PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING :
A STUDY AMONG NON-ACADEMIC STAFF AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

By

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I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own original work, and has not been submitted previously for a degree at any other university.

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This dissertation is dedicated to my parents

Mrs and the late Mr C.L. Pillay

For instilling in me the value of intellectual pursuit.

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"If we do not take change by the hand,

it will seize us by the throat"

(Sir Winston Churchill)

ABSTRACT

Change is inevitable and will be the hallmark of our lives. This study was undertaken against the background of the restructuring plans at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW). It was motivated by a concern for the psychosocial consequences of organisational restructuring relating to non-academic employees at the university. A further motivation was the increased number of staff seeking counselling related to their anxiety, following the introduction of the voluntary severance packages. The basic premise of this study is that, while transformation is essential, it must be given a humane face. Organisational restructuring is placed within the broader rubric of change. The study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are the psychosocial consequences of organisational restructuring for non-academic staff at UDW?
- How do non-academic staff react to the changes arising out of the restructuring process?
- What are the views of non-academic staff about the organisational changes?

Systems Theory and Crisis Theory have been used in the study to explain how individuals respond to change. The sample comprised 40 individuals who were employed by the University for a period ranging from under one year to 25 years.

The research procedure adopted was one of triangulation. Data, both qualitative and quantitative in nature, were collected through the use of questionnaires, interviews and non-participant observation. Quantitative data was analysed using frequency distribution tables and cross tabulation tables. "Inductive analysis" was used for the formal analysis of qualitative data.

The major finding of this study was that the respondents had no problem with transformation *per se*, but they were concerned about the manner in which it was being implemented at UDW. The majority of them felt that in attempting to meet transformational goals, the university management had compromised the fundamental requirements of fairness and sensitivity. Moreover, respondents believed that "unplanned change" was taking place too rapidly. This, they believed, contributed to a state of uncertainty and disorganisation. Changes needed to be phased in.

The key recommendations regarding restructuring include the need for a commitment on the part of Management to the principles of fairness, justice and respect. A case is made for incremental and, manageable change. Programmes for employee development and counselling are crucial. The need for a participatory and transparent programme of change is also stressed. In short, wide ranging consultation, sound communication, an effective human resource team and a shared vision are all identified as essential elements for successful organizational restructuring.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE NATURE, AIMS AND SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

1.1   BACKGROUND TO THIS STUDY

Change is inevitable, whether good or bad, desired or unwelcome.   Individuals, organisations and societies grow through change.   Recent political changes in South Africa heralded radical changes in various other aspects of our society. The transformation that is taking place in education is a part of this process. Under the apartheid regime, State spending was heavily skewed in favour of the whites. This imbalance created wide socio-economic discrepancies in our society. This led to calls for transformation to be extended beyond politics to other aspects of South African life. The historically disadvantaged sections of our society have rising expectations relating to matters such as justice, equity and redress. Consequently, transformation has a sense of urgency in South Africa. Organizational restructuring is one component of transformation. Dramatic changes have occurred in the field of education. Compulsory education has now been extended to all population groups in South Africa and universities are being urged to reflect the demographics of the wider South African society. It is within this context that the central focus of this study needs to be seen, viz. the effects of organisational change in post-apartheid South Africa at the University of Durban-Westville (UDW).

1.2 TRANSFORMATION AND RESTRUCTURING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

The transformation of higher education is located within the broader transition of South Africa to democracy. This has socio-economic, political and educational components (National Commission for Higher Education, 1996: 27). South African universities are being called upon to address and overcome the deficiencies created by apartheid within various spheres of society in South Africa.

To understand the process of transformation at UDW, one needs to recall its earliest years as a racially segregated university assigned to the Indian community. This university began with a largely white and Indian staff composition. With the inception of a new democratic government in 1994 and the consequent deracialisation of tertiary institutions, a national policy of global accessibility and employment equity was implemented at South African universities. For this purpose, adequate funding became crucial. However, owing to global sanctions against the previous South African government, widespread unemployment, a poor economic growth rate, a foreign debt crisis, rising public debts, and a significant fall in the value of the rand, South Africa's attempts to implement transformation were hampered.

The current financial constraints render rationalisation and the elimination of unnecessary duplication at universities absolutely necessary. Student debt has contributed largely to the financial crisis of tertiary institutions. According to Duffy (1998), "Student debt is estimated to have more than doubled over the past year to around R500 million, with historically disadvantaged campuses carrying the bulk" (p. 2).

In response to the inevitable financial cut-backs from the State, the University of Durban-Westville informed the university community in a circular that "the budget for 1997 has placed enormous demands on and caused inconvenience to all in their endeavours to operate effectively" (Stuart, 1997). Moreover, the circular noted that the university had been operating at a loss over the past five years, with its expenses exceeding its income every year since 1992.

Added to these financial setbacks, was the problem of non-payment of fees by a significant sector of UDW's student population. The university's expected gross fee income for 1997 was R58 028 million, based on a student enrollment of 10 500. It was anticipated that there would be a loss of R 11 606 million on this figure as a result of unpaid fees (Stuart, 1997). The circular also alluded to "hard decisions" that needed to be taken, "to reduce expenditure in whatever ways possible", including, presumably, a reduction in the number of staff. The *UDW Restructuring Newsletter* [1997, Vol. 1(1)] graphically captured, in the following words, the financial dilemma leading to restructuring:

> *"The University is in financial crisis and drastic measures are needed to ensure our survival." (p. 1)*

This budgetary crisis forced the UDW Council to appoint a Finance Action Committee (FAC) to restore the finances of UDW to good health. The FAC began its task by engaging the services of a firm of consultants to prepare a preliminary report on rightsizing UDW. In keeping with their mandate the consultants provided broad guidelines and recommendations after having worked with the Student Administration and Campus Protection Services

department, and indicated that these could be negotiated after full consultation with the affected parties. At this point, for reasons undisclosed, the university suspended the services of the consultants. However, the FAC reiterated its commitment to full consultation with all stakeholders, though in some quarters there was a perception that this promise had not been honoured. The staff union referred to as the Combined Staff Association (COMSA), declared a dispute about the restructuring process, in terms of Section 13 of the Recognition Agreement (Appendix 3), alleging that UDW's Management Committee had failed to consult the majority union. COMSA insisted that the restructuring process was procedurally flawed.

On 31/07/97, the Human Resources Director issued a circular to all permanent staff of the non-academic sector, below the age of 60. In it they were informed that the university was prepared to offer voluntary severance packages (VSPs), to those employees who wished to terminate their employment contracts with the university. The voluntary severance offer was seen as a cost saving undertaking and one that would enable the university to be administered more effectively, *UDW Restructuring Newsletter* [1993, Vol. 3 (I)].

The *UDW Restructuring Newsletter* [1997, Vol. 2 (2)] acknowledged that dissatisfaction with the VSP process had been widely expressed. A task team appointed by the Management Forum, to ensure a fair and humane implementation of the VSPs, highlighted in a series of documents the grievances of the non-academic staff in respect of VSPs. However, the recommendations made by this team were not accepted by the FAC. On the 26 September 1997, at a special Senate Meeting called by a group of concerned senior academics, there were calls for the VSP process to be suspended until proper systems and procedures were put into

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place. This created a state of uncertainty and the lack of clarity from the Management of the university led to confusion, anxiety and insecurity. However, in the *Restructuring Newsletter* [1997, Vol. 2 (2)] management communicated its decision not to suspend the VSP process. Prima facie, there appears to be a recognition by UDW Management to address the anxieties and concerns of affected non-academic staff. This was done in a circular from the Strategic Planning office, which informed non-academic staff of the following provisions aimed at assisting the individuals concerned in a variety of ways; for example, a help desk, meetings with heads of departments, and seminars on the financial management of the VSPs.

As of 3/10/97, 264 non-academic staff members had applied for the VSP. The *UDW Restructuring Newsletter* [1997, Vol. 2 (2)] commented as follows in this regard: "This number falls within a manageable range for the VSP process, **that would make other methods of rightsizing unnecessary**." (Emphasis added). A perceived fear and possible misunderstanding, was that those staff who did not exercise the option of the VSP offer would face possible retrenchment. This perception generated considerable anxiety.

An important aspect of the VSP offer needs to be mentioned, that is, subject to a Departmental Head recommendation, and the approval of the relevant MANCO manager, those staff accepting the VSPs and who were considered to have critical skills, could be offered the option of short term contracts without benefits. As of 7/ 11/ 97, UDW had accepted 222 VSPs and awarded 83 contracts for critical services. All posts falling vacant through the VSP were frozen.

1.2.1 The Demographic Factor

Since the University of Durban-Westville was historically an exclusively Indian university, it understandably had a predominantly Indian staff at administrative and academic levels. When the university became non-racial, it became necessary to increase the number of African staff so as to reflect more fairly the demographics of the country. Affirmative action in South Africa according to Rámphele (1992) has to be embedded in a clearly articulated equity policy framework, in which transformation of social relations is the central focus. This would serve to reflect the, diversity of South African society. However, Mamdani (1992) was of the view that "most black" students will be found at *"black"* universities, (Indian, Coloured and African), therefore one wonders whether affirmative action would be an adequate social remedy to the historical problem of apartheid education. What difference would affirmative action strategies make to resource *"poor black"* universities?

Increased participation and redress calls for the need to adapt to diversity. According to the NCHE (1996), *the challenge of diversity lies in the complexity of effecting change in long-established systems and a shift away from the status quo. Expansion of participation or massification is both a response to the demand for redress and diversity, and the need for economic development"* (p. 27). Massification is not just about increased numbers; but has major implications for the structure of the education system, management, co-ordination, planning and funding. With time the perception grew amongst sections of the university community, particularly among the non-academic sector, that the main and unspoken aim of the voluntary severance package offer was the reduction of Indian staff and their possible replacement by African staff.

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1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Broadly, this study aims to investigate the psychosocial effects of organisational restructuring at the University of Durban-Westville. More specifically, the objectives of the study were to:

- explore how non-academic staff were coping with the impending changes arising out of the restructuring process

- solicit the opinions of the non-academic staff regarding the proposed changes

- formulate guidelines for policy-makers at UDW about the restructuring process and its consequences.

A major developmental objective was to map a broad strategy for conceptualising, formulating and implementing the process of organisational restructuring at South African universities undergoing transformation.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are the psychosocial consequences of organisational restructuring for non-academic staff at UDW?

- How do non-academic staff at UDW react to the changes arising out of the restructuring process?

- What are the expressed views of non-academic staff regarding the organisational changes?

1.5   **MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

The study was motivated by the researcher's concern about the impact that the organisational restructuring at UDW could have on the personal, family and work life of the members of staff. In her capacity as a student counsellor at the Personal Counselling Unit, UDW, the researcher was strategically placed to assess the effects of the changes at the university. Furthermore, the number of self-referred staff seeking counselling directly related to their concerns, anxieties and fears following the introduction of the VSPs, had increased. This aroused the researcher's interest even more and convinced her that the matter was worth investigating further.

South African universities are facing severe state funding cuts and the consequent disruptive effects. Restructuring is a response to this budgetary crisis at universities. Therefore, this study, besides addressing a topical issue, is timely. In these fluid times of transformation in South Africa, tertiary institutions have a vital role to play, especially in the medium to long term. Thus, the present study, focusing on non-academic staff, offers an early opportunity to address the key issues of restructuring and transformation. The rationale for this study was essentially pragmatic and aimed to inform UDW policy-makers of the complex human factor, specifically the psychosocial effects on those non-academic staff affected by restructuring.

1.6   SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY

The primary significance of this study is that it sheds light on the psychosocial aspects of employees who are affected by organisational restructuring. It is envisaged that this study will guide policy makers to effect changes in ways that minimise disruptions, advance the welfare of those affected, and lend recourse to those who are inevitably affected by the changes. It is expected that thought would precede action and allow for a sensitive implementation of change strategies by highlighting the human dimension of restructuring. Although the current study is located at UDW and change may be peculiar to itself, it is obvious that restructuring processes are taking place across all South African universities. It is hoped that the recommendations derived from the findings of this study will inform organisational change processes at other South African tertiary institutions.

1.7   RESEARCH PARADIGM

According to Patton (cited in Maguire, 1987: 10) a paradigm refers to *"a world view, a general perspective"*. The power of paradigm lies in the fact that *"what we do in the world reflects what we know about it, and what we know depends on how we go about knowing it, or in other words, when thinking about change we should start thinking about thinking"* (Bawden and Macadem, cited in Beall, 1995: 105). A paradigm shapes what we look at and how we look at things, what we define as problems, what we consider worth investigating and solving, and what methods we prefer in our investigations and actions.

An exploratory-descriptive research design was used in this study. Both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were incorporated within this research design. Quantitative research emphasises deductive techniques and technical rationality as the main sources of knowledge. Literature on research paradigms tends to dichotomise quantitative and qualitative methodology, with triangulation being the process of bringing them together. Triangulation includes the use of two or more methods of data collection *"which attempt to explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint"* (Cohen and Manion, 1995: 254).

A self-administered questionnaire that was designed to assess the effects of the restructuring process at the University of Durban-Westville was used. This method of data collection was supplemented by interviews and non-participant observation. The interviews with each participant allowed the researcher to delve deeper in an attempt to assess the congruence in non-verbal and verbal behaviour. Non-participant observation was useful as it allowed the researcher to observe and describe the participant's behaviour as it occurred naturally. The sample in this study comprised males and females that were employed in the non-academic sector of the University of Durban-Westville for a period ranging from under one year to twenty-five years.

1.8   DEFINITION OF TERMS

Job -Stress

This is the perception that environmental demands exceed the abilities of the individual or that environmental supplies and opportunities will leave major needs or motives of the person unmet. Essentially, there is a perceived incongruence or lack of fit between the person and the environment (French *et al.*, 1982).

Stressor

This refers to the psychological and social factors that arouse emotional and physical reactions in the individual. Examples of major stressors are change, pressure, uncertainty and conflict (Kiev and Kahn, 1979).

General Adaptation Syndrome

They refer to a description of the three phases of the defense reaction that a person establishes when stressed. These phases are called alarm, resistance, and exhaustion (Selye, 1974).

Crisis

This refers to a functionally debilitating emotional state resulting from the individual's reaction to some event, perceived to be so dangerous that it leaves him/her feeling helpless and unable to cope effectively (Dixon, 1987).

Voluntary Severance Package

An offer initiated and made by the employer inviting employees to choose to sever their employment contract with a reward. The motivation is to cut costs.

Transformation

This refers to an act or process whereby the form, shape or nature of something is completely changed or altered, Makgoba (1995).

Organisation

Cummings (1980) defined an organisation as *"a social system that has an unequivocal collective identity, an exact roster of members, a programme of activity and procedures"* (p. 8).

1.9. DIVISION OF THE CHAPTERS

This chapter provides a background to the restructuring process at UDW. The funding crisis and transformation at UDW is contextualised. The rationale for and the objectives of, the study are also outlined.

The remainder of this dissertation consists of the following chapters:

- **Chapter 2**: The theoretical framework of the study,
- **Chapter 3**: The phenomenon of occupational stress,
- **Chapter 4**: A review of the literature relevant to this study,
- **Chapter 5**: The research methodology used in the study,
- **Chapter 6**: The analysis, interpretation and discussion of the results of the study.
- **Chapter 7**: Conclusions and recommendations based on the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the theoretical basis for the present study. Two theoretical approaches in the field of organisational behaviour are presented viz., Systems theory and Crisis theory. Both these theories are fundamental to this research. Organisations are viewed as open systems with interacting subsystems. Change in one part of the system usually affects one or more subsystems, yielding a ripple effect. When a significant change is introduced in an organisation, it usually produces disequilibrium, which, in turn, may cause a crisis for the individuals affected. Crisis theory helps our understanding of how individuals respond to change.

2.2 SYSTEMS THEORY

2.2.1 Introduction

Systems theory is often hailed as the approach to the study of human social behaviour, in particular behavior in organisations. Cummings (1980) define the systems approach as follows:

> "a system is essentially a set or assemblage of things
> interconnected, or interdependent, so as to form a complex unit...
> these things may be physical, or they may be theoretical, such as a
> set of concepts, principles, theory and techniques in an area such

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*as management. All systems, except perhaps that of the universe,
interact with, and are influenced by their environments, although
we define the boundaries for them so that we see them more clearly
and analyze them" (p. 5).*

Organisations are regarded as open systems made up of a multitude of subsystems, which

influence the overall functioning of the system. Managers of organisations undergoing change

must therefore take cognisance of all the interdependent factors in the administrative and

management processes in implementing change. The systems approach gives prominence to

the influence of individual factors in the whole organization.

2.2.2 Concepts of Systems Theory

Subsystems

A subsystem is a system within a system. An important contribution of systems theory to

organisational behavior is the notion of subsystem interdependence. Therefore changing one

part of a system is likely to change other parts as well, either intentionally or unintentionally.

Synergy

This is the process by which the whole can become greater than the sum of its parts. A group

of people working together can accomplish more than the same number of people working as

individuals. Synergy is, therefore, a fundamental reason for the existence of organizations.

