University of KwaZulu-Natal

THE EFFECT OF WORK INTENSIFICATION ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE

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ABSTRACT

Today's organizations are pressurised to produce goods and quality services, taking cognisance of the demands of contemporary working life and the porosity of the working world. The aim of the study was to get an overall perspective of the perceptions and the effect of work intensification on work-life balance through the distribution of questionnaires to employees in a public sector organization, in KwaZulu-Natal. In this study, major emphasis is placed on the key constructs of the study, taking cognisance of a better balance in employees' daily lives. Various forms of work intensification exist, including in those organizations that are not labour intensive. The sub-variables for work intensification are organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity. With work-life balance, the current study addresses work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness. The literature review addresses various contextual factors and embarks on various domains to understand and address the research problem.

The study is quantitative and the final sample comprised of one hundred office based employees (managers, supervisors and employees). A self-developed questionnaire was utilized and a simple random sampling method was chosen. Both, descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized and the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument was established using Factor Analysis and Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha, respectively. Hypotheses testing formed part of the study. The study involved the testing of seven hypotheses of which all were partially accepted. The results revealed that work intensification and work-life balance occurred at varying degrees. It was found that work-related stress and psychological factors; volume of workload; managerial/supervisory support and work-family conflict were areas that required improvement. Significant differences surfaced with the biographical profile of employees. Interestingly, there were no significant differences in the perceptions of male and female employees in this organization. The effects of the demands of contemporary working life on work-life balance have been reported on exposing significant correlations between specific sub-dimensions of work intensification and work-life balance. The study culminates with a discussion on recommendations and conclusion and, practical implications are provided.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1   Introduction

Today's organizations face immense pressures by the developments of globalization which is driven by technological changes, market shifts, intense competitive pressures and optimal performance expectations, amongst others. As a result, the practices of management need to be balanced and aligned with the values and practices of other organizations, globally. In line with this, cognizance must be taken of an organization's most important assets, that is, employees and their well-being and comfort in the work environment. The trend with organizations is to continuously improve their products and services. Quality service delivery is a prime focus of public sector organizations that are principally reliant on employee well-being. In a transforming context, organizations need to continuously change their nature of work in order to align with the changing world of work.

These pressures are directly transferred onto the workforce thereby intensifying the demand for performance optimization. The study explores the critical work domain activity of work intensification with employees' work-life balance. The speed of work has hastened considerably to meet very tight deadlines and, technological changes and organizational changes are often the root elements for work intensification. In addition, flexible work patterns dominate today's work environment to address the dire need of work-life balance. Work-life balance involves the demands that are associated with work and domestic responsibilities that are escalating in today's work environment.

A compelling need exists to address organizational needs and employee's needs. Researchers have considered work intensification and work life balance as two different streams. Studies have been conducted on work intensification in labour intensive environments such as, manufacturing and agriculture. The current study demonstrates the prevalence of the key constructs, that is, work intensification and work-life balance in a public sector organization by reflecting on employee well-being from a perspective of combining the constructs to ascertain quality of life outcomes among office based employees. This also establishes that work

intensification can transpire in different work environments that warrant attention from organizations by addressing the importance in organizational policies and strategy formulation.

This study assesses the intensification of work on work-life balance in terms of increased work pressures and is concerned with effort change (physical and mental input) in job performance. The literature does acknowledge the difficulty in measuring such effort objectively and this quantitative study relies on self-reported data to examine work intensification and work-life balance. Work intensification has definite implications for work-life balance which is perceived as an indicator of overall life satisfaction and well-being. Work-life balance requires constant negotiation between role demands as employees strive for financial security too considering the continuous market fluctuations in today's work environment.

Furthermore, the current study undertakes to explain the nature of the association between these two constructs with the intention of detecting the effect of work intensification on work-life balance. The respondents comprised of municipal employees across three administrative clusters which included Corporate and Human Resources, Finance and Economic Development and Planning. The Finance and Economic Development clusters were specifically selected due its role in service delivery while the Human Resources cluster provides a human resources perspective to this study.

Hence, the study has conceptualized and has captured employee perceptions regarding the effect of work intensification on work-life balance by testing the sub-constructs of organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity for work intensification. Similarly, employees' perceptions were attained for the constructs of work-life balance which includes work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness. Furthermore, the study has been planned to include biographical data as part of the main research component to determine how people and structures are interlinked and to provide avenues to modify approaches in a holistic manner in twenty-first century organizations. The relevant research methodology pertinent for this study was utilized.

Overall, the present study also indicates that with management's firm stance on remedial strategies, aligned with the organization's goals and taking cognizance of employee well-being the aim of the organization can be accomplished. The research provides valuable insights into employees' experiences, highlights problem areas for improvement and presents corrective measures to be undertaken for implementation. The recommendations for the study are intended for adoption in organizational policies and for integration in wellness interventions. In a pervasive way, the current study which is divided into seven chapters examines the effect of work intensification on work-life balance and provides a surge of interest to future researchers.

1.2   Motivation for the Study

Through a review of preliminary literature it is evident that there have been significant changes to the work environment due to organizations responding to external changes. It is imperative to comprehend whether such changes are imposing pressures that are compelling individuals to devote a major portion of their time and effort toward work. An improved understanding is needed pertaining to the individual effects of these changes and the extent to which individuals are coping. Moreover, the study aims to address the gap in scholarly work relating to work intensification which has not been extensively examined, specifically within a South African context. Changes in the work environment are associated with consequences for the working lives of employees and hence, should be explored in order to determine the well-being implications in a contemporary society. It is crucial for individuals to establish their standpoint in the context of global and organizational change and evaluate their satisfaction with their current level of work-life balance.

Whilst productivity, cost efficiency and workforce optimization, amongst others, are significant concepts in today's transforming work environment, this study with its holistic focus projects on employees' lives in a broader perspective. It integrates variables from the work environment that can potentially cause stress and prompt employees to work intensely. Furthermore, this study also accounts for those variables that can help individuals to navigate the conflict between the contexts of work and life, such as, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support and employee wellness. Consequently, the two main constructs of work-life balance and work intensification explores individual capabilities in managing intense work situations which project on the quality of their overall life.

In light of the above, the topic will project on work-life balance under a different lens, that is, by investigating the effect of work intensification on this construct. The motivation for the topic is twofold. Firstly, it builds a case for a new study of effort change within the context of South Africa by showing that studies on work intensification can be conducted in organisations other than labour intensive environments. Secondly, it shows the intensity of work domain variables on life domain variables as few studies have projected on the main dimensions of work intensification and work-life balance.

1.3 Focus of the Study

The study focuses on the effect of work intensification (measured in terms of organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity) on work-life balance (measured in terms of work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness) in a public sector organization.

1.4 Problem Statement

External forces within the business environment have generated significant changes thereby altering the nature of work and how people work. As a result, the advancing landscape of the business world presents changing conditions for organizational stakeholders. As organizations change in response to environmental demands and pressures, employees directly encounter new challenges and in the process of change are exposed to greater pressures in comparison to previous years.

In contemporary society, the dimensions central to adult life can be classified into two generalized categories, that is, work and life outside of work. As a result, demands emerging in the work domain have consequences for an individual's life outside of work. In addition, the reorganization of jobs and recent technologies can influence the level of effort and the pace of work, hence adding to work intensity. In light of such spill-over tendencies between work and life, the anticipation is that one's quality of life will be influenced. Overall the focus of this study is continuously on work and life domains.

Hence, the problem statements that address the nature of this study include:

- What is the nature of the relationship if any, between work intensification and work-life balance?
- What is the level of importance of work intensification and work-life balance in a public sector organization?

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The study was conducted to test hypotheses in order to understand the effect on the dependent variable, work-life balance. Hence, this study aimed to achieve the following objectives:

- To determine the levels of work-life balance and work intensification.

- To examine the effect of work intensification on work-life balance.

- To determine the influence of the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, race, education qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children) on work intensification.

- To determine the influence of the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, race, education qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children) on work-life balance.

- To determine whether the sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity) and the sub-dimensions of work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness) influence the key dimensions of the study.

1.6   Hypotheses

This study involved the testing of several hypotheses as relating to the key constructs which include:

Hypothesis 1

There exists significant inter-correlations amongst the sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity), respectively.

Hypothesis 2

There exists significant inter-correlations amongst the sub-dimensions of work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness), respectively.

Hypothesis 3

The sub-dimensions of work intensification significantly inter-correlates with the sub-dimensions of work-life balance

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant difference in the level of work intensification of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

Hypothesis 5

There is a significant difference in the level of work-life balance of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

Hypothesis 6

The dimensions and sub-dimensions of work intensification significantly account for the variance in determining work intensification in this organization.

Hypothesis 7

The dimensions and sub-dimensions of work life balance significantly account for the variance in determining work life balance in this organization.

1.7   Limitations of the Study

Although caution was exercised in the structure of this research topic, this study was subjected to some limitations. Firstly, organizations differ in their geographical location, industry, strategic goals and the composition and size of the workforce. This study was conducted amongst employees of a public sector organization and hence, does not offer generalizability for private sector employees. Secondly, the location of this study was limited to one municipality; a different set of results would have surfaced if a comparative study was made with other municipalities.

Thirdly, the target audience comprised of office based employees and not those who performed manual work. It was intended for the study to be conducted with three out of a total of seven clusters at the municipality. The three units that were specifically targeted for this study were the Corporate and Human Resources, Finance and Economic Development and Planning clusters. With regard to the administration of the questionnaires, the level of participation for each cluster towards this study differed as consent provided by individual managers within each cluster varied. Lastly, due to time constraints 100 questionnaires were recovered for a sample of 340 respondents over a nine month period. Both electronic and hard copies were utilized for the study.

1.8   Structure per Chapter

Chapter One

Chapter one provides an overview of the study which highlights the researcher's focus, objectives, hypotheses and limitations of the study. It sets out the rationale for the study by justifying the research aim and significance of the study.

Chapter Two

Chapter two conceptualizes the dependent variable of the study, which is work-life balance by reviewing relevant literature, popular theories and previous studies. The chapter exposes the

critical aspects of the sub-dimensions of work-life balance, that is, work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, and child/elderly care and employee wellness. Other pertinent information relating to work-life balance is addressed.

Chapter Three

Chapter three offers insight into the independent variable of the study, that is, work intensification. It provides a background to the construct based on preliminary literature, and proceeds to examine existing literature and previous studies regarding work intensity. The chapter provides an exploration of the sub-dimensions of work intensification which includes, organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity. The literature covers the origins of work intensification, including countries where work intensification has been evident.

Chapter Four

Chapter four specifies the researcher's methodology adopted for this empirical research. The chapter outlines the descriptive and inferential statistics, including the research design, sampling technique, the data collection plan, methods employed to analyze the data and the measuring instrument and its relevant properties.

Chapter Five

Chapter five focuses on the presentation and analysis of the results of the study.

Chapter Six

Chapter six presents the discussion of results based on the analysis of the data. A comparative analysis was conducted using the results from this study with the results of previous studies.

Chapter Seven

Chapter seven provides the recommendations and conclusion for the study.

1.9   Conclusion

This chapter outlined the nature of this study by discussing the central focus and motivation for the study. This was followed by an outline of the research objectives and the respective hypotheses for the study. The limitations for the research study were also addressed. Lastly, the

chapter concluded with a presentation of the structure per chapter. The next chapter commences with the literature review for work-life balance.

CHAPTER TWO

WORK-LIFE BALANCE

2.1   Introduction

The universal application of work-life balance denotes that the life of an individual is shaped between work and other aspects of life outside of working. In support of this, Forma (2009) articulates that the defining roles of human life are worker, parent, spouse and care-giver. However, the dynamics of the relationship between these life components has altered over the years. Interestingly, there has been a significant shift as the pressures and stressors that working individuals were previously exposed to in the past, are not necessarily present to the same extent in today's radically transformed working life. As a result, the changing conditions of work and life can introduce a different set of consequences for quality of life and individual well-being.

Individuals are required to navigate between the demands of their jobs and careers while undertaking family, domestic, dependent care and household-related decisions in the context of a modernized, fast paced and an ever-evolving world. Individuals are also engaging with more work in order to keep up with the constant need for upgrading household standards and serving the economic demands that are associated with it (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). From this, it is clear that the relationship an individual has with his/her work and life involves continual negotiation.

The traditional norms determining the place and time for working is ultimately fading. Instead, the contemporary work scenario provides individuals with a range of possibilities for working. As an alternative to the conventional office, individuals can work from home, while travelling or sitting at the local coffee shop, respond to electronic mails (e-mails) and receive work-related contact while outside of the office via their smartphones and can communicate and complete work tasks with colleagues who are geographically dispersed. The advantage of new technology and network advancements is that an individual can work from anywhere, at any time, with no boundaries and still get the job done. However, these possibilities do come packaged with greater pressures for the individual to manage.

The stressors of the advancing work life are inevitable as organizations continuously focus on stretching bottom-line results and remaining competitive in the face of changing market demands. A compelling need for organisations is to increase workforce capabilities and to develop high performance workers (Smith, 2006). These pressures are passed onto the workforce as they are ultimately responsible for productivity.

The glaring argument therefore is whether the intense work expectations of the modern world helps or hinders the ability of individuals to maintain boundaries. It is significant to identify whether individuals are coping and whether there is a need for organizations to be more supportive and accommodating regarding work-life concerns. Through an examination of critical variables and concepts, it is anticipated that this study will build on other studies by adding a unique perspective by pairing work-life balance with work intensification within a South African context. Furthermore, there is a paucity of literature that specifically addresses these constructs in the contextual setting applicable to this study.

This chapter presents a combined literature review and a theoretical framework addressing the focal construct of work-life balance. In doing so, this provides the researcher with the conceptual tools to understand the problem area. It is anticipated that the significance of quality of life (in spite of all the developments with work and family) will prevail. The literature review commences with an array of definitions describing the multi-faceted phenomenon of work-life balance. It further examines the various demands and resources attributed to the home and life domains which are presented in the Conceptual Model. The chapter proceeds into the theoretical framework which distinguishes between popular theories relating to work-life balance. This is followed with a closer examination of the developments of contemporary life that impact on the work and life interface and finally advances into a discussion of the critical components of work-life balance relating to this study.

2.2   Definitions of Work-life Balance

The following detailed definitions provide insight into the composition and significant attributes of work-life balance as a matter of contemporary relevance:

- James (2011) conceptualizes work-life balance as a concept that has expanded from only encompassing earlier family-friendly perspectives to a more diverse set of personal life needs for all workers such as, religion, charity work and hobbies. The author makes reference to the phenomenon of work-life balance as having minimum role conflict between work and home. It is about establishing an acceptable combination of work and life (Thornthwaite, 2004 cited in Kim, 2014). Furthermore, the assumption of Kim (2014) is that work-life balance corresponds to the absence of work-life conflict.

- According to Voydanoff (2005), work-life balance is the stability that comes with managing the changing role demands between work and family with available environmental and personal resources. It focuses on the equilibrium acquired in work and family roles in terms of the amount of time, level of involvement and satisfaction that the individual experiences (Voydanoff, 2007). In the same light, role balance refers to the extent to which an individual is able to fully perform (that is, to devote equal time, involvement and satisfaction), toward each role that makes up the total role system for that individual (Voydanoff, 2005).

- Kuchinke, Cornachione, Seok Young and Hye-Seung (2010) analyses the relationship between work and non-work domains. This is according to two fundamental characteristics, that is, energy depletion and role reinforcement (Kuchinke *et al*., 2010). These key characteristics are emphasised primarily because of resource limitation that is imposed on the individual (Kuchinke *et al*., 2010). Accordingly, employees who attempt to direct efforts towards a work-life balance need to negotiate social roles because of time constraints and limited energy that are made available to satisfy multiple role expectations (Kuchinke *et al*., 2010).

- Nitzsche, Pfaff, Jung and Driller (2013) reflect on work-life balance as being the subjective perception and experience of the individual in securing a well-functioning interaction between the various life roles. Achieving an acceptable balance is, firstly, subjective to the

perceptions of each individual and is conducive to individual circumstances (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013). Secondly, balance comprises of perpetual negotiations that occur across time in dealing with daily complexities that stems from work and home and the prospect of leisure time (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013). The variability of experiences moving between states of balance and conflict with regard to work and family span over a long-term basis and involve changing circumstances (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013). In line with this, Crompton (2006) articulates work-life according to the impact that changes inherent to both employment and the employment relationship have on the ability of an individual in suitably balancing the competing demands of work and family life.

The above definitions provide a background for understanding work-life balance. These descriptions contribute to the interpretation of work-life balance within the scope of this study and emphasize the shift in the notion of work-life balance, thereby demonstrating that the issue of balance should be a concern for all employees and not just working parents.

2.3   Work-Family Demands and Resources and Strategies

It is important to identify how the demands and resources intrinsic to the work and life domains interact; transcend from work to home and vice versa and, the effect that it has on the role performance of individuals.

As a result, the Conceptual Model presented as Figure 2.1 provides a framework for understanding how demands and resources occur within and across the domains of work and family while influencing role performance in the respective domains (Voydanoff, 2005). According to the model by Voydanoff (2005), work-family fit comprises of two dimensions: work demands-family resources fit and, family demands-work resources fit. This contributes to the conception of work-family fit and balance.

Figure 2.1

The Conceptual Model
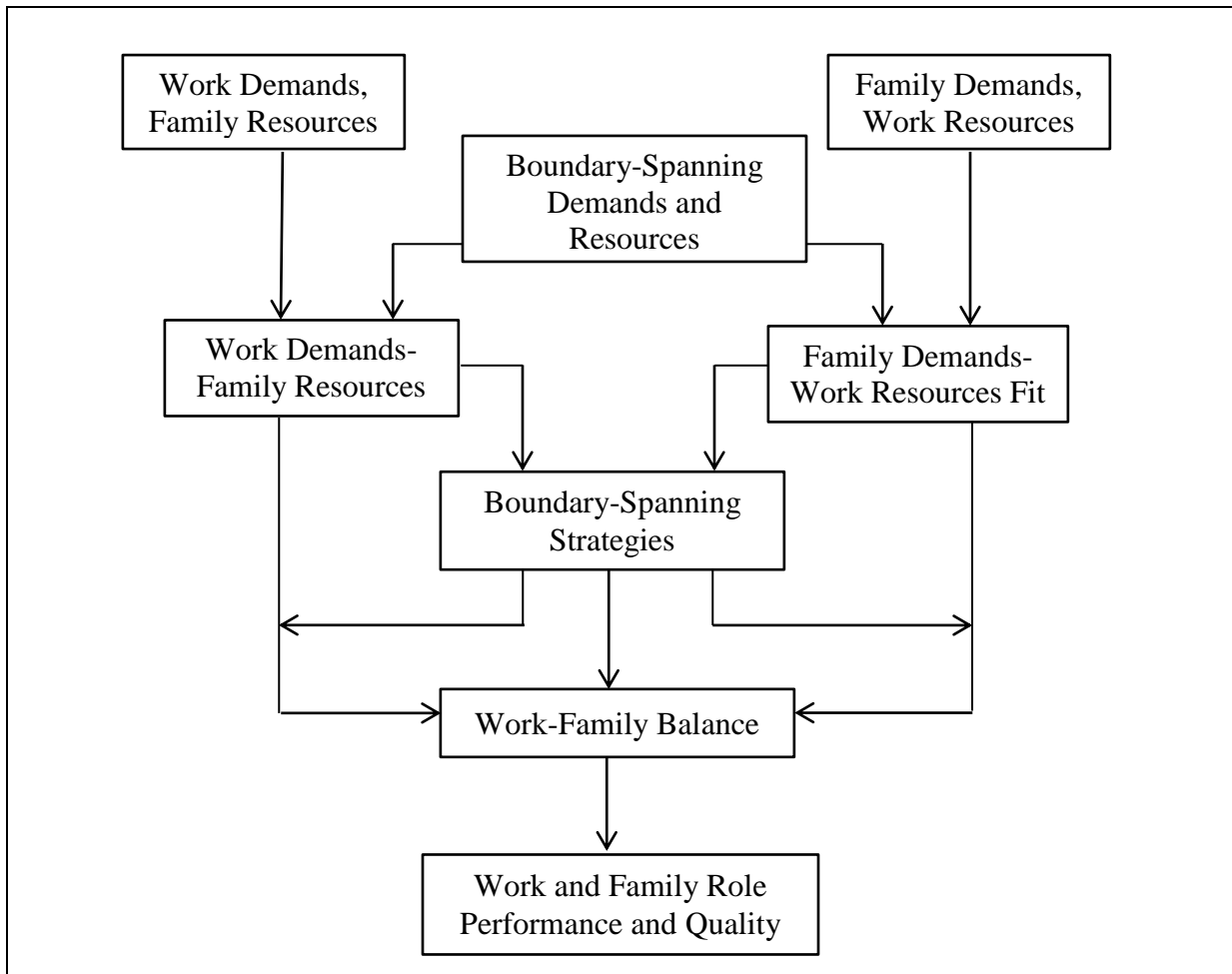
Source: Voydanoff, P. (2005). Toward a Conceptualization of Perceived Work-Family Fit and Balance: A Demands and Resources Approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(4), p. 824.

When resources generated in one domain (for example, the family domain) is sufficient to fulfil demands originating from the other domain (for example, the work domain) and vice versa, the equilibrium that occurs between the two domains is work-life balance (Voydanoff, 2005). The demands and resources that carry over between these two domains, known as boundary-spanning demands and resources, influence an individual's assessment of perceived work-family balance (Voydanoff, 2005).

These boundary-spanning strategies are negotiated by families and primarily involve strategies to reduce demands or increase resources in either domain in order to establish a state of equilibrium

and balance (Voydanoff, 2005). The use of boundary spanning strategies which reduce gaps between the demands and resources emerging from both the domains of work and family establishes work-family fit (Voydanoff, 2005).

Alternate concepts used to describe boundary-spanning strategies include trade-offs and adaptive strategies (Voydanoff, 2005). These concepts imply that the strategies employed or actions taken by an individual to reduce misfit and offset the adverse effects of misfit thereby resulting in improved balance (Voydanoff, 2005). These strategies could include reducing demands (for example, reducing work time) or increasing resources (for example, employing domestic services) (Voydanoff, 2005). Focus is placed on an individual level of analysis that accounts for work and family demands and resources and boundary-spanning strategies that are employed by families in order to acquire work-family fit and balance (Voydanoff, 2005). The perceived balance of an individual has consequences for role performance and the quality thereof (Voydanoff, 2005).

As one progresses through daily life, individuals are responsible for satisfying demands (at work and home), within certain constraints (time, energy, effort and so forth) (Voydanoff, 2005). Individuals are exposed to numerous types of demands which can be counteracted by available resources and support systems (Voydanoff, 2005). The difference between demands faced versus available resources will impact on the level of balance (or conflict) experienced (Voydanoff, 2005).

In order to understand this trade-off, it is important to clarify the types of demands that individuals can be exposed to in the different domains and the classification of resources that can be employed to manage the demands faced. Therefore, Table 2.1 presents an outline of work and family demands (within domain demands and boundary-spanning demands); work and family resources (within domain resources and boundary-spanning resources) and strategies for reducing demands and increasing resources (from the domains of work on family) on fit and balance (Voydanoff, 2005).

Table 2.1: Work and Family Demands, Resources and Strategies

	Work	Family
Within-domain demands		
Time-based Demands	Paid work hours	Time caring for young children
	Extra work hours or overtime	Time caring for ill & elderly relatives
	Nonstandard work schedules	Time in household work
Strain-based Demands	Job demands	Spouse demands
	Job insecurity	Child demands
		Kin demands
		Household demands
Within-domain resources		
Enabling Resources	Autonomy	Spouse and kin support
	Supervisor and co-worker support	
Psychological Rewards	Meaningful work	Parenting rewards
	Pride	Household rewards
	Respect	
Boundary-spanning Demands		Commuting time
Transitions	Overnight travel	Family activities at work
Role Blurring	Work at home	Family interruptions and distractions
	Bring work home	
Boundary-spanning Resources		
Work Supports	Flexible Schedule	Spouse and kin dependent care
	Dependent care	Spouse and kin household work
	Household services	
Family Supports	Parental leave	Spouse employment
	Time off for family	
	Part-time work	
Normative support	Support work-family culture	Spouse and kin work-family support
	Supervisor work-family support	
Boundary-spanning strategies		
Reduce demands	Cut work hours	Miss family occasions
	Refuse overtime	Do less dependent care
	Change work schedule	Limit childbearing
	Refuse travel	Do less household work
	Take less demanding job	Job versus career trade-off with spouse
	Refuse promotions	
	Refuse work assignments	
Increase resources	Increase work hours	Hire dependent care
	Take more enriching job	Hire household services
	Become self-employed	Increase work-family support

Source: Voydanoff, P. (2005). Toward a Conceptualization of Perceived Work-Family Fit and Balance: A Demands and Resources Approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(4), p. 826.

Table 2.1 highlights the types of demands, resources and boundary-spanning strategies along with relatable examples that apply to work and family. Within-domain demands (whether occurring at work or at home) tend to impede on an individual's ability to perform role expectations in the other domain (Voydanoff, 2005). These demands can be distinguished according to time-based demands (for example, having to work overtime) and strain-based demands (for example, job demands) (Voydanoff, 2005).

On the other hand, within-domain work and family resources help to improve role performance across domains through enabling resources (for example, supervisor or spouse support) and psychological rewards (for example, respect) (Voydanoff, 2005). Boundary-spanning demands represent trade-offs and result in role blurring between work and family (for example, bringing work home); whereas boundary-spanning resources (for example, a flexible schedule), increases work-family fit and balance (Voydanoff, 2005). Lastly, boundary-spanning strategies involve either a reduction of demands at work or at home or, an increase in resources acquired from the two domains in order to eliminate misfit (Voydanoff, 2005).

2.4   The Theories of Work-Life Balance

The theoretical framework for this study draws on theories that have been used in other studies thereby contributing to the conceptualization of this study. Naithani (2010) cites three fundamental theories imperative for the comprehension of work-life research namely, the spill-over theory, the compensation theory and the work-family conflict theory. Other popular theories cited in literature include the role theory, border theory, boundary theory, spill-over theory, conservation of resources theory and the person-environment fit theory. These theories demonstrate the complex dynamics in managing boundaries between work and life while addressing the key issues of segmentation, integration and compensation.

- **The Role Theory**

A popular theoretical perspective that provides a valuable framework when studying work and family is the role theory (Nabavi & Shahryrai, 2012). As explained by Webber, Sarris and Bessell (2010), this theory justifies an individual to have multiple life roles (work and non-work) that need balancing. Oosthuizen, Mostert and Koekemoer (2011) add that in terms of the role

identity theory, the roles performed by individuals provide individuals with meaning and purpose in their lives. In this regard, the identity theory postulates that each situation induces a particular identity (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011).

According to Steyl and Koekemoer (2011), individuals have different roles that make up the non-work domain (their non-work roles). Furthermore, because individuals have restricted resources to participate in all their non-work roles, this can lead to conflict and imbalance (Oosthuizen *et al*., 2011). Understandably, individuals can attach greater importance toward the fulfilment of some roles in comparison to others (Oosthuizen *et al*., 2011). Individuals subjectively assess some role identities as being more important (role salience) than others, and are therefore, more committed to those roles (Oosthuizen *et al*., 2011). According to the identity theory, an individual will allocate more resources to the role that is most valued (role salience), in terms of their self-concept (Matthews, Swody & Barnes-Farrell, 2012). Individuals who have multiple roles with high role salience are likely to encounter work-non-work interference (Oosthuizen *et al*., 2011).

- **Work-Family Role Blurring**

Role blurring represents a role-related stressor that emerges in the work-family context which is highly interdependent (Desrochers, Hilton & Larwood, 2005). It involves the cognitive and subjective appraisal of an individual's perceptions regarding work and home integration (Desrochers *et al*., 2005). These are situations in which the individual encounters the presence of simultaneous work and family demands (Desrochers *et al*., 2005). Work-family role blurring occurs when the individual receives work-related contact beyond the normal hours of working (Voydanoff, 2005).

Work-related contact has been identified by Voydanoff (2005) as a boundary-spanning work demand. As supported by Voyandoff (2005) and Glavin, Schieman and Reid (2011), receiving this type of contact has negative implications for individual well-being and family role-functioning. The research presented by Voydanoff (2005) addresses the contribution of these demands on escalated levels of distress thereby establishing systematic problems for the individual worker and his or her family. On the other hand, Glavin *et al*. (2011) focus on gender and emotional responses in the work-family interface including the implications for

psychological health. Researchers have become interested in the concept of role blurring as a result of the growth of flexible working and the proliferation of communication technologies (Glavin *et al*., 2011).

- **The Work-Family Border Theory**

The border theory views work and family as separate domains that are mutually influential (Jang, 2008). The central principle of this theory is that integration of these domains facilitates transitions between work and family while encountering minimum role conflict (Jang, 2008). Compared to spillover theorists, Clark's (2000) border theory considers individuals to be border crossers, transitioning daily between work and family, therefore influencing the issues of segmentation and integration, conflict development and work-family balance (Jang, 2008). Hence, the outcome of the border theory is work-family balance (Jang, 2008).

The border and boundary theories are concerned with the interaction and integration of life domains (Allvin, Aronsson, Hagström, Johansson & Lundberg, 2011). The theories focus less on the incompatibilities between domains and instead emphasize how individuals maintain, negotiate and navigate the lines of demarcation between work and family (Clark 2000 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011). The work-family border theory suggests that work-family balance can be obtained through many ways depending on how similar the domains of work and family are to each other, the strength of the boundaries between these domains and other factors (Desrochers *et al*., 2005). The border theory (Clark, 2000) accounts for the complexities in the contemporary work-family interface; whereas Glavin *et al*. (2011) mention that the traditional role-strain and spill-over theories place emphasis on role conflict. Figure 2.2 depicts the distinguishing features between work-family conflict and work-family role blurring.

Figure 2.2

Work-Family Theoretical Perspectives

> **A.   Role-Strain/Spillover Theories**
>
> <div align="center">Work-Family Conflict</div>
>
> (Mutually incompatible role pressures: e.g. unable to attend child's soccer practice due to work demands)
>
> Work Domain ←——— Role pressures ———→ Family Domain
>
> **B.   Border Theory**
>
> <div align="center">Work-Family Role Blurring</div>
>
> (Integrated/overlapping roles: e.g. receiving work calls at home; bringing work home)
>
> Work domain | Role Blurring | Family domain
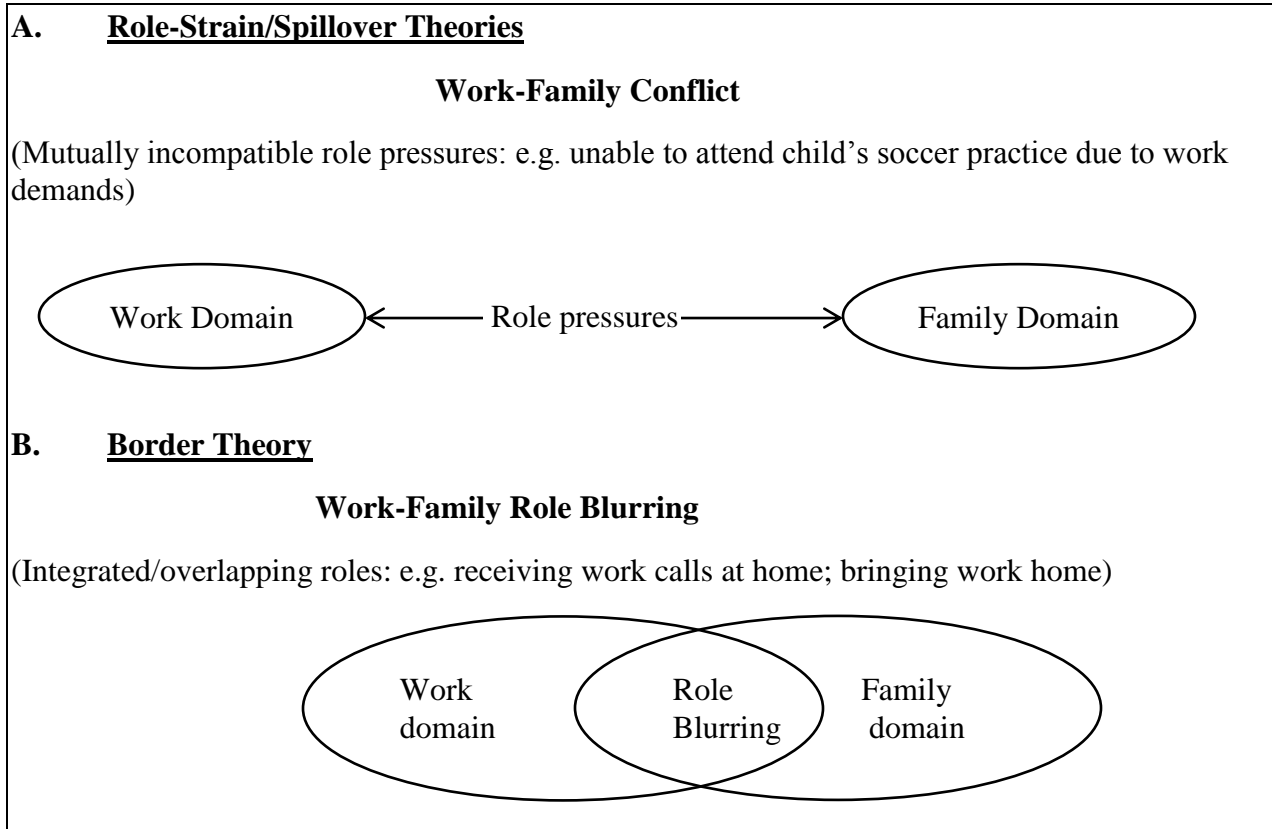
Source: Glavin, P, Schieman, S., & Reid, S. (2011). Boundary-Spanning Work Demands and Their Consequences for Guilt and Psychological Distress. *Journal of Health & Social Behavior*, 52(1), p. 44.

As illustrated in Figure 2.2, the role-strain and role-spillover perspectives emphasize work-family conflict to represent role incompatibility, whereas work-family role blurring represents overlapping of role domains (Glavin *et al*., 2011). In addition to considering role conflict, work-family scholars also focus on role blurring which can be experienced in the form of a parent working during the weekend to meet a deadline from home but, this individual may not perceive this form of blurring as role conflict (Glavin *et al*., 2011). The use of the cell phone and email, may involve role blurring as it allows accessibility to the worker at odd hours and weekends while allowing them to be in two places at the same time (Glavin *et al*., 2011). Work contact occurs when an individual receives contact from a range of work sources beyond the normal hours that form part of the working day (Glavin *et al*., 2011).

Work contact is a boundary-spanning demand that is notably relevant in the new economy predominantly because of the increasing use of communication technologies (Glavin *et al*., 2011). This also indicates that work contact received in the family domain forces a quick transition from a family to work mindset which could become potentially distressing for the individual (Glavin *et al*., 2011). Such transitions have the potential to disrupt role performance and the ability to concentrate (Glavin *et al*., 2011). The empirical reality is that social and economic changes within the broader context influence family structures and parenting practices (Glavin *et al*., 2011). However, gender contingencies found in associations between work contact, guilt and distress indicate that in terms of work-family role expectations, salient gender differences do exist (Glavin *et al*., 2011).

- **The Boundary Theory**

Individuals create and maintain boundaries that are drawn around roles (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000). "The boundary theory may be described as a cognitive theory of social classification that focuses on the transitioning between roles" (Ashforth *et al*., 2000 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011, p. 130). The boundary theory suggests that when work and home boundaries are flexible, the outcome is that the two domains will influence each other (Voydanoff, 2005). Depending on the demands confronted and the depletion and replenishment of resources across these two domains, this will impact on work and family role performance and quality (Voydanoff, 2005). Furthermore, the author posits that role performance represents the behaviours performed in the work and home role and generally includes work tasks, domestic duties and dependent care, whereas role quality represents the positive moods and emotions experienced in the work and home interface and include job and marital satisfaction (Voydanoff, 2005).

According to Desrochers *et al*. (2005), the boundary theory can be distinguished from the work-family border theory through recent refinements focusing on developing testable models for role transitions and the interaction between employees' preferences for work-family integration. Regardless of these differences, the boundary and the work-family border theory both recognize the trade-offs associated with integrating and separating work and family (Desrochers *et al*., 2005). The strategies of extreme integration or extreme segmentation come with its own set of

advantages and disadvantages and represent two ends of the continuum (Desrochers *et al*., 2005). Another similarity central to both theories is that the extent of integration and segmentation is influenced by flexibility and permeability (Desrochers *et al*., 2005). Furthermore, the extent of integration between work and family is dependent on the similarity of these domains in relation to each other (Desrochers *et al*., 2005).

Individuals engage in role transitions as they enter and exit roles that are surrounded by boundaries (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). Micro role transitions (usually involve recurring transitions) are affected by flexibility and permeability of a given role boundary (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). Flexible boundaries allow a role to be performed at various times and places whereas inflexible boundaries impose constraints on where and when the role is carried out (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). Permeability enables an individual to be physically present in one role domain but psychologically and/or behaviourally involved in another role (Ashforth *et al*., 2000).

The concept of contrast is what links role identities (made up of core and peripheral features) to role transitions (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). Depending on how many core and peripheral features differ and the extent of the differences between a pair of role identities, establishes contrast (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). The greater the contrast between role identities, the greater the transition involved (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). Macro role transitions occur infrequently (for example, promotion) and involve larger, permanent changes in many core and peripheral features in role identities (Ashforth *et al*., 2000).

Figure 2.3 illustrates the concepts of flexibility, permeability and contrast as these concepts define roles on a segmentation-integration continuum. This continuum is used to describe role boundaries and the extent to which individuals differ in integrating or segmenting their roles between work and home (Ashforth *et al*., 2000).

Figure 2.3

The Role Segmentation - Role Integration Continuum
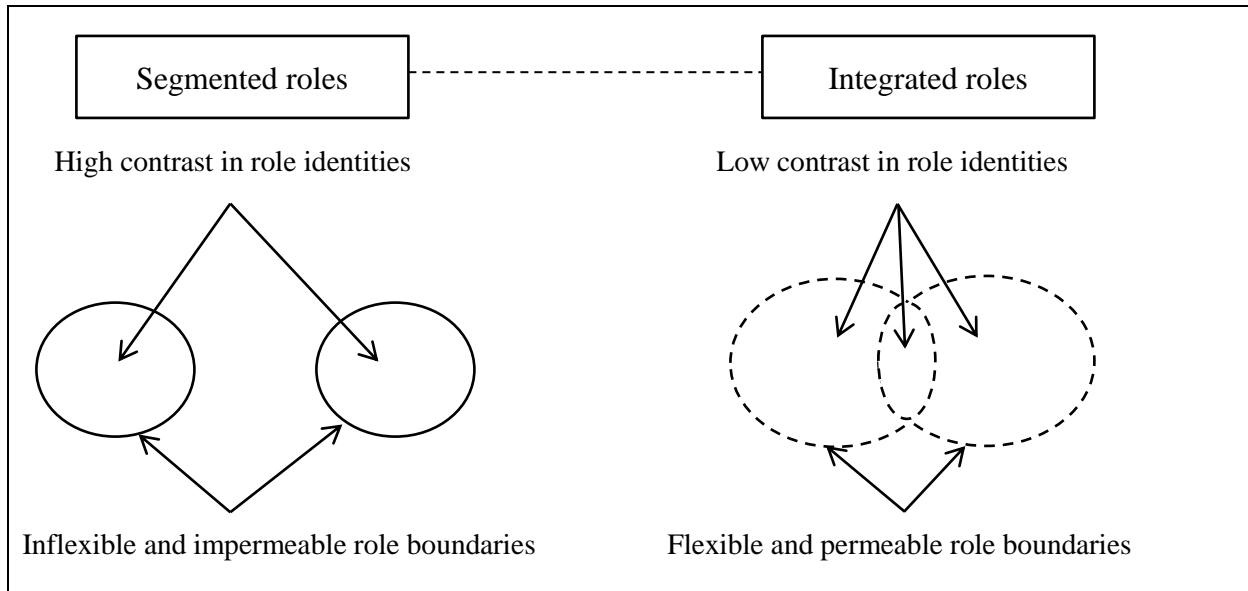
Source: Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a Day's Work: Boundaries and Micro Role Transitions. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25(3), p. 476.

As reflected in Figure 2.3 role boundaries that are inflexible are high in contrast and are highly segmented (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). High segmentation indicates that there is little similarity between the contexts in which each role is performed, with such role transitions occurring relatively infrequently (Ashforth *et al*., 2000). On the contrary, highly integrated roles are those with flexible role boundaries, similarity in identities and role transitions that occur frequently (Ashforth *et al*., 2000).

- ## The Spill-Over Theory

The spillover model claims that difficulties of one domain have a tendency to flaw the other domain (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Generally, it is assumed that experiences and attitudes with for example, the work life, can affect the attitudes and behaviours in the family life. "Positive and negative influence has been demonstrated in both directions" (Allvin *et al*., 2011, p. 127). Spillover (positive or negative) is a facet of the work-family interface conceptualized as behaviours, emotions and moods that are transferred from one domain and affect another domain and vice versa (Mennino, Rubin & Brayfield, 2005). The spillover theory specifically deals with

the emotional influences and linkages from one domain to the next, that is, from work to home and vice versa (Jang, 2008).

The spill-over theory proposes that irrespective of the physical and temporal boundaries surrounding work and family, the emotions and behaviours experienced by an individual in one domain can seep into the other domain (Clark, 2000). In other words, there is continuity and flow with what takes place in the work domain and what occurs in the family domain (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). In this regard, employees who have bad experiences at work are more likely to return home in a bad mood (Clark, 2000) and, happiness experienced within the work environment can lead to happiness at home (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Hence, as suggested in scholarly literature, spillover is a source of conflict for both men and women (Keene & Reynolds, 2005). In line with this, Naithani (2010) argues that spill-over experiences for women and men differ as women experience family-to-work spill-over and spill-over for men occurs in the opposite direction, that is, work-to-family spill-over.

Nabavi and Shahryari (2012) further state that work attitudes develop a basic orientation towards oneself, others and even children. It is assumed that work experiences and attitudes at work become ingrained in the individual and these are carried to the home domain and subsequently influences what that individual does away from the work domain (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). The extensions to the spillover theory in literature include that work is additive, so people's feelings toward their job are a part of feelings that they have for life in general, for example, job satisfaction increases life satisfaction (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Therefore, negative feelings towards one's job can directly influence how an individual feels about life in general (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). As a result, spillover can be discussed in terms of having both positive and negative relationships (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Interestingly, studies vary in terms of what exactly constitutes role spillover (Keene & Reynolds, 2005). Some consider the emotional consequences of spillover while others conceptualize spillover as the reciprocal tension between the parental and spousal role and being an employee (Keene & Reynolds, 2005).

- **The Segmentation Theory**

The segmentation model suggests that the domains of work and life exist in parallel and without affecting each other (Allvin *et al*., 2011). In contrast to the spillover theory, the segmentation

theory views work and family to be two distinct environments which allow a person to function successfully in one domain without influence on the other domain (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Segmentation is not viewed as an inherent barrier separating work and family but it relies on the ability of an individual to manage the boundary between work and family (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Family constitutes the realm of affectivity whereas work is seen as competitive and impersonal (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Segmentation allows an individual to prevent a stressful experience from being transferred from work to family and, is therefore, particularly relevant to research focused on stress and well-being (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012).

- **The Compensation Theory**

Men and women take on a multiplicity of roles within which the dominant forces of work and family compete (Naithani, 2010). Investment in one domain comes at the expense of foregoing one's availability to participate in the other domain which then espouses the concern of compensation (Naithani, 2010). The compensation theory is a theory that is complementary to the spill-over theory (Clark, 2000). "The compensation model implies that defects in one domain may be compensated for and balanced by the content of the other" (Allvin *et al*., 2011, p. 128).

This theory describes the relationship between work and family to be inversely related (Clark, 2000). The compensation theory postulates that people make differing investments between work and family in order to compensate for what is lacking in one domain, in the other domain (Clark, 2000). An example demonstrating how compensation occurs is when an individual who has an unsatisfying family life achieves satisfaction from the pursuit of work-related activities or vice versa (Clark, 2000). Naithani (2010) reveals that deficit in one domain of life can be compensated by investing more in other aspects of life.

Nabavi and Shahryari (2012) identify three types of compensation. Firstly, supplemental compensation occurs when an individual pursues desired experiences and psychological states that are lacking in the work domain in family-related activities (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). Secondly, reactive compensation includes non-work activities such as, engaging in leisure activities in order to replenish deprivations experienced at work (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). The last type of compensation occurs when activities in the home domain act as shock absorbers for disappointments at work and vice versa (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012).

- ### The Conservation of Resources Theory

The role scarcity theory considers individuals to have a fixed sum of energy to invest across domains (Goode, 1960 cited in Chan, 2009). It further posits that commitment to one role is viewed to reduce the resources available to invest in another domain (Chan, 2009). Similarly, the "depletion" argument assumes that the psychological and physiological resources of individuals are fixed (Chan, 2009). Therefore, individuals face trade-offs in order to accommodate for these fixed resources (Chan, 2009).

The conservation of resource theory implies a situation whereby the individual experiences a threat that resources will be lost (resource depletion) or a failure to replenish resources (resource accumulation) after investment (Hobfoll, 2001 cited in Kinder, Hughes & Cooper, 2008). The conservation of resources theory can be used to demonstrate work-family conflict effects (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). The individual's aim is to defend the means used to achieve desired outcomes (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). Hence, if work causes a reduction to resources of time and energy that would have otherwise been directed toward the family domain, individuals experience a "feeling of loss", thereby contributing to work-family conflict and burnout (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013).

According to Lauzun, Major and Jones (2012), the theory suggests that when a person experiences resource loss this drives reactions to stress. However, people can attempt to mobilize other available resources to offset the stressor, thereby limiting resource loss and reducing the negative outcomes manifested (Lauzun *et al*., 2012). In line with this, Webber *et al*. (2010) supports that individuals aim to obtain and maintain resources. In doing so, conflict originating from the work environment will result in fewer available resources for the individual to invest in the family domain therefore causing stress (Webber *et al*., 2010).

- ### The Person-environment Fit Theory

This particular theory is generally associated with the work domain explaining that stress is caused in the absence of alignment between the person and the environment and not from either one separately (Voydanoff, 2005). Fit occurs between work and family according to two types, which are, demands-abilities and need-supplies (Voydanoff, 2005). In the context of the person-environment fit, demands relate to the quantitative and qualitative job requirements as prescribed

by the organization and abilities relate to the individual's effort, time and skills (Voydanoff, 2005). When the individual has the capacity to meet demands at work, fit occurs. As demands exceed abilities, strain is then likely to escalate (Voydanoff, 2005).

The second type of fit is needs-supplies (Voydanoff, 2005). Needs are the biological and psychological requirements of the individual (Voydanoff, 2005). Supplies are the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that can fulfil the individual's needs (Voydanoff, 2005). Fit occurs when the individual receives resources from their environment to meet their needs whereas misfit will occur when demands and needs exceed abilities and supplies, respectively (Voydanoff, 2005). The consequences constitute strain and illness (Voydanoff, 2005). Individuals can rely on coping behaviours and cognitive defence to improve fit which will result in positive mental and physical health (Voydanoff, 2005).

2.5   The Changing Work Life and the Emergence of the New Economy

Work-life balance is an area central to the research paradigm in human resource management largely because of the challenges imposed by the rapidly changing business environment on employees and employers (Kuchinke *et al*., 2010). Hence, the integration of work and family has become a prominent social issue for the twenty-first century worker as the nature of employment has changed considerably from prior years (Crompton, 2006). The transition to the new economy has resulted in shifting boundaries between work, home and family (James, 2011). Understandably, this has been subjected to intense policy and academic debate (James, 2011).

The changes in the business environment are accompanied by increased work pressures which act to destabilize the home life (James, 2011). External changes such as, the globalization of economies and a reduction in secure employment, has made work more demanding and stressful (Wattis, Standing & Yerkes, 2013). Advanced economies are moving from an industrialized era to an information era in which economies are driven by technological advancements and more flexible production techniques (James, 2011). There is a growing portion of jobs that are primarily placing value on knowledge as opposed to physical skill (O'Connor, 2005). As a result, the work demands faced by employees have become more mental than physical in nature (Naswall, Hellgren & Sverke 2008). A requirement of the new labour market necessitates that employees enhance their human capital in order to change jobs and careers (O'Connor, 2005).

Economic transformation has restructured the social contract between employers and employees (O'Connor, 2005); while the economic downturn has also resulted in a decline in secure standard employment (Naithani, 2010). This exposes the individual to a great deal of unpredictability and allows feelings and fear of job uncertainty to set in, negative attitudes to surface and stress to emerge (Naswall *et al*., 2008). Work is no longer limited to a set time and place or a hierarchical process (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Organizations are reorganizing and becoming more flexible in order to keep up with globalization and the opportunities afforded by new technologies (James, 2011). This flexibility comes with firms requiring employees to work longer and harder so that labour costs can be kept to a minimum (James, 2011). This means heavier workloads and less predictable hours of work for employees (James, 2011).

The deregulation of work has implications for the boundaries between work and life outside it (Allvin *et al*., 2011). According to these authors, the borders between work and leisure are "breaking up" (Allvin *et al*., 2011). In reference to this the authors reflect on characteristics such as, the lack of regulated working hours, working from home or while travelling, some services that are available around the clock and the convenience of technology that allows individuals to be available whenever and wherever (Allvin *et al*., 2011). The authors further claim that the individual has to assume a greater responsibility when it comes to maintaining a distinction between work and leisure (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

Establishing a distinction between work and private life becomes more blurred when the organization of work is more flexible and it requires individuals to assume more responsibility for their work and that of others (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Furthermore, the more flexible the organization of work becomes the more blurred the separation between work and private life become (Allvin *et al*., 2011). The authors explain that the individual is faced with a "double deregulation" from both work and life which forces the individual to establish and maintain their own delineations (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Consequently, the border between work and life loses much of its universality (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Naithani (2010) has documented the predominant changes in the work and personal life spheres from the 1950's onwards, presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Factors influencing work and family life spheres - From 1950's up to early years of 21st century

Family and personal life related factors	
• Increasing participation of women in workforce	
• Increasing participation of child bearing women in workforce	
• Increasing participation of dual career couples in workforce	
• Increase in single-parent/single person households	
• Increase in child-care/elderly care burden on employees	
• Health and well-being considerations	
Work related factors	**Other factors**
• Long hour culture and unpaid overtime	• Ageing population
• Time squeeze	• Rise of service sector industries
• Demand for shorter working hours	• Technological complexity of work
• Increase in part-time workers	• Skill shortages
• Work intensification and stress	• Loss of social support network
• Changing work time	• Globalisation and demographic shift of workforce

Source: Naithani, P. (2010). Overview of work-life balance discourse and its relevance in current economic scenario. *Asian Social Science*, 6(6), p. 154.

