AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF CHANGE LEADERSHIP AND THE EFFECT ON EMPLOYEE STRESS

By

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SUPERVISOR
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2003
Dedicated to my Guru

Sri Swami Sivananda
DECLARATION

This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not being currently submitted in candidature for any degree.

JAYPRAKASH KOOVARJEE

12-09-2003

DATE
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ABSTRACT

The world is changing more rapidly than ever before. Today's most successful organizations are changing fast and having to make sure that its internal changes are keeping pace with what is happening in the external environment. The process of organizational change can be complex and messy. The responsibility of leaders is to guide employees and the organization through the change process. Employees often view change as disruptive and painful, resulting in stress. This study examines a company that has undergone, and continues to undergo a fast pace of change.

The aim of this research is to examine the effect that employee perceptions of change leadership have on their level of stress with a view to exposing the linkages, if any, between these concepts.

If such linkages are perceived to exist, then well-conducted and communicated organizational change will be successful in yielding the desired results. Effective change can only be achieved through employees that are motivated, participating in and owning the organizational change.
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

The momentum of change continues to build. If you or the organization you work with is not prepared for ongoing change then you risk the possibility of being overwhelmed and left for dead by the superhighway of life. With technology and globalisation of trade driving these trends, we must learn to adapt to this change or be playing the very difficult role of catch-up.

The world is changing more rapidly than ever before. Today’s most successful organizations are changing fast. Their leaders recognize that internal changes must keep pace with what is happening in the external environment. As Jack Welch, chairman and CEO of General Electric once stated, “When the rate of change outside exceeds the rate of change inside, the end is in sight.”

McHugh (1997) states, “if employees are neglected in the planning and implementation of organizational change, it is likely that the entire process will be extremely stressful for individuals, the adverse effects of which will manifest themselves in a variety of ways which are costly to the organization.”

This study examines the relationship between employee perceptions of change leadership and the effect on their level of stress.

It also provides useful insights for management, to assist them in their role as change agents and decision-makers. Although causality is not implied, the study makes some practical suggestions on how the relationship can be used as a ‘tool’ in the change management process.
1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Carnall (1990) suggests that in a changing world, progress is rarely achieved solely by rational means or entirely by ‘reasonable’ men. Leadership, vision, inspiration and much more are essential ingredients for success in handling change. Yet at the same time the effective management of change is enhanced through careful planning, sensitive handling of the people involved and a thorough approach to implementation.

French (1999) defines two types of organizational change viz. transactional change and transformational change. Transactional change is first-order change that involves changing structure, management practices, policies and procedures. Transformational change on the other hand is second-order change that involves changes in mission, strategy, leadership styles and organization culture.

Hellriegel et al. (2001) suggests that understanding and managing organizational change presents complex challenges. Planned change may not work, or it may have consequences far different from those intended. Often the speed and complexity of change severely test the capabilities of managers and employees to adapt rapidly enough. Effective planned change efforts are often characterised by some common characteristics, such as:

- Motivating change by creating a readiness for the change among employees and attempting to overcome resistance to change.
- Creating shared vision of the desired future state of the organization.
- Developing support for the needed changes.
- Managing the transition from the current state to the desired future state.
- Sustaining momentum for change so that it will be carried to completion.

Carnall (1990) writes that change creates anxiety, uncertainty and stress; even for those managing change, and even if they are fully committed to change. In
working life, change and role strain are two important sources of stress. Role strain can be caused by not being involved in decisions, having inadequate managerial support, having to cope with technological and other changes, having to maintain standards of performance even under difficult conditions, having responsibility for people who are uncooperative; all likely in a period of change. Some stress motivates people by providing challenge.

Sutherland and Cooper (2000) write that our work environment has become a world of rapid, discontinuous change that requires us to live in a state of transience and impermanence. The situation is potentially damaging because energy is needed and expended by constant adaptation to stimulation from the external environment. In this way 'change' becomes a powerful stressor agent because it necessitates adaptation.

One form of major organizational change is organizational restructuring. Sutherland and Cooper (2000) write that studies of employee response to organizational restructuring have emphasized the negative effects that might be manifest, and these include, 'worry', 'uncertainty', 'job insecurity' and 'decreased job satisfaction'.

Thus, it would appear that exposure to 'change' as a source of stress is an inevitable part of modern day living and working. Unless we effectively manage this form of workplace stress, it can result in adverse and costly outcomes for employees and the organization.

The role of effective change leadership is to manage the achievement of organizational goals whilst at the same time ensuring that the change does not have a serious adverse effect on the employees.

This study aims to empirically examine the relationship between employee perceptions of change leadership and the effect this has on employee stress,
using a Durban based multinational chemical company undergoing transformational change, as a case study.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The forces of change are all around us. The world is changing at an accelerated rate, powered by the forces of globalisation, technology, international trade and competition. These forces of change are being felt the most in the business arena as companies struggle to find their "place in the sun" amidst the turmoil of change. Change can be painful and can cause stress. At an organizational level, change has the potential to inflict severe stress and pain on a company's employees. The effects of organizational change on employees can be mitigated by the application of sound change leadership principles. Employees are the greatest assets of most organizations. It is therefore imperative that their well-being be considered when organizational change is being implemented.

The aim of this study is to determine the effect that organizational change leadership has on the well being (stress level) of employees. The findings of the study will be used to improve on how change management is handled in the researcher's organization.

1.4 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

Effective change leadership is not easy. Even highly qualified and skilled leaders grapple with the realities and complexities of change leadership, for there is no single model that works. Each situation is different. People are different. So change leaders have to draw on all of the best practices available and apply the relevant parts to their change initiative.
This study will be valuable in getting a better understanding of change leadership practices and the resultant effects on employee well-being.

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Sutherland and Cooper (2000) write that change is here to stay because of the business trends that drive it. Change drives the need for continuous learning, and that thinking and inventing will be the most valuable assets in today's organizations. It produces the redefinition of careers and opportunities for new products and services. On the negative side of this equation is the increased stress produced. It is argued that stress need not be damaging in its consequences since only mismanaged stress leads to a state of distress.

The outcome from leadership is change – not efficiency or stability. Change always brings dislocation and discomfort. Every organization experiences stress and difficulty in coping with change. At an individual level, employees experience varying degrees of stress and discomfort, depending on their perception of how change is being processed.

The problem statement is thus:

What is the relationship between employee perceptions of change leadership and the effect on employee stress?
1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:

- To determine employees' perception of change leadership.
- To determine employees' level of stress.
- To determine the correlation between employees' perception of change leadership and their corresponding level of stress.

The above objectives will be tested using the following research hypotheses:

$H_1$: A negative relationship exists between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress.

$H_0$: No relationship exists between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology for the study includes design strategy, scaling design, sampling design, measurement, ethics and data analysis.

1.7.1 Design Strategy

Cooper and Schindler (2001) define research design as "... the strategy for a study and the plan by which the strategy is to be carried out."

The design that is to be used is a cross-sectional, ex post facto correlational design. The aim of the study is to test the hypothesis that has been formulated. The proposed study will be cross-sectional in nature as the study is to be carried...
out once and will represent a snapshot of one point in time. The study will furthermore be correlational in that it will attempt to discover or clarify the relationships using correlational methods.

The study will involve the administration of a self-completion questionnaire to all employees at a company. It will constitute a census. Questionnaires will be printed and mailed to all staff using the company internal mail system. Employees will be asked to deposit the completed questionnaires into the suggestion boxes located on the company premises. The mail messenger will deliver the completed questionnaires to the researcher. Each questionnaire will be accompanied by a self-addressed envelope, which the respondent will use for returning the questionnaire.

The questionnaire will comprise of three parts as follows:

Part A - biographical data such as gender, age, marital status, length of service, and level in the organization.
Part B - perception of change leadership instrument.
Part C -- employee stress instrument.

1.7.2 Scaling Design

The perception of change leadership instrument will be an adaptation of the instrument designed by Daft (1999). The instrument comprises of a five point Likert scale.

The measurement of stress instrument will be an adaptation of a role instrument and a perception of stress instrument developed by Legg (2002). Care will be taken to ensure both validity and reliability for the instrument adaptations.
1.7.3 Sampling Design

The company has 58 permanent employees. Given this relatively small number of employees and the ease of access to them, a census was considered appropriate and manageable. The study will thus involve a census. In the event of a low response rate the census will be treated as a sample and inferential statistics used to infer the results of the sample onto the population.

1.7.4 Measurement

Cooper and Schindler (2001) define measurement as “assigning numbers to empirical events in compliance with a set of rules.” The data that is to be collected for the proposed study comprise of nominal and interval data.

The perception of change leadership instrument scale will be positively scored. The more positive the perception, the higher will be the score. The measurement of stress instrument scale will be negatively scored. The more positive the response (lower stress), the lower will be the score. The hypothesis that has been formulated is negative in nature in that it proposes that a poor perception of change management (low score) will result in increased stress (high score). Therefore, if the respondents score low on the perception of change leadership instrument, they perceive change leadership to be poor. They would thus score high on the measurement of stress instrument, implying high levels of stress resulting from a poor perception of change leadership. There would therefore be a negative correlation between the independent variable – perception of change leadership, and the dependent variable – level of stress.

1.7.5 Ethics

Ethics are norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others. The goal of ethics in research is to
ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences from research activities (Schindler, 2001). These principles will be adhered to. Respondents’ confidentiality will be maintained and full assurance will be given to all respondents in this regard. There will be no requirement for the respondents to identify themselves on any of the documents issued to them. The study benefits as well as respondent rights and protections will be explained to the respondents. Informed consent will be obtained from the sponsor and the respondents before proceeding with the study.

1.7.6 Data Analysis

First the raw data will be edited to check for errors, omissions, data quality standard, consistency with intent of question, uniformity of entry and completeness. Errors will be corrected, and the data arranged to simplify coding and tabulation.

Numerical coding of 1 to 5 will be assigned to the Likert scale. The categorization of data will be carried out in accordance with the coding rules suggested by Schindler (2001). A codebook will be constructed. All questions will be closed questions. The data will be captured into a statistical software package (SPSS) for analysis.

Initially descriptive statistics will be used, as it is appropriate to describe and compare data. Descriptive statistics, however, do not tell the researcher whether the results reflect the true situation or whether the results occurred by chance. For this reason inferential statistics will be utilized to confirm whether the quantitative results of the study have arisen by chance alone, or represent true differences existing. Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation analysis will be applied to study the relationship between the two variables of interest; namely, perception of change leadership and stress.
The results will be displayed using a combination of frequency tables, bar charts, graphs and histograms.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- It will be difficult to identify specific change initiatives that may or may not have contributed to stress.
- The results of the study are specific to the company that is the subject of the study.
- The study focuses primarily on the leadership dimension of change.
- The stress that individuals experience is a resultant effect from various stressors or stress agents, both work and non-work related. When measuring stress it is therefore difficult to separate it by source of stress.
- Given the personal nature of some of the questions in the measurement of stress instrument, some respondents may possibly not provide true responses. This may have an impact on the findings of the study.
- Stress has psychological, physiological and behavioural dimensions. This study focuses primarily on the psychological and physical dimensions of stress.

1.9 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 is the current chapter and provides an overview of the study, introducing the concepts and the scope and purpose of the dissertation.

Chapter 2 provides the relevant theoretical background on change leadership and stress, by reviewing current and historical literature on these subjects.
Chapter 3 provides details on the research design and methodology, the theoretical model and hypotheses.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the research.

Chapter 5 summarizes the recommendations and conclusions emanating from the results, providing insights for change leaders.