Open Versus Closed Systems

An open system interacts with its environment whilst a closed system operates independently

of its environment. All organisations are viewed as open systems with the extent of

environmental interaction varying. Katz and Kahn (1970) noted that the open systems

approach attempts to include influences from outside the immediate work-group environment.

These influences are referred to as inputs, and have an effect on the organisation as a whole.

Entropy

Entropy is the process by which the system decays. Therefore, managers need to take

appropriate steps to maintain a vigorous and healthy organization. According to the concept

of entropy, it is impossible for any system to remain closed, if it is to survive. The motivations

and expectations of employees (human component of the system) are also generated in and by

the "environment" and are brought into the system and largely define the behaviour of the

"people in the organisation" (Katz and Kahn, 1970). Lupton (1971) noted that the

organisation, with its subsystems, groups and individuals does not react automatically to its

environment. The processes through which equilibrium is sought results from conscious

decisions and activities of individuals and groups. Someone has to decide what changes have

to be made in response to environmental stimuli and whether to define new tasks and create

organisational configuration. It is precisely because the system is not self-adapting that

problems of conflicting goals at different levels of the organisation arise. The management's

strategy might run counter to the smooth adaptation of a subsystem to its environment

resulting in a resistance to change.

2.2.3 Organisational Change from a Systems Perspective

All organizations are in continuous change, whether from the subtle processes of environmental effusion or by the intentional design of the powerful within the organisation, or by the collective will of organisational participants, whose destiny is linked in some basic way to the changes (Evered, 1976). Knowing how to manage change is fast becoming one of the more urgent functions of managements of organisations and as the environment of an organisation becomes increasingly complex and fluid, the need to understand change management becomes more necessary and more urgent. Systems theory tells us, not how to change systems, but why systems are inherently difficult to change. The application of systems theory to organisational restructuring informs one that every attempt at change will carry with it some unpredictable consequences that are remote both in time and location from the locus of intervention (Cummings, 1980).

An organisation is an "open social system", implying that all aspects of an organisation are interrelated. A change in any part of an organisation may have an impact on other parts or on the organisation itself. Thus a proposed change in one part of an organization must be carefully assessed in terms of its likely impact on the rest of the organisation. The systems model specifies a flow of events beginning with the qualities that people bring with them and ending with attitudes and psychological states of employees (human output) after they have worked in the environment for some time.

The organization's structure (rewards, policies, control) signals to employees what behaviour is desired and reinforces actual behaviours. These structures shape organisational behaviour and process, and together they mediate the relationship between people and the expectations and capacities when they enter the organisation. They also mediate the attitudes and capacities as a result of working in the organisation.

As indicated earlier, any part of the system can affect any other, for example, levels and kinds of satisfaction will affect people's needs, culture will affect employee expectations, and the behaviour of people will affect the required structures. Attitudinal outputs affect behaviour, and the organization's environment and economic performance can directly affect several components of the system. Human processes in an organisation are dynamic and transitory and often are difficult to observe and measure. Managers of organisations are usually so immersed in the content of their transactions that they miss the process by which the content is dealt with.

2.2.4 The Concept of Equilibrium in the Context of Resistance to Change

When change is imminent or when it actually occurs, individuals feel unsure and threatened. This insecurity is generated by the individual believing that the change may prevent him from satisfying needs or may reduce the level of present need satisfaction. Whether the change actually threatens need satisfaction is of no consequence. More important is the fact that the employee perceives his needs as being threatened. Resistance therefore exists until the organisation can prove effectively that the individual's fears and insecurities are groundless.

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According to Feldberg (1975), one way in which a human being attempts to reduce insecurity is to maintain and preserve a steady state. This is known as a state of equilibrium or the homeostatic tendency. When an individual, group or system is in equilibrium, the internal processes are maintained at a steady state. This condition is one of *status quo*. It is a state in which the level of adaptation and adjustment among the various elements of the organisation and its environment is constant. According to research studies by Feldberg (1975), all systems and organisations continually strive to maintain this steady state of equilibrium. Any force that impinges on the system tends to destroy the state of equilibrium and is consequently resisted. Systems react to forces causing disharmony and attempt to restore themselves to earlier states or to new states in which equilibrium can be maintained.

According to Chapple and Sayles (1961), the degree of equilibrium is a key factor in determining the health and morale of the system:

> *"Every organisation consists of individuals in interaction, each of whom has to achieve and maintain a state of equilibrium. The basic problem of management is to organize these individuals in terms of the technical routines in such a way that equilibrium is maintained for all of them. Stated differently, the problem is primarily one of maintaining a proper balance in the autonomic system for each individual. Or, conversely, the objective is to prevent situations that produce in the individual temperamental reactions and over-reactions of the autonomic nervous system, with the attendant loss of the ability to adjust, to co-ordinate and to maintain the complex habits necessary to carry out one's job. If the individual is able to maintain this condition of equilibrium for any period of time, he is physiologically in a state of high morale" (p. 159).*

From the above analysis of equilibrium, it appears as though change is never acceptable to any system, and that no system has any propensity to develop and grow. In order to reconcile this contradiction, one must recognize that all systems vary in their demands for equilibrium. Some people and some systems are able to tolerate greater pressure on their equilibrium than others are. More simply, all of us have varying degrees of tolerance for stress and change. While we all strive for equilibrium, we nevertheless tolerate and seek change provided the level of change is within one's tolerance level.

Considered in overall terms, systems theory is a useful tool to analyze and understand organisational behaviour and change. Organisations react to their environments, absorb these inputs through a transformation process, and also impact on the environment. Given the complexity of organisations and their milieu, systems theory emphasises the inherent difficulties of change, the unpredictable consequences of change, and the typical resistance to change.

2.3   CRISIS THEORY

2.3.1   Introduction

In an increasingly complex society, and in the midst of rapid change, individuals face many more stressors than in the past. Dixon (1987) suggests that the ultimate goal of human beings is to achieve psychological comfort and, fundamentally, people are prepared to pursue psychological comforts through the processes of development and socialisation from birth to adulthood. Systemic ways of feeling, perceiving and behaving result in each of us that enables

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us to handle difficult times in the course of life. There are times, however, when events occur that create problems that are unsolvable due to a real or perceived danger. It is at such times that a crisis develops. Crisis theory draws from several behaviour and personality theories including learning theory and systems theory. It includes in its concepts and definitions those aspects of human behaviour universally manifested by people in crisis.

2.3.2 Definition of Crisis

Dixon (1987) defined a crisis as a *"functionally debilitating emotional state resulting from the individual's reaction to some event perceived to be so dangerous* that it leaves him or her feeling helpless and unable to cope effectively by usual methods" (p. 11). Dixon (1987) identifies the following four major elements in this definition:

2.3.2.1 A Precipitating Event

The human capacity to tolerate stress and pressure is finite and the usual problem solving methods may not be effective in certain situations. Dixon (1987) notes that the precipitating event is usually related to a perceived threat or to psychosocial needs that have assumed a significant value. The idea of a precipitating event is central to the development of the crisis theory.

2.3.2.2 Perceived Meaning

A crisis is a subjective state and relates to the individual's own reality and meaning attached to the precipitating event. Thus a crisis may become a reaction to an event.

2.3.2.3 Ineffective Problem-Solving Methods

Caplan (1981) stated that individuals who develop a crisis usually view the precipitating event as being beyond their ability to cope with. They continue to use ineffective problem solving methods leading to regression and increased emotionalism. The inability to resolve the problem leads to even greater feelings of helplessness.

2.3.2.4 Functionally Debilitating Emotional State

An individual in a crisis is unable to reason effectively as his thinking capacity is overwhelmed by the emotional response. A simple working definition of a crisis is *"whatever radically disturbs and upsets the normal order of a person's life"*. Central to the crisis state is severe emotional upset or disequilibrium, vulnerability and reduced defences, and failed attempts at coping. Whilst it has been established that a crisis can develop when an event or a series of events take place in a person's life and the result is a hazardous situation, it is important to note that the crisis is not the situation itself. Rather, it is the individual's perception of, and response to, the situation. The most important antecedent of a crisis is a stressful event. Two further conditions of importance to a crisis state are the individual's perception that the stressful event will lead to a considerable disruption or upset, and the individual's inability to resolve the disruption by previously- used coping methods.

2.3.3 **Basic Tenets of Crisis Theory**

A crisis is a temporary upset, accompanied by some confusion and disorganization and characterized by a person's inability to cope with a specific situation through the use of traditional problem-solving methods. According to Golan cited in Roberts (1990), the heart of

crisis theory and practice rests on the following basic statements:

- Crisis situations can occur episodically during the normal lifespan of an individual. A catastrophic event or a series of successive stressful blows, which rapidly build up a cumulative effect, initiates them.

- The impact of the catastrophic event disturbs the individual's homeostatic balance and places him/her in a vulnerable state.

- If the problem continues and cannot be resolved, avoided or redefined, tension rises to a peak and a precipitating factor can bring about a turning point, during which self-righting devices can no longer operate and the individual enters a state of disequilibrium, i.e. an active crisis state.

- During the development of the crisis situation, the person "may perceive the initial and subsequent stress events primarily as a threat, either to his instinctual needs or his sense of autonomy and well-being, as a loss of an ability, or a capacity or as a challenge to survival, growth or mastery." (p. 20).

- A crisis state is "neither an illness nor a pathological experience, it reflects instead a realistic struggle in the individual's current life situation." (p.21)

- The time span between the initial catastrophic event and the final crisis resolution may vary, depending on the specific nature of the situation, the cognitive, affective and behaviour tasks that have to be accomplished, and the situational supports and resources available.

- The phase known as *"crisis resolution"* is the period when the individual seems to be especially amenable to help. A small amount of help, appropriately focused can prove more effective than more extensive help at a period of less emotional accessibility.

- During the phase known as reintegration, ego strengths may surface to cope with smaller hazardous events in the future. However, if help is not available during this critical period, maladaptive patterns may be adopted which can result in weakened ability to function adequately in the period ahead.

Anxiety is considered to be one of the primary signs of a crisis, especially when the individual views the precipitating event as a threat. Anxiety creates a general feeling of helplessness, unprotectedness and abandonment (Dixon, 1987).

2.3.4 Stages of a Crisis

Kfir (1989) identified the following three stages of a crisis:

2.3.4.1 Emotional Shock

The first reaction to a crisis is emotional shock. The individual displays inappropriate and emotionally irrelevant behaviour. Shock should be seen as a coping defense mechanism.

2.3.4.2 Anger

The second stage of a crisis has a fighting quality. The fighting spirit has several goals such as undoing the reality. If this is not possible, then to fight for justice, and if that cannot be attained, then to take revenge.

2.3.4.3 Pain and Grief

Stage three is a sign of returning to ordinary life. This is a long stage and includes allowing reality to integrate within one's self and become a part of one. Grieving, whether expressed by depression, avoidance or psychophysiological symptoms, offers a hopeful sign that the end of the crisis is near. It allows for a new beginning.

Crisis theory assumes that people's social functioning is a continuous effort to maintain and restore equilibrium as they are exposed to the problems of life. People maintain their equilibrium through individual coping mechanisms, and what may be perceived as a crisis for one may be viewed as a challenge for another.

This chapter examined the theoretical foundations of the present study. The next chapter will examine the phenomenon of Occupational Stress in greater depth.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW : OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter essentially deals with the psychosocial consequences of occupational stress for

individuals and their families. It begins with a general discussion of stress and then discusses

the various sources of stress in the workplace and the consequences of stress. The chapter

concludes with a discussion on factors that mitigate the effects of stress.

Much research has demonstrated the relationship between non-specific psychological,

behavioural and somatic conditions and stressful work environments (Gibson *et al.*, 1994;

Carter, 1985; Griffin and Moorhead, 1986). Certainly, research in this area is significant, as

work occupies a central place in the lives of most people. Many employees are hampered in

their work environment by internal and external forces that tend to lower role performance

and productivity, and affect their sense of job satisfaction and well being at work.

Pines and Kafry, cited in Carter (1985), referred to the above when they noted:

> *For most people, work is the focal point of life and is a major source of*
> *both rewards and pressures. Among the work pressures that many*
> *employees find unendurable are the daily drudgery, the continuous daily*
> *hassles and the never ending struggle to achieve unattainable goals. (p.*
> *16).*

3.2 STRESS IN THE WORKPLACE

Warr (1987) outlined three overlapping approaches to occupational stress, concerned primarily with people, environmental features (stressors), or the interaction between the stressor and the responses of individuals.

The first approach focuses on the nature and measurement of psychological and bodily conditions, which might occur in response to stressors. The general agreement is that feelings of distress, anxiety and tension, should be included as aspects of "stress". Occupational researchers have often measured the degree to which organisational conditions cause feelings of nervousness and worry associated with sleeplessness. The second approach focuses on the job situation as a stressor. Robbins (1993) identified features in the organization that are considered as stressors, viz., uncertainty of future employment and restriction on budgets. The third approach to stress brings together the first two approaches, thus combining the separate accounts of stress in the person and stressors in the environment and emphasizes that job stress should be viewed in relational terms, as a process of interaction between the employee and the organization. Individuals interact with their work environment in a manner which is determined by the work environment and the individual's capacities and needs. Crucial factors here include the physical and social work environment, managerial practices and employment conditions.

Human assets and limitations, which determine the success of the interaction, are based on general psychological characteristics, biological characteristics, individual characteristics and social contexts. A balance in the interaction between the individual and the work environment

creates a feeling of mastery, self-confidence, increased motivation, work capacity and satisfaction as well as improved health. An imbalance in the interaction results in altered cognitive, emotional, behavioural and psychological responses. More importantly, the outcome depends on the abilities of the individual to cope with difficult life situations and control the early manifestations of its consequences (International Labour Office: Geneva, 1984).

3.3 SOURCES OF STRESS AT WORK

Individuals find a substantial portion of their satisfaction and identity in their work. Usually, their work and non-work activities are interdependent. Sources of stress at work spill over into the individuals non-work activities. This may manifest as irritability, short-temperedness, fatigue and argumentativeness. The resulting conflict may be a source of subsequent stress which in turn impacts negatively on job performance. Thus, stress at work and on the home-front are interrelated.

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994), Griffin and Moorhead (1989) and Robbins (1993) outline an integrated model of stress and work which illustrates the link between stressors, stress and consequences. Gibson *et al.* (1994) use a managerial perspective to develop parts of the integrative model. The model divides the stressors at work into four categories, viz., individual factors, group factors, organisational factors and environmental factors. The model further looks at individual differences that affect one's response to stress, these being age, gender, work addiction, self-esteem and community involvement.

3.3.1 Individual Stressors

Role conflict as an individual stressor has been widely studied (Gibson *et al.*, 1994). An individual experiences *role conflict* when compliance to one set of expectations about the job, conflicts with compliance to another set of expectations. *Role conflict* lowers job satisfaction and increases job-related tension (Katz *et al*, 1970). *Role ambiguity* and a lack of control over the job situation are also profound stressors encountered by many employees.

3.3.2 Group Stressors

The effectiveness of an organisation is influenced by the nature of relations among groups. Behavioural scientists have suggested that maintaining good relationships among the members of a work group is a central factor in individual well-being [Cooper, cited in Gibson (1994)]. Payne (1980) noted that poor relationships and support networks in an organisation may produce psychological strain in the form of low job satisfaction. Mistrust of co-workers related positively to a high role-ambiguity which resulted in poor communication and low job satisfaction (Cooper, in Gibson, 1994). On the other hand, Caplan (1975) found that strong social support from colleagues relieved job stress and moderated the effect of the stress on physiological functions and smoking habits.

3.3.3 Organisational Stressors

Robbins (1993) categorized sources of organisational stressors around tasks, role, interpersonal demands, organisational structure, organisational leadership and organisational life stage. French *et al.* (1982) noted that the organisational structure and climate, including factors such as a lack of effective consultation and a lack of participation in the decision-making process affected workers well being. Kroes (1974) found that greater participation between the employee and employer led to improved performance and lower stress-related behaviours such as alcohol intake and excessive smoking.

The instability of employment affects employees' well-being and the threat of losing one's job adds to the related tensions at work. Drucker (cited in DuBrin ,1984) stated that, traditionally, production workers were the first to be retrenched during organisational downsizing. However, recent managers are focussing on administrative and technical staff as being more dispensable. Job insecurity has both psychological and financial roots. Loss of income and unpaid accounts are part of the problem of being unemployed. Self-image in most cultures is partly dependent upon the type of work one performs. Retrenchments due to downsizing weaken the self-image of those affected.

Robbins (1993) stated that organisations go through life cycle stages which include the establishment stage, growth stage, maturity stage and decline stage. The different stages create different problems and pressures for employees with the establishment and decline stages being particularly stressful due to the excitement of establishment and the uncertainty

associated with the decline stage. The decline stage is said to be characteristic of cutbacks in funds, retrenchments and downsizing. Stress is least experienced in the maturity stage where uncertainties are fewest.

3.3.4 Environmental Stressors

Environmental uncertainty influences stress levels among employees in an organization. For example, economic uncertainties, such as recessions and political uncertainties can also be stress inducing, especially in the South African context.