With regard to family and personal life, the significant shift of women and working mothers into the workforce has increased the child care and elder care burden (Naithani, 2010). Work-related factors such as, the longer working culture and trends of work intensification, coupled with other factors such as, technological complexities have contributed to work-related stress and tighter time availability for home and family (Naithani, 2010). Consequently, men and women simultaneously encounter a vast range of daily challenges requiring negotiation to avoid work-family conflict (Naithani, 2010).

Issues surrounding segmentation, integration and compensation pose perpetual challenges for individuals when attempting to manage a balanced life (Naithani, 2010). The process of

managing segmentation, integration and compensation between the work and life segments rests upon the individual's ability to effectively divide his or her available time, energy and effort between the two segments while achieving minimal levels of conflict (Naithani, 2010). A high level of segmentation would require the individual to keep work and life segments separate from each other, thereby bringing about better work-life balance (Naithani, 2010).

Contrary to high segmentation, high levels of integration can create imbalance (Naithani, 2010). Yet with mounting time demands for work, it would appear that high integration is compulsory (Naithani, 2010). Lastly, an individual will compensate losses in one segment from gains in another segment (Naithani, 2010). Individuals with high segmentation will have less room for compensation, whereas individuals with high integration will have the opposite result, that is, more opportunities for compensation (Naithani, 2010). This interdependence between work and life segments is further influenced by positive and negative spill-over from one segment to another (Naithani, 2010). Boundary regulation becomes a significant skill to have in order to prevent the invasion of work into life and the associated consequences of work-life conflict, stress and health problems (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

2.6　The Changing Composition of Family Structures

As the work situation has undergone numerous changes, there have also been developments within the family domain. These changes are reflected on in order to comprehend the evolvement from a traditional family structure to a more contemporary and complex structure. This offers clarification on the diverse challenges confronted by individuals.

Developments over the years have sparked the emergence of new types of families, extending the traditional family structure (O'Connor, 2005). Contemporary household structures involve fathers who are more domesticated and family-oriented and women who are taking on a double shift between paid work and obligations relating to domestic care and child rearing (Doble & Supriya, 2010). The economic revolution was coupled with a simultaneous social revolution whereby women moved into the employment realm which was met with a subsequent change to the roles assumed by women, creating unforeseen consequences at home (O'Connor, 2005). This women's movement is summed up as a rejection of women toward their traditional, domesticated, care-giver role and an advancement of their position in the labour market

(O'Connor, 2005). Essentially, there are two forces at play here, that is, strain from the employment relationship and the entrance of women into the labour market (O'Connor, 2005). This has implications for the structure of households, the composition of families and the prospect of having children (O'Connor, 2005).

The rise of dual-earner couples mean that more women and men are confronting competing expectations with family and career (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012). A decline in the extended family, growing lone-parent households and increased elder-care responsibilities, has made household life more complex (James, 2011). Furthermore, the increased involvement of men in the family domain is yet another change that has influenced the family structure (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Within a South African context, the expectation also exists for women to sacrifice their careers for their families (Rowe & Crafford, 2003 cited in Singh, 2013). It appears that there is an increase of stress over work-life issues for South African women who move into more senior positions whilst still assuming a major part of household responsibilities (Nzimande, 2008).

Men and women experience the demands of work and family differently considering societal values, and gendered assumptions (O'Connor, 2005). Although men have become more engaged at home, employed mothers still have more work, less leisure time and more stress than their husbands (O'Connor, 2005). Women are more likely to alter their schedules (work and home) in order to accommodate others (O'Connor, 2005). Due to breadwinner characteristics from previous years, men tend to over-identify with work, minimizing their connectivity with domestic responsibilities (O'Connor, 2005). Women are then left to assume the greater burden of caring for families (O'Connor, 2005). Expectedly, conflict does occur within families regarding gender roles and time (O'Connor, 2005).

Gender inequalities present in the workplace perpetuate and reinforce inequalities in the home (O'Connor, 2005). In line with this, if a wife earns lower than her husband, it is economically rational to prioritize the career of her husband and for her to assume a larger share of family and household responsibilities (O'Connor, 2005). Many employed parents have to resort to purchasing childcare services from the marketplace (O'Connor, 2005). Again, the institution of family is of profound importance due to social reproduction that is necessary for economic sustainability (O'Connor, 2005).

The role of corporate culture in perpetuating gender norms in the workplace and in society is of crucial importance toward eradicating current gender inequalities (O'Connor, 2005). This new socio-economic state will allow for new gendered identities to be established governing the expectations and responsibilities surrounding men and women as they carry out their work and family roles (O'Connor, 2005). A review of literature reveals that it is very difficult for organizations to actually acknowledge that the family lives of employees is a valid business concern that should be strategically tackled (O'Connor, 2005). Due to this lack of sensitivity, many executives fail to empathise with employees who seek more flexible working schedules (O'Connor, 2005). On the other hand, some employers are soon realising that work-life balance initiatives and programmes play a key role in accommodating women and facilitating their movement to more senior positions (O'Connor, 2005).

2.6.1 Women and the Double Shift

Contrary to the conventional woman who was engaged in intensive mothering and constantly responsible for caring, women of today are now entering the public domain of work (O'Connor, 2005). The new economy has women facing a greater pressure to be economically active while still having to compromise more in balancing paid work around household responsibilities (Smith, Wainwright, Buckingham & Marandet, 2011). Hence, the double shift refers to the production and social reproduction responsibilities performed by women (Smith *et al.*, 2011).

The feminization of the labour market is rather apparent (Smith *et al.*, 2011). In today's society, women may pursue work simply to establish and enhance their identity but in addition to this social aspect, women can work purely for economic sustainability (O'Connor, 2005). In order to keep their family earnings constant, women can psychologically justify that bringing in a second income is a necessity (O'Connor, 2005). Furthermore, women can work to shield themselves from the financial burden that could potentially drain them if they were facing the risk of divorce (O'Connor, 2005). As a result, the concurrent economic and social transformations can hinder the ability of families to put in the caring work required to raise a family which is crucial for sustainable economic development (O'Connor, 2005). In addition to categorising women as primary caregivers, women are further implicated by this categorization when it comes to occupational mobility and participation in the labour market (Wattis *et al.*, 2013).

Women seemingly acknowledge the duality between the work and home domains as they are expected to pursue employment progression concurrent with caring (Wattis *et al*., 2013). However, it is not uncommon for women to halt employment progression due to work demands that inflict strain on their caregiver responsibilities (Wattis *et al*., 2013). It is apparent that there is a shift in attitudes toward certain aspects concerning the composition of the traditional family dynamic, such as, marriage, divorce and the timing of child-rearing (O'Connor, 2005). Over the years there has been a growth in single-parent households due to divorce and out-of-wedlock births; dual-earner couples and divorce rates, causing divorce to lose much of its social stigma (O'Connor, 2005). Divorce rates began to increase as women sought after employment giving women the economic independence they needed for their own protection to leave unsatisfactory marriages (O'Connor, 2005). However, the consequences associated with divorce are that it negatively impacts on children both economically and developmentally (O'Connor, 2005).

The gendered distribution of time is undergoing significant transformation (O'Connor, 2005). Changes to family dynamics are influenced by the way in which time is organized between paid work and unpaid work at home (O'Connor, 2005). This information era is a time when corporate cultures are shaped in a way that it moulds employees to arrange family life around work (O'Connor, 2005). This new environment impacts on the upbringing of children bringing into question whether the children of today will have the skills to cope with tomorrow's flexible work environment (O'Connor, 2005).

Considerable evidence shows that different role meanings and obligations are experienced by men and women because of culturally embedded ideologies regarding work and family life (Glavin *et al*., 2011). Traditional patterns still exist within households despite men taking on more responsibility at home and a growing rate of female participation in the labour force (Glavin *et al*., 2011). Women still assume the role of primary care-giver to the family and perform the majority of the domestic work (Glavin *et al*., 2011). Although women have made significant leaps within paid employment, the same cannot be said for their development in the home domain, henceforth the "stalled revolution" of women (Glavin *et al*., 2011). This presents challenges for women, especially for working mothers who try to integrate work and family (Glavin *et al*., 2011).

From a work and family perspective, gender-biased role differentiation should be considered in order to realize that men and women encounter different work-life balance pressures (Naithani, 2010). In the workplace, roles are not gender specific but instead assigned according to education qualification and experience however; in the life domain gender roles are defined according to tradition and social norms (Naithani, 2010). Although male participation with housework is increasing (specifically in dual-career couples), there still exists an expectation for women to assume the domestic and caregiver roles (Naithani, 2010). Consequently, it is not very easy for women to separate their work and childcare responsibilities (Naithani, 2010). Depending on the situation, work and family can be segmented at times, integrated at other instances and can even compensate each other (Naithani, 2010).

2.6.2 The Paradox between Managing Work and Care

The argument presented in existing literature is that there has been no fundamental change in the gendered division of labour and no real decline of the male breadwinner model (Crompton, 2002 cited in Wattis *et al*., 2013). Although the marketplace has seen an inflow of women entering the workforce, women who do work are expected to combine their work role with care and domestic work (Wattis *et al*., 2013). The authors explain that the paradox between managing work and care (as perceived by working mothers) can be positive and negative:

Positives
- The spill-over of work-to-family conflict may prove to be beneficial (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Women encounter a sense of stimulation, elevated self-esteem and intrinsically value the alternative space (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- From a social perspective, employment can provide a strong informal support structure to women; it breaks confinement to the domestic domain and can provide a much needed break to women away from their caregiver obligations (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Work to an extent allows for economic independence (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Work provides women with another identity that is alternate to being a mother (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Work enables women to be better mothers as they are better-rounded and internally validated (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Not working can impair a woman's identity; they may experience a sense of exclusion, feelings of emptiness and feel lost due to an absence of status (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Through management of work and care women can cope more effectively with caring responsibilities (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

Negatives

- Working mothers can be perceived as inadequate mothers (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- They may be frowned upon by society due to the gendered differentiation that deems women as the primary caregiver irrespective of their participation in paid work (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Women can encounter internal conflicts when attempting to reconcile their work and maternal roles largely to the non-acceptance of women's equal access to the labour market (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

- Women can experience a sense of guilt due to their absence in the home domain (Wattis *et al*., 2013).

2.7   The South African Legislation on Family Responsibility

An examination of South African law concerning family responsibility projects the current standpoint of government regulation in accommodating employees' family responsibilities and highlights the extent of protection afforded to working individuals.

The percentage of female labour force participation has increased within South Africa, specifically from 1995 to 2008 with statistics confirming that the majority of female employees are primary caregivers (Dupper & Garbers, 2009). "Family responsibility is defined as the responsibility of employees in relation to their spouse, partner, dependent children or members of their immediate family that need their care or support" (Dupper & Garbers, 2009, p. 209).

The fundamental principle of the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 (EEA) is to achieve equity in the workplace through the prohibition of direct and indirect unfair discrimination of employees (Section 2(a)), inclusive of discrimination exercised on the grounds of family responsibility and requires the promotion of equal opportunity and fair treatment in the workplace through the implementation of affirmative action measures (Section 2(b)) (Dupper & Garbers, 2009). The equitable representation of women in the workplace is a requirement of this legislation through measures of affirmative action and it further advocates that steps must be taken to reasonably accommodate women as the legislation recognizes that the conflict inherent in the dual roles of work and family needs to be reduced in order for women to successfully manage the interaction between work and family (Dupper & Garbers, 2009). Accommodation measures generally involve adjustments to the job or working environment and the provision of flexible working arrangements (Dupper & Garbers, 2009).

The Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995 (LRA), provides protection against discrimination (directly or indirectly) on the grounds of family responsibility and categorises the dismissal of an employee for reasons related to family responsibility as automatically unfair (Section 187(1)(e)) (Clarke, 2004). "Section 7(d) of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 of 1997 (BCEA), requires every employer to regulate the working time of each employee with due regard to the family responsibilities of employees" (Dupper & Garbers, 2009, p. 212). The BCEA also provides for family responsibility leave during each annual cycle which the employee is entitled to take for the birth of their child (Section 27(2)(a)); when the child is sick (Section 27 (2)(b)); or in the event of a death (see Section 27 (2)(c)(i) and Section 27 (2)(c)(ii)) (Clarke, 2004).

The Code of Good Practice has policy principles that serve to guide employers and employees regarding the arrangement of working time with due consideration provided for the family responsibilities of employees (Clarke, 2004). These policy principles seek to regulate working time so that the impact of working time on the health, safety and the family responsibilities of employees are kept to a minimum (Clarke, 2004). "The Code of Good Practice on the Integration of Employment Equity into Human Resource Policies and Practices (published under GN 1358 in GG 27866 of 2005-08-04) requires employers to endeavour to provide an accessible, supportive and flexible environment for employees with family responsibilities including

considering flexible working hours and granting sufficient family responsibility leave for both parents" (Dupper & Garbers, 2009, p. 212).

The Code specifically provides for shift rosters to be designed in a way that takes cognisance of the impact of such rosters on employees and their families (Clarke, 2004). In doing so, employers may require information such as, the ranked preferences of employees for their shift systems (for example, length of shift and weekends off) (Section 4(2)(1)); transport availability and associated costs (Section 4 (2)(5)); and the childcare needs of employees (Section 4 (2)(6)), in order to account for the impact of shift rosters on employees and their families (Clarke, 2004). It is important that the shift schedule be displayed and be easily accessible to all workers in a reasonably understandable form (Section 5(4)) (Clarke, 2004).

Arrangements should be considered to accommodate the special needs of workers, such as, pregnant and breast-feeding workers, workers with family responsibilities, older workers, disabled workers or workers with health problems, and also workers' personal preferences for the scheduling of their own free time (Section 5(6)) (Clarke, 2004, p. 189). The Code also requires employers to provide employees with up-to-date information on coping strategies to manage shift work and night work and strategies that will be helpful at home (Clarke, 2004). An example in this regard relates to maintaining a healthy diet (Section 11(3)) and relaxation (Section 11(4)) (Clarke, 2004).

2.8   Studies on Work-Life Balance

A presentation of international and local studies on work-life research conducted over the years reinforces the current research gap within the South African context, which this study supports. It provides insight into the type of industries and variables tested throughout the years and sheds light on the unique perspective adopted for the current study that is, to investigate the effect of work intensification on work-life balance.

Western society, notably, the United States of America and Europe have mostly engaged in studies on work-family interaction (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). International researchers have mainly focused on the measurement of work-family conflict and the directionality of work

influencing the family domain and vice versa (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). The majority of work-family studies conducted in South Africa has been cross-sectional quantitative studies (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Research conducted amongst four South African industries (police, earthmoving equipment industry, mining and nursing) revealed that occupation, gender and language were strong socio-demographic predictors for negative work-home interference and occupation, age and language were strong predictors for positive work-home interference (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). An exploratory study conducted by Koekemoer and Mostert (2010) investigated the interaction between work and personal life in a South African context across four different occupational groups (police officers, secondary educators, mineworkers and university academic staff). "South African employees experienced similar antecedents including stressors (for example pressure, overload, workload, stressful work arrangements and difficult relationships at work) and resources (for example, supportive work arrangements and relationships at work)" (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010, p. 10).

General consequences experienced by South African employees such as, headaches, anxiety, absenteeism and turnover intentions are very similar to the consequences documented in international research which is according to the following characteristics: physical, psychological, behavioural, attitudinal, organizational consequences or work, non-work and health-related consequences) (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Interestingly, participants indicated stressful and supportive aspects of their work and mentioned various dimensions in describing their interaction between work and personal life such as, leisure and socializing (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Personal dimensions rarely addressed in previous work-family research mentioned by participants included the religious/spiritual component and the existence and importance of an extended family (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010).

The main findings of research conducted by Steyl and Koekemoer (2011) in the mining industry concluded that work-non-work conflict was more prevalent than non-work-work conflict. Additionally, work-family conflict was more prevalent in comparison to other types of conflict such as work-domestic conflict (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011). Generally, due to the obligatory nature of work, employees may feel compelled to emphasize work over family, therefore reducing the amount of effort invested in the home domain (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011). Significant differences were also identified for marital status and language groups regarding

work–non-work conflict (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011). Research findings presented by Oosthuizen *et al*. (2011) based on a cross-sectional survey design amongst employees in a tertiary institution supported that work pressure and emotional demands significantly predict all the work-non-work role interference dimensions (that is, parental, spousal, domestic and religion and/or spiritual). However, in comparison to other societies and social contexts, research about the specific way in which South African employees experience the interaction between their work and personal life is rather limited (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010).

Therefore, it is important to understand the effects and interaction between work and life across diverse cultures and societies as individuals from different cultures and societies may experience different types of interaction due to the varying experiences in their work environments and personal lives (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Individuals can be involved in different non-work roles that can be experienced differently (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). This can lead to different experiences of work and non-work conflict (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). The reasons as to why demographic groups (gender, age, language, qualifications, marital and parental status) have different experiences of conflict can be varied (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011). This could stem from individual preferences or even a high saliency that is attached to non-work roles such as, parenting and religion (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011).

Previously, there were no studies to provide insight into the application of work-life balance (WLB) models under the unique conditions of the South African labour market (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005). Research by Mageni and Slabbert (2005) provided the much needed insight by focusing on the application of the international WLB system within the distinct South African workplace. "A WLB system after the international model in its purest form cannot be applied in the South African workplace, due to the widespread lack of twenty-first-century business competencies" (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005, p. 399). Nonetheless, there have been some dynamic South African organizations that have made a suggestive move toward the implementation of flexible working practices (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005). "The major challenge in the implementation of a WLB system in the South African context will face management, which has to learn to manage worker outputs, rather than the workers" (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005, p. 400).

There are however, a few studies that provide information about the use of flexi-time in South Africa (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). What seems to be lacking in previous research is information pertaining to the implementation of flexi-time and its value as a work-life balance policy in contributing to the work-life balance of South African employees (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). The authors extracted four main themes from their qualitative research conducted in the financial sector, regarding the challenges and benefits associated with implementing flexi-time (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). These included:

- Individual challenges for example: disengaging from work and time management (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).
- General challenges for example: inconsistent understanding of flexi-time and possible misuse of flexi-time (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).
- Requirements for the effective use of flexi-time that will help to alleviate the challenges highlighted above, for example, professional discipline, effective communication and individual planning (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).
- The benefits of implementing flexi-time include individual and organizational benefits, for example, work-life balance and employee loyalty and commitment (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

From a South African perspective, research needs to delve into the processes and practices that workplaces can adopt primarily geared toward helping employees to develop a balanced lifestyle (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). Undoubtedly an awareness of unhealthy practices needs to be established in order to show individuals how to manage work-home interference and to enhance the positive spill-over effects between work and home (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). Organizations should identify the forms of work-nonwork conflict that are particularly problematic for their employees and focus should also be placed on specific non-work roles that are most demanding for employees (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011). Future research should focus on investigating the work-non-work interface across different occupations, job and socio-demographic characteristics, personality traits and family situation (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010).

Empirical evidence supports that work-family conflicts are associated with negative work behaviours and attitudes such as, absenteeism (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley & Carr, 2008). On an individual level, strategies to recover from high demands are particularly important in managing

work-home interference (Oosthuizen *et al*., 2011). Insufficient recovery from strain developed through the working day has implications for the health and overall well-being of the individual (Oosthuizen *et al*., 2011). Organizations should be able to assist by providing training and support to employees to cope with work-related and non-work related demands such as, parental training and childcare facilities (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010).

2.9   The Critical Components of Work-Life Balance

In order to fulfil the research purpose of this study, an appraisal of five critical sub-dimensions in relation to work-life balance will be conducted. The five sub-dimensions include work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, and child/elderly care and employee wellness, respectively.

2.9.1   Work-Family Conflict

Twenty-five years ago the term work–family conflict, "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect", was introduced (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985 cited in O'Donnell, Berkman & Subramanian, 2012, p. 1142). The level of satisfaction towards work-life balance is derived from the perceptions of the individual regarding balance (cognitive element) and the emotional response to those perceptions (affective element) (McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, Brown & Valcour, 2013). The cognitive appraisals of demands and resources faced by an individual within the work and family domains contribute to the individual's perceptions surrounding work-family fit (Voydanoff, 2005). Demands are associated with role requirements which the individual must respond and fulfil by using some form of effort (whether physical or mental), while resources are the assets that individuals can rely on to facilitate role performance and even generate additional resources (Voydanoff, 2005).

Work and family demands are generally related to conflict across the two domains and work and family resources are generally related with facilitation occurring across the two domains (Voydanoff, 2005). The conflict or competition model implies that because individuals have a limited amount of time and energy, encountering high demands in all life spheres with no adjustment can potentially cause these spheres to conflict with each other and result in role overload (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Work-family research has highlighted the synergies and trade-offs

associated with the domains of work and home life (Lautsch & Scully, 2007). Synergy resides in the adaptations and flexibility between the two domains that enable the work and home life to co-exist and function in a reciprocal relationship (Lautsch & Scully, 2007). The trade-off arises as a result of the scarcity of resources, particularly time and effort expended by each individual in the realms of work and home (Lautsch & Scully, 2007).

According to Allvin *et al*. (2011), a general feature highlighted in previous studies is the tendency of work life to interfere with family life which is more commonly reported than an interference occurring in the opposing direction. Health habits of an average working adult can be strongly influenced by his or her co-workers and work environment (Monley, Seaverson & Gingerich, 2014). Due to the negative consequences associated with work-to-family conflict which include negative effects on the work attitudes of employees and the intention to leave, it makes work-to-family conflict a potentially costly concern for organizations (Green, Bull Schaefer, MacDermid & Weiss, 2011). In Northern Europe social and family policy has been directed toward reaching a balance between work life and family life for working parents (Allvin *et al*., 2011). While in other parts of the globe, family friendly organizational arrangements are relied upon in the form of flexible working hours and work schedules and childcare arrangement, amongst other things (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

2.9.1.1   The Types of Conflict

The three types of conflict that can take place between work and family include time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985 cited in Forma, 2009). Also, role salience refers to the occurrence of bidirectional inter-role conflict and has steadily been presented to predict work-family conflict (Matthews *et al*., 2012).

- **Time-based conflict**

Time-based conflict means that the time invested in one role makes it difficult to partake in another role (Mitchelson, 2009). Time-based conflict establishes a state of imbalance and results in negative consequences (Lee, Magnini & Kim, 2011). Time-based conflict refers to time pressures or demands allocated to the performance of one role that prevent the individual from

satisfying expectations in another role (Forma, 2009). Working long hours has potential negative implications on how people manage their work and family lives especially those that work longer hours and report more work-family conflict (Matthews *et al*., 2012).

Burke (2009) provides research support that long work hours and overtime are linked to negative family functioning, health difficulties (psychological and physical) and fewer sleep hours. Time is regarded as a fixed resource according to the resource drain perspective (McNamara *et al*., 2013). In meeting the demands of the work and family role, the time resource gets depleted (McNamara *et al*., 2013). Conflict arises when work demands exceed resources contributing to a state of disequilibrium between the work and home domains, resulting in psychological, emotional and physical strain (McNamara *et al*., 2013). This suggests that the more hours an individual works, the less satisfied he or she will be with work-family balance due to an interference of work with family (McNamara *et al*., 2013). "Longer working hours have been found to increase the negative spillover from work to the home" (Dillworth, 2004; Kinnunen, Geurts & Mauno cited in Forma, 2009, p. 184).

Those workers who are satisfied with their level of balance may find it relatively easier to work additional hours in comparison to those experiencing low satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work-family balance and may find it burdensome to work an additional hour (McNamara *et al*., 2013). An individual's satisfaction with work-family balance that is unrelated to the number of hours worked, for example, if the nature of the job is intrinsically motivating, can result in the ease of working a longer work week (McNamara *et al*., 2013). Individuals can also experience higher career satisfaction with working a longer work week (McNamara *et al*., 2013).

- **Strain-based Conflict**

Strain-based conflict refers to strain and fatigue resulting from role demands in one role that affect and interfere with the performance of an individual in another role (Forma, 2009). Demands that cause this type of conflict do so through a process of psychological spill-over in which strain from one domain restricts individual performance in the second domain (Voydanoff, 2005). As a result, attempting to juggle a variety of tasks in the same or different roles is associated with higher work-family distress (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005). Strain-based

conflict can occur when the pressures of moving from one deadline to the next at work result in tiredness or mental exhaustion when at home (Forma, 2009).

This type of conflict can be further understood in terms of insufficient recovery time including, resting at home in the evenings (Singh, 2013). An individual who is subjected to a high quantitative workload, has less control over his or her work and receives less job support may experience a lack in sufficient recovery time (Singh, 2013). This means that the negative psychological and physical states originating within the work environment cannot be restored to a baseline, causing the individual to devote more effort into meeting tasks at work and at home (Singh, 2013). This in turn leads to a more negative work-home interaction which is associated with deteriorating psychological health over time and fatigue (Singh, 2013).

- **Behaviour-based Conflict**

Behaviour-based conflict refers to behaviour performed in one role that is incompatible with the behavioural expectation of other roles (Forma, 2009). As an example, aggressiveness at work may be stereotypical behaviours for managers that may not be appropriate at home where warmth and vulnerability should be expressed (Hammer & Thompson, 2003 cited in Singh, 2013). Also, behaviour-based conflict is bringing work home as conflict is likely to surface when the individual devotes time and attention to satisfying work expectations, thereby taking away time and attention that would have otherwise been devoted to children and/or spouses (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005).

2.9.1.2   Enabling Resources and Psychological Rewards

Within-domain work and family resources include enabling resources and psychological rewards that can be applied across domains to improve performance (Voydanoff, 2005). Enabling resources from one domain (for example, a supportive supervisor) can enhance the capacity to perform and participate in the second domain and rewards absorbed from one domain (for example, status) can facilitate participation in another domain (Voydanoff, 2005). Time and strain-based demands in one domain can be offset by the presence of enabling resources and

psychological rewards in another domain thereby affecting the level of work-family fit acquired (Voydanoff, 2005).

In line with this, job autonomy and flexible work schedules respectively can play a useful role in aiding both family demands-work resources fit and work demands-family resources fit (Voydanoff, 2005). Work demands-family resources fit can be established through job autonomy which can allow workload to be better managed possibly freeing up time and alleviating time-based demands that could have hindered one's functioning in the family domain (Voydanoff, 2005). Likewise, flexible work schedules can also be used to adjust the timing of work to manage demands at work and a family's ability to meet demands (Voydanoff, 2005).

An enabling resource, such as, supervisor support can demonstrate the difference between within-domain resources and boundary-spanning resources (Voydanoff, 2005). The support from a supervisor that helps employees to improve their performance levels in the workplace is a within-domain resource (Voydanoff, 2005). Whereas, if the support received from a supervisor helps employees to manage their co-functioning in work and family roles, this is a boundary-spanning resource (Voydanoff, 2005). Boundary-spanning resources rely on boundary flexibility (for example, employer practices that include work-family policies) to assist with work and family intersection and integration, thereby increasing work-family fit and balance (Voydanoff, 2005).

Boundary-spanning demands however are the trade-offs present across the domains of work and family on a continuum of segmentation to integration (Voydanoff, 2005). Unlike boundary-spanning resources that promote fit and balance, boundary-spanning demands achieve the opposite because of the difficulty of the transitions involved between work and family (Voydanoff, 2005). It also can contribute to role blurring across domains (Voydanoff, 2005). The consequences that accompany difficult transitions are twofold (Voydanoff, 2005). Firstly, it has the potential to limit role performance in both domains (Voydanoff, 2005). Secondly, it prevents the individual from having time to prepare for entering the other domain (Voydanoff, 2005).

2.9.1.3 The Types of Boundary-Spanning Resources

The three types of work-based boundary-spanning resources that can aid work-family fit and balance are work support, family support and normative support (Voydanoff, 2005). The provision of flexible working arrangements helps employees to manage their dual roles through increased boundary flexibility (Voydanoff, 2005). Firstly, work-support policies provided by employers refer to policies that help employees to accommodate their family obligations without impacting on the amount of work performed or hours worked (Voydanoff, 2005). Secondly, family-support policies provided by employers do impact on the work time of employees as time is taken away from work to meet family demands and it also refers to working part-time (Voydanoff, 2005).

The third type of work-based boundary-spanning resource is normative support which involves supportive supervisors and a work-family culture that can contribute to satisfaction with work-family balance (Voydanoff, 2005). A climate that is supportive of work-family issues implicitly approves employees to use available work and family support policies through assurance against potential career penalties (Voydanoff, 2005). The benefits offered with this type of support are evident in the work and home domains and can include lower intended turnover and lower levels of work-family conflict (Voydanoff, 2005).

Supervisor support is a more explicit type of support that is offered to employees (Voydanoff, 2005). It comprises of positive responses from supervisors when discussing an employee's family responsibilities (Voydanoff, 2005). This helps to make employees feel more at ease with using flexibility options provided by the organization (Voydanoff, 2005). Boundary-spanning resources that originate within the family domain can be referred to as family support which involves support provided from members of the family in the form of dependent care and household work (Voydanoff, 2005).

2.9.2 Work Flexibility

In the wake of increased technological advancements and contemporary work tasks, the performance of work is no longer reliant on the location where it is performed (Naswall *et al*., 2008). Instead, it is not uncommon for work to be carried out at times and places that were

previously reserved for leisure (Naswall *et al*., 2008). Workplace flexibility provides workers with some extent of control as they can modify where, when and for how long they perform work-related duties (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). Work flexibility fundamentally comes in two forms, schedule flexibility (for example, flexi-time and compressed workweeks) and location flexibility (for example, telework) (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008).

Naithani (2010) recognises the implications of the economic downturn on the provision of work-life balance initiatives to employees. Primarily recessionary periods are a time when organizations are looking to curtail expenses, of which the easiest will be work-life initiative costs (Naithani, 2010). According to Giancola (2013), the Great Recession of 2007-2009 inhibited the growth of work-life programmes and had a negative effect on management attitudes in the United States. Such findings have led some experts to believe that the recessions have placed a hold on work-life balance progress (Giancola, 2013).

The work ethic of the twenty-first century is characterized by greater effort, work engagement and visibility at work (face-time) (Webber *et al*., 2010). Yet, dependence on work-life initiatives can implicate an individual's intention to commit to their work and job (Webber *et al*., 2010). In addition, organisational time expectations which refer to the number of hours an employee is expected to work affects whether individuals will consider work-life balance initiatives (Webber *et al*., 2010). Flexible working conditions rely heavily on the personal abilities and commitment of the individual worker (Naswall *et al*., 2008).

Increased flexibility in deciding when and where work can be performed bares the risk of intruding on home life and creating an imbalance between work and non-work roles (Naswall *et al*., 2008). Furthermore, changes within the work environment over recent years have undoubtedly impacted occupational stress levels (Webber *et al*., 2010). According to Naswall *et al*. (2008), the conditions of work have become boundaryless in the sense that such conditions imply a de-regulation or re-regulation as opposed to the traditional regulations of work. The obligations of work shift from authoritative rules and regulations as prescribed by the organization to the individual, hence increasing one's responsibility for the work performed (Naswall *et al*., 2008).

Employers have moved beyond the view that work-life policies seek to only accommodate individual needs and instead have shifted focus to the strategic value associated with promoting work-life balance due to the impact it has on employee engagement and overall organisational performance (Lazar, Osoian, & Ratiu, 2010). Work-life balance practices are a deliberate strategy that is intended to initiate change to the organisational culture to reduce role conflict and make work-family integration a workplace priority (Lazar *et al*., 2010). The scope of work-life programmes has expanded beyond working mothers and childcare assistance to focus on both women and men as well as care for elderly dependents (Giancola, 2013).

Flexibility-fit refers to the accessibility awarded to employees to use flexible working arrangements that are aligned to their needs (McNamara *et al*., 2013). With control over their work, research shows a reduction in work-life conflict (Allan, Loudoun & Peetz, 2007 cited in Webber *et al*., 2010). Employees basically apply their discretion in determining how and when they perform their work and what skills to exercise (Webber *et al*., 2010). Hence, in order to facilitate balance, organizations can provide work-life balance policies to their employees (ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010).

Scholars have substantiated the potential benefits associated with work-family policies for organizations such as, an increase in organizational citizenship behaviour (Lambert, 2000 cited in del Campo, Cook & Arthur, 2013); job satisfaction and decreased job burnout (Cook, 2009 cited in del Campo *et al*., 2013). Work-life balance support provided by an organization can include both organizational policies (formal policies such as, flexible working arrangements) and informal organizational support (for example, family responsive organizational culture) and supervisory support (ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010). Policies that help employees facilitate work-family balance can enable employees to perform better at work (del Campo *et al*., 2013). In this regard, firms that have an in-house child care facility can ease employee worries about their children, enabling better concentration on tasks or the opportunity to take up flexible work schedules may increase employee attendance resulting in higher productivity levels (del Campo *et al*., 2013).

Work-life balance options allow employees to have greater flexibility in scheduling activities according to what suits their situation best (ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010). It can

provide assistance with parental duties and offer emotional support (ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010). Generally, high job flexibility allows more room for work-life interaction and therefore a state of balance, whereas low job flexibility limits work-life interaction and therefore creates a state of conflict and imbalance (Webber *et al*., 2010).

The value of flexibility can differ across individuals, carrying different meanings at different times, therefore causing the benefits of flexibility to potentially diminish over time (Lawton, 2010). Flexible working arrangements can have low rates of utilization due to the fear experienced by employees regarding the adverse effects on their careers (McNamara *et al*., 2013). In order to capitalize on the value of flexible options as a resource in supporting work-family balance, these options should be aligned with employee needs (McNamara *et al*., 2013). Organisational support toward the use of work-life balance initiatives is embedded in a work-family culture that openly values the concern of balance (Webber *et al*., 2010). Employers need to develop a supportive culture through the norms, values and policies that govern the functioning of the organisation (Webber *et al*., 2010).

Co-worker dialogue is key to openly accepting the use of work-life balance initiatives (Webber *et al*., 2010). Furthermore, perceived managerial support is crucial for employees to embrace the use of work-life balance initiatives (Webber *et al*., 2010). Daily managerial support helps employees in decision-making relating to the use of such options or initiatives (Webber *et al*., 2010). Managers can assume three key roles in the effective implementation of work-life balance initiatives, namely, top management need to introduce and endorse work-life balance policies, managers should encourage employee participation when it comes to balance initiatives or programmes and lastly, managers should lead by example as they serve as role models to employees (Webber *et al*., 2010).

2.9.2.1   The Types of Flexible Working Arrangements

Work-life options mentioned by ten Brummelhuis and van der Lippe (2010) include flexi-time, telecommuting, child care facilities and supportive leadership and organizational culture. According to Lawton (2010), family friendly work policies offered by employers can be categorized according to adjusting hours of work (hours of arrival or departure) or days of work, telecommuting and having the opportunity to take time off (whether scheduled or unplanned).

McNall, Masuda and Nicklin (2010) discuss two types of flexible work arrangements that relate to time flexibility, that is, flexi-time and compressed work week schedules. Firstly, flexi-time refers to the ability of employees to select their hours of work while accounting for certain restrictions by the organization (McNall *et al*., 2010). The main feature of this flexible working arrangement is the set of core hours that an organisation stipulates for employees providing them with more freedom in deciding the starting and ending times of the work day through the use of more flexible work schedules (Lazar *et al*., 2010).

Secondly, a compressed work week schedule means that employees can work for fewer days each work week but have to work more hours per day (McNall *et al*., 2010). This consists of a flexible work week arrangement that is generally initiated by the employee who agrees to work longer shifts to reduce the number of days spent at work (Lazar *et al*., 2010). With the global expansion of organizational boundaries, the formation of virtual organizations can be viewed as the response to global competition (Baard & Thomas, 2010). Certainly, the concepts of virtual workplaces, virtual teams and virtual working arrangements are revolutionary in nature (Baard & Thomas, 2010).

Virtual working is primarily facilitated through the use of communication technologies which extend beyond the traditional structures and reporting relationships of an organization (Baard & Thomas, 2010). This particular type of working is not conducive to all employment types, therefore organizations need to be assessed for appropriateness in terms of size, type and whether it can adopt the structure (Baard & Thomas, 2010). In South Africa, there are a few organizations that implement teleworking (Baard & Thomas, 2010). The authors conducted an exploratory study at three South African organizations to identify employee perceptions of personal benefits and challenges of teleworking (Baard & Thomas, 2010). Benefits corroborated with internationally recognized benefits (for example, improved work-life balance and productivity) and challenges cited were increased working hours, amongst others (Baard & Thomas, 2010). Job sharing is another type of flexible working arrangement that involves one full-time job that is performed jointly by two employees who divide and share the workload (Lazar *et al*., 2010). Job sharing accommodates employee's personal commitments and allows job sharers the opportunity to learn and grow from one another while providing mutual support (Lazar *et al*., 2010).

2.9.2.2 The Benefits of Work-Life Balance Initiatives

In addition to organizations leveraging work-life balance initiatives for productivity and profitability gains, the benefits of these balance initiatives also extend to the employee and generate positive outcomes (Naithani, 2010). Table 2.3 highlights the work-life benefits for employers and employees according to a qualitative and quantitative categorization.

Table 2.3

Benefits of Work-life balance initiatives

Qualitative benefits for employers	Qualitative benefits for employees
– Retaining valued employees	– Happier life at work and at home
– Motivated workforce	– Better work place relations
– Attracting a wider range of candidates	– Improved self-esteem and concentration
– Reputation of employer choice	– Time for personal and family life
– Reduced recruitment costs	– Greater control of working life
– Maximized available labour	– Better management of home and work
– Improved quality of applicants	– Supportive workplace that values staff
Quantitative benefits	
– Cost of absenteeism	– Cost of health insurance premiums
– Cost of diminished productivity	– Cost of direct medical claims
– Cost of staff turnover and recruitment	– Cost of customer satisfaction

Source: Naithani, P. (2010). Overview of Work-Life Balance Discourse and Its Relevance in Current Economic Scenario. *Asian Social Science*, 6 (6), p. 155.

The provision of work-life balance initiatives at an organizational level, results in social, psychological and economic benefits that directly benefit the organization and employees (Naithani, 2010). Employers benefit through reduced costs of recruitment, retention of valued employees and higher employee engagement, amongst others (Naithani, 2010). Likewise, employees benefit from a supportive workplace, having time for their personal lives and improved self-esteem, amongst others (Naithani, 2010). Moreover, the effective implementation

of work-life initiatives allows organizations to shield themselves against a variety of potential monetary losses such as, the costs of absenteeism, amongst other costs (Naithani, 2010).

2.9.3 Managerial/Supervisory Support

Supervisors are considered as agents of the organization and can play a crucial role in the health and well-being of their employees (O'Donnell *et al*., 2012). Literature recognizes the role of supervisors as a major determinant in enabling work-life balance for employees (Allen 2001 cited in Lauzun, Morganson, Major & Green, 2010). "Research has repeatedly found that supervisory support is associated with diminished work-life conflict" (Anderson *et al*., 2002; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman & Daniels, 2007 cited in Lauzun *et al*., 2010, p. 187).

The willingness of supervisors to help and accommodate employees can have a positive effect on work-life balance (Singh, 2013). A supervisor who is willing to assist employees with special problems can reduce the negative spill-over from the work domain to the family and personal life domains, and in turn decrease work-life conflict (Chan, 2009 cited in Singh, 2013). It has been theoretically argued and recognized in work-family literature that informal organizational support such as, supervisory support, can be more effective than formal organizational policies that provide work-family support particularly in understanding the variances in the affective, intentional and behavioural outcomes in employees (Behson, 2005).

Supervisory support is when the direct manager of an employee recognizes and is sympathetic toward an employee's need to achieve work-family balance (O'Donnell *et al*., 2012). It refers to employees who have managers that display family-friendly attitudes and have supportive practices and openness toward work-family balance (O'Donnell *et al*., 2012). Supportive supervisors are those who show sensitivity toward the work-life balance needs of their employees and establish a work environment that encourages balance (Lauzun *et al*., 2010). Supportive supervisors provide emotional support through caring and empathic understanding and can also be instrumentally supportive by providing an accommodating flexible work schedule (Lauzun *et al*., 2010).

An alternate description of supervisory support involves the perceptions employees have regarding concern demonstrated by their superiors (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). Supervisory support can be functional in nature whereby the supervisor provides the necessary resources to employees and finds solutions to work-related problems or may also involve emotional support whereby the supervisor expresses concern for the non-work-related problems of employees (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). Supervisors can be emotionally and instrumentally supportive (Perrewe, Treadway & Hall, 2003 cited in Lauzun *et al*., 2010). "Emotional support involves actions that convey caring and empathic understanding and instrumental support involves the provision of tangible goods and services" (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007, p.187 cited in Lauzun *et al*., 2010, p. 187).

According to the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001), supervisory support is identified as a resource that can reduce the adverse impact of job demands on employees (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). Support from supervisors tends to act as a coping mechanism for employees (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002). Supervisors occupy an intermediary position between senior management and workers; therefore the culture of the organization sets the foundation that influences the extent to which supervisors can be supportive toward the work-life balance concerns of employees (Lauzun *et al*., 2010). As a result, a supportive work-life climate can enable and encourage supportive supervisors, whereas an unsupportive work-life climate will have the opposite effect (Lauzun *et al*., 2010).

A study conducted by Secret and Sprang (2001) among employed parents at small and medium companies revealed positive effects of informal supervisory support on work-family balance. A study conducted by Behson (2005) strongly supports that work environments that encourage supervisory support concerning work-family issues and afford autonomy to employees in how their work is performed stands to gain from increased employee satisfaction and decreased employee stress and work-family conflict. Warren and Johnson (1995) explain that specifically among employed parents, supervisor support is associated with reduced levels of stress and role conflict.

The provision of supervisory support is not only for facilitating work and family tasks but also aimed at helping employees to function better at work (ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010). Supervisor support provided to an employee may lead to stress reduction because the

supervisor demonstrates an understanding towards the family-related problems of the employee (ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010) and lead to an improvement in the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the employee (Nabavi & Shahryari, 2012).

2.9.4 Child/Elderly Care

The concept of care encompasses child care and the upbringing of a family, caring for elderly dependents, the ill and other dependent family members (O'Connor, 2005). Caring for children has two major implications (O'Connor, 2005). Firstly, child rearing and child caring consumes a significant portion of one's lifecycle and the occurrence of which generally takes place while workers are in pursuit of career advancement (O'Connor, 2005). Secondly, caring for children is of utmost importance for sustaining the economy in the future (O'Connor, 2005). With regard to family characteristics, many studies have recognized the importance of the total number and the age of children (Carlson, 1999; Kinnunen *et al*., 2004 cited in Forma, 2009). However, contemporary society presents a work ethic that impedes on family life largely due to the more stressful jobs and a 24x7 working culture, hence parents have less time for their children (O'Connor, 2005).

A situation in which an employed individual has to care for their parent/s, spouse or others who are unable to cope on their own with daily tasks is referred to as informal care (Forma, 2009). This can become very demanding particularly when those who are being cared for are dying (Forma, 2009). Over thirty years of research demonstrates that caregiving responsibilities impact on the psychological and physical well-being of caregivers (Gordon, Pruchno, Wilson-Genderson, Murphy & Rose, 2012). Employers are also affected through substantial costs that are associated with the caregiving responsibilities of their employees (Gordon *et al*., 2012).

The nature of demands and types of support in the caring domain are different to that of the work domain (Gordon *et al*., 2012). Caring for elderly dependents requires the satisfaction of demands that are based on the needs of the care recipient (Gordon *et al*., 2012). Furthermore, an individual faces greater care-giving demands when caring for the elderly because of level of care required and the time required for that care (Gordon *et al*., 2012). Work demands however, are based on the individual's position within the organization (Gordon *et al*., 2012). As documented by

Gordon *et al*. (2012), women who are care-givers for the elderly differ significantly from women with dependent care responsibilities. The author further explains that in comparison to women with dependent care or child care responsibilities, women who have elder care responsibilities report lower job security, receive lower levels of support from their supervisors and have reduced access to flexible working arrangements (Gordon *et al*., 2012).

Organizations can also provide employees with dependent care benefits in addition to flexible working schedules to enable employees to cope better with the demands caused by their family circumstances (Anderson *et al*., 2002). These benefits can range from assisting employees with finding help to relieve themselves of their childcare and/or eldercare responsibilities, to leave provisions to care for dependents (Anderson *et al*., 2002). Dependent care benefits can be made available to employees for preventative purposes, reducing the potential interference of family responsibilities with work responsibilities (Anderson *et al*., 2002). Research shows that the existence of informal support within an organization is apparently more valued in comparison to formal support, particularly when explaining employee outcomes (for example, work-family conflict and job satisfaction) (Behson, 2005). Informal support can be instrumental or emotional (O'Connor, 2005). Instrumental informal support is when the care recipient receives assistance from people other than the caregiver whereas; emotional informal support is when the caregiver can talk to others about a difficult situation (O'Connor, 2005).

2.9.5   Employee Wellness

In the world of work, change is about the only constant (Kinder *et al*., 2008). Employers are interested in health and productivity largely because of the added costs that come with employee illness, absenteeism, and costs involved in recruiting and retaining top talent (Mudge-Riley, McCarthy, & Persichetti, 2013). The ultimate destination for wellness is to improve the health of employees and keep employees healthy (Diamond, 2013). The well-being of an individual creates positive outcomes at all levels, that is, at the individual, work, team and organizational level (Kinder *et al*., 2008).

Dealing with technological advancements, pressures of job insecurity, longer hours and working more rapidly, all contribute to occupational stress (Farrell & Geist-Martin, 2005). Eventually, stress may result in burnout if employees continue working under stressful conditions (Farrell &

Geist-Martin, 2005). The promotion of worksite wellness should be underpinned by a healthy work environment and an organizational culture and policies that support healthy lifestyle behaviours (Howard, 2013). Programmes that contribute to the improvement and maintenance of employee health can include flexible work schedules and gym time and membership (Mudge-Riley *et al.*, 2013).

The provision of work-life balance initiatives to address employee health and wellness can provide significant long-term results (Clarke, 2009). Research conducted by Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary and Scarparothat (2015, p. 372) revealed that "both availability and utility of organisational WLB policies/programmes were important to improve employee outcomes such as perceived better health, wellbeing and WLB". Flexibility can be viewed as a win-win situation for both employees and employers (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). Flexibility is believed to help employees presumably through being able to manage their work and personal life responsibilities while attending to work-related responsibilities (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). Strong evidence exists that links indicators of work-family balance to health (Frone, 2003; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005 cited in Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). Furthermore, the use of flexibility plays a role in the health promotion of employees (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). This also benefits the employer through greater productivity and commitment and lower healthcare costs (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). Traditionally, flexibility has been viewed as valuable resource to workers as it provides workers with an increased level of control (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008).

Consistent with this view, flexibility presumably provides workers with needed resources that help them to effectively and appropriately respond to demands or stressors experienced (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). This can reduce one's exposure and vulnerability to stress and can further reduce the potentially negative health effects of stressors experienced (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). As the author explains, there is a body of literature that links flexibility to better employee health such as, improved physical and mental health and less stress (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). However, the evidence base regarding associations between flexibility and health is limited as some researchers suggest a positive association while others report contrary associations (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). The study conducted by Casey and Grzywacz (2008), does contribute to the evidence base by suggesting that organizations do stand to benefit from instilling a culture of flexibility in their organizations.

In 2008, a subsidiary of large brewery situated in Cape Town, South Africa undertook the development of a wellness model (WM) (Field & Louw, 2012). This model comprises of six different components, each with its own activities and plans (Field & Louw, 2012). Amongst the six, the counseling service and the lifestyle management components are directed toward the promotion of a more balanced lifestyle for all workers (Field & Louw, 2012). Counselors are telephonically available at all times, providing assistance to employees regarding concerns of a personal and family-related nature, amongst others (Field & Louw, 2012). The lifestyle management component is characterized by an annual wellness week which includes activities that address physical and mental health and well-being, medical health management, nutrition, flexible working arrangements and a family day as part of the programme (Field & Louw, 2012).

Employee assistance programmes (EAP's) are a worksite-focused management tool that has a part in improving employee well-being (Kinder *et al*., 2008). These programmes are designed to provide assistance, advice and information on personal matters (for example, family and health) and work matters (for example, work demands and work-life balance), that may directly or indirectly influence employee performance (includes team and individual performance) and well-being in the workplace (Kinder *et al*., 2008). In addition to helping employers to manage performance issues, an EAP helps to identify employee concerns with the aim of designing interventions to resolve such concerns (Kinder *et al*., 2008). EAP services can include amongst others, counseling, financial support, child and eldercare services and health information (Kinder *et al*., 2008).

Furthermore, in recent years, the merging of employee assistance programmes (EAP) and work-life programmes has provided a convenient and efficient way for employers to help employees achieve balance and cope better with other problems of a personal nature (Pallarito, 2006). Employers can use innovative learning programmes that provide employees with the skills to cope better with role overload, work-life conflict and care-giver strain (Clarke, 2009). A new wave of integration has emerged involving a holistic approach whereby vendors are adding a wellness dimension to the consolidation of EAP's and work-life programmes (Pallarito, 2006). This relatively new integration addresses organizational issues concerning health improvement and employee well-being and productivity (Pallarito, 2006). Employee assistance that addresses problems across an entire spectrum encountered by employees and their families makes for a

happier and healthier employee (Pallarito, 2006). From the organization's perspective, integrated programmes simplify administration (Pallarito, 2006). From the perspective of the employee, integrated programmes provides employees with a single point of contact to access services and coordinate the provision of services relating to employee wellness and work-life balance (Pallarito, 2006).

