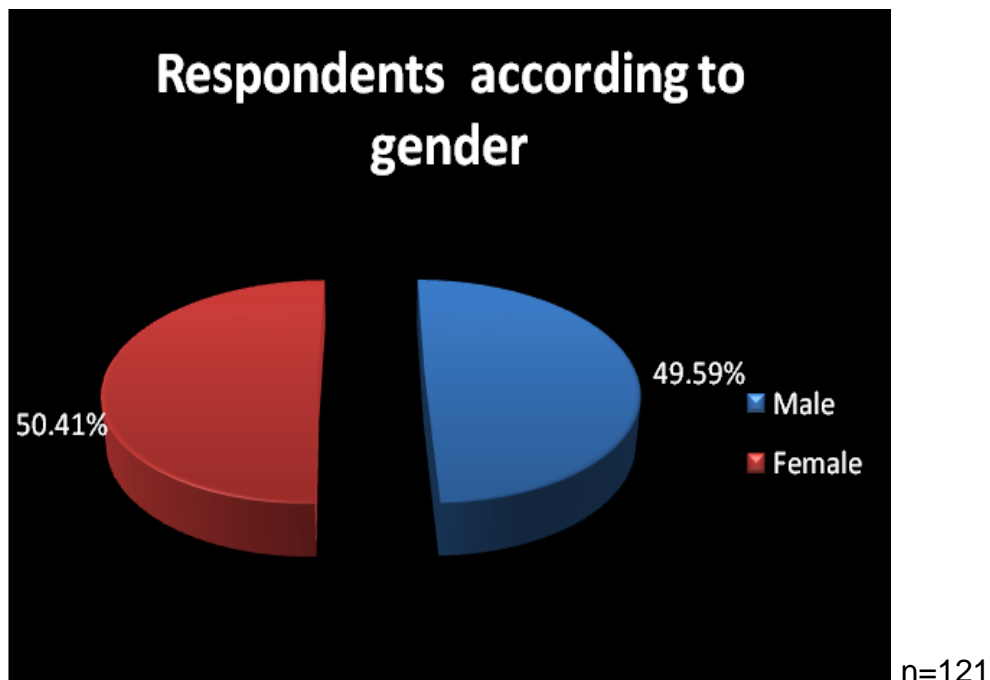
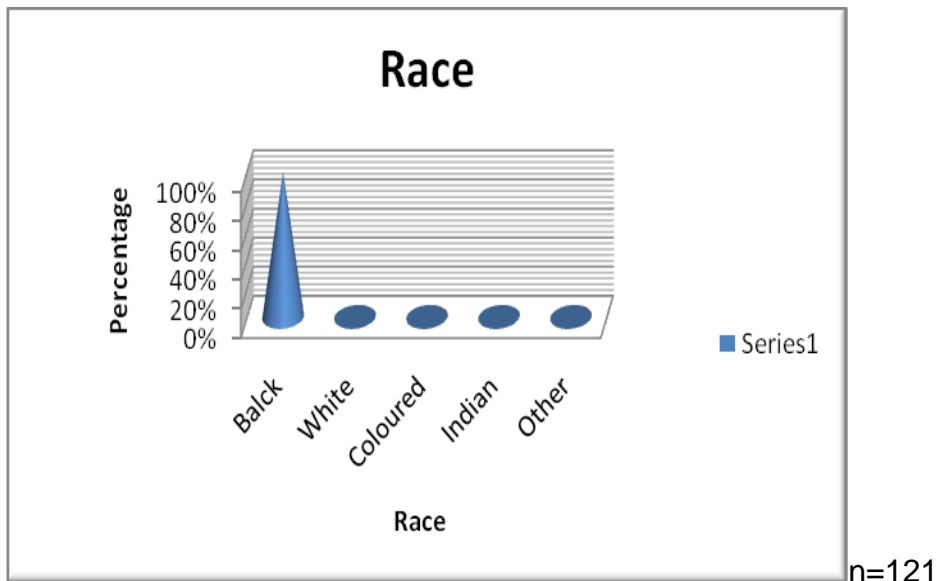


Table 6.1: Respondents according to gender

Gender				
Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative	Cumulative
			Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	60	49.59	60	49.59
Female	61	50.41	121	100.00

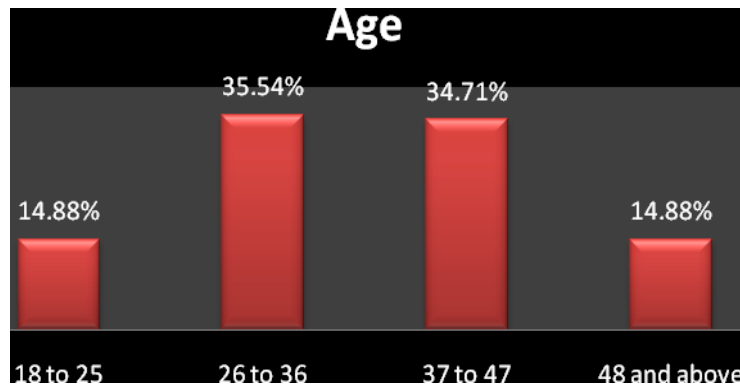
Chart 6.1 and table 6.1 indicate that there was a lesser representation of male respondents 60 (49.59%), while female respondents constituted the majority with 61 (50.41%).

Chart 6.2: Distribution of respondents by race



The above chart (6.2) demonstrates the respondents by their race differences. It can be seen that all 121 (100%) respondents were black. This may be because of the fact that the citizens of Lesotho are predominantly Black.

Chart 6.3: Distribution of respondents by age



n=121

Table 6.2: Distribution of respondents by age

Age				
Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative	Cumulative
			Frequency	Percentage (%)
18 to 25 years	18	14.88	18	14.88
26 to 36 years	43	35.54	61	50.41
37 to 47 years	42	34.71	103	85.12
48 years and above	18	14.88	121	100.00

According to chart 6.3 and table 6.2, most employees were between the ages 26-36 (35.54%). There was a smaller number of employees in the age group 48 and above (14.88%) which suggest that most employees in organisations today are either in organisational entry, early-career or mid-career stages of their career development (Greenhaus, *et al*, 2000:120).

Chart 6.4 Distribution of respondents by marital status

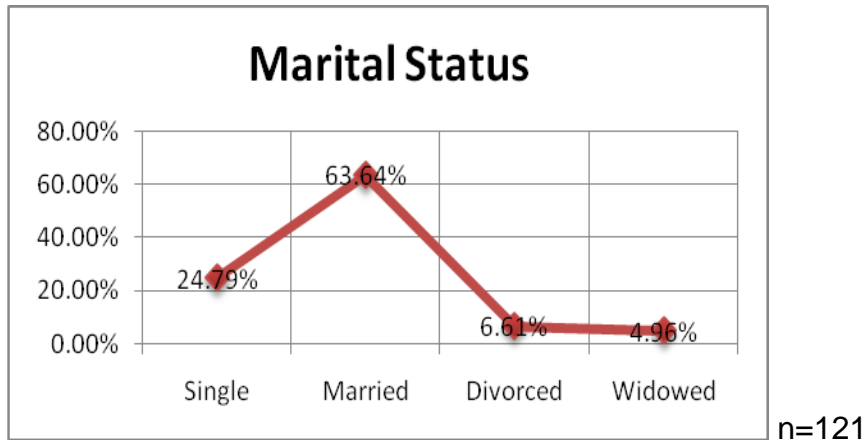


Table 6.3: Distribution of respondents by marital status

Marital status				
Marital status	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative	Cumulative
			Frequency	Percentage (%)
Single	30	24.79	30	24.79
Married	77	63.64	107	88.43
Divorced	8	6.61	115	95.04
Widowed	6	4.96	121	100.00

As depicted in chart 6.4 as well as table 6.3, a large number, 77 (63.64%) of respondents were married suggesting a clear link between marital status and age groups within the organisation, many being less than 50 years of age. Widowed employees were fewest 6 (4.96%). Thirty (24.79%) respondents were single, and as research by Greenhaus, *et al*, (2000:180) point such employees are less resistant to change as they still have few responsibilities and willing to test new waters (move to other companies).

Chart 6.5: Distribution of respondents by their employment contract

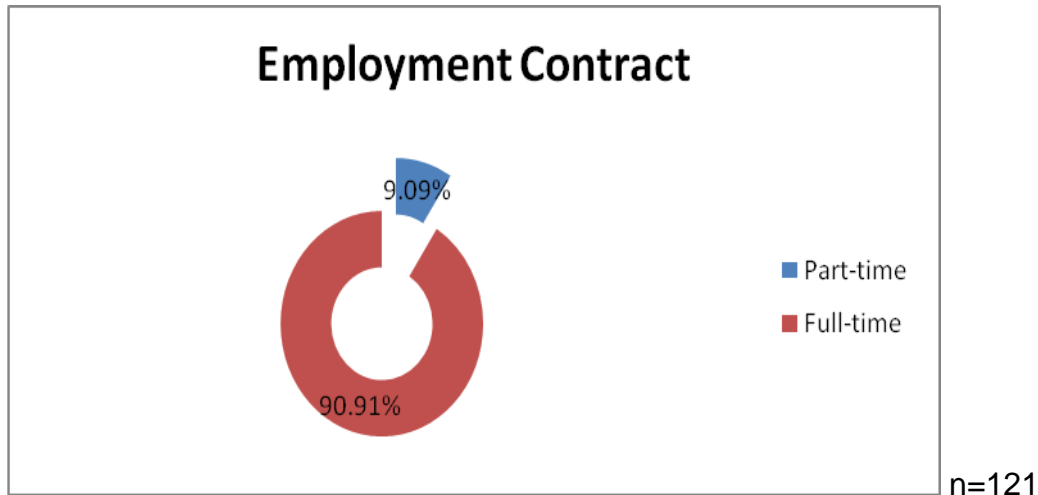


Table 6.4: Distribution of respondents by their employment contract

Employment contract				
Contract	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative	Cumulative
			Frequency	Percentage (%)
Part-time	11	9.09	11	9.09
Full-time	110	90.91	121	100.00

From the data collection results, 110 (90.91%) of employees as depicted by chart 6.5 and table 6.4 above, were full-time employees, suggesting that change may have been a traumatic event to them as their positions were at stake. Only 11 (9.09%) were part-time workers, most of whom indicated that they were not affected by restructuring. Of the 11 part-time workers, 9 were in the age group 18 to 25, in the entry stage of their careers.

Chart 6.6: Distribution of respondents by their positions

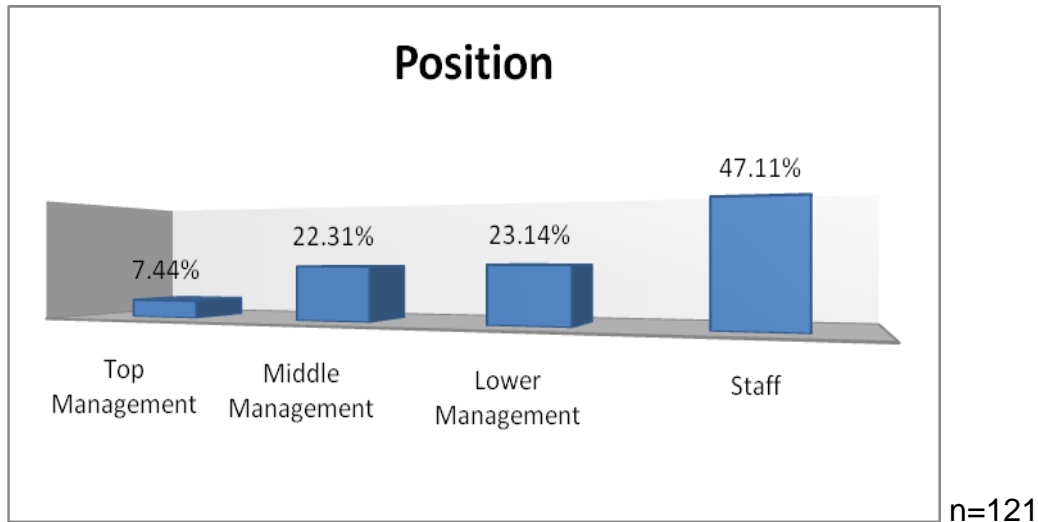


Table 6.5: Distribution of respondents by their current positions

Position				
Position	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative	Cumulative
			Frequency	Percentage (%)
Top management	9	7.44	9	7.44
Middle management	27	22.31	36	29.75
Lower management	28	23.14	64	52.89
Staff	57	47.11	121	100.00

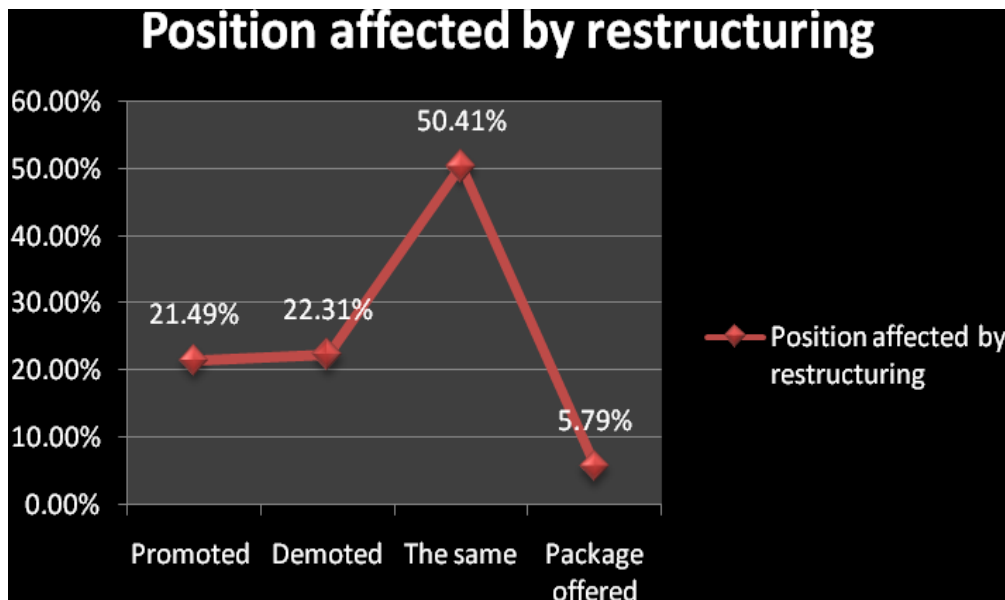
The position of respondents was important to the researcher. Since the position that one holds influences perceptions, job satisfaction and stress levels (House, 1998:216). The data (chart 6.6 & table 6.5) revealed that 57 (47.11%) of the respondents were operational staff at a lower level of the organisation. Regardless of the fact that they hold lower positions, these are said to be the

employees most affected by any of change in the organisation. 28 (23.14%) were in lower management, 27 (22.31%) in middle management while only 9 (7.44%) of the participants were in top management.

6.4 Section B: Positions affected by restructuring and employees' perceptions of restructuring

The following results were acquired from the 121 respondents who completed the questionnaire.

Chart 6.7: Distribution of respondents as to their positions were affected by restructuring



n=121

(Section B: question 4: How was your position affected by restructuring?)

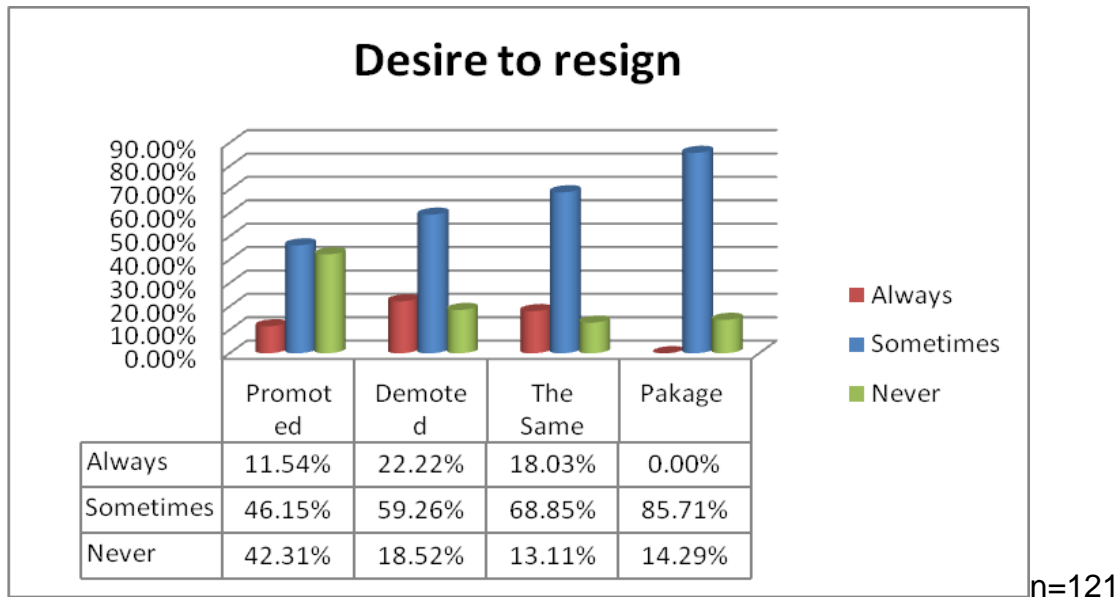
Table 6.6: Distribution of respondents by their positions as affected by restructuring

Position affected by restructuring				
Position affected	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative	Cumulative
			Frequency	Percentage (%)
Promoted	26	21.49	26	21.49
Demoted	27	22.31	53	43.80
The same	61	50.41	114	94.21
Package offered	7	5.79	121	100.00

The results indicate that although the organisation was restructured, most of the respondents' positions were not affected by restructuring. Chart 6.7 illustrates and table 6.6 illustrates that the majority, 61 (50.41%) of the respondents' positions were not affected by restructuring, while 7 (5.79%) stated that a package was offered as an incentive. Still, 26 (21.49%) employees were promoted after the organisation was restructured while, lastly 27 (22.31%) of employees were demoted. The researcher will make use of the chi-square test for independence to investigate whether there was an association between employee positions affected by organisational restructuring and their perceptions of restructuring, job satisfaction, career mobility and stress level.