1.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter outlines the overall purpose, background, objectives and structure of the study. It describes the relationships that the study examines as well as the motivation for the study. The next chapter covers the literature review and theory on change leadership and stress.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The effective management of change is a topic that concerns all managers from corporate headquarters to junior management. Today all managers are realizing that change is a constant feature of their working lives. Skills in being an effective change leader are at the core of the management competencies needed for the new millennium. The capacity to lead change effectively is the crucial attribute of a successful leader in today's organizations.

Changes require careful planning and sensitive implementation. A carefully planned and well-executed change program can be very successful, yielding the desired organizational benefits, whilst at the same time successfully taking the organization's employees through the change journey. Conversely, a poorly planned and poorly executed change program can be disastrous not only to organizational performance, but to the well being of employees.

2.2 VARIETIES OF CHANGE

Strebel (1996) states, "change may be a constant but it is not always the same." Grundy (1993) describes three major types of change viz:

- Smooth incremental change
- Bumpy incremental change
- Discontinuous change.

Smooth incremental change is change that evolves slowly in a systematic and predictable way. Bumpy incremental change is characterized by periods of
relative tranquility punctuated by acceleration in the pace of change. Discontinuous change is change that is marked by rapid shifts in energy, structure or culture, or in all three. Tushman (1988) refers to this third type of change as "frame-breaking change."

Dunphy (1993) describes the varieties of change in terms of four scales of change, as follows:

- **Scale type 1** is fine-tuning, where organizational change is an ongoing process characterized by fine-tuning of the match between the organization's strategy, structure, people and processes.

- **Scale type 2** is incremental adjustment, where organizational change is characterized by incremental adjustments to the changing environment. Such changes involve distinct modifications to corporate business strategies, structures and management processes.

- **Scale type 3** is modular transformation, where organizational change is characterized by major realignment of one or more departments/divisions.

- **Scale type 4** is corporate transformation, where organizational change is corporate-wide, characterized by radical shifts in business strategy, and revolutionary changes throughout the whole organization.

French (1999) presents another model of organizational change, the Burke-Litwin model, developed by Warner Burke and George Litwin. This model describes two types of change viz. first-order and second-order change.

- **First-order change** is also described as "transactional change." In first-order change, some features of the organization change but the fundamental nature of the organization remains the same.
Second-order change is also described as “transformational change.” In second-order change the nature of the organization is fundamentally and substantially altered – the organization is transformed.

Figure 2.1 below shows the Burke-Litwin model for the transformational factors involved in second-order change.

Figure 2.1: Burke-Litwin Model of Transformational Change

The premise of the Burke-Litwin model is that change interventions directed toward structure, management practices, and systems result in first-order change, whereas interventions directed toward mission and strategy, leadership, and organizational culture result in second-order change. The model also makes a distinction between transactional and transformational leadership styles.
o **Transactional leaders** are "leaders who guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements." These types of leaders are needed for first-order change.

o **Transformational leaders** are "leaders who inspire followers to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the organization and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on their followers." It is the type of leadership required for second-order change.

Another distinction is that transactional leadership is capable of making a change in the organizational climate but transformational leadership is required to make a fundamental change in an organization’s culture.

### 2.3 CHANGE STRATEGIES

![Kotter's Model of Planned Organizational Change](image)

1. Establish a sense of urgency
2. Form a powerful guiding coalition
3. Develop a compelling vision and strategy
4. Communicate the vision widely
5. Empower employees to act on the vision
6. Generate short-term wins
7. Consolidate gains, create greater change.
8. Institutionalise changes in org. culture

**Figure 2.2: Kotter's Model of Planned Organizational Change**
Kotter (1996) presents an eight-stage model of planned organizational change as depicted in Figure 2.2 above. This model is used as a basis for the study. The eight stages of the model are described below:

**Stage 1:** Leaders establish a sense of urgency that change is really needed. Leaders carefully scan the external and internal environment to identify potential crises or problems. They then find ways to communicate the information broadly and dramatically.

**Stage 2:** Leaders establish a coalition with enough power to guide the change process and then develop a sense of teamwork among the group. For the change process to succeed, there must be a shared commitment to the need and possibilities for organizational transformation.

**Stage 3:** Leaders develop a vision and strategy. Leaders are responsible for formulating and articulating a compelling vision that will guide the change effort, and developing the strategies for achieving that vision. A “picture” of a highly desirable future motivates people to change.

**Stage 4:** Leaders use every means possible to widely communicate the vision and strategy. The coalition of change agents set an example by modeling the new behaviours needed from employees. Transformation is impossible unless a majority of people in the organization are involved and willing to help, often to the point of making personal sacrifices.

**Stage 5:** Leaders empower employees throughout the organization to act on the vision. This means getting rid of obstacles to change. People are empowered with knowledge, resources, and discretion to make things happen. Leaders also encourage and reward risk-taking and nontraditional ideas and actions.
**Stage 6:** Leaders generate short-term wins. They plan for visible performance improvements, enable them to happen, and celebrate employees who were involved in the improvements. Major change takes time, and a transformation effort loses momentum if there are no short-term accomplishments that employees can recognize and celebrate.

**Stage 7:** Leaders build on the credibility achieved by short-term wins to consolidate improvements, tackle bigger problems, and create greater change. They hire, promote and develop employees who can implement the vision for change.

**Stage 8:** Leaders institutionalize the new approaches in the organizational culture. Old habits, values, traditions, and mind-sets are permanently replaced. New values and beliefs are instilled in the culture so that employees view the changes not as something new but as a normal and integral part of how the organization operates.

When dealing with major change effort, leaders can follow the eight-stage change process as a roadmap to provide a strong foundation for success.

Based on the eight-stage model, the change leadership people-related dimensions are derived as depicted in Table 2.1. Effective leadership will inspire and motivate employees to buy into the change process. Ineffective change leadership will demotivate employees and cause fear and uncertainty.

These two opposing views are summarized in Table 2.1 below:
### Table 2.1: Comparison of Effective and Ineffective Change Leadership Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effective Change Leadership (Motivating Factors)</th>
<th>Ineffective Change Leadership (Demotivating Factors)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identifying potential problems before they occur and keeping employees informed.</td>
<td>Not identifying potential problems before they occur and not keeping employees informed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing a strong team and a shared commitment to guide the change process.</td>
<td>Not establishing a strong team and not achieving a shared commitment to guide the change process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulating and articulating a compelling change vision that will guide the change effort.</td>
<td>Not formulating and not articulating a compelling change vision to guide the change effort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widely communicating the vision and strategy.</td>
<td>Not properly communicating the vision and strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlisting the participation of all employees to the change process.</td>
<td>Not involving employees in the change process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modeling the new behaviours needed from employees.</td>
<td>Not demonstrating and modeling the new behaviours needed from employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowering employees with knowledge, resources and discretion to act on the vision and make things happen.</td>
<td>Leaving employees to deal with the change without the necessary knowledge, resources and authority to act on the vision and make things happen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewarding and recognizing employees for visible performance improvements.</td>
<td>Not recognizing the contribution made by employees to performance improvements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing organizational structures and job roles to deal effectively with the change.</td>
<td>Not establishing the appropriate organizational structures and job roles for employees to effectively deal with the change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being honest and open about the future and the impact this future will have on employees.</td>
<td>Not being honest and open with employees about the future and the impact this would have on them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Price (2003) in his research on the psychology of change management found that “Employees will alter their mind-sets only if they see the point of the change and agree with it – at least enough to give it a try. The surrounding structures (reward and recognition systems, for example) must be in tune with the new behaviour. Employees must have the skills to do what it requires. Finally, they must see people they respect modeling it actively.”

In 1957 the Stanford social psychologist Leon Festinger published his theory of cognitive dissonance. The implication of this finding for an organization, according to Price (2003), is that if its people believe in its overall purpose, they will be happy to change their individual behaviour to serve that purpose – indeed, they will suffer from cognitive dissonance if they don’t. To feel comfortable about change and to carry it out with enthusiasm, people must understand the role of their actions in the unfolding drama of the company’s fortunes and believe that it is worthwhile for them to play a part. Price (2003) further state that “Anyone leading a major change program must take the time to think through its “story” – what makes it worth undertaking – and to explain that story to all of the people involved in making change happen, so that their contributions make sense to them as individuals.”

Price (2003) quotes the clinical work of Benjamin Spock, who found that people model their behaviour on “significant others”: those they see in positions of
influence. To change behaviour consistently throughout the organization, it isn’t enough to ensure that people at the top are in line with the new ways of working; role models at every level must “walk the talk.”

In a four-year study of organizational change at six large corporations, it was found that effective change did not occur through programmatic change (Beer et al., 1990). Rather, effective change occurred when organizations follow these six steps:

- Mobilize commitment through joint diagnosis of problems.
- Develop a shared vision of how to organize and manage for competitiveness.
- Foster consensus for the new vision, competence to enact it, and cohesion to move it along.
- Spread revitalization to all departments without pushing it from the top.
- Institutionalize revitalization through formal policies, systems, and structures.
- Monitor and adjust strategies in response to problems.

Axelrod (2001) describes the four core principles of the engagement paradigm of organizational change, as follows:

- **Widen the circle of involvement** – this increases the ownership of the change by all those involved, while reducing resistance. It also creates a critical mass for change.

- **Connect people to each other and ideas** – by creating a compelling purpose, honoring the past and present in creating the future, listening until you feel you cannot stand it, and making the whole system visible.
Create communities for action – leaders must form a community that cares about outcomes, which occurs when they create conditions that demonstrate that each community member is valued. In doing so, leaders must allow for celebrating successes and learning from failures. Leaders must be fully engaged in the change process and model behaviours congruent with the proposed changes.

Embrace democratic principles – equity and fairness, maximum sharing of information, freedom and autonomy, and open decision-making processes.

When an organization follows the four core principles, it can expect that:

- People grasp the issues, become aligned around a common purpose, and create new directions because they understand both the dangers and opportunities.
- Urgency and energy are produced to create a new future.
- Free-flowing information and cooperation replace organizational silos because people are connected to the issues and to each other.
- Broad participation quickly identifies performance gaps and their solutions, improving productivity and customer satisfaction.
- Creativity is sparked when people from all levels and functions, along with customers, suppliers, and others, contribute their best ideas.
- Capacity for future changes increases as people develop the skills and processes to meet not just the current challenges, but future ones as well.

Hamel (2000) recommends the following seven-step change strategy:

- Establish a point of view – it must be compelling and speak to people’s emotions, telling them why the cause will make a difference.
- **Write a manifesto** – it must paint a picture of what is and what is coming that causes discomfort. It must also provide a vision of what could be that inspires hope.

- **Create a coalition** – one person cannot change the direction of a company. Build a coalition, a group of colleagues who share the vision and passion.

- **Pick your targets** – identify and target a potential champion – someone or a group of some ones that can yank the real levers of power.

- **Co-opt and neutralize** – the resistors to the change.

- **Find a translator** – to bridge the gap between the change leaders and the employees.

- **Win small, win early, win often** – as more wins are accumulated it will make much easier the transition from an isolated initiative to an integral part of the business. Not only will the battles be won, but also the war.

Kanter et al. (1992) advocates the following **Ten Commandments** for the effective execution of change:

1. Analyse the organization and its need for change.

2. Create a shared vision and common direction.

3. Separate from the past – critical to the “unfreezing” process that Kurt Lewin described back in 1947.
4. Create a sense of urgency.

5. Support a strong leader role – a leader plays a critical role in creating a company vision, motivating employees to embrace that vision, and crafting an organizational structure that consistently rewards those who strive toward the realization of that vision.

6. Line up political sponsorship – leadership alone cannot bring about large-scale change. Success depends on a broader base of support built with other individuals who act first as followers, second as helpers, and finally as co-owners of the change.