Stress management and prevention interventions can also be implemented by an organization to provide assistance to employees (Kinder *et al*., 2008). These interventions can occur on three levels namely, primary level (for example, job redesign and flexible work schedules); secondary level (e.g. health promotion and coaching programmes) and tertiary level (for example, rehabilitation and medical interventions) (Kinder *et al*., 2008). In addition to support provided by employers in maintaining employee health and well-being, the value of leisure as a coping resource for the individual is also important (Joudrey & Wallace, 2009). It enhances an individual's resilience to work-life conflict by balancing out individual effort in the work and home domains that positively impact on the performance, mood and overall well-being of the employee (Joudrey & Wallace, 2009).

2.9.5.1   eThekwini Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) Draft Policy

The municipality does not have a separate programme specifically addressing work-life balance however, the municipality's draft EAP policy does account for family and life-related issues. The EAP draft policy comprises of several support structures that are available to all employees on a voluntary basis with the purpose of maintaining a healthy workforce within a supportive environment (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). The EAP draft policy recognizes that employees may experience personal, social or work-related problems that can result in organizational consequences such as heightened absenteeism, high staff turnover and lowered productivity, amongst others (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). Hence, "the eThekwini EAP is designed to assist employees experiencing personal and/or work-related difficulties and to ensure optimal performance of employees" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.3).

There are a total of eight services offered to employees under the EAP draft policy, two of which are additional services specifically available for managers and supervisors/team leaders (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). Employees are required to negotiate time off for the attendance

of EAP sessions (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). The six services available to all employees as outlined in the EAP draft policy are:

- **Personal Support Line:** "Unlimited access to the 24-hour toll-free line with all calls answered by registered professional counsellors" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.5).

- **Face-to-face Counselling:** "Depending on the treatment plan, referral to face-to-face counselling is provided" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.5).

- **Life Management Services:** "Unlimited access to telephonic legal, financial and Family Care assistance provided by Life Management specialists" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

− Legal services which are provided by qualified attorneys include "telephonic legal advice, the provision of precedents and pro-forma documentation as well as referrals to appropriate legal services and bodies" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6);

("Note: no legal representation in court is provided and labour law issues are excluded" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p. 6)

− Financial services which are provided by qualified independent financial advisors include "debt management assistance, budgeting, and financial planning" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p. 6);

("Note: no financial loans are provided" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6))

− "Family Care services provide information and guidance on a wide range of childcare, eldercare and disability issues" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

- **Trauma Management Services:** "Prompt professional group and individual trauma counselling services consisting of trauma defusing, psychological first aid and trauma debriefing services to employees exposed to incidents of trauma" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

- **HIV/AIDS Services:** "HIV/AIDS counselling, information and support for those infected and affected (The HIV/AIDS policy applies)" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

- **eCare Services:** "online personal profiling and assessment, behavior change modules, ask-the-professional services, health and wellbeing portal, weekly email series, health and wellbeing resources and print materials" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

The two additional services offered to managers and supervisors/team leaders include the following:

- **Individual Managerial Consultancy:** "Unlimited access to specialized telephonic advisory support to managers for people management matters" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

- **Managerial Referral Services:** "Informal and formal referral of employees to the EAP to support proactive and responsive people management" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.6).

In terms of the policy procedures regarding accessibility, the service can be accessed via three ways, anywhere in South Africa (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). Employees can firstly, call the toll-free number; secondly, send a "please call me" message and lastly, access any one of the onsite clinic (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). The policy also details three types of referral procedures namely, self-referral, informal referral and formal referral (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). When an employee through their own accord identifies a problem and seeks assistance from the EAP this is known as self-referral (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). Whereas, when a manager, colleague, friend or family member suggests that the employee utilise the option for EAP usage, this is known as an informal referral (eThekwini Municipality, 2012).

Lastly, when the work performance of an employee is negatively affected due to personal or work-related problems, a formal referral is pursued (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). For formally referred employees, managers are encouraged to contact the EAP telephonically (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). The manager is provided with a case number and the forms for formal referral (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). The employee is required to provide written consent regarding the disclosure of feedback reports to the referring manager (eThekwini Municipality, 2012). "Formally referred employees are provided with counselling and/or other support services which enable the return to acceptable performance standards" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.8). "Managers receive advisory services on managing the employee concerned" (eThekwini Municipality, 2012, p.8). It is important to note that at the occurrence of

an informal or formal referral, the employee retains the right to use or refuse the offer (eThekwini Municipality, 2012).

2.10   Conclusion

This chapter has considered the transformations that have transpired over the years relating to working conditions and family structures, which have altered the dynamics between work and life interaction. The attested relevance of work-life balance has been clearly exposed through the discussion of dominant theories relating to work-life balance and further literature that was presented. Work-life balance is unique to each individual hence; the interpretation of boundaries that differentiate work from life will vary. Nonetheless, it is crucial for individuals to reflect on current levels of balance between work and life in order to establish their overall life satisfaction and capacity to cope.

Following the critical examination of the work-life balance construct, the next literature chapter examines the construct of work intensification within the context of workplace change. The argument surrounding escalating work pressures as part of the intensification of work is advanced due to its implications for balancing role demands and individual well-being concerns.

CHAPTER THREE

WORK INTENSIFICATION

3.1   Introduction

Over the years, the work scenario has moved further away from the traditional features that have characterized the nature of working to a more contemporary way of working. Globalization coupled with the internationalization of competition and trade and technological advancements have greatly impacted the nature of work and working practices (Smith, 2006). This has created an ever-changing business climate, propelling organizations to adapt and modify their operations and formulate new organizational strategies in order to sustain competitiveness in the face of global exposure. As expected, changing conditions in the work context have implications for employees in addition to employers.

Whilst employers are placed under added pressure to survive and leverage human talent, similar pressures are transferred to the workforce to be productive and perform optimally at all times. Contrary to the past, employees are confronting increased demands in the workplace relating to pressures for working independently, working at a faster speed (Naswall *et al*., 2008), working long hours and multi-tasking between projects at any given time (Rowh, 2006). In addition to these work expectations, employees are also concerned with their own career progression, personal development and health and well-being priorities.

As a result, employees are presented with a perpetual struggle as they strive to manage increased pressures and in doing so could possibly be working well beyond what is expected of them (without even knowing it). Employees may be working at times that should be set aside for family and personal matters, using unconventional places such as, airports and cafes to get the job done irrespective of whether they are working at the office, at home or on holiday. It is therefore imperative to recognize current patterns of work intensification for well-being purposes.

Burchell, Lapido and Wilkinson (2002) assert that work intensification poses a worrying challenge to employees in the twenty-first century. As new demands and developments are set in motion by the changing business climate, an increased research interest focusing on how

employees are affected by these developments and how organizations can establish the most beneficial environment for employees has emerged (Naswall *et al*., 2008). The exposure of employees to the effects of work intensity and overwork has become pertinent in a time where workplaces are simultaneously dealing with modernization and globalization (Smith, 2006).

In South Africa, few studies reflect on the intensification of work within organizations and writers have examined the empirically more opaque concept of work effort (Green & McIntosh, 2001), referring to the concept of work intensity as a newly developed measure (Burke, Singh & Fiksenbaum, 2010). Amongst the international studies previously conducted, work intensification has been characterized as an important feature of the European labour markets during much of the 1990's (Burchell *et al*., 2002; Green, 2001; Green & McIntosh, 2001).

The conceptualization of the work intensification construct is informed by the review of literature to follow. The aim of this chapter is to present a theoretical comprehension of contemporary working life and the effect of working intensely. The conceptual framework of work intensification focuses on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model which is used to consider the demands faced by employees and the resources and support systems available to assist employees in relation to their daily work experiences.

The chapter provides a background to work intensification and proceeds to examine the JD-R model and the Job-Demand Control model. Further conceptual categories discussed include the intensified pressures of the modern world and workaholism. Thereafter, evidence of work intensification in industries is addressed followed by a discussion of previous studies conducted within the international landscape. This cascades into a comprehensive discussion of the critical components of work intensification as relating to the study.

3.2   Background of Work Intensification

A background to this construct is provided as work intensification is not as well-developed in literature in comparison to the focal construct of this study that is, work-life balance.

According to Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum and Acar (2009), the construct of work intensity is not yet well-developed and research on this construct is not underlined by an overarching theory. The authors recognize that different frameworks have been relied upon by different researchers

to address work intensity (Burke *et al*., 2009). Green (2004b) adds that evidence pertaining to the proximate origins of work intensification is only beginning to accumulate.

Green (2004a) points out that the basic facts concerning work intensification is clearest in the context of Britain.) From the early 1980's until 1997, this was the period in which work intensification had been established using several methodologies which included, amongst others, case studies of particular organizations and overviews of bargaining agreements in several sectors (Green, 2004a). The author supports that there is little existing research on the sources of work intensification due to the scarcity of usable measures of work effort over time (Green, 2004a).

Burke *et al*. (2010) explains that changes in effort intensity are less easy to establish as it is difficult to measure work effort objectively. It can only be measured through self-reports or extraordinarily well-controlled laboratory experiments (Burke *et al*., 2010). As work effort is not observable and is subjective (Brown, 2012), empirical work is notably lacking largely due to the problems involved in measurement (Green & McIntosh, 2001). "Self-reported effort typically gives effort in relation to some effort norm which, if deemed given across individuals or time, allow inferences about genuine effort variation to be made from survey respondents' replies" (Green & McIntosh, 2001, p. 293). Yet, since the early 1980's self-report methods were employed to establish a case showing that effort has intensified in numerous sections within the British economy (Green & McIntosh, 2001). Hence, the need exists to investigate work intensification from a South African perspective.

3.3 Definitions of Work Intensity and Labour Intensification

According to Burke (2009), there is no straightforward definition or overarching theory that is used to study the construct of work intensity. However, the following detailed definitions provide insight into the conceptualization of work intensification:

- Burchell *et al*. (2002) describes work intensification as the amount of effort used by employees during the time that they are working. The authors add that work effort involves the physical and/or mental input applied by an employee in the performance of working tasks during the work day (Burchell *et al*., 2002). "Work intensification can refer to work effort or

pace required in a job (intensive work intensification) or the number of hours required in a job (extensive work intensification)" (Green 2001 cited in Brown, 2012, p. 3578).

- Implicit in existing research literature, work intensification can be conceptualized according to common theoretical aspects such as, the rate of physical or mental input that is expended in order to perform one's work during the working day (Green, 2001); speed of work (Burchell & Fagan, 2004), the level of work effort (Green, 2004a) and pace and level of responsibility (Burke, 2009).

- According to Nichols (1991), the intensification of labour invokes the notion of "speed-up" for people, adding that it involves a greater amount of labour that is pushed out in a given time. Similarly, Burchell and Fagan (2004) used the "speed of work" to mean work intensity, whereas Green (2001) described work intensity as the extent of effort change in the jobs that employees held five years prior to their current jobs. Likewise, Willis (2005) defines work intensification as having more work to do than previously.

- In theorizing work intensification, Walter (2011) documents that worker intensification involves the increasing demands and pressures faced by employees. The author specifically draws on times of economic uncertainty in which employees are confronted with a greater burden of work (Walter, 2011). Lu (2009) on the other hand, reports on the difference between work intensification (each worker has a greater workload and a shorter rest period) and, labour extensification (workers increase their overall effort in a given shift).

- Burchielli, Pearson and Thanacoody (2006) refer to work intensification as an increase in either time or workload within a given job. The two dimensions of work intensification involve "doing more" and workplaces "coping with less staff" as a result of downsizing, staff attrition or not hiring new staff (O' Donnell, Peetz & Allan, 1998 cited in Burchielli *et al*., 2006). An alternate perspective is that work intensification can be viewed in terms of work "pressure" and work "changes" (Peetz, Townsend, Russel & Allan, 2002 cited in Burchielli *et al*., 2006).

The above definitions of work intensification signify a change in employee effort during the performance of their work. A change in effort takes cognisance of the pace and speed at which employees work and the amount of effort expended in order to get the work done. As a result, the

pressures of today's working environment can induce employees to work faster and harder which has implications for individual well-being and the ability to cope.

3.4   The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

Job demands and job resources are central to the daily experiences of employees in performing their job and being productive. Hence, the input of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model contributes to understanding the relations between job demands and the presence of adequate job resources, which impact on employee well-being.

The JD-R model classifies working conditions according to job demands and job resources (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). It specifies the interaction of job demands and job resources in the development of job strain and motivation and predicts important organizational outcomes (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). This model captures the interaction between the personal and environmental demands and personal and environmental resources of an individual and the effect (either positive or negative) on employee well-being (Singh, 2013).

Insufficient resources in the external environment presents difficulties for the individual in coping with the adverse influences of environmental demands, such as, managing a high workload (Demerouti *et al*., 2001). The model relates to burnout based on the assumption that high job demands that interact with limited job resources establishes burnout due to the depletion of energy and a deterioration of employee motivation respectively, regardless of the occupational setting (Demerouti *et al*., 2001). Specifically, this model which is presented as Figure 3.1 has been utilized in previous studies in relation to work-life balance (Voydanoff, 2004; Bakker & Geurts, 2004 cited in Singh, 2013).

Figure 3.1

The Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout
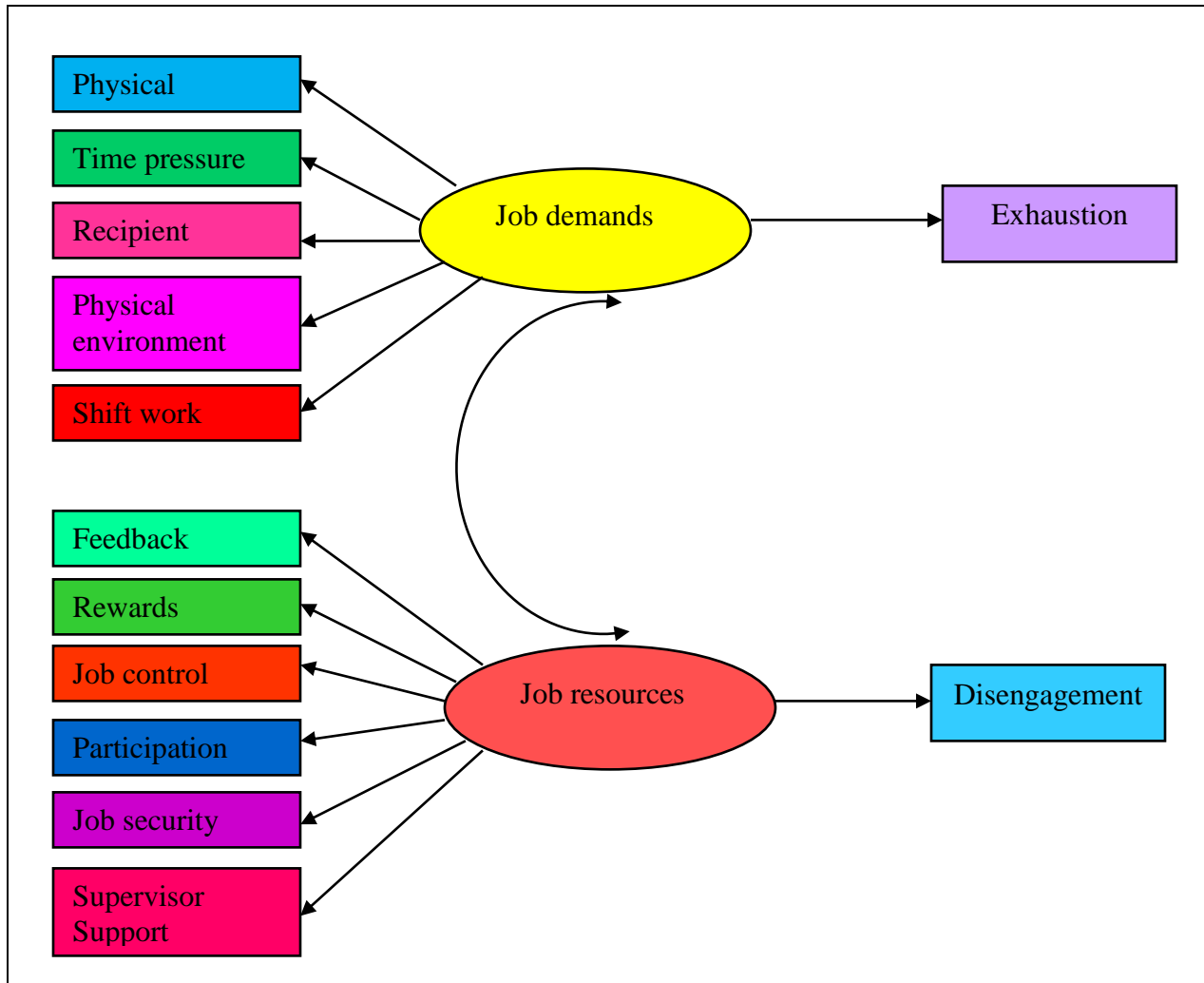
Source: Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W.B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, p. 502.

As reflected in Figure 3.1, there are two processes that cause burnout development. In the first process, when job demands are extreme, this can be constantly overtaxing on the employee and ultimately lead to exhaustion (Demerouti *et al*., 2001). The second process refers to a lack of resources that complicate meeting job demands thereby resulting in withdrawal behaviour, the long-term consequence of which is disengagement from work (Demerouti *et al*., 2001).

- **The first premise of the JD-R Model**

Job demands are aspects of the job (can be physical, social or organizational) that require the individual to exert physical or mental effort and have corresponding physiological and psychological costs (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Job demands can include working irregular hours and dealing with high work pressure (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). It must be noted that job demands are not necessarily negative (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). When these demands require employees to exert effort and employees fail to achieve adequate recovery, these demands become job stressors (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Hence, the greater the effort exerted by the individual, the more significant are the psychological costs involved (Demerouti *et al*., 2001). Stressors such as time pressures and workload, correspond with job demands in this model (Demerouti *et al*., 2001). Job resources which can be physical, psychological, social or organizational, play a functional role in the achievement of work goals, promote the personal growth and development of individuals and assist in the reduction of job demands (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Job resources can be located at three levels namely, an organizational level such as, job security; an interpersonal level such as, supervisory support and; in the specific job position such as, autonomy and performance feedback (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). These can be further categorized as external and internal resources (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The external resources, comprise of organizational (for example, job control and task variety) and, social (for example, the support an individual receives from colleagues and family members). Internal resources comprise of cognitive features (Demerouti *et al*., 2001).

Ángulo and Osea (2012) identify resources such as, job control, performance feedback and having supportive colleagues. The authors suggest that since 1992, an intensification of workload and work demands (tighter deadlines and higher speed) could be associated with the introduction of team-work in most European countries (Ángulo & Osea, 2012). The intrinsic and extrinsic motivational potential of job resources can encourage employees to achieve their goals (Ángulo & Osea, 2012). This in turn can foster more commitment from employees toward their job due to the fulfillment they receive (Ángulo & Osea, 2012). For employees with high levels of resources, they have more supplies to dispose of and can therefore cope better under demanding work conditions (Ángulo & Osea, 2012).

- ## The second premise of the JD-R Model

The second premise of the JD-R model involves the dual psychological processes that contribute to job-related strain and motivation (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Figure 3.2 illustrates these two different underlying processes of a psychological nature, that is, health impairment and motivation (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Figure 3.2

Two different underlying psychological processes play a role in the development of job-related strain and motivation
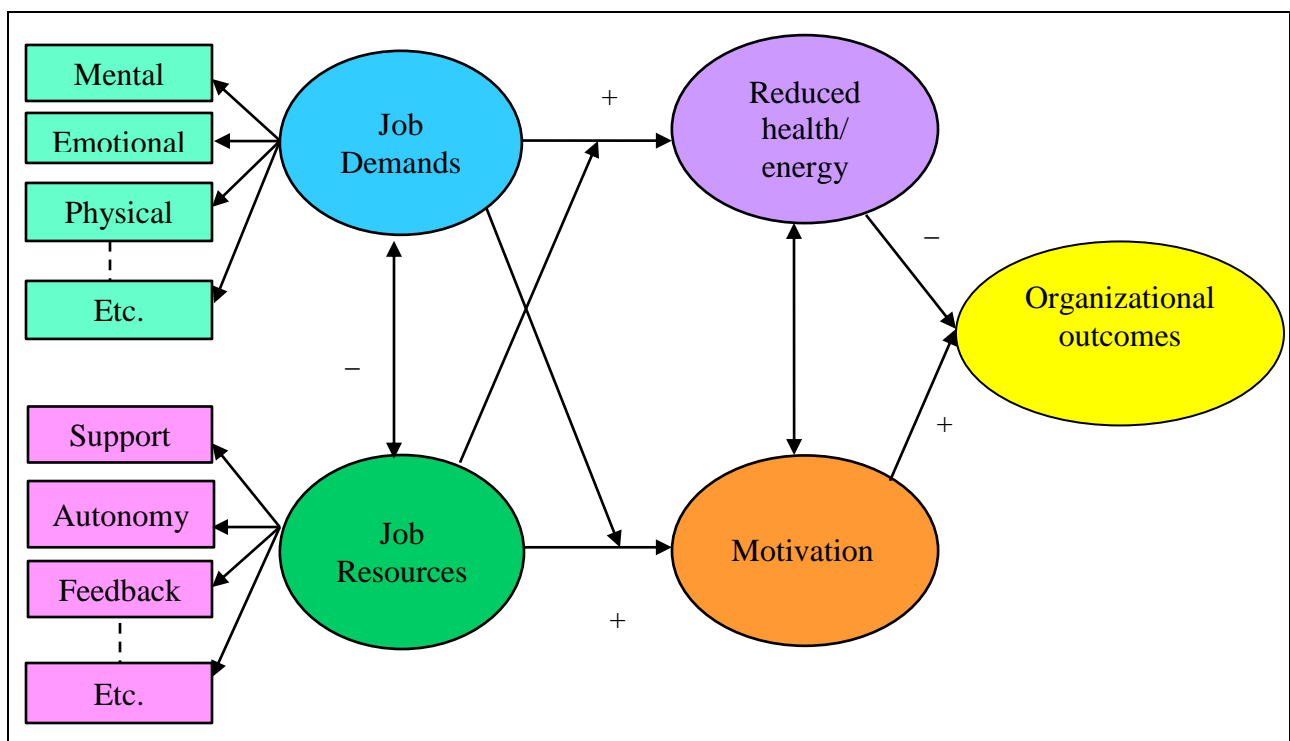
Source: Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The Job Demands-Resources model: Challenges for future research. *SAJIP: South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(2), p. 3.

As illustrated in the model, health impairment refers to the exhaustion of the mental and physical resources of employees in demanding jobs which results in energy depletion and health problems (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Secondly, the motivational psychological process is based on the assumption that job resources have a motivational potential (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). This results in increased work engagement and better performance (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

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The role of job resources can be intrinsically or extrinsically motivational (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). With the former, job resources can stimulate employee growth whereas, in the latter instance job resources can help in the attainment of work goals (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Hence, it can be understood that the presence of job resources (intrinsic or extrinsic motivation), leads to engagement (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). However, an absence thereof can result in the development of cynical attitudes towards work (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

The above establishes the importance of job resources in terms of employee well-being, individual development and work performance. As employees tackle increased work expectations in the form of high job demands, organizations play a key role in providing adequate job resources in order to prevent the formation of job stressors.

3.5   The Job-Demands Control (JDC) Model

The Job Demands-Control (JDC) model adds to the perspective presented above by focusing on job strain as a function of psychological jobs demands and job control.

The Job Demands-Control (JDC) model is a situation-centred model that is acknowledged as a dominant theoretical perspective in the occupational stress area (Karasek's, 1979 cited in Yu-Hwa, Pey-lan, Chin-Hui, Chin-Ann & Ing-Chung, 2011). The model proposes that there are two primary sources of job strain that originate from the composition of one's job, that is, psychological job demands and job decision latitude or job control (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). "The central tenet of the JDC model is an interaction, such that having job control may lessen the positive impact of high job demands on employee strain" (Tucker, Jimmieson & Oei 2013, p. 2). A proposition of the model is the direct negative impact of job demands on psychological health and the positive correlation of job control on employee outcomes (Tucker *et al*., 2013). Figure 3.3 illustrates the Job-Demands Control model.

Figure 3.3

The Job-Demands Control Model

Job Demands

Stress Dimension

Low   High

Low   Passive Jobs   Tense job situation

Control

High   Relaxed job situation   Active jobs
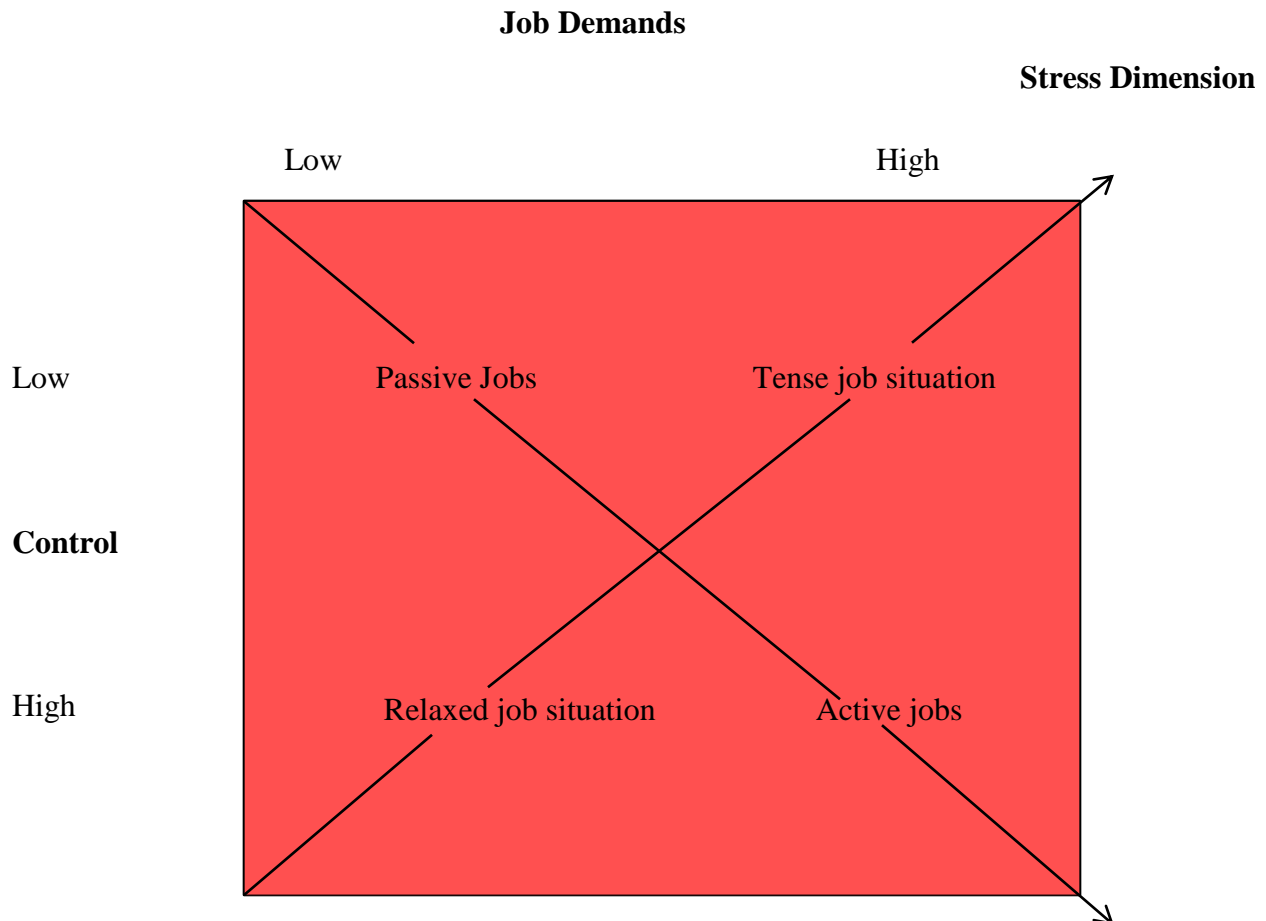
Source: Allvin, M., Aronsson, G., Hagström, T., Johansson, G., & Lundberg, U. (2011). *Work Without Boundaries: Psychological Perspectives on the New Working Life*. United Kingdom: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, p. 175.

In line with this model, the space for action comprises of task control and participation in decision-making (Theorell 2002, 2004 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011). An individual with a high level of control (large space for action) can manage higher demands and will also be stimulated by them (Allvin *et al*., 2011). On the contrary, individuals with low levels of control (small space for action) when dealing with high demands can feel pressured (Allvin *et al*., 2011). The elaboration of the original model involves the addition of a third variable, social support which involves interaction and relations in the workplace (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

According to Tucker *et al*. (2013), job demands refer to the work stressors that employees are exposed to such as, time pressures. Naswall *et al*. (2008) describe psychological work demands

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to include attributes such as, workload and degree of task difficulty. According to the model, job demands are psychological stressors (for example, having conflicting demands) and not physical demands (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). In this regard, working at a faster pace may impose physical requirements on an employee that may cause fatigue (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011).

However, the anxiety experienced by the employee in maintaining a fast pace of work coupled with the potential negative consequences associated with failing to complete the work are the psychological effects of the workload of that employee (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). With high job demands and limited job control, employees experience an exhaustion of physical and mental resources (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). Consequently, individuals are subjected to a number of health problems due to the high levels of strain and the relative depletion of one's energy (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2010). This state of exhaustion can be alleviated when an employee has greater job control as this provides an opportunity for the management of their workloads (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011).

The demand-control model draws on the danger of overstimulation and understimulation but also incorporates the extent to which one has space for action and decision (job decision latitude), at work (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Allvin *et al*. (2011) explains that stress reactions surface as an outcome of overstimulation and understimulation. The former arises when demands are too high in relation to an individual's ability for example; working at a too high of a work tempo and experiencing a conflict of demands (Allvin *et al*., 2011). The latter will arise for example, when an individual is presented with overly monotonous tasks and where there is no development (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

The job control of an employee is characterized by two important components namely, the authority that one has to make decisions on the job and the skill discretion of the employee (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). Job control refers to the degree to which employees have the autonomy to make decisions and manage their workload and skill usage (Tucker *et al*., 2013). Control provides an individual with the opportunity to exert influence over their work situation (Naswall *et al*., 2008). "This model holds that stress experiences arise when high demands are combined with low control, and that a high degree of control can reduce the possible negative consequences of high demands" (Naswall *et al*., 2008, p. 48). The JDC model claims that high job demands and low job control aggravate job strain (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). An increase in job control offsets the negative effects of job demands on strain (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011).

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A variable of theoretical relevance in the context of job control and high demands is self-efficacy (Tucker *et al*., 2013). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief about their capacity to manage and effectively utilise their skills and resources to handle the demands they face (Tucker *et al*., 2013). This variable can be perceived either positively or negatively by employees and may impact on whether they view job control as empowering or threatening (Tucker *et al*., 2013).

When individuals believe in their capabilities, they can utilise job control in coping with job demands (Tucker *et al*., 2013). When an individual has high self-efficacy beliefs, job control is viewed positively and it is more likely that job control will have stress-buffering effects (Tucker *et al*., 2013). Conversely, when self-efficacy beliefs are low, job control is viewed negatively which therefore aggravates the positive effects of high demands on employee strain (Tucker *et al*., 2013). A significant main effect of job control is that the higher an individual's perception of control allows them to make decisions regarding how they carry out their work, which results in lower levels of anxiety and higher levels of job satisfaction (Tucker *et al*., 2013). However, the growing notion in literature is that job control alone may not be sufficient to mitigate the negative impact of work stressors and in certain settings high levels of job control can appear as a stress-exacerbate instead of a buffer (Tucker *et al*., 2013).

3.6   Intensified Pressures of the Modern World

Individuals spend a majority of their adult life at work (Tucker *et al*., 2013), with work being central to an individual's personal identity and a primary medium for relating to others (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). The significance of employment is prevalent in the income earned to support one's family, the group identification attributed to one's place of employment and, the sense of belonging and accomplishment provided on a daily basis (Burke *et al*., 2010). Essentially, work is the medium through which one satisfies their economic, social and psychological needs as human-beings (Burke, *et al*., 2009).

The profound growth in information technology use has contributed to information overload and a faster pace of working (Sparks, Faragher & Cooper, 2001). Technological advances have implications for manual labour (Naswall *et al*., 2008). Moreover, globalization has led to the formation of virtual workplaces allowing employees who are scattered throughout the world to call each other colleagues (Naswall *et al*., 2008). The global labour market is no longer restricted

by traditional geographical boundaries hence paving the way for the growth of virtual workplaces and virtual co-working (Tucker *et al*., 2005). Furthermore, employers demand for greater flexibility in work schedules is a significant trigger (Sparks *et al*., 2001). The authors explain that this demand can be as a result of several factors such as, needing workers for extended operating or opening hours, for anticipated peaks in labour demand at different times of the day, week or year, understaffing, emergency contingencies or to cover frequent overtime as a result of tight deadlines (Sparks *et al*., 2001).

The promotion of flexible labour markets has restructured the employment relationship therefore creating intensified pressures for employees (O'Connor, 2005). Additionally, advancing economies are seeing a shift as a greater number of jobs are based on knowledge as oppose to physical skill (Green, 2006). The introduction of new patterns of working (for example, self-regulated work and teleworking), a greater dependence on computerized technology and the shift towards a more flexible workforce, are types of workplace changes that have transformed the nature of work (Sparks *et al*., 2001). Increasing competition in the global marketplace has fueled dramatic trends of restructuring, downsizing and a rise in outsourcing, as organizations strive to compete successfully (Sparks *et al*., 2001). Organizations that engage in cost cutting and productivity increases can primarily achieve these outcomes by extracting more work hours from a core employee base (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Over recent decades a number of nations have undergone economic restructuring whereby working time arrangements have been restructured (Sparks *et al*., 2001).

In 1980, the Japanese coined the term "karoshi", which refers to the death or permanent disability from overwork (Chamberlin & Naijian, 2009). Allvin *et al*. (2011) also reflects on the phenomenon of "karoshi" pointing out that it is a rather extreme example whereby individuals continuously work without resting until their sudden death which is caused by exhaustion (usually a heart attack). The effects of overwork can prove damaging for employees, their families, organizations and society (Burke *et al*., 2010). Burke and Fiksenbaum (2009) explain that the increase of work hours and working long hours of overtime is associated with reduced levels of job and family satisfaction, psychological well-being and physical health.

Sparks *et al*. (2001) highlight that while some countries have reduced work time there are others where work hours have been slowly climbing. This is specifically among nations with

deregulated labour markets and where income equalities have expanded (for example, the United States and United Kingdom) (Sparks *et al*., 2001). The rise in work hours is due to restructuring and downsizing in some countries, which requires the remaining workforce to manage increased workloads, therefore having to work longer (Sparks *et al*., 2001). The heightened perception of job insecurity that is associated with downsizing can discourage workers from refusing the increasing workload (Sparks *et al*., 2001). Furthermore, terminations involving the removal of capable co-workers can instil a genuine fear in remaining employees that if they do not carry the weight of the resulting extra responsibilities, they will be next in line for termination (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006).

- **Developments in Other Countries**

A book on the cycle of consumption of the American public, suggests that people work more for earnings that are used to fuel consumption (Schor, 1998 cited in Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Consumers are subjected to an unending work schedule in order to support their status and lifestyle luxuries rather than just meeting needs (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Consequently, Americans on average work more than others in developed economies (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). In line with this, Graaf (2010) also argues that Americans work some of the longest hours in the industrial world. Graaf (2010) cites research conducted by Anmarie Widener in the Netherlands, which compared life satisfaction among Dutch and American parents. The polling results indicated that Dutch parents were substantially more satisfied than the American parents (Graaf, 2010). The Dutch work reduced hours and shared available work (Graaf, 2010). Furthermore, the Working Hours Adjustment Act (2000) allows employees to reduce their work hours by cutting their hours to part-time, yet still keeping their job and earning an hourly pay with health care and pro-rated benefits (Graaf, 2010).

O'Connor (2005) cites the following five implications that working families in the United States face. Firstly, working standards have changed. Many larger companies abide by a 24x7 working culture, employers expect more time on demand from their workforce and employees who can put in that "face-time" and sacrifice other life activities are more favoured (O'Connor, 2005). Secondly, stagnating wages have had a negative effect on the family (O'Connor, 2005). A shared goal among many individuals is financial stability; hence the opportunity of bringing in a second income is strongly considered (O'Connor, 2005). Thirdly, employees constantly struggle with

the potential threat of layoffs and as a result are pressured into committing to engagement in the workplace which places family life at a much lower priority (O'Connor, 2005).

Fourthly, organizational change executed for strategic and efficiency purposes results in many employees suffering from burnout (O'Connor, 2005). The recent concept of multi-tasking is a prime example highlighting how individuals extend themselves to accomplish more work in a twenty-four-hour day (O'Connor, 2005). Finally, technology has shifted the norms governing when, at what times and where it is appropriate to work which add to the feelings of work overload that is experienced by today's working families (O'Connor, 2005).

A German policy applicable in tight economic times that encourages employers to reduce work hours as opposed to letting workers go is known as "Kurzarbeit" or "short work" (Graaf, 2010). This law provides companies with the opportunity to keep workers rather than having to rehire at a later stage (Graaf, 2010). The French also share a similar viewpoint of "working less so all can work" (Graaf, 2010). In a move away from unhealthy overwork, working shorter hours also makes environmental sense (Graaf, 2010). Planetary restraints and climate change are exerting immense pressure on the availability of resources (Graaf, 2010). With increased productivity demands, it appears the world is faced with a choice between environmental disasters (quick extraction of resources to meet increasing demands) or massive unemployment (Graaf, 2010). Hence, a potential recourse would be to work fewer hours and share available work (Graaf, 2010). Freed up time from work can most certainly improve the health of individuals through exercise, leisure, volunteering and so much more (Graaf, 2010).

3.7   Workaholism

Discussing the concept of workaholism provides a sense of awareness for employees which is specifically relevant in a time where people are working more than what was previously the case.

Although workaholism is an active research field, this concept still lacks consensus and theoretical development on what it actually is, as definitions can vary between authors (Osif, 2008). The term was coined twenty-seven years ago to describe the concept as an uncontrollable need to work constantly (Oates, 1971 cited in Andreassen, Ursin & Eriksen, 2007) and one that

can permanently disrupt bodily health, happiness, and relationships (Matuska, 2010). It has been proposed by some researchers that different types of workaholic behaviour patterns exist (Scott, Moore & Miceli, 1997; Spence & Robbins, 1992 cited in Snir & Harpaz, 2006). As explained by Aziz and Cunningham (2008), workholism is a colloquial term requiring more scientific research. Matuska (2010) does contribute that the scientific community is looking to build the empirical support for this syndrome and its effects. Recently, scholarly research has undertaken clarification of the concept and attempts to detail the consequences (Ng, Sorensen & Feldman, 2007).

In comparison to others, Spence and Robbins (1992) defined a workaholic to have three properties that is, a high work involvement, drive to work due to inner pressures and a low enjoyment of work. From this, two workaholic subgroups emerged, "workaholics" and "enthusiastic workaholics" (Spence & Robbins, 1992 cited in Andreassen *et al*., 2007). The workaholic is one who experiences a high degree of work involvement, feels driven to work due to an internal pressure and lacks work enjoyment, whereas, one who experiences high levels across all three dimensions can be categorized as an enthusiastic workaholic (Spence & Robbins, 1992 cited in Andreassen *et al*., 2007). There is a developing consensus that workaholism may be characterised by two underlying components that is, working excessively and working compulsively (Van den Broeck, Schreurs, De Witte, Vansteenkiste, Germeys & Schaufeli, 2011).

The first component relates to the actual behaviour of the individual in working long hours (Van den Broeck *et al*., 2011). This means that the individual spends an excessive amount of time working when presented with the chance to do so and refers to those individuals who work for at least fifty hours per week (Van den Broeck *et al*., 2011). Previously individuals were categorized as workaholics if they were committed to working long hours (Aziz & Cunningham, 2008). Individuals can be internally driven to work long hours and maintain work involvement (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). The long-term exposure to working long hours may cause the individual to completely adjust to the expectation, thereby forgetting that alternatives do exist (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Organizational demands stimulate workaholic behaviours allowing this to become the prevailing culture of the organization (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Consequently, in order for individuals to succeed in that accepted culture, one is required to adapt to workaholic behaviour (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006).

While work hours are a correlate of workaholism, the field has grown past this perspective. It has been verified that workaholism is not defined by the number of hours worked (McMillan, Brody, O'Driscoll & Marsh, 2002 cited in Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). Workaholics are primarily characterized by their high investment in work as they devote much of their time to it and therefore lack the ability to relax (Andreassen *et al*., 2007), "and work beyond demands that is expected from their organization" (Scott, Moore & Miceli, 1997 cited in Andreassen *et al*., 2007, p. 616). The second component of workaholism that is, working compulsively represents a drive to work (Van den Broeck *et al*., 2011). Individuals continually think about work, also when they are not at work working (Andreassen *et al*., 2007). "Workaholics" are those individuals that identify themselves with work and therefore have a tendency to be preoccupied with work (Andreassen *et al*., 2007). Such affected individuals are perfectionists that are highly motivated and committed to work (Andreassen *et al*., 2007).

Matuska (2010) contributes that workaholism implies an addiction to work which relates to the personal drive of an individual to work. The author further describes workaholsim as an addicted-to-work state considering the compulsive and over-extension tendencies of workaholics to work (Matuska, 2010). A model about the workaholism syndrome has been proposed consisting of progressive behaviours for the workaholic individual that worsens over time and eventually become dysfunctional (Piotrowski & Vodanovich, 2006 cited in Matuska, 2010). This negatively impacts the physical and psychological health of the individual and the well-being of their families and co-workers (Matuska, 2010). An individual with the workaholic syndrome will probably have greater stress and lead an imbalanced life, hence be less happy, have lower life satisfaction and more health complaints (Matuska, 2010). "In general, workaholism is assumed to undermine employees' well-being (Ng, Sorensen & Feldman, 2007 cited in Van den Broeck *et al*., 2011, p. 602).

Due to variations in conceptualizations of workaholism, differential components used by authors in defining workaholism may apply differential influences on employee well-being (Van den Broeck *et al*., 2011). As pointed out by Matuska (2010), some support does exist on the psychological or emotional health consequences associated with workaholism. However, the effect on physical health still needs to be established (Matuska, 2010). This is further

corroborated by Chamberlin and Naijian (2009) who recognize the lack of empirical research, agreeing that the correlation between workaholism and physical health remains unclear.

The effects of workaholism stretch beyond the work addict into the lives of the co-workers and families of workaholics (Chamberlin & Naijian, 2009). Workaholism is commonly thought to interfere with personal and family well-being as it imposes on other life areas, thereby establishing some form of imbalance (Matuska, 2010). Families of workaholic individuals experience high levels of distress with family counseling literature drawing on the link between workaholism and eventual family dysfunction (Matuska, 2010). Furthermore, a greater interference exists with social and intimate relationships for those individuals who have self-reported a high work addiction (Matuska, 2010). Evidence from a study shows no correlation between workaholism and actual divorce (Burke, 2000 cited in Matuska, 2010). A previous study conducted revealed that in comparison to non-workaholics, workaholics encountered more work-life conflict (Bonebright, Clay & Ankenmann, 2000 cited in Chamberlin & Naijian, 2009). Furthermore, Aziz and Cunningham (2008) documented that workaholics experience greater stress and stress-related illnesses, linking workaholism to well-being issues and health problems.

It is significant for employees to have an awareness surrounding their work habits as this transcends beyond the workplace and can implicate the quality of one's life. Individuals need to understand the triggers that cause them to work intensely and evaluate the effect thereof with regard to overall life satisfaction.

3.8   Evidence of Work Intensification in Industries

A review of the ABI/INFORM Global and Ebscohost databases on the University of KwaZulu-Natal's website revealed that there are a few studies on intensification that have been conducted in the agricultural, manufacturing, teaching and nursing industries. This demonstrates the unique contribution of the current study which has been conducted in the public sector industry.

Bullough, Hall-Kenyon, MacKay and Marshall (2014) contribute that work in relation to teaching has intensified. Furthermore, the many conditions that have promoted the intensification of teaching in the upper grades are also appearing in early childhood education (Bullough *et al*., 2014). The research undertaken by Ballet and Kelchtermans (2009) aimed for a more refined

understanding of teacher's working conditions, using the "experience of intensification" as a central concept. Work on the intensification of the teaching profession stems from over two decades prior in which a powerful attempt was made to establish a theoretical explanation for the changing working conditions of teachers (Apple, 1986 cited in Ballet & Kelchtermans, 2009).

Work intensification has become increasingly prominent in Australia (Burchielli *et al.*, 2006). The authors focused on the Australian public education sector by reviewing literature on work intensification in general together with the education sectors in the United Kingdom, United States and Australia (Burchielli *et al.*, 2006). Burchielli *et al.* (2006) respectively call for future research on work intensification considering the many negative consequences of work intensification in the Australian public education sector.

Documentary evidence provided by Willis (2005) within the public healthcare system is based on the impact of two major incentive based funding reforms introduced by the Australian government on the staffing levels of doctors and nurses in one public acute hospital. The results revealed that during the period of 1994-2001, the profession of nursing encountered a longer period of work intensification than that of medicine due to these reforms (Willis, 2005). Zeytinoglu, Denton, Davies, Baumann, Blythe and Boos (2007) also identify that in the first half of the 1990's, nurses in Canada were also subjected to health sector reform. This study was conducted amongst nurses in three teaching hospitals in Ontario (Zeytinoglu *et al.*, 2007). From the study, nurses felt that their work intensified since the reform with work intensification contributing to increased stress and decreased job satisfaction (Zeytinoglu *et al.*, 2007). These results empirically support literature suggesting that work intensification has an adverse effect on the health, well-being and work attitudes of employees (Zeytinoglu *et al.*, 2007).

3.9   Studies on Work Intensity, Work Pressures and Well-Being

Burke (2009) posits that over the past decade there has been a considerable shift in interest toward work hours, work intensification and work addiction. Studies on work intensification have been conducted in the United States, United Kingdom, and the Philippines and in Europe (Brown, 2012). Green and McIntosh (2001) identified increased competition faced by firms through expanding overseas trade and the introduction of computerized technology which leads to efficiency in production and a more constant flow of work, as the reasons why employees are

being pressured to work harder. By using data from The European Survey on Working Conditions (ESWCs), the findings of Green and McIntosh (2001) concluded that the largest increase in effort between 1991 and 1996 was in Great Britain; participants who frequently used computer technology reported high effort levels and; private sector employees worked harder in response to competitive pressures as oppose to public sector employees (with the exception of Britain).

The evidence presented by Green (2001) points out trends in work pressure in late twentieth-century Britain. "Work effort has been intensified since 1981; intensification was greatest in manufacturing during the 1980's and the public sector during the 1990's; between 1986 and 1997 there has been substantial increases in the number of sources of pressure inducing hard work from employees" (Green, 2001, p. 53). Furthermore, Green (2004b) presented evidence derived from the data analyzed between three surveys conducted in 1992, 1997 and 2001 to show that the levels of well-being at work have been declining in Britain. The main findings from the analysis reconfirmed the link between effort and computerized jobs and supported the rise in work strain being associated with work intensification and that work intensification carried weighting as source of change in job quality (Green, 2004b).

Burchell *et al*. (2002) used a combined research methodology approach in the Job Insecurity and Work Intensification Survey (JIWIS) relying on both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis from twenty United Kingdom (UK) workplaces. These workplaces were not randomly selected in order to represent a diverse set of industries, sectors and sizes (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Data was collected from the JWIS sample through interviews conducted amongst senior managers, line managers and employees and a self-completion questionnaire that was given to employees (Burchell *et al*., 2002). The author analyzed how the developments of flexibility, job insecurity and work intensification impacted on the individual, the family, the workplace (efficiency, reduced employee commitment and motivation) and the British economy (Burchell *et al*., 2002). This analysis also went beyond a British context and was compared across other countries including the United States, France, Germany, Sweden and Japan (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

Burke *et al*. (2009) conducted a survey study among managers and professionals in the manufacturing sector in Turkey about a newly developed measure of work intensity and potential

antecedents and consequences on work and well-being consequences. "Gender and organizational level predicted both work intensity and work hours; males, and respondents at higher organizational levels indicated greater work intensity and more work hours and; interestingly, work intensity was positively related to work outcomes and negatively related to indicators or psychological well-being" (Burke *et al*., 2009, p. 12). Further exploratory research conducted by Burke *et al*. (2010) included respondents enrolled in three university business courses on the relationship with work intensity and potential antecedents and consequences suggested the following; "work intensity was significantly related to respondents' organizational level and work status; in addition, respondents indicating higher levels of work intensity also reported working more hours, a higher workload, and greater job stress" (Burke *et al*., 2010, p. 347).

"Boomers have been characterised as workaholics who live to work, while Generation Xer's are slackers who work to live" (Brown, 2012, p. 3578). Brown (2012) used the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics (HILDA) Survey in Australia to examine sustained extensive work intensification on three levels that is, working for 41- 47 hours, 48-55 hours and 56 plus hours on an average per week over a two year period, across a nationally representative sample of employees consisting of the Generation X and Baby Boomers generational groups. The research objective was to interpret whether generational differences in work attitudes influenced employee reactions to sustained extensive work intensification (Brown, 2012). The results demonstrated that both generations responded negatively towards sustained hours of work and that sustained extensive work intensification lowered employee perceptions about job satisfaction and work-life balance (Brown, 2012). Furthermore, generational differences were minimal (Brown, 2012). "Organizations need to weigh up the short-term benefits against the long-term costs of work intensification: low job satisfaction and poor work–life balance can damage the reputation of the organization and can lead to turnover" (Brown, 2012, p. 3592).

3.10   The Critical Components of Work Intensification

In order to fulfil the research purpose of this study, emphasis will be placed on five critical sub-dimensions that will be examined in relation to the construct of work intensification. These sub-dimensions include organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity,

respectively. These specific sub-dimensions detail how the nature of work has been revolutionized in comparison to previous years presenting employees with a new set of challenges and intensified pressures to cope with.

3.10.1   Organizational Change and Technological Change

Two major types of workplace change include organizational changes and the introduction of new technologies or technological advancements.

3.10.1.1   Organizational Change

As organizations strive to be more competitive in the global economy, organizations undergo restructuring in the form of reengineering, downsizing, labour intensification, investing in new technologies and changing organizational strategies (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). The emergence of a 24-hour economy in which global operations continue functioning across time zones and the introduction of new technologies, demonstrate the changing conditions surrounding work (Moen, Lam, Ammons, & Kelly, 2013). The modern workplace is exposed to a number of changes that can be traced to trade expansion and the globalization of production (Green, 2006). The internationalization of competition and capital coupled with merger and acquisition activity are amongst the major transformations occurring over recent years (Arrowsmith, 2003).