6.4.1 Perception of the respondents of the relationship between their positions affected by restructuring and desire to resign and leave the organisation

Chart 6.8

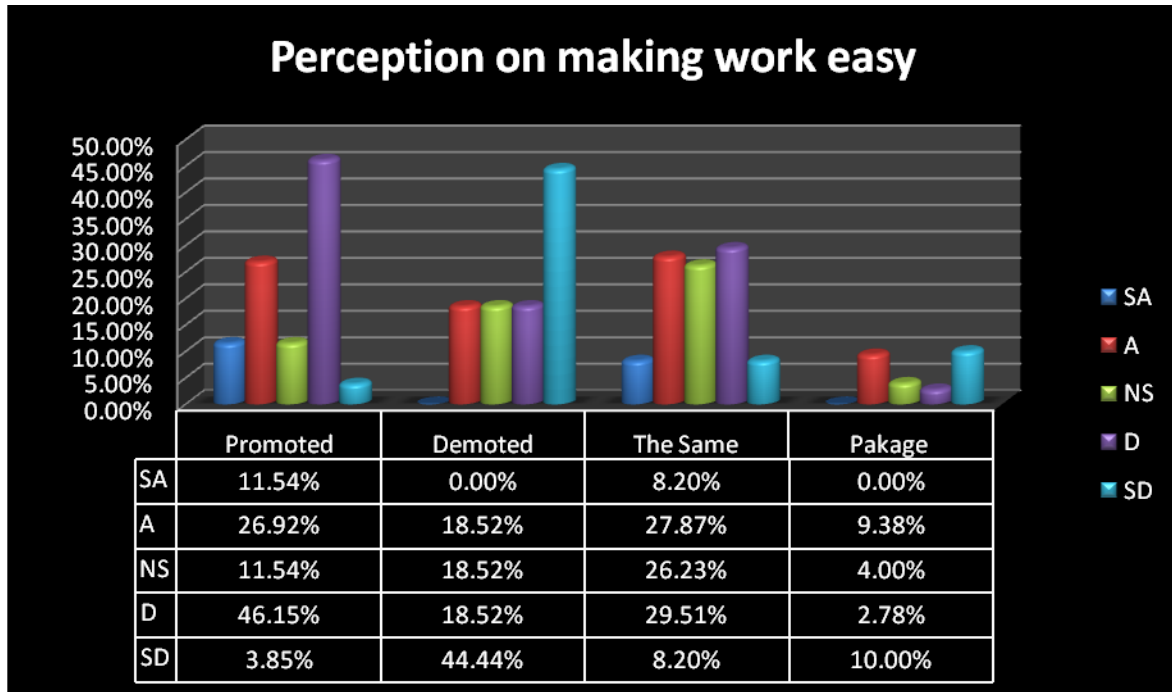


(Section B: Question 5: Do you wish to resign and leave the organisation?)

Figure 6.3.1 shows that there was a significant relation (χ^2 with 6 df = 12.0791, p-value < 0.05) between the position of employees being affected by restructuring and the desire to resign. This can be seen in figure 6.3.1 where regardless of their promotion, 11.54% of respondents indicated that they always wish to leave the organisation, while 68.85% of employees who still retained their positions said that they sometimes wish to resign. This may well imply that restructuring had negative consequences in spite of efforts (such as promoting employees) to retain the remaining and desired employees.

6.4.2 Perception of the respondents of the relationship between their positions affected by restructuring and their work being easier

Chart 6.9

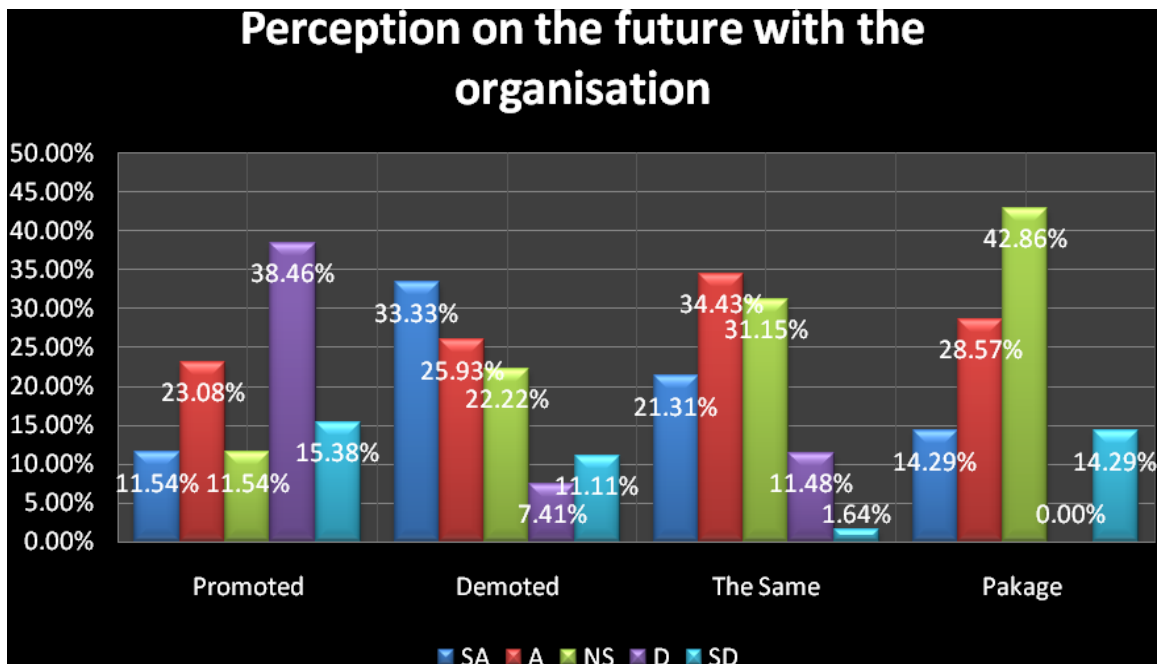


(Section B: Question 6: Restructuring made my work easier.)

In answering the question of whether their work was made easier by restructuring, the results indicate a relationship (χ^2 with 12 df = 29.4943, p-value < 0.05) between restructuring and employee's work being easy. As reflected in table 6.3.2 only 11.54% of the promoted employees strongly agreed that restructuring made their work easier, 46.15% of the promoted employees were of the view that, though they were promoted their work was not made easier at all. Responses may reflect the fact that restructuring cut the work force and in most cases the remaining employees were left with too much work to do.

6.4.3 Perception of the respondents of the relationship between their positions affected by restructuring and their future with the organisation.

Chart 6.10



(Section B: Question 9: My future with the organisation is not certain.)

In the four categories of employees who remained with the organisation after restructuring, those demoted were certain that their future with the organisation is not certain, as is indicated by their highest response (33.33%) in strongly agreeing that their future is not certain. The majority of these were in the lower levels of the company, meaning they are employees who are at risk in terms of further change, as they have less job security in comparison to employees at higher levels. In any event, the findings prove a strong relationship (χ^2 with 12 df = 25.23, p-value < 0.05) between organisational restructuring and uncertainty about the future with the organisation.

6.5 Section C: Positions as affected by restructuring and employees' job satisfaction

6.5.1: Perception of the respondents of the relationship between their positions affected by restructuring and workload

Table 6.7: Perception of the respondents of the relationship between their positions as affected by restructuring and workload

Restructuring resulted in increasing my work load.	Always	Sometimes	Never
Promoted	46.15%	50.00%	3.85%
Demoted	55.56%	37.04%	7.41%
The same	26.23%	65.57%	8.20
Package offered	85.71%	14.29	0.00%

(Section C: Question 1: Restructuring resulted in increasing my work load)

The findings of the research as summarised in table 6.7 indicate that restructuring resulted in increased work load for most of the employees. This is shown by χ^2 with 6 df =14.5, p-value < 0.05. The majority of the employees in the four categories (promoted, demoted, the same and package offered) pointed out that they sometimes feel overloaded with, the following results respectively: 50%, 37.04%, 65.57 and 14.29. The assumption may be made that restructuring reduces the work force and it is highly probable that the remaining employees had to make up for work that had been done by retrenched employees.

6.5.2: Perception of the respondents of restructuring and support from co-workers

Table 6.8: Perception of the respondents of restructuring and support from co-workers

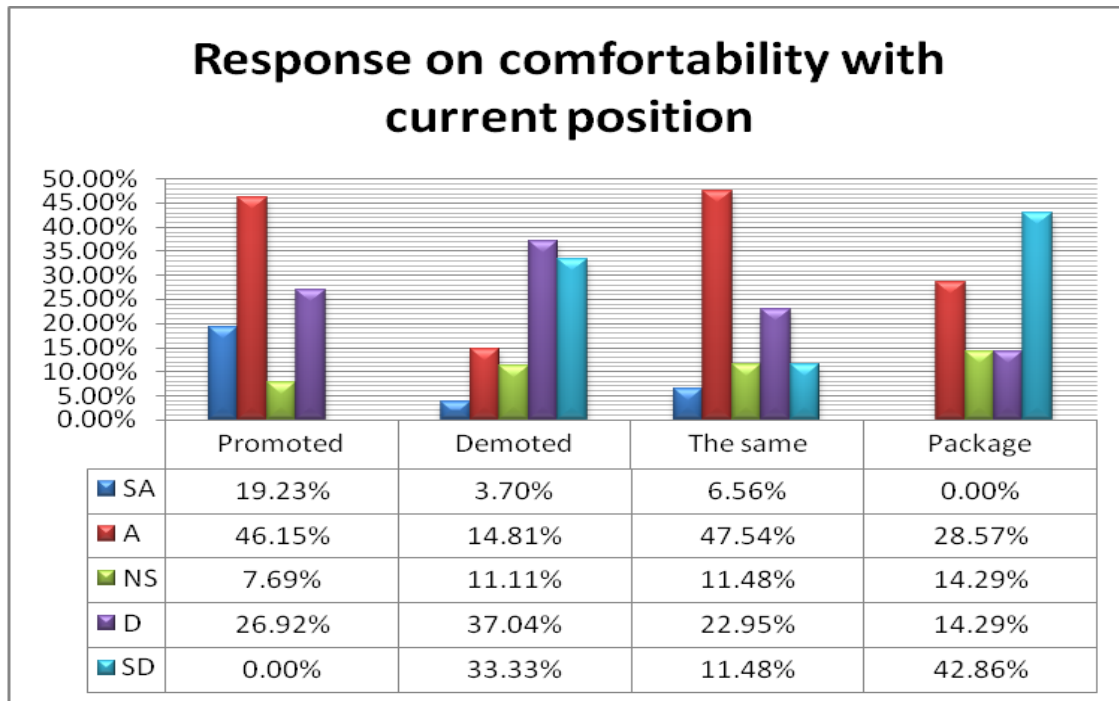
Always supportive	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Not supportive
Promoted	19.23%	11.54%	38.46%	11.54%	11.54%	3.85%	3.85%	Promoted
Demoted	3.70%	11.11%	14.81%	18.52%	14.81%	29.63%	7.41%	Demoted
The same	14.74%	22.95%	27.87%	21.31%	4.92%	4.92%	3.28%	The same
Package	0.00%	42.86%	28.57%	0.00%	14.29%	14.29%	0.00%	Package

(Section C: Question 2: My co-workers are :)

On the 7 point scale, employees promoted, employees in the same position and employees offered packages all stated that they had support from their co-workers. The result for demoted employees indicated non supportive co-workers, only 29.62% (3.70% + 11.11% + 14.81%) of demoted employees indicating that they received support from their co-workers. The results may reflect the pressure of being demoted, a state of change in the lives of employees that brings insecurity and feelings of failure by the employees. The results of table 6.4.2 shows a significant relationship between employees support and restructuring (χ^2 with 18 $df = 28.8$, p -value < 0.05).

6.5.3: Distribution of respondents in being comfortable with current work position

Chart 6.11

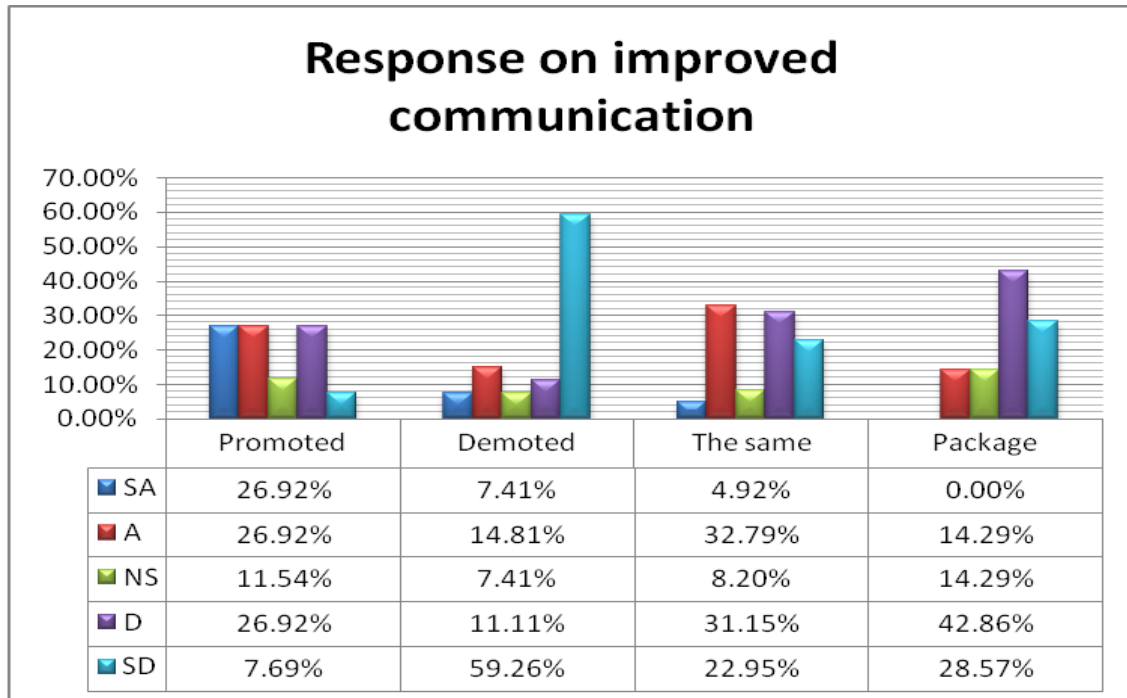


(Section C: Question 3: I am comfortable with my current work position)

Figure 6.4.3 above reflects responses of employees as to comfortability with their current positions. Only the promoted (Agree = 46.15%) and those retaining their former positions (Agree = 47.54%) indicated comfortability with their current positions. It is evident that employees who still hold their previous positions will be comfortable as they hold some speciality in such a position, something that makes them comfortable as they know their duties, responsibilities and what is expected of them. The results of promoted employees may involve the issue of remuneration, as promotion goes hand in hand with increments in pay and benefits. As some authors take money to be a motivator, it may be reasonably explained why promoted employees feel comfortable with their current positions. The statistical results obtained revealed that (χ^2 with 12 _{df} = 26.58, p-value < 0.05).

6.5.4: Perception of respondents of improved communication channels.

Chart 6.12

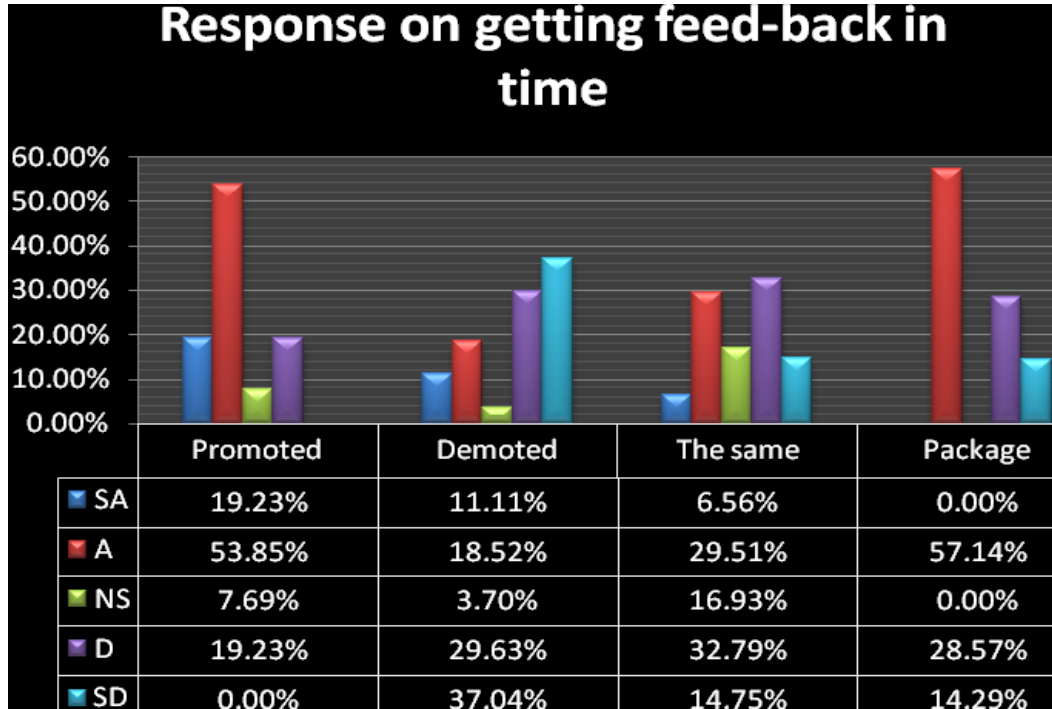


(Section C: Question 6: Restructuring improved the communication channel between management and employees.)

There is a significant effect between positions affected by restructuring and the improved communication between management and employees (χ^2 with 12 df = 30.588, p-value < 0.05). This may be because of the flatter organisational structure resulting from the restructuring. This flat structure speeds up and increases the effectiveness of the channels of communication between management and their subordinates.