Uncertainty about whether or not undesirable events are likely to occur inhibits preparatory coping responses and has been shown in laboratory and field investigations to give rise to anxiety and other forms of low affective well-being (Moss,1981). Caplan (1975) developed a measure of "job future ambiguity" covering a worker's degree of uncertainty about future career developments. In a study of twenty-three jobs in the USA, this form of uncertainty was found to be significantly associated with high levels of job dissatisfaction, boredom, job-related depression and job-related anxiety. Kiev and Kahn (1979) studied male workers' uncertainty about retaining their jobs in the next year and observed significant correlations with job dissatisfaction, context free anxiety and low self-esteem.

Job insecurity and possible job loss have been found in many other studies to be the primary source of tension and distress [Evans (1986), Bartolome (1986), and Kiev and Kahn (1979)]. They further stated that this is particularly likely to be the case when the company is in financial difficulties. The central element here is the degree to which people believe that

continuity is assured or not. Morley (1995), has pointed out that job insecurity, is not just restricted to the loss of jobs, but also extends into uncertainties for people who are likely to remain employed. This includes uncertainty about promotions, income level and the value of one's current skills. Research findings by Brockner *et al.* (1988), Dubrin (1984) and Morley (1995) have supported the above.

3.4   PSYCHOSOCIAL CONSEQUENCES

The magnitude of the problems associated with stress in the work place, has resulted in researchers studying different aspects of the work environment. They have tested a variety of factors believed to be related to higher levels of employee dissatisfaction at work and overall deterioration of job performance.

The "stress concept" has been the most common approach of dealing with the link between psychosocial responses and the organisational environment. For example, Kiev and Kahn (1979) state that "*to date, a substantial amount of behavioral research has established an inverted U-shaped relationship between stress as characterized by a low level of job performance. In other words, when a person has no incentive to perform a task, or has no hope of a favorable outcome (promotion, salary increases), the expenditure of effort appears fruitless and the employee manifests with apathy, boredom, low morale and stagnation"(p.10).*

Caplan (1975) noted that studies on occupational stressors and related psychological, physiological and behavioral disorders reveal that serious problems are found in roughly 5-10 percent of the working population, a percentage of which is higher among the older age groups. The work environment is, therefore, increasingly being regarded as a set of interdependent factors making up a complex whole which acts on people at work.

Griffin and Moorhead (1989) identified both individual and organisational consequences of stress.

Individual consequences are described as follows:

Behavioural Consequences

This refers to responses that may harm the individual, e.g. alcoholism and drug abuse, accident proneness, emotional outbursts, and excessive eating (Cox, 1991). Research has noted that smokers tend to smoke more when under stress. Maslach and Jackson (1981) state that alcoholism is a disease characterised by repeated excessive drinking that interferes with an individual's health and work behaviour, and job stress can contribute to a person's need for and use of alcohol. Dubrin (1984) reports that job stress contributes to drug abuse. Stimulants and sedatives are taken by employees to relieve excessive stress and other work problems. Studies by Hoiberg (1982) showed a relationship between job stress and increased smoking.

A study by Kroes (1974) found that increased or excessive alcohol consumption and escapist drinking are often regarded as one of the several pathogenic mechanisms in response to stress at work. He notes further that the evidence for this is scarce, partly because of the difficulty in obtaining reliable data on alcohol consumption.

Psychological Consequences

The psychological consequences of stress relate to an individual's mental health and well being. Job related stress results in job-related tension, dissatisfaction, anxiety, irritability and boredom and frustration. DuBrin (1984) notes that the symptoms of job related stress show wide individual differences. Faced with the same stressor, one person may act impulsively while another may become depressed. Psychosomatic complaints, mental fatigue, feelings of futility and low self esteem are the more common symptoms.

Brett (1988) stated that chronic job stress has an impact on family interaction. This was supported by studies by Maslach and Jackson (1981) who found that employees who were experiencing stress (as measured by a burnout inventory) were more likely to return from work upset or angry and anxious to complain about things. They further noted that such employees had difficulty in sleeping at night and spent more time away from their family.

Physiological Consequences

A study by Hoiberg (1982) showed a relationship between job-stress and hospitalisation for stress related illnesses such as peptic ulcers and hypertension. Stress can lead to physiological consequences which in turn affect a person's physical well-being. Heart disease and stroke have been linked to stress as well as other conditions such as increased blood glucose levels,

dryness of mouth, sweating, hot and cold flushes, headaches, backaches and gastro-intestinal problems (Griffin and Moorhead,1989; Robbins,1993; Matteson and Ivancevich,1987).

Cognitive Consequences

Cognitive consequences refers to the inability to make sound decisions, poor concentration, short attention span, hypersensitivity to criticism and mental blocks, (Warr, 1987; Griffin and Moorhead, 1989). Under severe stress employees regress to a more primitive level of functioning and often lose control of the situation. This results in impulsive decision -making that overcompensates in terms of the reality of the situation (DuBrin,1984).

Organisational consequences on the other hand, can be understood as follows: Stress is best escaped by absenting one's self from the source of the stress. Thus, absenteeism may be seen as another approach to coping with job stress. According to Dubrin (1984), the psychological dynamics underlying common colds, alcoholism and minor psychosomatic disorders, are that these problems create conditions that legitimise absenteeism. Porter and Steers (1973) conclude that job dissatisfaction is a central factor in withdrawal from work. Socio-demographic factors are also related to absenteeism to a relatively large extent, with younger people being absent more frequently than older people. Maslach and Jackson (1981) noted that with increasing age, short- term absence tends to diminish and long -term absenteeism increases. Moss (1981) stated that job stress may also result in people withdrawing psychologically by ceasing to care about the organisation or their job. A decline in work performance is a clear consequence of stress. A widely accepted model combining performance efficiency is the "inverted-U" function of stress [Welford, (1973) cited in the

Report of the World Health Organisation and International Labour Office Committee on Occupational Stress, 1984]. The inverted-U means that people perform optimally when under a moderate level of stress and less efficiently when stress is either very high or very low. Cox (1978) stated that stress can result in disruption in working relationships as people become irritable and hard to get along with. Cox (1978) further adds that the different categories of potential effects of stress are not all inclusive and it should not be inferred that stress always causes such effects.

3.5   FACTORS THAT MITIGATE THE EFFECTS OF STRESS

Some people thrive on stressful conditions whilst others are overwhelmed by them. What is it that differentiates people in terms of their ability to handle stress? Epstein (1987) identified the following personal and environmental factors that moderate the individual's appraisal of change:

Perception

An employee's perception of the reality rather than the reality itself will moderate the relationship between the potential stress condition and the employee's reaction to it. An individual's fear that he will lose his job because the organization is downsizing may be perceived by another employee as an opportunity to obtain a large severance package and start his own business. Similarly, what one employee perceives as a challenge may be viewed as threatening and overwhelming by another. Thus, the stress potential in organisational, environmental and individual sources lies not so much in its objective condition, as in the

employee's interpretation of these factors.

Job Experience

Experience on the job tends to be negatively related to work stress. Motowidlo

et al. (1987) offered two explanations for this. First, there is the idea of withdrawing from

employment selectively. The voluntary turnover is said to be among people who are

experiencing more stress. People who remain within the organization longer are said to be

those with more stress resistance traits or who are more resistant to the stress factors of their

organisation. Secondly, people over time develop coping mechanisms. Therefore, senior

members of an organization are more likely to experience less stress. Kroes (1974) stated that

older persons intentionally avoid or cope successfully with potentially stress-producing

situations by using their experience, knowledge and reason for problem solving. A "lack of

relevance" is a potential source of stress to employees. One's ideals have a strong enough

impact on one's psyche to cause stress for some individuals when these "ideals" cannot be

achieved. People often develop a set of ideals that leads them to interpret their work in

organisations as lacking relevance.

DuBrin (1984) noted that "frustrated ambitions" are a potential source of stress. Cultural

pressures dictate that people in hierarchical organisations strive towards achieving higher

positions. Women more often suffer psychological stress from failure to move to higher

positions. Frustrated ambitions and goals are the cause of many psychosomatic problems.

Negative Affectivity

Gibson *et al.* (1994) defined negative affectivity as a "mood state" in which an individual is very likely to express and experience negative stress such as anger, fear and depression. People who are high on "negative affectivity" are more likely to express and experience higher levels of negative stress than people low on negative affectivity. A high negative affectivity person would focus on the negative aspects of life, the job and the environment.

Locus of Control

Locus of control is seen as a personality attribute and has been discussed as one of the determinants of mental health (Rotter, 1966). Persons who feel externally controlled, that is, objects rather than subjects are apt to experience feelings of helplessness and powerlessness to influence their situation. They believe their lives are controlled by outside forces, hence their experience of stress is greater. In contrast, individuals who feel that they are in control of their lives, that is, those with an internal locus of control, experience less threat in stressful situations because they feel capable of mastering the environmental factors (House,1981).

Individuals have a basic need to feel in control of their lives. For this reason an important moderating factor in change is the degree to which people are able to influence events. This suggests that employees must have an active part in the planning and implementing of change efforts so that they may assume ownership of the problem. This contributes to the individual's sense of mastery. Mastery, according to Selligman in Epstein (1987), refers to *"the extent to which people see themselves as being in control of their lives" (p.5).*

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Social Support

Research findings suggest that social support cushions the adverse psychological impact of stress (Argyle 1989). La Rocco, House and French (1980) reported that social support moderated the effects of stressors on health outcomes such as somatic complaints but found no evidence of that effect on job dissatisfaction. Depending upon its source, social support can be classified as institutional or interpersonal. Institutional support comes from general social system, while interpersonal support is based on the individual's relationships. Thoits (1982) stated that support increases the individual's ability to cope. The feelings of attachment and security created by the perceived support is a key to the feeling of mastery over stressful situations. In working life, social support from colleagues has been found to modify the effects of organisational stressors on various psychophysiological and behavioural symptoms of stress. Similarly, social support from family members has been found to be effective in mitigating the effects of perceived work stress on health (Argyle, 1989).

Social support is the degree to which a person is connected to a network of supportive relationships and is one of the most widely researched moderator of change and stress. As a rule, isolated people are more likely to find change distressful than those whose social network is secure. Social support is especially relevant in the South African context where people's social position occupies a central place in their experience of life.

A study conducted by Ganster *et al.* (1986) attempted to investigate the relationship between stressors and social support in the work setting. A primary social factor hypothesised to buffer the negative effects of stress is the degree of social support that the individual receives.

Social support is broadly defined as *"the availability of helping relationships, and the quality of those relationships"* (Ganster, *et al.*, 1986: 102).

Sources of support include co-workers, supervisors, friends and family. Support from co-workers was found to be the most important in moderating the negative effects of stress. Support from family and friends was found to be associated with decreased somatic health symptoms (Ganster, *et al.*, 1986). La Rocco *et al.* (1980) also found that co-workers' support was significantly associated with overall job satisfaction whilst job-related anxiety has been found to be negatively associated with co-workers' support by Abdel-Halim (1983) and La Rocco *et al* (1980). A non-significant association was recorded by Parker (1992). Organisational policies which expect employees to adapt to new ideas while at the same time appearing to threaten their position in the organisation, are more likely to fail as people may accept change in one aspect of their lives when they feel secure and supported in other aspects.

Hardiness

Stress cannot be conceived in terms of an external event independent of the individual's appraisal of the event. Some individuals are more likely to view events in a way that would elicit a stress response. Therefore, it is important to separate individuals into those who are and are not susceptible to illness under stress conditions [Kobasa cited in Donnelly *et al.* (1994). Kobasa described "hardiness" as a personality style, where the individual expresses commitment, control and challenge in the face of stress. Hardiness is said to facilitate a form of coping that includes keeping stressors in perspective, knowing that one has the creativity

and resources to deal with stressors and viewing stressors as opportunities instead of as threats.

A study conducted by Kobasa (1979), into stressful life events and personality differences found that persons who experience high degrees of stress at work, without becoming ill, have a personality structure, described as "hardiness". Hardy persons are said to possess the following three general characteristics:

- They believe that they can control or influence the events of their experience.
- They are committed to the activities of their lives.
- They view change as an exciting challenge to further development.

Moss in Kobasa (1979) stated that people who feel positive about change are catalysts in their environment and are able to integrate and appraise the threat of new situations.

Kobasa (1979) discusses a study conducted by Hilker, the medical officer of the Bell Telephone Company. Hilker studied the symptoms of stress at a time when Bell was undergoing changes, through reorganisation and external pressure for affirmative action. Hilker found that the company's senior management showed no symptoms of stress and were in fact the healthiest members of staff. He explained this finding as the senior management being of the hardy personality type (Kobasa, 1979). He further found that those staff who had less hardy personality reported more stress symptoms even when they have high levels of social support from families. Kobasa (1979) interprets this as the individual expressing his reliance on this support by means of stress symptoms. Other factors which have been shown

to moderate stress reactions to organisational change have emerged in various studies (Epstein, 1987).

These include the following:

- high self-esteem

- a sense of competence

- effective problem-solving skills

- high threshold for anxiety

- high levels of motivation

3.6   **SUMMARY**

This chapter dealt with the sources and consequences of occupational stress, with particular emphasis on the factors that mitigate the effects of stress. The next chapter will focus on a literature review relating to organisational change.

CHAPTER FOUR

REVIEW OF LITERATURE : ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers an understanding of organisational behaviour, organisational culture and organisational change, with particular emphasis on the reaction to change.

Restructuring an organisation is not a simple action that deals with a few elements of organisational life. Restructuring uproots chunks of organisational life and transplants them. Explicitly, re-organisation is focused on changing relationships amongst people or groups of people and such relationships tend to be complex, difficult to control and hard to measure. Perhaps the most important symbolic aspect of any restructuring lies in the very implications of the term itself. The mere mention of the word restructuring suggests significant change, and often the word is actually used as a synonym for the whole concept of change, Gibson *et al.* (1979).

Hamilton-Attwell (1997) states that South African organisations were once safe, fairly predictable environments. However, political transformation has brought with it privatisation, affirmative action and reduced budgets. She suggests that only the fittest will survive in this new environment, and neither managers nor employees have been afforded sufficient time to

get fit. She adds that whilst affirmative action and transformation have become dreaded words in some organisations, change is not new.

According to Warr (1987) organisations often convey an impression of order and regularity. Indeed, the essence of "organisation" is the achievement of a certain stability over time. For employees in organizations, stability can lend a reassuring predictability to their work. People at work vary considerably in their desire for change and how much energy they will commit to achieving it. Employees can present with responses ranging from enthusiasm to vigorous resistance. Paid work has long been a cornerstone of society. It is a source of social cohesion and material welfare and for the individual, it is often crucial to both mental and physical health.

4.2 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Cummings cited in Griffins and Moorhead, (1989) defined organisational behaviour as *"the study of human behavior in organisational settings, the interface between human behavior and the organisational context and the organisation itself"* (p.8). Individuals in organisations do not work in isolation. They interrelate with other individuals and the organisation in a variety of ways. Over time, the individual changes and these changes are a function of both personal experiences and maturity and work experiences and the organisation. The organisation is also affected by the presence and eventual absence of the individual.

The behaviour of members of an organisation is significantly affected by the psychological meaning of work roles for them and by the meanings that have developed around their occupational investments and their participation in the particular organisation. Work roles provide economic returns that are means to ends, distinct from the work itself. Work provides the person with an opportunity to relate themselves to society and contributes to one's personal identity. Work roles structure the passage of time by scheduling, and requiring one's regular presence at particular places and times (Sofer, 1973).

Organisational behaviour offers three major ways of understanding the human context of organisations. These include the following:

- people as organisations, where managers must first understand the people who make up the organisation;

- people as resources, that is, people guide and direct the cause of the organisation;

- understanding people as people (Griffin and Moorhead, 1989).

To explain, predict or control behaviour, it is necessary to know what factors influence organisational behaviour. According to Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988), factors that influence behaviour in organisations fall into two broad categories. Firstly, the personal category which encompasses relatively stable characteristics or traits such as abilities, beliefs, values, likes and dislikes that characterise the individual and includes work related characteristics such as job aptitude, need for achievement and leadership style.

The second category, situational factors, are those characteristics of the person's environment that affects the person at the time of the behaviour in question. These factors include elements of the work environment, for example, the compensation system, individual relationships with co-workers and the nature of the total organisation. Situational factors can also include factors outside the work environment, such as the person's family life and the values of the community in which the person lives (Scarpello and Ledvinka, 1988).

4.3 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Whilst the uniqueness of individuals is expressed in their personalities, the individuality of organisations may be expressed in terms of their differing cultures. The culture of an organisation refers to its unique configuration of norms, values, beliefs and ways of behaving (Eldridge and Crombie, 1974). Organisational culture is especially important to the issue of organisational change and the analysis of an organisation as a social system. Any change in employee work behaviours will be affected by the culture of the organisation. According to Griffin and Moorhead (1989) and Eldridge and Crombie (1974), the roots of an organisation's culture are in its historic development and traditions and the character building effects of past decisions and leaders. The culture itself is manifested in the organisation's daily functioning. *Culture is to the organisation what personality is to the individual, a hidden yet unifying theme that provides meaning, direction and mobilisation* (Kilman, 1985:9). It is the culture of the organisation that helps workers respond to the inevitable uncertainties and chaos of performing a job. Organisations today are much more diverse in terms of cultural background, values, language, skills and educational background. According to Gibson *et al.* (1994), the

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proliferation of cultural and diverse backgrounds in the organisation illuminates the differences in values, work ethics and norms of behaviour.