The power of consumer demand has significantly impacted on the growth of service industries in comparison to production goods (Green, 2006). The consumer has control over work flows and can require workers to fulfil tasks at flexible times (Green, 2006). The author explains that work intensification is caused by the declining power of unions in Britain and the increased competitive pressure faced by employers (Green, 2006). The pressures of having to reduce costs and improve on the quality of goods produced, force employers to attempt to forward these pressures onto their employees (Green, 2006).

Downsizing has become a common business practice to keep firms strong and competitive (Kim & Brian, 2004). Downsizing has consequences for all individuals and the organization and if not handled appropriately downsizing can be detrimental to the organization and lead to negative ramifications (Kim & Brian, 2004). The exacerbation of work overload is an effect of downsizing (Kim & Brian, 2004). Work overload involves employees working longer hours and

at a faster pace and facing the pressure to work overtime (Kim & Brian, 2004). Employees who remain may be expected to perform other tasks in addition to their regular work (Kim & Brian, 2004). This can lead to more stress and pressure for employees as they try to maintain their performance or surpass it (Kim & Brian, 2004).

The drive towards flexibility has prompted significant changes at work consequently altering job features that employees' value such as, job security and the pace of work (Burchell *et al*., 2002). According to Burchell *et al*. (2002), the data presented in their book indicates that work intensification is a greater problem taking into cognizance stress, psychological health and family tension, in comparison to a longer work week or the prevalence of job insecurity. Burchell *et al*. (2002) cite a number of reasons for the intensification of work that sparked an increase in work effort in the United Kingdom. These included reduction in trade union powers; strict demarcations between workers, better trained managers, and computer use, amongst others (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

Mergers and acquisitions (M&A's) establish an additional need for organizations to undertake reengineering and downsizing in order to strengthen competitiveness in the global economy (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). It is believed that M&A's have accelerated globalization through foreign direct investment (FDI) (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). Multinational corporations can make acquisitions in other countries as a result of privatizations, liberalization and the increasing lack of trade barriers due to globalization (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). In doing so, this enables these corporations to obtain human and technological resources and secure new markets from these other countries (Kazi & Indermun, 2013).

In order to compete in the global market, organizations seek to employ systems to benefit from workforce optimization (Shah, Jaffari, Aziz, Ejaz, Ul-Haq & Raza, 2011). The development of high performance work teams are used for this purpose as it aims to enhance employee involvement and performance (Shah *et al*., 2011). According to Iverson and Zatzick (2011), organizations that adopt comprehensive human resource practices directed toward the enhancement of employee skills, discretion and engagement are referred to as high-performance work systems (HPWS). The authors articulate that HPWS primarily focuses on generating greater productivity for the organization through the development of a workforce that is highly-skilled, engaged, and committed (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011).

The employment contract has also altered substantially taking cognizance of increased labour flexibility, demographic changes and complexities of social and economic change (Arrowsmith, 2003). As a consequence, organizations that compete on a global level are faced with a radically transformed workforce that is vastly diverse, highly global and virtual and empowered (Tucker, Kao & Verma, 2005). Decision-making has also become highly decentralized, establishing more fluid and flatter organizational structures (Tucker *et al*., 2005). Within these flatter, less hierarchical structures, decisions are taken by the average worker as opposed to previous years whereby decision-making was reserved for executives and managers (Tucker *et al*., 2005).

Employees are granted more discretion in managing their daily work practices and are more engaged in organizational decisions (Green, 2006). Naswall *et al*. (2008) similarly highlight that employees are experiencing decentralization through the allocation of more responsibility, greater independence and self-direction. The authors further suggest that these greater expectations for independence and faster pace of working may result in a generally more demanding work situation for employees (Naswall *et al*., 2008).

Taking cognizance of the growing dynamics of the environment and prevalence of continuous change, organizations are tasked with managing modernism which directly imposes on working lives (Green, 2006). In the realm of changing circumstances it is only those organizations that have the capabilities to keep abreast of changes and transform change into opportunity that will flourish in securing conditions for development and maintaining a competitive advantage (Bula & Ziebicki, 2011). Consequently, organizations and managers are placed under continual pressure to protect existing markets and identify new markets through innovative expansion strategies (Green, 2006).

Kazi and Indermun (2013) indicate that in terms of the current South African labour market, skilled labour is favoured. Furthermore, due to the intensification of trade, there is an increased demand for skilled labour which has resulted in a massive downsize of unskilled labour (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). Industrialized countries benefit from the advantages of globalization which include increased employment, new technologies, new types of work organizations and a shift from blue-collar to white-collar work (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). However, the impact of globalization on developing countries like South Africa has resulted in an increase in low-quality

jobs, little option for advancement and a rise in insecure, casual employment (Kazi & Indermun, 2013).

Due to globalization, outsourcing and contract and temporary workers are the two major trends that have contributed to the rise of a contingent workforce (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). According to Kazi and Indermun (2013), it appears that South Africa has followed both these trends. The authors add that in addition to globalization, there are two main reasons relating to the increase of temporary workers in South Africa (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). Firstly, it is the high costs associated with observing labour laws and the direct administration of employees (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). Consequently, organizations believe that temporary employment services (TES) are better equipped to manage such concerns (Kazi & Indermun, 2013). Secondly, TES can provide organizations with a pool of specialist employees who can be called in on short notice (Kazi & Indermun, 2013).

- **Flexibility and Work Reorganization**

Flexibility of the labour force relates to how the labour force can be utilized, from which three different types of flexibility can be distinguished (Atkinson, 1984 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011). Burchell *et al*. (2002) describe three types of flexibility involved in work reorganization that is, numerical, temporal and functional. Flexibility requires a catalyst to reorganize traditional working practices and traditional occupational boundaries so as to establish a climate that adapts to new working practices (Burchell *et al*., 2002). "Numerical flexibility is the possibility to vary the size of the labour force depending on variations in demand" (Atkinson, 1984 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011, p. 34). It involves adjusting the quantity of labour required according to changes in labour demand by using employment practices such as, temporary contracts and the externalization of work through contracting out (Allvin *et al*., 2011). The focus is on remedying a labour shortage in the face of difficulties in meeting demand (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

According to Burchell *et al*. (2002), the core-periphery model segments the workforce into three categories namely, the core, peripheral and externalized components. In terms of this model, the core workforce comprises of skilled, well-paid workers characterized by mutual long term commitment from both employers and employees (Burchell *et al*., 2002). On the contrary, the peripheral workforce is generally the insecure, sub-contracted and poorly paid workers (Burchell

et al., 2002). In response to the volatility of market forces, organizations can seek to align the demand and supply of labour by employing two strategies (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Firstly, to build a workforce that consists of a combination of both core (permanent) workers and "peripheral" temps and, secondly, to attempt to vary the length and intensity of the hours worked by employees, known as temporal flexibility (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

The third type of flexibility, functional flexibility has become more prevalent in workplaces (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Functional flexibility is when the labour force is versatile to take on many and differing work tasks when required by circumstances (Atkinson, 1984 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011). As a result, workers would need generalist abilities and wide-ranging competence (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Due to the erosion of traditional job demarcations and the transformation of peer and authority relations, innovative working practices that have surfaced include multi- skilling, role modeling and multi-tasking (Burchell *et al*., 2002). While some innovations focus on the development of individual skills and competencies, others seek to promote teamwork (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Task flexibility and reorganization can be seen in the vertical (expand the scope for self-regulation and decision-making) and horizontal (take on more tasks at the same skill level) loading of tasks (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

Flexibility and the reorganization of work involve the redrawing of the boundaries defining work (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Correspondingly, the work roles of employees change (Burchell *et al*., 2002). When the implementation of flexibility within an organization prompts the reorganization of work, this can involve the use of high-performance work systems, initiating cultural change within an organization (requires a change in employee attitudes and behaviours), and introducing workplace innovations such as, decentralizing responsibility to achieve improved bottom-line results (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

With the introduction of new forms of work organization, the extent to which organizations introduce flexibility either as a genuine concern for the well-being of the workforce or as means of reducing the workforce, thereby intensifying work of the remaining staff, is brought into question (Burchell *et al*., 2002). This can either strengthen or damage the psychological contract between an organization and its employees (Burchell *et al*., 2002). The consequences associated with taking the drive for flexibility too far involves a decline in employee health and well-being

and a loss of essential competencies and long-term competitiveness for the organization (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

3.10.1.2   Technological change

Advancements in communication technologies have redefined places of work and the manner in which co-workers connect (Tucker *et al*., 2005). The digital landscape has changed as individuals now have the possibility of communicating both personally and professionally across a varied range of digital social media such as, Facebook and Twitter (Waller & Ragsdell, 2012). Lowe (2006) describes technology as the hidden hand of work intensification, largely due to the element of convenience it has introduced to the world of work opening up new avenues for how, where and when people work. Technological innovation has necessitated that businesses transition (and do so quickly) from an old model economy to a new economy (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

The influential theory of the network society focuses on the role of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in developing a new structure of time and space (Manuel Castell, 1996 cited in Bittman, Brown & Wajcman, 2009). With the growth of computer power, Green (2006) also refers to the "network society" as one involving the reversal of the socialization of production, that is, larger workplaces and collective representation. Modern technologies also directly facilitate the use of new working arrangements such as, working while travelling (Green, 2006).

"The relationship between computerization of the workplace and the demand for skills is both robust and substantial" (Green, 2006, p. 38). New technology can also render jobs less labour-intensive, resulting in redundancies and loss of employment for many (Naswall *et al*., 2008). The introduction of a new level of intensity in business operations is as a result of commerce-enabling technology coupled with global commerce (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). This makes communication and business transactions possible in a matter of seconds (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). This new environment is characterized by new demands to monitor activity on a 24 hour basis and requires faster responses to changes in the global market and individual customer preferences (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). The developments in technology present organizations

with a number of uses which includes the decentralization of businesses and the facilitation of the customization of products (Green, 2006).

Accordingly, such developments introduce the demand for workers to have the relevant skills needed and willingness from workers to be accepting of new forms of work (Green, 2006). Organizational flexibility in response to the growing dynamics of the environment (can be external or internal to the organization) pose significant challenges for the organizational management process (Bula & Ziebicki, 2011). New information technologies demand organizational flexibility which calls for a corresponding flexibility in the workforce (Burchell *et al*., 2002). In Western nations, the emphasis on short-term benefits and shareholder's value has resulted in more organizations being increasingly lean and mean (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006).

The cultures of these organizations are rewarding to those who work very hard and work longer hours and are linked to the organization 24 hours a day via ICT (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). The advancement of information technology through high-speed networking technology and wireless connectivity has made communication instantaneous across the world (Zofi, 2012). Technology is associated with a perpetual urgency given the ease with which information can be generated and distributed (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). With an increase in wireless phones and high-speed broad-band connections, the need for a fixed physical location has disappeared (Tucker *et al*., 2005). Instead, workers are on call and accessible at any time to work (Tucker *et al*., 2005).

Bittman *et al*. (2009) refers to the continuity of mediated interactions (also known as "constant touch" and "perpetual contact") as a result of the capacity of mobile phones to operate, irrespective of location. Therefore in principle, one who has a mobile phone is always available (Bittman *et al*., 2009). The observation is that when workers use portable communication devices they are always on-call by their superiors and colleagues who expect a swift response, even during employees' time off (Cavazotte, Heloisa Lemos & Villadsen, 2014). This ease of communication and dissemination allows individuals to be accessible 24/7, creating difficulties to disengage from work when needing to do so (Naswall *et al*., 2008).

Bittman *et al*. (2009) discusses the impact of mobile phones on working conditions according to two related claims. Firstly, mobile phones extend work outside the boundaries of the office into times and spaces normally devoted to the family and leisure (Bittman *et al*., 2009). Secondly, the use of ICT's are viewed as a contributor to work intensification (Bittman *et al*., 2009). A critical

claim suggests that the process of work intensification is facilitated by novel communication technology as times that should generally be reserved for personal activities can instead be used for work communication and task solving (Burke & Fiksenbaum, 2009; Hislop & Axtell, 2011 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014).

Bittman *et al*. (2009) further reports that some writers consider mobile technology to be linked to an increased pace of daily life because of the elimination of down time. This suggests a parallel increase in time pressure and a blurred boundary between work and home, thereby enabling people to productively utilize third spaces such as, cafes and airports (Bittman *et al*., 2009). On the contrary, other specialist academic writing suggests that mobile phones can reduce the sensation of being ceaselessly harried and save time as it provides control over timing and more flexibility of schedules (Bittman *et al*., 2009).

The global distribution of companies has promoted an electronic mail (e-mail) culture which has consequences for employees of modern organizations (Waller & Ragsdell, 2012). An example of which occurs when employees have to wait for e-mails from colleagues in other countries until late in the evening (Waller & Ragsdell, 2012). E-mail can have a powerful influence over its users which can in turn create stress as a direct result of e-mail-related pressure (Hair, Renaud & Ramsay, 2007 cited in Waller & Ragsdell, 2012). Waller and Ragsdell (2012) describe the use of e-mail as a double-edged sword and identify a range of advantages and disadvantages from several authors. The advantages of using e-mail include cost savings, speed, the ability to store and process information, saving of paper, locational flexibility, and increased access to new people and the presence of a permanent record, amongst others (Waller & Ragsdell, 2012).

Conversely, disadvantages include lack of confidentiality due to message interception, employee distractions, system and information overload, pressure to respond quickly and a volume of e-mails can detrimentally affect employee productivity, amongst others (Waller & Ragsdell, 2012). According to Cavazotte *et al*. (2014), research on employees' use of company sponsored mobile communication technology is relatively limited but still emerging. The adoption of such technologies does lead to an increase in working hours (Gant & Kiesler, 2001; Hislop & Axtell, 2011 Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). The reported benefits of smartphones include speedy access to information, improved possibilities of connectivity and the effective storage and transfer of data (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014).

The new environment in which today's organizations compete can push employees into working faster and doing more (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). The increasing demands may prompt some employees to experience difficulties while others may use the high pressure to satisfy their desire to submerge themselves into their work and/or technology as their only priority (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). The authors indicate that there is an addictive side to ICT which can be understood from the theory of flow perspective (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). According to this perspective, the mindset of an individual facilitated by information technology, allows the individual to become so intensely involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006).

A study on "the autonomy paradox" indicated that participants expressed their increased use of technology as a personal choice and not in response to external pressures such as company culture (Mazmanian, Orlikowski & Yates, 2013 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). The study suggested that the autonomy of professionals who rely on mobile email devices is simultaneously enhanced and restricted (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). The researchers described that professionals felt that by engaging in intense mobile use, their autonomy and control was enhanced (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). However, the ramifications of which involved increased expectations of accessibility and promptness in organizations (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). This presented an intrusion on the autonomy of professionals hence resulting in the "autonomy paradox" (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014).

In other recent contributions, the BlackBerry was assumed to have "addictive qualities" with the researcher concluding that an illusion of being in control and balance enables users to sustain work-intensifying practices of BlackBerry usage (Middleton, 2007 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). It was further concluded that organizational cultures wherein overwork and unrealistic expectations for employee engagement are promoted influenced the perceptions of participants regarding the acceptable levels of engagement with their mobile devices (Middleton, 2007 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). A study investigating the use of "work extending technology" (WET) (those devices that facilitate work-related activities beyond the business office and normal hours of work and include BlackBerry's, laptops, mobile phones, home computers and Personal Digital Assistants), at a Canadian civil service division revealed high levels of mobile technology use and that the intensity of the use of WET was associated with increased hours of work (Duxbury, Towers, Higgins & Thomas, 2006 cited in Bittman *et al*., 2009).

3.10.2   Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors

The role of the work environment and workspace of employees in the context of work intensity is explored below, detailing the consequences of ergonomics on employee performance.

3.10.2.1   Work Intensity/Work Intensification

Burke *et al*. (2010) explain the concept of "working hard" to consist of two components, that is, a time component (for example, the number of hours worked) and, an intensity component (for example, the intensity of effort exerted during the time worked). As a consequence of significant workplace change over the years, there is growing evidence that work has been intensified (Brown, 2012). According to Green (2006), an increase in work pressure can stem from two distinct sources of change in the modern workplace. Firstly, the time balance between work and non-work activities, that is, work-life balance and secondly, the growing pressure of increases in effort intensity at work (Green, 2006).

According to Nichols (1991), intensification can be established in several ways. These include requiring workers to work longer at their stations, the assignment of more work that is put to workers in their job and the expansion of the actual definition defining the work of the worker (Nichols, 1991). It has been proposed that there are three main types of managerial control strategies that contribute to work intensification (Beynan, Grimshaw, Rubery & Ward, 2002 cited in Burchielli *et al*., 2006). These include insisting on the "dominance of the customer", the "redesign of job tasks" and finally, the implementation of "new control technologies" to increase the "pace of work and the quality of performance" (Beynan *et al*., 2002 cited in Burchielli *et al*., 2006, p. 72).

Green (2001) draws a distinction between extensive effort (time spent at work) and intensive effort (the intensity of work during the time worked). In line with this, Brown (2012) distinguishes between intensive and extensive work intensification. The author conceptualizes the former concept as the work effort or pace needed in a job and, the latter concept as the hours of work required for the job (Brown, 2012). Green and McIntosh (2001) support that increased work levels are manifested from working longer hours and expending greater work effort during a given time. Furthermore, Askenazy (2004) highlights that the effort of a worker is specifically

managed by employers and is not an individual choice. Consequently, an increase in worker effort is referred to as the intensification of work (Askenazy, 2004). It appears that the subject of many empirical investigations and the meaning and manifestation of work intensification are related to the dimensions of time and effort (Burchielli *et al*., 2006).

The examination of work intensity is important for practical reasons (Burke *et al*., 2010). At the individual level, it is important to understand the impact of work intensity on employee well-being, taking cognisance that negative consequences of work intensity will not only implicate the well-being of the individual but their families, co-workers, the organisation and society at large (Burke *et al*., 2010). At the organizational level, work intensity has the potential to disrupt the efficient functioning of business and ultimately threaten the financial viability of the organisation (Burke *et al*., 2010). Hence, many organisations acknowledge the issues of stress, burnout and turnover (Burke *et al*., 2010). In this regard, Brown (2012) identifies that work intensification is associated with negative outcomes such as, employee stress, reduced job satisfaction, and workplace injuries (Brown, 2012). The intensification of work implicates the health of the individual, the level of work-life balance achieved and employee motivation (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Work intensity may result in negative outcomes for all stakeholders involved but it could also be satisfying to individuals and have associated productivity gains for the organization (Burke *et al*., 2010).

Burke *et al*. (2010) theorized that two inter-related sets of determinants that is, internal (personal factors) and external (environmental factors in the work context or situation) to the employee can drive work intensity. Figure 3.4 reflects this theorization on work intensity.

Figure 3.4

A Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Work Intensity
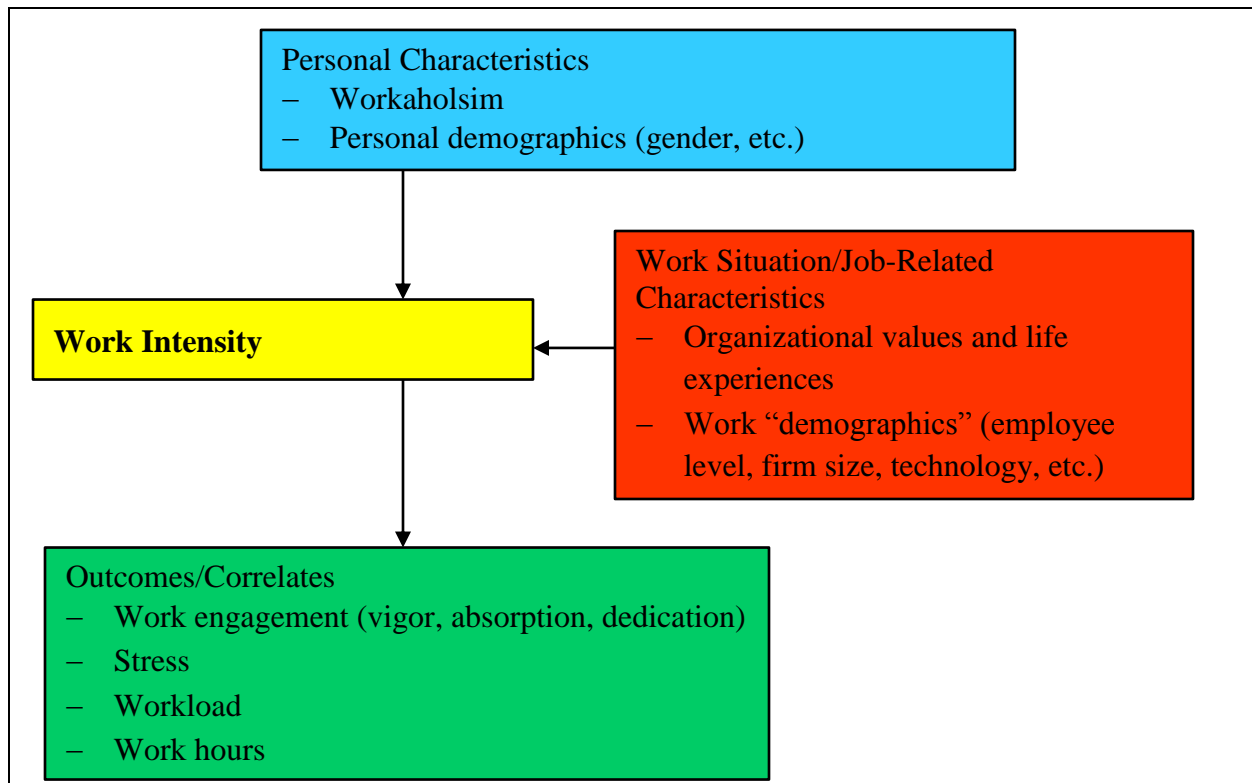
Source: Burke, R. J., Singh, P., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2010). Work intensity: potential antecedents and consequences. *Personnel Review*, 39(3), p. 350.

As reflected in Figure 3.4, an employee may be driven to work hard due to personal characteristics such as, having workaholic tendencies and job-related characteristics such as, organizational values, which can affect work intensity (Burke *et al*., 2010). The internal drive or psychological inclination of an individual to maximize satisfaction, fulfil personal needs and the context of the organization can influence work intensity (Burke *et al*., 2010). The consequences of working intensely can result in positive outcomes (for example, high work engagement), in a work environment that is rewarding and conducive to personal effort (Burke *et al*., 2010). This benefits both the employee and employer (Burke *et al*., 2010). On the contrary, a non-rewarding work environment can produce negative outcomes such as, stress (Burke *et al*., 2010). The authors add that the dynamics of the environment influence the outcomes of work intensity (in a positive or negative way), affecting the employee, organization and society (Burke *et al*., 2010).

In the new flexible work, the intensification of work has to be managed by the individual requiring the use of their own personal strategies in confronting increasing demands (Allvin *et al*., 2011). As a response to meeting increasing demands, individuals can work more by relying on various compensatory strategies that transcend the traditional boundaries of work that is, time (agreed working hours) and place of work (Allvin *et al*., 2011). There are three different types of compensatory or transcending strategies (Gustafsson, 2008 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011). A common type of compensatory strategy is for individuals to intensify working and they work more within the scope of their normal working hours and the workplace which can primarily be achieved by speeding up the pace of work (Allvin *et al*., 2011). A transcending strategy involves stretching the formal time frame of the job (Allvin *et al*., 2011). That is, the individual works more than the formally or informally agreed upon hours of work and this also brings into consideration the issue of overtime compensation and paid and unpaid overtime (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

Furthermore, the role of information technology makes it possible for professional or office work that is not completed within the normal hours of the working day to be easily carried out at home or somewhere else (Allvin *et al*., 2011). The third type of compensatory strategy focuses on stretching the limits of personal health and is referred to as "presence despite illness" (Allvin *et al*., 2011). This phenomenon means that the individual still attends work despite poor health which would normally result in absence from work (Allvin *et al*., 2011). Both sickness absence and sickness presence stem from the same general cause of poor health (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

3.10.2.2   Ergonomic Factors

The physical office environment influences the effectiveness of employees while also satisfying employee needs (May, Reed, Schwoerer & Potter, 2004). Ergonomics is personal to the individual relating to their own comfort and fit and therefore the needs of each individual should be considered (Rowh, 2006). The work environment of office workers need to be supportive of their emotional well-being and their physical activity (May *et al*., 2004).

According to Pile (2001), ergonomics is concerned with the optimization of the interaction between individuals' and their total working environment. Down (2001) explains that ergonomics aims to optimize the working conditions of individuals (their work system) in terms

of their safety, well-being and performance. A work environment where computers are used would mean that the major components involved in this work system would include the individual, their work tasks that constitute their job, furniture (chair and desk), equipment (computer screen and input devices), software, lighting, noise, temperature and the social-psychological environment (for example, the need for visual and auditory privacy) (Down, 2001). With regard to the ergonomics approach, it is important to focus on the optimization of the interaction between people and the different parts of the work system, for example, reflections on the screen can be as a result of inappropriate lighting or positioning of computer equipment which can cause individuals to adopt undesirable postures or experience eye fatigue (Down, 2001).

The office environment like every occupation has its physical challenges (Rowh, 2006). The health and comfort of office workers are exposed to risks through repetitive motion and the extended hours spent sitting in the same position (Rowh, 2006). Technology and office automation such as, e-mail and personal printers have created changes in the types of jobs, duration of sitting, performance of repetitive tasks and the work habits of employees (Alnaser & Wughalter, 2009). This can lead to complaints about work discomfort and work-related injuries (Alnaser & Wughalter, 2009). Furthermore, health problems and occupational disorders can be caused by long working hours of sitting (Alnaser & Wughalter, 2009). When office workstations are improperly arranged, this can create conditions that result in poor posture (May *et al*., 2004). "Physical stress or discomfort on a job is a function of posture, force, and frequency of repetitions" (May *et al*., 2004, p. 124). Poorly designed interactions can place employees at risk for developing work-related musculoskeletal disorders (WMSD's) (Pile, 2001).

In recent years, the concept of dynamic sitting in the development of office chairs has been encouraged (Dainoff, 2007). With regard to ergonomics in the office environment, it has emerged that the healthiest way to work is attributed to the idea of dynamic posture (Rowh, 2006). In this regard, individuals need to move as moderate movement increases blood circulation and decreases fatigue (Rowh, 2006). In addition to increasing blood circulation, varying the body position during the day alleviates pressure on the back and legs and can even make individuals more productive (Rowh, 2006). As documented by Rowh (2006), individuals spend about 85 percent of their time sitting down. The consequences of static sitting involve

weakening of an individual's musculature, an increase in pressure on the back and other potential health issues (Rowh, 2006).

In particular, those employees who frequently and continuously work in static sitting postures at visual display unit (VDU) workplaces can experience muscular tension (Dainoff, 2007). Some manufacturers of office chairs promote dynamic sitting through the prevention of musculoskeletal disorders at office work stations by introducing structural elements to the chairs (Dainoff, 2007). The work tasks of computer workers are often prolonged and monotonous and involve relatively low and static muscle loads due to low physical demands (Dainoff, 2007). Consequently, the concerns of work-related musculoskeletal disorders, specifically in the neck and shoulder region are common to computer workers (Dainoff, 2007). Sit/stand desks are designed to accommodate more vertical movement of individuals within their workspaces (Rowh, 2006).

The work environment has undergone some significant changes as a result of more flexible ways of organizing work processes and advances in ICT's (Dainoff, 2007). The transition of many organizations toward the implementation of open plan offices is an example of such as change (Dainoff, 2007). While open plan offices meet the needs of employees for working in teams, there are problems that have been associated with such offices (Dainoff, 2007). Problems such as, noise, lack of privacy and other forms of distraction have been reported with the use of open plan offices (Lee & Brand, 2005 cited in Dainoff, 2007). The adverse effects of noise or distraction in open plan offices on work performance, well-being and health are also evident with the most problematic distracting factor in relation to concentration being auditory distraction or noise in the office environment (Lee & Brand, 2005 cited in Dainoff, 2007).

Furthermore, with complex tasks auditory distraction is more problematic (Hongisto, 2005 cited in Dainoff, 2007). With the growing dependence on computer use, today's organizations search for ways to create office workspaces for computer workers, specifically knowledge workers, that facilitate the reduction of psychological and physical stress and improve individual and group performance (Dainoff, 2007). This is attributed to the concerns associated with the incidence of computer-related Work-related Musculoskeletal Discomfort (WMSD) (Dainoff, 2007). According to Dainoff (2007), organizations can create workspaces for office knowledge workers by changing the workplace design, reorganizing work, ergonomics training programmes,

adopting new technologies and workplace change communication programmes. Furthermore, organizational effectiveness and improvements to worker health and well-being can be achieved through the use of systemically designed office ergonomic interventions (Dainoff, 2007). According to Dainoff (2007), workers who are granted more environmental control that is, control over work decisions which have expanded to include control over the physical work environment, can potentially enhance physical health and performance.

An effective ergonomics approach consists of the design of new workstations to be flexible and the lighting and thermal environment to be suitable for the nature of work being performed, amongst others (Pile, 2001). The purpose of ergonomic chairs is to minimize discomfort, optimize comfort and prevent work injuries (Alnaser & Wughalter, 2009). According to Alnaser and Wughalter (2009), in order for discomfort to be eliminated while sitting, chairs need to fit the body measurements of the user. Ergonomic chairs accommodate the different heights and sizes of users through adjustable features and moving parts (Alnaser & Wughalter, 2009). Such chairs also allow movement to support static and dynamic postures (Alnaser & Wughalter, 2009). A decline in older workers' physical capacities can be accommodated through better workstation design (May *et al.*, 2004). The move away from a manufacturing economy toward service and information-based work makes ergonomics more important than ever before (Rowh, 2006). According to Pile (2001), there is an opportunity for ergonomics to be regarded as an integrated business tool in the twenty-first century, as opposed to a reactive safety strategy.

3.10.3   Work-Related Stress and Psychological Factors

The exposure of employees to higher performance expectations, requirements to work under pressure and managing daily work demands can become stress-inducing. Gaining insight into work-related stress can highlight the enablers and effects of stress that exist within the workplace. In addition to work-related stress, the nature of professional level work comprises primarily of work that is psychologically demanding. Hence, gaining insight into the role of psychological factors within the work context is significant.

3.10.3.1   Work-Related Stress

While the working life has undergone immeasurable changes over the past decade and despite workplace flexibility and adaptive employment practices, work cannot be stress-free (Kinder *et*

al., 2008). Work stress rises along with the pace of global change (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Workplaces that are considered to be productive are highly complex, change rapidly and engage in risk-taking innovation (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). These conditions can be perceived as stressful given the high workloads, pressure, unpredictability and insufficient control that accompany it (Walinga & Rowe, 2013).

Occupational stress can be described as the critical reactions of the human body in response to a mismatch between job requirements and the capabilities available to the worker (Shah *et al*., 2011). It is also viewed as a process whereby stressors have an association with the content and circumstances of work and the characteristics of the individual, resources and the social environment (Baba, Jamal & Tourigny, 1998 cited in Pasca & Wagner, 2011). The same typical characteristics attributed to stress in general apply to job-related stress (van Zyl, van Eeden, & Rothmann, 2013). The exception is that job-related stress is specific to the work environment, stems from work-related factors and has consequences for the work situation (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). Stress is defined as pressure, mental or physical tension (Geddes & Grisset Publishing, 2003 cited in Waller & Ragsdell, 2012). The causes of stress cannot specifically be pinpointed to any particular workplace or job (Allvin *et al*., 2011). "They concern the conditions of the labour market, the personal career, self-image, employability, private economy, the relation to life outside work, and personal interests alike and to an equal extent" (Allvin *et al*., 2011, p. 213).

Walinga and Rowe (2013) refer to the contemporary transactional stress theory to define workplace stress which proposes that workplace stress is the outcome of the dynamic interaction between the worker and work. A cognitive definition mentioned by Palmer, Cooper and Thomas (2004) comprehends stress in terms individual perceptions, explaining that when the perceived pressure exceeds the perceived ability of an individual to cope, stress will occur.

In defining workplace stress, the person-environment fit model suggests that when the person-environment fit is dysfunctional, debilitative stress occurs (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Stress is a neutral term and depending on the nature of the interaction between the worker and work stressors, stress can either be debilitative or facilitative (Barrett & Campos, 1991 cited in Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Rothmann (2008) documents stress as a complex process, characterized by three major components that is, the sources of stress faced in the workplace, an employee's perceptions and appraisals of a particular stressor and, when a stressor is appraised

as threatening, the emotional reaction evoked. Stranks (2005) identifies the more common occupational stressors presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Common Occupational Stressors

New work patterns	Increased Competition
New technology	Longer hours
Promotion	Redundancy
Relocation	Early Retirement
Deregulation	Acquisition
Downsizing	Merger
Job design	Manning levels
Boredom	Insecurity
Noise	Lighting
Temperature	Atmosphere/ventilation

Source: Stranks, J. (2005). *Stress at Work: Management and Prevention*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann, p. 20.

Individuals can be exposed to a number of stressors within the organization as reflected in Table 3.1 and also differ in terms of their ability to cope with the types of stressors encountered (Stranks, 2005). Victims of job-related stress have a reduced quality of work life and job satisfaction (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). A stressor appraised as threatening induces an emotional arousal of anxiety (Rothmann, 2008). The persistence and severity of which can impose physical and psychological strain on the employee which may lead to negative behavioural consequences (Rothmann, 2008). Walinga and Rowe (2013) indicate that while stress is necessary for growth and can be associated with high productivity and performance optimization, stress can weaken the employee when it becomes chronic or overwhelming. Stress can be damaging to employee performance and can lead to higher rates of absenteeism and/or high labour turnover (Waller & Ragsdell, 2012).

Similarly, van Zyl *et al*. (2013) cite decreased productivity, changes in work attitudes, low morale and increased absenteeism, as the symptoms of stressed employees. From similar

conclusions of other authors, van Zyl *et al*. (2013) indicate that perceived job insecurity is an important source of stress. Within the workplace, symptoms or outcomes of stress can emerge in a number of ways (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). From previous studies, Shah *et al*. (2011) identify that stress factors at work can be categorized into four groups. These include working conditions (for example, long working hours), relationships at work (including at horizontal and vertical levels), ambiguity in authority and responsibility (for example, poorly defined expectations) and, organization structure and climate which can involve major changes in the workplace (Shah *et al*., 2011).

Walinga and Rowe (2013) make reference to a variety of authors in identifying the causes of work stress. These include work overload, overwork, pressure, job insecurity, the pace of work, new ways of working, role conflicts and low job control and satisfaction (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). The effects of work stress have implications for workers and the organization (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Negative symptoms (for example, depression and poor attention) arise when the psychological and physical resources of an individual become overwhelmed (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Sustained stress causes cynicism, inefficiency and exhaustion which in turn can lead to a loss in work days, reduced employee productivity and increased job turnover rates (Walinga & Rowe, 2013).

3.10.3.2   Psychological Factors

Burchell *et al*. (2002) define psychological well-being as a term incorporating a variety of emotional and cognitive states which can include the mental health, work and life satisfaction and happiness of an individual. When a person appraises the relationship between themselves and their environment as exceeding their resources and jeopardizing their well-being, this is known as the psychological nature of stress (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Deteriorating levels of psychological well-being can cause the individual to experience increased levels of anxiety and depression, sleep disturbances and dissatisfaction with oneself and one's environment (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Work intensification is theorized according to a stressor-stress-strain framework, whereby the intensification of work is conceptualized as the stressor (source of stress), which can lead to the experience of stress, subsequently resulting in psychological, behavioral or physiological strains (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

- **Job Demands and Burnout**

Job demands are the psychological stressors inherent in one's job (for example, working at a fast pace) whereas job strain involve symptoms of mental strain from work that lead to poor individual well-being (for example, burnout and depression) (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). The manner in which an individual perceives demands is influenced by the extent to which he or she believes that they have control of or have access to adequate resources for meeting those demands (Naswall *et al*., 2008). If an individual perceives that he/she has the resources and opportunities to manage a situation in a satisfactory manner, the situation can be interpreted as a challenge rather than as a threat (Naswall *et al*., 2008). Individual characteristics and the work context (situational characteristics) influence an individual's perceptions regarding the resources and opportunities and his/her interpretation of the situation (Naswall *et al*., 2008).

Burnout is a stress-related disorder that develops during prolonged exposure to high levels of work stress and negatively influences individual well-being and job performance (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011). A psychological outcome of job-related stress is burnout which has implications for employees in terms of health-related outcomes and employers (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013). From an employer's perspective, consequences associated with burnout relate to elevated rates of absenteeism, declining rates of the quality and quantity of work produced and a more apparent intention to quit one's job (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013). Furthermore, employers face issues concerning labour turnover, decreasing productivity and higher costs (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013). Job control can buffer the negative effects of strain and can enhance the intrinsic motivation of the employee (Yu-Hwa *et al*., 2011).

"Burnout is considered to be a psychological response to work-related stress that is characterized by three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, increased mental distance from one's job (cynicism), and reduced professional efficacy at work" (Nitzsche *et al*., 2013, p. 67). In this regard, Rehman, Haq, Jam, Ali and Hijazi (2010) explain the three categories of burnout as emotional exhaustion (the fatigued feelings that develop when emotional energies have been drained), depersonalization (the negative attitudes that one develops toward their colleagues), and, individuals develop a tendency to evaluate themselves negatively simply because they may feel dissatisfied with themselves and their accomplishments on the job.

When an imbalance is created between the demands placed on the employee and the individual's abilities, the higher the level of stress experienced (Rehman *et al*., 2010). This imbalance indicates a poor fit between the work environment and the individual's abilities to tackle particular work situations simply due to the demands being too excessive or the individual not being fully prepared to handle the situation (Rehman *et al*., 2010). Burnout is costly for businesses as it can result in decreased productivity, absenteeism, and turnover and job dissatisfaction, amongst others (Rehman *et al*., 2010). Furthermore, perceived imbalance results in stress which can prompt individuals to psychologically withdraw from the exchange relationship and this could eventually lead to depersonalization (Rehman *et al*., 2010).

• The Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI) Model

The Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI) model explains how the costs and gains of social exchanges direct people's behaviour with others (Johannes Siegrist, 1996 cited in Feldt, Huhtala, Kinnunen, Hyvönen, Mäkikangas, & Sonnentag, 2013). This model is concerned with what the job role has to offer the individual (Allvin *et al*., 2011). In the work environment, this means that employees invest effort in their work with an expectation to be rewarded (Feldt *et al*., 2013). If the individual offers a greater effort, this should be met with a corresponding reward from the employer (Allvin *et al*., 2011). If there is an imbalance, this can increase the risk of ill health (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

From an employee's perspective, effort reflects their perception of the strain caused from various job demands and responsibilities that are imposed by their employer (Feldt *et al*., 2013). Reward reflects the opportunities awarded by their job and can involve job security, salary and esteem, amongst others (Feldt *et al*., 2013). Allvin *et al*. (2011, p. 178) recognizes the three different channels that can be used to distribute rewards namely, "money (material), appreciation (psychological) and status and career opportunities (social)". The model considers career and employment conditions beyond the immediate work conditions of the individual to establish explanations of individual stress and ill health (Allvin *et al*., 2011). "In doing this the model is a development and an adaptation to the increasingly market-oriented conditions of the new work life" (Allvin *et al*., 2011, p. 179).

The purpose of the ERI model is to explain the constructs of employee health and well-being (Feldt *et al*., 2013). There are three basic assumptions that govern the framework of the ERI model (Feldt *et al*., 2013). Firstly, the risk of reduced health is increased by an imbalance created from high effort and low reward (extrinsic ERI hypothesis) (Feldt *et al*., 2013). Secondly, employees who are over-committed are at greater risk of reduced health (intrinsic over-commitment hypothesis) (Feldt *et al*., 2013). Lastly, employees who are at the highest risk of reduced health are those simultaneously characterized by high ERI and high over-commitment (OVC) (interaction hypothesis) (Feldt *et al*., 2013).

The aim of exploring different patterns of effort-reward imbalance and over-commitment is to understand the strain process at an individual level and to uncover which employees are at a higher risk for reduced occupational health and well-being (Feldt *et al*., 2013). When an imbalance occurs between efforts and rewards, this implies a lack of reciprocity in the workplace (Feldt *et al*., 2013). This mismatch can be in the form of an employee working overtime to keep up with tight deadlines and does not receive adequate financial compensation in return (Feldt *et al*., 2013). An individual who is subjected to an extended period of harmful imbalance can experience various strain reactions (Feldt *et al*., 2013). Effort-reward imbalance has been associated with poorer general health, higher psychological distress and emotional exhaustion, amongst others (Feldt *et al*., 2013).

3.10.4 Volume of Workload

In order to maintain employee well-being, the assessment of workload is imperative (Subramanyam, Muralidhara & Pooja, 2013). Workloads are a function of the individual and relates to the type of occupation (Shah *et al*., 2011). It will therefore differ as some occupations are inherently more loaded than others (Shah *et al*., 2011). The debate concentrating on the extent to which workers are compelled to work harder and faster in comparison to previous years is affected by the work demands that individuals encounter (Burchell *et al*., 2002). "Work demands are the extent to which individuals have the time and resources to carry out their job" (Burchell *et al*., 2002, p. 97).

Workload comprises of work demand which can be categorized as physical (quantitative or objective) and perceptual (qualitative or subjective) (Sue Ling, Chang & Lien Yin, 2012).

Similarly, Burchell *et al*. (2002) differentiate between the qualitative and quantitative dimensions of an individual's workload. The former relates to the difficulty and complexity of their work that is, having too much to do, in too little time, at too high a pace, with too few resources (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Whereas the latter dimension focuses on the amount of work the employee has to perform (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

Workload can be defined as the amount of processing capacity needed to perform a task at a given time (Gopher & Donchin, 1986 cited in Subramanyam *et al*., 2013). Features of the modern work environment comprise of irregular working, multi-tasking and sleeping conditions which impact on the brain's energy resources (Subramanyam *et al*., 2013). A reduction of these resources can result in reduced performance with task complexity (Subramanyam *et al*., 2013). Furthermore, a moderate decrease in the cognitive resources of the brain may induce work-related stress, thereby increasing the risk of error and work-related diseases (Subramanyam *et al*., 2013). The psychological stressors of having to work fast and hard, having conflicting demands and the amount of physical labour used (usually measured by work hours) is perceptual workload (Sue Ling *et al*., 2012). With regard to the quality of work life (QWL), workload is an influential factor that is believed to be detrimental to QWL (Sue Ling *et al*., 2012).

Workload has implications for the family life of employees, can lead to job burnout, and add to job stress, turnover intentions and mental stress (Sue Ling *et al*., 2012). Workload is a source of mental stress for employees as it involves the intensity of job assignments (Shah *et al*., 2011). When workloads change, employee stress levels can change which impacts on performance levels (Shah *et al*., 2011). When the employee perceives that he or she has the necessary capabilities to perform, they can enjoy workload (Shah *et al*., 2011). By contrast, when these pressures become excessive, it has negative consequences (Shah *et al*., 2011). Demanding jobs that lead to pressure and work overloading (in both qualitative and quantitative dimensions) is associated with stress and has a detrimental effect on individual well-being (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

When employees face excessively high work demands that force them to rely on reserve capacities, this is referred to as work overload (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Chronic work overload exposes an employee to a great deal of work over an extended period of time which causes the individual to rely on their reserve capacities, eventually leading to exhaustion and decreased

performance (Burchell *et al*., 2002). An individual's capacity to appraise his/her own abilities is distorted with work overload (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Furthermore, individual beliefs of personal control instill confidence, making the individual feel that he/she can master the challenges encountered in the environment (Burchell *et al*., 2002). By contrast, the absence of control can make the individual feel more vulnerable and threatened (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

Uncertainty, ambiguity and lack of control hinder adequate coping (Burchell *et al*., 2002). The movement from a challenging to an overtaxing workload and from secure to insecure employment induces stressful experiences (Burchell *et al*., 2002). "High workloads have been found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction and positively associated with job-related anxiety, exhaustion and work-related depression" (Burchell *et al*., 2002, p. 97). The general literature also reveals an association between high job demands and general, context-free, measures of well-being such as, decreased life satisfaction, increased general distress, high levels of somatic complaints such as, upset stomach and sleep difficulties, increased neurotic symptoms, higher incident of recent minor neurosis (anxiety, depression, obsessionality) and raised levels of anxiety and context-free exhaustion and depression (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

3.10.5   Job Insecurity

Industrial mechanisms such as, restructuring, downsizing, reduction of overheads and shifts toward specialization are often employed for competitive purposes (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). The unprecedented interest in job insecurity has grown due to the widespread assumption that job insecurity has exacerbated over the past decade (Burchell *et al*., 2002). The increase in perceptions of job insecurity creates a major challenge and concern to South African organizations and managers (Van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008).

Working life in South Africa has undergone tremendous change prompting organizations to take on adaptive strategies considering the uncertainty of the environment (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). In this instance, organizations can either increase their gains or reduce their costs which often lead to workforce reductions (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). Organizations are faced with continual changes due to retrenchments, downsizing and mergers and acquisitions which have brought the issue of job insecurity to the forefront (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012).

Uncertainty, contractual flexibility and downsizing are features of the contemporary labour market (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). In most of Europe, management is the driving force behind the rise of non-permanent (temporary or fixed-term) employment contracts (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). Sparks *et al*. (2001) add that job insecurity has been exacerbated due to the growth of non-permanent employment contracts and an increased reliance of organizations on contingent workers (temporary and part-time employment). As recognized by Smithson and Lewis (2000), age is also related to the rise in perceived job insecurity, with the youngest and oldest of the workforce having the strongest feelings of job insecurity.

The three inter-related aspects of work-based security consists of having the chance to continue employment in a specific job with the same employer (job security), continuing employment with the same employer but in a different job and/or location (employer security) and, having the chance to change employers (employer security) (Sengenberger, 1995 cited in Smithson and Lewis (2000). Van Wyk and Pienaar (2008) note that throughout international literature there are two distinct perspectives used to conceptualize job insecurity. Similarly, van Zyl *et al*. (2013) also mention the global and multidimensional viewpoints of job insecurity.

From the global perspective, job insecurity is conceptualized as the overall concern about job loss or job discontinuity (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). As noted by Van Wyk and Pienaar (2008), this conceptualization is viewed in the context of change (for example, mergers) whereby job insecurity is considered as the phase preceding unemployment. The multidimensional perspective conceptualizes job insecurity as more than the fear of losing a job and includes the fear or uncertainty about losing job-related dimensions (for example, the opportunity for promotion) (van Zyl *et al*., 2013).

Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012) understand job insecurity as applying to those individuals in employment who are fearful of or feel threatened by unemployment. Furthermore, the authors cite two different forms of job insecurity (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). Quantitative job insecurity occurs when the individual worries about losing the job itself whereas qualitative job insecurity occurs when the individual worries about losing important features of the job for example, this can relate to a decline in working conditions or a lack of career opportunities (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002 cited in Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012).

Figure 3.5

The Sources of Job Insecurity

JOB INSECURITY

Includes the fear of

Losing the job itself
Via:

Redundancies

Lay-offs

Sackings

Bullying/harassment

Losing valued job features
Such as:

Promotion opportunities

Control over the pace of work

The ability to complete the entire job

Pay rises

Independent representation
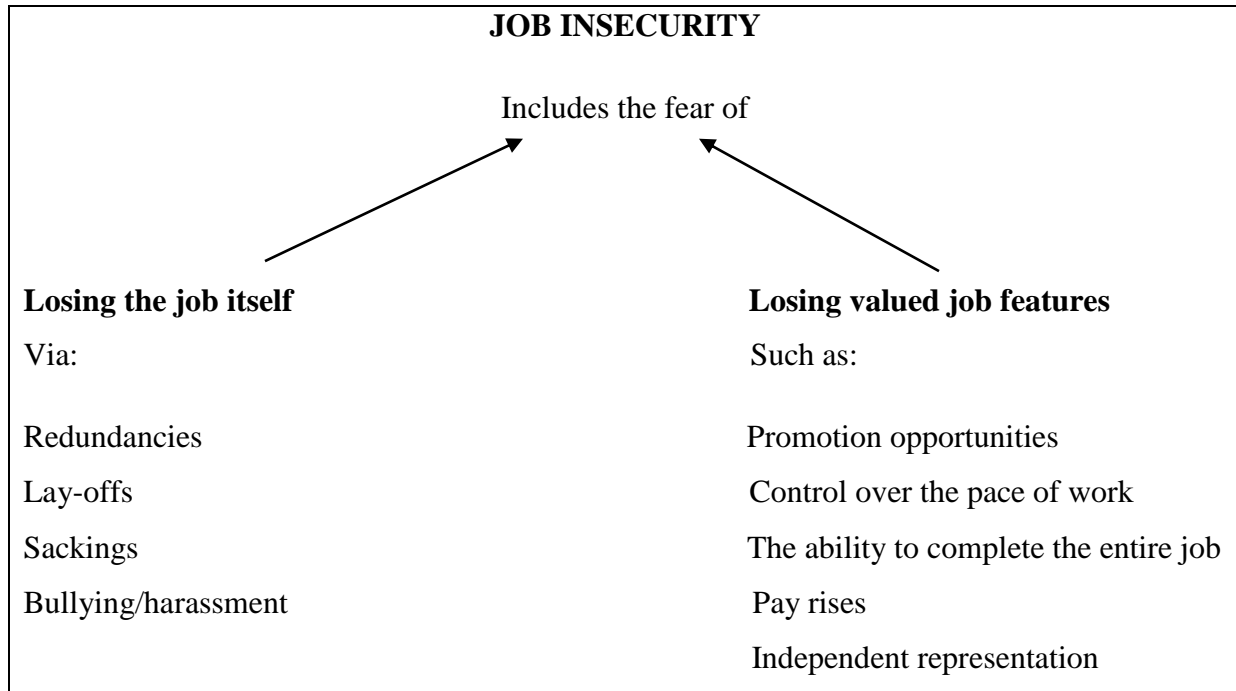
Source: Burchell, B., Lapido, D., & Wilkinson, F. (Eds). (2002). *Job Insecurity and Work Intensification*. London: Routledge, p. 71.