6.5.5 Perception of respondents of getting feed-back in time

Chart 6.13

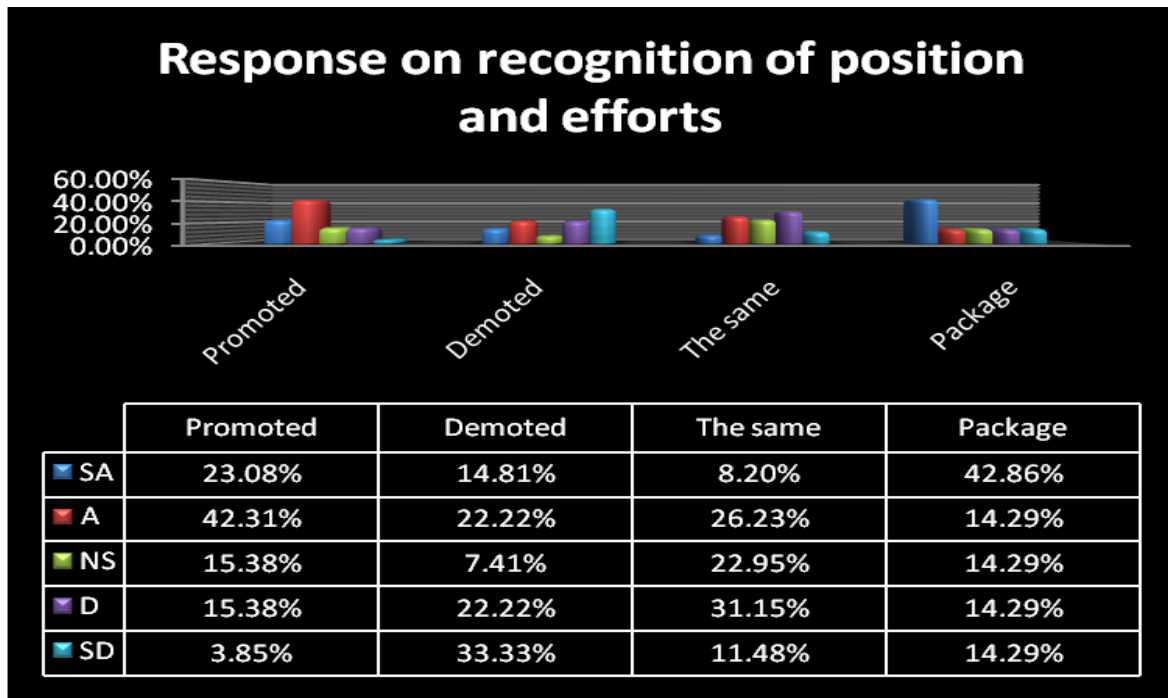


(Section C:Question 9: I am now able to get feed-back in time)

As depicted in figure 6.4.5 above, there was a positive response from the employees on getting their feed- back in time. 53.85% of the promoted employees agreed with the statement while only 19.23% disagreed with the statement. The majority (57.14%) of employees offered a package also agreed that feedback had improved. Statistically there was a strong connection between positions of employees affected by restructuring (χ^2 with 12 df = 26.61, p-value < 0.05) and improved feed-back.

6.5.6 Distribution of respondents on recognised position and efforts

Chart 6.14

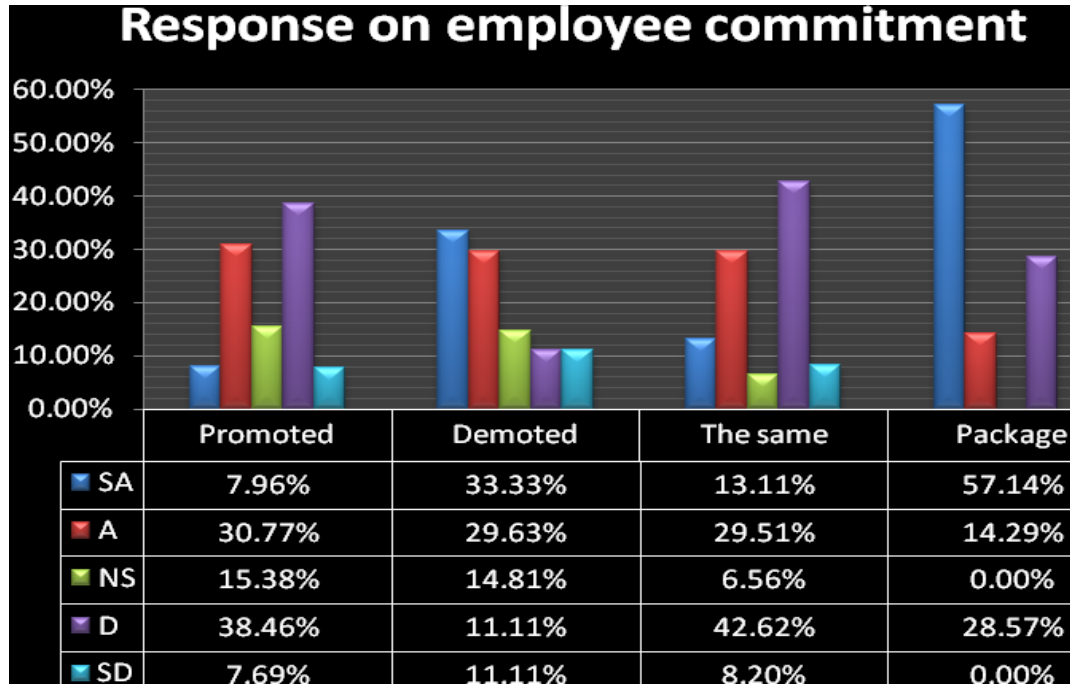


(Section C: Question 10: My position and efforts are now recognised)

Forty two percent (42.31%) of promoted employees affirmed that their positions and efforts were recognised after restructuring. Just so, 42.86% of employees who were offered a package also strongly agreed. As a number of employees were retrenched during the restructuring process, it became easier for management to recognise the inputs of the remaining employees as they were fewer employees, each having a clear and easily recognised task to do. There was ideally, a strong relationship between positions affected by restructuring and recognition of efforts (χ^2 with 12 df = 23.27, p-value < 0.025). regardless of the workload experienced by employees as indicated earlier.

6.5.7 Distribution of respondents on reduced commitment

Chart 6.15

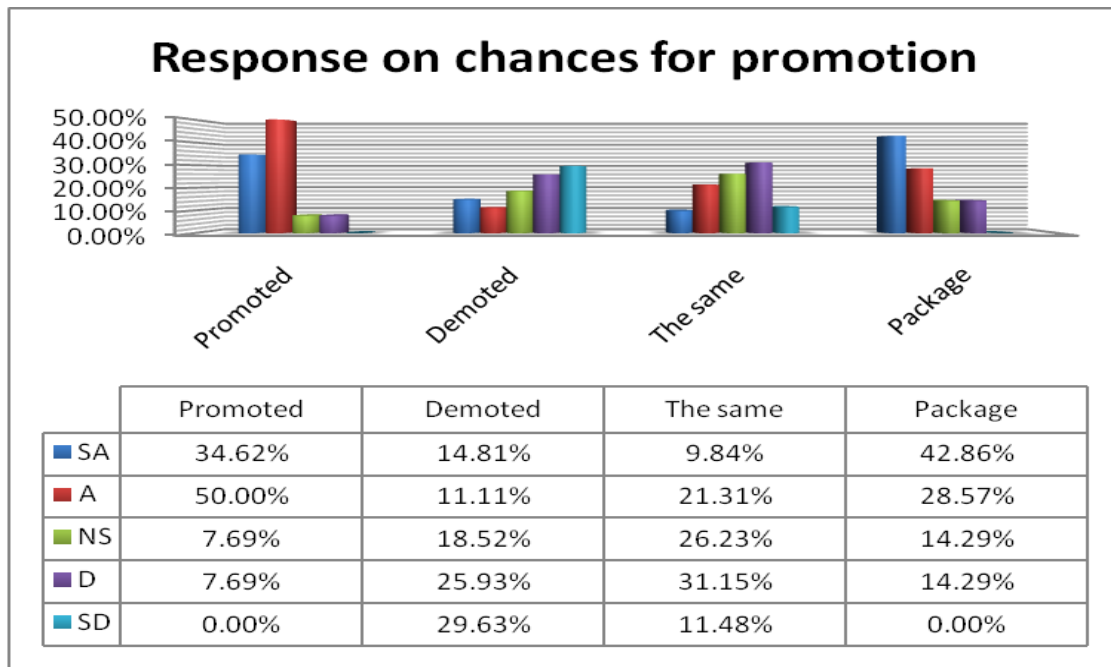


(Section C:Question 15: Restructuring reduced employee commitment at work)

The results of the study were significant (χ^2 with 12 df= 21.10, p-value < 0.05). From figure 6.4.7 it appears that 57.14% of employees who were offered packages strongly agreed that restructuring reduced commitment of employees at work. The results shows that 38.4% of employees who were promoted and 42.6% of those still possessing their previous jobs disagreed with the statement.

6.6 Section D: Positions as affected by restructuring and employees' career mobility and development.

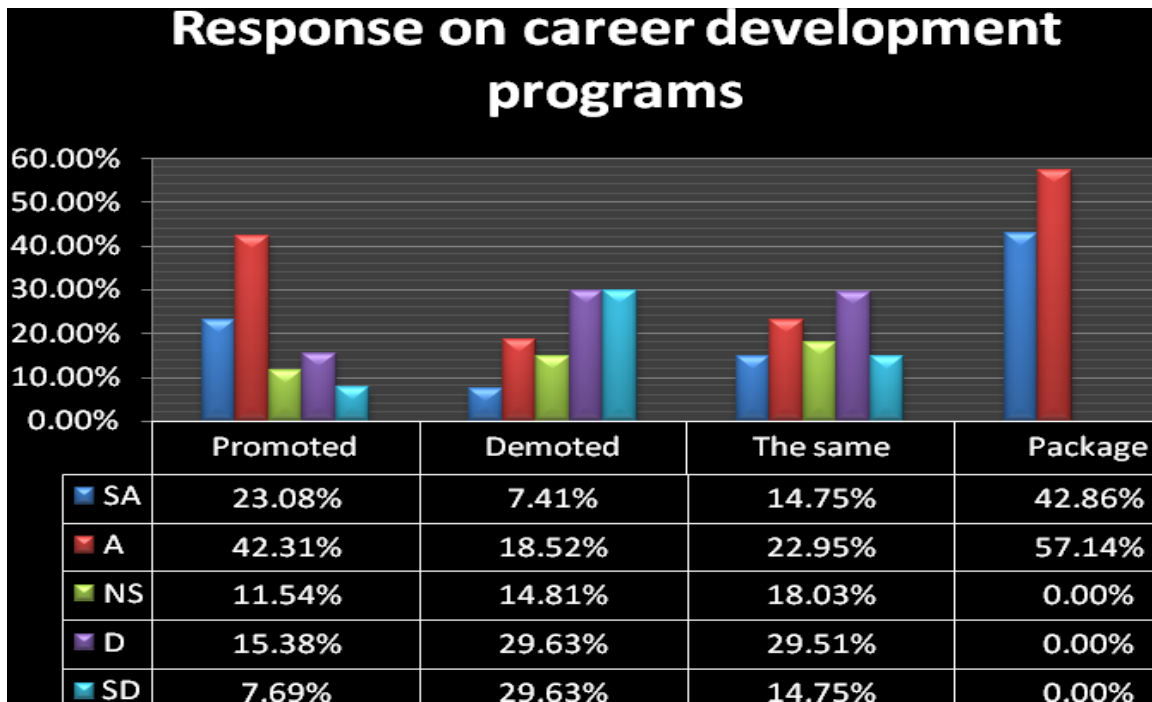
Chart 6.16: Distribution of respondents on broadened chances for promotion



(Section D: Question 6: Restructuring broadened my chances for promotion.)

Fifty percent (50%) of the promoted employees agree that restructuring increased their chances for promotion as compared to demoted employees of whom only (11.11%) agreed with the statement. Figure 6.5.1 shows that employees who were demoted and those who still held their previous positions scored less than 30% indicating a degree of dissatisfaction, it is the dream of every employee to be promoted. The study revealed significant results (χ^2 with 12 df= 35.86, p-value < 0.005). There is clearly a relationship between organisational restructuring and the perceived chances for promotion.

Chart 6.17: Distribution of respondents on career development programs

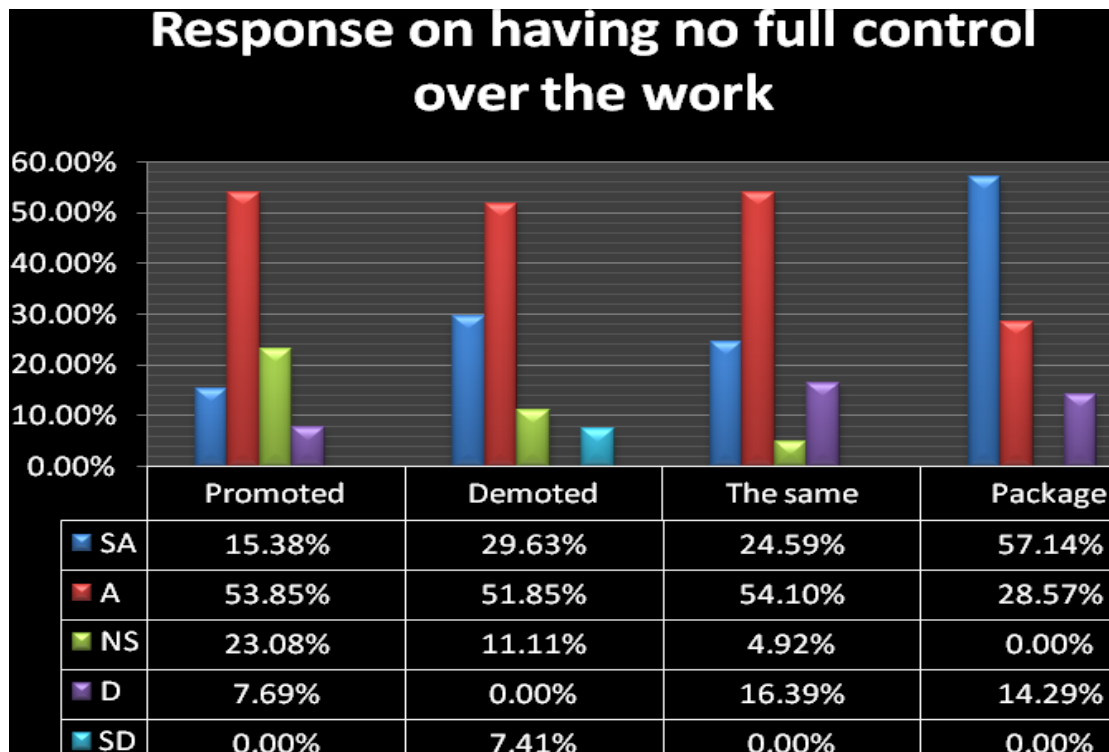


(Section D: Question 10: My organisation offers career development programs)

According to the findings, there are no career development programs offered at Lesotho Highlands. Yet, 42.31% of promoted employees and 57.14% of employees who were offered packages agreed that the organisation offered career development programs. This could possibly reflect bias induced by promotion or package offer. The findings were also insignificant (χ^2 with 12 df= 21.15, p-value > 0.05).

6.7 Section E: Positions as affected by restructuring and employees' stress levels

Chart 6.18: Distribution of respondents on having no full control over work



(Section E: Question 12: Having no full control over my work stresses me.)

Figure 6.6.1 shows that 53.85% of promoted, 51.85% of demoted and 54.10% of employees who still hold their positions agree that they have no full control over their work and that can increase the stress levels of employees. It shows that job analysis must continue even after the restructuring process in order for employees to have clear job specifications and full control over the boundaries or responsibilities of the job they hold. The results were found to be significant (χ^2 with 12 $df=$ 23.58, p-value < 0.05).

6.8. Position change and the perceptions of employees regarding organisational restructuring

Table 6.9: Position change and the perception of employees regarding organisational restructuring

Variable	Key Variable	Chi-square	df	P-Value
Position Change	Benefits employees	20.71	12	0.045
	Resources	19.30	8	0.0134
	Anxiety	14.92	8	0.06
	Effective supervisor	14.14	8	0.08
	Less productive	27.28	8	0.0006
	Operations	22.95	12	0.023
	Opportunities	21.40	8	0.006
	Current position	13.84	6	0.031
	Co-worker stress	16.96	8	0.031
	Structure	19.06	8	0.0145

The second main variable that the researcher used in relation to other key variables was position change as shown in table 6.9. The question on position change is found in section E of the questionnaire and reads: "Did your position change after restructuring?" There were three optional responses to the questions and were, Yes – Higher position, Yes – Lower position and NO. Of the three responses, 23.97% of the respondents indicated that their positions were higher after restructuring, 57.85% of the respondents were moved to lower positions and 18.18% indicated that their positions did not change at all. As illustrated in table 6.8, the main exercise here was to associate the position change with other key variables to test the significance of the study using the Chi-square as a test.

6.8.1 Perception of respondents on the relationship between position change and whether organisational restructuring benefits employees

As to Section B, statement 3 “Organisational restructuring benefits the workers”, the findings of the study show that the majority of employees who were demoted and those whose positions were not affected by restructuring at all were of the view that organisational restructuring does not benefit the employees. On a seven point scale, 24.29% of demoted employees strongly disagreed that organisational restructuring benefit the employees, only 2.86% of employees strongly agreed with the statement. The same is true of applied to employees who still have their positions, 22.73% strongly disagreed with the above statement and none (0%) agreed. However, the results of the study revealed that (χ^2 with 12 $df=$ 20.71, p-value > 0.05).

6.8.2 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and increased resources

As to Section B, statement 7 “Resources (computer, cars, machinery) are now in abundance because of retrenched employees”. The findings revealed a significant result (χ^2 with 8 $df=$ 19.30, p-value < 0.05) where from which 34.48% of the promoted employees, regardless of their promotion remarked that they strongly disagreed that resources were plentiful as a result of restructuring. More or less the same response as given by demoted employees, 38.57% of them disagreeing with the statement, while 54.55 of employees who still held their previous positions strongly disagreed with the statement.

6.8.3 Perceptions of respondents of the relationship between position change and anxiety about the future.

Statement 13 of Section B reads: “Employees resist change if they are anxious about their future with the organization”. Most of the employees in the three categories (promoted 48.28%; demoted 47.14% and the same 24.55%) strongly agreed with the above statement. The findings of the study produced less significant results, (χ^2 with 8 $df=$ 14.92, p-value > 0.05).