4.4   ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Sofer (1973) views organisational change as a planned effort to alter one or more parts of an organisation in a systematic and logical fashion, and inevitably involves the altered deployment of personnel and resources within the organisation. Parsons cited in Eldridge and Crombie (1974), added that organisations are deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals and values. Change comes in many forms and at all levels of the organisation. It can affect the entire organisation or be localized to specific departments of the organisation. The period of change can be protracted, or very short. Change can occur rapidly in a revolutionary manner or it may occur slowly in an evolutionary manner. Warr (1987) suggests that organisational change should consider three aspects. Firstly, the initiating circumstances of change, its social and political context, that is, what is wanted by whom. Secondly, the manifest goals of change, for example, a restructuring of the organisation. Thirdly, the latent goals of change. Warr (1987) draws our attention to what would be the "hidden agenda" or "symbolic" significance of change. Griffins (1990) noted that organisational change is, therefore, any substantive modification to some part of the organisation. The change can involve virtually any aspect of an organisation and may have effects extending beyond the actual arena in which the change takes place.

Hamilton- Attwell (1997:20), reported the following results of a baseline study to assess attitudes of employees before the implementation of change:

- 65,3% of the employees claimed to be experiencing high levels of stress. This figure increased to 71% three months after the changes were introduced.

- 56% felt threatened by change and this figure increased to 68,23% following the implementation of change.

- These results suggest that employees become more negative about change once they experience the impact of change. Hamilton-Attwell (1997) concluded that *"management regards change as opportunities to improve their success rate. Employees see change as disruptive, intrusive and upsetting the balance. Employees react emotionally to change and their emotional needs should be addressed as part of any change process"* (p. 22).

Gostelli (1997), on the other hand, argues that change is resisted by the "system" and not just by individuals. He adds that as systems become entrenched, change becomes more difficult as we come up against vested interests.

To understand employees' reactions to change, Gluckman (in Breda ,1991) draws an analogy between Kubler-Ross's theory describing the psychological stages involved in loss and individuals coping with changes within an organisation. The stages identified by Kubler-Ross are denial, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance. Kubler-Ross commented in her writings that the ability of the patient to handle his or her situation depends on effective communication between the patient and doctor and on the patient's current and future situations. Clampit (in Hamilton-Attwell, 1997), suggests that successful change depends on

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an effective communication process between managers and employees. It is important for organisations to understand the complexity of employees' reaction to change, to ensure a smooth transition of the change process.

In implementing change, human resource officers must understand the real or imagined fears, feelings of insecurity and alienation, suspicion and distrust displayed by their employees. These responses must be handled and the fears allayed. To minimise resistance, regular communication of relevant and factual information is imperative. Individuals' experiences with change is determined by how they appraise the change situation. According to Epstein (1987), two people who respond differently to the same change are in effect "seeing" very different events or circumstances. She further contends that the individual's appraisal of the change is influenced by the demands of the environment and the characteristics and resources within each individual. The actual demands of the environment are less significant in initiating a stress response than the perceived ones. Seligman in Epstein (1987), conducted a study to show how environmental demands can lead to internal characteristics. He suggested that people learn characteristic ways of explaining stressful events when reality is ambiguous. Individuals may explain unpleasant circumstances using the following responses:

- stable rather than unstable (e.g., It's going to last forever).

- global rather than specific (e.g., It's going to affect everything I do).

- internal rather than external (e.g., It's all my fault).

He found that people who give the above responses are most at risk of depression, are likely to have lowered self-esteem and to show signs of helplessness in future. On the other hand, people who present with positive explanatory styles are likely to cope better with change.

4.4.1 The Forces of Organisational Change

Organisations are subject to pressures for change from a variety of sources. All organisations have to change in order to survive and the decision is not whether to change but how. Forces of change may be external or internal to the organisation. External forces for change derive from the organisation's general and task environments, whilst internal forces refer to a variety of forces inside the organisation which may cause change, for example, a change in organisational strategy. To understand the processes of organisational change, one needs to first examine organisations as social systems. In understanding an organisation as a social system, attention is focused on the social nature of the transformation process of the overall system. The social system of an organisation is continued by the people as they create patterns of behaviour. Like any system it has inputs, i.e., people and outputs, i.e., behaviour, and it functions in an environment.

Griffin and Moorhead (1986) identified the six combined elements that are peculiar to the social systems transformation process and are also elements of organisational change. These are listed below.

People

Individuals enter an organisation with a unique set of personal characteristics such as perception, motivation and creativity. To understand the process of change and its effects on people in an organisation, the management has to first understand the nature of the employee needs and motivations, skills, abilities and expectations in the workplace.

Structure

The structure of an organisation includes the system of authority and reporting relationships, including rules and procedures that co-ordinate organisational activities. Very often, structure is the most tangible index of organisational change.

Information and Control Systems

Information and control systems provide information throughout the social system. These processes include communication, decision making and performance appraisal. Like other aspects of the organisation, information and control systems are subject to change.

Technology and Tasks

Most employees' jobs consist of numerous tasks, for example, a university lecturer teaches, advises students, does research and serves on committees. If the university were to choose a new learning method, such as computerised instruction, then the job of a lecturer would be quite different. Thus, the tasks and technology of the transformation process are closely connected.

4.5   PLANNED vs REACTIVE ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Organisational change may be planned well in advance or may be a reaction to unexpected events. Planned change is change that is designed and implemented in an orderly and timely manner in anticipation of future events. The goals of planned change are to improve the ability of the organisation to adapt to the changes in the environment, and to change employee attitudes and behaviour.

Reactive change is a piecemeal response to circumstances as they develop. Reactive change is hurried, hence the potential for poorly conceived and poorly executed change is increased. Planned change is almost always preferable to reactive change. For major change plans, managements' sometimes contract outside consultants on a temporary basis. The consultant is viewed as being able to offer a more objective perspective than insiders can. However, they are disadvantaged in that they often have an inadequate understanding of the organisation's history, culture, operational procedures and personnel, and are prone to initiate drastic changes because they do not need to live with the repercussions. Internal change agents are seen as being more cautious, as they fear offending long-term colleagues and associates, Robbins (1993).

4.6   RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Robbins (1993) states that studies on individual and organisational behaviour have found that organisations and employees resist change. He adds that, in a sense, this is positive as it provides a degree of stability and predictability to behaviour and in the absence of resistance, organisational behaviour would take on characteristics of chaotic randomness. Resistance to change may be overt, implicit, inevitable or deferred, with the overt responses being easier for managers to deal with. The implicit response to change is more subtle. Thus the loss of motivation to work and increased absenteeism are more difficult to recognise and deal with.

Nochur and Serfontein (1987) state that people resist change because of the personal, social and economic impact it might have on them. Moerdyk and Fone (1987) add that the more fundamental and emotive the change is, the greater the resistance to change would be. The employees' reaction to the change can be understood by determining the significance of the perceived outcome of the change process to the employee. Any change that benefits the employee will be accepted and change perceived as harmful will be resisted. An important factor contributing to resistance is the way in which organisations introduce and implement the change process and the level of involvement of the employees in the change process.

Kroon (1992) conducted a study to assess employees' reactions to organisational change. Her aim was to examine employees' reactions and develop strategies for the management of organisational change. According to Kroon (1992) there are many studies on the subject of change and change management but little attention has been given to the employees' reaction to change. She found that employee reactions included both positive and negative responses.

Employees on different organisational levels responded differently to change. Staff on senior levels, for example, reacted positively to the change programme, whilst lower level staff were resistant to the change process. The change agents and employees in the middle ranks remained neutral. Kroon (1992) further noted that an empathetic approach by the change agents was essential for effective change. The findings of the study then suggest the following:

- employee participation allows for positive support to the change process;

- constant feedback and communication is necessary.;

- change can be viewed as creative problem-solving and development;

- all responses must be respected;

- the employer must communicate to its employees its progress in achieving the organisation's vision.

Moerdyk and Fone (1987) suggest that resistance to change can be understood in terms of the "self-interest theories". These theories argue that people have a vested interest in the status quo and that any changes that threaten these interests are resisted. Moerdyk and Fone identify the following three sub-theories of the "self-interest theories":

Firstly, the homeostasis theories, which argue that people are located in a complex system, in which various sub-systems have settled into a state of homeostasis. The person's beliefs and aspirations are components of the larger system. When a change is introduced to a part of the system, homeostatic forces counteract the change to restore the equilibrium. The second sub-theory is the "fear and insecurity theory", which suggests that change is feared because it

creates a number of potential unknowns. The third sub-theory is the "power theory" which claims that people resist change so as to maintain existing power relations.

4.6.1 Individual Sources of Resistance to Change

Nadler cited in Griffin and Moorhead (1989), and Robbins (1993) note that the individual sources of resistance are rooted in basic human characteristics such as personalities and perceptions. They identify the following reasons why individuals resist change:

Habit

Human beings are said to be creatures of habit and when confronted with change, the tendency to respond in accustomed ways becomes a source of resistance.

Security

Employees enjoy the comfort and security of doing their jobs the same old way everyday. There exists a feeling of consistency and safety in knowing that some things stay the same despite all the change going on around them.

Economic Factors

Changes may threaten the employees' steady salary, or employees may fear that change will make their jobs obsolete or redundant.

Fear of the unknown

Some people fear anything unfamiliar, and change creates anxiety for such employees. Uncertainty is said to be one of the biggest causes of employee resistance to change.

Lack of Awareness

Individuals shape their world through their perceptions and once they have created this world, they resist change (Robbins,1993). Perceptual limitations may hinder a person from recognising the change that is occurring. He may, therefore, not alter his behaviour.

Social Factors

Employees may resist change for fear of what others may think. They may feel ostracised from the "group" unless they resist change.

Threatened self-interest

Change may threaten the self-interest of employees within the organisation by diminishing their power or influence in the organisation. They, therefore, fight change.

Feelings of Loss

Organisational change involves altering work arrangements in a way that disrupts existing social networks. Employees may, therefore, resist change that may adversely affect established social relationships.

4.6.2 Organisational Sources of Resistance to Change

Robbins (1993) identified the following major sources of organisational resistance:

Structural inertia

According to Robbins (1993), organisations have built-in mechanisms to produce stability, such as its selection process, formalisation of job descriptions and procedures for employees to follow. When an organisation experiences change, this structural inertia serves to sustain stability.

Limited focus of change

Organisations are open systems made up of subsystems, and changes in one subsystem affect another. Limited changes in the subsystem are therefore negated by the larger system.

Group inertia

Group norms or unions may act as a constraint preventing individuals from accepting changes.

Threat to established resource allocations

Groups in the organisation are threatened by changes that affect their budget allocations or staff complement. They, therefore, resist change. A comprehensive approach to change often takes a broad view and carefully outlines a series of steps that lead to more successful change.

Organisational change is a complex phenomenon and must be approached in a systematic and logical fashion for it to have a meaningful opportunity to succeed.

4.7 VOLUNTARY SEVERANCE PACKAGES (NEGOTIATED DEPARTURES)

The offer of increased severance packages has long been a method of inducing surplus workers to leave their employment voluntarily. Their extensive use is evidence of the fact that each party expects to receive some benefit. Morley (1995) refers to the possible loss of certain rights not anticipated by the workers accepting voluntary severance packages, such as unemployment insurance benefits to which a worker may be entitled if dismissed for economic reasons, but not if the person leaves of his own volition.

Morley (1995) in his presentation to the Budget Committee of the House of Representatives, 104th Congress, Washington, 1995, detailed the following on corporate restructuring and downsizing. He noted that the process of downsizing must begin with a vision that can be communicated, and one that employees can understand and relate to. The vision should be based on a core set of values (e.g. credibility or continuous improvement) which are fundamental in the activities of the organisation. He notes further that restructuring is an overall, continuous process that must engage the management of the organisation and the people of the organisation so that they are in tune with the changes being recommended. Hired change agents ought to be viewed only as support for the management. If downsizing is one of the plans, then implementing this plan requires that the organisation live by its values, and not compromise its values. Maintaining respect and dignity for the individuals is important, and this will define how the process will be managed.

It is important to consider the potential outcomes of the restructuring process, and its impact on the individual in the organisation, and then develop a fair and credible process to deal with the downsizing effort. If the impact is to be negative, people need to understand what it means, and also need to be offered support services to help them cope with the impact. Individuals ought to be allowed a short period of time to look for employment within the organisation. However, if termination is necessary, a severance package is offered to aid people in their transition to a new career. Individuals on a severance package should be offered a retraining allowance to assist with re-employment.

Finally, "out-placement counselling" should be offered to the employee and his family, if appropriate. It is important to help people understand the impact of change and what to expect. Most importantly, a humane process must be in place to help people absorb and understand the change process. Those who remain with the organisation need to be counselled as well. This is viewed in the same terms as a family loss. Management needs to be very visible at this time of disequilibrium. It should be out talking to the employees, walking about, helping them to understand the changes and help supervisors and heads of departments to understand and cope with the changes.

This process should lead to a culture change that is performance based, and should move away from the culture of entitlement. When people have worked for long in an organisation, they expect to be with the organisation for life. They also come to expect that the organisation will take care of them into their retirement. Morley (1995) calls this the "cradle to grave" entitlement mentality. This culture can impact on the efforts of change. Separation could be

voluntary or involuntary or a combination of both. When deciding on the method, it is important to look at what is appropriate for the organisation and design flexibility into the system. The process is not over when the employees leave the workplace, as those who remain have anxieties and queries.

This chapter focused on aspects related organisational behaviour, organisational culture and organisational change and restructuring. Detailed emphasis was offered on the individual's reaction to change and sources of individual and organisational resistance to change. The chapter concluded with a brief reference to implementing and managing the downsizing process.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the focus is on the research design used in this study. This includes the nature of, and the procedures for, data gathering and data analysis. Schvaneveldt and Adam (1985:103) classify research designs according to the following approaches:

- Exploratory approaches

- Descriptive approaches

- Field studies and field experiments

- Experimental - causal approaches

- Historical and case study approaches

The present investigation falls into the exploratory - descriptive category. As indicated in Chapter One, both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis, were used.

5.2 SAMPLING AND SAMPLE SELECTION

5.2.1 Choice and description of the research area

The present study was confined to the University of Durban-Westville, more specifically to the non-academic departments of the university. The ideal of drawing a large representative sample from every non-academic and academic department was not possible owing to limitations of time, money and personnel. The decision to base the study on the campus had the following advantages:

- The University had recently introduced a restructuring process involving non-academic departments with a view to reducing running costs.

- The researcher herself is employed within a non-academic department and was, therefore, in a strategic position to observe and assess the impact of the changes on staff members. Her status as a fellow-employee also allowed her free and easy access to all those who were involved in the process. She was also able to liaise with those in upper echelons of the University's administration as well as with non-academic employees.

5.2.2 Composition of the Sample

The subjects of this study were persons who were employed in the non-academic sector of the University of Durban-Westville. The subjects ranged in age from 26 to 60 years. The total sample comprised 40 individuals (28 males and 12 females), who were employed by the University for a period ranging from under one year to 25 years.

Tables 1 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to age range.

Table 5.1

Distribution of Sample According to Age Range

Age	F	%
19 - 25 years	Nil	-
26 - 35 years	19	47.5
36 - 45 years	16	40.0
56 - 55 years	4	10.0
56 - 65 years	1	2.5
TOTAL	**40**	**100**

Table 2 illustrates the distribution of the sample according to work experience at UDW.

Table 5.2

Distribution of Sample According to Work Experience at UDW

Work Experience at UDW	F	%
Under 5 years	3	7.5
6-10 years	7	17.5
11-15 years	14	35.0
16 years and over	16	40.0
TOTAL	**40**	**100**

5.2.3 Selection of the Sample

The selection of the sample for the present study was a three-step process involving:

- Identification of non-academic departments.

- Selection of non-academic departments.

- Selection of subjects within the non-academic departments.

At the outset, the non-academic departments and the number of staff were noted, as listed in the University's internal directory. The University has more than 30 non-academic departments, with a total population of 800 permanent non-academic staff. Due to time constraints and limited material and monetary resources, the researcher identified ten non-academic departments, with a staff complement of at least ten per department, for inclusion in the study. A random sampling strategy was used to identify the ten departments for the study. A small sample was selected primarily for the purposes of qualitative analysis and not for representativeness. Patton (1990:185) stressed that the validity, meaningfulness and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with "information richness" of the responses than with the sample size.

The researcher then met the section heads and some of the staff from each of the ten non-academic departments to explain the purpose of the study. Of the ten departments visited, six departments expressed enthusiasm for the study and pledged their support and participation.