As reflected in Figure 3.5, feelings of insecurity are not only triggered by the prospect of lay-offs, redundancies or dismissal, but also can be triggered by the loss or erosion of other employment conditions (Burchell *et al*., 2002). This means that employees can feel insecure or threatened not only because of actual job loss but also because of the threat of losing valued job features (for example, a reduced quality of working life) (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

In times of economic uncertainty, organizations downsize as a means to reduce costs quickly and increase productivity (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011). Downsizing has a damaging impact on the employee-organization relationship and can result in increased employee turnover (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011). A very harsh consequence is when job insecurity is associated with economic loss through job redundancy (Green, 2006). Green (2006) describes job insecurity as the uncertainty at work which contributes to loss of welfare and a reduction in the well-being of an individual. Job insecurity has unpleasant consequences for the psychological well-being of the individual, family stability and organizational efficiency (Burchell *et al*., 2002). Dachapalli and

Parumasur (2012) document from previous studies that job strain and job insecurity have resulted in higher levels of mental and physical health problems.

One of the major stressors in the work environment is job insecurity primarily because of the great deal of uncertainty attached to it (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). It is evident that restructuring/downsizing renders the job market volatile thereby threatening the long-standing relationship between employers and employees and their well-being (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). A core trait of job insecurity is the experience of or the fear of experiencing uncertainty and ambiguity (Burchell *et al*., 2002). This lack of situational clarity can make a person feel less in control over events and hence result in increased feelings of helplessness (Burchell *et al*., 2002). The reduced ability of an individual to plan and control, can also add to the stressfulness of the experience (Burchell *et al*., 2002). It is argued that high levels of "event uncertainty" (that is, the uncertainty as to the likelihood of an event occurring) can detrimentally effect the coping process (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

A consequence of job insecurity is the strong psychological impact associated with the loss of economic and other valued aspects of life for those affected (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). The experience of job insecurity comes with the uncertainty of not knowing what to expect hence employees cannot identify what they must cope with (Burchell *et al*., 2002). It is prolonged job insecurity that is most detrimental to the psychological well-being of workers as they worry about future job loss which may be as traumatic as unemployment itself (Burchell *et al*., 2002).

With regard to the model on the effect of employee perceptions of job insecurity on negative coping behaviour, the perceptions of job insecurity can result in two emotional reactions, that is, affective organizational commitment and increased job-related stress (Jordan, Ashkanasy & Hartel, 2002 cited in van Zyl *et al*., 2013). However, mixed consequences of job insecurity have been documented (De Ruyter and Burgess, 2000 cited in van Zyl *et al*., 2013). While high levels of job insecurity can create a more compliant workforce, it can also lower employee morale and commitment (van Zyl *et al*., 2013).

Job insecurity is a subjective phenomenon (De Witte, 1999 cited in van Zyl *et al*., 2013). The underlying theme extracted by Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012) from various definitions of job insecurity points out that job insecurity is a subjective phenomenon derived from the perceptions and interpretations of an individual toward their immediate work environment. Burchell *et al*.

(2002) also describe job insecurity as the subjective assessment concerning the risk of job loss or unemployment, expressed by the employee. Unlike unemployment, where job loss is imminent, job insecurity is of minimal social visibility whereby the employee is expected to continue working as usual which renders the experience of insecurity more stressful (Burchell *et al*., 2002). In times of insecure employment, poor working conditions (such as, exposure to long hours), is more likely to be tolerated primarily because of a lack/limitation of alternate employment (Burchell *et al*., 2002). The persistence of which also exacerbates stress experienced in insecure employment (Burchell *et al*., 2002). When an individual worries about his/her economic and professional future, the resulting stress is referred to as economic stress (Starrin, Aslund & Nilsson, 2009 cited in Allvin *et al*., 2011). The development of worry into stress occurs when the future of an individual is uncertain and feels as if he/she is unable to influence it (Allvin *et al*., 2011).

- ## The South African Labour Market

South Africa has one of the highest unemployment rates in the world (CCMA, 2013). Furthermore, the sharp segmentation, high unemployment and low non-farm informal sector employment makes South Africa's labour market one of the most interesting in the world (CCMA, 2013). Kingdon and Knight (2007) distinguish the formal sector (businesses that are formally registered) from the informal sector (unregistered), adding that the former has features of a middle-income country whereas the latter can be characterized as a less developed country. The Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) plays a pivotal role in helping employers and workers to find alternatives to job loss and business distress (CCMA, 2013). The Labour Relations Act along with the CCMA's job saving strategy regulates the role of the CCMA in handling job insecurity (CCMA, 2013).

With concerns about the high level of unemployment, the South African government has strived to lower the unemployment rate and stimulate economic growth from the first democratic election in 1994 (Leshoro, 2013). Despite significant change in the economy since 2000, the same cannot be documented on the performance of government in increasing employment (Leshoro, 2013). In the post-apartheid period (1994-2009), the government introduced four programmes with the objective of creating more jobs while eradicating poverty and inequality (Leshoro, 2013). These four programmes include the Reconstruction and Development Program

(RDP), the Growth Employment and Redistribution Program (GEAR), the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (AsgiSA) and the New Growth Path (NGP) in 2010 (Leshoro, 2013). Unfortunately, over a million jobs were lost between 2008 and 2010 (Leshoro, 2013). Furthermore, after the economic recession in 2011, approximately only a quarter of a million jobs were created (Leshoro, 2013).

The dynamics of the South African Labour market are rather complex as the country faces major challenges with unemployment. Thus, South African employees face added pressures with their job security and opportunities for progression. Facing such pressures in the work situation can present difficulties for individuals in managing pressures from work with pressures of life.

3.11   Conclusion

The chapter indicates that work patterns of the twenty-first century are conducive to a globalized and changing work environment. Organizational goals place great emphasis on efficiency and cost minimization however, working practices have intensified. When increased pressure is placed on organizations, more work is required from employees in the form of working longer hours and greater workloads, amongst others. While work intensification can help organizations to increase productivity, overwork can ultimately damage the health and well-being of the workforce.

The new conditions of working life subject individuals to varied pressures and with greater insecurities the vulnerability of individuals is apparent. It is crucial to establish an understanding of peoples' work and life situations in the context of a changing work life. Employees need to have an awareness surrounding their work patterns and to note the triggers that cause them to work intensely. Employers should be focused on promoting supportive relationships between managers and employees and helping employees to cope better with work pressures and work-related stress. Due to the contemporary anxieties of employees it becomes individuals responsibility to define and plan the boundaries that constitute their life. Thus, the individual will have to tackle decisions concerning the demands inherent in the different domains that occur simultaneously.

The value of understanding the presence of work intensification is to recognize the daily experiences of individuals according to the demands they face and the type of support received.

While employees are tasked with managing work demands, employers need to be tasked with prioritizing employee health and well-being. The next chapter presents the research methodology that supported the purpose of this research study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

The two chapters prior to this have specifically addressed the theoretical evaluation of work-life balance and work intensification respectively. This chapter will present the research methodology applicable to this empirical research that will provide solutions to the research questions. In order for a researcher to obtain a solution to the research problem under investigation and draw the necessary conclusions, one would need to collect data which requires a suitable research design (Fox & Bayat, 2007). This specifies the selected methods and procedures for data collection and analysis (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013).

The research design involves the research approach that is used for the purpose of the study (Nzimande, 2008). This research study was based on the collection of primary data and was cross-sectional in nature. Cross-sectional studies undertaken gather data just once in order to answer a research question (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The study was conducted to test hypotheses in order to understand the effect on the dependent variable, work-life balance. This study was conducted at one point in time with the aim of investigating the effect of work intensification on work-life balance in a public sector organization using a quantitative method that is, a self-developed questionnaire.

The research framework adopted for this study will be presented as follows; firstly, the primary focus, underlying objectives, research questions and hypotheses are outlined. Secondly, a discussion of the sampling technique for this quantitative study is presented with a detailed description of the sample used. Thirdly, the data collection plan which comprises of the nature, purpose, construction and administration of the research instrument used (a self-developed questionnaire) is elaborated on. Subsequently, the types of statistics (descriptive and inferential) applied in the analysis of the data is addressed. This is followed by a discussion of the methods used in the statistical analysis of the questionnaire that ensured validity and reliability. Lastly, epistemology and positivism and the ethical considerations involved with a study of this nature are brought to light and addressed accordingly.

4.2 Focus of the Study

This study was undertaken with the purpose of investigating the effect of work intensification (measured in terms of organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity) on work-life balance (measured in terms of work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness) in a public sector organization.

4.3 Objectives of the Study

- To determine the levels of work intensification and work-life balance.

- To examine the effect of work intensification on work-life balance.

- To determine the influence of the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, race, education qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children) on work intensification.

- To determine the influence of the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, race, education qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children) on work-life balance.

- To determine whether the sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity) and the sub-dimensions of work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness) influence the key dimensions of the study.

4.4   Hypotheses

This study involved the testing of several hypotheses as relating to the key constructs which include:

Hypothesis 1

There exists significant inter-correlations amongst the sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity), respectively.

Hypothesis 2

There exists significant inter-correlations amongst the sub-dimensions of work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness), respectively.

Hypothesis 3

The sub-dimensions of work intensification significantly inter-correlates with the sub-dimensions of work-life balance

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant difference in the level of work intensification of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

Hypothesis 5

There is a significant difference in the level of work-life balance of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

Hypothesis 6

The dimensions and sub-dimensions of work intensification significantly account for the variance in determining work intensification in this organization.

Hypothesis 7

The dimensions and sub-dimensions of work life balance significantly account for the variance in determining work life balance in this organization.

4.5   Sampling Technique

Sampling is the process of how elements are taken from the population (Fox & Bayat, 2007), and consists of the selection of the right individuals as representatives for the entire population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). According to Zikmund *et al*. (2013, p. 66), "sampling involves any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population". Only a part of the population is used as it is almost impossible to collect information from the entire population (Fox & Bayat, 2007). Also, sampling is more practical and possible (Nzimande, 2008). Generalizability is key when it comes to sampling as this provides meaning to the results obtained (Salkind, 2009). In other words, the results from research can be generalized from the sample to the population surpassing the limited setting wherein the results were originally obtained (Salkind, 2009).

As outlined by Fox and Bayat (2007), probability and non-probability sampling are two categories of sampling. The probability sampling design is "when elements in the population have a known chance of being chosen as subjects in the sample" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 270). When generalizability (representativeness) is important for the researcher, probability sampling is adopted (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). With non-probability sampling, there is no probability that elements in the population will be selected as sample subjects (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). An unrestricted probability sampling design, specifically the simple random sampling technique was utilized to select the subjects for this study. This sampling design has the least bias and entails the most generalizability (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Hence, the study comprised of office based employees who were randomly selected from for the sample.

4.6.   Description of Sample

A sample is drawn from the population for measurement (Nzimande, 2008) and should be an accurate representation of the population (Salkind, 2009). Furthermore, the researcher needs to precisely define the target population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The target population for this study was a municipality, located in the City of Durban, in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. This

municipality comprises of a total of seven administrative clusters (eThekweni Municipality, 2011), from which only three clusters were utilized for this study.

The study targeted office based employees across three administrative clusters at the municipality. This government institution has offices throughout the Durban region and as a result, the respondents targeted for this study was geographically dispersed. The three clusters targeted were:

- Cluster 1: Corporate and Human Resources,
- Cluster 2: Finance and,
- Cluster 3: Economic Development and Planning.

Fox and Bayat (2007) indicate that there are a number of practical considerations involved in determining the size of a sample which includes the population size, amongst others. The appropriate sample size in accordance with the population size for the three clusters at the municipality was determined as follows:

- Cluster 1 with 703 employees: corresponding sample size 81 respondents,
- Cluster 2 with 1560 employees: corresponding sample size 181 respondents and,
- Cluster 3 with 676 employees: corresponding sample size 78 respondents.

As a result, from the total population of 2939 employees across the three clusters, the sample for this study comprised of 100 subjects to ensure generalizability.

Participants were office based workers including, managers, supervisors and employees. The sample comprised of both male and female individuals of varying age, marital and race groups, with varying educational qualifications and years of service in the public sector organization to appropriately reflect correct parameters of all in the total population. Furthermore, the sample consisted of individuals who may or may not have immediate families, be part of a dual-career couple or a single-parent household.

The sample size for a given population size is presented as Table 4.1 adopted from Sekaran and Bougie (2010) to demonstrate the adequacy of the sample size selected for a quantitative study of this nature.

Table 4.1

Sample Size for a Given Population Size

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	175	2000	322
55	48	320	181	2200	327
60	52	340	191	2400	331
65	56	360	196	2600	335
70	59	380	205	2800	338
75	63	400	210	3000	341
80	66	420	217	3500	346
85	70	440	226	4000	351
90	73	460	242	4500	354
95	76	480	248	5000	357
100	80	500	260	6000	361
110	86	550	265	7000	364
120	92	600	274	8000	367
130	97	650	278	9000	368
140	103	700	169	10 000	370
150	108	750	186	15 000	375
160	113	800	201	20 000	377
170	118	850	214	30 000	379
180	123	900	234	40 000	380
190	127	950	254	50 000	381
200	132	1000	269	75 000	283
210	136	1100	285	1 000 000	384

Source: Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. (5th edn.). United Kingdom: John Wiley & Sons Ltd, p. 295-296.

Table 4.2

Composition of Sample

Biographical Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age	**100**	**100.0%**
Under 25	13	13.0%
25-34	39	39.0%
35-44	31	31.0%
45 and above	17	17.0%
Gender	**100**	**100.0%**
Male	46	46.0%
Female	54	54.0%
Marital Status	**100**	**100.0%**
Single	56	56.0%
Married	35	35.0%
Divorced	6	6.0%
Widowed	3	3.0%
Race	**100**	**100.0%**
Coloured	8	8.0%
White	11	11.0%
Indian	24	24.0%
African	57	57.0%
Educational Qualifications	**100**	**100.0%**
No Answer	1	1.0%
Standard 8-10	13	13.0%
Diploma Certificate	37	37.0%
Undergraduate Degree	18	18.0%
Post-graduate Degree/s	29	29.0%
Post-graduate Diploma/ Certificate	2	2.0%
Position in Organization	**100**	**100.0%**
No Answer	2	2.0%
Manager	15	15.0%
Supervisor	18	18.0%
Employee	65	65.0%
Length of Service	**100**	**100.0%**
No Answer	1	1.0%
0-5 years	43	43.0%
6-10 years	18	18.0%
11-15 years	18	18.0%
16-20 years	9	9.0%
21 years and over	11	11.0%
Number of Children	**100**	**100.0%**
No Child	36	36.0%
One Child	28	28.0%
Two Children	22	22.0%
Three Children	12	12.0%
Four children and over	2	2.0%

Table 4.2 indicates that the majority of the respondents were 25-34 years of age, followed by 35-44 years, 45 years and above and lastly, under 25 years. With regard to gender, there were more female employees (54%) than male (46%). In terms of marital status, majority of the employees (56%) are single, 35% are married, 6% being divorced, and 3% being widowed. In this organization, the majority of employees were Africans (57%) followed by Indian (24%), White (11%) and lastly, Coloured (8%). With regard to educational qualifications, 37% of employees had Diploma Certificates, followed by Post-graduate Degree/s (29%), Undergraduate Degrees (18%), Standard 8-10 (13%), Post-graduate Diplomas/Certificates (2%) and lastly, no responses (1%).

In terms of position in the organization, employees constituted 65%, followed by supervisors (18%), managers (15%) and lastly, no responses (2%). With regard to length of service, 43% of employees have worked for 0-5 years, followed by both employees between 6-10 years (18%) and 11-15 years (18%), followed by 21 years and over (11%), 16-20 years (9%) and lastly, no responses (1%). In this organization, 36% of the employees had no children, followed by one child (28%), two children (22%), three children (12%) and lastly, four children and over (2%). The figures are depicted on pie graphs.

Figure 4.1

Composition of Sample: Age
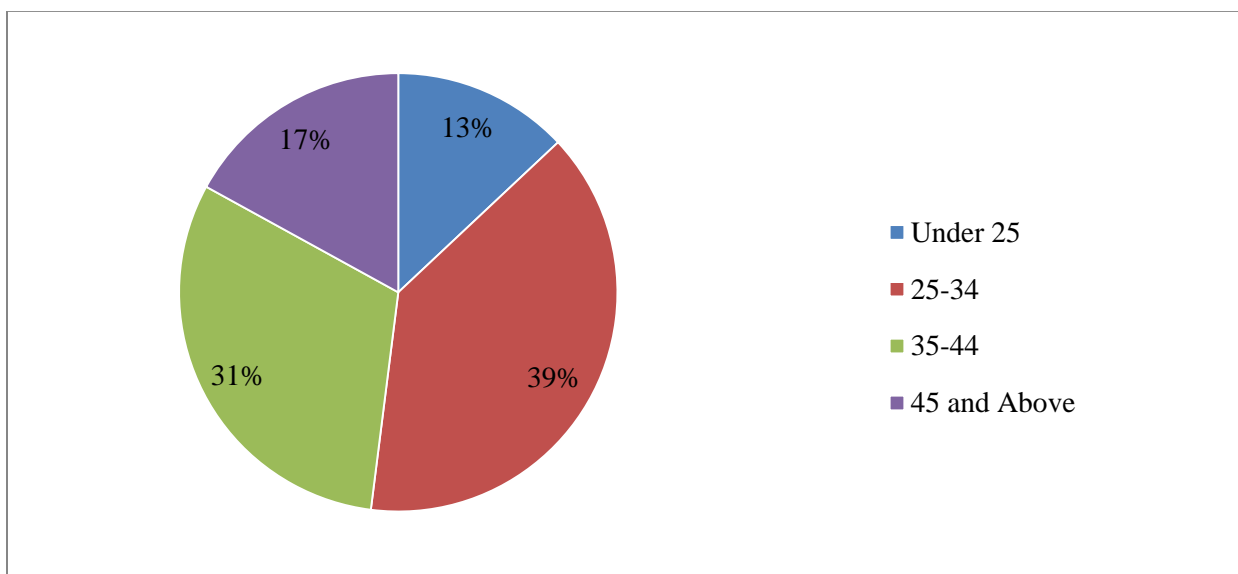
Figure 4.1 depicts that the majority of the employees were between 25-34 years of age (39%).

Figure 4.2

Composition of Sample: Gender
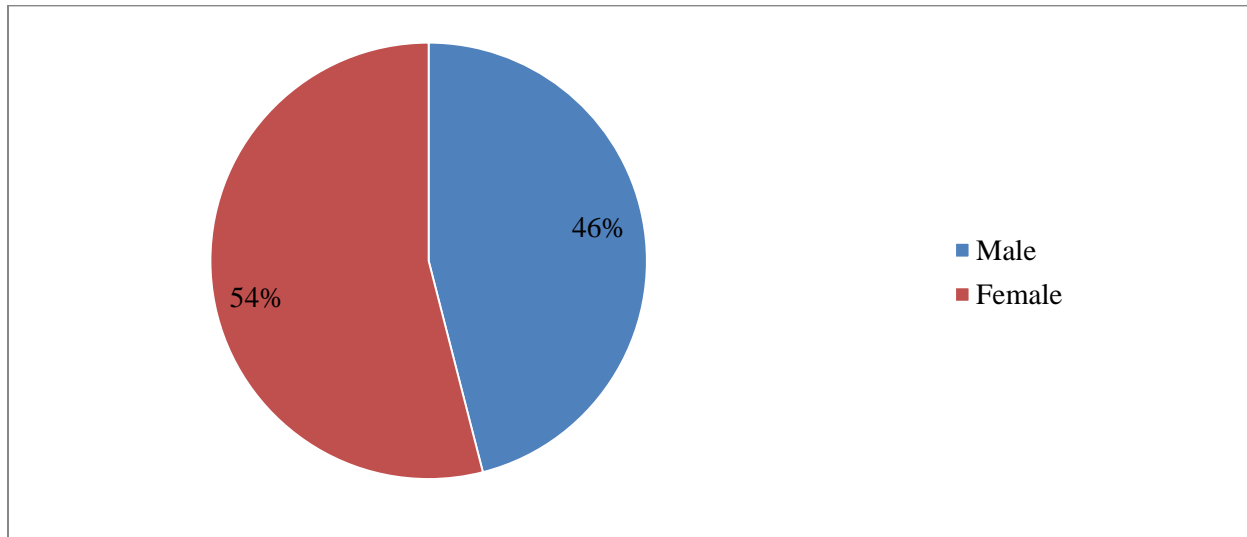
Figure 4.2 clearly indicates that the majority of the employees in this organization were female (54%).

Figure 4.3

Composition of Sample: Marital Status
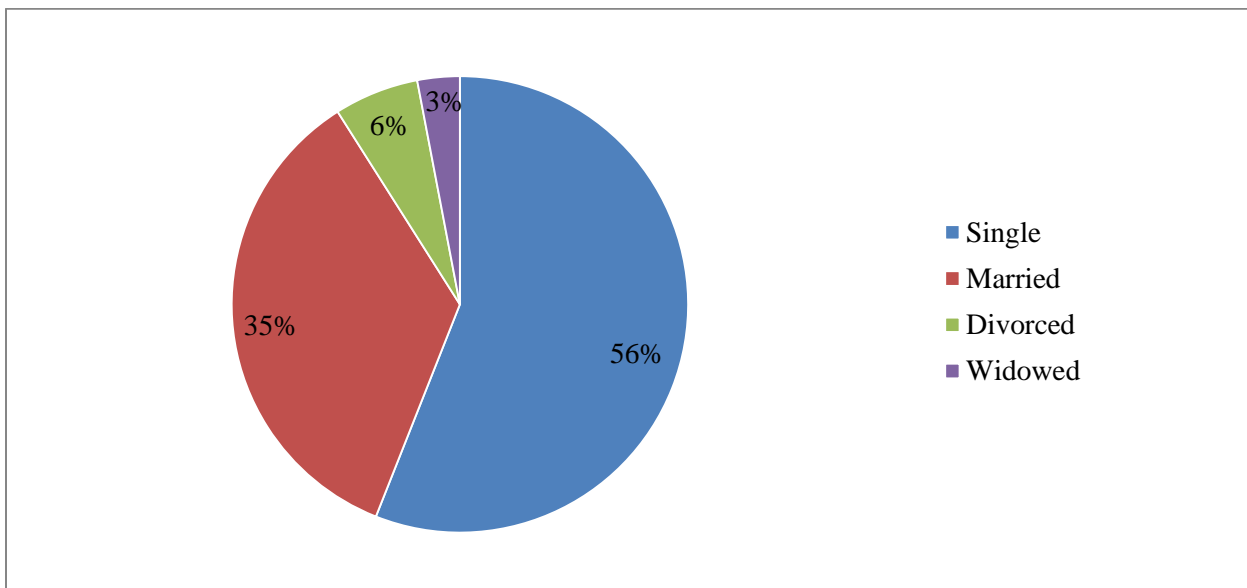
Figure 4.3 shows that the majority of the workforce constitutes 56% of single employees which is in distinct contrast to divorced (6%) and widowed employees (3%).

Figure 4.4

Composition of Sample: Race
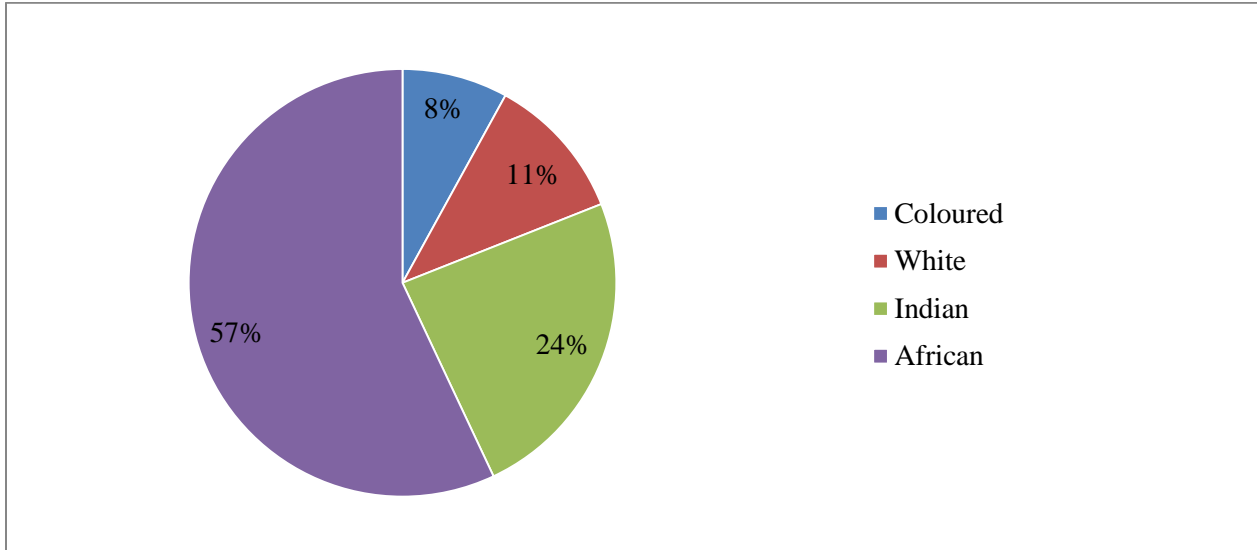
Figure 4.4 reflects that a large percentage of the employees were African (57%), yet both White (11%) and Coloured (8%) constitute only 19% of the race groups in this large public sector organization.

Figure 4.5

Composition of Sample: Educational Qualifications
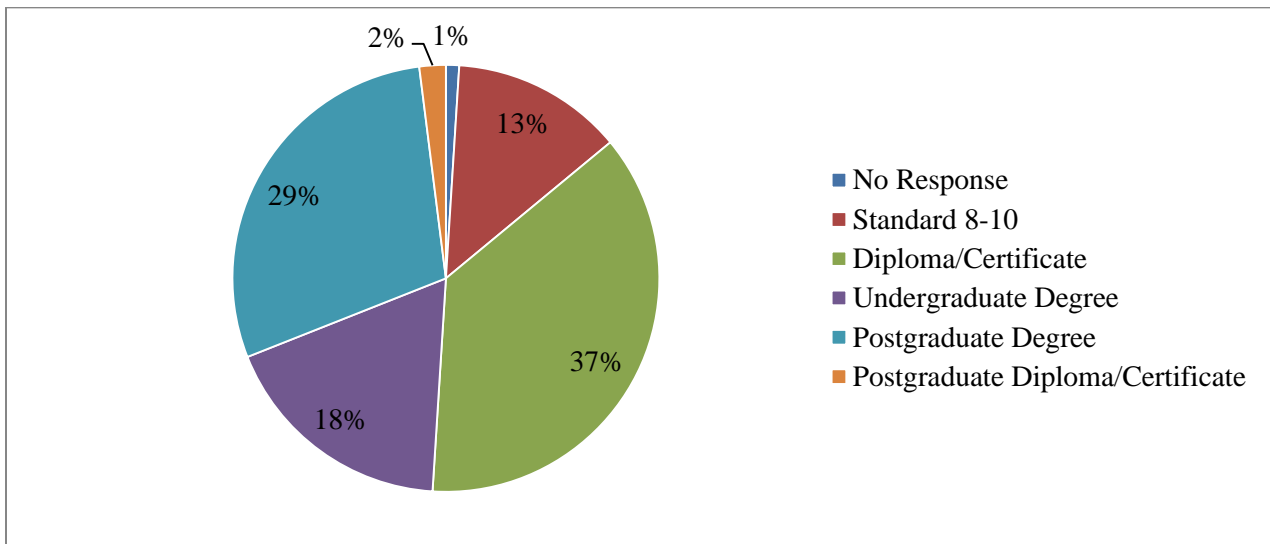
Figure 4.5 shows that most employees have educational qualifications with Diploma certificates (37%) being the highest percentage, followed by Post-graduate Degrees (29%), Undergraduate

Degree (18%), Standard 8-10 (13%), Post-graduate Diploma Certificate (2%) and, lastly there were 1% of no responses.

Figure 4.6

Composition of Sample: Position in Organization
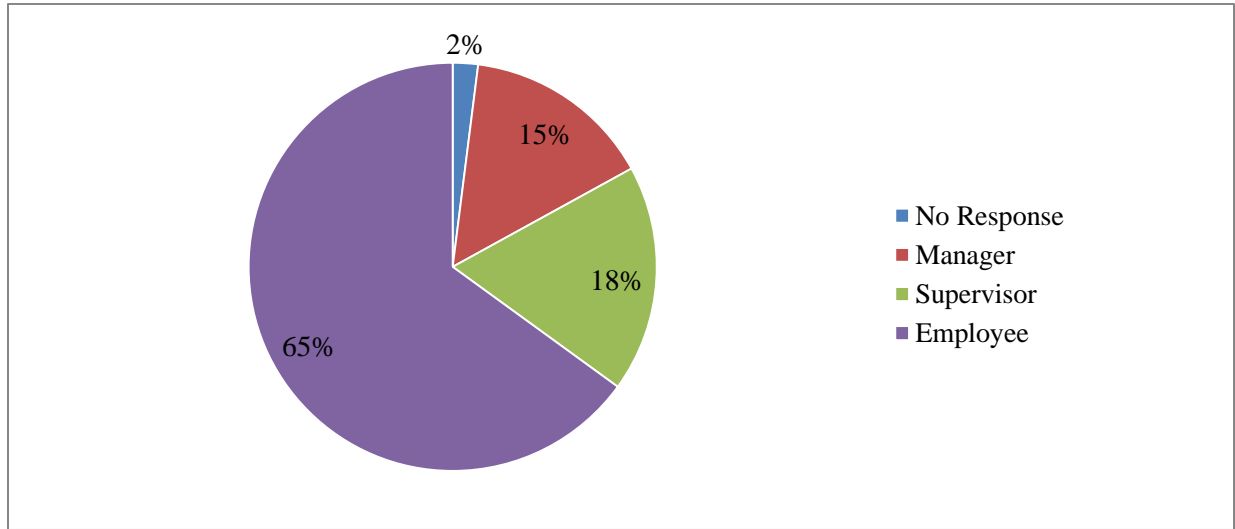
Figure 4.6 shows that a large percentage of positions in this organization belong to employees (65%). In total, senior positions entail 33%, with managers (15%) and supervisor (18%). It is noted that there were no responses for 2%.

Figure 4.7

Composition of Sample: Length of Service
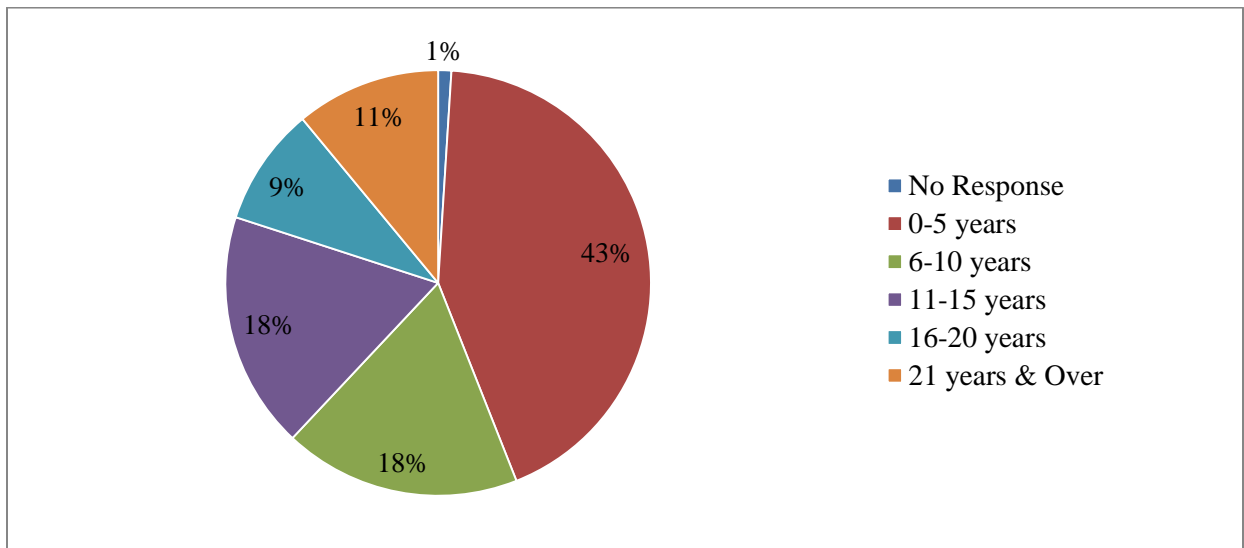
Figure 4.7 depicts that majority of the employees (43%) were 0-5 years in the organization, followed by both 6-10 years and, 11-15 years being 18%. This was closely followed by 21 years and over (11%) and 16-20 years (9%) and, with no responses from 1% of the employees.

Figure 4.8

Composition of Sample: Number of Children
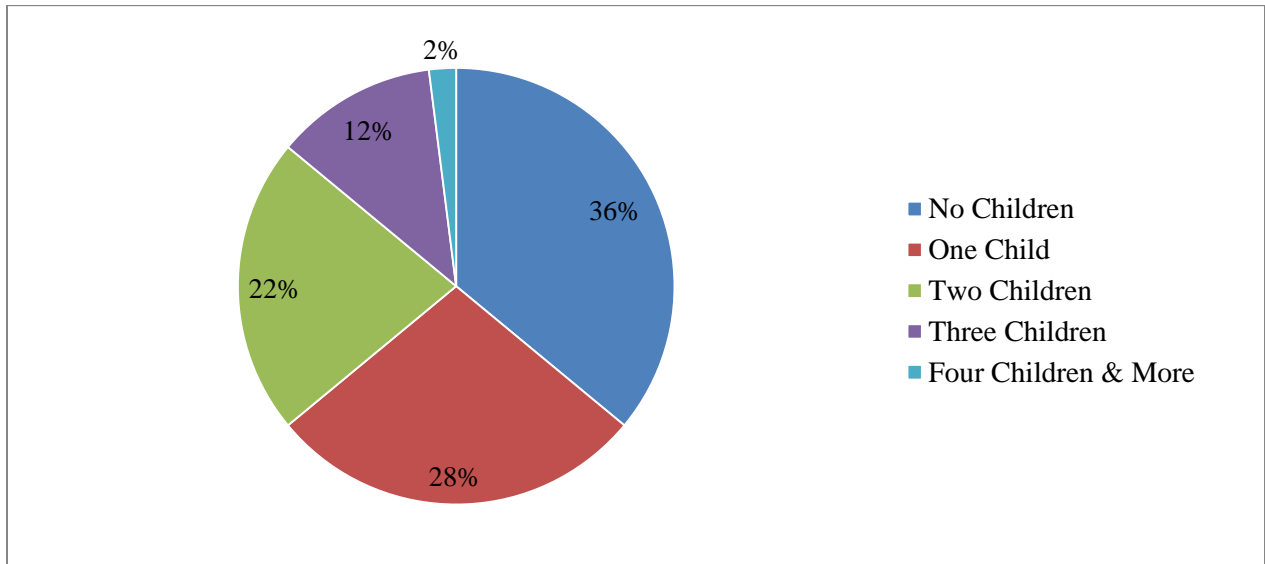
In Figure 4.8, clear evidence is shown that a greater percentage of employees (36%) do not have children, followed closely by one child (28%), two children (22%) and three children (12%). The least percentage for employees with four children and over constituted only 2%.

4.7   Data Collection

The data collection method used was specific to the given situation. Due to the large sample size and the geographical dispersion of respondents, a quantitative research approach was considered to be better suited for this study. A qualitative approach would have required greater resources in the form of money, time and transportation in order to interview respondents and, the quantitative approach provides for generalizability of results which is a priority for this study. The administration of the research instrument adopted for this study could not be time consuming and complex as the subjects involved in this study were employees with time constraints due to work demands.

The data collection process comprised of self-developed questionnaires which were made available to participants. The process of collecting the data was twofold. First, a pilot testing phase was undertaken, followed by the main data collection to the larger population. Although the researcher was initially informed about the difficulties associated with online questionnaires, the questionnaire was made available both electronically and in hard copies, to accommodate the requirements of managers. An introductory e-mail was sent out from a manager in the Human Resources department to several managers from the respective clusters and their personal assistants with the researcher copied in the e-mail.

From this, the interested managers pursued contact with the researcher to confirm the times and locations for the researcher to distribute the questionnaire. For those managers who required the online version, a link was forwarded to the respective manager for onward distribution to his or her staff with the researcher copied on the e-mail. In order to avoid any bias of the results, both the hard copies and the online link of the questionnaire were provided for the total number of employees in each participating office and were distributed for completion during the working day.

In terms of the hard copies, distribution was undertaken by a contact person designated by each manager for each office. This prevented confusion amongst employees and minimized the misplacement of questionnaires. As a result, the selected data collection method was less invasive and ensured minimal disruption by the researcher to the working schedule of managers and employees. Respondents could attend to the questionnaire at their earliest convenience, and the method used was simple and easy to understand.

The researcher maintained contact and conducted follow-ups with the designated individuals from each office every alternate week and all completed questionnaires were collected from each office. Data was collected anonymously and the respondents' names did not appear on the questionnaire. The names only appeared in the declaration of the informed consent form which was detached from the questionnaire before analysis of the data. Therefore, respondents were not identified by names during the data analysis phase.

4.7.1 Questionnaires

"Quantitative studies give one unbiased, measurable, objective results whereas qualitative research is subjective to the interpretation of the researcher, not easily quantifiable and can be biased" (Ramloutan, 2011, p. 36).

The aim of surveys is to provide an overall indication of a representative sample of a large population (Mouton, 2001). Through surveys, an attempt can be made to directly study the characteristics of the population as survey research focuses on attitudes, preferences and opinions (Salkind, 2009). The types of information sought from individuals depends on the study but "evidence may be sought on opinions or beliefs related to behaviours, experiences, activities and attitudes" (Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz, 2010, p. 150).

Previous studies that have tapped into the key variables of this study have also relied on surveys as a quantitative method. For example, Burke *et al*. (2009) developed and pre-tested a questionnaire with a new 15-item measure of work intensity, in investigating the potential antecedents and consequences of work intensity. Similarly, Aziz, Uhrich, Wuensch and Swords (2013) developed a new measure of workaholism based on a literature review of previous research on workaholism, called the Workaholism Analysis Questionnaire (WAQ) which includes items that directly tapped into work-life imbalance. In addition, Aziz and Cunningham (2008) adopted an exploratory approach in assessing potential gender differences of workaholism in relation to work stress and work-life imbalance among white collar professionals across a range of organizations.

4.7.1.1 Nature and Purpose of the Questionnaire

The data collection involved in survey research comprises of a structured questionnaire in which a set of pre-formulated questions are placed in a pre-determined sequence that is distributed to a sample of individuals drawn in order to be representative of a given population (Fox & Bayat, 2007). Questions that appear in a questionnaire can either be open-ended or closed and worded in a positive or negative manner (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). An open-ended question is one where a respondent can choose how to answer a question whereas; a closed question is one where the respondent has to choose from a set of responses outlined by the researcher (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Quantitative studies usually involve close-ended questions (Remenyi *et al.*, 2010). "The assumption is that detailed knowledge is available on the attributes of interest and therefore it is possible to pre-specify the categories of response" (Remenyi *et al.*, 2010, p. 152). "Surveys provide a quick, inexpensive, efficient, and accurate means of assessing information about a population" (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013, p. 186). According to Fox and Bayat (2007), the advantages of using questionnaires include cost-effectiveness in comparison to face-to-face interviews and particularly for large sample sizes, are easy to analyze and can be performed using computer software packages, are familiar, reduce bias and are less intrusive in comparison to telephone or face-to-face surveys.

The researcher utilized a self-developed questionnaire (Annexure A) as this study tapped into a unique perspective by pairing the constructs of work intensification and work-life balance. Hence, there was a need to compile a questionnaire that specifically conceptualized the effect of work intensification (regarded as a stressor) on the dependent variable, work-life balance in a public sector organization. The purpose of the questionnaire was to capture respondent's perceptions concerning their daily experiences in reconciling work and life while managing demands related to work and personal life. Hence, the information extracted from the questionnaire was subjective in nature. Based on this, the aim of the researcher was to provide comprehensive explanations regarding the effect of work intensification on work-life balance in a public sector organization.

4.7.1.2　　Construction of the Questionnaire

The questionnaires were self-administered with each questionnaire accompanied by a research engagement letter and an informed letter of consent. The research engagement letter provided respondents with a clear indication of the purpose of the study, addressed voluntary participation and the option of withdrawal at any time, if they so wished. Furthermore, the contact details of the researcher and her supervisor was clearly outlined in the letter, including an approximate time frame for completing the questionnaire.

This was followed by the letter of informed consent, which was detached prior to data analysis and retained by the researcher. The questionnaire was compiled in the English language, was user-friendly and kept as simple as possible comprising of two sections (Section A and B) which

were clearly distinguished and placed on separate pages. Instructions were clearly and concisely outlined at the beginning of each section to avoid confusion and enhance understanding. For Section A and B, respondents were required to select the appropriate response category and were only allowed to select one response per statement. For Section B, respondents were required to indicate their extent of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

The two main sections of the questionnaire entailed:

- **Section A**

In order to accomplish the objective of this study, it was necessary to incorporate questions of a personal nature that tapped into certain objective variables. Hence, Section A focused on questions pertaining to the biographical variables of respondents which were measured on a nominal and ordinal scale with option categories (Annexure A). The biographical variables included age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children. Respondents were required to mark an X in the appropriate pre-determined response category as provided by the researcher. These questions were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire.

- **Section B**

Section B included a total of fifty-five close ended questions relating to the sub-dimensions of work intensification and work life balance. These statements were presented on a 5-point Likert scale (Annexure A) with precoded option categories. The option categories for the scale included items on a continuum that ranged from strongly disagree (coded as option category 1), disagree (coded as option category 2), neutral (coded as option category 3), agree (coded as option category 4) and strongly agree (coded as option category 5). Respondents were required to mark an X in the appropriate response category on the Likert scale provided by the researcher. The questionnaire predominantly comprised of close ended questions as short and concise answers were required due to the nature of the questions that were illustrated on a scale. Furthermore, Sekaran and Bougie (2010) indicate that in terms of data analysis, information can be easily coded for close ended questions.

There were a total of ten sub-dimensions relating to the key variables of the study. The sub-dimensions for work intensification included:

- Organizational and technological change,
- Work intensity and ergonomic factors,
- Work-related stress and psychological factors,
- Volume of workload and,
- Job insecurity.

The sub-dimensions for work-life balance included:

- Work-family conflict,
- Work flexibility,
- Managerial/supervisory support,
- Child/elderly care and,
- Employee wellness.

The close-ended questions relating to the sub-dimensions for work intensification were presented first in the questionnaire followed by the sub-dimensions for work-life balance. These fifty-five questions included a mixture of positively and negatively worded questions. Questions that were numbered as 6, 7, 9,16,19,24, 26, 31, 32, 34, 35 and 47 were pre-identified as negatively worded questions and required the response scale to be reversed during the data capturing phase.

Organizational and technological change is concerned with internal changes that occur within the work environment and the associated consequences of these changes on the jobs of employees. It addresses the extent to which such changes cause employees to exert greater effort when working. Questions 1 to 5 (organizational change) and questions 6 to 10 (technological change) relate to this sub-dimension of work intensification in the questionnaire.

Work intensity and ergonomic factors is concerned with the ergonomic principles of the workplace that facilitate the job performance of employees. It focuses on the impact of the design of workspaces on employees working patterns and well-being. Questions 11 to 15 relate to this sub-dimension of work intensification.

Work-related stress and psychological factors are concerned with the level of stress experienced by employees within the work context. Focus is placed on the psychological and mental ramifications of such stress and the extent to which these stressors prompt employees into working more intensely. Questions 16 to 20 relate to this sub-dimension of work intensification in the questionnaire.

Volume of workload is concerned with the quantity, complexity, variety and pace involved in the daily performance of the work. Focus is placed on whether employees have the capacity to cope with a greater workload. Questions 21 to 25 relate to this sub-dimension of work intensification.

Job insecurity is concerned with the implications of job uncertainty on the overall well-being of employees. Questions 26 to 30 relate to this sub-dimension of work intensification in the questionnaire.

Work-family conflict is concerned with the influence of work demands on the quality of life and overall life satisfaction of employees. Focus is placed on the issue of imbalance, strain and dissatisfaction. Questions 31 to 35 relate to this sub-dimension of work-life balance.

Work flexibility is concerned with the use of flexible working arrangements to support employees in balancing their work and life roles. Questions 36 to 40 relate to this sub-dimension of work-life balance in the questionnaire.

Managerial/supervisory support is concerned with the role of supportive managers/supervisors in accommodating the work-life balance needs of employees. Questions 41 to 45 relate to this sub-dimension of work-life balance.

Child/elderly care is concerned with the family obligations of employees who are caregivers and providing support structures to employees to assist with managing caregiving responsibilities with work. Questions 46 to 49 relate to this sub-dimension of work-life balance in the questionnaire.

Employee wellness is concerned with the promotion of individual health and well-being. It also takes cognisance of the organizations standpoint in improving the health of the workforce. Questions 50 to 55 relate to this sub-dimension of work-life balance.

At the end of Section B, the researcher included a final open-ended question inviting respondents to indicate any additional comments, if they so wished. This was followed with a final remark of appreciation. The selected research method applied within this study is best suited to the nature of this research as it allows the researcher to achieve the purpose of this study and answer the research questions.

4.7.1.3   Administration of the Questionnaire

In order to commence with the administration of data collection, the population list had to be considered first. Questionnaires were self-administered and an approximate total of 360 questionnaires were issued across the three clusters (inclusive of the pilot and the main study). A total of 25 questionnaires were issued for the pilot, from which only 10 questionnaires were returned. A total of 335 questionnaires were provided for the main data collection, from which only 100 copies were returned. Despite the relevant approval granted by the Municipal Institute of Learning (MILE) offices, approval still had to be secured from individual managers at each office. At the outset, those managers who were interested in the study established contact with the researcher to arrange for data collection. With regard to the pilot study, the managers stipulated a date and time for the researcher to submit the questionnaires to them or their personal assistants which was subsequently presented to respondents. With regard to the main distribution, the same data collection procedure was adopted.

4.7.1.4   In-House Pretesting and Pilot Testing

The pretesting of a questionnaire needs to occur prior to the final administration in order to uncover potential shortcomings in the questionnaire design and administration procedure (Remenyi *et al.*, 2010). A formal approach to pretesting occurs in the form of a pilot study which is a replication of the full study but on a smaller scale (Remenyi *et al.*, 2010). A pilot study is small-scale in nature whereby data is collected from similar respondents that are used for the full study (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013). Pilot studies allow for survey questions to be refined, provides some insight into whether the selected procedures will operate as intended and reduces the risk of the main study being fatally flawed (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013).

A pre-test and pilot of the questionnaire was conducted involving employees from the target population at the municipality. A total of 25 questionnaires were disseminated across the three

clusters for the pilot study, of which only 10 copies were returned. The researcher followed-up with the respective managers and/or their assistants every two weeks. Thereafter, due to time constraints follow-ups were conducted on a weekly basis for the pilot. There were several reasons for undertaking the pre-testing phase for this study. Firstly, the purpose of the pilot was for the researcher to monitor the collection of data on a smaller scale prior to the main distribution. Secondly, it allowed the researcher to test the appropriateness of the instrument. Thirdly, it provided an assessment of the content validity, terminology and reliability of the questionnaire. Fourthly, the pilot assessed the research project's feasibility for this study while ensuring that the questionnaire was not flawed and was easily understood.

Based on the feedback from the pilot, the researcher can conclude that there was face and content validity. The pre-testing phase was followed by the main distribution of the questionnaire to the larger population of employees across the three clusters.

4.7.2 Analysis of Data: Qualitative and Quantitative

According to Zikmund *et al*. (2013), the application of reasoning is used in data analysis in order to understand the data that has been collected. Mouton (2001) explains that through analysis the data can be broken up into manageable themes, trends and relationships. There are two research paradigms that is, qualitative and quantitative, which have extensive differences (Fox & Bayat, 2007). Qualitative business research involves the researcher having to interpret the data collected in order to obtain its meaning and convert it to information, hence making this type of research more researcher-dependent (Zikmund *et al*., 2013). By contrast, quantitative business research requires less interpretation as research objectives use empirical assessments comprising of numerical measurement and analysis approaches (Zikmund *et al*., 2013).

The data analysis techniques used were in accordance with the research study conducted. The data collected from the questionnaire was captured on Excel and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to perform all statistical analyses. The objective of data analysis was to test the hypotheses relating to the key variables of this quantitative study. Through hypothesis testing, the variance in the dependent variable can be explained (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Surveys were utilized to test the respective hypotheses relating to the study

(Mouton, 2001). The statistical findings of this study was analysed and presented in tabulated and graphical form utilizing both descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.8   Descriptive Statistics

Data analysis begins with describing the data by computing a set of descriptive statistics (Salkind, 2009). Descriptive statistics display quantitative data in a graphical form in order for patterns to be detected which are not apparent in the raw data (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

4.8.1 Measures of Central Tendency

The central point of a measure is described by measures of central tendency (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005).

- **Mean**

The mean entails a division of the sum of a set of scores by the number of scores (Salkind, 2009). According to Remenyi *et al*. (2010, p. 210), "the most common measure of location is the mean".

- **Median**

The median refers to the "score or the point in a distribution above which one-half of the scores lie" (Salkind, 2009, p. 157). This is also a measure of location and refers to "the measurement that falls in the middle of the distribution so that there are as many items below it as above it" (Remenyi *et al*., 2010, p. 211).

- **Mode**

The most frequently occurring score is the mode (Salkind, 2009).

4.8.2 Measures of Dispersion or Variability

According to Maylor and Blackmon (2005), measures of dispersion are concerned with how widely data is spread around the central point of measure.

- **Range**

The range is the "difference between the highest and the lowest scores in a distribution" (Salkind, 2009, p. 159). The interquartile range is "a measure of dispersion that represents the

difference between the upper quartile and the lower quartile (the middle 50%) of a frequency distribution arranged in a size order" (Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 244).

- **Standard Deviation**

The standard deviation (abbreviated *s*) is "the average amount that each of the individual scores varies from the mean of the set scores" (Salkind, 2009, p. 160). It provides an indication of the amount of scatter that is present in the evidence (Remenyi *et al*., 2010).