6.8.4 Perceptions of respondents of the relationship between position change and effectiveness of the supervisor

statement 4 of Section C was as follows “My supervisor is not effective”. Despite the fact that they were demoted, 45.71% of demoted employees disagreed with the statement and 31.03% of the promoted employees also disagreed. Nonetheless, there was a different view held by employees who still had the same positions, the majority of them, 31.82% agreeing that their supervisors were not effective. The findings here were not significant (χ^2 with 8 $df=$ 14.14, p-value > 0.05).

6.8.5 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and the production of dissatisfied employees

Section C, Statement 18 was “Dissatisfied employees are less productive” the three categories of respondents agreed about this statement. 79.31% of promoted, 57.14% of demoted and 31.82% of those in the same agreed that dissatisfied employees are less productive. The findings were confirmed by the test (χ^2 with 8 $df=$ 27.28, p-value < 0.005) as very significant.

6.8.6 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and operations within the organisation before restructuring

section D of the questionnaire, statement 1 “Operations in the organisation were:” drew following results from respondents. Approximately 25% of promoted employees agreed with the statement that operations were better before, 57.85% of the demoted workers agreed as well, while 27.14% of them agreed that they preferred the way things were done before. Regardless of the fact that they were not much affected by change as they still held their positions, 31.82% of these employees showed that even though they still had their old position they were more comfortable with the old operations. The study also reflected significant results with the following findings (χ^2 with 12 $df=23$, p-value < 0.05).

6.8.7 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and career development opportunities

One of the benefits of restructuring that the remaining employees can look forward to is the opening of opportunities or chances for career development. Statement 4 of section D: “the organisation has career development opportunities.” The responses indicated that 41.38% of promoted staff agreed with the statement. However, that was not the perception from any demoted employees, 48.57% of whom were of the view that such opportunities did not exist within the organisation. These noteworthy results were also confirmed by the study (χ^2 with 8 $df=21.41$, p-value < 0.05).

6.8.8 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and stress related to current position

Section E, was mainly developed to determine the stress associated with restructuring. Question 2 “Are you experiencing any stress with your current position? Had the following response: 58.55% of employees who still have their old positions indicated that they experienced high levels of stress in their positions. There was also an indication of moderate stress (58.62) by promoted employees. The findings of the study were as follows (χ^2 with 6 $df=$ 13.84, p-value < 0.05).

6.8.9 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and stress experienced by co-workers

Approximately 40% of promoted employees indicated that though restructuring produced positive outcomes for them, they were stressed by their co-workers who experienced stress. This was in response to the statement 17 of section E (I am affected by my co-worker who is experiencing stress). 48.57% of demoted employees also agreed with the statement confirming that indirect situations, such as co-worker stress, do affect individuals. More relevant results were found by the statistical findings (χ^2 with 8 $df=$ 16.96, p-value < 0.05).

6.8.10 Perception of respondents of the relationship between position change and the impact of the new organisational structure on self- esteem

Section E, statement 18 reads: “The new structure of the organisation has lowered my self-esteem” The majority (37.93%) of promoted workers disagreed with the statement, as well as 40% of demoted workers. The response from employees who still held their old positions was different, 40.91% of them

strongly agreeing with this statement. Statistical analysis revealed more significant results as follows (χ^2 with 8 $df=$ 19.06, p-value < 0.05).

6.9 Discussion of the findings

6.9.1 Overview of the research topic

In many organisations today, change takes place at an alarming rate! Globalisation, leading to global competition and the rapid pace of technological innovations are seen to such change. As a result, more and more employees today are faced with changes that they never asked for. One of the most prevalent organisational changes in developed as well as developing countries like South Africa and Lesotho is organisational restructuring.

As companies change, this somehow gives rise to stress reactions with employees, resulting in a number of negative consequences for both the workers and the organisation. This study has investigated the perceptions of employees regarding organisational restructuring and showed how it influenced their job satisfaction, their career mobility and the presence of stress in the process.

6.9.2 Aims and objectives of the study

With reference to section 1.3 the aims of the study were as follows:

- First, the study aims to identify the perceptions of employees of organisational restructuring.
- Second, the study aims to examine whether organisational structuring had any effect on employees' satisfaction.
- Third, the study intends to examine the effect of organisational restructuring on employees' career mobility and

- Fourth, the study seeks to determine the employees' stress levels as associated with organisational restructuring.

6.9.3 Overview of the literature survey

The literature survey focused mainly on job satisfaction, career and stress. From the literature, organisational restructuring was seen as a preferred route to improving organisational performance. Most of the studies indicated that some of the common factors that influence restructuring include global competition, globalisation, technological innovation as well as the fluctuating economic status in developing countries. Some studies also revealed that change should be fully communicated to all employees, as failure to do so in most cases result in negative outcomes for the company.

In the review of stress related literature, change was said to be one of the common stressors for employees and this signals the importance of communication to increase job satisfaction. Lastly, most of the literature also exposed the need for employees to have full control of their own careers; however, the secondary support of the employers in career development of their employees was also seen to be important.

6.9.4 Overview of the empirical findings

In trying to provide answers to the research questions, the researcher linked the findings with the objectives of the study as summarised.

Were employees comfortable with organisational restructuring?

To find the answer, the findings were linked with some questions as follows:

- **Were all employees aware that their company has been restructured**

The study found that majority of the respondents (93.39%) was aware that their company has been restructured, while the remaining 6.61% of employees who claimed to be unaware were new employees who had been with the company for less than a year.

- **Does organisational restructuring benefit the organisation or employees**

Twenty-one percent (21.49%) of the respondents indicated that organisational restructuring does not benefit the employees at all; this is supported by literature (Lewin & Johnson) which shows that restructuring does not favour employees in any way, but is simply used by organizations to improve their performance.

- **Did restructuring make the work of employees easier**

Twenty nine percent of the respondents disagreed that their work was made any easier by restructuring, showing that there may still be a need for training by LHDA to help employees cope with their work. Most of the employees who agreed that restructuring made their work easier were employees in middle and top management.

- **What was the perception on retrenching employees**

From the findings of the study it appears 43 (35.54%) of 121 respondents indicated that retrenched employees were still useful and still deserved to be part of the organisation. These employees found the company to be unfair to just “cut” them off like that.

- **The need for counselling throughout the whole change process**

The findings here were in line with the study by Ducker (2002:73). He indicated that change is dependent on skilful managers to pave the way for transition and that counseling as well as managerial support should be provided throughout the whole process. In the current study, eighty-four (66.12%) of the respondents agreed that there is a need for counselling whenever there is any change by the organization. This is also supported by the fact that employees may become resistant if they are anxious about their future with the organisation. Forty-two per cent (42.15%) of the respondents strongly agreed that anxiety may increase resistance to change. In his study McLagan (2002:344) also remarks that employees often receive different (usually less) information than does management. Such discrepancies result in different assessment of proposed changes.

Accordingly, it may be concluded that employees were not comfortable with the restructuring process as it created insecurity and anxiety about their future. Moreover, employees saw the process as only beneficial to the organisation.

Did organisational restructuring have any impact on employee job satisfaction?

To answer this question the findings are summarised as follows:

- **Were employees comfortable with their current positions**

Empirical findings of the study show that 47 (38.84%) of 121 respondents agree that they were comfortable with their current positions. The data shows that 80% of these employees (comfortable with their positions) had been promoted after the restructuring process. This might be why they felt comfortable with their current positions while employees who were

demoted or still held their former positions were not. In most cases promotion comes with pay increases as well as job enrichment, both of which are positively related to job satisfaction.

- **What was the perception of employees about their supervisors**

The findings revealed that 36.36% of employees perceived their supervisors as ineffective. That reflects a cause for dissatisfaction because much of what supervisors do directly or indirectly affects the subordinates (for example, poor or late provision of feedback). Mitchel and Lee (2001:40) also found that job satisfaction can be influenced by the relationship that employees have with their supervisors.

- **The perception of working with new employees**

Studies reflect different views about how the relationship that one has with his or her co-workers affects job satisfaction. Nel, *et al* (2004:554) show that people with a strong career orientation place less emphasis on social relations. Such employees (with strong career orientation) might have been strongly affected by restructuring as their careers were at stake. The findings of this study shows that 42.15% of the respondents indicated that they were comfortable working with new employees. Possibly, their primary interest was in their career rather than in social relations.

- **Did restructuring reduce employee commitment**

Thirty-three percent (33.88%) of the respondents indicated that they were still committed to their work. That may simply reflect their anxiety about the future. Employees may show full commitment just to be “survivors” should further planned or unplanned changes occurs.

- **Are dissatisfied employees productive**

An association that most studies still fail to prove is that between job satisfaction and productivity. Some studies found that dissatisfaction did lead to lower productivity, while others indicate that there is no such a relationship between the two. Baron (1993:218) suggested that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity may be linked with the receipt of various rewards. Nonetheless, results from the present study reflected a strong relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. Thirty-seven per cent of the respondents strongly agreed that dissatisfied workers are less productive.

In view of the above responses, it may be concluded that although the organisation has been restructured, most employees still show high satisfaction with their work.

Did organisational restructuring have any impact on the career mobility of employees?

To answer this question the findings are summarised as follows:

- **Can employees manage their career progress**

Most of the respondents (58%) indicated that they could easily manage their career. It is evident that most of the employees at LHDA showed good career resilience. Career resilience is a concept explained by Lerner (2005:20) as providing employees with the primary responsibility to manage their careers and take advantage of provided opportunities, making them more career self-reliant.

- **What was the perception of self-employed people (entrepreneurs)**

Entrepreneurship is a very common practice for most people today. Nearly everyone as studies show, take entrepreneurial risk for quite a number of reasons, one of which is the need for autonomy and independence. Thirty-three percent of the respondents agreed that self-employed people were better off as they had full control over their careers and direction in life.

- **Did restructuring result in clear upward career paths**

Twenty-eight percent of employees were neutral about this question. Twenty-six percent indicated that restructuring did not open any upward career paths. This may suggest that when organisations engage in restructuring, they tend to do-away with middle management and so limit upward movement for employees.

- **How did restructuring affect the career aspirations of employees**

Thirty-six (29.75%) of 121 respondents clearly showed that restructuring did affect their career aspirations. A greater part of these employees were in the age category of 37 to 47. According to the findings of Hall (2002:73) such employees are in the mid-career stage of their career development. These employees are threatened by any changes within their organisation as their chances of being promoted or re-employed elsewhere are very slim.

It can therefore be concluded that organisational restructuring had a negative impact on the career aspirations of employees at LHDA. The next section seeks to determine the effects of restructuring on the stress levels of employees.

Was there any stress experienced by employees due to organizational restructuring

To answer the above question, the findings are summarised below:

- **Does the organisation demand more from employees their pay would justify?**

Forty percent of the respondents indicated that the organisation demanded more from them than this pay would justify. Regardless of the findings that most employees were committed to their work, there was a perception of job overload. These results may have been induced by the retrenchment of other employees during the restructuring. Moreover, 67% of the respondents also indicated that they are often work overtime to meet their work load.

- **Do employees have control over their work?**

Control and full autonomy according to the literature increases job satisfaction and somehow reduces employees' stress. In their study Schultz and Shultz (2006:373) show that employees who have control over their work report low levels of stress. 62% of the respondents on the current study stated that they had no control over their work.

- **Does the new structure or the organisationa have any effect on employees' self esteem?**

The results showed a negative relationship between the new structure of the organisation and employees' self-esteem. Thirty-three percent of the respondents disagreed that the new structure affected their self esteem.

In general, employees may be said to have experienced stress due to the restructuring process. The main factor contributing to the stress was job overload.

6.9.5 Summary of the findings of the study

- Most respondents were between the ages 36 to 36 (35.54%) and 37 to 47 (34.71%) these employees tend to fear organisational change as their chances of being re-employed by other organizations are limited.
- Most stressed employees were married employees rather than single.
- There was a lower level of stress and dissatisfaction among employees at managerial positions as compared to ordinary staff.
- Demoted employees showed the greatest desire to resign (22.22%).
- The majority (26.92%) of employees who agreed that restructuring made their work easy had been promoted.
- Most of the employees who still hold their old positions were uncertain about their future with the organisation. Most of the promoted employees were certain about their future within the organisation.
- A large number (55.56%) of demoted employees indicated that they experienced work-overload.
- Employees who still held their old positions were most comfortable with their positions.
- Most of the promoted employees were of the view that restructuring resulted in their efforts being recognised.
- Promoted employees were more comfortable with their career aspirations within the company and believed that the company was putting much effort into the development of their careers.
- According to the findings, the impact of stress was more severe for the employees at lower levels of the organization as compared to employees at managerial level.

- Most employees found the work itself, their position and the supervisors as their causes of stress.

6.10 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the study, the biographical data as well as the statistical analysis to test the hypotheses. Originating from the findings on this chapter, recommendations and conclusions will be provided in the subsequent chapter

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The research study primarily intended to investigate the perceptions that employees at LHDA had on organisational restructuring, how restructuring affected their satisfaction, their career mobility and the stress they experienced because of the process.

In his implication, the researcher focused on the following three main questions (refer to 1.3):

- How did organisational restructuring affect the welfare of employees at Lesotho Highlands Development Authority?
- How was the career mobility of employees affected by the restructuring process?
- Was there any stress that might have possibly been induced by restructuring?

The previous chapter analysed the data and examined the findings and also found that most employees were stressed and had no control over their career mobility. However, the results reflected job satisfaction by the employees. The focal point of this chapter is therefore to draw conclusions and make recommendations on the basis of the findings.

8.2 Conclusions

The conclusions of the research are summarised as follows:

- Most organisations today engage in change processes without properly informing their employees; even worse, the views of employees during the change process are hardly considered. It is important for organisations to always include their employees whenever they plan for change. That may reduce resistance, dissatisfaction and stress among the employees.
- As confirmed by the findings of this study, employees simply see organisational restructuring as beneficial to the company and they believe that their interests are not considered. It may be that management did not fully inform all employees about the why, the scope, and consequences of change, both to the organisation and employees.
- Regardless of the restructuring process, most of employees in the managerial positions, together with promoted employees show low dissatisfaction, low stress levels and believes their career mobility is good.
- Most stress was among elder employees (37 to 47), most of which had been with the organisation for more than 10 years. A large number of these employees were married and had reason to experience the most discomfort from the process.
- The study also realised the need for the company to provide full support on career developmental programmes. This is in line with the literature about the career resilience.
- With restructuring there will be employees retrenched, others promoted and some of the survivors demoted to fit into the new organizational structure. Based on the findings of the study, retrenched employees experience high stress are dissatisfied and willing to leave the organisation at any time.

- Even though the results mirrored high commitment from employees to their work, the greater part of the respondents indicated that they experienced work overload, probably because they were now doing the work that had been done by their retrenched colleagues.

8.3 Recommendations

Emanating from the conclusions listed in section 8.2, the following recommendations can be made:

- It is important for management to always and fully include their employees during any change process in the organisation. This is because of the fact that, regardless of the pace and scale of change it will always raise suspicions and worries among the employees. Organisations should also communicate the consequences of change even before the process commences.
- As a large number of respondents reported work overload, it is important for management to offer training and development to the remaining employees and their supervisors. To cover the work that was done by retrenched workers, the organisation may also provide greater technological support to deal with the over load that employees face.
- Management should not just demote employees without fully communicating the need to do so. That creates unnecessary stress and dissatisfaction. The company should also understand that retrenchments call for incentives to reinforce commitment, and show concern and care by management.

- There is a need for counselling of employees before, during and after the change process. Change always comes with trauma and is something that employees cannot go through on their own.
- It is important for restructuring organisations to make use of change agents to help employees in adapting to it inspire those retrenched to leave the organisation with a smile and instill trust in the survivors.
- Older employees should always be given special attention during the change process as they are more emotionally affected and more likely to emotionally withdraw from their work.

8.4 Future research direction

This research calls for further investigation. Suggestions for future research are provided below:

- Research is required to determine what management has done or is doing to support the survivors of restructuring at LHDA.
- More research into the profitability and performance of organisations who have retrenched employees is needed.
- The same variables as in the current study may be used to make a comparative study of the perceptions of employees from a restructured organisation and one that has not been restructured.
- Study of retrenched employees their further career development, the stress they experienced and their employability would be useful.

8.5 Limitations of the study

Some of the limitations to this study are:

- Empirically, a large sample size (for example, 1000 employees) of more than one randomly selected restructured organisation would have provided a more stringent research design, thus, allowing the results to be more generalised. The relatively small sample from one organization used in this study provided a convenient way of conducting the research taking limited finance, time and human resources into account.
- The use of interviews or focus groups concurrently with the questionnaire could have added useful information, and allow for in-depth responses from the employees.
- Only Black respondents were available at LHDA, which restricted the study from acquiring the perceptions of other races about restructuring. The conclusions were only based on the perceptions of Blacks which makes it hard to generalize as Whites may have quite different views about restructuring.

8.6 Conclusion

Conclusions about the results of the study and recommendations have been outlined on this chapter. In terms of the findings and recommendations, future research directions have also been indicated while the possible limitations of this study have been acknowledged.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Request to conduct a research at LHDA

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ENTERPRICE
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY
PRIVATE BAG X 1314, ALICE 5700, SOUTH AFRICA
TEL: (0027) 40 602 2607
MOBILE: (0027) 82 876 7129
anel @ ufh.ac.za**

Lesotho Highlands Development
Authority
The Chief Executive Officer
P.O. Box 7332
MASERU
100

Sir / Madam

Request on granting access to your company for conducting research

The University of Fort Hare together with the National Council of Research, with their main aim of providing qualitative research, request if you could grant one of our Masters student, **Mahloane, K.W. (200397133)** in the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare, permission and assistance to conduct research in your company as part of the fulfillment and completion of his Master's degree.

The research will be on: “**Organisational restructuring and its impact on job satisfaction, career mobility and stress levels of employees**”. A proposal attached will be discussed with the relative people.

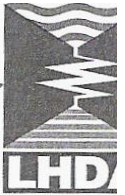
It will be highly appreciated if upon granting permission you could provide us with the contact person and contact details (telephone number, cell-phone number and e-mail address), should the student need some information pertaining this study.

Your assistance on the above mentioned matter will be highly appreciated. If you need any information on the student, feel free to contact me at numbers and e-mail address as on letterhead.

Yours sincerely.