7. Craft an implementation plan.

8. Develop enabling structures.

9. Communicate, involve people, and be honest.

10. Reinforce and institutionalize the change.

2.4 CHANGE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

Almost no major corporations are free from the challenge of developing and implementing successful strategies for managing change (Kotter, 1994). Yet few organizations seem to be able to implement change effectively. Some have estimated that as many as 70 percent of change initiatives fail (Kotter, 1994). Whilst there are many reasons for this, one of them is leadership capability and capacity (Kotter, 1994). Marcus and Pringle (1995) highlight competencies as one of the three critical keys to successful change (the other two being
commitment and capability). Kotter (1996) sees the locational focus as being the ‘leaders.’

In a survey of organizations, Marcus and Pringle (1995) found that future change competencies included:

- Change mastery
- Managing resistance
- Appetite to learn
- Influence without authority

In a survey to identify the critical competencies of change agents, Buchanan and Boddy (1992) found the following important areas:

- Sensitivity to key personnel changes and their impact on goals
- Clarity in specifying goals and defining the achievable
- Flexibility in responding to change and risk taking
- Team building
- Networking
- Ambiguity tolerance
- Communication skills
- Interpersonal skills
- Personal enthusiasm
- Stimulating motivation and commitment in others
- Selling plans and ideas to others
- Negotiating with key players for resources and change
- Influence skills

Higgs (2000) carried out extensive research into change management competencies and identified eight clusters of change management competencies as follows:
o **Change initiation** – the ability to create the case for change and sustain sponsor commitment throughout the change process. Associated behaviours include the ability to surface current issues to create a sense of urgency for change and show how these issues are linked to the bottom line; create a compelling case so that the status quo is not an option, and the ability to work with sponsors to keep the change issues relevant and focussed.

o **Change impact** – the ability to scope the breath, depth, sustainability and returns of a change strategy. Associated behaviours include the ability to think how the changing external environment can be a driver of the need for internal change; the ability to work with others in change processes in a way which surfaces their underlying ways of thinking that need transforming; and the ability to identify both the expected benefits/returns and the implementation costs needed for the change effort.

o **Change facilitation** – the ability to help others, through effective facilitation, to gain insight into the human dynamics of change and to develop the confidence to achieve the change goals. Associated behaviours include the ability to implement change initiatives/activities that address the human dynamics in the situation; encouraging and supporting others to accept their own accountability for the change; and uncovering tension and differences between people and surface them.

o **Change leadership** – the ability to influence and enthuse others, through personal advocacy, vision and drive, and to access resources to build a solid platform for change. Associated behaviours include effectiveness at networking with others and use this to get support and resources for the change; building individual relationships with key players; getting things
done through personal influence rather than just personal authority; and selling ideas in a way that raises the sights and aspirations of others.

- **Change learning** – the ability to scan, reflect and identify learning and ensure insights are used to develop individual, group and organizational capabilities. Associated behaviours include the ability to coach others in a way which helps them to learn about change implementation; listening effectively by suspending own assumptions and inquiring into the reasoning of others; and managing the dissemination of knowledge and transfer of learning.

- **Change execution** – the ability to formulate and guide the implementation of a credible change plan with appropriate goals, resources, metrics and review mechanisms. Associated behaviours include the ability to manage key stakeholders’ interests by engaging them appropriately in the change; using resistance to change as useful and necessary for learning; and co-coordinating activities to keep things on track.

- **Change presence** – demonstrating high personal commitment to achievement of change goals through integrity and courage, while maintaining objectivity and individual resilience. Associated behaviours include demonstrating courage in facing up to change issues; high levels of personal resilience; the ability to voice what needs to be said without inappropriate self censorship; and avoiding defending own position and rise above personal agenda and biases.

- **Change technology** – knowledge, generation and skilful application of change theories, tools and processes. Associated behaviours include a clear knowledge of change theories, change tools, methods and processes needed for effective change implementation.
Senge et al. (1999) have commented that there is no one 'right' way to implement change – no single theory or framework or eight steps can ever capture the complexity of organizational reality. What is important is that the leadership is built to diagnose, understand, confront and reshape the reality as people see it.

2.5 THE CHANGE STAGES AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

When change is being implemented, individuals subjected to the change go through various stages in dealing with the change. One model of the stages of change comprises the following (http://www.stresseducationcentre.com):

Denial – the first stage, the common responses to changes are to pretend that things will just go on and be the same. Managers want the problems to go away, but unless they are addressed in a proactive way, the process can take too long and slow the whole process of change. The best managers will continue to communicate about the change and what will happen.

Resistance – the second stage, symptoms of this stage surface in many negative forms. Increased anger or disagreements or perhaps worse, withdrawal from the team can occur. Employees may feel that they are treated unfairly, having given their best and not be sure that they will survive the coming changes. Self doubt, anxiety, depression, frustration and fear often increases. People need to come together and communicate not to be isolated with their fears and angers. People must be made to feel a part of the eventual change and know their role in the successful outcomes of change. Managers should exercise good listening and then acknowledge the feelings expressed, and be supportive, encouraging and empathetic. People need to vent their fear and frustration without judgments made against them.
**Exploration/Emerging** – the third stage, it is positive because the energy in an organization can begin to flow again. The difficulties are with this released energy there is often chaos and uncertainty. People suffer from frustration, confusion, too many new ideas, too much to do, over preparation and loss of ability to focus. As a new form begins to emerge managers must focus on priorities, provide needed training, set short-term goals and conduct visionary and planning sessions.

**Commitment** – the fourth stage can be seen as positive developments of teamwork, satisfaction and clear focus takes place. Team building, adaptation, new ways to work, new set of goals begins to take shape. A good manager will now concentrate on team building and validate/reward those who are responding to the changes in positive ways.

To expedite the change process gracefully the skillful manager will be meticulous about good communication throughout the process. When people are uncertain about the changes they are experiencing, poor communication allows fears to grow and sends the wrong message. Support and full honest disclosure is important and can speed the change processes. People need to be acknowledged and appreciated. Communicating the truth and describing how you truly feel can create trust and empathy for the group involved in the change process.

The Shell Handbook of Emergent Change (2002) presents a six-step model on the resistance to change (Figure 2.3), and the communication priorities at each of the resistance phases:
The various change behaviours above and the communication priorities are summarized in Table 2.2:

**Table 2.2: Change Behaviours and Communication Priorities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change Behaviour</th>
<th>Communication Priority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction / Complacency</td>
<td>o Convey urgency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Give facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Provide evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Convey big picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial / Rejection</td>
<td>o Listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Show concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Restate facts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Anger / Resistance | o Listen  
o Demonstrate concern  
o Restate facts  
o Convey commitment |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| Acceptance / Curiosity | o Restate big picture  
o Communicate vision  
o Ask for help |
| Enthusiasm / Hope | o Involve  
o Celebrate wins  
o Inspire |
| Commitment / Excitement | o Feedback success  
o Inspire  
o Create champions |

Resistance to change is not an inevitable by product of change efforts, nor is it purely emotional. People resist change for reasonable and predictable reasons; for example (Kanter et al., 1992):

- **Loss of control** – too much is done to people and too little is done by them.

- **Too much uncertainty** – information about the next steps and likely future actions is not available.

- **Surprise, surprise!** – decisions are sprung full-blown without preparation or background.

- **The costs of confusion** – there are too many things changing simultaneously, interrupting routines and making it hard to know the proper way to get things done.
- **Loss of face** – the declaration of a need for change makes people feel they look stupid for their past actions, especially in front of peers.

- **Concerns about competence** – people wonder about their ability to be effective after the change; will they be able to do what is required?

- **More work** – change requires more energy, more time, more meetings, and more learning.

- **Ripple effects** – one change disrupts other unrelated plans.

- **Past resentments** – a legacy of distrust based on unkept promises or unaddressed grievances make it hard to be positive about the change effort.

- **Real threats** – the change brings genuine pain or loss.

Armstrong (1992) in his article “Devil’s Advocates” (Human Resources), states, “Change can only be achieved by, through and with people. But it is too easy for those who advocate change to be so overcome by the logic and elegance of their new idea that they forget others may not see it the same way. They are insufficiently aware of the fact that all organizations contain a number of enemies of change and that change management is largely about gaining the support of these people.”

Enemies of change fall into four categories: doubters, preservers, drifters and worriers.
- **Doubters** actively resist change by demanding answers to such questions as “It didn’t work last time so why now?” Doubters are people who can always find a good reason for not doing something.

- **Preservers** have low curiosity and a high need for security. They are in favour of consistency and stability. Their motto is “Don’t rock the boat.”

- **Drifters** also have low curiosity but their need for security is equally low. The future does not interest them too much and they will be indifferent to, and possibly nonchalant about change.

- **Worriers** are those who motto is “It can only get worse.” They feel that, as far as they are concerned, any change can only be detrimental.

Whilst there may be enemies to change in any organization, Armstrong (1992) states that there are also three sorts of allies. These are the steppers, leapers and facilitators.

- **Steppers** don’t mind change and will not block it as long as the proposal is based on exhaustive studies of the existing situation. Their motto is “Look before you leap.” Steppers can provide useful support by ensuring that people think before they act., by planning the change programme and by convincing the doubters, worriers and preservers that change is really a good thing.

- **Leapers** welcome, in fact seek change. Their motto is “There must be a better way.” They focus on the future and see every problem as an opportunity.
Facilitators are people who are not only believers in change but are also aware of the need to carry people along with them. Their motto is “People support what they help to create.” They play an invaluable part in helping to introduce change as smoothly as possible and they know how to make the best use of the available levers for change.

The Shell Handbook of Emergent Change (2002) provides the following important quotes/perspectives on peoples’ response to change:

“People do not resist change – they resist being changed” (Beckhard).

“The reason why people often choose to hold on to destructive ways of thinking and acting are to avoid the pain and risk associated with change” (Senge).

“But the resistance we experience from others is not to the change itself. It is to the particular process of change that believes in imposition rather than creation. It is the resistance of a living system to being treated as a non-living thing. It is an assertion of the system’s right to create. It is life resisting its primary responsibility to create itself” (Wheatley).

“More importantly, I have learned that when people can put their own thumbprint on a change process, there is no need to sell them on the benefits; they own it” (Axelrod).

Figure 2.4 below shows a model for locus of control. The key issue in change leadership is how to expand the top left hand box? How to match people’s expectations and perceptions more effectively?
Figure 2.5 below shows a model of resistance and acceptance to change. The model describes five types of people and their resistance and acceptance level to change. The five are:

- The **pioneers** who change everything and view everyone right of centre as “reactionary.”

- The **early adopters** who change many things.

- The **leadable majority** who are open to experiment.

- The **conservatives** who change few things.

- The **hard-core resisters** who change nothing and view everyone left of centre as “revolutionary.”
2.6 PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERMENT

French (1999) describes several research findings relating to empowerment and participation of employees. These include the following:

- Most people desire increased involvement and participation.
- Involvement and participation energise greater performance, produce better solutions to problems, and greatly enhance acceptance of decisions.
- Empowerment and participation helps to overcome resistance to change, increase commitment to the organization, reduce stress levels, and generally make people feel better about themselves and their worlds.
- Participation is a powerful elixir – it is good for people and performance.

To empower is to give someone power, which is done by giving individuals the authority to make decisions, to contribute their ideas, to exert influence, and to be responsible. Research in organizational development also highlights the
following rules of thumb: “Involve all those who are part of the problem or part of the solution,” and “Have decisions made by those who are closest to the problem.”