- **Variance**

"The variance is the square of the standard deviation" (Salkind, 2009, p. 161).

4.9 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics infers something with regard to the population from which the sample is taken based on the characteristics (often expressed using descriptive statistics) relating to the sample (Salkind, 2009).

- **Correlation**

According to Collis and Hussey (2009, p. 267), "correlation is a measure of the direction and strength of association between two quantitative variables". A correlation coefficient is "a statistical measure of covariation, or association between two variables" (Zikmund *et al*., 2013, p. 561). "Covariance is the extent to which a change in one variable corresponds systematically to a change in another" (Zikmund *et al*., 2013, p. 561). A Pearson correlation matrix will "indicate the direction, strength, and significance of the bivariate relationships among all the variables that were measured at an interval or ratio level" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 321).

- **t-test**

"The one sample t-test is used to test the hypothesis that the mean of the population from which a sample is drawn is equal to a comparison standard" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 339). According to Maylor and Blackmon (2005), the t-test is the simplest statistical test used for measuring the differences between two groups.

- **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

A hypothesis-testing technique to "determine whether statistically significant differences in means occur between two or more groups" (Zikmund *et al*., 2013, p. 542).

- **Multiple Regression Analysis**

Multiple regression analysis is "an extension of simple regression analysis allowing a metric dependent variable to be predicted by multiple independent variables" (Zikmund *et al*., 2013, p. 586). It also provides an objective assessment of "the degree and the character of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 350).

- **Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA**

The Kruskal-Wallis test is used when there is a nominal variable as well as a ranked/measurement variable in the original data set, in which a one-way ANOVA would not be appropriate (McDonald, 2014). This will test if the mean ranks appear to be the same in all of the groups (McDonald, 2014). This test would be used for an experiment that would generally be analyzed with one-way ANOVA however, since the normality assumption for the one-way ANOVA is not met; the Kruskal-Wallis test would be appropriate (McDonald, 2014). Unlike the normal distribution which can be fully described by the mean and standard deviation parameters, the Kruskal-Wallis test does not have the assumption that these two parameters can completely describe the data that comes from a distribution (McDonald, 2014). The assumption that the data is normally distributed is not held by this test (McDonald, 2014). Hence, the test is performed on ranked data whereby the measurement observations are converted to their ranks in the whole data set (McDonald, 2014).

This is a test whereby comparisons are performed with three or more groups that are unmatched and applies to data that is measured on a continuous scale (GraphPad Software Inc, 2015). The Kruskal-Wallis test is regarded as the nonparametric alternative for the one-way ANOVA (Laerd Statistics, 2013a). It is considered as an extension to the Mann-Whitney U Test to enable more than two independent groups to be compared (Laerd Statistics, 2013a). This test is used to ascertain whether statistically significant differences are present among two or more groups of a variable that is independent on a variable that is continuous or ordinal (Laerd Statistics, 2013a).

There are four assumptions that the data needs to meet in order for the Kruskal-Wallis test to produce a valid result (Laerd Statistics, 2013a). Firstly, the measurement of the dependent variable should occur at the ordinal or continuous level (Laerd Statistics, 2013a). Secondly, the independent variable should comprise of two or more independent groups (Laerd Statistics, 2013a). Thirdly, the independence of observations should exist and lastly, it must be ascertained whether the same shape exists for the distributions in each group (Laerd Statistics, 2013a).

- **Mann-Whitney U test**

The Mann-Whitney U test involves the comparison of differences among two independent groups with an ordinal or continuous dependent variable that is not normally distributed (Laerd Statistics, 2013b). Based on the assumptions that are made regarding data's distribution, this test permits for different conclusions to be drawn in terms of the data which cannot be performed with the independent-samples t-test (Laerd Statistics, 2013b). There are also four assumptions that must be fulfilled in order for the Mann-Whitney U test to produce a valid result (Laerd Statistics, 2013b). Firstly, the measurement of the dependent variable should occur at the ordinal or continuous level (Laerd Statistics, 2013b). Secondly, the independent variable should comprise of two independent groups (Laerd Statistics, 2013b). Thirdly, the independence of observations should exist and lastly, this test can be applied when the two variables do not have a normal distribution (Laerd Statistics, 2013b).

4.10   Statistical Analysis of Questionnaire

There are two criteria that instruments must fulfil in order for the research to be scientific, that is, validity and reliability. Both reliability and validity must be present in all measurement and contributes to the credibility of the research findings deduced.

4.10.1   Validity

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), validity refers to how well an instrument that is developed measures the precise concept it is meant to measure. "Validity is the quality of a test doing what it is designed to do" (Salkind, 2009, p. 117).

Cavana, Delahaye and Sekaran (2001) categorize validity tests according to the following:

- **Face validity** indicates that the items that are being indicated on the questionnaire are "clear and understandable to the subjects" (Cavana *et al*., 2001, p. 212).

- **Content validity** "ensures that the measures include an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept" (Cavana *et al*., 2001, p. 213).

- **Criterion-related validity** is established when the "measure differentiates individuals on a criterion it is expected to predict" (Cavana *et al*., 2001, p. 213).

- **Construct validity** "testifies to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed" (Cavana *et al*., 2001, p. 213).

The validity of the questionnaire will be assessed using Factor Analysis. Factor analysis statistically identifies "a reduced number of factors from a large number of measured variables" (Zikmund *et al*., 2013, p. 595). It also indicates whether the dimensions are tapped by the items in the measure, "as theorized" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The mathematics which is underpinning factor analysis is "the analysis of the inter-relationships between variables as measured by their correlations" (Remenyi *et al*., 2010, p. 223).

4.10.2   Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the findings of research (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Reliable research findings mean that if another individual has to repeat the research, they would obtain the same results (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Similarly, Salkind (2009) explains that if a test measuring the same thing is conducted more than once and produces the same outcomes, that is, reliability. According to Collis and Hussey (2009), the three common ways for determining reliability include:

- **Test re-test method** involves asking questions to the same people, on two separate occasions (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

- **Split-halves method** involves dividing the questionnaire or interview record sheets into two equal halves (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

- **Internal consistency method** involves "every item is correlated with every other item across the sample and the average inter-item correlation is taken as the index of reliability" (Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 206).

The reliability of the questionnaire will be assessed using Cronbach's Coefficient alpha. "Cronbach's alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 324). "The closer Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 324).

4.11   Epistemology and Positivism

The focus of epistemology is on the nature of knowledge, what makes up valid knowledge including, what can be known and who the knower can be (Ryan, 2006). Epistemology deals with the nature as well as forms of knowledge (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007 cited in Scotland, 2012). Krauss (2005) explains epistemology as the philosophy of knowledge. Epistemology involves how knowledge is formed, acquired and the communication of knowledge (Scotland, 2012). Bracken (2010) explains epistemology as matters regarding knowledge creation and distribution in specific areas of inquiry. In terms of theory and methodology, the existence of epistemology resides in the importance of assigning a label to the kind of knowledge claims that are made by way of research narrative or research techniques (Tennis, 2008). The author indicates that research has an epistemic stance that is implicit (Tennis, 2008).

Tennis (2008) details epistemology to be "how we know" and discusses that in knowledge organization, epistemic statements that are implicit are made regarding knowledge of concepts, acts, entities including systems. As a result, knowledge is created and the kind of knowledge is determined by the epistemic stance that is applied (Tennis, 2008). Examples of epistemic stances include positivistic, referential and empiricist, amongst others (Tennis, 2008). Such epistemic stances develop claims regarding the kind of knowledge created by way of research, how it is acquired and the presentation thereof (Tennis, 2008).

Positivist epistemology is concerned with objectivism in which absolute knowledge is acquired by positivists regarding an objective reality (Scotland, 2012). In this stance, the researcher and

what is being researched are considered as entities that are independent (Scotland, 2012). Meaning is derived from objects and does not reside in the researcher's conscience and the researcher aims to acquire this meaning (Scotland, 2012). There are many variations of classical positivism (Ryan, 2006). Statements that are positivistic are descriptive and factual (Scotland, 2012). There is a belief among researchers who are positivist that through experiment and observation, a full understanding can be reached (Ryan, 2006). The emphasis of the positivistic paradigm is that real and factual happenings can be studied and be scientifically and empirically observed (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin, 2014). Furthermore, recommendations that are positivist are concerned with the treatment of symptoms sooner instead of the original source of the problem (Aliyu *et al*., 2014).

4.12   Ethical Considerations

The researcher assumed an ethical stance in the collection and processing of the data gathered with the aim of upholding the integrity of the research. The research engagement letter attached to each questionnaire clearly outlined the purpose of the study which was to establish the effect of work intensification on work-life balance. Furthermore, the letter of informed consent emphasized that participation was voluntary. Unique codes were attached to each questionnaire. Confidentiality and anonymity of participant responses to the questionnaire were maintained at all times and handled in an ethical manner. The researcher secured approval from the Ethical Clearance Committee at the University (Annexure A). Protecting the confidentiality of respondents was a priority in this study hence, the identities of the participating respondents will not be revealed. However, permission was granted by the participating organization to the researcher to reveal their identity in this study.

A presentation was undertaken by the researcher, to the participating organization in order to secure the relevant approval and subsequent access to the relevant managers and employees. Furthermore, the research findings obtained have been used for ethical purposes.

4.13   Conclusion

This chapter justified the research methodology utilized for this quantitative study. The strategies used for the sample selection procedure which included the target population, sampling technique and the appropriate sample size were addressed. A description of the type of

participants selected for data collection from the target organization was presented with the procedure and techniques employed for data analysis. The ethical considerations undertaken by the researcher in maintaining an ethical and credible standpoint was also outlined. The next chapter will present the research findings derived from the primary data collected.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1   Introduction

The data for the study was captured on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and processed using SPSS version 22. The results presented in this chapter were obtained after applying the statistical techniques identified in chapter four. These statistical methods included descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, including the statistical analysis of the questionnaire.

5.2   Descriptive Statistics

In this study, descriptive statistics identifies quantitative data in a graphical form in order for patterns to be detected which are not apparent in the raw data (Collis & Hussey, 2009). This was achieved through measures which included means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values, which were calculated for each of the variables in the study. The respondents were required to respond according to a five point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Neutral (N), Agree (A) to Strongly Agree (SA).

The items of the responses are related to the sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity) and work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness). This enabled the researcher to determine employee perceptions on the two main constructs of the study, that is, work intensification and work-life balance in this organization. The greater the mean score value, the greater the level of employees perceptions on work intensification and work-life balance. The results were processed using descriptive statistics (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

Descriptive Statistics: Dimensions & Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification and Work-life Balance

Dimension	Mean	95% Confidence Interval		Variance	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound				
Work Intensification							
Organizational Change	3.37	3.23	3.51	0.519	0.720	1.00	5.00
Technological Change	2.84	2.74	2.95	0.278	0.527	1.00	4.00
Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	3.54	3.40	3.67	0.457	0.676	2.00	5.00
Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	2.75	2.62	2.88	0.424	0.651	1.00	5.00
Volume of Workload	3.43	3.30	3.56	0.421	0.649	1.00	5.00
Job Insecurity	3.10	2.96	3.24	0.485	0.697	0	4.00
Work-life Balance							
Work-family Conflict	2.71	2.59	2.83	0.349	0.590	1.00	4.00
Work Flexibility	3.63	3.47	3.79	0.650	0.806	1.00	5.00
Managerial/ Supervisory Support	3.37	3.19	3.55	0.801	0.895	1.00	5.00
Child/Elderly Care	2.99	2.87	3.10	0.327	0.572	1.00	4.00
Employee Wellness	3.44	3.31	3.58	0.474	0.688	2.00	5.00

Table 5.1 indicates that the dimensions relating to employee perceptions on work intensification in this organization are occurring at varying degrees. Based on mean analysis, the attainment of the dimensions of work intensification are as follows in descending order:

- Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors (Mean = 3.54)
- Volume of Workload (Mean = 3.43)
- Organizational Change (Mean = 3.37)
- Job Insecurity (Mean = 3.10)
- Technological Change (Mean = 2.84)

- Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors (Mean = 2.75)

The results indicate that for each of the dimensions there is room for improvement as evidenced when the mean score value is compared against a maximum attainable score of five. This implies that the sub-dimension of work intensity and ergonomic factors require the least amount of improvement as opposed to work-related stress and psychological factors which require greater room for improvement in this organization. Hence, employee perceptions of work intensity and ergonomic factors in this organization are fairly high as little improvement is required in this area. The mean scores for the key dimensions of work intensification are depicted in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1

Descriptive Statistics: Key Dimensions of Work Intensification

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification
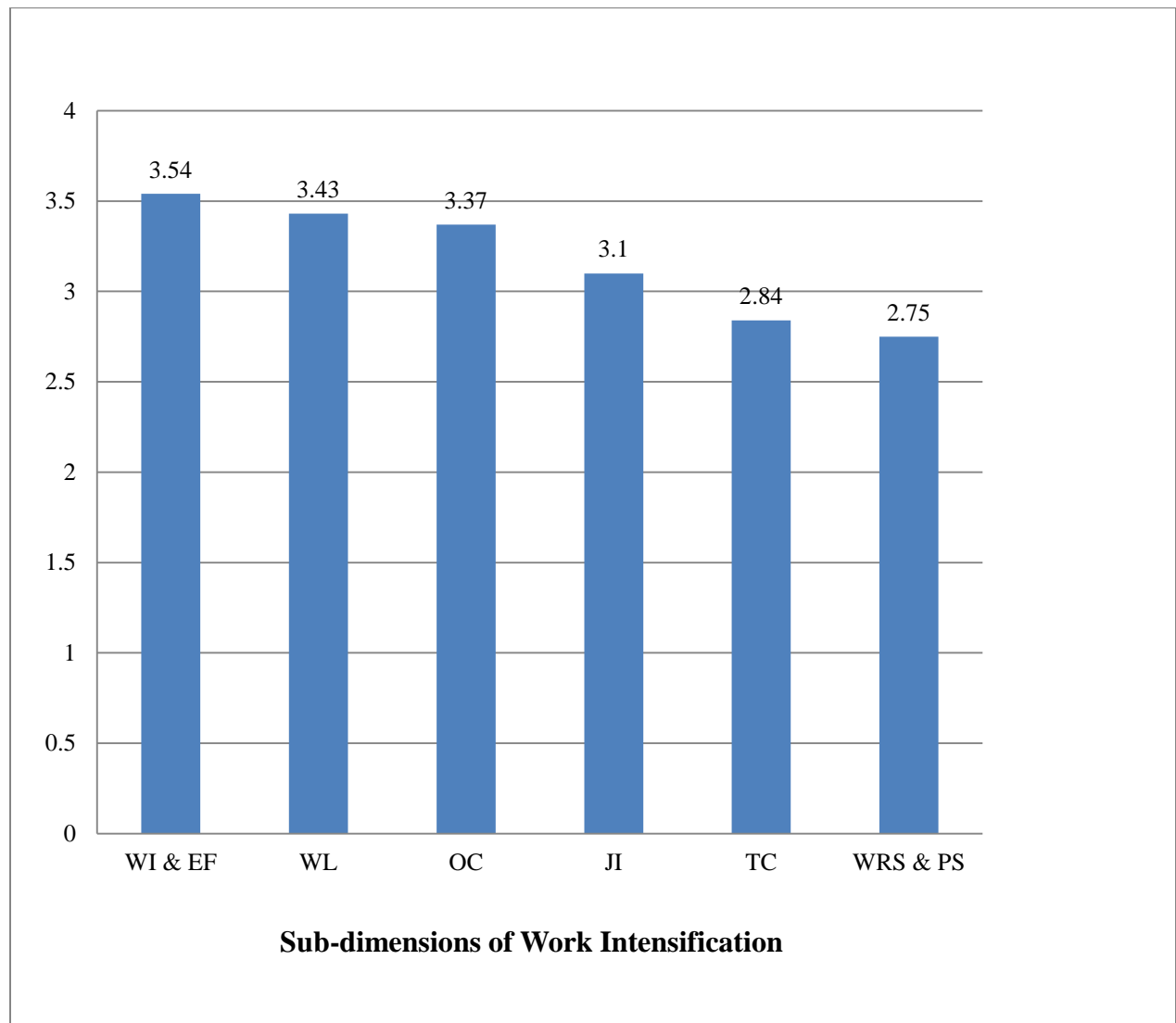
Key for Figure 5.1:

WI & EF   -   Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors

WL   -   Volume of Workload

OC   -   Organizational Change

JI   -   Job Insecurity

TC   -   Technological Change

WRS & PS   -   Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors

Frequency analyses were computed to obtain greater insight into the public sector employee perceptions regarding work intensification. With regard to organizational change, 49% of employees agree and a further 19% strongly agree that the content of their jobs have changed from what it initially was. Furthermore, 16% of the employees disagree and a further 6% strongly disagree that as new staff join the organization, new reporting structures come into place.

With regard to technological change, 42% of employees agree and a further 28% strongly agree that their work revolves heavily with work at the computer which involves prolonged periods of sitting. In addition, 42% of employees disagree and a further 25% strongly disagree that technological advancements have led to the demand for speedy responses with work matters.

With regard to work intensity and ergonomic factors, 64% of employees agree and a further 12% strongly agree that they make adjustments to their work space according to the activities they perform. Furthermore, 12% of employees disagree and a further 7% strongly disagree that staff in their organization feel free to address problems associated with ergonomically supportive work stations.

With regard to work-related stress and psychological factors, 50% of employees agree and a further 13.0% strongly agree that a certain level of work stress compels them to exert greater effort. In addition, 43% of employees disagree and a further 14% strongly disagree that an increase in responsibility leads to their stress levels.

With regard to volume of workload, 65% of employees agree and a further 16% strongly agree that they are able to cope with work even if the volume of work increases. Furthermore, 39% of

employees disagree and a further 21% strongly disagree that there are times when the quantity of their workload compels them to work beyond the normal work hours.

With regard to job insecurity, 44% of employees agree and a further 19% strongly agree that they are willing to accept a job change so that their financial security is intact. In addition, 25% of employees disagree and a further 9% strongly disagree that with job insecurity their overall well-being is negatively affected.

Table 5.1 indicates that the dimensions of work-life balance in this organization are also accomplished at varying degrees. Based on mean analysis, the attainment of the dimensions of work-life balance are as follows in descending order:

- Work Flexibility (Mean = 3.63)
- Employee Wellness (Mean = 3.44)
- Managerial/Supervisory Support (Mean = 3.37)
- Child/Elderly Care (Mean = 2.99)
- Work-family Conflict (Mean = 2.71)

The results indicate that for each of the dimensions there is room for improvement as evidenced when the mean score value is compared against a maximum attainable score of five. This implies that the sub-dimension of work flexibility requires the least amount of improvement as opposed to work-family conflict which requires greater room for improvement in this organization. Hence, employee perceptions of work flexibility in this organization are fairly high as little improvement is required in this area. The mean scores for the key dimensions of work-life balance are depicted in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2

Descriptive Statistics: Key Dimensions of Work-life Balance
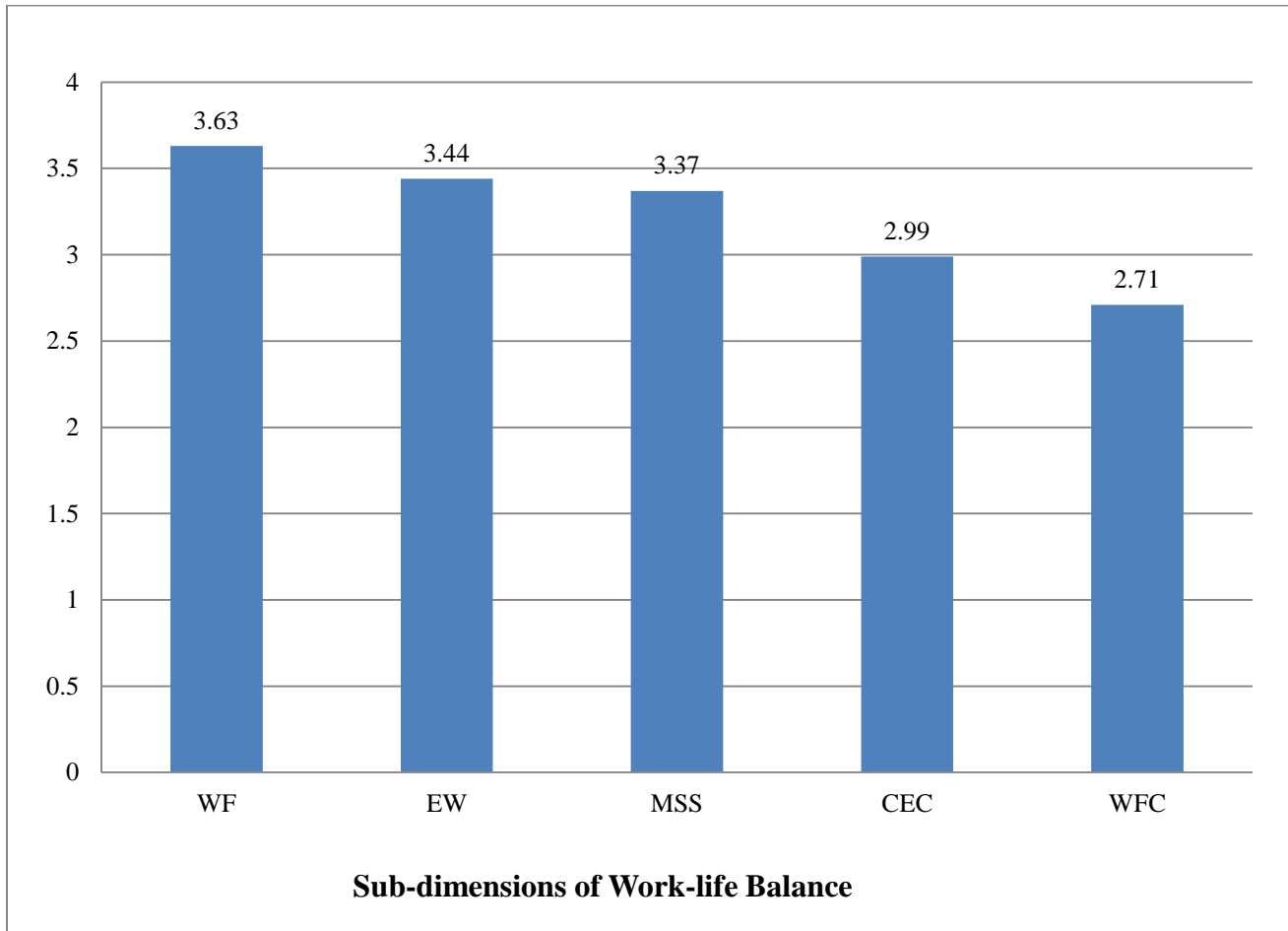
Key for Figure 5.2:

WF   -   Work Flexibility

EW   -   Employee Wellness

MSS   -   Managerial/Supervisory Support

CEC   -   Child/Elderly Care

WFC   -   Work-family Conflict

Frequency analyses were computed to obtain greater insight into the perceptions of public sector employees regarding work-life balance. With regard to work-family conflict, 43% of employees agree and a further 12% strongly agree that there are days when employees experience work-family conflict which affects their quality of life. Furthermore, 54% of employees disagree and a

further 15% strongly disagree that they are constantly trying to avoid conflict with their work and personal life.

With regard to work flexibility, 55% of employees agree and a further 22% strongly agree that flexible work can help employees to balance work with family life more effectively. In addition, only 7% of employees disagree that a compressed work week can help employees to achieve a better work-life balance.

With regard to managerial/supervisory support, 49% of employees agree and a further 12% strongly agree that supervisors make every effort to ensure that staff perform optimally on a continuous basis. Furthermore, 12% of employees disagree and a further 5.0% strongly disagree that supervisors take the initiative to allow flexibility in the work situation when considering home activities.

With regard to child/elderly care, 45% of employees agree and a further 15% strongly agree that employee wellness is a top priority in the organization. In addition, 36% of employees disagree and a further 25% strongly disagree that employees avoid bringing work home as it reduces their level of involvement with family time.

With regard to employee wellness, 48% of employees agree and a further 15% strongly agree that in the long term, employee health benefits the employee. Furthermore, 16% of employees disagree and a further 5% strongly disagree that staff in the organization are given the opportunity to partake in decision-making matters regarding employee wellness.

5.3   Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics were computed for the dimensions of work intensification and work-life balance to enable the researcher to draw conclusions regarding the hypotheses of the study. In order to make decisions on hypotheses, inferential statistics were used, namely Mann-Whitney Test, Analyses of Variance (ANOVA), Multiple Regression, Factor Analysis and Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha.

Hypothesis 1

There exists significant inter-correlations amongst the sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity), respectively.

Table 5.2
Inter-correlations: Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification (N=100)

Work Intensification		Organizational Change	Technological Change	Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	Volume of Workload	Job Insecurity
Organizational Change	r	1					
	p						
Technological Change	r	-0.083	1				
	p	0.414					
Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	r	0.212*	-0.178	1			
	p	0.034	0.076				
Work-related Stress Psychological Factors	r	-0.097	0.380**	0.029	1		
	p	0.336	0.000	0.771			
Volume of Workload	r	0.057	0.123	0.296**	0.336**	1	
	p	0.576	0.223	0.003	0.001		
Job Insecurity	r	0.051	0.318**	0.226*	0.127	0.219*	1
	p	0.616	0.001	0.024	0.209	0.029	

**p< 0.01
*p<0.05

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Table 5.2 reflects that some of the sub-dimensions of work intensification inter-correlate with each other in terms of the following significant relationships:

- Organizational change correlates significantly but inversely with work intensity and ergonomic factors at the 5% level of significance.
- Technological change correlates significantly with work-related stress and job insecurity respectively at the 1% level of significance.
- Work intensity and ergonomic factors correlates significantly with volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.
- Work intensity and ergonomic factors correlate significantly with job insecurity at the 5% level of significance respectively.
- Work-related stress correlates significantly with volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.
- Volume of workload correlates significantly with job insecurity at the 5% level of significance.

Hence, hypothesis 1 may be partially accepted.

Hypothesis 2

There exists significant inter-correlations amongst the sub-dimensions of work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness), respectively.

Table 5.3
Inter-correlations: Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance (N=100)

Work -life Balance		Work-family Conflict	Work Flexibility	Managerial/ Supervisory Support	Child/Elderly Care	Employee Wellness
Work-family Conflict	r	1				
	p					
Work Flexibility Flexibility	r	0.110	1			
	p	0.274				
Managerial/Supervisory Support	r	-0.034	-0.267**	1		
	p	0.738	0.007			
Child/Elderly Care	r	-0.040	-0.023	0.232*	1	
	p	0.696	0.818	0.020		
Employee Wellness	r	-0.115	-0.103	0.209*	0.218*	1
	p	0.255	0.308	0.036	0.029	

**p< 0.01
*p<0.05

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Table 5.3 reflects that only some of the sub-dimensions of work-life balance inter-correlate with each other in terms of the following significant relationships:

- Work flexibility correlates inversely with managerial/supervisory support at the 1% level of significance.
- Managerial/supervisory support correlates with child/elderly care and employee wellness respectively at the 5% level of significance.
- Child/elderly care correlates with employee wellness at the 5% level of significance.

Hence, hypothesis 2 may be partially accepted.

Hypothesis 3

The sub-dimensions of work intensification significantly inter-correlates with the sub-dimensions of work-life balance (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4
Correlations: Dimensions & Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance and Work Intensification

Dimensions & Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification		Dimensions & Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance				
		Work-family Conflict	Work Flexibility	Managerial/ Supervisory Support	Child/Elderly Care	Employee Wellness
Organizational Change	r	-0.061	0.018	0.197*	0.131	0.009
	p	0.544	0.859	0.049	0.195	0.933
Technological Change	r	0.368**	0.132	0.149	0.062	-0.155
	p	0.000	0.190	0.138	0.537	0.124
Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	r	-0.254*	0.021	0.393**	0.181	0.087
	p	0.011	0.837	0.000	0.072	0.391
Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	r	0.533**	0.090	0.232*	0.331**	0.159
	p	0.000	0.372	0.020	0.001	0.115
Volume of Workload	r	0.062	0.264**	0.332**	0.025	0.174
	p	0.540	0.008	0.001	0.807	0.083
Job Insecurity	r	-0.042	0.195	0.015	0.041	-0.123
	p	0.678	0.052	0.886	0.686	0.224

**p<0.01
*p<0.05

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Table 5.4 reflects that only some of the sub-dimensions of work intensification and work-life balance correlate. Hence, hypothesis 3 maybe partially accepted in terms of the following significant relationships:

- Work-family conflict correlates with technological change and work-related stress and psychological factors at the 1% level of significance and, work-family conflict correlates inversely with work intensity and ergonomic factors at the 5% level of significance.
- Work flexibility correlates with volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.
- Managerial/supervisory support correlates with work intensity and ergonomic factors and volume of workload at the 1% level of significance and, managerial/supervisory support correlates with organizational change and work-related stress and psychological factors at the 5% level of significance.
- Child/elderly care correlates with work-related stress and psychological factors at the 1% level of significance.

Hence, hypothesis 3 may be partially accepted.

Table 5.5

Correlation (Spearman's rho): Work Intensification and Work-life Balance

Dimension		r/p	Dimensions of Work-life Balance
Dimensions of Work Intensification	r	1	
	p		
Dimensions of Work-life Balance	r	0.399	1
	p	0.000**	

Table 5.5 reflects that there is a significant relationship between work intensification and work-life balance. Hence, hypothesis 3 is confirmed at the 1% level of significance.

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant difference in the level of work intensification of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

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Table 5.6
Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Difference in perceptions of Work Intensification based on biographical profile

Biographical Variables	Organizational Change		Technological Change		Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors		Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors		Volume of Workload		Job Insecurity		Overall Work Intensification	
	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p
Age	1.040	0.792	2.711	0.438	0.779	0.854	4.196	0.241	11.581	0.009*	10.918	0.012*	7.171	0.067
Marital Status	6.068	0.108	3.620	0.306	3.123	0.373	3.795	0.284	18.881	0.000*	10.727	0.013*	16.529	0.001*
Race	6.167	0.104	1.717	0.633	5.938	0.115	14.131	0.003*	3.083	0.379	0.638	0.888	11.040	0.012*
Educational Qualification	4.441	0.350	9.665	0.046*	1.136	0.889	11.038	0.026*	9.025	0.060	6.194	0.185	8.577	0.073
Position in Organization	2.519	0.284	0.006	0.997	7.208	0.027*	2.957	0.228	8.230	0.016*	11.783	0.003*	12.350	0.002*
Length of Service	10.038	0.040*	3.107	0.540	4.974	0.290	22.130	0.000*	22.341	0.000*	4.979	0.289	18.570	0.001*
Number of Children	6.088	0.193	3.365	0.499	1.266	0.867	1.666	0.797	11.493	0.022*	8.241	0.083	7.648	0.105

*p<0.05

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Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in age with regards to volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.
- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in age with regards to job insecurity at the 5% level of significance.
- The age of employees does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of age. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Age

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Age	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Volume of Workload	Under 25	3.72	0.575	13	0.009*
	25-34	3.48	0.810	39	
	35-44	3.27	0.486	31	
	45 & above	3.39	0.482	17	
Job Insecurity	Under 25	3.14	0.525	13	0.012*
	25-34	3.18	0.849	39	
	35-44	3.19	0.578	31	
	45 & above	2.69	0.496	17	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.7) indicate that:

- With regard to volume of workload, employees who were under 25 years of age (Mean = 3.72) were significantly different from those between 35-44 years of age (Mean = 3.27).

Clearly, the former believe more strongly than the latter that their volume of workload contributes to work intensification.

- Employees between the ages of 25-34 years of age (Mean = 3.48), followed by those who were 45 years and above (Mean = 3.39) were more convinced that volume of workload contributes to work intensification than those employees who were 35-44 years (Mean = 3.27).

- Furthermore, with regard to job insecurity, employees who were between 35-44 years of age (Mean = 3.19) and 25-34 years of age (Mean = 3.18) were significantly different from those employees who were 45 years and above (Mean = 2.69). This indicates that the former were more convinced that their job insecurity adds to work intensification than the later.

- Employees who were under 25 years of age (Mean = 3.14) were convinced that job insecurity is a contributing factor in work intensification than those who were 45 years and above (Mean = 2.69). Younger employees in this organization strongly believe that job insecurity leads to work intensification when compared to older employees. This may be attributed to the fact that younger employees did not serve the organization for many years as older employees.

Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in marital status with regards to volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in marital status with regards to job insecurity at the 5% level of significance.

- The marital status of employees does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of marital status. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.8).

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Table 5.8

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Marital Status

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Marital Status	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Volume of Workload	Single	3.60	0.640	56	0.000*
	Married	3.14	0.589	35	
	Divorced	3.37	0.674	6	
	Widowed	3.80	0.346	3	
Job Insecurity	Single	3.22	0.739	56	0.013*
	Married	2.99	0.613	35	
	Divorced	2.83	0.612	6	
	Widowed	2.47	0.503	3	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.8) indicate that:

- With regard to volume of workload, employees who are widowed (Mean = 3.80) followed by those who are single (Mean = 3.60) were significantly different from those were divorced (Mean = 3.37) and married (Mean = 3.14). Hence, widowed and single employees believe more strongly than the latter that their volume of workload contributes to work intensification.

- Furthermore, with regard to job insecurity, employees who are single (Mean =3.22) were significantly different from those employees who were widowed (Mean = 2.47). Thus, the marital status of these employees show that the former were more convinced that their job insecurity leads to work intensification than the later.

- Employees who are married (Mean = 2.99) and those who are divorced (Mean = 2.83) were convinced that job insecurity contributes to work intensification than those who are widowed (Mean = 2.47).

- The marital status of employees does not affect any of the other sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference of employees varying in race with regards to work-related stress and psychological factors at the 1% level of significance.
- Furthermore, the race of employees does not influence employee perceptions of any of the sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of race. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Race

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Race	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	Coloured	2.85	1.104	8	0.003*
	White	1.97	0.618	11	
	Indian	2.85	0.485	24	
	African	2.84	0.547	57	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.9) indicate that:

- With regard to work-related stress and psychological factors, employees who were Coloured (Mean = 2.85), Indian (Mean = 2.85) and African (Mean = 2.84) differ significantly from those who were White employees (Mean = 1.97). The three race groups (Coloured, Indian, African), were convinced that work-related stress and psychological factors contributes to work intensification than white employees in this organization.

Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in educational qualifications with regards to technological change and work-related stress and psychological factors at the 5% level of significance.

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- The educational qualification of employees does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimensions and sub-dimension of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of educational qualifications. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Educational Qualification

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Educational Qualifications	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Technological Change	0	2.80		1	0.046*
	Standard 8-10	2.45	0.684	13	
	Diploma/Certificate	2.89	0.466	37	
	Undergraduate Degree	2.78	0.544	18	
	Post-graduate Degree	3.00	0.463	29	
	Post-graduate Diploma/ Certificate	3.00	0.283	2	
Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	0	3.50		1	0.026*
	Standard 8-10	2.24	0.516	13	
	Diploma Certificate	2.80	0.497	37	
	Undergraduate Degree	2.69	0.869	18	
	Post-graduate Degree	2.92	0.626	29	
	Post-graduate Diploma/ Certificate	2.58	1.061	2	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.10) indicate that:

- With regards to technological change, employees who have Post-graduate Degrees (Mean = 3.00) and Post-graduate Diplomas/Certificates (Mean = 3.00) were significantly different

from those who have a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.45). Those with educational qualifications were more convinced than those with high school education that technological change contributes to work intensification.

- Employees who have a Diploma/Certificate (Mean = 2.89), followed by those with an undergraduate Degree (Mean = 2.78), were more convinced that technological change contributes to work intensification than those employees with a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.45).

Employees with degrees and certificates strongly believe that technological change affected their work in this organization, and hence work intensification.

- Furthermore, with regard to work-related stress and psychological factors, employees with a Post-graduate Degree (Mean = 2.92) and a Diploma/Certificate (Mean = 2.80) were significantly different from those employees with a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.24). Hence, those with higher qualifications were more convinced that work-related stress and psychological factors leads to work intensification than the later.
- Employees with an Undergraduate degree (Mean = 2.69) followed by Post-graduate Diplomas/Certificates (Mean = 2.58) were convinced that work-related stress and psychological factors is a contributing factor in work intensification than those with a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.24).

Employees with degrees and certificates were convinced that work-related stress and psychological factors adds to work intensification. Employees with a high school education were not convinced that both technological change and work-related stress and psychological factors affect work intensification.

Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in position in this organization with regard to work intensity and ergonomic factors and volume of workload at the 5% level of significance.
- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in position in this organization with regard to job insecurity at the 1% level of significance.

- Employee's position in this organization does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of position in organization. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.11).

Table 5.11

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Position in Organization

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Position in Organization	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	0	3.60	0.566	2	0.027*
	Manager	3.11	0.609	15	
	Supervisor	3.67	0.658	18	
	Employee	3.60	0.674	65	
Volume of Workload	0	3.90	0.424	2	0.016*
	Manager	3.13	0.543	15	
	Supervisor	3.18	0.814	18	
	Employee	3.55	0.589	65	
Job Insecurity	0	3.20	0.283	2	0.003*
	Manager	2.68	0.439	15	
	Supervisor	3.00	0.669	18	
	Employee	3.22	0.728	65	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.11) indicate that:

- With regard to work intensity and ergonomic factors, supervisors (Mean = 3.67), followed by employees (Mean = 3.60) were significantly different from managers (Mean = 3.11). Supervisors and employees are convinced that work intensity and ergonomic factors contribute to work intensification than those in managerial positions.

- In addition, with regard to volume of workload, employees (Mean = 3.55) were significantly different from supervisors (Mean = 3.18) and managers (Mean = 3.13). Thus, in the hierarchical structure, employees were more convinced than managers and supervisors that volume of workload contributes to work intensification.
- Furthermore, with regard to job insecurity, employees (Mean = 3.22) and supervisors (Mean = 3.00) were significantly different from managers (Mean = 2.68). Employees and supervisors were more convinced that job insecurity leads to work intensification than those in managerial positions.

Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in length of service with regards to organizational change at the 5% level of significance.
- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in length of service with regards to work-related stress and psychological factors and volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.
- The length of service of employees does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of length of service. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Length of Service

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Length of Service	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Organizational Change	0	3.80	0	1	0.040*
	0-5 years	3.37	0.659	43	
	6-10 years	3.13	0.881	18	
	11-15 years	3.20	0.683	18	
	16-20 years	3.76	0.882	9	
	21 years & over	3.69	0.404	11	
Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	0	3.33	0	1	0.000*
	0-5 years	3.08	0.479	43	
	6-10 years	2.59	0.717	18	
	11-15 years	2.45	0.628	18	
	16-20 years	2.17	0.640	9	
	21 years & over	2.61	0.579	11	
Volume of Workload	0	3.60	0	1	0.000*
	0-5 years	3.77	0.402	43	
	6-10 years	2.98	0.800	18	
	11-15 years	3.19	0.771	18	
	16-20 years	3.29	0.575	9	
	21 years & over	3.35	0.370	11	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.12) indicate that:

- With regard to organizational change, employees with 16-20 years of service (Mean = 3.76) and 21 years and over (Mean = 3.69) were significantly different from those with 6-10 years of service (Mean = 3.13). With organizational change, the former believe more strongly that these types of changes affect their work intensification in this organization.

- Employees with 0-5 years of service (Mean = 3.37), followed by employees with 11-15 years of service (Mean = 3.20) were more convinced that organizational change contributes to work intensification than employees with 6-10 years of service (Mean = 3.13).

The greater the length of service, the more convinced employees are that organizational change impacts on work intensification.

- Furthermore, with regard to work-related stress and psychological factors, employees with 0-5 years of service (Mean = 3.08) were significantly different from those with 16-20 years of service (Mean = 2.17). Hence, work-related stress and psychological factors is another factor that contributes to work intensification in this organization.
- Employees with 21 years and over (Mean = 2.61), followed by those with 6-10 years of service (Mean = 2.59) were more convinced than employees with 11-15 years of service (Mean = 2.45) in this organization that work-related stress and psychological factors adds to work intensification than those with 16-20 years of service (Mean = 2.17).

Work-related stress and psychological factors varies with the length of service of employees in this organization.

- Furthermore, with regard to volume of workload, employees with 0-5 years of service (Mean = 3.77) were significantly different from those with 6-10 years of service (Mean = 2.98). Thus, the former employees are more convinced that their volume of workload contributes to a greater extent to work intensification.
- Employees with 21 years of service and more (Mean = 3.35), followed by employees with 16-20 years of service (Mean = 3.29) and 11-15 years of service (Mean = 3.19) were more convinced that volume of workload contributes to work intensification than employees with 6-10 years of service (Mean = 2.98).

Table 5.6 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in number of children with regards to volume of workload at the 5% level of significance.

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- The number of children does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted in terms of number of children. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Number of Children

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Number of Children	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Volume of Workload	No Children	3.48	0.755	36	0.022*
	One Child	3.49	0.707	28	
	Two Children	3.51	0.384	22	
	Three Children	2.98	0.471	12	
	Four Children or more	3.50	0.141	2	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.13) indicate that:

- With regard to volume of workload, employees with two children (Mean = 3.51), four children or more (Mean= 3.50), one child (Mean = 3.49) and no children (Mean = 3.48) were significantly different from those with three children (Mean = 2.98). Most of the employees including those with no children were convinced that volume of workload contributes to work intensification.

Hence, hypothesis 4 may be partially accepted.

Table 5.14

Mann-Whitney Test: Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification and Gender

Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Organizational Change	1143.000	-0.688	0.491
Technological Change	1162.500	-0.556	0.578
Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	1128.500	-0.789	0.430
Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	1151.500	-0.628	0.530
Volume of Workload	1216.000	-0.182	0.856
Job Insecurity	1053.500	-1.311	0.190
Work Intensification	1044.500	-1.366	0.172

Table 5.14 indicates that there is no significant difference in the dimension and sub-dimensions of work intensification between male and female groups in this organization.

Hypothesis 4 is rejected in terms of gender.

Hypothesis 5

There is a significant difference in the level of work-life balance of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

Table 5.15

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Difference in perceptions of Work-life Balance based on biographical profile

Biographical Variables	Work-family Conflict		Work Flexibility		Managerial/ Supervisory Support		Child/Elderly Care		Employee Wellness		Overall Work-life Balance	
	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p	x^2	p
Age	6.191	0.103	7.784	0.051	0.713	0.870	8.155	0.043*	7.964	0.047*	2.744	0.433
Marital Status	2.906	0.406	4.227	0.238	4.672	0.197	0.531	0.912	3.848	0.278	0.447	0.930
Race	10.923	0.012*	7.559	0.056	0.967	0.809	5.111	0.164	0.984	0.805	9.499	0.023*
Educational Qualifications	12.877	0.012*	3.741	0.442	4.922	0.295	13.848	0.008*	4.910	0.297	5.460	0.243
Position in Organization	4.144	0.126	2.188	0.335	0.475	0.789	0.923	0.630	3.715	0.156	3.068	0.216
Length of Service	3.363	0.499	14.283	0.006*	4.005	0.405	4.031	0.402	1.474	0.831	9.279	0.054
Number of Children	2.643	0.619	6.490	0.165	3.767	0.438	5.388	0.250	5.669	0.225	0.971	0.914

*p<0.05

Table 5.15 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in age with regards to child/elderly care and employee wellness at the 5% level of significance.
- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in race with regards to work-family conflict and overall work-life balance at the 5% level of significance.
- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying with educational qualifications and work-family conflict at the 5% level of significance and with child/elderly care at the 1% level of significance.
- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in length of service and work-family and work flexibility at the 1% level of significance.

No other significant differences are noted.

Hence, hypothesis 5 may be partially accepted in terms of age. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.16).

Table 5.16

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Age

Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance	Age	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Child/Elderly Care	Under 25	2.65	0.584	13	0.043*
	25-34	3.08	0.656	39	
	35-44	2.94	0.374	31	
	45 & above	3.12	0.588	17	
Employee Wellness	Under 25	3.22	0.900	13	0.047*
	25-34	3.66	0.631	39	
	35-44	3.25	0.628	31	
	45 & above	3.49	0.641	17	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.16) indicate that:

- With regard to child/elderly care, employees who were 45 years and above (Mean = 3.12) and 25-34 years of age (Mean = 3.08) differ to a large extent from those under 25 years of age (Mean = 2.65). The former believe more strongly than the latter that with child/elderly care there is a better balance between work and home life.

- Employees between 35-44 years of age (Mean = 2.94) were more convinced that with child/elderly care they are able to focus on their work than employees who were under 25 years of age (Mean = 2.65).

- In addition, with regard to employee wellness, employees who were between 25-34 years of age (Mean = 3.66) differ to a large extent from those who were 34-44 years of age (Mean = 3.25) and those under 25 years of age (Mean = 3.22). Clearly, the former believe more strongly than the latter that employee wellness contributes to work-life balance.

- Employees who were 45 years and above (Mean = 3.49), followed by employees between 25-34 years of age (Mean = 3.66) were more convinced than those between 35-44 years of age (Mean = 3.25) and under 25 years of age (Mean = 3.22) that employee wellness contributes to employee well-being and an improved lifestyle of employees.

Table 5.15 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in race with regards to work-family conflict at the 5% level of significance.

- The race of employees does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work-life balance.

Hence, hypothesis 5 may be partially accepted in terms of race. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.17).

Table 5.17

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Race

Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance	Race	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Work-family Conflict	Coloured	3.05	0.715	8	0.012*
	White	2.22	0.442	11	
	Indian	2.84	0.575	24	
	African	2.70	0.557	57	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.17) indicate that:

- With regard to work-family conflict, employees who were Coloured (Mean = 3.05) were significantly different from those who were White (Mean = 2.22). Hence, Coloured employees are convinced that with work-family conflict there is a strain on employees which then impacts on family life.

- Employees who are Indian (Mean = 2.84), followed by employees who were African (Mean = 2.70) were more convinced that work-family conflict affects work-life balance negatively than employees who were White (Mean = 2.22).

The overall work and life balance of the three race groups (Indian, African, Coloured) is relatively high in this organization, than white employees.

Table 5.15 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in educational qualification with regards to work-family conflict at the 5% level of significance.

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in educational qualification with regards to child/elderly care at the 1% level of significance.

- The educational qualification of employees does not influence any of the other dimension and sub-dimensions of work-life balance.

Hence, hypothesis 5 may be partially accepted in terms of educational qualification. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.18).

Table 5.18

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Educational Qualifications

Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance	Educational Qualifications	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Work-family Conflict	0	3.60		1	0.012*
	Standard 8-10	2.26	0.350	13	
	Diploma Certificate	2.64	0.516	37	
	Undergraduate Degree	2.72	0.648	18	
	Post-graduate Degree	2.96	0.624	29	
	Post-graduate Diploma/ Certificate	2.70	0.141	2	
Child/Elderly Care	0	3.20		1	0.008*
	Standard 8-10	2.85	0.726	13	
	Diploma Certificate	3.23	0.378	37	
	Undergraduate Degree	2.71	0.618	18	
	Post-graduate Degree	2.92	0.608	29	
	Post-graduate Diploma/ Certificate	2.80	0.283	2	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.18) indicate that:

- With regard to work-family conflict, employees with a Post-graduate degree (Mean = 2.96) were significantly different from those with a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.26). Clearly, those with a Post-graduate degree feel the strain with work and family support.
- Employees with an Undergraduate degree (Mean = 2.72), followed by employees with a Post-graduate Diploma/Certificate (Mean = 2.70) and a Diploma/Certificate (Mean = 2.64)

were more convinced that work-family conflict affects their quality of work life negatively than employees with a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.26).

Hence, the higher the qualification, the more convinced employees are that work-family conflict affects work and personal life and the quality of life of employees.

- Furthermore, with regards to child/elderly care, employees who with a Diploma/Certificate (Mean = 3.23) were significantly different from those with an Under-graduate degree (Mean = 2.71). Thus, the former employees feel that their organization takes cognizance and is sensitive to their needs.
- Employees with a Post-graduate degree (Mean = 2.92), followed by employees with a Standard 8-10 (Mean = 2.85) and a Post-graduate Diploma/Certificate (Mean = 2.80) were more convinced that child/elderly care is consistent in this organization, in comparison to employees who have Undergraduate degrees (Mean = 2.71).

Table 5.15 indicates that:

- There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees varying in length of service with regards to work flexibility at the 1% level of significance.
- The length of service of employees does not influence the perceptions of any of the other dimension and sub-dimension of work-life balance.

Hence, the hypothesis 5 may be partially accepted in terms of length of service. In order to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was computed (Table 5.19).

Table 5.19

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Length of Service

Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance	Length of Service	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	p
Work Flexibility	0	3.40	0	1	0.006*
	0-5 years	3.83	0.688	43	
	6-10 years	3.56	0.880	18	
	11-15 years	3.27	0.598	18	
	16-20 years	2.96	1.224	9	
	21 years & over	4.13	0.467	11	

The mean differences in the Kruskal-Wallis test results (Table 5.19) indicate that:

- With regard to work flexibility, employees with 21 years and over (Mean = 4.13) were significantly different from those with a 16-20 years of service (Mean = 2.96). The former believe more strongly than the latter that work flexibility helps them to cope more effectively with their stress levels and to be more productive.

- Employees with 0-5 years of service (Mean = 3.83), followed by employees with 6-10 years of service (Mean = 3.56) and 11-15 years of service (Mean = 3.27) were more convinced that with work flexibility employees will not tire easily than employees with a 16-20 years of service (Mean = 2.96) in this organization.

With regard to the overall work-life balance, there is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees relating to race and work-family conflict.

Hence, hypothesis 5 may be partially accepted.

Table 5.20

Mann-Whitney Test: Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance and Gender

Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Work-family Conflict	1190.500	-0.359	0.720
Work Flexibility	1108.500	-0.928	0.353
Managerial/Supervisory Support	1172.500	-0.483	0.629
Child/Elderly Care	1121.000	-0.843	0.399
Work-life Balance	1218.000	-0.166	0.868

Table 5.20 indicates that there is no significant difference in the dimension and sub-dimensions of work-life balance between male and female groups in this organization.

Hypothesis 5 is rejected in terms of gender.

Hypothesis 6

The dimensions and sub-dimensions of work intensification significantly account for the variance in determining employee perceptions of work intensification in this organization.