Mr. Andre Nel (Lecturer)
Department of Industrial Psychology

APPENDIX B: Letter of acceptance to conduct a study at LHDA



Lesotho Highlands Development Authority

P.O. Box 7332, Maseru 100, Lesotho • Telephone: (+266) 22 311 280 • Fax: (+266) 22 310 060 • Email:lhwp@lhda.org

Ref : HR/365/07/CO
File : HR/00/13

26 October 2007

University of Fort Hare
Faculty of Management and Commerce
Private Bag X1314
KING WILLIAMS' TOWN ROAD, 5700
Republic of South Africa

Att : Mr. Andre Nel
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Dear Sir

REQUEST ON GRANTING ACCESS FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH AT LHDA

We acknowledge your letter regarding the above-mentioned subject matter.

We have the pleasure of informing you that K. W. Mahloane, Student No. 200397133 is allowed to conduct research within LHDA and that he will liaise with Mrs. Malebusa Mosoeunyane in the Career Management Section. She can be contacted on the following telephone number 00266 – 22311280 for further clarifications.

Trust you will find this in order.

Yours sincerely

M. PHAKOE
ACTING CHIEF EXECUTIVE

APPENDIX C:

Questionnaire used for the study

QUESTIONNAIRE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Topic

Organisational restructuring and its impact on job satisfaction, career mobility and stress levels of employees at Lesotho Highlands Development Authority.

Biographical Information

I am Katiso Mahloane (200397133), currently registered with the University of Fort Hare, for Masters of Administration in Industrial Psychology (2007/2008). As part of the requirements for completion of my studies, I am conducting a study on *“Organisational restructuring and its impact on job satisfaction, career mobility and stress levels of employees at Lesotho Highlands Development Authority”*.

Executive Summary

As we may be aware, we live in a world of change, where everything becomes much revolutionised. Organisations are also part of that big change especially in the new millennium where re-engineering, downsizing, outsourcing and restructuring have become common terms associated with many organisations.

Based on the above information my study is on how employees perceive organisational restructuring, how it affects their satisfaction, their career developments and whether there is any stress following the process. According to Black and Edward (2000:567), organisational restructuring is defined as *“a major change in the composition of a firm’s assets combined with a major change in its corporate strategy”*. Therefore, I would appreciate if you could be kind to complete this questionnaire and indicate your views.

Instructions

Answer each statement carefully and honestly to decide as to what extent you “agree” or “disagree” with each statement. You are also welcome to add any comments you may have in the allocated spaces.

Most importantly be informed that all information collected will be highly confidential and will only be used for the purposes of this study.

Contact Details

Name : Mahloane Katiso William

E-mail : kater@webmail.co.za

Cell Number : (00266) 58755454 / (0027)833669300

Section A: Demographical and work Information

Instructions: Tick the correct answer by making an **X** in the box of your choice

This section needs the demographical and job information of the respondents.

1. Gender:

Male	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Race:

Black	<input type="checkbox"/>	White	<input type="checkbox"/>	Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>	Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------

3. Your age group:

18 to 25 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
26 to 36 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
37 to 47 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
48 years and above	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Marital status:

Single	<input type="checkbox"/>	Married	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>	Widowed	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------	----------	--------------------------	---------	--------------------------

5. How many children do you have?

6. How long have you been working for the organisation?

7. I work as

Part- time	Full-time
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

employee.

8. Your position within the organisation:

Top management	Middle management	Lower management	Staff

Section B: Organisational restructuring and employee perception

On this section respondents are to point their views on how restructuring affected their position and their perceptions about the process.

Rate your views on restructuring on the following scale by placing an **X** in the block which best describes your feelings

1. Are you aware that your organisation has been restructured? **Yes** **No**

2. Organisational restructuring benefits the organisation.

Benefits

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

 Does not benefit

3. Organisational restructuring benefits the workers.

Benefits

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

 Does not benefit

4. How was your position affected by restructuring?

Promoted	
Demoted	
The same	
Package offered	

5. Do you wish to resign and leave the organisation?

Always		Sometimes		Never	

Perceptions on restructuring	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6. Restructuring made my work easier.					
7. Resources (computer, cars, machinery) are now in abundance because of retrenched employees.					
8. Retrenched employees were of no use to the organisation.					
9. My future with the organisation is not certain.					
10. Providing detailed information about the organisational policy change have beneficiary effects.					
11. All employees should be fully informed about organisational change.					
12. Counseling should be provided throughout the whole					

change process.					
13. Employees resist change if they are anxious about their future with the organisation.					

Section C: Organisational restructuring and employee satisfaction

Section C is on organisational restructuring and how it affects the satisfaction of employees at work.

1. Restructuring resulted in increasing my work load.

Always	Sometimes	Never

2. My co-workers are:

Always supportive

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

 Not supportive

Employee satisfaction	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3. I am comfortable with my current work position.					
4. My supervisor is not effective.					
5. Cutting out other workers has increased my pay and benefits.					
6. Restructuring improved the communication channels between management and employees.					
7. I do not feel relaxed working with new employee(s).					
8. Other means of organisational change like team-work are better than restructuring.					
9. I am now able to get feed-back in time.					
10. My position and efforts are now recognised.					
11. Employees should be involved in organisational policies and decision making.					
12. High responsibility in my job increases satisfaction.					
13. Older (35+) employees are not emotionally affected by restructuring.					
14. Experienced employees do not like organisational change.					
15. Restructuring reduced employee commitment at work.					
16. The higher the occupational level of a worker the higher the satisfaction at work.					
17. Honest and open management reduces employee dissatisfaction.					
18. Dissatisfied employees are less productive.					
19. Absenteeism is a sign of low satisfaction.					

Section D: Organisational restructuring and career mobility and development

The section is on how organisational restructuring affect the career development and adaptations of employees.

1. Operations in the organisation were:

Better before

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

 Better now

Employees' career mobility	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2. I can easily manage career progress.					
3. There is a need for training and development within the organisation.					
4. The organisation has career development opportunities.					
5. Self-employed workers are better because they have full control over their careers.					
6. Restructuring broadened my chances for promotion.					
7. Organisations should provide career training programs.					
8. It is best for employees to take ownership of their own careers.					
9. Restructuring resulted in clear upward career paths.					
10. My organisation offers career development programs.					
11. The personality of a person influences his/her adaptability in his/her career.					
12. Having no control over my career increases dissatisfaction.					
13. Promotion rather than recognition is more preferred by employees.					
14. Restructuring negatively affected my career aspiration.					

Section E: Organisational restructuring and employee stress

This last section is on how organisational restructuring affects the different stress levels of employees.

Yes **No**

1. Did your position change after restructuring?

	Higher position	
--	-----------------	--

	Lower position
--	----------------

2. Are you experiencing any stress with your current position?

High Stress	Moderate Stress	No Stress	Not Sure

Yes **No**

3. Was there any new machinery and technological equipment introduced after restructuring?

--	--

4. How much stress is associated with new technology?

High Stress	Moderate Stress	No Stress	Not Sure

5. I am stressed because of my former co-workers who were retrenched.

High Stress	Moderate Stress	No Stress	Not Sure

6. The following are some of the major causes of stress in the workplace:

True False

	True	False
Use of technology		
Supervisor		
Position		
Work itself		
Co-workers		
Working conditions		

If there are any other stressors, please specify: _____.

Employee Stress	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7. Retrenched employees are better and free from stress.					
8. The organisation considers its interests over those of employees.					
9. I sometimes work over-time to cover my work.					
10. The job demands more from me as compared to my pay.					
11. My work negatively affects the relationship with my family and friends.					
12. Having no full control over my work stresses me.					
13. Insufficient ability to perform my job is stressful.					
14. Unclear scope of responsibility is stressful.					
15. Restructuring negatively affected my career aspiration.					
16. I have a fear of failure in my position.					
17. I am affected by my co-worker who is experiencing stress.					
18. The new structure of the organisation has lowered my self-esteem.					
19. I feel emotionally exhausted by my work.					
20. I feel used up at the end of the work day.					
21. Demoted employees are less stressed.					
22. Not being able to cope with my work increases my chances of being absent.					

-End-

Your participation is highly appreciated.

APPENDIX D: Statistical report

The initial analysis was based on assessing the reliability of the measurement instrument and this showed very high levels of reliability as reflected by Cronbach's alpha values for the whole questionnaire and for the individual sections of the questionnaire. A Cronbach alpha value of at least 0.60 is considered to be reflective of a reliable measurement instrument. In this study the whole questionnaire had a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.84. Highest reliability was detected in Section B of the questionnaire with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.91, followed by Section C with 0.79 and the least reliable was Section D with a value of 0.592, which is equal to 0.60 correct to two decimal places. This makes the whole questionnaire and its subsections acceptably reliable.

The results are presented in the form of one way and two way frequency tables. The chisquare test for independence was used to test for associations between pairs of variables. In the event of an association being detected, the strength and direction were determined using the odds ratios (OR). Shown in the tables below are those variables that had statistically significant associations with the variables. Note that these tests are based on a single degree of freedom chisquare since all variables were collapsed to binary after it had been discovered that uncollapsed variables resulted in very small cell frequencies which might render the chisquare test inapplicable.

The FREQ Procedure

GENDER	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	60	49.59	60	49.59
2	61	50.41	121	100.00

RACE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	121	100.00	121	100.00

AGE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	18	14.88	18	14.88
2	43	35.54	61	50.41
3	42	34.71	103	85.12
4	18	14.88	121	100.00

STATUS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	30	24.79	30	24.79
2	77	63.64	107	88.43
3	8	6.61	115	95.04
4	6	4.96	121	100.00

CONTRACT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	11	9.09	11	9.09
2	110	90.91	121	100.00

POSITION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	9	7.44	9	7.44
2	27	22.31	36	29.75
3	28	23.14	64	52.89
4	57	47.11	121	100.00

AWERENESS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	113	93.39	113	93.39
2	8	6.61	121	100.00

BENEFITSORGANISATION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	19	15.70	19	15.70
2	6	4.96	25	20.66
3	19	15.70	44	36.36

4	15	12.40	59	48.76
5	24	19.83	83	68.60
6	20	16.53	103	85.12
7	18	14.88	121	100.00

BENEFITSEMPLOYEES	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	26	21.49	26	21.49
2	15	12.40	41	33.88
3	24	19.83	65	53.72
4	25	20.66	90	74.38
5	14	11.57	104	85.95
6	10	8.26	114	94.21
7	7	5.79	121	100.00

AFFECTED	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	26	21.49	26	21.49
2	27	22.31	53	43.80
3	61	50.41	114	94.21
4	7	5.79	121	100.00

RESIGN	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	20	16.53	20	16.53
2	76	62.81	96	79.34
3	25	20.66	121	100.0

WORKEASY	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	8	6.61	8	6.61
2	32	26.45	40	33.06
3	25	20.66	65	53.72
4	36	29.75	101	83.47
5	20	16.53	121	100.00

RESOURCES	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	12	9.92	12	9.92
2	19	15.70	31	25.62
3	13	10.74	44	36.36
4	38	31.40	82	67.77
5	39	32.23	121	100.00

NOUSE	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	3	2.48	3	2.48
2	10	8.26	13	10.74
3	24	19.83	37	30.58
4	41	33.88	78	64.46

5 43 35.54 121 100.00

FUTURE	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	26	21.49	26	21.49
2	36	29.75	62	51.24
3	31	25.62	93	76.86
4	19	15.70	112	92.56
5	9	7.44	121	100.00

DETAILEDINFO	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	23	19.01	23	19.01
2	49	40.50	72	59.50
3	30	24.79	102	84.30
4	15	12.40	117	96.69
5	4	3.31	121	100.00

FULLINFO	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	80	66.12	80	66.12
2	36	29.75	116	95.87
3	3	2.48	119	98.35
4	2	1.65	121	100.00

COUNSELLING	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	84	69.42	84	69.42
2	32	26.45	116	95.87
3	3	2.48	119	98.35
4	2	1.65	121	100.00

ANXIETY	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	51	42.15	51	42.15
2	51	42.15	102	84.30
3	9	7.44	111	91.74
4	5	4.13	116	95.87
5	5	4.13	121	100.00

WORKLOAD	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	49	40.50	49	40.50
2	64	52.89	113	93.39
3	8	6.61	121	100.00

	Cumulative		Cumulative	
COWORKERS	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	5	4.13	5	4.13
2	13	10.74	18	14.88
3	11	9.09	29	23.97
4	21	17.36	50	41.32
5	33	27.27	83	68.60
6	23	19.01	106	87.60
7	15	12.40	121	100.00

	Cumulative		Cumulative	
COMFORTABLE	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	10	8.26	10	8.26
2	47	38.84	57	47.11
3	13	10.74	70	57.85
4	32	26.45	102	84.30
5	19	15.70	121	100.00

	Cumulative		Cumulative	
EFFECTIVESUPERVISOR	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	15	12.40	15	12.40
2	30	24.79	45	37.19
3	18	14.88	63	52.07
4	44	36.36	107	88.43
5	14	11.57	121	100.00

	Cumulative		Cumulative	
CUTOUT	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	5	4.13	5	4.13
2	22	18.18	27	22.31
3	12	9.92	39	32.23
4	37	30.58	76	62.81
5	45	37.19	121	100.00

	Cumulative		Cumulative	
COMMUNICATION	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	12	9.92	12	9.92
2	32	26.45	44	36.36
3	11	9.09	55	45.45
4	32	26.45	87	71.90
5	34	28.10	121	100.00

	Cumulative		Cumulative	
NEWEMPLOYEES	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	15	12.40	15	12.40
2	18	14.88	33	27.27
3	16	13.22	49	40.50
4	51	42.15	100	82.64
5	21	17.36	121	100.00

		Cumulative		Cumulative	
TEAMWORK	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
1	28	23.14	28	23.14	
2	32	26.45	60	49.59	
3	26	21.49	86	71.07	
4	25	20.66	111	91.74	
5	10	8.26	121	100.00	

		Cumulative		Cumulative	
FEEDBACK	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
1	12	9.92	12	9.92	
2	41	33.88	53	43.80	
3	13	10.74	66	54.55	
4	35	28.93	101	83.47	
5	20	16.53	121	100.00	

		Cumulative		Cumulative	
EFFORTS	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
1	18	14.88	18	14.88	
2	34	28.10	52	42.98	
3	21	17.36	73	60.33	
4	30	24.79	103	85.12	
5	18	14.88	121	100.00	

		Cumulative		Cumulative	
POLICIES	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
1	65	53.72	65	53.72	
2	41	33.88	106	87.60	
3	3	2.48	109	90.08	
4	11	9.09	120	99.17	
5	1	0.83	121	100.00	

		Cumulative		Cumulative	
RESPONSIBILITY	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
1	36	29.75	36	29.75	
2	55	45.45	91	75.21	
3	14	11.57	105	86.78	
4	14	11.57	119	98.35	
5	2	1.65	121	100.00	

		Cumulative		Cumulative	
OLDAGE	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
1	14	11.57	14	11.57	
2	17	14.05	31	25.62	
3	20	16.53	51	42.15	
4	29	23.97	80	66.12	
5	41	33.88	121	100.00	

EXPERIENCED	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Percent
1	15	12.40	15	12.40
2	31	25.62	46	38.02
3	27	22.31	73	60.33
4	32	26.45	105	86.78
5	16	13.22	121	100.00

COMMITMENT	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Percent
1	23	19.01	23	19.01
2	35	28.93	58	47.93
3	12	9.92	70	57.85
4	41	33.88	111	91.74
5	10	8.26	121	100.00

LEVEL	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Percent
1	31	25.62	31	25.62
2	47	38.84	78	64.46
3	25	20.66	103	85.12
4	14	11.57	117	96.69
5	4	3.31	121	100.00

HONESTY	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Percent
1	61	50.41	61	50.41
2	45	37.19	106	87.60
3	7	5.79	113	93.39
4	4	3.31	117	96.69
5	4	3.31	121	100.00

LESSPRODUCTIVE	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Percent
1	70	57.85	70	57.85
2	32	26.45	102	84.30
3	5	4.13	107	88.43
4	9	7.44	116	95.87
5	5	4.13	121	100.00

ABSENTEEISM	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Percent
1	41	33.88	41	33.88
2	49	40.50	90	74.38
3	11	9.09	101	83.47
4	10	8.26	111	91.74
5	10	8.26	121	100.00

OPERATIONS	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	14	11.57	14	11.57
2	15	12.40	29	23.97
3	6	4.96	35	28.93
4	18	14.88	53	43.80
5	29	23.97	82	67.77
6	17	14.05	99	81.82
7	22	18.18	121	100.00

MANAGECAREER	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	14	11.57	14	11.57
2	58	47.93	72	59.50
3	22	18.18	94	77.69
4	21	17.36	115	95.04
5	6	4.96	121	100.00

TRAINING	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	55	45.45	55	45.45
2	54	44.63	109	90.08
3	6	4.96	115	95.04
4	2	1.65	117	96.69
5	4	3.31	121	100.00

OPPORTUNITIES	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	17	14.05	17	14.05
2	50	41.32	67	55.37
3	17	14.05	84	69.42
4	23	19.01	107	88.43
5	14	11.57	121	100.00

SELFEMPLOYED	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	38	31.40	38	31.40
2	40	33.06	78	64.46
3	26	21.49	104	85.95
4	13	10.74	117	96.69
5	4	3.31	121	100.00

PROMOTION	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	22	18.18	22	18.18
2	31	25.62	53	43.80
3	24	19.83	77	63.64
4	29	23.97	106	87.60
5	15	12.40	121	100.00

Cumulative Cumulative

PROGRAMS	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	64	52.89	64	52.89
2	46	38.02	110	90.91
3	4	3.31	114	94.21
4	5	4.13	119	98.35
5	2	1.65	121	100.00

OWNERSHIP	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	40	33.06	40	33.06
2	47	38.84	87	71.90
3	9	7.44	96	79.34
4	19	15.70	115	95.04
5	6	4.96	121	100.00

UPWARDSCAREER	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	11	9.09	11	9.09
2	35	28.93	46	38.02
3	34	28.10	80	66.12
4	26	21.49	106	87.60
5	15	12.40	121	100.00

CAREERDEVELOPMENT	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	20	16.53	20	16.53
2	34	28.10	54	44.63
3	18	14.88	72	59.50
4	30	24.79	102	84.30
5	19	15.70	121	100.00

PERSONALITY	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	31	25.62	31	25.62
2	56	46.28	87	71.90
3	18	14.88	105	86.78
4	14	11.57	119	98.35
5	2	1.65	121	100.00