Dunphy (1993) identified five leadership practices and ten behavioural commitments exhibited by successful, empowering leaders. The five practices, each with two behavioural commitments, are the following:

- **Challenging the process**
  - Search for opportunities
  - Experiment and take risk

- **Inspiring a shared vision**
  - Envision the future
  - Enlist others

- **Enabling others to act**
  - Foster collaboration
  - Strengthen others

- **Modelling the way**
  - Set the example
  - Plan small wins

- **Encouraging the heart**
  - Recognise individual contributions
  - Celebrate accomplishments

Daft (1999) states, “The outcome of leadership is change. Change always brings dislocation and discomfort. Every organization experiences stress and difficulty
in coping with change, and the increased pace of change in today's world has led to greater challenges for leaders."

2.7 STRESS

Stress is derived from the Latin word *stringere*, meaning to draw tight, and was used in the 17th century to describe hardships or affliction (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997). Stress is a demand made upon the adaptive capacities of the mind and body. If these capacities can handle the demand and enjoy the stimulation involved, then stress is welcome and helpful. If they can't and find the demand debilitating, then stress is unwelcome and unhelpful (Fontana, 1989).

Worley (1991) defines stress as follows: "When an external stimulus (stressor) places a demand on a person, that individual's response to the demand is called "stress." Stress can be either negative (distress) or positive (eustress)." Worley (1991) also identifies a number of factors to explain an individual's response to a particular stressor and whether that stressor is experienced as positive or negative stress. Type A or type B personality, locus of control, extraversion or introversion, and neuroticism are all especially important to the individual's response. Stress comes from different sources for each person, and what may be an extremely motivating work situation for one person may be highly distressful for another.

"Stress has physical and emotional effects, both positive and negative. As a positive influence it can motivate some employees to accept many of the changes and new opportunities. Other employees may experience negative reactions such as anger, distrust, withdrawal, rejection and depression" (http://www.rational.org.nz).
2.8 CHANGE AND STRESS

Stress is primarily caused by the fundamentals of change, lack of control, and high workload. Change will be the byword of the next millennium, with its accompanying job insecurities, corporate culture clashes, and significantly different styles of managerial leadership – in other words, massive organizational change and inevitable stress. In addition, change will bring with it an increased workload as companies try to create “lean fighting machines” to compete. This will mean fewer people performing more work, putting enormous pressure on them. We have in the next millennium all the ingredients of corporate stress: an ever-increasing workload with a decreasing workforce in a climate of rapid change and with control over the means of production increasingly being taken over by free-trade institutions and their bureaucracies (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997).

The WHO regional office for Europe initiated a project to explore the relationship between organizational change and potential impact on the health of a defined workforce population. The project findings were that stress was highlighted by all groups of staff as a concern in relation to their health. There was an expression of the increasing challenge between balancing the demands of home and working life. Emphasis was placed on workload pressures and staff shortages as contributing towards workplace stress. A recommendation of the project was that attention must be given to staff well-being at times of organizational change and beyond, with mechanisms existing to measure the impact of factors with the potential to affect staff health and create a strategic approach gaining commitment to a common agenda for action.

Job stress is a chronic disease caused by conditions in the workplace that negatively affect an individual’s performance and/or overall well-being of his body and mind.

Vieitez et al. (2001) investigated the perception that workers have of technological change and its relation with psychological variables. The hypotheses investigated were based on the existence of the perception of technological change as a threat to job security and how this affects levels of anxiety, general stress and depression. The results indicated the importance of modifying workers' perceptions of technology in order to prevent problems of psychological well being of workers.

Gillespie et al. (2001) researched occupational stress in universities undergoing large-scale organizational change, staff perceptions of the causes, consequences and moderators of stress. Both general and academic staff reported a dramatic increase in stress. Five major sources of stress were identified, including: insufficient funding and resources, work overload, poor management practice, job insecurity, and insufficient recognition and reward. The majority of groups reported that job-related stress was having a deleterious impact on their professional work and personal welfare.

Doyle et al. (2000) surveyed managers in public and private sector organisations on their experience of organisational change. Most managers claimed that change responsibility afforded them valuable personal learning. However, recent change has also been accompanied by stress, work intensification, command and control, and management-employee distrust. Comparison of responses by management level indicated that senior managers were more likely to hold positive views of the change process and its outcomes.

Grimaldi (1981) describes the relationship between stress and workload as an inverted U. When the workload is excessive, stress is high and productivity is
low. On the other hand when employees are overqualified, under utilised or unchallenged, both stress and productivity will be low. Highest productivity is achieved when there is some stress- but not too much. Grimaldi (1981) also identifies personality clashes, uncertain future and value conflicts as sources of stress in organisations.

Niehouse (2001) describes two aspects of change – magnitude and frequency – which must be considered when examining the effects of stress on individuals. Modern management have become increasingly aware of the need to manage change, but many have not yet learned how to successfully contend with their employees’ psychological and emotional reactions to change. While many employees immediately accept and successfully deal with new situations, others need a longer period of readjustment.

2.9 MAJOR SOURCES OF STRESS

These include (http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite):

- **Survival stress** – which occurs in cases where one’s survival or health is threatened. Here adrenaline is released in the body and one experiences all the symptoms of the body preparing for ‘fight or flight.’

- **Internally generated stress** – which comes from anxious worrying about events beyond ones control, from a tense, hurried approach to life, or from relationship problems caused by ones own behaviour.

- **Environmental and Job stress** – where the living or working environment causes the stress. It also comes from events at work.
Fatigue and overwork – where the stress builds up over a long period, which occurs when one is trying to achieve too much in too little time, or when one is not using effective time management strategies.

2.10 TYPES OF STRESS

http://www.healthylife.net describes four types of stress as follows:

- Physical eg. Illness, lack of sleep.
- Nutritional eg. Food allergies, improper digestion.
- Emotional eg. Negative emotions like anger, frustration, grief or guilt.
- Environmental eg. Pollutants.

2.11 WORK STRESS

Fontana (1989) discusses several general causes of work stress. He highlights three role related factors contributing to stress amongst employees. These are role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload:

Role Stress - the theory of role dynamics developed by Kahn, et al., (1964) focussed on the existence of stress arising from conflicting, incompatible or unclear expectations. Their research identified three major factors in role stress, namely: role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. They define role ambiguity as “Role ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of clarity as to the precise requirements of the job and the person is unsure what to do. The person’s own perception of their role may differ from the expectations of others. This implies that insufficient information is available for the adequate performance of the role.” Numerous studies into the effects of role ambiguity have demonstrated that lack of clarity over behavioural expectations results in
various problems, such as lower job satisfaction, lowered productivity, increased tension and anxiety (Legg, 2002).

Role Conflict - "Role conflict occurs when a person is in a situation where there are pressures to comply with different or impossible demands. If the person complies with one demand it is difficult or impossible to comply with other demands." Research has identified various unfavourable personal and organizational outcomes of role conflict, such as job dissatisfaction and work related tension. Role conflict has been shown to be positively associated with stress and anxiety (Legg, 2002).

Role Overload - "Role overload is when a person faces too many separate roles or too great a variety of expectations. The person is unable to meet satisfactorily all expectations and some must be neglected in order to satisfy others. This leads to a conflict of priority" (Legg, 2002).

2.12 CAUSES OF WORK STRESS

There are numerous causes of workplace stress. Some of these are (http://www.stress-cures.com):

Job Insecurity - Organized workplaces are going through metamorphic changes under intense economic transformations and consequent pressures. Reorganizations, takeovers, mergers, downsizing and other changes have become major stressors for employees, as companies try to live up to the competition to survive.

High demand for performance – unrealistic expectations, especially in the time of corporate reorganizations, which, sometimes, puts unhealthy and
unreasonable pressures on the employee, can be a tremendous source of stress and suffering.

**Technology** – has resulted in heightened expectations for productivity, speed and efficiency, increasing pressure on the individual worker to constantly operate at peak performance levels. There is also the constant pressure to keep up with technological breakthroughs and improvisations.

**Workplace culture** – adjusting to a changing workplace culture can be intensely stressful. Making oneself adapt to changes in workplace culture such as communication patterns, hierarchy, workspace and most importantly working and behavioural patterns of the boss as well as the co-workers can be a lesson of life. Personal or family problems – employees going through personal or family problems tend to carry their worries and anxieties to the workplace.

[http://www.ivf.com/stress.html](http://www.ivf.com/stress.html) has identified common adverse factors in the workplace leading to psychological breakdown. These include:

- Recent promotion beyond capacity
- Conflicts due to multiple responsibilities
- Too many demands on time
- Too little or boring work
- New technology
- A new or unreasonable boss
- Increased productivity targets
- Threat of redundancy

Other workplace stressors ([http://www.rational.org.nz](http://www.rational.org.nz)):

- Ongoing change
- Work overload
Deadline pressure
Lack of support and resources
Lack of recognition
Lack of feedback
Unclear goals and objectives
Conflicting demands
Unclear job responsibility
Management and team conflicts
Ambiguous communication

Fontana (1989) describes the following general causes of stress at work:

Insufficient back-up
Long or unsociable hours
Poor status, pay and promotional prospects
Unnecessary rituals and procedures
Uncertainty and insecurity
Unclear role specifications
Role conflict
Unrealistically high expectations
Inability to influence decision-making
Frequent clashes with superiors
Isolation from colleagues support
Overwork and time pressures
Lack of variety
Poor communication
Inadequate leadership
Conflicts with colleagues
Inability to finish a job
Insufficient training
Inability to help or act effectively
Worley (1991) identifies several sources of organizational stress:

- **Change processes** – change can be a powerful stressor, particularly when people feel uncertain or insecure about the future. Changes that are imposed arbitrarily can be especially stressful if management provides poor or misleading explanations of what it is trying to accomplish.

- **Job stressors** – role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload.

- **Group stressors** – conflict, game playing, office politics, inequities.

- **Organizational stressors** – poor communication flow, organizational climate, lack of participation in decisions.

- **Environmental stressors** – crowding, office design, physical settings.

- **Career stressors** – mismatch among career goals, perceived failure to move to higher positions, mid-life transitions, retirement.

- **Extraorganizational stressors** – all other stressors outside the workplace.

http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite describes two important workplace factors that can cause intense stress. These are **noise** and **personal space**. "In a working environment a high level of background noise can severely impair your ability to concentrate. In an open plan office, the sound of people talking casually, of office machinery, or of meetings going on can seriously undermine the quality of work done. Ringing telephones disturb not only the person to whom the call is directed, but also other people in the same area. Large amounts of background noise during the day can cause irritability, tension, and headaches in addition to loss of concentration." Personal space at work is also important.
http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite states, “Other people can also cause you stress when they impose themselves on your personal space, perhaps entering it uninvited. Lack of personal space results in the lack of power to organize and control the space in which you operate.”

http://www.ivf.com/stress.html also states, “unemployment is a very important direct cause of stress, while indirectly the fear of losing one’s job is a similarly serious stressor.”

Monat (1991) describes five categories of job values and various threats (potential stress initiators) to these values. These are summarized in Table 2.3 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Values</th>
<th>Threats (Potential Stress Initiators)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Material</td>
<td>No raise, no promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loss of job, loss of other values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loss of identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Achievement-related</td>
<td>Failure</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job or career change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loss of control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role conflict, role overload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loss of interesting work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sense of purpose</td>
<td>Loss of job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career failure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

46
4. Social relationships

Conflict, criticism
Isolation, alienation, rejection

5. Self-concept

All of the above
Failure to pursue values
Irrational standards
Self-concept – work environment discrepancy

Monat (1991) describes the above work values as follows:

Material values – individuals may base their self-concept entirely on material outcomes, in particular, on the amount of money they earn. When there is a loss of material outcomes employees are easily devastated and feel they are worthless failures, resulting in stress.

Achievement-related values – key threats are loss of feelings of competence, of work that is interesting or challenging, or of personal control over one’s work. Job changes may bring about significant time pressures or work overload that cause similar decreases in personal control.