Members of the four remaining departments gave the following reasons for their non-participation:

- They were busy and were not "affected" by the restructuring measures.

- They were directly involved in processing the voluntary severance packages.

- They were personally involved in completing their own voluntary severance package applications and did not have the time to participate in this study. They did, however, express an interest in knowing the findings of the study.

- Some of the staff felt that the researcher represented the management of the University and were, therefore, reluctant to co-operate with her.

This unexpected development caused the researcher to re-consider her original sampling plans. A modified random sampling strategy was used to select six departments for the study. Table 5.3 below names the departments, the total number of staff in each, and the number of participants contributed by each of them to the sample.

Table 5.3

Departments and Number of Staff Participating in the Study

DEPARTMENT	TOTAL STAFF	NUMBER PARTICIPATED IN STUDY	%
Human Resources	26	6	15.0
Student Affairs	29	8	20.0
Audio-Visual Media Centre	12	2	5.0
Centre for Academic Development	16	4	10.0
Library	45	8	20.0
Support Services (Secretaries)	96	12	30.0
TOTAL	224	40	100

After the six participating departments were identified, 75 respondents were selected, via the Heads of Departments through the use of convenience sampling strategy. Fifty-eight completed questionnaires were received after a six-week period. Due to constraints stated previously, the researcher was forced to limit her analysis to the first 40 questionnaires received.

5.3   DATA COLLECTION

5.3.1   Data Collection Methods

The research procedure adopted in this study was one of triangulation. This may be defined as "the use of two or more methods of data collection in a study" (Cohen and Manion, 1985). In the social sciences, triangulation techniques attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint. In this way both quantative and qualitative data are collected. The one supplements the other. Cohen and Manion (1985) state that generally no single research method is adequate on its own. Each method has its strengths and weaknesses, and by combining methods researchers can achieve the best of each while overcoming their unique deficiencies. Questionnaires, interviews and non-participant observation were used to collect the data.

5.3.2   Questionnaire

A well constructed questionnaire permits the collection of reliable and reasonably valid data. It is also relatively simple and cheap to construct and administer, and enables data to be collected in a short space of time. The questions that were used in this study were designed to tap the

beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of the respondents. Three kinds of questions were used in this study. They are as follows:

- Fixed alternative questions, ie. those questions which limit the responses of the subjects to the alternatives "YES" or "NO".

- The Likert type of questions which consists of a series of statements.   The respondent has to indicate his/her choice on a continuum indicating various degrees of agreement or dis-agreement.

- Open-ended questions which raise an issue but do not provide any structure for the respondents' reply.

The closed questions place limits on the subjects since they are required to give specific responses. This type of answer enhances the consistency of the responses and allows for straightforward data tabulation which is less time consuming. With regards to open-ended questions, Cohen and Manion (1985) as well as Bailey (1987) note that questions of this type call for superior writing skills and take much time to complete. Moreover, they are difficult to standardise because of the varied responses of the subjects.

The researcher was fully aware of these problems relating to the use of questionnaires. However, after a careful consideration of possible alternatives, she felt convinced that this method of data collection was her best option. Questionnaires would enable her to reach a larger population easily. In view of the recognised limitations of the use of questionnaires this method of data collection was supplemented by interviewing each of the respondents. The aim here was to delve more deeply into their views on the restructuring process.

5.3.3 The Interview

A major advantage of the interview is its flexibility. The researcher can repeat questions and probe further to ensure more specific answers. Furthermore, for obvious reasons the interview has a better response rate than a questionnaire. Bailey (1987) notes that some people feel more confident of their speaking rather than their writing ability. The interview situation allows the researcher an opportunity to assess congruence in non -verbal and verbal behaviour so as to assess the validity of the responses. Bailey (1987) lists the following as disadvantages of the interview method:

- It is time consuming for the researcher.
- There exists the possibility of interviewer bias, based on race, age, gender, class.
- It compromises the assurance of anonymity.

The researcher in this study used an interview guide to assess the subject's responses to organisational restructuring. The responses from the subjects supplemented the data gathered through the use of the questionnaires.

5.3.4 Non-Participant Observation

Non-participant observation was included as a part of the data-gathering process as it allows the researcher to observe, record, describe and understand behaviour as it occurred naturally. A methodological difficulty of observation relates to subjectivity and selectivity. Behaviour recorded as relevant by one researcher, may be deemed irrelevant by another. According to Sellitz (1976:236) the inadequacy of the observational method is that it is less effective in giving information about a person's perceptions, beliefs, feelings, motivations or future plans. The researcher observed subjects' behaviour on the day on which staff, who had chosen to accept the voluntary severance package, had their employment contracts terminated. These first-hand observations gave the researcher a close-up view of the more immediate effects of the voluntary severance package on the subjects, including the emotions they displayed.

5.4   THE PILOT STUDY

5.4.1   Purpose of a Pilot Study

The purposes of a pilot study may be listed as follows:

* to pretest the questionnaires to determine whether any changes are necessary before the full-scale study was conducted;

* to ensure that respondents differing in educational level could understand the questions and provide complete and pertinent answers;

* to refine the data collection instruments by, for instance, eliminating ambiguities and misunderstandings and correcting of deficiencies.

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5.4.2 The Pre-test

The questionnaires were administered to a sample of five non-academic staff at UDW. These five subjects who commented on the questions in writing did not form a part of the main sample. The questions were then modified in accordance with the problems they encountered. A consensus of opinion among the five subjects revealed that overall the questions were "relevant and interesting, but somewhat sensitive".

5.4.3 Modifications to the Questionnaire

The following modifications were made to the questionnaire, based on the feedback gained from the pre-test:

- **Original Question**

  Do you think that your gender has influenced *your career and working life* in any way over the past five years?

  Modified Question:

  Do you think that your gender has influenced *your working life* in any way over the past five years?

  Do you think that your gender has influenced *your career* in any way over the past five years?

- **Original question:**

  Do you think that your race has influenced *your career and working life* in any way over the past five to six years?

  Modified question:

  Do you think that your race has influenced *your career* in any way over the past five to

six years?

Do you think your race has influenced *your working life* in any way over the past five to six years?

5.4.4 New Items Included in the Questionnaire

The following additions were made to the questionnaire based on the input given during the pilot study:

1.   Are you considering the possibility of accepting the VSP offer?

YES	
NO	
UNSURE	

2.   If your answer is either YES or NO, please explain further.

3.   Are you concerned about being retrenched?

4.   What are your future plans?

5.   Additional questions (Likert type):

    5.1   I find it difficult to make decisions about my future.

    5.2   I am satisfied in my job.

    5.3   I have been absent from work more often in the last few months.

    5.4   I have more disagreements with my colleagues.

    5.5   I have control over my work situation.

    5.6   I have been experiencing greater tension in the last few months.

5.5   DATA ANALYSIS : SOME RELATED ASPECTS

Quantitative Analysis

Data was analysed using SIMSTAT(V3.5e).   Part I consisted of categorical variables.

Frequency distribution tables were generated on all the variables. Cross tabulation tables with

Chi-square statistics were generated using selected variables. Part II of the questionnaire

attempted to assess the psychosocial effects of organisational restructuring (See Appendix 2).

The questions were organised into three categories for convenience of analysis and

interpretation. The three categories identified were as follows:

- Psychological responses to organisational restructuring.

- Job-related responses.

- Respondents perceived need for help.

Qualitative Analysis

A considerable amount of qualitative data was obtained. According to Patton (1990) there are

no fixed rules for organising, analysing and interpreting qualitative data. He further contends

that the analysis of qualitative data is a creative process. "Inductive analysis" was used for the

formal analysis of the data (Patton, 1990:390). Inductive analysis refers to the emergence of

patterns, themes and categories of analysis from the data. Patton (1990) concludes that what

people actually say remains the essence of a qualitative inquiry and should be used to tell the

story of the data.

5.6   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following section contains a discussion of the possible limitations or challenges in the design and methodology of this study.

5.6.1   Sample Size

The sample in this study was small in size and therefore does not lend itself to generalisation. However, it is a good indicator of how people feel.

5.6.2   Location of the study

The respondents of this study were confined to the University of Durban-Westville and the findings are applicable only to this institution. This does not detract from the quality of information collected.

5.6.3   Researcher bias

The fact that the researcher is herself employed at the University of Durban-Westville, in the non-academic sector, would be a possible limitation, as it allows for subjectivity. Literature on research, states that being aware of "researcher bias", in itself, serves to minimise such bias.

5.6.4   Timing of the study

The study was conducted at a time when some respondents were engulfed by the emotions regarding the restructuring at the University. Their fear of the future, personal aggression towards the university, and feelings of bitterness may have clouded their responses.

5.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

5.7.1 Confidentiality

A covering letter was enclosed with each questionnaire outlining the purpose of the study and assuring confidentiality to the subjects (See Appendix 1).

5.7.2 Informed Consent

Every respondent consented to participating in the study.

5.7.3 Anonymity in Reporting

Whilst the interviews allowed for face to face contact, all respondents were assured of anonymity in the reporting of the research.

5.7.4 Dissemination of the findings of the study

The researcher undertakes to make available the findings of the study to the participants of the study as well as the management of the University of Durban-Westville.

5.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the method of research employed, the selection and composition of the sample and the data collection methods. The use of questionnaires, interviews and non-participant observation was combined to ensure variety and richness to the data collected. The next chapter is concerned with an analysis of data collated and a discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter concerns itself with an analysis of the data that was obtained in a variety of ways.

Qualitative and quantitative techniques were used to analyse information pertaining to the

following issues that are presented as per the questionnaire.

- respondents' understanding of the concept of transformation

- resistance to change

- affirmative action at UDW

- UDW's recruitment and appointment policy

- influence of gender on career

- quality of work life at UDW

- staff morale at UDW

- changes at departmental level

- voluntary severance packages

- psychological consequences of organisational restructuring

- job related responses to restructuring

- respondents' perceived need for help

Following these analyses, a discussion based on the findings is presented.

6.2   TRANSFORMATION

6.2.1   Respondents Understanding of the Concept of Transformation

A qualitative analysis revealed that transformation was seen in both a positive and a negative light.   The major categories developed from responses to this question were the following:

- transformation as democracy

- transformation meaning non-discrimination

- transformation meaning affirmative action

- transformation meaning Africanisation

- uncertainties about transformation

Each category will be discussed below.

Transformation as Democracy

In the words of the respondents, transformation meant "more representativeness", "developing co-operative governance structures" and "a devolution of power". This is consistent with popular notions of transformation as discussed in Chapter One.

Transformation Meaning Non-Discrimination

Respondents viewed transformation as meaning no discrimination along racial and gender lines. The goals of UDW as stated in the University's Mission statement (see Appendix 3) as well as the principles and processes stated in the universities social redress policy reflect the University's intention to ensure a just and equitable social order" (see Appendix 4).

Transformation Meaning Affirmative Action

Some respondents saw affirmative action in a positive light, with responses such as "to redress imbalances of the past" and "to create opportunities for Africans". However, the majority of the respondents tended to see affirmative action negatively. Typical responses included "move Indians and whites out of their positions to make way for blacks", "moving from an all Indian university to a university with 60% blacks" and "preferential treatment for Africans". The available literature on affirmative action suggests that the implementation of affirmative action is contentious and debatable (See Chapter One). Respondents' perceptions conveyed anger and dissatisfaction with affirmative action procedures.

Transformation Meaning Africanisation

The broader political ethos in South Africa reflects an awakening of an *African renaissance*. Over 48 years of apartheid rule African art, systems of belief and traditional medicine and so on, were seen by some as being primitive. With the inception of the government of National Unity (with a predominantly ANC represented National Government) there has been an emphasis on promoting African culture. Africanisation, in itself is a concept fraught with difficulties. To some it means South Africans belonging to the African continent. To others, it has a race-specific connotation of being African. In this research most respondents aligned themselves to the second description.

UDW, historically an ethnic Indian university, has understandably had a distinct Indian "flavour", with predominantly Indian staff and students. Currently, UDW is taking on an African culture and ethos. Participants in this study equated Africanisation with the erosion of Indian culture. According to Griffen and Moorhead (1989) the roots of an organisation's

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culture lie in its historical development, traditions and the character-building effects of past decisions and leaders. The culture itself is manifested in the organisation's daily functioning. Since UDW was traditionally an Indian ethnic university that symbolised the apartheid era, it was inevitable that such ethnic traditions would be challenged to reflect the social and political transformation that has been taking place in South Africa. Notwithstanding the assertion of Griffin and Moorhead, it must be remembered that culture is a social and political construct and as such it is fluid, dynamic and open to change. Change in an organisation's cultural practices can produce both positive and negative consequences. Participants in this study reported predominantly negative consequences.

Participants tended to view the changes as a threat both to themselves personally and to the organisation as a whole. This is evident in the data presented in later sections of this study. It is possible that participants perceived the dramatic cultural changes at UDW as a threat to the core of their identity. Despite the negative connotations associated with ethnicity it remains a core element of human society. Presumably, it is on these grounds that Strydom (1992) recommends that the history, traditions and cultural constraints of an organisation not be disregarded when implementing redress. Respondents' views generally reflected the belief that there was total disregard for anything that was "non-African". This is contrary to the national call for a genuine respect for diversity and for each of us to live according to the principles of "*ubuntu*".

Uncertainties about Transformation

In response to the question of what transformation had occurred at UDW, one respondent said that "there has been no transformation", while another said "I am unclear about what transformation is". Being unclear about transformation conveyed a sense of hopelessness. Many participants insisted that no transformation, in the generally accepted sense of the term, was taking place at UDW. It is possible that the expectations of respondents were contrary to what was happening at UDW. Respondents claimed that the change process at UDW had been poorly managed. Although the university might have had laudable transformational goals (see Appendices 3 & 4), poor and insensitive handling of these changes tended to negate these goals and engender considerable unhappiness.

6.2.2 Responses regarding the transformation that took place within UDW over the past five years

Respondents noted the most obvious result of the transformation process at UDW was the change in student demographics. The number of African students had increased significantly. Respondents also equated transformation with affirmative action. Six respondents (15%), all male, reported that they had benefitted from affirmative action. An overwhelming number of the respondents (82.5%) indicated that they had not benefitted from affirmative action.

Respondents also associated transformation with curriculum development, i.e., changes in course content, the facilitation of a greater link between teaching and learning, and a revised admission policy. However, by far, most respondents viewed transformation as disorganisation. They reported witnessing disorganisation on campus. Some reported that "the culture had changed and morals lowered", "the crime rate on the campus had increased"

and that "the VSP's were designed to move the Indians out of UDW".

Essentially the respondents perceived the changes as being regressive. They saw the university moving towards what in systems language would be called a "state of entropy". Cummings (1980) states that the application of systems theory to organisational restructuring informs one that every attempt at change will carry with it some unpredictable consequence. The results of this study highlight how the consequences of restructuring impact negatively on individuals and, according to most respondents, on the wider culture of the university.

6.2.3 Responses regarding factors external to UDW that may have precipitated change

Respondents identified the following two external factors as having precipitated change at UDW:

6.2.3.1 Changes in Policy for Higher Education

The recommendations of the White Paper on Education (1997) and the NCHE document (1996) were seen as primary factors that imposed changes on tertiary institutions. Policy changes regarding institutions of higher learning were discussed in Chapter One. The promise of "free education" was viewed as having created illusions for students. More important, government policy on affirmative action and the cutback in state funding were perceived as precipitating change.

6.2.3.2 Demographics of the Region

Respondents indicated that there was pressure for the student profile to reflect the demographics of the region. Blacks constitute the majority of the population in Kwa-Zulu Natal and the University, as a microcosm of the province, should reflect the population profile. This is in accordance with the recommendations for representativeness as reflected in the White Paper on Education (1997). Participants viewed government policy as impacting negatively on the change process. The perceived pressures from government on tertiary institutions to implement the policy was seen as contributing to the admission of an unmanageable number of disadvantaged students.

6.3   RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

In response to the question "Is there resistance to change?", 47.5% of the respondents answered "yes". With regard to the questions on "who or what constituted the major sources of resistance?" and "what do you think were the reasons for such resistance?", the following themes were evident in the data:

6.3.1   Internal Dynamics within Defined University Structures

An overwhelming number identified the following groups as constituting a major source of resistance viz., Student Representative Council (SRC), COMSA and Management. One respondent described the internal dynamics as "power grabbing by MANCO, SRC and COMSA". Respondents stated that these university constituencies were engaged in a struggle to gain power. This contributed to much of the tension between staff and students. It is interesting to note that these perceptions existed, in view of the fact that bodies such as COMSA and SRC have been traditionally associated with principles of participatory

democracy and progressive change. COMSA was viewed as becoming far too radically oriented and lost credibility because of its determination to gain power and control at any cost. Moerdyk and Fone (1987) suggest that resistance to change can be understood in terms of the "self - interest theories" which argue that people have a vested interest in the status quo and that any change that threatens these interests are resisted. One sub-theory of the "self-interest" theory is the "power theory". This theory states that people resist change so as to maintain existing power relations.