NOCONTROL	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	32	26.45	32	26.45
2	61	50.41	93	76.86
3	15	12.40	108	89.26
4	6	4.96	114	94.21
5	7	5.79	121	100.00

PREFERENCE	Cumulative		Cumulative	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	29	23.97	29	23.97
2	53	43.80	82	67.77
3	16	13.22	98	80.99
4	20	16.53	118	97.52
5	3	2.48	121	100.00

ASPIRATIONS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	25	20.66	25	20.66
2	36	29.75	61	50.41
3	21	17.36	82	67.77
4	30	24.79	112	92.56
5	9	7.44	121	100.00

POSITIONCHANGE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	29	23.97	29	23.97
2	70	57.85	99	81.82
3	22	18.18	121	100.00

CURRENTPOSITION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	39	32.23	39	32.23
2	50	41.32	89	73.55
3	22	18.18	111	91.74
4	10	8.26	121	100.00

NEWMACHINERY	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	39	32.23	39	32.23
2	82	67.77	121	100.00

NEWTECHNOLOGY	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	29	23.97	29	23.97
2	38	31.40	67	55.37
3	33	27.27	100	82.64
4	21	17.36	121	100.00

FORMERCOWORKERS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	20	16.53	20	16.53
2	36	29.75	56	46.28
3	30	24.79	86	71.07
4	35	28.93	121	100.00

RETRENCHED	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	24	19.83	24	19.83
2	21	17.36	45	37.19
3	28	23.14	73	60.33
4	30	24.79	103	85.12
5	18	14.88	121	100.00

INTERESTS	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	36	29.75	36	29.75
2	51	42.15	87	71.90
3	14	11.57	101	83.47
4	15	12.40	116	95.87
5	5	4.13	121	100.00

OVERTIME	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	31	25.62	31	25.62
2	67	55.37	98	80.99
3	5	4.13	103	85.12
4	9	7.44	112	92.56
5	9	7.44	121	100.00

JOBDEMANDS	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	42	34.71	42	34.71
2	49	40.50	91	75.21
3	7	5.79	98	80.99
4	20	16.53	118	97.52
5	3	2.48	121	100.00

FAMILY	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	30	24.79	30	24.79
2	46	38.02	76	62.81
3	14	11.57	90	74.38
4	25	20.66	115	95.04
5	6	4.96	121	100.00

FULLCONTROL	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	31	25.62	31	25.62
2	63	52.07	94	77.69
3	12	9.92	106	87.60
4	13	10.74	119	98.35
5	2	1.65	121	100.00

ABILITY	Frequency	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	33	27.27	33	27.27
2	64	52.89	97	80.17
3	9	7.44	106	87.60
4	12	9.92	118	97.52
5	3	2.48	121	100.00

			Cumulative	Cumulative
CAREERASPIRATION	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	16	13.22	16	13.22
2	46	38.02	62	51.24
3	21	17.36	83	68.60
4	33	27.27	116	95.87
5	5	4.13	121	100.00

			Cumulative	Cumulative
FAILURE	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	20	16.53	20	16.53
2	37	30.58	57	47.11
3	9	7.44	66	54.55
4	44	36.36	110	90.91
5	11	9.09	121	100.00

			Cumulative	Cumulative
COWORKERSTRESS	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	16	13.22	16	13.22
2	52	42.98	68	56.20
3	21	17.36	89	73.55
4	29	23.97	118	97.52
5	3	2.48	121	100.00

			Cumulative	Cumulative
STRUCTURE	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	21	17.36	21	17.36
2	35	28.93	56	46.28
3	17	14.05	73	60.33
4	41	33.88	114	94.21
5	7	5.79	121	100.00

			Cumulative	Cumulative
EMOTIONALLYEXHAUSTED	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	15	12.40	15	12.40
2	47	38.84	62	51.24
3	15	12.40	77	63.64
4	32	26.45	109	90.08
5	12	9.92	121	100.00

			Cumulative	Cumulative
USEDUP	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	16	13.22	16	13.22
2	38	31.40	54	44.63
3	11	9.09	65	53.72
4	40	33.06	105	86.78
5	16	13.22	121	100.00

DEMOTED	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	9	7.44	9	7.44
2	20	16.53	29	23.97
3	13	10.74	42	34.71
4	32	26.45	74	61.16
5	47	38.84	121	100.00

COPING	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	20	16.53	20	16.53
2	47	38.84	67	55.37
3	12	9.92	79	65.29
4	24	19.83	103	85.12
5	18	14.88	121	100.00

The SAS System

The FREQ Procedure

Table of AFFECTED by RESIGN

AFFECTED	RESIGN			Total
Frequency,				
Percent ,				
Row Pct ,				
Col Pct ,	1,	2,	3,	Total
1,	3,	12,	11,	26
, 2.48,	9.92,	9.09,	21.49	
, 11.54,	46.15,	42.31,		
, 15.00,	15.79,	44.00,		
2,	6,	16,	5,	27
, 4.96,	13.22,	4.13,	22.31	
, 22.22,	59.26,	18.52,		
, 30.00,	21.05,	20.00,		
3,	11,	42,	8,	61
, 9.09,	34.71,	6.61,	50.41	
, 18.03,	68.85,	13.11,		
, 55.00,	55.26,	32.00,		
4,	0,	6,	1,	7
, 0.00,	4.96,	0.83,	5.79	
, 0.00,	85.71,	14.29,		
, 0.00,	7.89,	4.00,		
Total	20	76	25	121
	16.53	62.81	20.66	100.00

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by RESIGN

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	6	12.0791	0.0402
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	6	12.1628	0.0484
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	3.4219	0.0643
Phi Coefficient		0.3160	
Contingency Coefficient		0.3013	
Cramer's V		0.2234	

Table of AFFECTED by WORKEASY

AFFECTED WORKEASY

Frequency,
Percent ,

Row Pct	Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	3	7	3	12	1	26	
		2.48	5.79	2.48	9.92	0.83	21.49
		11.54	26.92	11.54	46.15	3.85	
		37.50	21.88	12.00	33.33	5.00	
2	0	5	5	5	12	27	
		0.00	4.13	4.13	4.13	9.92	22.31
		0.00	18.52	18.52	18.52	44.44	
		0.00	15.63	20.00	13.89	60.00	
3	5	17	16	18	5	61	
		4.13	14.05	13.22	14.88	4.13	50.41
		8.20	27.87	26.23	29.51	8.20	
		62.50	53.13	64.00	50.00	25.00	
4	0	3	1	1	2	7	
		0.00	2.48	0.83	0.83	1.65	5.79
		0.00	42.86	14.29	14.29	28.57	
		0.00	9.38	4.00	2.78	10.00	
Total	8	32	25	36	20	121	
		6.61	26.45	20.66	29.75	16.53	100.00

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by WORKEASY

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	29.4943	0.0033
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	29.1944	0.0037
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.3914	0.5316
Phi Coefficient		0.4937	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4427	
Cramer's V		0.2850	

Table of AFFECTED by FUTURE

AFFECTED	FUTURE	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	3	6	3	10	4	26	
		2.48	4.96	2.48	8.26	3.31	21.49
		11.54	23.08	11.54	38.46	15.38	
		11.54	16.67	9.68	52.63	44.44	
2	9	7	6	2	3	27	
		7.44	5.79	4.96	1.65	2.48	22.31
		33.33	25.93	22.22	7.41	11.11	
		34.62	19.44	19.35	10.53	33.33	
3	13	21	19	7	1	61	
		10.74	17.36	15.70	5.79	0.83	50.41
		21.31	34.43	31.15	11.48	1.64	
		50.00	58.33	61.29	36.84	11.11	

```

ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
4, 1, 2, 3, 0, 1, 7
, 0.83, 1.65, 2.48, 0.00, 0.83, 5.79
, 14.29, 28.57, 42.86, 0.00, 14.29,
, 3.85, 5.56, 9.68, 0.00, 11.11,
ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
Total 26 36 31 19 9 121
21.49 29.75 25.62 15.70 7.44 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by FUTURE

```

Statistic      DF  Value  Prob
ffffffffff~
Chi-Square      12  25.2265  0.0138
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square  12  25.1744  0.0140
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  1   5.4357  0.0197
Phi Coefficient      0.4566
Contingency Coefficient      0.4154
Cramer's V          0.2636

```

Table of AFFECTED by WORKLOAD

AFFECTED WORKLOAD

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, Total
ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
1, 12, 13, 1, 26
, 9.92, 10.74, 0.83, 21.49
, 46.15, 50.00, 3.85,
, 24.49, 20.31, 12.50,
ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
2, 15, 10, 2, 27
, 12.40, 8.26, 1.65, 22.31
, 55.56, 37.04, 7.41,
, 30.61, 15.63, 25.00,
ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
3, 16, 40, 5, 61
, 13.22, 33.06, 4.13, 50.41
, 26.23, 65.57, 8.20,
, 32.65, 62.50, 62.50,
ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
4, 6, 1, 0, 7
, 4.96, 0.83, 0.00, 5.79
, 85.71, 14.29, 0.00,
, 12.24, 1.56, 0.00,
ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~ffffffffff~
Total 49 64 8 121
40.50 52.89 6.61 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by WORKLOAD

```

Statistic      DF  Value  Prob
ffffffffff~

```

Chi-Square 6 14.4908 0.0246
 Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 6 15.2302 0.0185
 Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 0.6199 0.4311
 Phi Coefficient 0.3461
 Contingency Coefficient 0.3270
 Cramer's V 0.2447

Table of AFFECTED by COWORKERS

AFFECTED COWORKERS

Frequency,
 Percent ,
 Row Pct ,
 Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, Total

```

  ~~~~~~
  1, 1, 1, 3, 3, 10, 3, 5, 26
  , 0.83, 0.83, 2.48, 2.48, 8.26, 2.48, 4.13, 21.49
  , 3.85, 3.85, 11.54, 11.54, 38.46, 11.54, 19.23,
  , 20.00, 7.69, 27.27, 14.29, 30.30, 13.04, 33.33,
  ~~~~~~
  2, 2, 8, 4, 5, 4, 3, 1, 27
  , 1.65, 6.61, 3.31, 4.13, 3.31, 2.48, 0.83, 22.31
  , 7.41, 29.63, 14.81, 18.52, 14.81, 11.11, 3.70,
  , 40.00, 61.54, 36.36, 23.81, 12.12, 13.04, 6.67,
  ~~~~~~
  3, 2, 3, 3, 13, 17, 14, 9, 61
  , 1.65, 2.48, 2.48, 10.74, 14.05, 11.57, 7.44, 50.41
  , 3.28, 4.92, 4.92, 21.31, 27.87, 22.95, 14.75,
  , 40.00, 23.08, 27.27, 61.90, 51.52, 60.87, 60.00,
  ~~~~~~
  4, 0, 1, 1, 0, 2, 3, 0, 7
  , 0.00, 0.83, 0.83, 0.00, 1.65, 2.48, 0.00, 5.79
  , 0.00, 14.29, 14.29, 0.00, 28.57, 42.86, 0.00,
  , 0.00, 7.69, 9.09, 0.00, 6.06, 13.04, 0.00,
  ~~~~~~
  Total 5 13 11 21 33 23 15 121
  4.13 10.74 9.09 17.36 27.27 19.01 12.40 100.00
  
```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by COWORKERS

Statistic DF Value Prob
 ~~~~~~  
 Chi-Square 18 28.7913 0.0510  
 Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 18 29.3786 0.0439  
 Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 0.8545 0.3553  
 Phi Coefficient 0.4878  
 Contingency Coefficient 0.4384  
 Cramer's V 0.2816

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of AFFECTED by COMFORTABLE

AFFECTED COMFORTABLE

Frequency,  
Percent ,  
Row Pct ,  
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total

```

    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    1, 5, 12, 2, 7, 0, 26
      , 4.13, 9.92, 1.65, 5.79, 0.00, 21.49
      , 19.23, 46.15, 7.69, 26.92, 0.00,
      , 50.00, 25.53, 15.38, 21.88, 0.00,
    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    2, 1, 4, 3, 10, 9, 27
      , 0.83, 3.31, 2.48, 8.26, 7.44, 22.31
      , 3.70, 14.81, 11.11, 37.04, 33.33,
      , 10.00, 8.51, 23.08, 31.25, 47.37,
    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    3, 4, 29, 7, 14, 7, 61
      , 3.31, 23.97, 5.79, 11.57, 5.79, 50.41
      , 6.56, 47.54, 11.48, 22.95, 11.48,
      , 40.00, 61.70, 53.85, 43.75, 36.84,
    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    4, 0, 2, 1, 1, 3, 7
      , 0.00, 1.65, 0.83, 0.83, 2.48, 5.79
      , 0.00, 28.57, 14.29, 14.29, 42.86,
      , 0.00, 4.26, 7.69, 3.13, 15.79,
    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    Total 10 47 13 32 19 121
          8.26 38.84 10.74 26.45 15.70 100.00
  
```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by COMFORTABLE

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 26.5761 | 0.0089 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 29.2338 | 0.0036 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 1.4142  | 0.2344 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4687  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4244  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2706  |        |

Table of AFFECTED by COMMUNICATION

AFFECTED COMMUNICATION

Frequency,  
Percent ,  
Row Pct ,  
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total

```

    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    1, 7, 7, 3, 7, 2, 26
      , 5.79, 5.79, 2.48, 5.79, 1.65, 21.49
      , 26.92, 26.92, 11.54, 26.92, 7.69,
      , 58.33, 21.88, 27.27, 21.88, 5.88,
    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
    2, 2, 4, 2, 3, 16, 27
      , 1.65, 3.31, 1.65, 2.48, 13.22, 22.31
      , 7.41, 14.81, 7.41, 11.11, 59.26,
      , 16.67, 12.50, 18.18, 9.38, 47.06,
    ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff
  
```

|                                                                 |          |        |        |        |        |        |    |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|----|
|                                                                 | 3,       | 3,     | 20,    | 5,     | 19,    | 14,    | 61 |
|                                                                 | , 2.48,  | 16.53, | 4.13,  | 15.70, | 11.57, | 50.41  |    |
|                                                                 | , 4.92,  | 32.79, | 8.20,  | 31.15, | 22.95, |        |    |
|                                                                 | , 25.00, | 62.50, | 45.45, | 59.38, | 41.18, |        |    |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |          |        |        |        |        |        |    |
|                                                                 | 4,       | 0,     | 1,     | 1,     | 3,     | 2,     | 7  |
|                                                                 | , 0.00,  | 0.83,  | 0.83,  | 2.48,  | 1.65,  | 5.79   |    |
|                                                                 | , 0.00,  | 14.29, | 14.29, | 42.86, | 28.57, |        |    |
|                                                                 | , 0.00,  | 3.13,  | 9.09,  | 9.38,  | 5.88,  |        |    |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |          |        |        |        |        |        |    |
| Total                                                           | 12       | 32     | 11     | 32     | 34     | 121    |    |
|                                                                 | 9.92     | 26.45  | 9.09   | 26.45  | 28.10  | 100.00 |    |

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by COMMUNICATION

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 30.5886 | 0.0023 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 29.3220 | 0.0035 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 3.4469  | 0.0634 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.5028  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4492  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2903  |        |

Table of AFFECTED by FEEDBACK

AFFECTED FEEDBACK

| Frequency,                                                      | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,     | 2,    | 3,     | 4, | 5, | Total |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|-------|--------|----|----|-------|
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 1,                                                              | 5,        | 14,       | 2,        | 5,     | 0,    | 26     |    |    |       |
| , 4.13,                                                         | 11.57,    | 1.65,     | 4.13,     | 0.00,  | 21.49 |        |    |    |       |
| , 19.23,                                                        | 53.85,    | 7.69,     | 19.23,    | 0.00,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 41.67,                                                        | 34.15,    | 15.38,    | 14.29,    | 0.00,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 2,                                                              | 3,        | 5,        | 1,        | 8,     | 10,   | 27     |    |    |       |
| , 2.48,                                                         | 4.13,     | 0.83,     | 6.61,     | 8.26,  | 22.31 |        |    |    |       |
| , 11.11,                                                        | 18.52,    | 3.70,     | 29.63,    | 37.04, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 25.00,                                                        | 12.20,    | 7.69,     | 22.86,    | 50.00, |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 3,                                                              | 4,        | 18,       | 10,       | 20,    | 9,    | 61     |    |    |       |
| , 3.31,                                                         | 14.88,    | 8.26,     | 16.53,    | 7.44,  | 50.41 |        |    |    |       |
| , 6.56,                                                         | 29.51,    | 16.39,    | 32.79,    | 14.75, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 33.33,                                                        | 43.90,    | 76.92,    | 57.14,    | 45.00, |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 4,                                                              | 0,        | 4,        | 0,        | 2,     | 1,    | 7      |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,                                                         | 3.31,     | 0.00,     | 1.65,     | 0.83,  | 5.79  |        |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,                                                         | 57.14,    | 0.00,     | 28.57,    | 14.29, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,                                                         | 9.76,     | 0.00,     | 5.71,     | 5.00,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| Total                                                           | 12        | 41        | 13        | 35     | 20    | 121    |    |    |       |
|                                                                 | 9.92      | 33.88     | 10.74     | 28.93  | 16.53 | 100.00 |    |    |       |

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by FEEDBACK

| Statistic                                                       | DF | Value | Prob |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|----|-------|------|
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |    |       |      |

|                             |    |         |        |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 26.6074 | 0.0088 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 30.1742 | 0.0026 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 4.5082  | 0.0337 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4689  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4246  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2707  |        |

Table of AFFECTED by EFFORTS

AFFECTED    EFFORTS

| Frequency,                                                      | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,     | 2,    | 3,     | 4, | 5, | Total |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|-------|--------|----|----|-------|
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 1,                                                              | 6,        | 11,       | 4,        | 4,     | 1,    | 26     |    |    |       |
| , 4.96,                                                         | 9.09,     | 3.31,     | 3.31,     | 0.83,  | 21.49 |        |    |    |       |
| , 23.08,                                                        | 42.31,    | 15.38,    | 15.38,    | 3.85,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 33.33,                                                        | 32.35,    | 19.05,    | 13.33,    | 5.56,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 2,                                                              | 4,        | 6,        | 2,        | 6,     | 9,    | 27     |    |    |       |
| , 3.31,                                                         | 4.96,     | 1.65,     | 4.96,     | 7.44,  | 22.31 |        |    |    |       |
| , 14.81,                                                        | 22.22,    | 7.41,     | 22.22,    | 33.33, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 22.22,                                                        | 17.65,    | 9.52,     | 20.00,    | 50.00, |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 3,                                                              | 5,        | 16,       | 14,       | 19,    | 7,    | 61     |    |    |       |
| , 4.13,                                                         | 13.22,    | 11.57,    | 15.70,    | 5.79,  | 50.41 |        |    |    |       |
| , 8.20,                                                         | 26.23,    | 22.95,    | 31.15,    | 11.48, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 27.78,                                                        | 47.06,    | 66.67,    | 63.33,    | 38.89, |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| 4,                                                              | 3,        | 1,        | 1,        | 1,     | 1,    | 7      |    |    |       |
| , 2.48,                                                         | 0.83,     | 0.83,     | 0.83,     | 0.83,  | 5.79  |        |    |    |       |
| , 42.86,                                                        | 14.29,    | 14.29,    | 14.29,    | 14.29, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 16.67,                                                        | 2.94,     | 4.76,     | 3.33,     | 5.56,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |           |           |           |        |       |        |    |    |       |
| Total                                                           | 18        | 34        | 21        | 30     | 18    | 121    |    |    |       |
|                                                                 | 14.88     | 28.10     | 17.36     | 24.79  | 14.88 | 100.00 |    |    |       |

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by EFFORTS

| Statistic                                                       | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| <i>ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff</i> |    |         |        |
| Chi-Square                                                      | 12 | 23.2672 | 0.0255 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square                                     | 12 | 21.8593 | 0.0391 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square                                      | 1  | 1.8835  | 0.1699 |
| Phi Coefficient                                                 |    | 0.4385  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient                                         |    | 0.4016  |        |
| Cramer's V                                                      |    | 0.2532  |        |

Table of AFFECTED by COMMITMENT

AFFECTED    COMMITMENT

| Frequency, | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1, | 2, | 3, | 4, | 5, | Total |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----|----|----|----|----|-------|
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----|----|----|----|----|-------|