Sense of purpose – work may have meaning for individuals because it gives them a sense of purpose, adding structure to their lives and the feeling of doing something meaningful. They may experience failure when changes in the goals or technology of the organization undermine the nature of their contribution.

Social relationships – serve both an expressive and an instrumental function at work. Individual’s interactions with their coworkers and customers often provide enjoyment in their own right as well as a mechanism for accomplishing
cooperative aspects of their work. When these social relationships are threatened, individuals may experience stress.

**Self-concept** – is essentially the individuals’ view of themselves with respect to abilities, interests, knowledge, skills and values, as well as their overall evaluation of themselves, i.e., their self-esteem. Work is an important area for threats to the self-concept because the job offers a means to sustain life and key opportunities for individuals to develop and achieve the values that constitute the self-concept.

When individuals perceives obstacles as a threat to their physical well-being, or self-esteem, stress is experienced. Stress is experienced emotionally as fear or anxiety.

### 2.13 STRESS SYMPTOMS

The signs of job stress vary from person to person, depending on the particular situation, how long the individual has been subjected to the stressors, and the intensity of the stress itself. Typical symptoms include (http://www.stress-cures.com):

- Insomnia
- Loss of mental concentration
- Anxiety, stress
- Absenteeism
- Depression
- Substance abuse
- Extreme anger and frustration
- Family conflict
- Physical illnesses
Other symptoms of stress include (http://www.stresseducationcentre.com):

- Difficulty sleeping
- Lose focus easily
- Distracted easily

Signs of stress (http://content.health.msn.com/content/article/1685.50102):

- Withdrawing from the job
- Not showing up
- Coming in late
- Leaving early
- Avoiding phone calls
- Rise in blood pressure
- An increase in drinking

The five symptoms of stress (http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite):

- **Short-term physical symptoms** – which occurs as the body adapts to perceived physical threat. Symptoms include faster heartbeat, increased sweating, cool skin, rapid breathing, tense muscles, dry mouth etc.

- **Short-term performance effects** – impaired judgment, reduced enjoyment of work, loss of positive frame of mind, damages self-confidence, consumes mental energy in distraction, anxiety, frustration and temper.

- **Long-term physical symptoms** – which occur when the body has been exposed to adrenalin over a long period. Symptoms include a change in appetite, frequent colds, back pain, digestive problems, headaches, sexual disorders, and feelings of intense and long-term tiredness.
o **Internal symptoms of long-term stress** – emotional upsets such as worry, anxiety, confusion, feeling ill, feeling out of control, mood changes, depression, frustration, hostility, helplessness, impatience, irritability, restlessness, difficulty sleeping, drinking more alcohol, smoking more and reduced sex drive.

o **Behavioural symptoms of long-term stress** – include talking too fast, yawning, fiddling, nail biting, grinding teeth, drumming fingers, bad moods, reduced personal effectiveness, changing work habits, increased absenteeism and neglect of personal appearance.

### 2.14 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRESS AND PERFORMANCE

Figure 2.6 ([http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite](http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite)) shows the relationship between stress and the quality of performance in situations that impose short-term stress:
When stress is low performance is low because of boredom, lack of concentration and motivation. When stress is too high performance can suffer from all the symptoms of short-term stress. In the middle is the optimum stress level, the zone of best performance. One will be sufficiently aroused to perform well while not being over-stressed and unhappy.
Performance can suffer in situations of excessive long-term stress as depicted in Figure 2.7 (http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite):

![Graph showing the effect of long-term sustained stress on performance.](image)

**Figure 2.7: The Effect of Long-Term Sustained Stress on Performance**

The graph shows four major stages that one may go through in response to sustained levels of excessive stress. During the first phase one will face challenges with plenty of energy. After a period of time one may begin to feel seriously tired. At the third stage one may begin to feel a sense of failure and may be ill more frequently. One may also begin to feel exploited by one’s organization and start to distance oneself from the employer. By stage four, if the high levels of stress continues without relief one may ultimately experience
depression, burnout, nervous breakdown or some other form of serious stress related illness.

Different people may move between stages with different speeds under different stress conditions.

2.15 THE LIFE CRISIS SCALE

http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite cites work done by Drs T.H. Holmes and R.H. Rahe with the Social Readjustment Scale. This allocates a number of 'Life Crisis Units' (LCU's) to different events. The Life Crisis scoring table is given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>LCU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Death of a spouse</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jail term</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death of close family member</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal illness or injury</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fired at work</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital reconciliation</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirement</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pregnancy</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business readjustment</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in financial state</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death of a close friend</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change to a different line of work</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A large mortgage or loan</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in responsibilities at work</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Son or daughter leaving home 29
Outstanding personal achievement 28
Change in living conditions 25
Trouble with boss 23
Change in work hours or conditions 20
Change in residence 20
Change in social activities 18
A moderate loan or mortgage 17
Change in sleeping habits 16
Change in eating habits 15
Holiday 13
Christmas 12
Minor violations of law 11

As can be seen, work-related sources of stress score between 20 and 47 LCU’s.

2.16 STRESS EFFECTS


- Loss of concentration
- Difficulty in making decisions and solving problems
- Headaches
- Muscle tension and soreness
- Loss of sleep
- Stomach and digestive upsets

- Anger
- Fear
- Anxiety
- Tension
- Frustration
- Tiredness
- Cynicism
- Resentment
- Aggression
- Guilt
- Internal conflict

2.17 DEALING WITH WORK STRESS

Worley (1991) advocates the following strategies for managing stress:

- Carefully planned change processes – time for preparation can help reduce stress arising from sources such as uncertainty, anticipation of change, changes imposed arbitrarily, and the actual change made.

- Role clarification – helps reduce ambiguity and conflict.

- Performance standards – setting and clearly communicating them can help manage stress by reducing uncertainty, role ambiguity and work overload.

- Individual goal setting – helps to reduce uncertainty, role ambiguity and conflict and stress from time pressures and deadlines.
o **Organizational goal setting** – can enable employees to evaluate their employee-organization fit. This can reduce stress from fear of obsolescence, lack of promotional opportunities and ambiguous or arbitrary policies.

o **Time out** – allowing employees time out to enable them to use individual coping techniques.

o **Feedback and performance evaluation** – can be effective in reducing both uncertainty and role ambiguity.

o **Training programs** – that offer knowledge and skills in stress management.

o **Job restructuring** – job enrichment with greater autonomy and skill variety. Reduces role overload, time pressures and deadlines, and role ambiguity and conflict.

o **Open communication channels** – good communication can improve employees' ability to predict and understand organizational events occurring to them. Can help reduce stress from change and fear of obsolescence.

McHugh (1996) comments that instability is the norm for most organizations today, and the rate of change is accelerating. It is argued that change is sometimes inflicted on employees and they are expected to adapt without complaint. Management within organizations stands accused of looking at the needs of the organization and overlooking the needs of employees. While programmes of change may hold the key to organizational survival and success, it is suggested that ignoring employee needs constitutes a serious mistake.
Research findings of McHugh (1996) are that if employees are neglected in the planning and implementation of organizational change, it is likely that the entire process will be extremely stressful for individuals, the adverse effects of which will manifest themselves in a variety of ways which are costly to the organization.

Cartwright and Cooper (1993) identified increased work targets, threats of job loss, organizational change, change in job holders’ responsibilities, shifts in balance of power and general upheaval as sources of job stress. They recommend that change be managed in a way that attempts to alleviate, rather than contribute to, potentially enormous organizational and individual problems by placing the stress factor on the change management agenda.

Research findings of McHugh (1996) show that high levels of job demand alone do not necessarily cause job stress. Rather, the presence of stress is dependent on the degree to which individuals perceive the presence of supports and constraints within their work environment. It was also found that a significant proportion of the organization’s employees are caught in the middle of a vicious spiral of pressures whereby much of the stress experienced by individuals is exacerbated by the issues associated with the change process, which in turn causes further stress.

McHugh (1996) provides the following recommendations on change management:

- Staff should be well equipped to cope with the unique brand of pressures they face during organizational change.
- There should be a careful well-planned approach to change management.
- A systematic approach should be adopted towards stress prevention.
- Training programs should be provided for stress prevention.
There should be constant dialogue during change. Such communication is an essential component of the change process that permits parties to exchange views, and thus alleviate any areas of uncertainty.

Employees should be made aware of exactly how they will be affected by the change process.

There should be a focus on the skills required of those who are at the core of the change process.

Sensitize the organization and employees to the need for change and provide further training that aims to help them cope with change.

Coping with change should be regarded as a challenge to be welcomed, rather than something that is viewed with fear and trepidation.

Ensure that the high levels of demands being placed on employees as a result of the change process are counteracted with sufficient supports.

2.18 MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS

Legg (2002) presents an organizational stress model. This model has been adapted to stress related to change leadership (Figure 2.8). The concept of the stress model is constructed on a process format. The inputs are change leadership related elements, perceived as sources of stress, including certain testable biographical features. The employee is at the centre in which the perceived stress is processed. The outcomes are the stress symptoms that are registered at the end of the process. There are three phases in this process model.

The first phase reflects the input variables seen as potential sources of change leadership related stress. These include biographical features of participants, to gauge whether factors such as age, service and gender of employees have an influence as a contributor to stress.
In the second phase the employee provides the person-related processing element in the model. The individual is conceived as processing the stress inputs via own perceptions that determines responses to a perceived stressor.

The third phase is the outcomes. The processing of the source inputs of stress have outcomes based on the ability of the person to process the inputs and the intensity of the pressures. These outcomes may be observed in physiological, psychological and behavioural stress symptoms. The study has focussed on measurable psychological and physical outcomes in terms of identifiable symptoms. The physiological and behavioural outcomes have been included as examples of other outcomes to provide a more holistic view of the fact of other outcomes but which are not investigated in this study.
Figure 2.8: Organizational Stress Model
Cooper (2000) presents a 4 way model for stress as depicted in Figure 2.9 below:

Different people produce different symptoms under stress. A person's response to stress is dependent on personality and coping mechanisms. Depending on the balance between sources of pressure and coping mechanisms, and the individual's personality, the result can be either positive (leading to growth) or negative (leading to stress).

**Figure 2.9: The 4 Way Model of Stress**
2.19 ATTITUDE AND STRESS

"Attitude is fundamental to long term stress management. Where your attitude is hostile or negative, you will create problems out of opportunities and cause stress by alienating and irritating other people. Where you have a positive attitude, you can maintain a sense of perspective and draw the positive elements out of each situation" (http://www.psychwww.com/mtsite).

http://www.rational.org.nz states, "Organizational change and increased stress levels seem to be life partners these days. During organizational change, self defeating internal self talk may cause employees to experience strong self defeating emotions such as resentment, hostility, anxiety, depression and the like. Once upon a time only buildings were stressed. People could be tired, worried, anxious, nervous or uncertain. In recent times stress has evolved from an engineering term to a culture construct. Parallel to this comes change. Change once happened over a period of time, like the metamorphosis of a butterfly. Now, with organizational change, it often feels like being part of an accelerated metamorphic process with insufficient time to adjust from one stage to the next. During major organizational change, the most important and difficult journey employees need make is the internal process of change."

Changing structures and developing new work processes and procedures challenges employees' beliefs as to their own identity and values. They may experience feelings of disorientation, insecurity and uncertainty in their work. Employees tend to display a variety of emotional reactions regarding management decisions and behaviours that, in their perception, have robbed them of a known way of life and work place security, and cast uncertain shadows on their future careers.
2.20 CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with the theoretical background and literature survey on organizational change, stress, and the relationship between the two variables.