Table 5.21

Multiple Regression: The Effect of Work-life Balance Factors on Work Intensification

Model	R		R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.359[a]		0.129	0.120	0.33504
2	0.423[b]		0.179	0.162	0.32697
	Unstandardized Coefficients		**Standardized Coefficients**		
Model	**B**	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**
1 (Constant)	2.689	0.131		20.508	0.000
Managerial/Supervisory Support	0.143	0.038	0.359	3.804	0.000
2 (Constant)	2.233	0.205		11.201	0.000
Managerial/Supervisory Support	0.150	0.037	0.376	4.070	0.000
Work-family Conflict	0.136	0.056	0.224	2.428	0.017
Excluded Variables					
Employee Wellness	-0.016	-0.169	0.866	-0.017	0.939
Work Flexibility	0.129	1.337	0.184	0.135	0.905
Child/Elderly Care	0.160	1.686	0.095	0.170	0.926

Table 5.21 indicates that 12% of the variance in work intensification is due to the effect of work-life balance factors. Table 5.21 also indicates that two sub-dimensions of work-life balance significantly account for the variance at the 5% level of significance, and these factors include managerial/supervisory support and, work-family conflict. The Beta values in Table 5.21 indicate that managerial/supervisory support (Beta = 0.376) has a negligibly higher impact on work-life balance than work-family conflict (Beta = 0.224). Hence, hypothesis 6 is accepted. However, caution is expressed with regards to the low R square value especially when used for the purpose of prediction.

Hypothesis 7

The dimensions and sub-dimensions of work life balance significantly account for the variance in determining work-life balance in this organization.

Table 5.22

Multiple Regression: The Effect of Work Intensification factors on Work-life Balance

Model	R		R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.514[a]		0.265	0.257	0.31839
2	0.543[b]		0.295	0.281	0.31330
	Unstandardized Coefficients		**Standardized Coefficients**		
Model	**B**	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**
1 (Constant) Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	2.425 0.292	0.139 0.049	0.514	17.488 5.937	0.000 0.000
2 (Constant) Work-related Stress & Psychological Factors	2.172 0.248	0.184 0.053	0.438	11.799 4.706	0.000 0.000
Volume of Workload	0.109	0.053	0.191	2.053	0.043
Excluded Variables					
Technological Change	0.046	0.490	0.626	0.050	0.841
Job Insecurity	-0.041	-0.473	0.638	-0.048	0.961
Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors	0.096	1.067	0.289	0.108	0.902
Organizational Change	0.123	1.437	0.154	0.145	0.976

Table 5.22 indicates that 26% of the variance in work-life balance is due to the effect of work intensification factors. Table 5.22 also indicates that two sub- dimensions of work intensification significantly account for the variance at the 5% level of significance, and these factors include work-related stress and psychological factors and, volume of workload. The Beta values in Table 5.22 indicate that work-related stress and psychological factors (Beta = 0.438) has a considerably higher impact on work intensification than volume of workload (Beta = 0.191). Hence, hypothesis 7 is accepted. However, caution is expressed with regards to the low R square value especially when used for the purpose of prediction.

5.4   Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire

The validity and reliability of the questionnaire has been statistically determined using Factor Analysis and Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha respectively.

Table 5.23 Factor Analysis: Validity of Instrument Measuring Work Intensification

	Component					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
B1	-0.559	-0.240			0.210	0.174
B2	0.118		0.108		0.408	0.202
B3	-0.578	0.199		-0.485		0.147
B4		0.397	-0.120	0.318	0.637	
B5		0.126	0.142		0.662	
B6	0.689	-0.142				0.253
B7	0.713	0.130			0.119	0.149
B8	-0.345	-0.236	0.186	0.438	0.132	0.182
B9	0.374		0.109	-0.482	0.209	-0.116
B10	-0.333	-0.218				0.335
B11		0.766				
B12		0.793			0.178	
B13		0.300	0.167	0.573	-0.113	
B14		0.484	0.366	0.323	0.168	-0.210
B15		-0.129	0.331	0.385	0.118	0.302
B16	0.721		0.129	-0.211	0.234	-0.163
B17			-0.123	0.742	0.197	
B18	0.467		0.357			
B19	0.462		0.212	-0.228	0.418	
B20	0.627	-0.180	0.139			-0.133
B21		0.346	0.116		-0.592	0.154
B22			0.808			
B23		0.466	0.143	-0.119	-0.204	0.201
B24	0.118	0.167	0.599	0.395		-0.163
B25	0.510	-0.145	-0.115	0.119	0.165	-0.143
B26			0.701			0.192
B27	0.398	-0.261	0.271		0.382	
B28		0.363	0.156	-0.107		0.503
B29					-0.220	0.644
B30	-0.117					0.530
B31		0.124	-0.233	0.181	0.191	0.660
EIGEN Value	3.840	2.62	2.33	2.27	2.17	2.80
% of Variance	12.39	8.46	7.50	7.33	6.99	6.71

Table 5.23 indicates that seven items load significantly on Factor 1 and account for 12.39% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work intensification. Two items relate to organizational change, two items relate to technological change, two items related to work-related stress and psychological factors and, one item relates to volume of workload. Since the highest average weighting relates to technological changes Factor 1 will be labelled as technological change.

Table 5.23 indicates that two items load significantly on Factor 2 and account for 8.46% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work intensification. Two items relate to ergonomic factors and Factor 2 may be labelled as ergonomic factors.

Table 5.23 indicates that three items load significantly on Factor 3 and account for 7.50% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work intensification. Two items load on volume of workload and one item loads on job insecurity. Since two items load on volume of workload Factor 3 may be labelled likewise.

Table 5.23 indicates that two items load significantly on Factor 4 and account for 7.33% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work intensification. One item relates to ergonomic factors and also one item relates to work-related stress and psychological factors. Since the highest average weighting relates to work-related stress and psychological factors Factor 4 will be labelled likewise.

Table 5.23 indicates that three items load significantly on Factor 5 and account for 6.99% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work intensification. Two items relate to organizational change and one item relates to volume of workload. Since two items relate to organizational change Factor 5 will be labelled likewise.

Table 5.23 indicates that four items load significantly on Factor 6 and account for 6.71% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work intensification. Three items related to job insecurity and one item relates to work-family conflict. Since the majority of the items relate to job insecurity Factor 6 will be labelled likewise.

Table 5.24

Factor Analysis: Validity of Instrument Measuring Work-life Balance

	Component				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
C1	0.755				-0.139
C2	0.842				
C3	-0.825	-0.163			
C4	0.583	-0.130	-0.230		
C5	0.785		0.237		-0.169
C6	0.103	-0.305	0.668		
C7		-0.110	0.266	0.597	
C8	0.239	-0.306	0.196	0.287	0.284
C9			0.248	0.755	-0.214
C10	0.131	-0.464	0.391		0.283
C11			0.739		0.143
C12			0.192		0.730
C13		0.193	0.709		
C14	-0.130	0.201	0.342		0.644
C15	-0.266	0.281	0.678	0.135	
C16			-0.333		0.598
C17	0.161	-0.233	0.306	-0.653	-0.175
C18		0.372		0.224	0.368
C19		-0.120		0.526	0.405
C20	0.239	0.379	0.200	-0.304	0.260
C21	0.140	0.652			
C22	0.234			0.209	
C23	0.161	0.520	0.141	0.412	-0.163
C24	-0.152	0.811		-0.144	0.163
C25		0.831			0.137
EIGEN Value	3.34	3.04	2.83	2.14	2.08
% of Variance	13.35	12.18	11.30	8.56	8.33

Table 5.24 indicates that five items load significantly on Factor 1 and account for 13.35% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work-life balance. Five items relate to work family conflict. Since majority of the items relate to work-family conflict Factor 1 will be labelled as work-family conflict.

Table 5.24 indicates that four items load significantly on Factor 2 and account for 12.18% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work-life balance. Four items relate to employee wellness. Since majority of the items related to employee wellness, Factor 2 will be labelled likewise.

Table 5.24 indicates that four items load significantly on Factor 3 and account for 11.30% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work-life balance. Three items relate to managerial/supervisory support and one item relates to work flexibility. Since majority of the items relate to managerial/supervisory support Factor 3 will be labelled likewise.

Table 5.24 indicates that four items load significantly on Factor 4 and account for 8.56% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work-life balance. Two items relate to work flexibility and two items relate to child/elderly care. Since the highest average weighting relates to work flexibility Factor 4 will be labelled likewise.

Table 5.24 indicates that three items load significantly on Factor 5 and account for 8.33% of variance in determining employee perceptions on work-life balance. Two items relate to managerial/supervisory support and one item relates to child/elderly care. Since the majority of the items relate to managerial/supervisory support Factor 5 will be labeled likewise.

Table 5.25

Reliability: Work Intensification

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
0.616

Table 5.25 indicates that items in the work intensification questionnaire have internal consistency and is reliable.

Table 5.26

Reliability: Work-life Balance

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
0.590

Table 5.26 indicates that items in the work-life balance questionnaire have internal consistency and is reliable.

5.5   Conclusion

This chapter presents and interprets the results relating to the dimensions of the study in establishing the effect of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity) on work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, child/elderly care and employee wellness). The subsequent chapter sets out the discussion of results which facilitates a comparison of the findings established in this chapter with the findings of other researchers in the field.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1   Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the results obtained based on the analysis and interpretation of the data that was set out in chapter five. This discussion will be achieved by comparing and contrasting the results of this study against the findings of previous studies conducted, contributing to the purpose of the study, that is, to investigate the effect of work intensification on the construct of work-life balance. Through this, a greater meaning can be established for the results of this study.

6.2   Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification

The discussion focuses on the six sub-dimensions of work intensification (organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity).

6.2.1 Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work intensification, it was found that employees strongly believe that work intensity and ergonomic factors (Mean = 3.54) contribute to work intensity.

The field of ergonomics is directed toward increasing efficiency through job design and modification so that the non-value added processes and hazards which add to the risk of employee injury can be eliminated (Hoffmeister, Gibbons, Schwatka & Rosecrance, 2015). In addition, the health of office workers has attracted increased focus from researchers, with ergonomic job redesign used as a method for health improvements in the workplace among employees (May *et al*., 2004). Ergonomic principles adopted by professionals involve the adaptation of work tasks to the physical and mental capabilities of employees (Hoffmeister *et al*., 2015). Hoffmeister *et al*. (2015) believe that operational performance and employee well-being need to be supported by a positive ergonomics climate of an organization.

Similarly, May e*t al*. (2004), points to the importance of the physical office environment in terms of satisfying employee needs and their effectiveness. Posture, force and frequency of repetition are contributory factors toward physical discomfort taking into consideration that repetitive movement is a function of office work and poor posture can arise from the improper arrangement of office workstations (May *et al*., 2004). Benefits of implementing ergonomic principles are evident for both the employee and the organization and include amongst others, physical and mental strain reductions, reduced risks of occupational related injuries and performance improvement (Hoffmeister *et al*., 2015). Office workstations that are ergonomically suitable have resulted in improved workstation satisfaction (Francis & Dressel, 1990 cited in May *et al*., 2004). In terms of work environments where older adults use computer technology, workstations that are better designed can assist with the drop in the physical capacities of older adults (May *et al*., 2004).

A study conducted by May *et al*. (2004) related to municipal employees revealed that due to improvements to workstations, perceptions of ergonomic characteristics were enhanced, there was a reduction in upper back pain and enhanced workstation satisfaction. Furthermore, workstation improvements influenced workstation perceptions of younger workers more in comparison to the perceptions of older workers (May *et al*., 2004). Findings from this study reinforce prior research which has established that the ergonomic characteristics of office workstation are related to musculoskeletal discomfort (May *et al*., 2004). May *et al*. (2004) further reports that the minimization of physical twisting was as a result of computer relocations and rearrangements to workstations which contributed to reduced upper back pain.

The organization climate theory demonstrates that climates are established when employees try to comprehend their work environment in order to ascertain which types of actions are supported on the job (Hoffmeister *et al*., 2015). In line with this theory and the findings of Hoffmeister *et al*. (2015), it can be suggested that climate perceptions serve as reference for behaviours supported at work. Hence, positive perceptions of the ergonomic climate would mean that employees perceive that their actions at work should be carried out in such a way that it allows for the maintenance and improvements of both their health and work performance (Hoffmeister *et al*., 2015).

6.2.2　Volume of Workload

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work intensification, it was found that employees strongly believe that the volume of workload (Mean = 3.43) influences work intensification.

According to Sue Ling *et al*. (2012), workload is considered as one of the most influential factors in studies examining the quality of work life. Two contrasting perspectives addressed by Ogbonnaya and Valizade (2015) in explaining the outcomes at an employee level regarding participative decision-making, including, information sharing. Ogbonnaya and Valizade (2015) explore a theoretical perspective referred to as the critical perspective which details that while high performance work practices may be associated with organizational benefits, these benefits can be outweighed by increases in work intensification and a decline in employee attitudes and well-being. This perspective addresses the potential damaging implications of HRM practices on employees based on the assumption that the quality of employee's work-life could possibly deteriorate through increases in work intensification (Ramsay, Scholarios & Harley, 2000; Kroon, Van de Voorde & Van Veldhoven, 2009 cited in Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015).

HRM practices are often employed to boost organizational growth and effectiveness by generating greater work effort from employees (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). This results in higher employer expectations for employees and more work responsibilities being transferred to employees (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). Consequently, employees are subjected to greater work demands which have the potential to exceed their work related stress threshold (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). As a result, it becomes more likely that reports of high levels of work intensification will arise amongst employees coupled with a decline in work-related attitudes and well-being (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). Cloutier, Ledoux and Fournier (2012) indicate that a heavier workload (physical, cognitive, and affective) is created when there are fewer employees to carry the required production or service delivery. Various factors contributing to an increasingly heavier workload have been identified as the variability of the work and frequent changes within the organizations, amongst others (Cloutier *et al*., 2012). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that new mobile technology has fostered a workplace culture whereby the accountability of handling increased workloads beyond the office has been internalized by employees (Pocock & Skinner, 2013 cited in Yu, 2014).

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High performance work practices (HPWP) are human resource management practices whereby employers hand over a certain degree of control to employees in carrying out their job roles and have been linked to organizational benefits which include profitability and productivity (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). According to Boxall and Macky (2014), increased involvement is a main factor that predicts higher job satisfaction including an improved work-life balance and is not related to stress or fatigue. Contrary to this, increased levels of work intensity result in higher stress and fatigue while undermining work-life balance (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

Results from an exploratory study conducted by Burke, Singh and Fiksenbaum (2010) revealed that work intensity was positively and significantly related with indicators of work demands which included a heavier perceived workload, amongst others. The results of the study suggest that work intensity is likely to be a characteristic of one's specific job requirements that are linked to longer working hours, having greater workloads and greater levels of job stress (Burke *et al*., 2010). Subramanyam *et al*. (2013) point out the significance of workload assessment in maintaining employee well-being as despite motivation, individuals can become more tired due to sustained overload which can cause memory lapses. A key finding of Subramanyam *et al*. (2013) is that cognitive fatigue sets in with mental work overload.

The study of Ogbonnaya and Valizade (2015) examined the impact of information sharing activities and participative decision making on employee attitudes and well-being. Less favourable outcomes were shown for employee involvement with information sharing activities and favourable outcomes were found for employee involvement with participative decision-making (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). With significant increases in work intensification, information sharing resulted in lowered job satisfaction and employee perceptions of job strain were increased (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). Furthermore, participative decision-making revealed a positive indirect relationship with job satisfaction whereas a negative indirect relationship surfaced "with employees' level of job strain through corresponding decreases in work intensification" (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015, p 553).

By providing employees with the opportunity to communicate their perspectives in the development of organizational decisions, participative decision making may improve their capacity to manage high levels of work-related pressure and diminish potential causes of psychological distress (Demerouti, & Bakker, 2011; Balducci, Schaufeli, & Fraccaroli, 2011

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cited in Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). Furthermore, participative decision making may help employees to cope with the vast range of occupational challenges they encounter in the modern workplace such as multi-tasking, and the adaptation of new technologies (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015).

6.2.3 Organizational Change

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work intensification, it was found that employees strongly believe that organizational change (Mean = 3.37) contributes to work intensification.

In response to an unstable economic environment, there have been various changes to the world of work such as, job rotation and real-time availability of employees (Cloutier *et al*., 2012). Industrial mechanisms that are used to attain competitiveness include restructuring, downsizing and shifting toward specialization (Van Rensburg & Pelser, 2004 cited in van Zyl, van Eeden & Rothman, 2013). In addition to competitive pressures, other major causes of work intensification as cited by Brown (2012) include improvements to technology, downsizing and a drop in union membership and job security. Green (2004b) found that during the 1990's, technological and organizational changes were essential sources of work intensification in Britain (Green, 2004b cited in Burke *et al*., 2010).

In terms of downsizing, imposed work intensification may result in demoralization amongst those individuals who are forced to work harder (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Macro level influences such as, technological change and escalated competitive pressure are factors that have been noted in existing studies with regard to work intensification (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). In matching the demand and supply for labour, limited evidence shows that work intensification can occur as a result of functional flexibility and multi-skilling (Green, 2004; Kelliher & Gore, 2006 cited in Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Furthermore, the implementation of human resource management practices that drive effort either directly (for example, performance related pay) or indirectly (for example, organizational commitment) may result in work intensification (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010).

6.2.4 Job Insecurity

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work intensification, it was found that employees strongly believe that job insecurity (Mean = 3.10) impacts on work intensification.

Today, market conditions determine whether organizational workforces should expand or be reduced (Tilakdharee, Ramidial & Parumasur, 2010). Job insecurity is prevalent during times of recessions, mergers and restructuring due to jobs been rendered obsolete or radically changing (Tilakdharee *et al*., 2010). Job insecurity influences the health of employees (Schreurs, Van Emmerik, Notelaers & De Witte, 2010 cited in van Zyl *et al*., 2013) and is also considered as a major stressor in the workplace (De Witte, 1999 cited in van Zyl *et al*., 2013). A majority of research conducted in South African organizations defines job insecurity to be a work stressor (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008).

Both work intensification and job insecurity have powerful consequence for the economy and the lives of employees (Tilakdharee *et al*., 2010). Variances in attitudes and behaviours have been found in employees experiencing job insecurity (van Zyl *et al*., 2013). It has been reported that perceived job insecurity has resulted in increased work involvement and effort (Galup, Saunders, Nelson and Cervany, 1997 cited in van Zyl et al., 2013) and, decreased work performance (Rosow and Zager, 1985 cited in van Zyl *et al*., 2013). Yu (2014) exposes a significant contribution of job insecurity and work intensification on work-life balance. It is suggested that work-life balance outcomes are impacted by job insecurity as employees who fear their job security may experience pressure to perform beyond explicit work demands (Yu, 2014). Job insecurity may also contribute to anxiety due to the uncertainty of income and working hours (Yu, 2014). There is a greater pressure encountered by those who feel insecure about their jobs hence, they are willing to work overtime and forego their holidays in order prove their commitment to their employers (Johnson, 2006 cited in Tilakdharee *et al*., 2010).

6.2.5 Technological Change

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work intensification, it was found that employees moderately believe that technological change (Mean = 2.84) contributes to work intensification.

With regard to employees' technology use, a crucial claim in emerging literature is the facilitation of a process of work intensification through novel communication technology as it enables work communication and the solving of tasks to occur during times generally allocated to private activities (Burke & Fiksenbaum, 2009; Hislop & Axtell, 2011 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014).

Chesley (2014) documents that work extension and work intensification are the two key processes that have been identified by scholars as connected to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) use and work fragmentation. The former relates to ICT use that is integrated into the practices of an organization and allows for paid work to be performed during non-work time and space whereas the latter is concerned with ICT practices in an organization that promote a more intense work experience (Chesley, 2014).

"The diffusion of ICTs is correlated with an increase in work effort, that is, a rise in the proportion of effective labour performed for each hour of work" (Green, 2004a cited in Bittman *et al*., 2009, p. 677). It has been for many years that Green and his collaborators have debated the association between the introduction of ICT and work transformation (Bittman *et al*., 2009). Furthermore, it is Green's conjecture that work intensification may be due to the ability of managers to track the flow of work and employee engagement through new technology (Green, 2004a cited in Bittman *et al*., 2009). Bittman *et al*. (2009) also highlight the sudden increase in ICT-based monitoring of work where employees have reported that work performed was recorded by a computerized system.

In a study regarding the use of technology in a single organization, it was revealed that e-mail was used in ways that promoted rapid response amongst the majority of employees through a shared "norm of responsiveness" (Barley, Meyerson & Grodal, 2011 cited in Chesley, 2014). ICT's can enhance the ability of managers in checking workflows; improving coordination and allowing for employee enagagement to be monitored, particularly when employees are outside of the office (Bittman et al., 2009). Futhermore, ICT's facilitate the sending and receiving of documents when on the move while allowing for the observation and maintenance of the flow of work (Bittman *et al*., 2009). This allows for schedule alterations to occur at short notice and facilitates improved micro-coordination of tasks (Bittman *et al*., 2009). As a result, Green believes that the intensification of work is not due to the devices themselves but rather the

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managerial practices that are enabled by technology (Bittman *et al*., 2009). Previous studies conducted revealed mainly favourable attitudes toward new communication technologies among professionals performing continual coordination activities among clients and colleagues (Middleton, 2007; Mazmanian, Orlikowski & Yates, 2006; 2013 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). However, while the devices were largely embraced, the users were not ignorant that the embrace is accompanied by increased communication patterns and the intrusion of work on their private life (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). Cavazotte *et al*. (2014) justify that users consider the benefits of technology adoption to outweigh the adverse implications as they perceive an increase in autonomy, enhanced control and have the capability to act as a competent professional. Similarly, views of empowerment were expressed by BlackBerry users due to the control that the device provided over their environments (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014).

Previous research exposed that work-related electronic communication of participants was voluntarily intensified even though it was expressed that the mobile devices significantly helped in the monitoring and management of e-mail communication (Mazmanian, Orlikowski & Yates, 2006; 2013 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). In the study conducted by Mazmanian *et al*. (2006) cited by Cavazotte *et al*. (2014), it was revealed that participants felt a greater sense of competence and control as they had greater flexibility and capacity to carry out their work due to their mobile devices. The increased use of technology was detailed as the personal choice of participants in the study with no referral made toward external pressures such as measurement of performance or culture of the company (Mazmanian *et al*., 2013 cited in Cavazotte *et al*., 2014).

From the above, the contradictions and trade-offs of communication technology is apparent. Middleton (2007) appropriately condenses this by stating that users are both empowered and enslaved by communication technology, can simultaneously be engaging and disengaging and results in the blurring between private and public space. Work-intensifying practices associated with the use of BlackBerry's can be sustained amongst users due to the illusion of being in control (Middleton, 2007 cited in Cavazotte et al., 2014). In the study, conducted by Cavazotte *et al*. (2014) concerning the adoption of smart phones that were company sponsored, an appreciation for the phones were expressed given that it is portable, it can be easily operated and there are no time and place limitations attached to it. A noteworthy point is that professionals involved in the study acknowledged the trade-offs associated with adopting the company provided smart phone (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). It was further stated that the technology was

accompanied by, for example, demands of accessibility, accuracy and spouse resentment and new forms of family conflicts (Cavazotte *et al*., 2014). Furthermore, Bittman *et al*. (2009) found a significant association with time pressure and further subjective indicators of work intensification amongst men who frequently used the mobile phone when at work. The authors indicate that there is a significant correlation between frequently working under stress, working at speed to meet deadlines that are tight, including time pressure (Bittman *et al*., 2009).

During the 1990's, Britain experienced an increase in work intensification due to working at a high speed which was connected to workplace technological innovation (Green, 2004a cited in Chesley, 2014). Interestingly, Chesley (2014) points out that ICT use can be a means of work extending into non-work life and non-work demands entering the work environment. Hence, there is the possibility that ICT use can fulfil personal commitments in ways that could offset demands caused by other ICT-based practices that enhance work intensification (Chesley, 2014). For example, those employees confronting increased demands due to ICT use at work can rely on ICT use to better manage their family lives around work changes (Chesley, 2014).

6.2.6 Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work intensification, it was found that employees moderately believe that work-related stress and psychological factors (Mean = 2.75) adds to work intensification.

According to Brown (2012), employee stress levels are one of the negative outcomes that have been associated with work intensification which has received considerable research. The conditions of productive workplaces such as, high complexity and rapid change can be perceived as being stressful as a result of the increased workloads and pressures associated with it but, outcomes of increased productivity and optimal performance can also be linked to stressful conditions (Walinga & Rowe, 2013).

An indication in research is that there is a positive relationship with work intensification and reports of stress including, stress symptoms (Green 2001; Burchell & Fagan, 2004 cited in Brown, 2012). Even with total work hours remaining the same, work can still be experienced as more intense and stressful (Chesley, 2014). Yu (2014) supports that regardless of relatively stable working hours; work intensification is a significant contributor in perceptions of increased

time pressure. Particularly amongst full-time, female employees, these time pressures were direct contributors to unfavourable work–life conflict outcomes (Yu, 2014).

Research by Burke *et al*. (2010) concluded that stress is a crucial factor of workplace health. Furthermore, levels of job stress were significantly and positively associated with work intensity (Burke et al., 2010). The flexibility of employees in using effective coping strategies to deal with a changing work climate is reduced through work speedups which results in enhanced work speed being more stressful for employees (Murray & Rostis, 2007 cited in Chesley, 2014). The health of employees can be negatively affected through aspects such as, working hours including overtime, work organization and different work schedules, amongst others (Niu, 2010).

According to Niu (2010), outcomes such as, poorer subjective health, increased injuries and behaviours that are unhealthy are linked to working long hours or overtime. When the psychological and physical resources of an individual is overwhelmed, this results in negative symptoms such as, poor attention and memory loss, while sustained stress can result in working days lost, reduced productivity and increased job turnover rates (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Research by Walinga and Rowe (2013) conducted in mid-level public sector management discusses the dynamic and stressful working context where managers are subjected to the high demands of a service-oriented environment. In the public sector, high demands are characterized by "multiple and diverse stakeholders, changing government and public policy priorities, continuous organizational change, and increasing public accountability" (Walinga & Rowe, 2013, p. 67).

6.3   Sub-dimensions of Work-life Balance

The discussion focuses on the five sub-dimensions of work-life balance (work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, and child/elderly care and employee wellness).

6.3.1 Work Flexibility

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work-life balance, it was found that employees strongly believe that work flexibility (Mean = 3.63) improves work-life balance.

Previous studies have discovered that there is a positive association between certain aspects of job flexibility (for example, flexible work hours) and some facets of family life in the reduction

of absenteeism and turnover and increasing job satisfaction (Jang, 2009). Furthermore, there are positive associations between perceived job flexibility and work-life balance (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris & Weitzman cited in Jang, 2009). Jang (2009) found that higher levels of work-life balance were reported amongst those employees who felt that their work schedule was flexible which also linked to favourable paths to well-being. This finding is aligned with the theory suggesting that a supportive workplace culture can foster more favourable perceptions of workplace flexibility, which may assist employees with balancing work and life and leave them feeling less stressed (Jang, 2009).

On the contrary, Banerjee and Perrucci (2012) explain that there are inconsistent findings in existing research concerning the effect of the availability of work benefits and policies, adding that in some studies the availability of flexible schedules and family benefits have been found to decrease work-family conflict while others studies cannot provide support in this regard. In fact, in the absence of a supportive workplace culture work-family policies do not reduce work-family conflict (Mennino, Rubin & Brayfield, 2005 cited in Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012). According to Banerjee and Perrucci (2012), the choice of working full-time or part-time in the current work role leads to reduced work-family conflict whereas working a compressed week is associated with increased work-family conflict.

6.3.2 Employee Wellness

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work-life balance, it was found that employees strongly believe that employee wellness (Mean = 3.44) is important for work-life balance.

Casey and Grzywacz (2008) acknowledge the strong evidence which connects indicators of work-family balance to health with flexibility considered as a strategy for the promotion of the health and well-being of employees as it provides for better integration between their work and family lives. The benefits awarded to organizations through employee health and well-being includes increased productivity, greater commitment and a reduction in health care costs (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). There is however limited evidence that connects flexibility to health-related outcomes, with inconsistent results been reported in existing research (Casey & Grzywacz,

2008). Positive associations are suggested in some research regarding flexibility and health yet there are others with either contrary or null associations (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008).

Flexibility has been traditionally viewed as a valuable resource. Consistent with this view, the stress theory has been frequently relied on by researchers to conceptualize the linkages between flexibility and health (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). It is believed that flexibility can provide resources that help employees to respond to experienced stressors which can reduce the possible adverse health effects of the stressor (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). A reduction in stress-related illness and improvements in well-being arise as a result of reductions in stress exposure including vulnerability, which is due to various biological and behavioural pathways (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). Studies have indicated that outcomes such as, lower cholesterol levels (Thomas & Ganster, 1995 cited in Casey & Grzywacz, 2008) and reduced somatic complaints (Costa, Akerstedt, Nachreiner, Baltieri, Carvalhais, & Folkard, 2004; Thomas & Ganster, 1995 cited in Casey & Grzywacz, 2008) are associated with greater perceived flexibility, which are in line with hypotheses deduced from stress theory (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008).

In addition to physical health improvements, other improvements such as, reduced stress, better mental health and less depressive symptoms have been linked to greater flexibility in other studies (Casey & Grzywacz, 2008). The results from Casey & Grzywacz (2008) supported prior cross sectional research which has revealed positive associations among work–family balance and flexibility and health-related outcomes.

6.3.3 Managerial/Supervisory Support

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work-life balance, it was found that employees strongly believe that managerial/supervisory support (Mean = 3.37) positively affects work-life balance.

The importance of supervisory support in balancing work-life demands has been cited by many researchers (Jang, 2009). Similarly, Banerjee and Perrucci (2012) also point out that perceived work-family conflict is lessened when supervisors and co-workers are more supportive. Gordon *et al*. (2012) further contribute that with supportive supervisors or managers, it is less likely for employees to experience work-family conflict. The well-being of daughters who are caring for a parent has been associated with interactions with a supervisor and a close co-worker (Atienza &

Stephens, 2000 cited in Gordon *et al*., 2012). Additionally, family supportive supervision has been shown to be negatively related to time-based and strain-based work conflict with family (Lapierre and Allen, 2006 cited in Gordon *et al*., 2012). According to Voydanoff (2004), there is a negative relationship between supervisor work-family support and work-to-family conflict.

6.3.4 Child/Elderly Care

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work-life balance, it was found that employees believe that child/elderly care (Mean = 2.99) influences work-life balance.

It has been found that employee perceptions of work-family conflict were not influenced by services offered by employers to locate childcare or eldercare or a childcare centre that is available on-site and operated by the employer, amongst others (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012). Furthermore, financial assistance provided by an employer and having a pre-tax account for the purposes of child or adult dependent care did not affect employee perceptions either (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012). Jang (2009) explains that mothers from a dual earner situation with children below the ages of 18 find it challenging to balance work and child-care commitments, making it more likely that they would exit the workforce involuntarily in comparison to their childless counterparts. There are greater family responsibilities for those working parents who have children below the age of 18 as opposed to those without children or those who have adult children (Jang, 2009). While the availability of family friendly policies, such as, onsite child care, work-schedule flexibility, supervisory support and paternity and maternity leave, can be beneficial to some working parents, this differs greatly across employers and is therefore limited to a minority of employees (Jang, 2009).

Despite working women continuing with work even after becoming caregivers, strong evidence shows that a woman's work life is affected by caregiving (Gordon *et al*., 2012). Role conflict related to role strain has been found to be as a result of working outside the home and taking care of young children (Barling, 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1991 cited in Gordon *et al*., 2012). On the other hand, working and caring for an older person is often a more intense experience due to the conditions of elder care responsibilities which are largely unplanned, can occur incrementally or due to a crisis with the burden increasing over time (Gordon *et al*., 2012).

The results from Gordon *et al.* (2012) suggest that specifically for older working women, caregiving and work demands are stressful. Workplace support can be useful in reducing work-caregiving conflict (Gordon *et al.*, 2012). In addition, increased flexibility can be created by supportive supervisors and co-workers, along with offering direct assistance and information to caregivers that will help to reduce work-caregiving conflict (Gordon *et al.*, 2012). Studies have revealed that it is more likely for women to stop caregiving than exit the labour force and more likely for hours used for caregiving to be reduced than hours spent working (Gordon *et al.*, 2012).

6.3.5 Work-family Conflict

In the study, when assessing perceptions of employees on work-life balance, it was found that employees moderately believe that work-family conflict (Mean = 2.71) influences work-life balance.

It has been shown in research that paid work hours and work-to-family conflict have consistently positive relationships (Voydanoff, 2004). Kelly and Moen (2007) document that work-family conflict has been found to negatively impact the mental health which includes depression and anxiety disorders, amongst others. Further implications cited involve problem drinking, physical health problems (such as, headaches) and reduced self-reports regarding overall health, amongst others (Kelly & Moen, 2007). Some research indicates a link between work-family conflict and cholesterol, including, unhealthy eating habits and exercise (Kelly & Moen, 2007). Work-family conflict and the health consequences associated with it take a toll on employee performance and effectiveness (Kelly & Moen, 2007). Research has shown that reduced job satisfaction and organizational commitment, including increased job-related stress, burnout and higher turnover intentions are linked to work-family conflict (Kelly & Moen, 2007). The impact of work-family conflict extends beyond the individual employee and also has implications for family time, parenting behaviours, and the quality of parent–child relationships (Kelly & Moen, 2007).

According to Banerjee and Perrucci (2012), flex-time is unrelated to work-family conflict. Work-family conflict will be greater when it is difficult for employees to get time off and when advancement is less likely if flex-time options are utilized by employees (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012). Employees' perceptions of work-family conflict are lessened with a supportive workplace

culture (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012). In addition to workplace culture, less work-family conflict is experienced by those who have greater job autonomy and income satisfaction (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012). Greater work-family conflict is perceived amongst those who work for longer hours per week and are higher placed with regard to education and occupation levels (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2012).

6.4. The Relationship between Work Intensification and the Sub-dimensions

The significant relationships with the dimensions and the sub- dimensions of work intensification are reflected below:

Organizational Change and Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors

In the study, organizational change significantly relates to work intensity and ergonomic factors at the 5% level of significance.

According to Miles and Perrewe (2011), evidence indicates that ergonomic intervention leads to lower medical costs and absenteeism as well as improvements to employee satisfaction and productivity. Jobs that are well designed create improvements to the efficiency, safety and satisfaction of employees (Miles & Perrewe, 2011). The effect of an improper environment on the physical and psychological health of employees is highlighted through the high incidence of musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs) and has a further impact on the job satisfaction, morale, stress and productivity of employees (Miles & Perrewe, 2011).

According to Robertson and Vink (2012), new ways of work include offices with shared desks, interior design that promotes informal meetings, flexible work hours and new leadership styles combined with empowerment. The authors discuss the findings from a study evaluating six Dutch organizations (three private and three government) that were switching over to a new way of work which revealed four key implications (denHengst, de Leede, de Looze, Krause & Kraan, 2008 cited in Robertson & Vink, 2012). Firstly, there was a slight positive impact of working remotely on productivity (Robertson & Vink, 2012). Secondly, stress had a minimal impact and workload stayed fairly stable (Robertson & Vink, 2012). However, participants did reveal that due to 24/7 accessibility and the ability to do work, new way of work were associated with more intense pressures (Robertson & Vink, 2012). Thirdly, it was found that working remotely did

provide employees with options to achieve a good work-life balance (Robertson & Vink, 2012). Finally, it can be challenging for employees to have a connection with the organization and can therefore feel isolated (Robertson & Vink, 2012). With an increasing number of mobile employees, office spaces are needed where employees can reconnect (Robertson & Vink, 2012). Multifunctional workplaces that allow employees to move about as they require while performing various forms of work with coworkers are what cutting edge organizations are looking toward for promoting some type of connection for employees (Robertson & Vink, 2012).

Technological Change and Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors

In the study, technological change significantly relates to work-related stress and psychological factors at the 1% level of significance.

In today's competitive workplace, electronic communication forms an integral part with escalating employee-technology interaction time due to the growth of the Internet and e-mail, amongst others (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). Employees are also working more from home, in addition to the conventional working hours due to competitive pressures (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). Bittman *et al*. (2009) document that other writers have drawn a connection between mobile technology and an accelerated pace of daily life due to the absence of down time. Consequently, time spent in places such as, cars and airports can be used more productively (Bittman *et al*., 2009). According to Farrell and Geist-Martin (2005), employee stress is as a result of constantly needing to learn how to operate new technology, the pressure associated with rapid completion of work and reduced person-person interaction. More stress is placed on employees as technology infuses all business divisions and HR functions (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). While technological advancements are meant to promote productivity gains, it can be counterproductive when stress induces physical and mental impairments in employees (Soylu & Campbell, 2012).

The use of a computer for a prolonged period can create physical stress injuries which include emotional stress and poor mental health (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). According to Soylu and Campbell (2012), the carpal tunnel syndrome is a more identifiable impairment relating to the physical stress imposed by computers. With prolonged computer use, the inflammation of the carpal tunnel area surfaces on the palm side of the wrist (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). Other physical impairments which are linked to repetitive stress injuries include discomfort, stiffness

and tightness, amongst others (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). In addition, a lack of strength and coordination along with pain in the upper back, neck including, shoulders may transpire (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). It has also been suggested that eye health can potentially be threatened with prolonged computer use (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). Nonetheless, there is a lack of scientific research on prolonged computer use as studies of this nature remain in the infancy stages (Soylu & Campbell, 2012).

Technological Change and Job Insecurity

In the study, technological change significantly relates to job insecurity at the 1% level of significance.

According to Burchell *et al*. (2002), new information technologies demand for organizations to be flexible which in turn requires a corresponding flexibility from the workforce. In order to remain competitive in the global market, the constant updating of knowledge is crucial (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte & Alarco, 2008). If employees are knowledgeable about recent technological developments they may view themselves as being highly employable (De Cuyper *et al*., 2008). Moreover, such employees may feel that they have the capacity to manage future developments which can contribute to well-being (De Cuyper *et al*., 2008). In terms of employees with low employability, this could be due to the absence of updated skills and knowledge, amongst others (De Cuyper *et al*., 2008). Therefore, these employees may have a greater reliance on their current employer while acknowledging that lifelong employment with one organization is no longer (De Cuyper *et al*., 2008). This can lead to feelings of job insecurity and poor well-being (De Cuyper *et al*., 2008).

Vermeylen (2005) observes that during recessions, job destruction may prompt technological innovation by relocating labour into new activities that are better suited to new technological developments. Furthermore, existing jobs may also become obsolete as a result of technological innovation which can therefore be viewed as a source of job destruction (Vermeylen, 2005).

Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors and Volume of Workload

In the study, work intensity and ergonomic factors significantly relates to volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.

With the shift away from a manufacturing economy toward service and information-based work, greater emphasis is placed on the importance of ergonomics (Rowh, 2006). Physical challenges are inherent in office work given the repetitive motions and many hours spent sitting in the same position, therefore exposing employees to risks in terms of their health and comfort (Rowh, 2006). The emergence of dynamic posture recognizes that individuals need to move (Rowh, 2006). Moderate movement facilitates improved blood circulation and a reduction in fatigue as various muscle groups are used (Rowh, 2006). Changing one's body position during the day can relieve pressure from the back and legs and enhance blood circulation allowing for potential increases in productivity (Rowh, 2006).

The manner in which the body reacts to physical stimuli that employees are exposed to at work, impacts on the cognitive well-being and stress levels of an individual (Rowh, 2006). The needs of users have become more diverse which manufacturers have acknowledged (Rowh, 2006). Individuals are exposed to greater pressure than before, are working longer hours and multitasking (Rowh, 2006). Static sitting induces weak musculature and places more pressure on the back which could result in other health issues (Rowh, 2006). Increased neck and shoulder tension can be brought on through the use of small handheld devices which require fine motor control to utilize (Rowh, 2006). Workstations that are properly designed can add to organizational health and efficiency (Rowh, 2006). Cost savings in terms of health, absenteeism and insurance are amongst the other benefits that organizations can reap (Rowh, 2006).

Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors and Job Insecurity

In the study, work intensity and ergonomic factors significantly relates to job insecurity at the 5% level of significance.

The study conducted by Probst and Brubaker (2001) established initial evidence linking job security to safety outcome measures (safety knowledge, safety motivation and reports of compliance with safety policies). It was exposed that safety motivation was a stronger predictor of injuries and accidents in comparison to safety knowledge and compliance which had a lesser influence (Probst & Brubaker, 2001). Consequently, the study emphasizes that job insecurity implications should not only be considered in relation to job satisfaction, health and intentions to leave but the detrimental implications that it has on employee safety attitudes and behaviours also warrants attention (Probst & Brubaker, 2001). The researchers highlight that in times of job

insecurity it is possible that in an effort to retain their job, employees may choose to ignore crucial safety policies while attempting to maintain or enhance their production numbers (Probst & Brubaker, 2001). Furthermore, the most plausible explanation regarding the association between job insecurity and safety may be as a result of the limited amount of resources that employees have (Probst & Brubaker, 2001). Hence, times of uncertainty may leave employees feeling pressured; causing them to cut safety corners in order to maintain their productivity levels especially when organizations are run by the bottom line (Probst & Brubaker, 2001).

Papadopoulos, Georgiadou, Papazoglou and Michaliou (2010) document the relation between increased frequency of occupational accidents and job insecurity that is as a result of changes in the work context. Changes in the work environment may result in work intensification and reduced staff, possibly leading to unsafe work practices because of work overload (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2010). Furthermore, a direct association exists that links work intensification to stress and higher on-the-job accident rate (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2010). Furthermore, it has been reported that there is a greater probability of occupational accidents for employees with flexible types of employment (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2010).

Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors and Volume of Workload

In the study, work-related stress and psychological factors significantly relates to volume of workload at the 1% level of significance.

Evidence shows that in countries that are more developed and industrialized, there has been an increase in the number of hours worked by professional and managerial employees (Burke, 2009). An association exists with work overload, role conflicts, including pressure and job insecurity (Walinga & Rowe, 2013). Work overload has been recognized as a major cause of emotional stress (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). Employees can be exposed to additional emotional stress when dealing with the frustration of increased work demands (Soylu & Campbell, 2012). Other developments that have been recognized as part of the rapidly changing environment include more organizations that operate on a 24/7 basis, increased competition and, downsizings and other cost containment strategies that have resulted in greater workloads, staff reduction (or both) (Burke, 2009). In addition, the presence of new technology that facilitates working from any location at any time and increased performance expectations from organizations, are amongst other factors (Burke, 2009).

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Volume of Workload and Job Insecurity

In the study, volume of workload significantly relates to job insecurity at the 5% level of significance.

The attitude of organizations toward downsizing has altered during the years as opposed to previous years when workforce reduction was employed as a last resort (Phelps, 2013). However, such cost reduction measures often have direct or indirect adverse effects on those employees who survive (Phelps, 2013). There is a direct impact that is experienced immediately when individuals are subjected to layoffs (Phelps, 2013). A consequence of downsizing is the escalation of work overload in the form of working longer hours, taking on further work in excess of normal work and working at an accelerated pace (Kim & Brian, 2004). Similarly, Farrell and Geist-Martin (2005) emphasize the common outcomes of downsizing as working longer hours or becoming responsible for multiple roles. Hence, even for those who remain; stress can be experienced due to the intensity of responsibility or role overload (Farrell & Geist-Martin, 2005). Furthermore, intensification may be accepted by employees without resistance due to job insecurity (Campbell, 2002 cited in Kelliher & Anderson, 2010).

The consequence of mergers or financially difficult periods for organizations is that staff are often laid off (Farrell & Geist-Martin, 2005). This results in pressure to maintain productivity with reduced human resources for remaining employees (Farrell & Geist-Martin, 2005). Employees who remain may be required to carry out tasks that they previously did not have to perform which could potentially result in them being more stressed in order to keep up their performance levels or exceed it (Kim & Brian, 2004). Typically, there is an expectation that remaining employees will be more productive and assume responsibility for greater output without complaining (Phelps, 2013). It has been argued that during the infancy stages of the post downsized workforce, there is a significant drop in the job performance of surviving employees (Morris, 2005 cited in Phelps, 2013). These employees are often left with negative emotions such as, fear, anger and frustration, with their job satisfaction and organizational commitment negatively affected due to feelings of betrayal and abandonment (Phelps, 2013). Severe outcomes, such as stress, exhaustion and accidents, amongst others, can surface if work overload is not managed (Kim & Brian, 2004).

6.5. The Relationship between Work-life Balance and the Sub-dimensions

The significant relationships relating to the dimensions and sub-dimensions of work-life balance are:

Work Flexibility and Managerial Supervisory Support

In the study, work flexibility significantly but inversely relates to managerial/supervisory support at the 1% level of significance.

Lauzun *et al*. (2010) highlight research supporting the finding that supervisor support is linked to diminished work-life conflict and that the presence of family-friendly policies is associated with reduced work-life conflict. The study conducted by Jang (2009) demonstrates that increased levels of work-life balance were reported amongst those employees who perceived their work schedules as being flexible which contributed to positive paths to well-being. Research further suggests that a supportive work environment that encourages the use of work-life policies is needed and that the presence of these policies alone is not sufficient in diminishing work-life conflict (Lauzun *et al*., 2010).

Similarly, the finding of Jang (2009) reinforces that employee perceptions regarding the flexibility of work schedules are enhanced with supervisors and cultures that are supportive. The results from Breaugh and Frye (2008) revealed a relation between reporting to a supervisor that is family supportive and the use of certain practices, including to work-family conflict. Furthermore, Breaugh and Frye (2008) found that there was a positive relation between reporting to a family-supportive supervisor and the use of flexible hours and family leave.

Managerial/Supervisory Support and Child/Elderly Care

In the study, managerial/supervisory support significantly relates to child/elderly care at the 5% level of significance.

The family structure has undergone significant changes over time with the traditional family structure (father as the breadwinner and mother as homemaker) no longer being the most dominant structure in most Western countries (Li & Bagger, 2011). The changing demographics place employees under stress as they attempt to manage their child care/parental responsibilities without compromising their work performance (Li & Bagger, 2011). Prior research has

established the instrumental role of supervisors in helping employees with achieving a work-life balance and being supportive towards managing their child care responsibilities (Li & Bagger, 2011). Existing empirical studies have found that family support provided by supervisors is important in alleviating the work-family conflict of employees (Li & Bagger, 2011). When supervisors provide family support to employees, this may result in greater job satisfaction and may reduce employees' intentions to leave (Li & Bagger, 2011). It has been found that the family responsibilities of female managers are beneficial to them (Li & Bagger, 2011). According to Li and Bagger (2011), the patience and nurturing that comes with parental encounters shapes them to be better managers. Generally, female supervisors are more family supportive in comparison to male supervisors (Parker & Allen, 2002 cited in Li & Bagger, 2011).

Managerial/Supervisory Support and Employee Wellness

In the study, managerial/supervisory support significantly relates to employee wellness at the 5% level of significance.

Various studies have addressed the impact of supervisory support on employee well-being (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). Tayfur and Arslan (2013) cite that supervisory support has been shown to reduce perceived stress and emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, supervisory support influences the well-being of employees through the alleviation of work-stressor effects such as, workload, on emotional strain (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013). O'Donnell *et al*. (2012) cite that supervisory support (a sympathetic manager who is considerate of employee's work-life balance needs) can be useful in addressing the competing demands of work and home life. The quality of the relationships between an employee and their supervisor, coworkers and subordinates has been associated with reduced perceived role stressors as well as reduced work–family conflict (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999 cited in Anderson *et al*., 2002).

Child/Elderly Care and Employee Wellness

In the study, child/elderly care significantly relates to employee wellness at the 5% level of significance.

The psychological and physical effects of caregiving responsibilities on the well-being of caregivers have been recognized in over thirty years of research (Gordon *et al*., 2011). Evidence shows that caregiving does in fact have an impact on a woman's work life (Lilly, Laporte, &

Coyte, 2007 cited in Gordon *et al*., 2011), with implications including arriving late to work, having to leave early or not go to work and frequent interruptions to their work (Gordon *et al*., 2011). There is a significant difference between the experiences of those women who care for an elder and those who have other dependent care responsibilities (Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, & Besen, 2009 cited in Gordon *et al*., 2011) such as, reduced supervisory support, limited access to flexible working and reduced job security in comparison to those who have child care or other dependent care responsibilities (Gordon *et al*., 2011).

Gordon *et al.* (2011) explains that evidence exists indicating that the negative outcomes associated with caregiving stress can be reduced through informal support. This can be instrumental (care recipient can be assisted by someone other than the caregiver) and emotional (the caregiver is able to communicate with others about a difficult situation) (Gordon *et al*., 2011). Social resources offer individuals emotional support and informal guidance which can assist with coping, while social support can help with the reduction of stressors and has been shown to have consequences for the health and well-being of individuals (Gordon *et al*., 2011).

It has been found that role conflict which was linked to role strain was experienced by those who are employed outside of the home and care for young children (Barling, 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1991 cited in Gordon *et al*., 2011). Overall, results from the study conducted by Gordon *et al*. (2011) revealed that older working women have more stressful caregiving and work demands which contribute significantly to work-caregiving conflict and distress for older working women (Gordon *et al*., 2011). With regard to older women with caregiving responsibilities, the results pointed out the significance of social support in decreasing their stress in and out of the workplace (Gordon *et al*., 2011). It is likely that reduced stress will result in quality improvements in both work and caregiving, rendering the value of support very significant in the domains of work and family (Gordon *et al*., 2011).

6.6. Biographical Correlates and Work Intensification

It was hypothesized that there exists significant differences in the sub-dimensions of work intensification amongst employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in the volume of workload and age at the 1% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in job insecurity and age at the 5% level of significance.

Volume of Workload and Age

In relation to work, employees of different ages will vary in terms of their work duties, work position, work ability and possibly in health (Bos, Donders, Schouteten, & van der Gulden, 2013). It is believed that employees who are more mature are in jobs that are more complex and that this is more exhausting (Bos *et al*., 2013). Hence, for the oldest employees, this could potentially result in a greater association with need for recovery (Bos *et al*., 2013).