```

ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
1, 2, 8, 4, 10, 2, 26
, 1.65, 6.61, 3.31, 8.26, 1.65, 21.49
, 7.69, 30.77, 15.38, 38.46, 7.69,
, 8.70, 22.86, 33.33, 24.39, 20.00,
ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
2, 9, 8, 4, 3, 3, 27
, 7.44, 6.61, 3.31, 2.48, 2.48, 22.31
, 33.33, 29.63, 14.81, 11.11, 11.11,
, 39.13, 22.86, 33.33, 7.32, 30.00,
ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
3, 8, 18, 4, 26, 5, 61
, 6.61, 14.88, 3.31, 21.49, 4.13, 50.41
, 13.11, 29.51, 6.56, 42.62, 8.20,
, 34.78, 51.43, 33.33, 63.41, 50.00,
ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
4, 4, 1, 0, 2, 0, 7
, 3.31, 0.83, 0.00, 1.65, 0.00, 5.79
, 57.14, 14.29, 0.00, 28.57, 0.00,
, 17.39, 2.86, 0.00, 4.88, 0.00,
Total 23 35 12 41 10 121
19.01 28.93 9.92 33.88 8.26 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by COMMITMENT

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 21.1029 | 0.0489 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 21.9525 | 0.0381 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 0.2145  | 0.6433 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4176  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3854  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2411  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of AFFECTED by PROMOTION

```

AFFECTED  PROMOTION
Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
1, 9, 13, 2, 2, 0, 26
, 7.44, 10.74, 1.65, 1.65, 0.00, 21.49
, 34.62, 50.00, 7.69, 7.69, 0.00,
, 40.91, 41.94, 8.33, 6.90, 0.00,
ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
2, 4, 3, 5, 7, 8, 27
, 3.31, 2.48, 4.13, 5.79, 6.61, 22.31
, 14.81, 11.11, 18.52, 25.93, 29.63,
, 18.18, 9.68, 20.83, 24.14, 53.33,
ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~ffffff~
3, 6, 13, 16, 19, 7, 61
, 4.96, 10.74, 13.22, 15.70, 5.79, 50.41
, 9.84, 21.31, 26.23, 31.15, 11.48,

```



Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 0.0117 0.9137  
 Phi Coefficient 0.4181  
 Contingency Coefficient 0.3858  
 Cramer's V 0.2414

The FREQ Procedure

Table of AFFECTED by POSITIONCHANGE

| AFFECTED     | POSITIONCHANGE |        |        | Total  |
|--------------|----------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Frequency,   |                |        |        |        |
| Percent ,    |                |        |        |        |
| Row Pct ,    |                |        |        |        |
| Col Pct ,    | 1,             | 2,     | 3,     | Total  |
| <i>~~~~~</i> |                |        |        |        |
| 1,           | 19,            | 5,     | 2,     | 26     |
|              | 15.70,         | 4.13,  | 1.65,  | 21.49  |
|              | 73.08,         | 19.23, | 7.69,  |        |
|              | 65.52,         | 7.14,  | 9.09,  |        |
| <i>~~~~~</i> |                |        |        |        |
| 2,           | 5,             | 6,     | 16,    | 27     |
|              | 4.13,          | 4.96,  | 13.22, | 22.31  |
|              | 18.52,         | 22.22, | 59.26, |        |
|              | 17.24,         | 8.57,  | 72.73, |        |
| <i>~~~~~</i> |                |        |        |        |
| 3,           | 2,             | 56,    | 3,     | 61     |
|              | 1.65,          | 46.28, | 2.48,  | 50.41  |
|              | 3.28,          | 91.80, | 4.92,  |        |
|              | 6.90,          | 80.00, | 13.64, |        |
| <i>~~~~~</i> |                |        |        |        |
| 4,           | 3,             | 3,     | 1,     | 7      |
|              | 2.48,          | 2.48,  | 0.83,  | 5.79   |
|              | 42.86,         | 42.86, | 14.29, |        |
|              | 10.34,         | 4.29,  | 4.55,  |        |
| <i>~~~~~</i> |                |        |        |        |
| Total        | 29             | 70     | 22     | 121    |
|              | 23.97          | 57.85  | 18.18  | 100.00 |

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by POSITIONCHANGE

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| <i>~~~~~</i>                |    |         |        |
| Chi-Square                  | 6  | 96.0802 | <.0001 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 6  | 88.7784 | <.0001 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 7.0639  | 0.0079 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.8911  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.6653  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.6301  |        |

Table of AFFECTED by NEWMACHINARY

AFFECTED NEWMACHINARY

Frequency,  
 Percent ,  
 Row Pct ,  
 Col Pct , 1, 2, Total  
*~~~~~*

```

1, 12, 14, 26
, 9.92, 11.57, 21.49
, 46.15, 53.85,
, 30.77, 17.07,
~~~~~
2, 3, 24, 27
, 2.48, 19.83, 22.31
, 11.11, 88.89,
, 7.69, 29.27,
~~~~~
3, 21, 40, 61
, 17.36, 33.06, 50.41
, 34.43, 65.57,
, 53.85, 48.78,
~~~~~
4, 3, 4, 7
, 2.48, 3.31, 5.79
, 42.86, 57.14,
, 7.69, 4.88,
~~~~~
Total 39 82 121
32.23 67.77 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by NEWMACHINARY

| Statistic                   | DF | Value  | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|--------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 3  | 8.3175 | 0.0399 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 3  | 9.2879 | 0.0257 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 0.0300 | 0.8624 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.2622 |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.2536 |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2622 |        |

The FREQ Procedure

Table of AFFECTED by FULLCONTROL

```

AFFECTED  FULLCONTROL
Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
~~~~~
1, 4, 14, 6, 2, 0, 26
, 3.31, 11.57, 4.96, 1.65, 0.00, 21.49
, 15.38, 53.85, 23.08, 7.69, 0.00,
, 12.90, 22.22, 50.00, 15.38, 0.00,
~~~~~
2, 8, 14, 3, 0, 2, 27
, 6.61, 11.57, 2.48, 0.00, 1.65, 22.31
, 29.63, 51.85, 11.11, 0.00, 7.41,
, 25.81, 22.22, 25.00, 0.00, 100.00,
~~~~~
3, 15, 33, 3, 10, 0, 61
, 12.40, 27.27, 2.48, 8.26, 0.00, 50.41
, 24.59, 54.10, 4.92, 16.39, 0.00,
, 48.39, 52.38, 25.00, 76.92, 0.00,

```

```

#####
4, 4, 2, 0, 1, 0, 7
, 3.31, 1.65, 0.00, 0.83, 0.00, 5.79
, 57.14, 28.57, 0.00, 14.29, 0.00,
, 12.90, 3.17, 0.00, 7.69, 0.00,
#####
Total 31 63 12 13 2 121
 25.62 52.07 9.92 10.74 1.65 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of AFFECTED by FULLCONTROL

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 23.5729 | 0.0232 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 24.6785 | 0.0164 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 0.5963  | 0.4400 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4414  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4038  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2548  |        |

The SAS System  
The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by BENEFITSEMPLOYEES

POSITIONCHANGE  
BENEFITSEMPLOYEES

Frequency,  
Percent ,  
Row Pct ,  
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, Total

```

 ff
 1, 4, 2, 3, 6, 5, 4, 5, 29
 , 3.31, 1.65, 2.48, 4.96, 4.13, 3.31, 4.13, 23.97
 , 13.79, 6.90, 10.34, 20.69, 17.24, 13.79, 17.24,
 , 15.38, 13.33, 12.50, 24.00, 35.71, 40.00, 71.43,
 ff
 2, 17, 7, 16, 15, 7, 6, 2, 70
 , 14.05, 5.79, 13.22, 12.40, 5.79, 4.96, 1.65, 57.85
 , 24.29, 10.00, 22.86, 21.43, 10.00, 8.57, 2.86,
 , 65.38, 46.67, 66.67, 60.00, 50.00, 60.00, 28.57,
 ff
 3, 5, 6, 5, 4, 2, 0, 0, 22
 , 4.13, 4.96, 4.13, 3.31, 1.65, 0.00, 0.00, 18.18
 , 22.73, 27.27, 22.73, 18.18, 9.09, 0.00, 0.00,
 , 19.23, 40.00, 20.83, 16.00, 14.29, 0.00, 0.00,
 ff
 Total 26 15 24 25 14 10 7 121
 21.49 12.40 19.83 20.66 11.57 8.26 5.79 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by BENEFITSEMPLOYEES

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 20.7066 | 0.0448 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 20.9824 | 0.0506 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 11.6026 | 0.0007 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4137  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3823  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2925  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by RESIGN

POSITIONCHANGE  
RESIGN

Frequency,

```

Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, Total
~~~~~
1, 2, 16, 11, 29
, 1.65, 13.22, 9.09, 23.97
, 6.90, 55.17, 37.93,
, 10.00, 21.05, 44.00,
~~~~~
2, 10, 50, 10, 70
, 8.26, 41.32, 8.26, 57.85
, 14.29, 71.43, 14.29,
, 50.00, 65.79, 40.00,
~~~~~
3, 8, 10, 4, 22
, 6.61, 8.26, 3.31, 18.18
, 36.36, 45.45, 18.18,
, 40.00, 13.16, 16.00,
~~~~~
Total 20 76 25 121
16.53 62.81 20.66 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by RESIGN

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
~~~~~
Chi-Square           4  14.8583  0.0050
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square  4  13.4064  0.0095
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  1  8.5546  0.0034
Phi Coefficient           0.3504
Contingency Coefficient     0.3307
Cramer's V              0.2478

```

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by WORKEASY

POSITIONCHANGE  
WORKEASY

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
~~~~~
1, 4, 8, 2, 12, 3, 29
, 3.31, 6.61, 1.65, 9.92, 2.48, 23.97
, 13.79, 27.59, 6.90, 41.38, 10.34,
, 50.00, 25.00, 8.00, 33.33, 15.00,
~~~~~
2, 3, 22, 18, 20, 7, 70
, 2.48, 18.18, 14.88, 16.53, 5.79, 57.85
, 4.29, 31.43, 25.71, 28.57, 10.00,
, 37.50, 68.75, 72.00, 55.56, 35.00,
~~~~~
3, 1, 2, 5, 4, 10, 22
, 0.83, 1.65, 4.13, 3.31, 8.26, 18.18

```

```

, 4.55, 9.09, 22.73, 18.18, 45.45,
, 12.50, 6.25, 20.00, 11.11, 50.00,
ff
Total 8 32 25 36 20 121
 6.61 26.45 20.66 29.75 16.53 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by WORKEASY

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
ff
Chi-Square 8 25.6768 0.0012
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 8 23.7138 0.0026
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 5.2615 0.0218
Phi Coefficient 0.4607
Contingency Coefficient 0.4184
Cramer's V 0.3257

```

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by RESOURCES

POSITIONCHANGE  
RESOURCES

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
ff
1, 7, 3, 3, 6, 10, 29
, 5.79, 2.48, 2.48, 4.96, 8.26, 23.97
, 24.14, 10.34, 10.34, 20.69, 34.48,
, 58.33, 15.79, 23.08, 15.79, 25.64,
ff
2, 4, 15, 7, 27, 17, 70
, 3.31, 12.40, 5.79, 22.31, 14.05, 57.85
, 5.71, 21.43, 10.00, 38.57, 24.29,
, 33.33, 78.95, 53.85, 71.05, 43.59,
ff
3, 1, 1, 3, 5, 12, 22
, 0.83, 0.83, 2.48, 4.13, 9.92, 18.18
, 4.55, 4.55, 13.64, 22.73, 54.55,
, 8.33, 5.26, 23.08, 13.16, 30.77,
ff
Total 12 19 13 38 39 121
 9.92 15.70 10.74 31.40 32.23 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by RESOURCES

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
ff
Chi-Square 8 19.2958 0.0134
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 8 18.2352 0.0195
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 4.9240 0.0265
Phi Coefficient 0.3993
Contingency Coefficient 0.3709

```

Cramer's V 0.2824

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by FUTURE

POSITIONCHANGE  
FUTURE

| Frequency, | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,     | 2,    | 3,     | 4, | 5, | Total |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|-------|--------|----|----|-------|
| 1,         | 4,        | 4,        | 5,        | 10,    | 6,    | 29     |    |    |       |
| , 3.31,    | 3.31,     | 4.13,     | 8.26,     | 4.96,  | 23.97 |        |    |    |       |
| , 13.79,   | 13.79,    | 17.24,    | 34.48,    | 20.69, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 15.38,   | 11.11,    | 16.13,    | 52.63,    | 66.67, |       |        |    |    |       |
| 2,         | 15,       | 26,       | 18,       | 8,     | 3,    | 70     |    |    |       |
| , 12.40,   | 21.49,    | 14.88,    | 6.61,     | 2.48,  | 57.85 |        |    |    |       |
| , 21.43,   | 37.14,    | 25.71,    | 11.43,    | 4.29,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 57.69,   | 72.22,    | 58.06,    | 42.11,    | 33.33, |       |        |    |    |       |
| 3,         | 7,        | 6,        | 8,        | 1,     | 0,    | 22     |    |    |       |
| , 5.79,    | 4.96,     | 6.61,     | 0.83,     | 0.00,  | 18.18 |        |    |    |       |
| , 31.82,   | 27.27,    | 36.36,    | 4.55,     | 0.00,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 26.92,   | 16.67,    | 25.81,    | 5.26,     | 0.00,  |       |        |    |    |       |
| Total      | 26        | 36        | 31        | 19     | 9     | 121    |    |    |       |
|            | 21.49     | 29.75     | 25.62     | 15.70  | 7.44  | 100.00 |    |    |       |

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by FUTURE

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 25.9813 | 0.0011 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 25.1241 | 0.0015 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 13.9546 | 0.0002 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4634  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4204  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.3277  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by ANXIETY

POSITIONCHANGE

ANXIETY

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
#####
1, 14, 11, 1, 3, 0, 29
, 11.57, 9.09, 0.83, 2.48, 0.00, 23.97
, 48.28, 37.93, 3.45, 10.34, 0.00,
, 27.45, 21.57, 11.11, 60.00, 0.00,
#####
2, 33, 28, 6, 0, 3, 70
, 27.27, 23.14, 4.96, 0.00, 2.48, 57.85
, 47.14, 40.00, 8.57, 0.00, 4.29,
, 64.71, 54.90, 66.67, 0.00, 60.00,
#####
3, 4, 12, 2, 2, 2, 22
, 3.31, 9.92, 1.65, 1.65, 1.65, 18.18
, 18.18, 54.55, 9.09, 9.09, 9.09,
, 7.84, 23.53, 22.22, 40.00, 40.00,
#####
Total 51 51 9 5 5 121
42.15 42.15 7.44 4.13 4.13 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by ANXIETY

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 14.9161 | 0.0608 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 18.4023 | 0.0184 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 3.8003  | 0.0512 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3511  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3313  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2483  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COMFORTABLE

POSITIONCHANGE  
COMFORTABLE

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
#####
1, 6, 13, 3, 4, 3, 29
, 4.96, 10.74, 2.48, 3.31, 2.48, 23.97
, 20.69, 44.83, 10.34, 13.79, 10.34,
, 60.00, 27.66, 23.08, 12.50, 15.79,
#####
2, 3, 32, 5, 21, 9, 70
, 2.48, 26.45, 4.13, 17.36, 7.44, 57.85
, 4.29, 45.71, 7.14, 30.00, 12.86,
, 30.00, 68.09, 38.46, 65.63, 47.37,
#####
3, 1, 2, 5, 7, 7, 22
, 0.83, 1.65, 4.13, 5.79, 5.79, 18.18

```

```

, 4.55, 9.09, 22.73, 31.82, 31.82,
, 10.00, 4.26, 38.46, 21.88, 36.84,
ff
Total 10 47 13 32 19 121
 8.26 38.84 10.74 26.45 15.70 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COMFORTABLE