The next chapter covers the research methodology used in the study.
3.1 INTRODUCTION

Ghauri, Gronhaug, and Kristianslund (1995) write that:

“The purposes of doing research are multiple, such as to describe, explain, understand, foresee, criticise and/or analyse existing knowledge or phenomena in the social sciences.

The job of a researcher is often that of an observer and each observation is prone to error; therefore we go out and research to find a better ‘truth’.”

The methodological approach adopted in this research study makes use of analytical research methods in a cross-sectional correlation study. The approach is quantitative in that statistical analysis is performed on results obtained from respondents and conclusions are drawn from this quantitative information.

3.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The company that is the subject of this study is Shell South Africa Energy (Pty) Ltd, Chemical Division. It is a subsidiary of the global Shell Chemicals International.

Shell ranks high in the list of Fortune Global 500 in total profits. Given this, many people are questioning why the company leaders are leading the company through its most dramatic transformation in 40 years? When the top leaders considered the future of the company, they realized the company was saddled
with an insular corporate culture, a complicated and outmoded organizational structure, and a controversial public image. The company’s structures, strategies, practices, and values were incompatible with the rapidly changing world in which the company operated. To meet the demands of a changing world, the leadership wanted to create a fast, flexible, environmentally aware company that runs more efficiently, is more innovative, and is capable of moving the organization into profitable new businesses. Even the most hallowed of the company’s practices and beliefs are being challenged as leaders push to change the bureaucratic, complacent, and arrogant corporate culture. Some employees are already resisting change and believe that the pace is so overwhelming that the company is on the verge of chaos (Daft, 1999).

Shell South Africa Energy (Pty) Ltd, Chemical Division, manufactures and markets a range of chemicals. Approximately ten years ago the division had over 300 staff. Today the staff number is only 58. This reduction in staffing levels is a barometer of the change and transformation that the division has experienced in recent years. There are numerous factors driving change within the organization, but perhaps the most significant factor is globalisation. This and other external forces of change has resulted in the following:

- Rationalization of the product portfolio globally, resulting in the divestment and closure of a number of manufacturing plants worldwide, including one in South Africa.
- Organizational restructuring worldwide, resulting in flatter organizations.
- The introduction of a global performance management system.
- The implementation of globally integrated IT hardware and software systems.
- The introduction of a global scorecard, where employee remuneration (bonus) is dependent on the performance of the company globally.
- A change in organizational culture from “the company offers a job for life” to one where “you have a job for today.”
- Restructuring of salary packages from basic plus fringe benefits, to a total package where the employee decides on the salary structure desired. Implicit in this arrangement is that all "risk" passes from employer to employee.
- Organisational changes to conform to the requirements of Employment Equity legislation in South Africa.
- A move from private offices for staff, to an arrangement where there are no more offices and all employees now have open plan seating.

Against the above backdrop, the aim of this study is to examine the relationship between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress with a view to exposing the linkages, if any, between these concepts.

The objectives of the study are:

3.2.1 To determine employees' perception of change leadership.
3.2.2 To determine employees' level of stress.
3.2.3 To determine the correlation between employees' perception of change leadership and their corresponding level of stress.

3.3 THE THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

The theoretical model and hypotheses form the basis of the study.

3.3.1 INTRODUCTION

Soberman (2000) writes that a model is a representation containing the essential structure of some object or event in the real world. This representation may be physical or symbolic.
Similarly, Cooper and Schindler (2001) write that a model is “a representation of a system that is constructed to study some aspect of that system or the system as a whole. Models differ from theories in that a theory’s role is explanation whereas a model’s role is representation.”

Ghauri, Gronhaug, and Kristianslund (1995) write that a model is a representation of a problem or reality. Key characteristics include:

- Firstly, the model must represent an object or phenomenon – the model itself is not the object or phenomenon;
- Secondly, the model simplifies by reducing the number of variables; and
- Finally, relationships between the variables must be included in the model.

This section provides a conceptual model of the variables, the relationships under investigation and presents a set of hypotheses that are tested in the study.

### 3.3.2 THEORETICAL MODEL

The theoretical model for this study is based on Kotter’s 8-stage model of planned change (Daft, 1999), an adaptation of the Burke-Litwin model of transformational change (French, 1999), and an adaptation of the model of organizational stress (Legg, 2002). These models are depicted in the figures below:
4. Communicate the vision widely
3. Develop a compelling vision and strategy
2. Form a powerful guiding coalition
1. Establish a sense of urgency

5. Empower employees to act on the vision
6. Generate short-term wins
7. Consolidate gains, create greater change.
8. Institutionalise changes in org. culture

Figure 3.1: Burke-Litwin's Modified Model of Transformational Change

Figure 3.2: Kotter's Model of Planned Change
The Burke-Litwin model of transformational change is modified by the inclusion of stress as a dimension. The study focuses on the dimensions of Leadership and Stress only. In terms of organizational stress, the study focuses only on biographical, work-related and organizational change stressors; and measurement of psychological and physical symptoms of stress. Physiological
symptoms, behavioural symptoms and individual personal response characteristics do not form a part of the study in order to limit the number of variables under study.

Based on the above models, Figure 3.4 represents the relationship(s) investigated:

**INDEPENDENT VARIABLE**

Employee Perceptions of Change Leadership

- Vision
- Communication
- Participation
- Empowerment
- Planning
- Recognition
- Listening
- Behaviours
- Structure
- Honesty

**DEPENDENT VARIABLE**

Employee Stress

- Individual
- Role ambiguity
- Role conflict
- Role overload
- Relationships
- Job insecurity
- Physical environment

Figure 3.4: Theoretical Model
In terms of the independent variable, perceptions of change leadership, dimensions include:

**Vision** – do the change leaders have a clear and compelling vision?

**Communication** – are the plans, goals and change initiatives communicated widely and frequently?

**Participation** – does the process include the participation of as many employees as possible?

**Empowerment** – are employees empowered to take decisions and make change happen?

**Planning** – are changes planned properly before execution?

**Recognition** – are employees given recognition and rewarded for their contribution to the change process?

**Listening** – do the leaders, change agents and managers listen to what the employees have to say?

**Behaviours** – do the change leaders lead by example and “walk the talk”?

**Structure** – are there appropriate organizational and employee support structures during times of change?

**Honesty** – are change leaders open and honest about the change and the future?
3.3.3 THE HYPOTHESES

Cooper and Schindler (2001) write, "a proposition is a statement about concepts that may be judged as true or false if it refers to observable phenomenon. When a proposition is formulated for empirical testing, it is called a 'hypothesis'. As a declarative statement, a hypothesis is of a tentative and conjectural nature."

They state that a hypothesis serves five main functions: Firstly, it guides the direction of the study. Secondly, it limits what data and material will be studied and what will not. Thirdly, it identifies the relevant facts and sifts out information that is not pertinent to the study. Fourthly, it suggests what form of research design is likely to be most appropriate. Finally, it provides a framework for organizing conclusions.

The objective of a hypothesis test is to use sample information to decide whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis concerning a population value. Inferences are drawn about the population based on the results of the hypothesis test performed on the sample. A type I error occurs when a null hypothesis is true, but is rejected in error. On the other hand, a Type II error occurs if the null hypothesis is false and is accepted in error.

Ghauri, Gronhaug, and Kristianslund (1995) write, "The hypothesis to be tested is often referred to as the null-hypothesis and is denoted by H or \( H_0 \). When a hypothesis H is set forth, one must always state the alternative hypothesis to H, i.e. the hypothesis we think is true if H is not true. The alternative hypothesis is often denoted by A, \( H_A \) or \( H_1 \). The choice of the alternative is always such that either it or the hypothesis must be true. There must be no other possibilities. To test a hypothesis, H, against an alternative hypothesis, A, means confronting the hypothesis with facts derived from observed sample data. On the basis of this confrontation the conclusion is drawn, either to reject H as being false, and therefore to accept A, or to accept H."
In this study, the symbol $H_0$ has been used to denote the null hypothesis (hypothesis being tested) and $H_1$, the alternative hypothesis.

The study contains only one hypothesis, which examines the aggregate relationship between employee perceptions of change leadership and their stress.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$H_0$ (Null)</th>
<th>No relationship exists between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Aggregate scores on the perception of change leadership scale are not significantly correlated with aggregate scores on the stress scale].</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$H_1$ (Alternate)</th>
<th>A negative relationship exists between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[High aggregate scores on the perception of change leadership scale are negatively correlated with high aggregate scores on the stress scale].</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rationale:

Employees that have a positive perception of change leadership will be motivated and will be less stressed by the organizational change.
3.4 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design includes the design strategy, the sampling design, the research instrument and the statistical analysis of data.

3.4.1 Design Strategy

Cooper and Schindler (2001) define research design as “… the strategy for a study and the plan by which the strategy is to be carried out.”

The design used for this study is a cross-sectional correlational design. It is cross-sectional in that the study was carried out once and represents a snapshot of one point in time. The study is correlational in that it attempts to discover or clarify the relationships using correlational methods.

3.4.2 Sampling Design

The sample of this study consists of employees at Shell South Africa Energy (Pty) Ltd, based in Durban.

The organization consists of the marketing, finance, IT, customer relationship, manufacturing, distribution, health, safety and environment departments. The company has 58 permanent employees. For purposes of the study, ‘supervisors’ were classified as ‘management’. Given the relatively small population and the ease of access to the staff, a census was considered appropriate and manageable. Whilst the study was intended as a census, given that the response rate was only 59 %, it was decided to treat this as a sample and use inferential statistics to infer the results of the sample onto the population.
3.5 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research instrument includes its construction, measuring scales, reliability and validity of the scales, and the administration of the instrument to the respondents.

3.5.1 Construction of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into three sections:

- Section A: Biographical information
- Section B: Perception of Change Leadership
- Section C: Employee Stress

Biographical information included questions on age, sex, marital status, level in the organization and length of service.

The Perception of Change Leadership section contained questions that measured the respondents' perceptions of the following dimensions of effective change leadership:

- Vision – how clear and compelling
- Communication
- Participation of employees in the change process
- Empowerment of employees
- Planning of the change process
- Recognition and reward for employees that contribute to change
- Listening – how well leaders listen to their employees
- Behaviours of leaders
- Structure – organizational structures and support mechanisms
- Honesty and openness of the change leaders
There were two questions on each of the dimensions to test the validity of the responses.

The section on Employee Stress was used to measure the respondent's stress resulting from the following:

- Individual factors
- Role ambiguity
- Role conflict
- Role overload
- Relationships
- Job insecurity
- Physical environment

The questionnaire is included in Appendix 1.

### 3.5.2 Measuring Scales

Cooper and Schindler (2001) define measurement as "assigning numbers to empirical events in compliance with a set of rules." The data that is to be collected for the proposed study comprise of nominal and interval data.

#### 3.5.2.1 Perception of Change Leadership Scale

The Perception of Change Leadership instrument scale was positively scored. The more positive the perception, the higher was the score.

This scale was based on:

- An adaptation of a scale developed by Daft (1999) and modelled on Kotter’s eight steps of Planned Change, and
An adaptation of the model of transformational change by Burke-Litwin.

Responses to each question were measured on a 5-point Likert scale with scale point anchors labelled:

- Strongly disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly agree, and
- Strongly agree

"( R )" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

3.5.2.2 Stress Scale

The measurement of Stress instrument scale was negatively scored. The more positive the response (lower stress), the lower was the score.

This scale was based on an adaptation of a scale developed by Legg (2002).

The questionnaire comprises 20 items with which respondents have to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 5-point Likert scale with scale anchors labelled:

- Strongly disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly agree, and
- Strongly agree

The hypothesis that has been formulated is negative in nature in that it proposes that a poor perception of change leadership (low score) will result in increased
stress (high score). Therefore, if the respondents score low on the perception of change leadership instrument, they perceive change leadership to be poor. They would thus score high on the measurement of stress instrument, implying high levels of stress resulting from a poor perception of change leadership. There would therefore be a negative correlation between the independent variable – perception of change leadership, and the dependent variable – level of stress.