Job Insecurity and Age

Research reveals differences in both gender and age in relation to the impact of downsizing (Quinlan, 2007). The study conducted by Tilakdharee *et al*. (2010) concluded that both affective and overall job insecurity was significantly influenced by age, revealing that reduced levels of affective and overall job insecurity was experienced by older employees. This is contrary to other research which showed that higher levels of job insecurity were experienced by older employees as opposed to younger employees (Buitendach, Oosthuyzen & Van Wyk, 2005 cited in Tilakdharee *et al*., 2010).

Keim, Pierce, Landis and Earnest (2014) indicate that the relation between employee's age and job insecurity has produced conflicting results. A non-significant relation has been found between the two (Kinnunen & Nätti, 1994 cited in Keim *et al*., 2014) while other research has found that greater job insecurity is experienced by younger employees in comparison to older employees (Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990 cited in Keim *et al*., 2014). Similarly, it has been found that in comparison to older workers, it is likely for younger workers to feel more insecure (Green, 2008; Mauno, Kinnunen, Mäkikangas & Nätti, 2005; Villosio, Di Pierro, Giordanengo, Pasqua & Richiardi, 2008 cited in Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012).

Another observation involves a curvilinear relation whereby less security was experienced among middle-aged employees and younger and older workers felt more secure in their jobs (Fullerton & Wallace, 2007 cited in Keim *et al*., 2014). According to Keim *et al*. (2014), older

employees may experience greater financial instability as they have a greater dependence on their jobs for financial stability and family responsibilities in comparison to younger employees. Similarly, a significant difference has been shown between different age groups regarding the level of threat to total job in which younger employees (between 16-24 years) were not fearful of job loss since they did not face family responsibilities in comparison to who were over 45 years (Pedraza & Bustillo, 2007 cited in Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). In addition, it has been shown that older employees have reduced levels of perceived job mobility which results in them been more reliant on their jobs and more susceptible to viewing their job as being insecure (Keim *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, the fear of job loss and its detrimental effect can be exacerbated as many older workers have occupation-specific skills hence with job displacement it can be more difficult to find work (Keim *et al.*, 2014).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in the volume of workload and marital status at the 1% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in job insecurity and marital status at the 5% level of significance.

Volume of Workload and Marital Status

Research has suggested that in families of workaholics, high levels of distress exist and due to a spillover-crossover effect, negative outcomes are created, specifically strained marital relationships (Matuska, 2010). Furthermore, there have been associations drawn between workaholism and eventual family dysfunction in family counseling literature, where the spouses of workaholics feel lonely and resentful about taking care of the child-rearing alone, amongst others (Matuska, 2010). Work stress linked to workaholism has been shown to predict weak marital cohesion and marital disaffection, including, reduced positive feelings toward the spouses of workaholics (Matuska, 2010). With regard to marital disaffection, impaired communication and over controlling behaviours were the strongest predictors (Matuska, 2010). Aziz and Cunningham (2008) also highlight that workaholism can hamper interpersonal relationships and contribute to marital dissatisfaction. However, there is other evidence that suggests the opposite, with there been no relation between workaholism and actual divorce (Burke, 2000 cited in Matuska, 2010).

Job Insecurity and Marital Status

Married women with a low socio-economic position, who are not engaged in paid work outside the home and who provide care to small children have been shown to have a higher risk to develop a psychological disorder in several studies (Matthews & Power, 2002).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in work-related stress and psychological factors and race at the 1% level of significance.

Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors and Race

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in technological change and educational qualifications at the 5% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in work-related stress and psychological factors and educational qualification at the 5% level of significance.

Van den Berg and Van Zyl (2008) highlight the influence of the Employment Equity Act in increasing the numbers of women, particularly Black women in high-level careers and the stressful consequences that accompany their participation in the labour market. In a study investigating stress among different ethnic women in high-level careers, high levels of work-related stress were reported by over half of the women (Erasmus, 1998 cited in Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). Women from previously disadvantaged groups have reported more stress due to a lack of resources, such as, supportive work environments and opportunities for training and development, amongst others (Bennett, 2003; Møller, 1998; Msimang, 2001 cited in Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). Furthermore, employees who lack the training and skills and are promoted into high-level positions due to employment equity legislation are subjected to stress due to qualitative overload (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008).

Significant differences were found among women from four racial groups regarding the levels of work stress experienced with the highest levels of stress reported among Black women (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). Prior research findings provide support of this with differences in access to resources, such as, good training, amongst others, that hinder the capacity of Black women to master work-related demands thereby inducing greater stress levels in Black women (Jackson & Sears, 1992; Møller, 1998 cited in Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). Further results from the

study exposed that in terms of work characteristics, Black and Coloured women experienced significantly more stress (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008).

Technological Change and Educational Qualifications

"The access to and use of the Internet mainly differ by socio-economic status such as gender, age, income, race, education, and location" (Hoffman, Kalsbeek, & Novak, 1996; Katz & Aspden, 1997; Kim & Kim, 2002 cited in Lee & Kim, 2014, p. 921). Specifically, structured variances arise for demographics, such as, gender, age, and SES (income and education) when it comes to digital use in a network society (Bonfadelli, 2002; Hoffman et al., 1996; Katz & Aspden, 1997; Molnar, 2003; Wareham *et al*., 2004 cited in Lee & Kim, 2014).

There are significant differences in mobile use due to education and income factors as a certain level of learning and expenditure is needed in order to operate the various functions of mobile media (Lee & Kim, 2014). The study conducted by Lee and Kim (2014) did confirm that education and income have significant effects on mobile divide also highlighting that when education and income are lacking this could potentially deter the purchase of good mobile media as well as learning how to operate them.

Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors and Educational Qualifications

Aziz and Cunningham (2008) highlight that highly educated and professional individuals in North America are exposed to increased hours (worked and overtime) as a result of greater responsibilities and heavier workloads resulting in increased stress levels. Social observers who document the changing nature of work indicate that in recent decades it is college educated professionals who have encountered the largest increase in working time that is, "the greatest gaps between their perceived ideal and actual work hours, and higher levels of stress, despite the higher autonomy and schedule control characterizing their high-status jobs" (Moen *et al*., 2013, p. 80). Quantitative studies show that professionals are devoting greater time and effort to their jobs than previously due to employer expectations regarding productivity, technological developments and uncertainty regarding job security (Moen *et al*., 2013).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in work intensity and ergonomic factors and position in organization at the 5% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in volume of workload and position in organization at the 5% level of

significance. Moreover, there is a significant difference in job insecurity and position in organization at the 1% level of significance.

Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors and Position in Organization

Control in ergonomic design allows one to make decisions involving the adjustment of workstations to help performance and having the right equipment to be able to complete work (Miles & Perrewe, 2011). Research has supported that in work environments where professionals have autonomy and can control the flow of work; there exists the most congruent fit between preferred and typical work hours (Kaldenberg & Becker, 1992 cited in Miles & Perrewe, 2011). Generally, with greater control in an environment, the less strain one will be exposed to (Miles & Perrewe, 2011).

Volume of Workload and Position in Organization

In an exploratory study, higher levels of work intensity have been reported among those who worked for more hours, had a heavier workload and higher job stress (Burke, Singh & Fiksenbaum, 2008 cited in Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum & Acar, 2009). In a study carried out among Turkish manufacturing managers, males and those at higher organizational levels reported higher work intensity and higher hours worked (Burke *et al*., 2009). Furthermore, there was greater job satisfaction and work engagement from managers who encountered higher levels of work intensity yet reported reduced levels of psychological well-being (Burke *et al*., 2009).

Job Insecurity and Position in Organization

It has been found that individuals who have spent a number of years in their current position do not place importance on the features of their job however; they feel powerless (Ugboro & Ubeng, 2001 cited in Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). Hence, a relatively high level of job insecurity is encountered by employees who have job tenures that are very short and very long in their current position and they place less importance on the features of their job (Erlinghagen, 2007 cited in Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in organizational change and length of service at the 5% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in work-related stress and psychological factors and length of service at the 1% level of

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significance. Moreover, there is a significant difference in the volume of workload and length of service at the 1% level of significance.

Organizational Change and Length of Service

As an employee's tenure grows in a job, there are long-term investments that are made for their work situation, such as, gaining specific skills or engaging in specific development programmes which could possibly be at risk due to change initiatives (Kunze, Boehm & Bruch, 2010). Furthermore, organizational tenure that is longer and being a blue-collar employee are positive boundary conditions in the relation between age and resistance to change (Kunze *et al*., 2010).

Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors and Length of Service

The results obtained in a study conducted by O'Laughlin and Bischoff (2005) which examines the effect of gender and tenure status among academicians in balancing parenthood and an academic career revealed no differences in tenured against pretenured participants' reports of work or family stress. In relation to tenure status only, there were no significant differences deduced from the quantitative and qualitative analyses (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005). However, a trend in reports of higher engagement in family responsibilities was recognized among tenured participants which suggests that possibly these respondents perceive greater opportunities to utilize a flexible schedule in order to fulfil home and child care demands (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005). Higher levels of work and family stress have been reported among those working for longer hours, who perceive lower job-based support in terms of work/family issues, have spouses who show low support toward career goals and have less satisfaction with day care arrangements (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005).

Volume of Workload and Length of Service

Sue Ling *et al*. (2012) draw a comparison between Baby boomers and Generation Xs detailing that studies have shown Baby boomers to have loyalty toward their employers. Furthermore, their work philosophy is based on hard work and organizational and employer loyalty, amongst others (Sue Ling *et al*., 2012). On the other hand, Generation Xs are more focused on individualism. Quality of life is more of a motivation and a balance between work and family life is what they desire (Sue Ling *et al*., 2012). Individuals from this generation are not always

willing to overwork themselves and are more committed to skill, career including, themselves (Sue Ling *et al*., 2012).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in the volume of workload and number of children at the 5% level of significance.

Volume of Workload and Number of Children

It has been demonstrated that psychosomatic strain is related to psychosocial job demands, social support including, job hazards, home responsibilities and having children that are older and younger (Hall, 1992 cited in Matthews & Power, 2002). Furthermore, there has been some effect established between domestic work and the psychological health of women, which is less than the effect for paid work alone (Hunt & Annandale, 1993 cited in Matthews & Power, 2002). There is a plethora of research in terms of work pressures including an interest in flexible work schedules for females in relation to work-family balance (Zeytinoglu, Cooke & Mann, 2009). Despite this, empirical research has shown that in comparison to the past, women (as well as mothers who have young children) are working longer hours, which is still less than men and have reduced flexible work schedules in comparison to men (Zeytinoglu *et al*., 2009).

6.7. Biographical Correlates and Work-life Balance

It was hypothesized that there exists significant differences in the sub-dimensions of work-life balance amongst employees varying in biographical profiles (age, gender, marital status, race, educational qualifications, position in organization, length of service and number of children), respectively.

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in child/elderly care and age at the 5% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in employee wellness and age at the 5% level of significance.

Child/Elderly Care and Age

Forma (2009, p. 184) draws on the significance of age, focusing on the changing relationship between family and work during the different stages of life such as "living alone", "having small children" and an "empty nest". A bidirectional influence has been exposed between age and the

number of children living at home with work-home interference (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). It has been found that a positive relation exists between the number of children living at home and family-work conflict (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). Greater positive spill-over occurring from work to home has been reported among men with children (where the oldest child is below the age of five) living at home in comparison to men who did not have children (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). Furthermore, the researchers also established that a higher negative association between work and family occurred for women with young children living at home as opposed to women with no children (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010).

On the contrary, in South African studies conducted on the relationship between parental status and work-home interaction, no significant differences were established (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). However, it has been found that a higher negative work-home interference and higher positive home-work interference was reported for parents in comparison to childless individuals (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010).

Employee Wellness and Age

The relation between safety risks, the aging population and the need for protective measures has been the focus of several researchers (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2009). Older employees tend to be more susceptible to occupational risks as a result of the buildup of harmful effects associated with prolonged chronic exposure to harmful factors and inherent health problems (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2009). Papadopoulos *et al*. (2009) indicate that it is increasingly difficult for older workers to adapt to contemporary and demanding work environments (as a result of reduced muscular strength, amongst others). Other sources of occupational risk for younger employees are created due to their lack of experience, limited awareness of occupational health and safety rules and physical and psychological immaturity (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2009). It is anticipated that the rise in the retirement age and growth of longer working periods will have further occupational health and safety impacts (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2009).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in work-family conflict and race at the 5% level of significance.

Work-family Conflict and Race

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in work-family conflict and educational qualifications at the 5% level of significance. In addition, there is a significant difference in child/elderly care and educational qualifications at the 1% level of significance.

In comparison to males, women encounter various and more frequent stressors as a result of the adverse implications of gender discrimination, absence of advancement opportunities and family-work interface issues (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). The lack of contextual resources could be a possible reason for more economic and family problems being experienced by Black women thereby leaving them vulnerable and hindering their ability to effectively deal with environmental demands (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). In the comprehensive analysis conducted by Grzywacz, Almeida & McDonald (2002) cited in Voydanoff (2004) between demographic characteristics and work-to-family conflict and facilitation, a positive link was found between education and work-to-family conflict, with lower work-to-family conflict was reported by men and Blacks in comparison to women and non-Blacks.

Work-family Conflict and Educational Qualifications

Some studies have found no significant differences between varying levels of education and experiences of work-home interference (Pieterse & Mostert, 2005; Rost, 2006 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). However, it has been exposed that there is a strong association between a lower level of education and experiencing a lower level of positive spill-over from work to home (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). It has been demonstrated that a more negative interference from work to home was encountered by employees with a higher level of education (de Klerk & Mostert, 2010). Also, significantly higher levels of negative work to home interference and home to work interference were found among employees with a higher level of education along with higher levels of positive home to work interference (Mostert & Oldfield, 2009 cited in de Klerk & Mostert, 2010).

Child/Elderly care and Educational Qualifications

In a study investigating perceived sources of occupational stress among Chinese employees in a state-owned oil company, it was exposed that higher stress was perceived by better-educated employees from the interface between their work and family or social life including, career

achievement (Wei-qing Chen Tze-wai Wong; Tak-sun Yu; Yan-zu Lin; Cary L. Cooper, 2003 cited in Sirajunisa & Panchanatham, 2010). Canadian data was relied on to examine "the time spent by prime-age women and men (25 – 54) on paid work, childcare, eldercare, household work, volunteering, and education, and then assessed its impact on stress and work-life balance" (Martha MacDonald, Shelley Phipps & Lynn Lethbridge, 2005 cited in Sirajunisa & Panchanatham, 2010, p. 76). It was found that women encountered greater stress than men due to more hours of unpaid work and of that work, time spent on elder care and household work were more stressful than time spent on child care (Sirajunisa & Panchanatham, 2010). It has been found that greater problems are experienced by single parents in reconciling work and family in comparison to dual-earner families (Duxbury, Higgins & Lee 1994 cited in Forma, 2009).

The responses to this study indicate that there is a significant difference in work flexibility and length of service at the 1% level of significance.

Work Flexibility and Length of Service

Employees in positions that are in high demand by employers have the power to negotiate work schedules that are flexible for work-family balance (Zeytinoglu *et al*., 2009). Research confirms that unlike blue-collar and service occupations, managerial and professional occupations have improved access to work schedules that are flexible (Zeytinoglu *et al*., 2009).

6.8.   Conclusion

A significant amount of authors have recognized and accounted for the intensifying demands and changing work context that employees have been exposed to in recent times. This is due to various radical transformations and advancements that have transpired throughout the years. Also, this has subsequent implications for work-life balance outcomes, quality of life and employee well-being which have been presented in this chapter emphasizing the effect of work intensification on work-life balance.

Escalating competitive pressures, higher employer expectations, increased workloads and work-related responsibilities that require greater work effort, rising levels of work stress, job insecurity, technological developments and its influence on acceptable response times, are some of the key contributors for the intensification of work. In addition, from the significant

relationships revealed in this study, the crucial role of managerial/supervisory support in managing work and life demands and influencing employee well-being was evident. The sub-dimensions of work intensification and work-life balance respectively influences the key dimensions of the study through supporting evidence and research provided.

Both, work intensification and work-life balance revealed significant relationships. Furthermore, biographical correlations with some of the sub-dimensions surfaced in the study. Chapter seven outlines the recommendations and conclusion for the current study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1   Introduction

The effect of work intensification on work-life balance was established in this study and was supported through the analysis of empirical evidence conducted by various researchers. The results of the current study were compared and contrasted against the findings and evidence in existing research. This enabled the researcher to achieve the purpose of the study. The recommendations based on the results of the study were formulated with the aim of promoting improvements in quality of life and employee well-being. The recommendations consist of various strategies for implementation to assist employees to cope better with workplace stressors and offers suggestions for support structures that can be adopted by organizations for employees.

The framework for this chapter involves a presentation of recommendations for future research. This is followed by recommendations based on the results of the study which reflects on work intensification and work-life balance. The aim of the study has been accomplished and a model has been developed. In doing so, areas requiring improvement and remedial action are highlighted so that managers can rethink processes within their organizations.

7.2   Recommendations for Future Research

The study was conducted to investigate the effect of work intensification on work-life balance which was based on the perceptions of office based employees in a public sector organization. Comparative studies can be conducted with other service organizations in order to detect and address the critical areas of work intensification and work-life balance. Furthermore, studies can be conducted with different categories of staff, such as, managers and employees based on the key constructs of the study.

Other research studies can investigate various pertinent aspects:

- Future research can address work intensification and work-life balance with labour intensive organizations or with target populations in highly specialized jobs and service orientated jobs.

- A different set of results can surface if comparative studies are conducted with other municipalities, by expanding the work-life balance concept with interactive ideas that can satisfy people's needs in their daily lives.

- Future studies can contrast the wellness strategies of municipalities and develop a best practice wellness framework.

- Studies across regions or provinces can have a larger sample of respondents who are full-time employees.

- An interesting area of investigation is the combination of professional level and labour intensive workers so that a multiplicity of avenues can emerge, for example, the nature of work, work-related demands and stressors.

- Comparative studies with organizations can bring profound knowledge when the focus is on age, gender, race and length of service.

- Future studies can examine changes to a job for specific job categories such as, clerical and specialist jobs, in relation to the rate of work effort needed for job performance. This can determine sources of work intensification based on the job category.

- Work-life balance and life satisfaction are critical elements that can address the overall quality of life of employees.

- Another avenue for research could be conducted on work-life balance with a larger sample or with work intensification and the behavioural patterns of employees.

- Other focal points for consideration can include work intensification and motivation, job satisfaction and the pressures of mergers and downsizing.

- Lastly, future studies can accommodate interviews and observations with respondents in order to obtain an exploratory analysis on peoples' beliefs and motivation.

7.3 Recommendations based on Results of the Study

The recommendations presented below are intended to encourage organizations and policy makers to take heed of the implications associated with the effect of work intensification on work-life balance. In doing so, supportive frameworks and wellness initiatives can be designed to address the work-life balance needs of employees that better suit the type of stressors they encounter in the work environment. Employees are exposed to varied stressors in the modern workplace but it is organizational contributions that can help make a difference to the quality of life and employee well-being. Employees, the most valued assets are up-skilling themselves to cope with the demands of a competitive marketplace. Employees who are well taken care of by their organization will be willing to exceed performance expectations, be results-driven and goal orientated which can be leveraged by the organization in enhancing the bottom-line. Work intensification definitely impacts on work-life balance.

7.3.1 Recommendations Based on the Key Variables of Work Intensification

The recommendations relating to the key constructs of work intensification outline strategies for continuous improvement. Considering the emerging factors that surfaced in this study, strong recommendations highlight some critical points for action:

Work Intensity and Ergonomic Factors

Top management must ensure safe and healthy working conditions which can be achieved through the implementation of the following strategies:

- Organizations must address ergonomic factors for employees' comfort and safety in order to ensure workplace productivity, physical stress reduction and satisfaction with their workspace.
- Organizations must take cognizance of the working capacity of employees and accommodate their needs accordingly. Attempts to limit the deterioration of physical and visual strength are of utmost importance and to safeguard employees.
- Managers must ensure that appropriate office furniture, such as, adjustable office chairs be provided for a healthy posture.

- An ergonomics suggestion box, online forum or monthly support group meetings are alternate avenues for employee complaints, grievances and suggestions relating to ergonomic factors.

- An ergonomics committee must be in place to provide valuable input to design principles, employee comfort and address factors such as, lighting, position of computers/laptops and office layout and seating.

- Staff training on ergonomic issues can equip them to be knowledgeable and take corrective action where needed.

- Management training relating to ergonomics can be useful in detecting workplace hazards.

- Educational information via the distribution of brochures, videos and slides can help to address health and safety and workplace conditions.

Volume of Workload

Line management must prioritize effective workload allocation by adopting the following methods:

- Coaching and mentorships from tenured employees can provide valid suggestions for managing work pressures.

- The allocation of reasonable workloads based on objective criteria should be prioritized by HR and supported by management.

- Managers should engage in addressing performance targets and achievements through open and frequent discussions with employees.

- Timeous workload reviews can result in job re-design and workload re-distribution to reduce excessive workloads.

- Various avenues must be established by managers for employees to address workload volume.

- Engage in staff development and career planning to empower employees and stimulate performance.

Organizational Change

The organization's approach towards managing change initiatives must integrate the following:

- Detailed control of organizational processes can minimize the sources of work intensification.
- Prompt dissemination of information relating to change processes and practices will create employee awareness of the implications on their jobs.
- Regular supervisor-subordinate discussions can address the impact of change.
- In-house surveys regarding organizational changes can provide valuable feedback for managers.
- Managers need to partake in strategic initiatives, such as; joint decision-making and training for organizational change.

Job Insecurity

Managers need to minimize job insecurity and focus on employee flexibility so that there is adaptation to change circumstances, such as, competing in the global marketplace. They need to provide assurance on:

- Employee status within their organization.
- Minimize concerns about the future existence of their jobs.
- Address financial concerns by providing assistance with financial and retirement planning.
- Make employees feel confident in their daily work operations.
- Treat and reward employees and emphasize that their contributions are valued.
- Promote positive behaviours with employees.

Technological Change

Necessary steps need to be proactively implemented by management to ensure that there are smooth transitions in the work environment:

- Reallocate work so that it reduces the burden of work intensification that comes with technological change.

- Training must accompany new technology that is implemented to help employees' transition to new ways of working.
- Institute a policy that addresses the use of technology provided by the organization, particularly outside of the standard working hours, to avoid adverse health outcomes.

Work-related Stress and Psychological Factors

Senior staff must make every effort to protect employees so that they are comfortable in their work environment. In this regard:

- Teamwork can minimize the burden of larger workloads.
- Automated processes can create a more comfortable work atmosphere.
- Managers can implement social support activities for stress reduction purposes such as, team retreats and fun walks.
- Stress support groups can be used as a collective effort for stress reduction.
- Self-assessments on stress levels must be conducted to generate awareness on stress management and coping strategies.
- Train employees to develop problem-solving and conflict management skills to reduce stress.
- Provide a supportive manager-employee relationship so that employees cope easily.

7.3.2 Recommendations Based on the Key Variables of Work-Life Balance

Work Flexibility

From an organizational perspective:

- Managers should provide employees with flexibility with remote working.
- Allow the freedom of choice over employees' work arrangements.
- Accommodate employee needs so that with end results there is financial performance and quality improvements.
- Avenues must be provided so that there is reduced absenteeism and ultimately employee loyalty.

Employee Wellness

Organizations must accommodate crucial aspects pertaining to employee well-being, such as:

- Host voluntary support group sessions to stimulate open discussions on employee well-being.
- Institute an online, interactive wellness forum for employees to share health-related information and articles, personal success stories and milestones, including information on stress management.
- Introduce a weekly wellness time slot during work hours for employees to engage in wellness activities.
- Consider wellness activities as an organizational strategic initiative.
- Human capital is of utmost importance and monthly on-site screening should be arranged which will have a positive effect on employees.

Managerial/Supervisory Support

Management input, support and overall objectives need to focus on:

- Discretionary powers to oversee all organizational processes.
- Provide a supportive work climate and continuously emphasize the culture and values of the organization.
- Create a good working environment where there is collaboration and employee engagement.
- Ensure that staff needs are met.

Child/Elderly Care

Managers must take cognizance of the demands encountered by working parents and those with caregiving responsibilities and organize several activities whereby they can:

- Arrange holiday activities for children such as, a camping or sporting activity.
- Provide child care assistance through an on-site day care facility.
- Share workloads to accommodate the child/elderly care responsibilities of employees.

Work-Family Conflict

In an effort to promote quality of life:

- Organizations must foster a supportive workplace culture by encouraging managers and employees to partake in work-life balance initiatives.
- Organizations can employ a psychologist to assist with work-family conflict and stress experienced by employees.
- Availability of a special leave policy can be adopted by organizations to help employees cope.
- On-site workshops facilitated by professional life coaches that focus on life skills can be arranged for employees.

7.3.3 The Relationship between the Sub-dimensions of Work Intensification and Work-Life Balance

The relationship between work intensification and work-life balance are reflected in Figure 7.1. The sub-dimensions of organizational and technological change, work intensity and ergonomic factors, work-related stress and psychological factors, volume of workload and job insecurity impact on work intensification to varying degrees with work-related stress and psychological factors having the greatest impact, followed by volume of workload, as depicted in Figure 7.1. Likewise, work-family conflict, work flexibility, managerial/supervisory support, and child/elderly care and employee wellness are the sub-dimensions of work-life balance but impact on work-life balance to varying degrees, with the greatest impact being managerial/supervisory support, followed by work-family conflict, as depicted in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1

Impact of Work Intensification on Work-Life Balance Based on Results of the Study
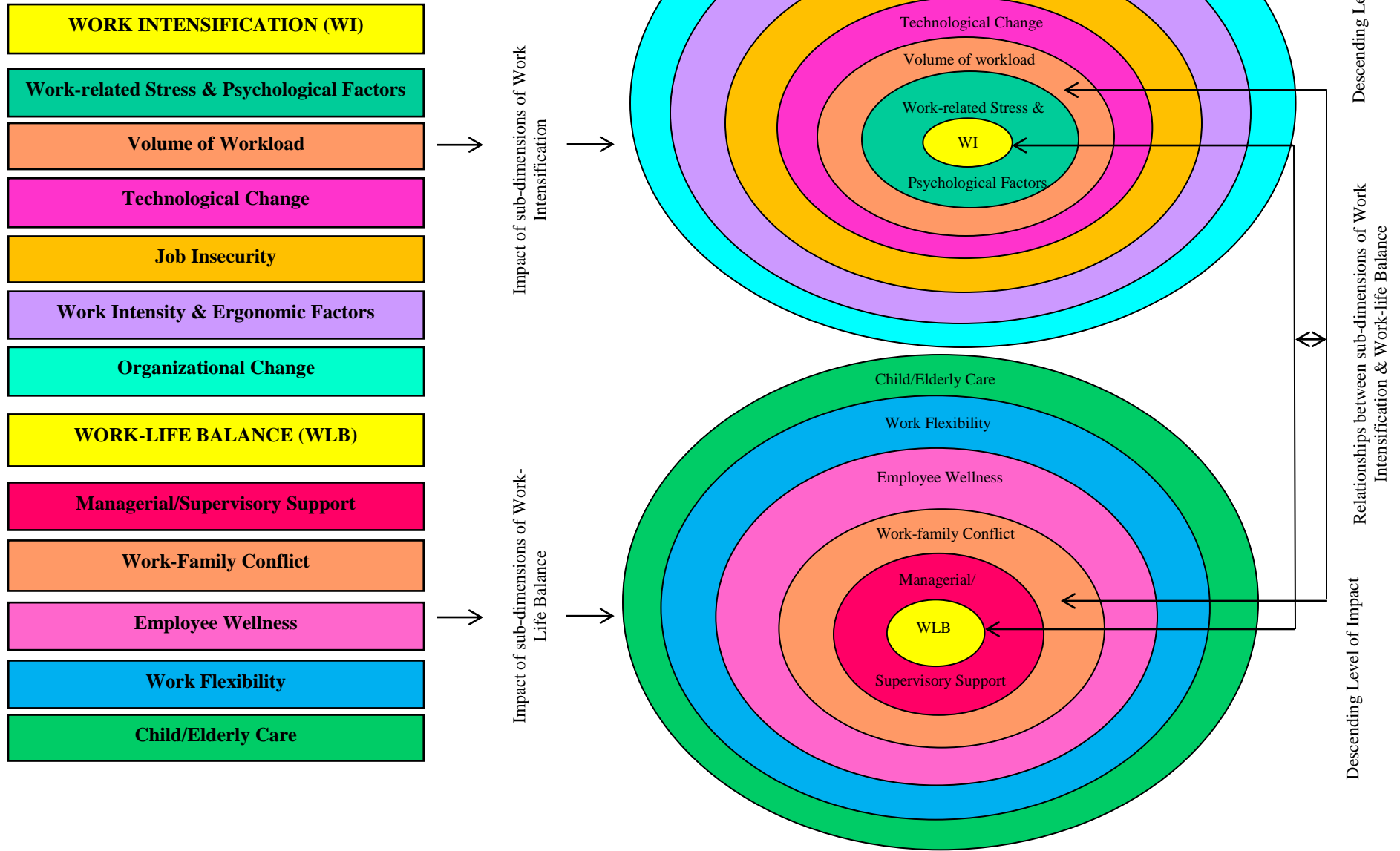
The results of the descriptive analysis indicate that the employees have differing views on each of the sub-dimensions of work intensification and work-life balance. Figure 7.1 which is based on the means, were used to generate the views of employees regarding work intensification and work-life balance. As one moves from the inner most point of each circular diagram to the outer most points, the mean values decrease.

In this study, respondents also indicated that managerial/supervisory support correlates significantly but inversely with organizational change and work-related stress and psychological factors. Managers/supervisors must be trained on effective change and stress management; ensure timeous communication of essential information and actively listen to employee concerns in order to be supportive at all times. In addition, managerial/supervisory support correlates significantly with work intensity and ergonomic factors and volume of workload. Well-designed work stations that promote employee functionality and enhance performance must be implemented and monitored at intervals through regular discussions between managers/supervisors and employees.

In addition, work-family conflict correlates significantly with technological change and work-related stress and psychological factors. Organizations need to ensure that employees are their top priority and also implement interventions to assist with work and home imbalances and, stress reduction. In addition, work-family conflict correlates significantly but inversely with work intensity and ergonomic factors. Organizations need to pay continuous attention to design principles so that employees' feel safe and comfortable which contributes to quality of life and human performance.

Furthermore, child/elderly care correlates significantly with work-related stress and psychological factors. Therefore, focus should be on offering flexible working options to employees. Management must communicate and encourage employees to take up such options in order to accommodate caregiving responsibilities during work hours. In addition, work flexibility correlates significantly with volume of workload. Thus, the availability of flexible working arrangements must be aligned with business and employee needs with reasonable workloads and performance expectations placed on employees.

7.3.4 The Relationship between Biographical Variables and Work Intensification and Work-Life Balance

The study indicates that there is a significant difference in the volume of workload dimension of work intensification and age, marital status, number of children, position in organization and length of service. Organizations should make every effort to account for the difference in working capabilities across the various age groups. Workload reviews must be in place to ensure that the distribution of workload accounts for the marital status and family responsibilities of employees. Strategies for workload re-distribution and job re-design must be considered to ensure a suitable job match while comprehensive induction processes can be useful for those new to the organization. It has been found that there is a significant difference in the job insecurity dimension of work intensification and age, marital status and position in the organization. Serious consideration must be given to have support services such as, counseling and support groups in order to alleviate employee anxiety associated with job loss.

The results of the study reveal that there is a significant difference in the work-related stress and psychological factors sub-dimension of work intensification and race, educational qualifications and length of service. In light of this, organizations must institute formal training interventions to equip employees with the critical skills to perform effectively and develop resilient behaviours for managing work stress, change and excessive work pressures. Employees with a greater length of service should be involved in decision-making processes regarding workplace changes and contribute to stress reduction initiatives. Furthermore, there is a significant difference in the technological change sub-dimension of work intensification and educational qualifications. Organizations must ensure that employees are trained to operate new systems, with on-site technical support provided for the adoption of new technology.

A significant difference exists in the work intensity and ergonomic factors sub-dimension of work intensification and position in the organization. A survey approach can be used to assess ergonomic needs from top management to lower levels of the organization in order to improve working conditions. Furthermore, a significant difference surfaces in the organizational change sub-dimension of work intensification and length of service. Organizations need to tailor

approaches of change implementation with the length of service of employees in order to overcome issues of resistance, capacity to cope and commitment to retain the status quo.

It has been found that there is a significant difference in the child/elderly care sub-dimension of work-life balance and age and, educational qualifications. Organizations must prioritize policies and programmes that address child/elderly care assistance in order to accommodate employees from different age groups. The results of the study reveal that there is a significant difference in the employee wellness sub-dimension of work-life balance and age. Organizations need to acknowledge that well-being requirements will vary with the age of employees. Consultations with line managers, referrals to the HR department or in-house surveys can be used to gauge the needs of employees and a diverse range of wellness options should be made available.

A significant difference also emerges in the work-family conflict sub-dimension of work-life balance and race and, educational qualifications. As a result, emphasis needs to be placed on skills development initiatives focusing on previously disadvantaged groups and individuals without a tertiary level education. This will contribute to optimized skill utilization and improvements in work-family facilitation. There is a significant difference in the work flexibility sub-dimension of work-life balance and length of service. Organizations must seriously consider length of service with eligibility for flexible work schedules to promote a culture of balance.

The above recommendations on the key constructs of the study are generated in a graphical representation to indicate the impact of work intensification on work-life balance (Figure 7.2).

Figure 7.2

Recommendations Based on Results of the Study

Organizational Change

Work Intensity & Ergonomic Factors

Job Insecurity

Technological Change

Volume of Workload

Work-related Stress &

Work Intensification

Psychological Factors

Child/Elderly Care

Work Flexibility

Employee Wellness

Work-Family Conflict

Managerial/

Work-life Balance

Supervisory Support

Managers need to:
- Provide assurance on employee status.
- Minimize concerns about the future existence of their jobs.
- Make employees feel confident in their daily work.
- Address financial concerns with financial and retirement planning.
- Reward employees and acknowledge their valued contributions.
- Promote positive employee behaviours.

Top management must ensure that:
- Ergonomic factors are addressed for employees' comfort.
- The working capacity and needs of employees are noted.
- Appropriate office furniture is used.
- An ergonomics suggestion box, online forum or monthly support groups are implemented.
- An ergonomics committee is set up.
- Staff and management training is provided.
- Information on ergonomics is disseminated.

The following steps must be implemented:
- Reallocation of work to reduce the burden of work intensification.
- Training must accompany new technology.
- A policy that addresses use of technology that is provided by the organization, in order to avoid adverse health outcomes.

Organizations must integrate the following:
- Detailed control of organizational processes.
- Prompt dissemination of information on change processes.
- Regular supervisor-subordinate discussions.
- In-house surveys on organizational change.
- Joint decision-making and training for change.

Line managers must address workloads via:
- Coaching and mentorships.
- Allocation of reasonable workloads.
- Addressing performance targets and achievements.
- Conducting timeous workload reviews.
- Providing avenues for employees to address workload volume.
- Staff development and career planning.

Senior staff must accommodate for:
- Teamwork.
- Application of automated processes.
- Social support activities for stress reduction.
- Stress support groups.
- Self-assessments on stress levels.
- Development of problem-solving and conflict management skills.
- Supportive manager-employee relationships.

Managers must arrange for:
- A camping or sporting activity for children.
- An on-site day care facility.
- Sharing of workloads to accommodate the child/elderly care responsibilities of employees.

Employee wellness can be provided for by:
- Hosting voluntary support group sessions.
- An online, interactive wellness forum.
- Introducing a weekly wellness time slot.
- Considering wellness as a strategic initiative.
- Offering monthly on-site screening.

Organizations must provide:
- Flexibility with remote working.
- Freedom of choice over employees' work arrangements.
- Accommodate employee needs.
- Avenues so that there is reduced absenteeism and ultimately employee loyalty.

Organizations can provide:
- A supportive workplace culture.
- The services of a psychologist.
- A special leave policy.
- On-site workshops facilitated by professional life coaches that focus on life skills.

Management must focus on:
- Discretionary powers to oversee all organizational processes.
- Providing a supportive work climate.
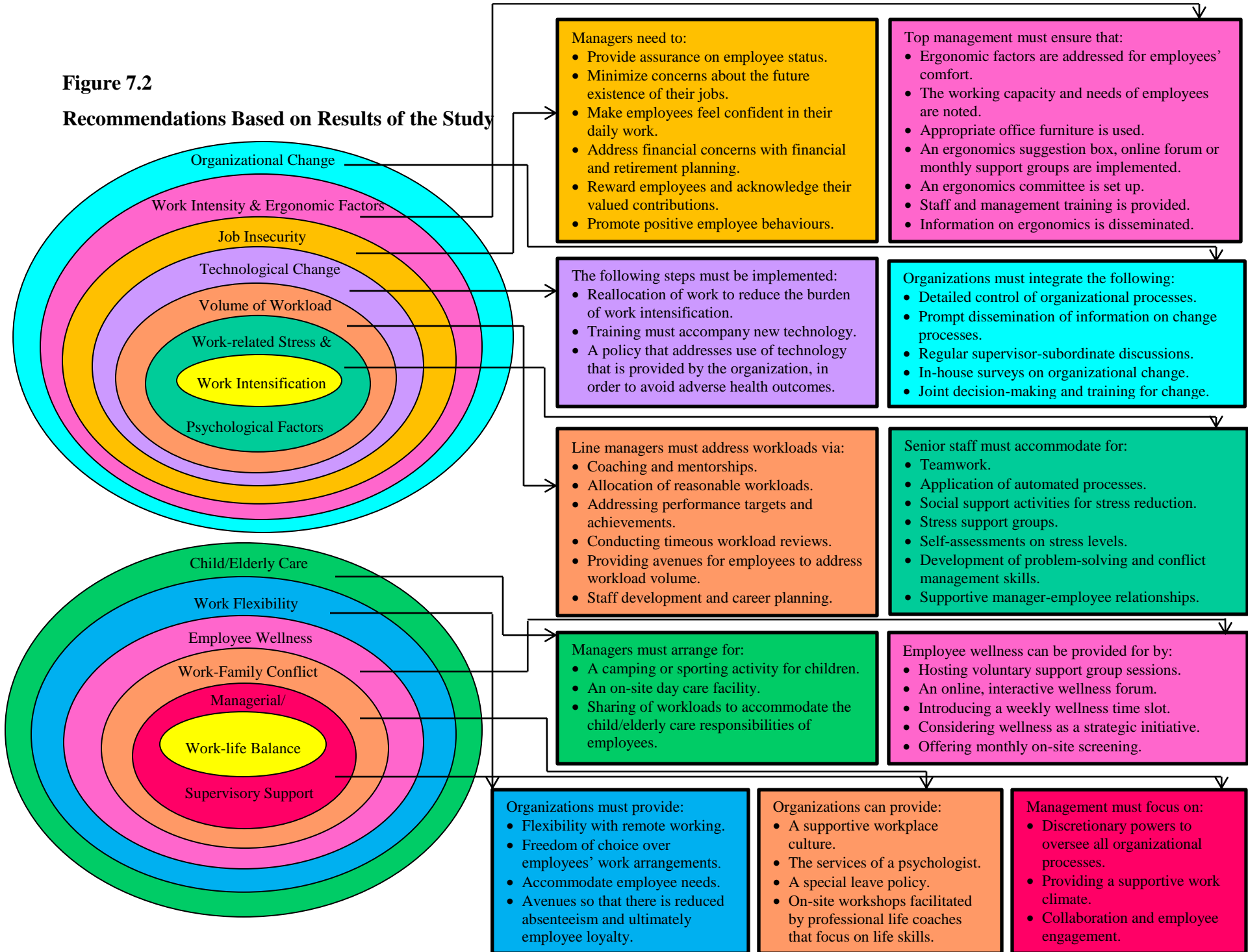- Collaboration and employee engagement.

Figure 7.2 projects the recommendations graphically which specify strategies and suggestions. From the innermost segment as indicated by the arrow in Figure 7.2, the impact of the sub-dimensions of work intensification diminishes but the recommendations for the current study are depicted graphically to show a way forward with the desired ways of signaling change initiatives relating mostly to organizational factors.

However, recommendations relating to work life balance are also provided. Similarly, as one moves from the innermost segment as indicated by the black arrow in Figure 7.2, the impact of the sub-dimensions of work-life balance diminishes but coping strategies as a way forward are indicated in the recommendations. The implementation of the strategies and recommendations provided in Figure 7.2 shows the elements that affect both organizational factors and individual factors in various ways. Hence, organizations will be equipped to implement the recommendations, thereby promoting a culture of balance through improvements to quality of life and individual well-being via the recommendations.

7.4   Conclusion

The study embarked on addressing the effect of work intensification on work-life balance in a public sector organization. The study focused on full-time office based workers and, emphasizes that work intensification and work-life balance can be conducted in organizations other than labour intensive organizations. The thematic flow with both organizational and personal factors shows the strength of the study as the discussions open with a snowballing effect, highlighting the importance of the study.

In an era where employees need to be equipped with updated skills in order to be productive and efficient and shape their career paths, organizations need to provide avenues to address and accommodate employee-related concerns of work flexibility, job security and on-site health screening, amongst others. Work flexibility is an added advantage for organizations that value their human capital for ultimate performance and, to create higher levels of value for organizations that are struggling to keep abreast of market changes. Technological change and organizational changes have the potential to impact employees' job content and functions; hence managers need to pay attention to this, in addition to market competition and uncertainty that prevails continuously. A rethink regarding the volume of workload in this public sector

organization would be an added advantage for employees. These important issues impinge on matters of productivity. Assistance with provision of child and elderly care support can improve the recruitment and retention phases in the company. In turbulent times, managers need to pay attention to employees' health and monitor employees stress factors. Employers need to provide support by providing child/elderly care support, managerial/supervisory support and wellness programmes so that the flow of work is smooth with less intense demands. Managers need to adjust the work environment to accommodate work demands and non-work responsibilities. Certainly, rigorous changes to workplace conditions to accommodate employees' needs would do more for the workforce.

This study has revealed that work intensification does impact on work-life balance. The dimensions relating to work intensification and work-life balance occurred at varying degrees. There is room for improvement and the recommendations are clearly outlined in this study. Significant inter-correlations surfaced with some of the sub-dimensions for both work intensification and, with work-life balance; and correlations were shown for some of work intensification and work-life balance sub-dimensions. The variance in work-life balance was due to the effect of work intensification factors. Work-related stress and psychological factors had a considerably higher impact on work intensification than volume of workload. Similarly, the variance in work intensification was due to the effect of work-life balance factors. Managerial/supervisory support had a slightly higher impact on work-life balance than work-family conflict. The spill overs from home to work and vice-versa are unavoidable.

The biographical variables show significant differences related to work intensification. This includes the volume of workload dimension and, age, marital status, number of children, position in organization and length of service and; job insecurity dimension and, age, marital status and position. Adding to this was work-related stress and psychological factors and, race, educational qualifications and length of service and; technological change and educational qualifications. Furthermore, significant differences emerged with work intensity and ergonomic factors and, position in the organization and; organizational change and length of service. With work-life balance, significant differences were found with child/elderly care and, age and with educational qualifications. In addition, significant differences were shown with employee wellness and age; work-family conflict and race and educational qualifications and; lastly, with work flexibility and length of service.

The analysis of the study provides a holistic perspective with pros and cons for employers, employees and also young workers and college graduates not to underestimate that work intensification occurs in organizations other than labour intensive organizations and, to take cognizance of the fact that work-life balance is a core ingredient in the life of an individual. A careful exposition is shown in the discussion of results and the recommendations for the study. The study is significant for practical reasons and, has been extensively theorized to address the aims of the study. A study of this nature can be conducted in both public and private sector organizations. Managers need to prioritize, redesign jobs and accommodate the needs of employees by shifting boundaries and accommodating changes in the workplace.

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ANNEXURE A

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT AND GOVERNANCE

Dear Respondent,

Masters of Commerce in Human Resource Management (HRM) Research Project
Researcher: Ms. Aaliya Abdoolla (083 657 8464)
Supervisor: Dr. P. Govender (031 260 7335)
Research Office: Ms. P Ximba (031 260 3587)

I, **Aaliya Abdoolla** am a Master of Commerce, HRM student, at the **SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT & GOVERNANCE**, of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled: **The Effect of Work Intensification on Work-life Balance**. The aim of this study is to explore the effect of work intensification on work-life balance.

Through your participation I hope to understand the effect that work intensification has on employees' work-life balance in this public sector organization. The results of the survey will contribute to further research in this area of study.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the **SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT & GOVERNANCE**, **UKZN.**

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The survey should take you about 25 minutes to complete. I appreciate your time in completing this survey.

Sincerely
Aaliya Abdoolla

Investigator's signature _____   Date _____

CONSENT

I…………………………………………………………………. (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

………………………………….. ………………….
SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT   DATE

To be retained by researcher.

SECTION A

- Kindly complete the details below.

- Your participation in completing the questionnaire is appreciated.

- Confidentiality will be maintained.

- Thank you for your cooperation.

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

Where applicable, mark an **X** in the appropriate box.

1.   **Age**

Under 25

25-34

35-44

45 and above

2.   **Gender**

Male

Female

3.   **Marital status**

Single

Married

Divorced

Widowed

4.   **Race**

Coloured

White

Indian

African

5. **Educational Qualifications**

Standard 8-10 ☐

Diploma certificate ☐

Undergraduate Degree ☐

Post-graduate Degree/s ☐

Post-graduate Diploma certificate ☐

6. **Position in organization**

Manager ☐

Supervisor ☐

Employee ☐

7. **Length of Service**

0-5 years ☐

6-10 years ☐

11-15 years ☐

16-20 years ☐

21 years & over ☐

8. **Number of children**

No children ☐

One child ☐

Two children ☐

Three children ☐

Four children & over ☐

SECTION B

The questionnaire is designed to enable the researcher to determine **the effect of work intensification on work-life balance**.

Please indicate with an **X** the appropriate response to the statements below by using the following scales:

Strongly Disagree   (SD)   1

Disagree   (D)   2

Neutral   (N)   3

Agree   (A)   4

Strongly Agree   (SA)   5

		1	2	3	4	5
	Statement	**SD**	**D**	**N**	**A**	**SA**
1.	With continuous changes in my organisation, I feel as if my workload has increased.					
2.	As new staff join the organisation, new reporting structures come into place.					
3.	I feel that with current changes, the content of my job has changed from what it initially was.					
4.	My organisation continuously introduces innovative working practices to improve operational efficiency.					
5.	Flexibility of my organisation's culture allows workplace changes to be implemented at any time.					
6.	I feel that the daily challenges posed to workers are intensified by the introduction of new technology.					
7.	The introduction of new technology disrupts the normal work schedule in my organization.					
8.	I feel that improvements in technology introduce staff to new ways of working which can be stressful.					
9.	I find that technological advancements have led to the demand for speedy responses with work matters.					
10.	My work revolves heavily with work at the computer which involves prolonged periods of sitting.					
11.	The design of my workspace ensures optimal functioning when performing my work.					
12.	I feel that staff in my organisation feel free to address problems associated with ergonomically supportive work stations.					

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
		SD	D	N	A	SA
13.	I make adjustments to my work space according to the activities I perform.					
14.	Senior staff in my organization have a general understanding of workplace ergonomic principles.					
15.	My computer position and seat are important in preventing physical discomfort.					
16.	I feel that an increase in responsibility leads to my stress levels.					
17.	My organisation makes every effort to assist employees to cope with stress.					
18.	I can recover quickly from my stress levels at work.					
19.	I experience stress due to:					
	19.1. Conflicting work demands.					
	19.2. Working long hours.					
20.	I feel that a certain level of work stress compels me to exert greater effort.					
21.	Staff in my organisation are multi-tasking (a variety of tasks) daily.					
22.	With on the job training or learning, I am taking on additional tasks.					
23.	I am able to cope with work even if the volume of work increases.					
24.	There are times when I feel that the quantity of my workload compels me to work beyond the normal work hours.					
25.	There are days when I work at a faster pace in order to get the job done.					
26.	I feel that with job insecurity, my overall well-being is negatively affected.					
27.	I have the skills for my job, but I work intensely.					
28.	Due to job insecurity, I am willing to take on new tasks.					
29.	I am willing to accept a job change so that my financial security is intact.					
30.	I find myself continuously working at a faster pace to safeguard my job.					
31.	There are times when I feel work strain, which impacts on my family life.					
32.	I have a preoccupation with work which causes me to invest less effort to meet role demands at home.					
33.	There are days when I experience work-family conflict which affects my quality of life.					
34.	I am constantly trying to avoid conflict with my work and personal life.					

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
		SD	D	N	A	SA
35.	I find that demands from my work leads to my dissatisfaction regarding life satisfaction.					
36.	I feel that flexible working arrangements can help me to cope with my work stress more easily.					
37.	Flexible work can help me to balance work with family life more effectively.					
38.	A compressed work week can help me to achieve a better work-life balance.					
39.	Working flexibly will not tire me on a daily basis.					
40.	By working flexibly, I can be more productive.					
41.	Supervisory support is evident in my organization.					
42.	Supervisors take the initiative to allow flexibility in the work situation when considering home activities.					
43.	Supervisors make every effort to ensure that staff perform optimally on a continuous basis.					
44.	I feel that managers in my organisation ensure that staff needs are met.					
45.	Senior personnel's focus is to develop staff professionally.					
46.	Staff in my organization see the need for a child/elderly care facility on work premises.					
47.	I avoid bringing work home as it reduces my level of involvement with family time.					
48.	I feel that my organisation is sensitive to employees' child care/elderly care commitments.					
49.	I work intensely to supplement my household income to support my family responsibilities.					
50.	Employee wellness is a top priority in my organization.					
51.	My organization makes every effort to contribute to employee well-being.					
52.	In the long term, employee health benefits the employee.					
53.	Health promoting factors in my organization contribute to my well-being.					
54.	Staff in my organisation are given the opportunity to partake in decision-making matters regarding employee wellness.					
55.	I feel that my organisation shows commitment to improving the health of the workforce.					

Comments

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for participating.

30 June 2014

Ms Aaliya Abdoolla 208509347
School of Management, IT and Governance
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/0649/014M
Project title: The effect of work intensification on work-life balance.

Dear Ms Abdoolla

Expedited Approval

In response to your application dated 24 June 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL.**
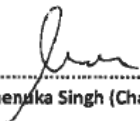
Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor: Dr P Govender
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor B McArthur
cc School Administrator: Ms Angela Pearce