6.3.2 Resistance from Indian Students and Parents

Respondents viewed such resistance as occurring due to the changing demographics, the resultant culture change and the fear of Africanisation, all of which have been discussed previously.

6.3.3 Staff Resistance

Respondents suggested that employees who had held their positions for a long time resisted change. This may be attributed to the fact that the known ways of doing things may be the only reality. Insecurity and the fear of the loss of jobs may also have contributed to such resistance. Robbins (1993) states that individual sources of resistance are rooted in basic human characteristics such as personality and perceptions. He further contends that employees enjoy the comfort and security of doing their jobs "the same old way every day". This gives people a feeling of consistency and safety.

Respondents cited job-future ambiguity and fear of job loss as the major reasons for resistance to change. They also suggested that change was predetermined by a small group of people. Resistance was attributed to a lack of participation and the perception of a top-down approach to the change process. Respondents felt that there was no shared vision between management and staff and no identifiable change plan was in place. Respondents further added that the objectives of the university were not worked out in consultation with the staff. Data reflected that respondents believed that there was "too much change too quickly".

Feldberg (1975) in discussing crisis theory states that human beings attempt to reduce insecurity by maintaining and preserving a steady state which is known as equilibrium or the homeostatic tendency. Subsequently, any force, such as organisational change tends to destroy the state of equilibrium and is consequently resisted.

It would appear that shared change plans that are gradually implemented allow employees the opportunity to adjust. Moerdyk and Fone (1987) contend that the more fundamental and emotive the change is, the greater the resistance to change would be. An important factor contributing to resistance is the way in which organisations introduce and implement the change process, and the level of involvement of the employees in the change process. Announcing changes in advance and allowing employees the time to adjust to new work situations can help to reduce stress. The Lewin model, as cited in Griffins (1990), provides a general perspective on the steps in change. It is suggested that change requires three steps, namely:

- Unfreezing: employees affected by the impending changes must be led to understand why the change is necessary.

- Implement the change.

- Refreezing, which involves reinforcing and supporting the change so that it becomes a part of the system.

Griffins (1990) notes that Lewin's model is significant in emphasizing the importance of planning the change, communicating its values and reinforcing it.

Of the 40 respondents 15 (37,5%) stated that they were personally resistant to change, whilst 12 respondents (30%) indicated not being resistant to it. The balance of 13 respondents (32.5%) were unsure as to whether they were personally resistant to change. Some of the reasons offered for resistance to change included the fact that "their loyalty to the university was not considered" and that "they had lost interest and experienced lowered morale". The 32.5% of respondents who were unsure, did not want to commit themselves. It would appear that admitting to resisting change would be an indictment on them, especially in a highly charged environment where political correctness might be the norm. Moreover, only 30% of the respondents believed that they had some impact on the change process. The remaining 70% of the respondents believed that they had no impact on it, as detailed in section 6.9.2 of this chapter.

Implementing Change in an Organisation

Griffins (1990) outlines techniques that have the potential to overcome resistance when implementing change in an organisation. He added that participation is considered to be the most effective technique for overcoming resistance to change. Employee participation in planning and implementing change allows for a better understanding of the reasons for change.

Uncertainty is reduced and self-interest and social relationships may be less threatened. Having had an opportunity to express their ideas and to assume the perspective of others, employees are more likely to accept change gracefully. Educating employees on the need for change should reduce their resistance. If open channels of communication are established and maintained during the change process uncertainty can be minimized.

6.4   AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

6.4.1   Respondents Views Regarding Affirmative Action

In response to the question "What is your understanding of affirmative action?, respondents attributed very positive connotations to the concept. Quantitative analysis revealed that 31 of the respondents (78%) viewed affirmative action as; "redressing the imbalances of the past". The goals of affirmative action were seen as the promotion of equal opportunities and equity, and ensuring that the changes in South Africa mirror the demographics of South African society. This is not an unusual finding considering that affirmative action, as a value, cannot be disputed. Affirmative action can be regarded as a universal value. According to Ramphele (1992), affirmative action in the South African context is talking about a fundamental transformation of social relations so that they reflect the diversity of our society.

A minority of respondents (22%) understood affirmative action to be aimed at redressing past imbalances, but simultaneously attributed to it negative connotations. This is reflected in statements such as "affirmative action means no emphasis on merit and quality, but in making up for the past", "employment on merit, not colour, but UDW is practising the apartheid policy of job reservation", "giving jobs to rich African people" and "Black power, black rule, more blacks employed". While respondents support affirmative action in principle they showed

dissatisfaction with the implementation of the affirmative action policies, and with some of the consequences of affirmative action at UDW. According to Omar (1998) the critics of affirmative action programmes argue that such programmes tended to favour those already more fortunate and in this way widened the gap between the rich and the poor.

The following section highlights respondents general dissatisfaction with the implementation and consequences of affirmative action.

6.4.2   Respondents' Perceptions Regarding the Effects of Affirmative Action at UDW

Multiple responses were permitted for this question. Twenty-nine respondents (72%) saw the effects of affirmative action as being related to changes in the staff complement. Eleven (27.5%) saw its effects as related to changes in the student population, and four (10%) saw no changes due to affirmative action.   Those who mentioned the effects of affirmative action as related to changes in staff demographics simply referred to the increase in the number of members of African staff at UDW.   Some of the respondents attributed negative connotations to the changing demographics and the fear of moving towards an African university. The following quotation illustrates this view: "The university is Africanising rather than applying an affirmative action policy".

As at 31/1/98, the figure for full-time, permanent and contract non-academic employees at UDW is 1 145, of which 162 are African staff. These figures exclude the temporary staff, ad-hoc staff and the student assistants. Prior to the implementation of the VSPs, the figure for non-academic staff was 1380, of which 189 were African staff. Following the implementation of the VSPs, UDW's total staff complement, inclusive of all categories is 1 597 as at 31/1/98, of which 348 are African staff. These figures were obtained from the Administrative

Computer Services Department, UDW.

Although the numbers of African staff may not have increased dramatically as is evident above, perhaps the number of black staff in strategic positions, with decision-making powers might have increased and their presence might be felt more acutely. A number of respondents actually pointed to changes in the demographics of management positions. Reflecting a very negative stance, one respondent replied, "Management is African, but we also have Indian students and staff. Africans in management want to control the decisions, no different from the Nationalists".

Coupled with the negative connotation attributed to the changing demographics, respondents reported experiencing greater levels of frustration, higher workloads and increased resentment and fear. The sentiments of two respondents are captured in the following comments: "More black students and staff on campus now, but also more violence and crime and less productivity" and "warlords are being employed from townships and staff are feeling threatened by this". It was interesting to note that only 27% of the respondents mentioned altered student demographics as the effect of affirmative action. In reality the change in student demographics has been the most visible. Perhaps the fact that the respondents were non-academic members of staff, and given the timing of the study, which co-incided with the implementation of the VSPs, meant that they were preoccupied with their own positions, and therefore with staff-related issues.

Associated with the change in student demographics, there was a perception of a lowering of academic standards, increased tension and violence on campus, and redress at the expense of

other students. In the words of the one of the respondents, "The admissions policy has been reviewed to accept more African students, students of other races with good results are not considered". There is tension between the degree of access and the achievement of quality. However, the level of preparedness of African students entering higher education reflects the deep racial and class divides in our South African society at large. Therefore, adequate financial, human and physical resources are necessary to ensure quality in higher education. This tension can only be addressed if the system can be developed in such a way that it allows reasonable access in proportion to the resources available.

6.4.3 Respondents' views regarding whether they had benefitted from affirmative action

Views of male's vs views of females as to whether they had benefitted from affirmative action.

Table 6.1

A Comparison of the Views of Males and Females Regarding Benefits from Affirmative Action

Category	Yes	No	Total
Males	6 (15%)	22 (55%)	28 (70%)
Females	0 (0%)	12 (30%)	12 (30%)
TOTAL	6 (15%)	34(85%)	40 (100%)

Table 6.1 indicates that only six respondents (15%) saw themselves as benefitting from

affirmative action. It is interesting to note that of the six respondents only two indicated that they had had opportunities for upward mobility. For the other four respondents affirmative action was not seen purely in terms of tangible benefits such as promotion and remuneration. Instead, they focussed on personal growth. This is captured in the following responses: "I now understand other people's culture and way of life", "I feel good, the moral obligation to the disadvantaged has been fulfilled" and "I have learnt tolerance".

An overwhelming majority of the respondents (85%) indicated that they had not benefitted from affirmative action. Table 6.1 illustrates that all the females in the sample fell within this category. The majority of the respondents indicated that affirmative action applied to Africans only. The notion of "not being black enough" and of "Indians no longer being afforded opportunities", was a recurring theme.

The qualitative analysis of responses reflected some of the anger and resentment linked with these notions. Responses included: "First whites were privileged, now blacks are privileged, there is no place for Indians" and "What do they mean by 'disadvantaged'?", I feel I was also disadvantaged!". Similar sentiments were expressed by respondents who were white: "I am white, I have skill and experience, but I am passed up for jobs" and "There is no respect for people who are not black. My services were rapidly and cruelly terminated because I am white. My eleven years of contribution made no difference".

These responses are tied up with the respondents' perceptions of affirmative action meaning Africanisation. According to Omar (1998), a criticism of affirmative action is that it "invites reactions from non-preferred groups. In some areas of South Africa, Indians and Coloureds

are beginning to feel overlooked because affirmative action excludes them" (p17). Responses from females suggested that the implementation of affirmative action was not in keeping with the university's social redress policy (Appendix 4), and that women have not experienced the effects of gender upliftment.

The researcher is of the view that the respondents' heightened negative state, could be associated with the timing of the study. Since it coincided with the implementation of the VSPs, emotions were running high and there were growing fears of job losses.

A study by Hamilton-Attwell (1997) found that 68% of the employees of an organisation felt threatened by the changes once they were implemented. An assessment prior to implementing the changes revealed that 56% of the employees felt threatened by changes. These findings were supported by Gostelli (1997) and suggested that employees become more negative about change once they experience the impact of change. Gluckman in Breda (1991) asserts that employees reaction to change can be understood in terms of Kubler-Ross's theory describing the psychological stages involved in personal loss. The stages identified are denial, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance. Employees anger could be interpreted as a reaction to the changes.

6.5   UDW's RECRUITMENT AND APPOINTMENT POLICY

In response to the question "Should the university alter its policy of recruitment and appointments?", 77.5% of the respondents indicated that there was a need for the university to alter its policy.   This finding is illustrated in Figure 6.1.
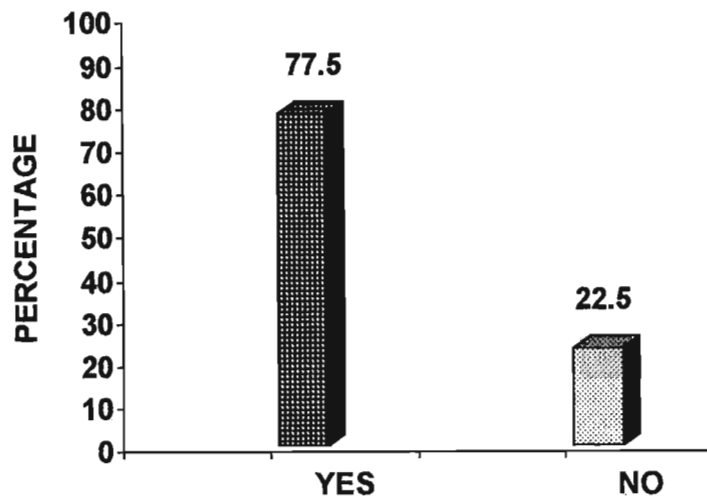
Figure 6.1.   **Responses to UDW's Recruitment and Appointment Policy**

This finding is in keeping with general responses reflecting dissatisfaction with the implementation of change at the university. The expressed need for a policy that promotes appointments on merit, and not just on colour, emerged consistently.

Twenty-eight of the 31 participants (90%) who responded in the affirmative to this question, indicated that the policies should focus on appointments by merit, and that policy guidelines should stress **internal promotions** to ensure the upward mobility of existing staff. Several

respondents specifically stated that policy guidelines should include clauses that outlaw the **practice of nepotism.** There appeared to be a perception that nepotism is widespread at UDW.

Ramphele (1992) stated that the "traditional appraisal system of looking at merit as an unproblematic concept stands challenged. Qualifications of individuals and their experience remain the pillars of assessing appointability. But one has to take cognisance of the special contributions which under-represented groups bring into an institution as well as their potential. Thus, one has to appoint people who, over a period of time, and in the context of their particular posts, are likely to make the greatest contribution to the work and reputation of the institution" (p4). Ramphele (1992) further emphasised that the best-appointed person should, however, be able to hold his/her own in terms of peer review both nationally and internationally. She added that "a good and well-implemented equal opportunity policy and programme, will ensure not just good black and women staff, but good white male staff as well" (p. 4).

Another change that some staff would like to see is that policy guidelines ensure recruitment and selection at the local or national level. This view is supported by the argument that it is cheaper to employ local South Africans. Moreover, these applicants are more likely to have had more direct experience of our unique situation and circumstances.

6.6 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE INFLUENCE OF THEIR GENDER ON THEIR CAREER OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS
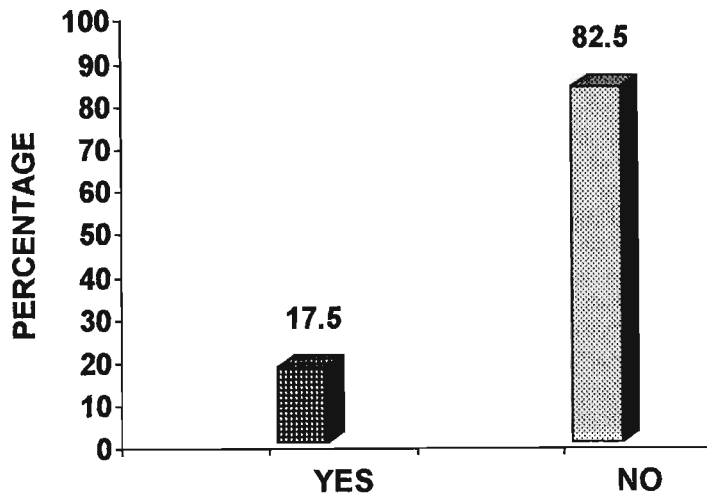
Figure 6.2. **Influence of Gender on Career**

Figure 6.2 reveals that 82.5% of the respondents stated that their gender did not influence their career in any way over the past five years. Of the 17.5% of respondents who reflected that their gender had influenced their career, only one male stated that this influence was positive. The remainder (both males and females) reported on the negative impact of their gender on their career. Traditionally, women are defined in the context of "homemakers". When a woman steps out of this role she faces greater challenges in the work environment. Typical responses from females to this question were as follows: "I am taken less seriously by the management" and "UDW is male-dominated, and I have to fight twice as hard for recognition". Affirmative action that challenges gender structures is now a threat to males, who believe that with the focus on gender equity, there is no more a privileged position for males. Typical responses from white males were: "I am worse off now, the white male is not popular" and "being a white male is bad when organisations are restructuring and addressing

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equity". In terms of society's expectations, masculinity is associated with strength, power,

status, ambition and the role of provider for one's family. In the face of growing

unemployment and retrenchment, cultural and societal expectations place tremendous role

strain on men who are confronted with job ambiguities and insecurities. This has been aptly

captured in the words of one of the respondents, "I am a male and the sole breadwinner. I

have to look after my job".

6.7   QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AT UDW
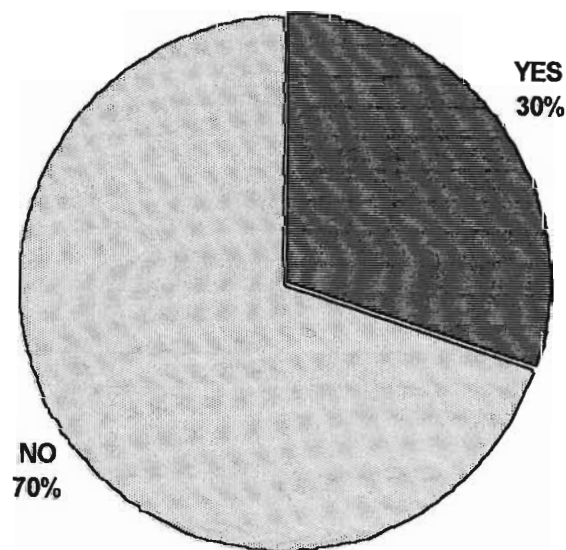
Figure 6.3. **Respondents Perceptions of the Quality of Work Life at UDW**

Figure 6.3 reveals that 12 respondents (30%) were of the view that the quality of their work

life had improved over the past five years.   Twenty-eight respondents (70%) saw no

improvement in the quality of their work life and in fact suggested that it had deteriorated.

Those who perceived that the quality of their work life had improved cited personal factors as

contributing to such improvement. These included greater motivation, multi-skilling and,

appreciating diversity. One respondent stated: "My initiative led to my improved status".
Respondents indicated that they had developed their own skills with regard to diversity and
change. An external factor cited was the Labour Relations Act of 1996, suggesting that policy
development that protected employees contributed to an improvement in the quality of work
life.