3.5.3 Reliability and Validity

In constructing the questionnaires, care was taken to ensure the reliability and validity of the results.

3.5.4 Administration of the Questionnaire

The study involved the administration of a self-completion questionnaire to all employees at the company. Questionnaires were printed and mailed to all staff using the company internal mail system. Employees were asked to deposit the completed questionnaires into the suggestion boxes located on the company premises. The mail messenger delivered the completed questionnaires to the researcher. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a self-addressed envelope, which the respondents used for returning the questionnaire.

3.5.5 Pre-Testing

Pre-testing relies on colleagues, respondent surrogates, or actual respondents to evaluate and refine a measuring instrument. In this study, the tight submission deadlines did not permit pre-testing of the measuring instrument.
3.5.6 Ethics

Ethics are norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others. The goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences from research activities (Schindler, 2001). These principles were adhered to. Respondents’ confidentiality was maintained and full assurance given to all respondents in this regard. There was no requirement for the respondents to identify themselves on any of the documents issued to them. Informed consent was obtained from the sponsor and the respondents before proceeding with the study.

3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

First the raw data was edited to check for errors, omissions, and completeness.

Numerical coding of 1 to 5 was assigned to the Likert scale. Descriptive and analytical research was undertaken using data obtained from the questionnaire. Quantitative statistical analysis was performed using a computerised statistics software package (SPSS version 11.5).

Statistics were considered significant if \( p < 0.05 \).

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analysis was applied to study the relationship between the two variables of interest; namely, perception of change leadership and stress.
3.6.1 Quantitative Analysis – Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics include frequencies, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion.

3.6.1.1 Frequencies

Frequencies may be described as the number of times a response occurs within a given category. It allows the researcher to calculate percentages of the occurrence and represent the data as bar charts, pie charts and histograms.

Scatterplots and Q-Q plots were used to visually examine the linear relationship between employee perception of change leadership and employee stress and determine whether the data was normally distributed.

3.6.1.2 Measures of Central Tendency

These summarise data into one number in order to give a shorthand description of the entire data set. The measures used in this study include:

Mean : The arithmetic average.

Median : The midpoint of a distribution of data, where half the cases fall above and half the cases fall below.

Mode : The most frequently occurring value in an array of data.
3.6.1.3 Measures of Dispersion

The measures used in this study include:

Range : The difference between the highest and smallest score in the distribution.

Variance : Calculated as the squared deviation scores from the data distribution's mean.

Standard deviation : The positive square root of the variance.

3.6.2 Quantitative Analysis - Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics enables the researcher to make inferences about a population, based on the results obtained from a sample.

3.6.2.1 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was used to measure the degree of association between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress. The more the observations tended to cluster around a straight line, the stronger and higher the correlation. This was tested by means of scatterplots.

Pearson's (product-moment) correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of the relationship. The designation 'r' symbolizes the coefficient's estimate of linear association based on sampling data. The coefficient 'p' represents the population correlation. The coefficient varies over a range of +1 to -1.
3.7 CONCLUSION

The research design serves as the platform for the study. This chapter has tried to ensure that all pertinent aspects for the empirical research to be embarked on have been met and that results obtained from the study will be valid and reliable.

The results of the research are discussed in the following chapter.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the findings of the research study.

The findings of the study are presented using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Quantitative results are presented in graphical and tabular form.

Data received from the questionnaires was captured on MS Excel spreadsheets and processed using both the internal functions of MS Excel as well as the SPSS statistical package.

4.2 THE FINDINGS OF THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

These include descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

These include frequencies, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion.

4.2.1.1 Frequencies

A total of 58 questionnaires were issued. There were 34 respondents (59%).

The sample profile is reflected in Table 4.1 and bar charts.
Table 4.1: Sample Biographical Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 30 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 39 yrs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 49 yrs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 50 yrs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>85.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-manager</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of Service:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 5 yrs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 10 yrs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 10 yrs</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
82 % of the sample comprised of male respondents, whilst 18 % was female. This reflects a male dominant sample, which is representative of the population as a whole.

Most of the respondents were between 40 and 49 years of age (50 %).
Figure 4.3: Bar chart of marital status of respondents

The majority of respondents were married (85 %). 'Other' represented employees that were divorced or living together.

Figure 4.4: Bar chart of level of respondents

The majority of respondents were non-managers (65 %). Supervisors were classified as managers.
The majority of respondents had more than 10 years service (59%). The second largest group (32.4%) was those employees that had been with the organization for between 5 and 10 years.

Figure 4.6: Bar chart of employee perceptions of change leadership
51% of the sample responded with high scores on the overall 'Perception of Change Leadership Scale. 19% remained neutral and 30% responded negatively.

Figure 4.7: Bar chart of employee stress level

59% responded with low scores (low stress) on the Stress Scale. 14% remained neutral and 27% responded with high scores (high stress).
Figure 4.8: Bar chart of Perception of Change Leadership - Vision

63.2 % of the sample responded with high scores, 16.2 % remained neutral and 20.6 % responded negatively.

Figure 4.9: Bar chart of Perception of Change Leadership - Communication

86.8 % of the sample responded with high scores, 8.8 % remained neutral and 4.4 % responded negatively.
39.7% of the sample responded with high scores, 25.0% remained neutral and 35.3% responded negatively.

48.5% of the sample responded with high scores, 22.1% remained neutral and 29.4% responded negatively.
Figure 4.12: Bar chart of Perception of Change Leadership - Recognition

42.6 % of the sample responded with high scores, 23.5 % remained neutral and 37.8 % responded negatively.

Figure 4.13: Bar chart of Perception of Change Leadership - Listening

42.6 % of the sample responded with high scores, 16.2 % remained neutral and 41.2 % responded negatively.
38.2 % of the sample responded with high scores, 23.5 % remained neutral and 38.2 % responded negatively.

50.0 % of the sample responded with high scores, 17.6 % remained neutral and 32.4 % responded negatively.
Figure 4.16: Bar chart of Perception of Change Leadership - Honesty

30.9% of the sample responded with high scores, 26.5% remained neutral and 42.6% responded negatively.

Figure 4.17: Bar chart of Employee Stress - Individual

39.7% of the sample responded with high stress scores, 5.1% remained neutral and 55.1% responded with low stress scores.
20.6 % of the sample responded with high stress scores, 14.7 % remained neutral and 64.7 % responded with low stress scores.

21.6 % of the sample responded with high stress scores, 12.7 % remained neutral and 65.7 % responded with low stress scores.
Figure 4.20: Employee Stress – Role Conflict

26.5 % of the sample responded with high stress scores, 12.7 % remained neutral and 60.8 % responded with low stress scores.

Figure 4.21: Bar chart of Employee Stress – Relationships

13.7 % of the sample responded with high stress scores, 18.6 % remained neutral and 67.6 % responded with low stress scores.
Figure 4.22: Bar chart of Employee Stress – Job Insecurity

48.5 % of the sample responded with high stress scores, 17.6 % remained neutral and 33.8 % responded with low stress scores.

Figure 4.23: Bar chart of Employee Stress – Physical Environment

19.1 % of the sample responded with high stress scores, 19.1 % remained neutral and 61.8 % responded with low stress scores.
4.2.1.2 Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion

The descriptive statistics showing minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation are described below.

**Table 4.2: Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation scores on the Perception of Change Leadership instrument**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Perception of Change Leadership</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.24 illustrates the mean scores for employee perceptions of change leadership. Communication ranked highest with a mean of 4.29 and it is clear that communication is important to employees and is perceived by them to be well handled by the leaders. Honesty is ranked the lowest with a mean of 2.87 indicating that, notwithstanding the high score for communication, honesty and openness on the part of the leadership is still perceived by employees to be relatively low.
Figure 4.24: Bar chart of Mean Scores – Perception of Change Leadership

Table 4.3: Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation scores on the Stress Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual stress</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role ambiguity stress</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role overload stress</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role conflict stress</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships stress</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job insecurity stress</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical environment stress</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Stress</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.25 illustrates the mean scores for employee stress. Job insecurity ranks highest with a mean of 3.31. This is to be expected, for during times of transformational change in an organization, job insecurity would be a significant cause of stress. Relationships ranks the lowest with a mean of 2.17 signifying that employees are relatively happy with their working relationships with colleagues and superiors.
Figure 4.26 shows the mean scores for perception of change leadership and employee stress. A score of 60 implies 'neutral'. The average overall score for perception of change leadership is 66.1 indicating an overall positive view of change leadership by employees. The average overall stress score is 48.6 indicating that employee stress level is relatively low.

Table 4.4: Mean, Median and Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of Change Leadership</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 shows the measures of central tendency for the independent and dependent variables.
4.2.1.3 Normality

In any normal distribution, 68% of all values under the curve lie within one standard deviation of the mean and 95% lie within two standard deviations.

There are several reasons for the popularity and applicability of the normal distribution. One reason is that a wide variety of naturally occurring random variables (such as stress scores) are distributed evenly around a central value, average, or norm. Another reason is that if the mean and standard deviation of a normal distribution are known, it is easy to convert back and forth from raw scores to percentiles. Finally, the normality condition is required by almost all kinds of parametric statistical tests.

The normal distribution assumption was investigated using Normal Q-Q plots.

The Q-Q plots the quantiles of a variable's residual distribution against the quantiles of any of a number of test distributions. Typically, probability plots are generally used to determine whether the distribution of a variable matches a given distribution. If the selected variable matches the test distribution, the points cluster around a straight line.

The Q-Q plots for both employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress can be found in the figures below:
Normal Q-Q Plot of PERCEPTION

Figure 4.27: Q-Q Plot for Perception of Change Leadership

Normal Q-Q Plot of STRESS

Figure 4.28: Q-Q Plot For Employee Stress
From the above graphs, it can be seen that the scores appeared to fall roughly in a straight line indicating a normal distribution. Scores for Stress appear to fall more linearly than for Perception of Change Leadership.

4.2.1.4 Skewness and Kurtosis

Skewness and kurtosis are measures of shape that indicate how much a distribution varies from a normal distribution. In general, a skewness value greater than one indicates a distribution that differs significantly from a normal, symmetric distribution. Table 4.5 summarises the results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of Change Leadership</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>-0.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>-0.425</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Skewness:**
The variables have positive (right tail) skewness as can be seen from Table 4.5. Both the independent variable (perception of change leadership) and the dependent variable (stress) are positively skewed. Since skewness is less than 1 in both cases, the distributions approximate the normal distribution. Figures 4.29 and 4.30 show the distribution curves.

**Kurtosis:**
Kurtosis is a measure of a distribution's peakedness. Both variables have negative kurtosis, implying a platykurtic flat distribution with scores more evenly distributed and tails fatter than a normal distribution.
PERCEPTION OF CHANGE LEADERSHIP

Figure 4.29: Distribution – Perception of Change Leadership

STRESS

Figure 4.30: Distribution - Stress
4.2.2 Inferential Statistics

According to Cooper and Schindler (2001), statistical inference allows us to reason from evidence found in the sample to conclusions we wish to make about the population.

4.2.2.1 Hypothesis

H₁ (Alternative) A negative relationship exists between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress.

[High aggregate scores on the perception of change leadership scale are negatively correlated with high aggregate scores on the stress scale].

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable (perception of change leadership) and the dependent variable (stress). The results are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>PERCEPTI</th>
<th>STRESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PERCEPTI</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRESS</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.299*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
There is a negative correlation between Perception of Change Leadership and Stress ($r = -0.299$). The relationship is significant ($p < 0.05$) which suggests that as employee perceptions of change leadership increases, employee stress decreases.