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
ff
Chi-Square 8 23.9077 0.0024
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 8 23.8620 0.0024
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 12.5951 0.0004
Phi Coefficient 0.4445
Contingency Coefficient 0.4062
Cramer's V 0.3143

```

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by EFFECTIVESUPERVISOR

POSITIONCHANGE  
EFFECTIVESUPERVISOR

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
ff
1, 2, 7, 4, 9, 7, 29
, 1.65, 5.79, 3.31, 7.44, 5.79, 23.97
, 6.90, 24.14, 13.79, 31.03, 24.14,
, 13.33, 23.33, 22.22, 20.45, 50.00,
ff
2, 9, 16, 9, 32, 4, 70
, 7.44, 13.22, 7.44, 26.45, 3.31, 57.85
, 12.86, 22.86, 12.86, 45.71, 5.71,
, 60.00, 53.33, 50.00, 72.73, 28.57,
ff
3, 4, 7, 5, 3, 3, 22
, 3.31, 5.79, 4.13, 2.48, 2.48, 18.18
, 18.18, 31.82, 22.73, 13.64, 13.64,
, 26.67, 23.33, 27.78, 6.82, 21.43,
ff
Total 15 30 18 44 14 121
 12.40 24.79 14.88 36.36 11.57 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by EFFECTIVESUPERVISOR

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
ff
Chi-Square 8 14.1379 0.0782
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 8 14.4436 0.0709
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 3.7621 0.0524
Phi Coefficient 0.3418
Contingency Coefficient 0.3234
Cramer's V 0.2417

```

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COMMUNICATION

POSITIONCHANGE  
COMMUNICATION

Frequency,  
Percent ,  
Row Pct ,  
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total

```

ff
1, 7, 8, 2, 5, 7, 29
, 5.79, 6.61, 1.65, 4.13, 5.79, 23.97
, 24.14, 27.59, 6.90, 17.24, 24.14,
, 58.33, 25.00, 18.18, 15.63, 20.59,
ff
2, 4, 21, 7, 23, 15, 70
, 3.31, 17.36, 5.79, 19.01, 12.40, 57.85
, 5.71, 30.00, 10.00, 32.86, 21.43,
, 33.33, 65.63, 63.64, 71.88, 44.12,
ff
3, 1, 3, 2, 4, 12, 22
, 0.83, 2.48, 1.65, 3.31, 9.92, 18.18
, 4.55, 13.64, 9.09, 18.18, 54.55,
, 8.33, 9.38, 18.18, 12.50, 35.29,
ff
Total 12 32 11 32 34 121
9.92 26.45 9.09 26.45 28.10 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COMMUNICATION

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 19.0628 | 0.0145 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 17.0780 | 0.0293 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 8.3303  | 0.0039 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3969  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3689  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2807  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by EFFORTS

POSITIONCHANGE  
EFFORTS

Frequency,  
Percent ,  
Row Pct ,  
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total

```

ff
1, 6, 11, 4, 5, 3, 29
, 4.96, 9.09, 3.31, 4.13, 2.48, 23.97
, 20.69, 37.93, 13.79, 17.24, 10.34,

```

```

, 33.33, 32.35, 19.05, 16.67, 16.67,
#####
2, 9, 20, 15, 20, 6, 70
, 7.44, 16.53, 12.40, 16.53, 4.96, 57.85
, 12.86, 28.57, 21.43, 28.57, 8.57,
, 50.00, 58.82, 71.43, 66.67, 33.33,
#####
3, 3, 3, 2, 5, 9, 22
, 2.48, 2.48, 1.65, 4.13, 7.44, 18.18
, 13.64, 13.64, 9.09, 22.73, 40.91,
, 16.67, 8.82, 9.52, 16.67, 50.00,
#####
Total 18 34 21 30 18 121
14.88 28.10 17.36 24.79 14.88 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by EFFORTS

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 18.6626 | 0.0168 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 16.2247 | 0.0393 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 7.5765  | 0.0059 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3927  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3655  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2777  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COMMITMENT

```

POSITIONCHANGE
COMMITMENT

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
#####
1, 4, 4, 4, 12, 5, 29
, 3.31, 3.31, 3.31, 9.92, 4.13, 23.97
, 13.79, 13.79, 13.79, 41.38, 17.24,
, 17.39, 11.43, 33.33, 29.27, 50.00,
#####
2, 11, 24, 4, 27, 4, 70
, 9.09, 19.83, 3.31, 22.31, 3.31, 57.85
, 15.71, 34.29, 5.71, 38.57, 5.71,
, 47.83, 68.57, 33.33, 65.85, 40.00,
#####
3, 8, 7, 4, 2, 1, 22
, 6.61, 5.79, 3.31, 1.65, 0.83, 18.18
, 36.36, 31.82, 18.18, 9.09, 4.55,
, 34.78, 20.00, 33.33, 4.88, 10.00,
#####
Total 23 35 12 41 10 121
19.01 28.93 9.92 33.88 8.26 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COMMITMENT

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 19.2292 | 0.0137 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 20.0096 | 0.0103 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 10.5377 | 0.0012 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3986  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3703  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2819  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by LESSPRODUCTIVE

POSITIONCHANGE  
LESSPRODUCTIVE

| Frequency,                              | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,   | 2,   | 3,     | 4, | 5, | Total |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------|------|--------|----|----|-------|
| 1, 23, 5, 0, 1, 0, 29                   |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 19.01, 4.13, 0.00, 0.83, 0.00, 23.97  |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 79.31, 17.24, 0.00, 3.45, 0.00,       |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 32.86, 15.63, 0.00, 11.11, 0.00,      |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| 2, 40, 17, 4, 8, 1, 70                  |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 33.06, 14.05, 3.31, 6.61, 0.83, 57.85 |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 57.14, 24.29, 5.71, 11.43, 1.43,      |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 57.14, 53.13, 80.00, 88.89, 20.00,    |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| 3, 7, 10, 1, 0, 4, 22                   |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 5.79, 8.26, 0.83, 0.00, 3.31, 18.18   |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 31.82, 45.45, 4.55, 0.00, 18.18,      |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| , 10.00, 31.25, 20.00, 0.00, 80.00,     |           |           |           |      |      |        |    |    |       |
| Total                                   | 70        | 32        | 5         | 9    | 5    | 121    |    |    |       |
|                                         | 57.85     | 26.45     | 4.13      | 7.44 | 4.13 | 100.00 |    |    |       |

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by LESSPRODUCTIVE

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 27.2829 | 0.0006 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 26.6607 | 0.0008 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 10.1673 | 0.0014 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4748  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4289  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.3358  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by OPERATIONS

POSITIONCHANGE  
OPERATIONS

| Frequency, | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,     | 2,     | 3,     | 4,    | 5,     | 6, | 7, | Total |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|----|----|-------|
| 1,         | 6,        | 6,        | 1,        | 2,     | 7,     | 4,     | 3,    | 29     |    |    |       |
| , 4.96,    | 4.96,     | 0.83,     | 1.65,     | 5.79,  | 3.31,  | 2.48,  | 23.97 |        |    |    |       |
| , 20.69,   | 20.69,    | 3.45,     | 6.90,     | 24.14, | 13.79, | 10.34, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 42.86,   | 40.00,    | 16.67,    | 11.11,    | 24.14, | 23.53, | 13.64, |       |        |    |    |       |
| 2,         | 8,        | 6,        | 5,        | 14,    | 19,    | 6,     | 12,   | 70     |    |    |       |
| , 6.61,    | 4.96,     | 4.13,     | 11.57,    | 15.70, | 4.96,  | 9.92,  | 57.85 |        |    |    |       |
| , 11.43,   | 8.57,     | 7.14,     | 20.00,    | 27.14, | 8.57,  | 17.14, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 57.14,   | 40.00,    | 83.33,    | 77.78,    | 65.52, | 35.29, | 54.55, |       |        |    |    |       |
| 3,         | 0,        | 3,        | 0,        | 2,     | 3,     | 7,     | 7,    | 22     |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,    | 2.48,     | 0.00,     | 1.65,     | 2.48,  | 5.79,  | 5.79,  | 18.18 |        |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,    | 13.64,    | 0.00,     | 9.09,     | 13.64, | 31.82, | 31.82, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,    | 20.00,    | 0.00,     | 11.11,    | 10.34, | 41.18, | 31.82, |       |        |    |    |       |
| Total      | 14        | 15        | 6         | 18     | 29     | 17     | 22    | 121    |    |    |       |
|            | 11.57     | 12.40     | 4.96      | 14.88  | 23.97  | 14.05  | 18.18 | 100.00 |    |    |       |

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by OPERATIONS

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 12 | 22.9491 | 0.0282 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 12 | 25.0838 | 0.0144 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 8.9665  | 0.0027 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.4355  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3993  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.3079  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by OPPORTUNITIES

POSITIONCHANGE  
OPPORTUNITIES

| Frequency, | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,    | 2,    | 3, | 4, | 5, | Total |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----|----|----|-------|
| 1,         | 8,        | 12,       | 4,        | 4,    | 1,    | 29 |    |    |       |
| , 6.61,    | 9.92,     | 3.31,     | 3.31,     | 0.83, | 23.97 |    |    |    |       |
| , 27.59,   | 41.38,    | 13.79,    | 13.79,    | 3.45, |       |    |    |    |       |
| , 47.06,   | 24.00,    | 23.53,    | 17.39,    | 7.14, |       |    |    |    |       |

```

2, 8, 34, 8, 14, 6, 70
, 6.61, 28.10, 6.61, 11.57, 4.96, 57.85
, 11.43, 48.57, 11.43, 20.00, 8.57,
, 47.06, 68.00, 47.06, 60.87, 42.86,
#####
3, 1, 4, 5, 5, 7, 22
, 0.83, 3.31, 4.13, 4.13, 5.79, 18.18
, 4.55, 18.18, 22.73, 22.73, 31.82,
, 5.88, 8.00, 29.41, 21.74, 50.00,
#####
Total 17 50 17 23 14 121
14.05 41.32 14.05 19.01 11.57 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by OPPORTUNITIES

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
#####
Chi-Square 8 21.4071 0.0061
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 8 19.8366 0.0110
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 13.8144 0.0002
Phi Coefficient 0.4206
Contingency Coefficient 0.3877
Cramer's V 0.2974

```

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by PROMOTION

POSITIONCHANGE  
PROMOTION

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
#####
1, 10, 13, 2, 3, 1, 29
, 8.26, 10.74, 1.65, 2.48, 0.83, 23.97
, 34.48, 44.83, 6.90, 10.34, 3.45,
, 45.45, 41.94, 8.33, 10.34, 6.67,
#####
2, 11, 14, 19, 21, 5, 70
, 9.09, 11.57, 15.70, 17.36, 4.13, 57.85
, 15.71, 20.00, 27.14, 30.00, 7.14,
, 50.00, 45.16, 79.17, 72.41, 33.33,
#####
3, 1, 4, 3, 5, 9, 22
, 0.83, 3.31, 2.48, 4.13, 7.44, 18.18
, 4.55, 18.18, 13.64, 22.73, 40.91,
, 4.55, 12.90, 12.50, 17.24, 60.00,
#####
Total 22 31 24 29 15 121
18.18 25.62 19.83 23.97 12.40 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by PROMOTION

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 38.1769 | <.0001 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 34.4100 | <.0001 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 22.3781 | <.0001 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.5617  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.4897  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.3972  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by CAREERDEVELOPMENT

POSITIONCHANGE  
CAREERDEVELOPMENT

| Frequency, | Percent , | Row Pct , | Col Pct , | 1,     | 2,    | 3,     | 4, | 5, | Total |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|-------|--------|----|----|-------|
| 1,         | 7,        | 10,       | 2,        | 6,     | 4,    | 29     |    |    |       |
| , 5.79,    | 8.26,     | 1.65,     | 4.96,     | 3.31,  | 23.97 |        |    |    |       |
| , 24.14,   | 34.48,    | 6.90,     | 20.69,    | 13.79, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 35.00,   | 29.41,    | 11.11,    | 20.00,    | 21.05, |       |        |    |    |       |
| 2,         | 13,       | 19,       | 13,       | 18,    | 7,    | 70     |    |    |       |
| , 10.74,   | 15.70,    | 10.74,    | 14.88,    | 5.79,  | 57.85 |        |    |    |       |
| , 18.57,   | 27.14,    | 18.57,    | 25.71,    | 10.00, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 65.00,   | 55.88,    | 72.22,    | 60.00,    | 36.84, |       |        |    |    |       |
| 3,         | 0,        | 5,        | 3,        | 6,     | 8,    | 22     |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,    | 4.13,     | 2.48,     | 4.96,     | 6.61,  | 18.18 |        |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,    | 22.73,    | 13.64,    | 27.27,    | 36.36, |       |        |    |    |       |
| , 0.00,    | 14.71,    | 16.67,    | 20.00,    | 42.11, |       |        |    |    |       |
| Total      | 20        | 34        | 18        | 30     | 19    | 121    |    |    |       |
|            | 16.53     | 28.10     | 14.88     | 24.79  | 15.70 | 100.00 |    |    |       |

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by CAREERDEVELOPMENT

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 15.1780 | 0.0558 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 17.5261 | 0.0251 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 7.6688  | 0.0056 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3542  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3339  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2504  |        |

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The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by CURRENTPOSITION

POSITIONCHANGE  
CURRENTPOSITION

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, Total
~~~~~
1, 5, 17, 6, 1, 29
, 4.13, 14.05, 4.96, 0.83, 23.97
, 17.24, 58.62, 20.69, 3.45,
, 12.82, 34.00, 27.27, 10.00,
~~~~~
2, 22, 25, 14, 9, 70
, 18.18, 20.66, 11.57, 7.44, 57.85
, 31.43, 35.71, 20.00, 12.86,
, 56.41, 50.00, 63.64, 90.00,
~~~~~
3, 12, 8, 2, 0, 22
, 9.92, 6.61, 1.65, 0.00, 18.18
, 54.55, 36.36, 9.09, 0.00,
, 30.77, 16.00, 9.09, 0.00,
~~~~~
Total 39 50 22 10 121
32.23 41.32 18.18 8.26 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by CURRENTPOSITION

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
~~~~~
Chi-Square      6 13.8443 0.0314
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 6 15.4647 0.0169
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 3.8662 0.0493
Phi Coefficient      0.3383
Contingency Coefficient 0.3204
Cramer's V          0.2392

```

The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by NEWMACHINARY

POSITIONCHANGE  
NEWMACHINARY

|           | 1     | 2     | Total  |
|-----------|-------|-------|--------|
| Frequency | 14    | 15    | 29     |
| Percent   | 11.57 | 12.40 | 23.97  |
| Row Pct   | 48.28 | 51.72 |        |
| Col Pct   | 35.90 | 18.29 |        |
|           | 24    | 46    | 70     |
|           | 19.83 | 38.02 | 57.85  |
|           | 34.29 | 65.71 |        |
|           | 61.54 | 56.10 |        |
|           | 1     | 21    | 22     |
|           | 0.83  | 17.36 | 18.18  |
|           | 4.55  | 95.45 |        |
|           | 2.56  | 25.61 |        |
| Total     | 39    | 82    | 121    |
|           | 32.23 | 67.77 | 100.00 |

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by NEWMACHINARY

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 2  | 11.2733 | 0.0036 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 2  | 13.8098 | 0.0010 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 10.3585 | 0.0013 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3052  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.2919  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.3052  |        |

Sample Size = 121

The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COWORKERSTRESS

POSITIONCHANGE  
COWORKERSTRESS

|           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Total |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|-------|
| Frequency |   |   |   |   |   |       |
| Percent   |   |   |   |   |   |       |
| Row Pct   |   |   |   |   |   |       |
| Col Pct   |   |   |   |   |   |       |

```

1, 5, 11, 6, 7, 0, 29
, 4.13, 9.09, 4.96, 5.79, 0.00, 23.97
, 17.24, 37.93, 20.69, 24.14, 0.00,
, 31.25, 21.15, 28.57, 24.14, 0.00,
~~~~~
2, 4, 34, 12, 19, 1, 70
, 3.31, 28.10, 9.92, 15.70, 0.83, 57.85
, 5.71, 48.57, 17.14, 27.14, 1.43,
, 25.00, 65.38, 57.14, 65.52, 33.33,
~~~~~
3, 7, 7, 3, 3, 2, 22
, 5.79, 5.79, 2.48, 2.48, 1.65, 18.18
, 31.82, 31.82, 13.64, 13.64, 9.09,
, 43.75, 13.46, 14.29, 10.34, 66.67,
~~~~~
Total 16 52 21 29 3 121
13.22 42.98 17.36 23.97 2.48 100.00

```

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by COWORKERSTRESS

```

Statistic DF Value Prob
~~~~~
Chi-Square          8 16.9578 0.0306
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square 8 15.5087 0.0500
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square 1 0.1390 0.7093
Phi Coefficient          0.3744
Contingency Coefficient          0.3506
Cramer's V            0.2647
WARNING: 40% of the cells have expected counts less
than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

```

Sample Size = 121  
The SAS System 10:41 Wednesday, April 6, 2005 139

The FREQ Procedure

Table of POSITIONCHANGE by STRUCTURE

POSITIONCHANGE  
STRUCTURE

```

Frequency,
Percent ,
Row Pct ,
Col Pct , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Total
~~~~~
1, 3, 6, 5, 11, 4, 29
, 2.48, 4.96, 4.13, 9.09, 3.31, 23.97
, 10.34, 20.69, 17.24, 37.93, 13.79,
, 14.29, 17.14, 29.41, 26.83, 57.14,
~~~~~
2, 9, 22, 9, 28, 2, 70
, 7.44, 18.18, 7.44, 23.14, 1.65, 57.85
, 12.86, 31.43, 12.86, 40.00, 2.86,
, 42.86, 62.86, 52.94, 68.29, 28.57,
~~~~~
3, 9, 7, 3, 2, 1, 22
, 7.44, 5.79, 2.48, 1.65, 0.83, 18.18
, 40.91, 31.82, 13.64, 9.09, 4.55,
, 42.86, 20.00, 17.65, 4.88, 14.29,
~~~~~
Total 21 35 17 41 7 121

```

17.36 28.93 14.05 33.88 5.79 100.00

Statistics for Table of POSITIONCHANGE by STRUCTURE

| Statistic                   | DF | Value   | Prob   |
|-----------------------------|----|---------|--------|
| Chi-Square                  | 8  | 19.0633 | 0.0145 |
| Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square | 8  | 18.3240 | 0.0189 |
| Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square  | 1  | 11.0454 | 0.0009 |
| Phi Coefficient             |    | 0.3969  |        |
| Contingency Coefficient     |    | 0.3689  |        |
| Cramer's V                  |    | 0.2807  |        |