Those who perceived their work life as having deteriorated (70%) noted that the
unsatisfactory university structures did not make provision for improving the quality of work
life. A further factor cited was poor leadership and autocratic decision-making styles. Added
to these factors were others such as "no scope for upward mobility", "no career paths" and
"no appreciation for loyalty and effort".

Poor management was linked with external sources of stress in the work environment. A
sense of hopelessness, lowered morale and having no direction, was conveyed. Having no
work ethic was also a factor that was cited. Gibson *et al.* (1994) states that the proliferation
of cultural and diverse backgrounds in the organisation highlights differences in values of work
ethics. Particular job-related stresses consequently emerge, such as no additional staff,
increased work pressure and inadequate technical and human resources. However,
respondents were of the view that the state budget cuts and the funding crisis were the primary
reasons for the deterioration in the quality of their work life. The funding crisis facing tertiary
institutions has been discussed in Chapter One.

6.8   STAFF MORALE
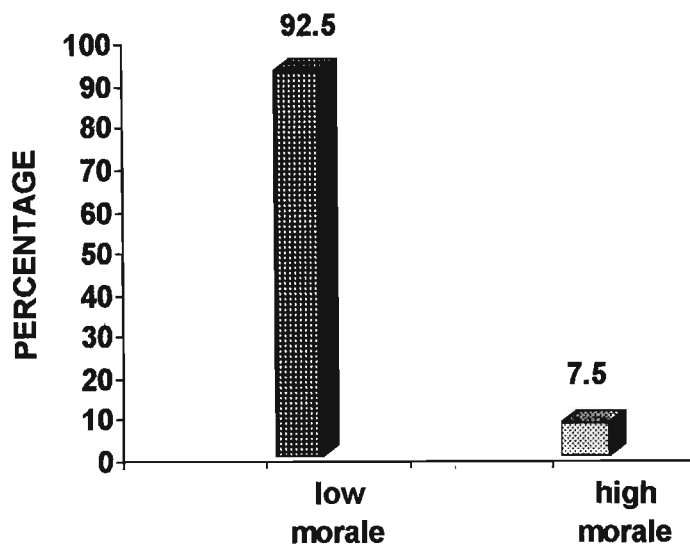
Figure 6.4. **Perceptions of respondents regarding staff morale at UDW**

Quantitative analysis of the data, presented in Figure 6.4, shows that a minority of the respondents (7.5%) indicated that the staff morale at UDW was high. An overwhelming majority i.e. 37 respondents (92.5%) perceived the staff morale as very low. Low morale was associated with following:

- perceived race discrimination

- unplanned change

- lack of opportunity for upward mobility

- poor salary

- nepotism

- poor staff development and training

- dissatisfaction with heads of departments.

- UDW's financial crisis

- poor communication between management and staff resulting in tension

- a high work load

The three participants with high morale attributed their happy position to satisfaction with their heads of department and with the practice of consultation and teamwork within the department. This reflects the significance of satisfaction with one's immediate work environment. Respondents who were dissatisfied with their heads of departments conveyed a sense that their heads were insensitive to their needs and aspirations. In this regard, one respondent said, "My head of department is a law unto himself. He provides no motivation for his staff to excel".

Among the reasons cited for low morale, "unplanned change" appeared most frequently. Respondents appeared dissatisfied with the change process and uncertain with regard to the future of the university. More importantly, most of the respondents mentioned uncertainties surrounding their own job. The relationship between unplanned change and job insecurity was discussed in Chapter Three.

The recurring theme of "unplanned change" across the data analysis section validates the findings of this study by indicating a congruence between respondents' views on transformation, affirmative action, resistance to change, the influence of gender on career, and changes at departmental level. The sense of fluidity and uncertainty at UDW almost detracts from the notion of "organisation". Warr (1987) indicated that the essence of "organisation" is

the achievement of a certain stability over time. For employees in organisations, stability can lend a reassuring predictability to their work. It is this stability that was perceived to be lacking at UDW.

According to the respondents, the tension between the staff and management has been linked to the poor implementation of the change plans and management's role in it. According to Hamilton-Attwell (1997), "Management regards change as opportunities to improve their success rate, and employees see change as disruptive, intrusive and upsetting the balance. Employees react emotionally to change and their emotional needs must be addressed as part of any change process" (p22). Griffins (1990) and Clampit in Hamilton-Attwell (1997), contend that successful change depends on effective communication processes between managers and employers. Employee participation in planning and implementing change allows for a better understanding of the reasons for change. Moreover, introducing change gradually can allow for the impending change to be successful, as employees have the time to adjust to new work situations.

6.9 CHANGES AT DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL

Thirty-one participants (77.5%) perceived their departments has having experienced several changes over the last five years. However, only (8%) of the respondents viewed the changes as being positive. By and large, the perception was negative. Seventy percent of the sample believed that they had no control over the process of change. Rotter (1966) stated that persons, who feel externally controlled, as though they are objects rather than subjects, are apt to experience feelings of helplessness and powerlessness to influence their situation. They

believe their lives are controlled by outside forces, hence their experience of stress is greater.

Nine (22.5%) of the sample were considering accepting the voluntary severance package offer. The remaining 31(77.5%) cited the following reasons for declining the offer:

- unable to secure alternative employment

- the deal offered was very poor and years of service were not considered

- there was insufficient time afforded to explore other opportunities and make an informed decision

- loyalty to the institution

- commitment to the change plans

The respondents who did accept the package, offered the following reasons for doing so:

- "instability at UDW"

- frustrating work environment

- tired of being pushed around by management

- management is playing political games with Indians.

6.10 PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING

Part II of the questionnaire attempted to assess the psychosocial effects of organizational restructuring (See Appendix 2). The questions were organised into three categories for convenience of analysis and interpretation. The three categories identified were as follows:

6.10.1 **Psychological responses to organizational restructuring**

6.10.2 **Job-related responses**

6.10.3 **Respondents perceived need for help**

The three categories identified above will now be discussed below.

6.10.1 Psychological Responses to Organisational Restructuring

Table 6.2

Psychological Responses to Organisational Restructuring

Item	Psychological Responses	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
1	My personal life has changed	45.0	20.0	35.0
2	I am very emotionally upset	37.5	25.0	37.5
3	I am not able to sleep properly	37.5	10.0	52.5
4	I have lost my appetite	10.0	15.0	75.0
5	My appetite has increased	5.0	37.5	57.5
6	I see no purpose in life	5.0	12.5	82.5
7	I am very anxious about the future	60.0	17.5	22.5
8	I can't make decisions anymore	20.0	20.0	60.0
9	I don't like changes	10.0	30.0	60.0
10	I drink more alcohol now	5.0	15.0	80.0
11	I feel emotionally drained	30.0	25.0	45.0
12	I always feel tired	32.5	25.0	42.5
13	I feel positive about transformation	40.0	35.0	25.0
14	I cannot concentrate	22.5	17.5	60.0
15	I am not confident of myself	15.0	22.5	62.5
16	I spend time worrying	27.5	25.0	47.5
17	I lack self-esteem	10.0	25.0	65.0
18	My sleep pattern has changed	20.0	25.0	55.0
19	I have increased my smoking	12.5	12.5	75.0
20	I am irritable	32.5	17.5	50.0
21	I find it difficult making decision about my future	35.0	20.0	45.0
22	I have been experiencing greater tension in the last few months	50.0	17.5	32.5

The responses reflected in Table 6.2 indicates that only 10% of the respondents did not like change (Item 9). A majority of 60% were in favour of change while 30% were undecided.

It is interesting to note that data obtained from the interview schedule, (where the questions pertained specifically to changes at UDW), yielded different results: 37.5% of the respondents personally resisted change, with the greater majority stating that they were uncertain. The face-to-face interviews revealed that respondents experienced marked unhappiness with the way changes occurred at UDW. Perhaps the statement, "I don't like changes" (Item 9) might not have been context specific. Respondents may, therefore, not have interpreted the statement within the UDW context.

The qualitative analysis revealed that the majority of the participants were disillusioned with UDW's change plans. Their experience of its restructuring efforts were perceived negatively. While 45% of the participants (18) reported that their personal lives had changed after the introduction of the "change plans", twenty-four respondents (60%) indicated that they were very anxious about the future. Greater tension over the last few months was experienced by 20 of the respondents (50%).

Research has demonstrated the relationship between non-specific psychological, behavioural, and somatic conditions and stressful work environments (Ivancevich et al, 1995; Carter, 1985; Griffin and Moorhead, 1989). Warr (1987) suggests that feelings of anxiety and tension should be included as aspects of "stress". The instability of employment affected employees' well-being and the threat of losing one's job adds to the tensions at work. Dubrin (1984) notes that the symptoms of job-related stress showed wide individual differences. Faced with the same stressor, one person may act impulsively while another may become depressed.

A strong feature throughout the responses to the Likert scale (Appendix 2) was the high number of respondents who remained neutral on the scale as a whole (Table 6.2). It seems that respondents were unwilling to commit themselves. It is also possible that the value-laden nature of the statements contributed to the research including more socially acceptable responses. For example, 40% of the respondents indicated that they felt positive about transformation. However, when the concept of transformation was explained within the UDW context, most saw it as disorganisation.

While respondents in the face-to-face interviews confirmed their feelings of resentment, bitterness and anger, there were no overt signs of depression. Some of the statements in the Likert scale (Appendix 2) were linked to depression as a syndrome: for example, "I cannot sleep", "My appetite has increased" and "I am very emotionally upset".

The anger and resentment of respondents represent a stage in the process of coping with change. The feelings expressed by respondents also reflect a response to UDW's change plans, specifically the implementation of the VSPs. In terms of Kubler-Ross's stages, as outlined in Chapter Four, respondents are likely to experience other stages before they reach the one of depression and final acceptance.

6.10.2 **Job-Related Responses**

All questions relating to the immediate job environment are included in Table 6.3 below:

Table 6.3

Job-Related Responses

Item	Job-related Responses	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
23	My job means everything to me	47.5	22.5	30.0
24	My friends/colleagues have helped me	25.0	35.0	40.0
25	I am afraid of losing my job	35.0	27.5	37.5
26	I have been absent from work more often in the last few months	2.5	15.0	82.5
27	I have more disagreement with my colleagues	45.0	30.0	25.0
28	I am satisfied in my job	7.5	15.0	77.5
29	I have control over my work environment	20.0	10.0	70.0

It is interesting to note that although this study was conducted within a work-related context, only 47.5% of the respondents indicated that their "jobs meant everything to them". A mere 35% of the respondents indicated that they were afraid of losing their jobs. However, in the analysis of qualitative data, "job-future ambiguity" and "fear of job loss" were strong sentiments. Such responses may be derived from the mass hysteria associated with unfounded fears which appeared to characterise the UDW context. Under circumstances of escalating change, the perception of threat may be far higher than the actual threat.

Job insecurity has both psychological and financial roots. Further, self-image in most cultures is partly dependent on the type of work one performs. Retrenchments as a consequence of downsizing also weaken the self-image of employees. For most people, work is the focal point of their lives and a major source of both rewards and pressures. According to Warr (1987), the nature of interaction within the work environment is determined by work conditions, and the individual's needs and capacities. He further adds that a balance in the interaction between the individual and the work environment creates a feeling of mastery, increased work capacity and satisfaction. Job insecurity is not just restricted to the loss of jobs, but also generates anxiety for people who are likely to remain employed.

One quarter of the respondents (10) indicated that they had enjoyed the support of co-workers. Research findings suggest that social support cushions the adverse psychological impact of work stress (Argyle, 1989; La Rocco *et al.* 1980). Thoits (1982) contends that the support of co-workers increases the individual's ability to cope. Organizational policies may expect employees to adapt to new ideas, while at the same time appearing to threaten their positions in the organisation. Such policies are likely to fail as employees may accept change in one aspect of their lives, provided that they feel secure and supported in other aspects.

A small percentage, i.e. 20% of the respondent's (8) agreed that they had control over their work situation. An overwhelming majority of 70% of the respondent's (28) stated that they had no control over their work situation. A lack of control over the job situation is a profound stressor encountered by a large percentage of the employees at UDW. According to House (1981) employees who feel externally controlled are likely to experience feelings of helplessness and powerlessness over their situation. Their experience of stress is greater,

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because they believe that their lives are externally controlled. According to Spector (1973),

people with an internal locus of control experience less threat in stressful situations.

6.10.3 Respondents Perceived Need for Help

Table 6.4

Perceived need for help

Item	Perceived need for help	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
30	I feel that I need counselling	17.5	27.5	55.0
31	I need the help of a doctor	7.0	27.5	65.0
32	I would like to join a support group	22.5	27.5	50.0
33	Management should provide counselling for us	45.0	27.5	27.5
34	I need emotional help	12.5	27.5	60.0

In Table 6.4 respondents' perceived need for help is analysed. Any kind of assistance -

physical, psychological or social is included under this heading. Table 6.4 reflects that only

17.5% of the respondents (7) agreed that they needed counselling. Twenty-two respondents

(55%) believed that they did not need counselling, while 27.5% of the respondents (11) were

unsure of their need for counseling. Further, only 7% of the respondents (3) agreed that they

needed medical help. A majority of 60% of the respondents (24) indicated that they did not

need emotional help, while 9 respondents (22.5%) stated that they would like to join a support

group. Eighteen respondents (45%) agreed that the UDW management needed to provide

some kind of counselling or support service to help them cope with the effects of the changes

that were taking place.

The researcher observed a discrepancy between what was written on the questionnaires and what was verbalised by the respondents during the face-to-face interviews. The majority of the respondents expressed a need for counselling in the personal interviews. Some reported that they had sought psychiatric or other medical assistance to cope with the job-related stressors.

The difference between the written and verbal responses may be attributed to the questionnaire being a "cerebral exercise", i.e., impersonal. However, the face-to-face interviews with the respondents offered opportunities for establishing rapport and for cathartic expressions of emotions. The questionnaire and the face-face interviews also served as catalysts as they touched on major areas of concern in the employees' lives. More importantly, the respondents were aware that the researcher occupied the position of "student counsellor" and, therefore, felt free to unburden themselves during the face-to-face interviews.

This chapter offered an interpretation and a discussion of the findings of this study. The next chapter will focus on the conclusions and recommendations drawn from this study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study essentially dealt with the perceptions of non-academic staff at UDW on transformation and restructuring. More specifically, the study was designed to understand the psychosocial effects of organisational restructuring.

As indicated in Chapter One, this research was guided by the following three questions:

- What are the psychosocial consequences of organisational restructuring for non-academic staff at UDW?

- How do non-academic staff at UDW react to the changes arising out of the restructuring process?

- What are the expressed views of non-academic staff regarding the organisational changes?

Data pertaining to these questions were presented and analysed in Chapter Six. In this Chapter the major conclusions drawn from the study are presented. This is followed by the recommendations.

7.2 MAJOR CONCLUSIONS REGARDING RESPONDENTS VIEWS ON TRANSFORMATION

Respondents who saw the broad concept of transformation in a positive light associated it with democracy and non-discrimination. However, the majority of respondents, when linking the concept specifically to UDW, associated it with affirmative action and Africanisation.

Respondents appeared to have no problem with transformation *per se*. However, many expressed concern about the **way** in which it was being implemented at UDW. They agreed that the goals of transformation (in terms of representativeness, shared governance, a devolution of power and racial and gender equality), were positive. Indeed, they were needed "to level the playing fields". However, the majority of respondents felt that in attempting to meet these transformational goals, the university management had compromised fundamental values of justice and fairness. They believed that non-Africans were being marginalised in the process of organisational restructuring. An ethnocentriscism that reflected a lack of respect for cultural diversity was also mentioned. Indeed, the changes at UDW were seen as being regressive rather than progressive.

A large majority of the respondents observed that the most visible consequence of transformation was the changing student demographics, with African students being in the majority. While this was viewed positively, in that it reflected the representativeness of the South African population, several associated ethical and practical concerns were raised.

The massification policy of the National Commission of Higher Education (1996) has put

pressure on universities to ensure greater access to disadvantaged students. Respondents believed that such a policy disadvantaged and excluded students with a sound academic history, thus bringing into focus the moral questions of fairness and the maintenance of academic standards.

Additional moral and practical concerns are raised when access is increased without providing the necessary infrastructure and resources to help students cope. The situation is aggravated when together with the call for massification and increased access for African students (the majority of whom are in need of financial resources), the government simultaneously cut subsidies to universities. This poses ethical dilemmas regarding meeting needs and maintaining standards in the face of dwindling financial resources.