Hence, the null hypothesis ($H_0$) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis ($H_1$) accepted.

![Linear Regression](image)

**Figure 4.31: Linear Regression**

Figure 4.31 shows the linear regression of the two variables. It is evident that whilst the relationship between the variables is significant, the relationship is not very strong.
4.3 CONCLUSION

The above chapter discussed the results and findings of the research study. The study focussed on examining the relationship between employee perceptions of change leadership and the effect this has on their level of stress.

Evidence was presented that there is a negative relationship between change leadership and employee stress, i.e. as employee perceptions of change leadership increases, employee stress decreases.

The next chapter covers the recommendations and conclusions of the study.
CHAPTER 5
RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research conducted provides useful insights into the relationship that exists between employee perceptions of change leadership and employee stress.

This chapter summarises the implications of the study and makes some recommendations for change leaders and decision-makers.

5.2 CHANGE LEADERSHIP

In order for change leadership in an organization to be effective whilst at the same time responding to the needs of employees, it is imperative that change leaders and change agents are competent and skilled to lead the change. Change leaders must be proficient in the following competencies:

- **Change initiation** – the ability to create the case for change and sustain sponsor commitment throughout the change process.
- **Change impact** – the ability to scope the breath, depth, sustainability and returns of a change strategy.
- **Change facilitation** – the ability to help others, through effective facilitation, to gain insight into the human dynamics of change and to develop the confidence to achieve the change goals.
- **Change leadership** – the ability to influence and enthuse others, through personal advocacy, vision and drive, and to access resources to build a solid platform for change.
o **Change learning** – the ability to scan, reflect and identify learning and ensure insights are used to develop individual, group and organizational capabilities.

o **Change execution** – the ability to formulate and guide the implementation of a credible change plan with appropriate goals, resources, metrics and review mechanisms.

o **Change presence** – demonstrating high personal commitment to achievement of change goals through integrity and courage, while maintaining objectivity and individual resilience.

o **Change technology** – knowledge, generation and skilful application of change theories, tools and processes.

Change leaders must recognise that individuals subjected to change go through various stages in dealing with the change. This is normal and the stages typically are:

- Denial and rejection.
- Anger and resistance.
- Acceptance and curiosity.
- Enthusiasm and hope.
- Commitment and excitement.

The role of the change leader is to get the employees from denial/rejection to commitment/excitement as quickly as possible by providing the necessary support structures and resources.

Communicate, communicate, and communicate! The importance of communication cannot be over-emphasized. Communication is crucial to the eradication of uncertainty and fear, and at the same time etching the new vision and strategy in the minds of all employees.
Be aware of the ‘enemies of change’, the Doubters, Preservers, Drifters and the Worriers. A core skill and competency of a good change leader is the ability to gain the support of these people.

Recognise the ‘allies of change’, the Steppers, Leapers and Facilitators. These are invaluable resources during change and must be used to the advantage of the change process.

Follow Kotter’s 8-step process of planned change. It is a good recipe for successful change implementation.

Make stress management an integral part of major organizational change programs.

The easiest way to get employee commitment to a change program is to make them own the change. The way to achieve this is to elicit their full participation in the change through encouragement and empowerment.

The advantages of involving people in the change process are:

- Improved decisions because people have better detailed knowledge of jobs and systems.
- People will better understand the aims of the change, and the working of new systems.
- Creates a feeling of ownership.
- Redirects energy in support of change rather than against change.
- Builds a better understanding of change and how to achieve it.

The world is constantly changing. So too are organizations. Change leaders should take steps that would make employees more comfortable in dealing with constant change.
Change leaders should use organizational change as an opportunity and process for learning and development of employees.

Change leaders must not only give people the vision of the future, they must also help them to see the stepping stones along the way.

It is important to establish openness, honesty and trust. Provide honest feedback. Leaders that fail to do this are cheating their people by depriving them of the information they need to improve.

The leader’s vision needs to be credible. People need to perceive the credible actions that they can take and that they feel they can control.

People need time to get through a major change. It is important that change leaders spend time with people and listen to their views. Recognise that everyone needs to feel his or her way forward in a period of change. Leaders must help them to see personal milestones, jobs to train for, objectives to achieve and systems to get working.

Change leaders must have a good grasp of human dynamics and the theories of organizational stress. This would make them more effective in dealing with the human side of change.

Other recommendations for creating meaningful change include:

- Equity and fairness – working together blurs the privileges associated with roles and titles. Everyone has an equal opportunity for contributing to the outcome. Considering the impact of the change on everyone requires development of even-handed outcomes.
- Maximum sharing of information – senior managers often wonder why the rest of the organization does not see things the way they do. Often it is
because they have information that they have not shared. Sharing information lets everyone know what is happening in both the internal and external environments and creates initiative. Holding back information creates dependency.

- Freedom and autonomy – restricting this diminishes action. Provide a balance so that people can respond to changing conditions, without creating chaos.
- Open decision-making processes – must be accessible to many organizational members, they must be public, and they must allow for everyone’s input. Engage the larger system from the beginning.
- “Walk the talk” - change leaders and managers must lead by their own example.

### 5.3 Employee Stress

A large amount of research has shown that uncertainty and perceived lack of control heighten stress. The greatest stress occurs when jobs are high in stressors and low in controllability. The effective change leader should take appropriate steps to reduce uncertainty and increase employee involvement in the change process.

Programs of stress management targeted at perceptions and experiences of stress and outcomes of stress include:

- Team building
- Behaviour modification
- Career counselling and other employee assistance programs
- Workshops on time management
- Training in relaxation techniques
- Physical fitness or ‘wellness’ programs
Programs that promote role clarity and role analysis can be particularly useful in removing or reducing role ambiguity and role conflict.

One way to provide employees with more control and less stress is to give employees more control over their time.

When implementing change, leaders should examine the following aspects of change to eliminate or modify work stressors:

- Improving the physical work environment
- Redesigning jobs to eliminate stressors
- Adjusting workloads and deadline dates
- Improved structural reorganization
- More flexible work schedules and work hours
- Management by objectives or other goal-setting programs
- Employee participation in planning changes that affect them
- Workshops dealing with role clarity and role analysis

Change leaders and management should work with individuals, teams or groups, to educate and train employees to cope more effectively with sources of stress that cannot be removed from the job.

Organizations should put in place strategies to deal with employees who 'fall through the net' to become victims of exposure to stress, since no organizational intervention is likely to be perfect or foolproof. Individuals are complex and unique and so they vary in their response to stress. Therefore, a stress management solution for one individual will not suit all employees or occupational groups.

In order to understand the nature of stress and to design an appropriate stress management programme, it is suggested that a stress audit or psychological risk assessment be conducted.
In order to successfully implement an effective stress control programme, it is necessary to identify and measure the sources of stress that exist in the workplace. This should include the sources of stress that spill over from home and family life, to act as barriers to performance effectiveness and well-being.

Change leaders should be aware of the potential conflict between work and other roles of employees. A person has many roles in life (e.g., breadwinner, family member and church volunteer, to name a few), only one of which is typically associated with work. These roles may present conflicting demands that become sources of stress.

Change leaders need to be aware that different employees have different levels of resistance to stress and different abilities to cope. Personality traits and other individual characteristics such as Type A behaviour pattern, hardiness, self esteem and locus of control; all play a role in determining the extent to which a person will become stressed and be able to cope with stress. It is suggested that employees should be assessed and profiled in terms of their individual characteristics. This would provide useful insight to the change leader on how best to help and support employees during change programs.

Provide adequate training to employees for dealing with new technologies.

5.3 CONCLUSION

Do employee perceptions of change leadership have an effect on their level of stress? The results of this study suggest that such a relationship exists. The study has shown, albeit in a small sample of employees at only one organization, that employee perceptions of change leadership has an effect on the employees' level of stress.
APPENDIX 1

Dear Colleague

I am currently completing my Master of Business Administration at the University of Natal (Durban). My dissertation topic deals with:

Organizational Change Leadership and its Impact On Employees

I would be grateful if you could complete the attached questionnaire, which will be used as the basis for my research study.

There are three sections, viz. A, B and C. Kindly complete all three sections answering all questions.

I would appreciate receiving your completed questionnaires by the 3 September 2003. Kindly return the completed questionnaires in the envelope provided, by depositing it in the Employment Equity Suggestion Box in your area.

Your contribution is valued and will be treated with strictest confidence.

Thank you for your time and support, which is really appreciated.

Jayprakash Koovarjee
# PART A

## BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Age (years)</th>
<th>&lt; 30 yrs</th>
<th>30-39</th>
<th>40-49</th>
<th>&gt; 50 yrs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Marital status</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Are you a Manager or Supervisor?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Length of service</th>
<th>&lt; 5 yrs</th>
<th>5-10 yrs</th>
<th>&gt;10 yrs</th>
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</table>
**PART B**

**PERCEPTION OF CHANGE LEADERSHIP SCALE**

**IMPORTANT**: Please respond to the following statements in terms of the MAJOR CHANGES that have taken place in the organization over the past 12 months, including current changes.

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<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Management has a clear vision and strategy for change.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Staff are kept well informed of the changes taking place in the business.</td>
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<td>3. All staff have the opportunity to participate in the changes taking place in the organization.</td>
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<td>4. Staff are given the power and authority to take decisions and make things happen.</td>
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<td>5. The changes in our organization are always well planned.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Staff are given recognition for their contribution to making change happen.</td>
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<td>7. Management are good listeners and are patient with what people suggest.</td>
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<td>8. Management show us by their own example how they expect us to behave.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. We usually adopt the right organizational structures to make change effective.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Management are open and honest about the future of our company.</td>
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<td>11. Management have a clear idea of where the company is heading.</td>
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<td>12. Management have regular briefing sessions to advise staff about changes taking place in the business.</td>
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<td>13. Management encourage all staff to contribute and participate in the changes taking place.</td>
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<td>14. Staff feel comfortable with making decisions.</td>
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<td>15. Management ensures that changes are executed according to a proper plan.</td>
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<td>16. Employees that go the extra mile to make change happen are rewarded.</td>
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<td>17. Staff feel comfortable talking to management about what’s on their mind.</td>
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<td>18. My manager models and demonstrates the new behaviour expected from staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. During change, people’s roles in the organization are usually quite clear.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Staff have a reasonably good idea about their future prospects with the company.</td>
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</table>
### IMPORTANT: Please respond to the following statements in terms of your own experiences. There are no right or wrong answers.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I tend to neglect my diet.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I always know what is expected of me in my job.</td>
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<td>3. My workload is too heavy.</td>
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<td>4. I am constantly being pulled in different directions at work.</td>
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<td>5. I often experience conflict at work.</td>
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<td>6. I tend to worry about losing my job.</td>
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<td>7. I am happy with my physical work environment.</td>
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<td>8. I suffer from headaches frequently.</td>
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<td>9. I have to work under vague directives.</td>
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<td>10. There are unreasonable pressures for better performance.</td>
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<td>11. I am quite clear about my role in the organization.</td>
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<td>12. I feel exhilarated after working closely with our people at work.</td>
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<td>13. I think a lot about whether I will still have a job with the company.</td>
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<td>14. I would be happier if my physical work environment was better.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. I often feel as if I don't want to get up in the morning.</td>
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<td>16.(R) There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.</td>
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<td>I am confident that I can cope with my workload.</td>
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<td>18. I often receive conflicting requests from two or more people.</td>
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<td>19.(R) I tend to get along with the people I work with.</td>
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<td>20.(R) When I go home I forget about work related issues.</td>
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</table>
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