All three constituencies at UDW (SRC, COMSA and the Management) were seen as presenting obstacles in some way or other. Each constituency, it was claimed, had its own agenda and these vested interests took precedence over the transformation goals of the university as a whole. The conflicting interests of students, staff and the university management, thus impeded orderly and prudent organisational restructuring and transformation.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING RESPONDENTS' VIEWS ON AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The issue of affirmative action from a theoretical and philisophical point of view, was seen in a positive light, in that it redressed imbalances of the past. While the goal of affirmative

action, as a process ensuring representativeness was welcomed, the majority of respondents expressed concern about devaluing merit and quality. The negative consequences of affirmative action, such as the lowering of academic standards and lowered productivity levels, were also noted. A strong feeling was expressed that affirmative action was, in practice, the apartheid policy of job-reservation, only now with reverse discrimination. An overwhelming majority of the respondents (over 85%) indicated that they had not benefitted from affirmative action strategies at UDW. This reflected the feelings of both males and females.

Omar's (1998) critique of affirmative action as discussed in Chapter Six, is relevant in this regard. However, in South Africa, where the legacy of apartheid is deeply felt and the divide between the "haves" and the "have nots" is extreme, affirmative action with its goals of representativeness and equality, has merit. However, one needs to ask how these goals fit in with the principles of fairness, justice, equal opportunities for all, and respect for all persons irrespective of race, sexual orientation and gender, as enshrined in the constitution.

Affirmative action introduces the debate around individual and minority group rights versus the greater good of society. Reflecting dissatisfaction with affirmative action policies, the majority of the respondents (77.5%) indicated that the university needed to alter its recruitment and appointment policy. A popular view was that appointments should be made on merit rather than on colour. Moreover, nepotism should be stamped out and local South Africans should be given preference over South Africans living overseas.

Gender appeared to play little or no role in influencing the career of the majority of respondents. For the minority, who expressed the view that gender did impact on their

careers, two dominant themes emerged. Firstly, women felt that they needed to work twice as hard to prove their ability, compared with their male counterparts. Secondly, affirmative action with its focus on gender equity, threatens the entrenched privileged positions of men in the labour force.

7.4 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND STAFF MORALE AT UDW

An overwhelming majority of respondents (70%) saw no improvement in the recent past in the quality of work life at UDW. It was not surprising, therefore, that 92.5% of staff members perceived staff morale to be very low. "Unplanned change" was the most frequently cited reason for this low morale. This "unplanned change" that seemed to take place at an unprecedented rate ("too much change, too quickly") apparently contributed to a state of uncertainty and disorganisation. Respondents perceived much of the organisational restructuring as being initiated and implemented through a top-down approach with little or no consultation between staff and management. The majority of respondents reported experiencing anxiety about their future - 70% indicated that they had no control over the change process.

Despite expressing intense feelings of resentment, anger, uncertainty and anxiety, the majority of the respondents indicated that they did not need personal counselling. The possible reasons for this response are discussed in Chapter Six. Strangely though, while denying the need for personal counselling services, these respondents in the same breath often suggested that the management should provide a counselling service for staff - a reflection perhaps of their confusion and disorientation.

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In summary, the conclusions reflect that, on the whole, respondents believed that organisational restructuring produced negative consequences, both for themselves and for the University. The high levels of resentment, anger and uncertainty reflected in their responses to items in the questionnaire and during the face-to-face interviews might be a reflection of the particular time when this study was conducted, i.e., when the voluntary severance packages were being implemented. Interviews with the respondents indicated considerable dissatisfaction with the manner in which the VSPs were being handled. For people who had provided several years of loyal service to the university, the experience was demoralising. They felt that, the University Management saw them as "objects", who could be discarded without any adverse effect on the general running of the university.

This approach did not value the contribution of staff over several years. More importantly, it was seen as an inhumane and insensitive way of treating individuals who had given the university years of loyal and dedicated service. Validation of individuals through affirmation of their work and respect for human dignity is one of the most empowering strategies available. The VSPs by definition were voluntary. This formal absence of compulsion may be misleading in that, employees felt that if they did not accept the VSP, they faced inevitable retrenchment. Therefore it is arguable that the VSPs carried with it a sense of compulsion. This insidious element of fear accompanying the VSPs suggest that they were not "employee friendly" from conception to implemention.

In view of the complexity of the issues involved and their contentious nature, it is difficult to provide a simple set of recommendations. Different recommendations would reflect the

vested interest of different groups, their personal values and their political allegiance, or perhaps even their life experiences. Given the ethical and political dimensions involved, any set of recommendations should reflect not only that which is appropriate for UDW, but for universities throughout the country.

7.5   RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING RESTRUCTURING STRATEGIES

Given the respondents' views about dissatisfaction with the process of restructuring, the researcher recommends that particular attention be paid to strategies for the implementation of the change process. This includes the following

Commitment to a Moral Stance

This entails a commitment to justice and respect. An organisation needs to have a basic moral stance that guides its practice. This should include the principles of fairness, justice and respect for all persons at all times. This moral stance should serve as a basis for the organisation's strategies for restructuring and development.

Managing Change Effectively

In order to avoid too much change too quickly, changes should be phased in on an incremental basis. People with radical orientations often demand that "the baby be thrown out with the bath water" and that there should be revolutionary changes to the existing social structures. However, such an approach already adopted in some of the areas of welfare, health and education, and the ensuing confusion that resulted, indicate that such an approach is neither

feasible nor desirable.

Systems theory informs us of the need for a certain state of preservation and stability if change is to be orderly and effective. Certain core values such as autonomy and respect for persons need to be retained. While there is a clear need for organisational restructuring, one needs to pay particular attention to the **process** goals of organisational restructuring and not just to the objective goals. Within this context one may consider the Employment Equity Bill (1998) where the objectives are purely in terms of the end product, but the ethical means of achieving those ends are questionable. It is perhaps on account of the ethical dilemmas over process and end goals of affirmative action and organisational restructuring that Omar (1998) recommended "an expanding opportunities approach" to replace affirmative action. According to Omar (1998) "such an approach will avoid targets becoming quotas" (17).

It is also essential for the organisation to formulate plans for employee development that applies to all levels of staff. Organisations in South Africa are dealing with increased expectations from all sectors of its workforce. The increase in the number of grievances and the perceptions of dissatisfaction in the workforce is indicative of increased expectations. Management must, therefore, maintain a relationship of care, trust, concern, listening and responding to the needs of their employees.

In managing organisational change it is important for managers to accurately assess the organisational climate and "get a feel of things" on the ground. This entails understanding people's attitudes towards change and their reactions to it. Managers need to focus on creative ways to ensure a commitment to the "new" UDW. The cliched terms of "shared

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governance" and "participation" have to become an integral part of the "new" organisation. There needs to be a transparent change programme drawn up in consultation with all relevant constituencies. An open, transparent and effective communication system is essential if organisations want their employees to understand the roles they play. Employees must be motivated to increase their capacity to exercise meaningful decision-making through increased participation and involvement.

The presence of an effective human resource team is crucial during any restructuring process. Such a team needs to interpret institutional policy, give information and help employees to make informed decisions about their future. For effective change, organisations need to establish a vision and values and harness their workforce behind these, so that they are the initiators and the driving force behind the organisation's success.

Finally, counselling services must be offered to help the organisation and employees to accept and manage change and to develop creative coping responses. This service could ideally be offered through an employee assistance programme.

These recommendations, if implemented, should go a long way towards decreasing feelings of animosity between employers and employees when the time comes for the parting of the ways.

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University of
Durban-Westville

CENTRE FOR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT

20 October 1997

Dear Sir/Madam

RESEARCH : PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING

I am a staff member on campus and employed as a counsellor in the Centre for Academic Development. I am presently studying towards a Masters Degree in Medical Science (Social Work) at the University of Durban-Westville.

I hope to produce researched evidence on employees experiences of organisational restructuring and its impact on their personal lives. Your participation in this study is appreciated.

Please note that all information provided by you will be treated with the utmost confidentiality.

Thank you for your particiaption.

Yours sincerely

S. PILLAY (Ms)
20188

THE PSYCHOSOCIAL EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL RESTRUCTURING

QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. Your co-operation is appreciated. The main purpose of this research is to understand your experience of the restructuring (change) process at UDW. Please answer all questions as fully and as honestly as possible. All data obtained will be treated with the utmost confidentiality.

SECTION A: Demographic Details

1. Age

2. Gender:

Male	
Female	

3. Marital Status

Single	
Married	
Divorced	
Widowed	
Separated	

4. Race

African		White	
Coloured		Other	
Indian			

5. What is your official designation? (This question is optional)

----

6. Grade (if applicable)

----

7. Which department are you working in?

   ----

8. How long have you worked at UDW?

Under 5 years	
6 - 10 years	
11 - 15 years	
16 years and over	

9. Length of total work experience?

Under 5 years	
6 - 10 years	
11 - 15 years	
16 years and over	

10. What is your understanding of transformation of the university?

    ----

11. What transformation have you seen take place at UDW over the past 5 to 6 years?

    ----

12. What factors within UDW contributed to change at UDW?

    ----

13. What factors outside UDW, do you think contributed to change at UDW?

    ----

14. Is there resistance to change?

| Yes |
| No |
| Unsure |

If **YES**:

a. What or who constituted the major sources of resistance?

----

b. What do you think were the reasons for such resistance?

----

c. Have you, at times, been personally resistant to change? (explain)

----

15. Do you believe that you have any influence over the process of change?

1. Yes - substantial influence	
2. Yes - some influence	
3. Don't know	
4. Very little influence	
5. No influence at all	

16. Do you think that the quality of your working life has improved over the past 5 to 6 years?

1. Yes - improved	
2. Remained the same	
3. Deteriorated	

Please explain 1, 2 or 3

----

17. What is your understanding of affirmative action?

    ----

18. What effects, if any, of affirmative action have you seen?

    a. Within the University broadly?

        ----

    b. Within your department?

        ----

19. Do you think that you have personally benefited from affirmative action policies?

Yes
No
Unsure

    Please explain.

    ----

20. Do you believe that you have been personally disadvantaged by affirmative action policies?

Yes
No
Unsure

    Explain

    ----

21. Do you believe that the University needs to alter its policy regarding

    a. Recruitment

Yes	
No	
Unsure	

Explain

----

b. Appointments

Yes	
No	
Unsure	

Explain.

----

22. Do you think that your gender has influenced your career in any way over the past 5 years?

Yes	
No	

If, **YES**, explain.

----

23. Do you think that your gender has influenced your working life in any way over the past 5 years?

Yes	
No	

Explain

----

24. Do you think that your Race has influenced your career in any way over the past 5 to 6 years?

Yes	
No	

Explain if **YES** or **NO**.

----

25. Do you think that your race has influenced your working life in any way over the past 5 to 6 years?

Yes	
No	

Explain.

----

26. How would you define staff morale in your department?

very high	
High	
Fair	
Low	
Very low	

27. What do you think are the reasons for this kind of morale?

----

28. Has your department in particular, experienced any changes in the past 5 years?

Yes	
No	
Unsure	

a.   If **YES**, describe the types of changes taken place.

----

b.   Who instituted the changes?

----

c.   Please describe the processes involved in doing this, e.g. consultation, participation at departmental/ faculty level, etc.?

----

29.   Do you believe that the plan for Restructuring will affect your department?

Yes
No
Don't know

If **YES**, please explain.

----

30.   Are you considering the VSP offer?

Yes	
No	
Unsure	

31.   If **YES** or **NO**, please explain your motivation for this.

----

32. Are you concerned about being retrenched?

   ----

33. What are your future plans?

Thank you.

SALOSHINI PILLAY

Psychosocial Responses to Organisational Restructuring

Please rate the following statements in terms of:

1. STRONGLY AGREE	SA
2. AGREE	A
3. NEUTRAL	N
4. DISAGREE	D
5. STRONGLY DISAGREE	SD

	A	N	D
My personal life has changed			
I am very emotionally upset			
I am not able to sleep properly			
I have lost my appetite			
My appetite has increased			
I see no purpose in life			
I am very anxious about the future			
I can't make decisions anymore			
I don't like changes			
I drink more alcohol now			
I feel emotionally drained			
I always feel tired			
I feel positive about transformation			
I cannot concentrate			
I am not confident of myself			
I spend time worrying			
I lack self-esteem			
My sleep pattern has changed			
I have increased my smoking			
I am irritable			
I find it difficult making decisions about my future			
I have been experiencing greater tension in the last few months			
My job means everything to me			
My friends/colleagues have helped me			
I am satisfied with my job			
I have control over my work situation			
I am afraid of losing my job			
I have been absent from work more often in the last few months			
I have more disagreements with my colleagues			
I feel I need couselling			
I need the help of a doctor			
I would like to join a support group			
Management should provide counselling for us			
I need emotional help			

Thank you.
SALOSHINI PILLAY

13. DISPUTE PROCEDURE

13.1 Where a dispute arises between the University management and COMSA which cannot be resolved by means of meetings then either party may declare a dispute and invoke the provisions of this clause.

13.2 In the event of a dispute being declared the party declaring the dispute shall furnish particulars of the issue in dispute within FIVE (5) working days in writing to the other party. Such notice shall set out the nature of the dispute and the proposed terms of settlement.

13.3 Within FIVE (5) working days of the party receiving notice of the dispute it shall respond in writing to the aggrieved party's statement of dispute, also setting out its proposed terms of settlement.

13.4 Within FIVE (5) working days of receipt of the answering statement, a meeting shall be convened between the parties.

13.5 In the event that this meeting does not resolve the dispute then such dispute if it concerns a dispute of right shall be resolved by means of private arbitration or mediation or any other process agreed to by the parties

13.6 In this event an arbitrator or mediator shall be selected from an agreed upon panel or any other agreed arbitrator or mediator may be selected; provided that, if no agreement can be reached on the choice of an arbitrator or mediator, then an arbitrator or mediator shall be appointed by IMSSA.

13.7 The parties shall subject themselves to the usual IMSSA arbitration process, mediation process, or a similar process upon which the parties may agree.

13.8 In this event the costs of the resolution process shall be borne by the management and COMSA in the ratio of 75:25.

13.9 The parties may elect to combine an arbitration and mediation process by means of which an arbitrator shall hear the evidence, make a finding and write his award which will then be sealed in an envelope. The arbitrator may then act as a mediator between the parties in order to effect a negotiated settlement of the dispute. Should the mediation fail the arbitrator shall then remove his award from the sealed envelope and make it known to the parties.

13.10 Interest disputes may likewise be resolved by means of arbitration. In this event both parties will be required to agree to such arbitration. On failure to agree to arbitration, the parties may resort to industrial action subject to the Strike Rules attached hereto.

MISSION STATEMENT

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

The University of Durban-Westville, recognising the need to respond to socio-political changes and to meet the increasing demand for tertiary education, commits itself to the following goals and tasks. These will enable the University to develop its activities for the maximum benefit of the constituencies it serves. In pursuing these goals and tasks, the University will seek to be guided by respect for the principles of University autonomy and academic freedom and the rejection of any form of racism, sexism, sectarianism and political intimidation.

The goals of the University are:

* to make university education accessible to all, especially to students who are financially and educationally disadvantaged, thereby opening up opportunities for their personal growth and empowerment;

* to promote teaching and research in a context of social responsibility and academic excellence;

* to encourage cultural, intercultural and spiritual understanding and tolerance.

The University sees teaching, research and community service as its central activities. In order to facilitate and support these activities, the University sets itself the following tasks:

* the promotion of critical and independent scholarship within a context of social responsibility;

* the development of curricula, syllabi and research projects which are appropriate to the professional, vocational and other needs of the country;

* the establishment of programmes to address specific needs and problems of society;

* the identification of initiatives which will make the material and intellectual resources of the University available to the wider community;

* the establishment of effective processes and mechanisms of democratic representation and accountability within all areas of its operations;

* the pursuit of the appropriate affirmative action policies necessary to redress historical imbalances of race, class, gender and any other form of social disadvantage;

* the cultivation of an environment which is conducive to academic creativity; and the promotion of the social and personal well-being of staff and students through the recognition of individual achievement and co-operative endeavour.

The University of Durban-Westville views this mission statement as a reflection of its core values and commitments. In carrying out its various activities under the guidance of the University seeks to contribute to the development of a just South

SOCIAL REDRESS POLICY

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

Given the history of discrimination, inequity and injustice in our society, it is necessary to adopt measures of redress in order to establish a just and equitable social order. In its Mission Statement, the University has committed itself to "the pursuit of appropriate affirmative action policies necessary to redress historical imbalances of race, class, gender and other form of social disadvantage". As part of a process of institutional restructuring and transformation, and in furtherance of the goals of the Mission Statement, UD-W adopts a Social Redress Policy based on the following principles and processes.

1. The Social Redress Policy will focus on race, gender and class, equity and balance.

2. The policy will apply in three broad categories : admissions, employment, and community outreach.

   Comprehensive strategies in each of these areas will be developed as soon as possible.

3. The policy on student admissions seeks to provide equitable access in order to reflect the regional and national population distribution within the country. The policy will also strive to attain a more representative distribution throughout all faculties.

4. In addition to all other criteria for employment considerations of race, gender and class equity will be taken into account in the appointment of all staff; similar criteria will be used in the promotion and development of existing staff.

5. Discussion between the University and representatives of the community, labour and educational structures about how the programme of the University is to be integrated with the development needs of the region will be initiated.

6. The policy will be implemented with immediate effect and be subject to review within 5 years.